Some context-specific graphical models for discrete longitudinal data

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Automata

Maximum likelihood estimation

State merging

Hypothesis tests

Model selection

APFA equivalent to conventional Markov models



Introduction

- Acyclic probabilistic finite automata¹ (APFA) are a rich family of models for discrete longitudinal data.
- An APFA
 - embodies a set of context-specific conditional independence relations
 - may be represented as a directed multigraph.
 - and is a context-specific graphical model.
- The methodology is highly scalable and is routinely used for high-dimensional genomic data in the Beagle software².
- Here we describe the models and methods from a statistical perspective.

¹Ron, Singer and Tishby (1998). On the learnability and usage of acyclic finite automata. J. Comp. Syst. Sci, 56, 133-52.

²Browning and Browning (2007). Rapid and accurate haplotype phasing and missing-data inference for whole-genome association studies by use of localized haplotype clustering. Am. J. Hum. Gen., 81, 1084-1097

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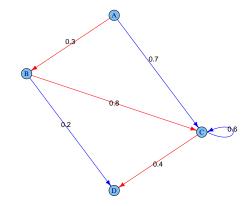


Automata

- Automata are devices that either input strings (as in parsing) or output strings.
- They are used in computer science and machine learning:
 - ► to represent formal languages and regular expressions;
 - for speech recognition,
 - natural language processing,
 - machine translation.
- We first consider the more general probabilistic finite automata (PFA) before focussing on the subclass of APFA.

- ► A PFA is a device to generate random strings of symbols.
- ► It may be displayed as a directed multigraph, in which
 - nodes are called states,
 - there is one initial or root state with only outgoing edges, and one final or sink state with only incoming edges,
 - self-loops (edges from a state to itself) are allowed,
 - each edge e has a symbol $\sigma(e)$ and a probability $\pi(e)$, and
 - outgoing edges from each state have distinct symbols and the sum of their probabilities is unity.

A PFA



red='1'; blue='2'

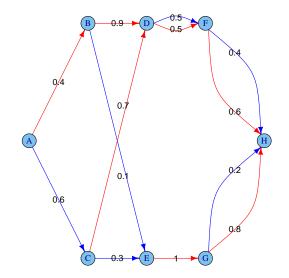
It starts at the root, then repeatedly

- chooses an outgoing edge at random according to the edge probabilities,
- emits the edge symbol,
- traverses the edge to the next state,

until it reaches the sink.

This generates symbol strings of possibly variable length.

An APFA



- ► An APFA A is a PFA that generates strings of constant length.
- ▶ So all root-to-sink paths have the same length *p*.
- So all paths from the root to any specific state have the same length, called the level of the state.
- ▶ Regard the strings as realizations of a random *p*-vector
 X = (X₁, X₂,...X_p).
- ▶ Distinct root-to-sink paths e = (e₁, e₂,..., e_p) generate distinct realizations of X = σ(e) = (σ(e₁), σ(e₂),..., σ(e_p)).
- The sample space of X is X(A) = {σ(e) : e ∈ E(A)}, where E(A) is the set of root-to-sink paths in A.
- For any x ∈ X(A) there exists a unique root-to-sink path e such that x = σ(e): we write this as e = σ⁻¹(x).

- ► The sample space of X_i, X_i, is the set of symbols on edges incoming to a level *i* state.
- The parameters are the edge probabilities π = {π(e) : e ∈ E(A)}.
- The $\pi(\mathbf{e})$ specify the right-hand side of

$$\Pr(\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}) = \Pr(X_1 = x_1) \prod_{i=2...p} \Pr(X_i = x_i | X_{< i} = x_{< i}) \quad (1)$$

where $\mathbf{X}_{< i} = (X_1, ..., X_{i-1}), \ \mathbf{x}_{\geq i} = (x_i, ..., x_p), \ \mathbf{Y}_{\geq i; \leq j} = (Y_i, ..., Y_j) \text{ etc.}$

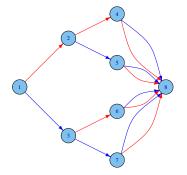
► When the data generating process arrives at a level *i* state *w*, the distribution of X_{>i} does not depend on the path the process took to arrive at *w*. So

$$\mathbf{X}_{>i} \perp \!\!\!\perp \mathbf{X}_{\leq i} | \mathbf{X}_{\leq i} \in \mathcal{C}(w) \tag{2}$$

where $C(w) = \{\sigma(\mathbf{e}) : \mathbf{e} \in \mathcal{P}(w)\}$, and $\mathcal{P}(w)$ is the set of paths from the root to w.

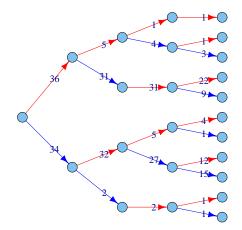
Thus an APFA expresses a set of context-specific conditional independence constraints on the distribution of X.

Maximal and minimal APFA for three binary variables





A sample tree for N = 70 observations of 4 binary variables



To derive the maximal (unrestricted) APFA, contract the states at the last level.

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Likelihood

We draw independent samples $\mathbf{x}^{(v)}$ for v = 1...N from \mathcal{A} , and want to estimate the $\pi(e)$. We have

$$\Pr(\mathbf{x}) = \prod_{i=1...p} \pi(e_i)$$

where $\mathbf{e} = \sigma^{-1}(\mathbf{x})$ so that the likelihood of the sample is

$$\prod_{\nu=1\dots N}\prod_{i=1\dots p}\pi(e_i^{(\nu)})$$

where ${f e}^{(v)}=\sigma^{-1}({f x}^{(v)}).$ This can be re-written as $\prod \pi(e)^{n(e)}$

where
$$n(e)$$
 is the edge count, i.e. the number of observations in the sample whose root-to-sink path traverses the edge e .

 $e \in E(\mathcal{A})$

So the log-likelihood is:

$$\ell(\mathcal{A}) = \sum_{e \in E(\mathcal{A})} n(e) \log \pi(e).$$

which is easy to maximize:

$$\hat{\pi}(e) = \frac{n(e)}{n(v)},\tag{3}$$

where n(v) is the node count of v, the source node of e.

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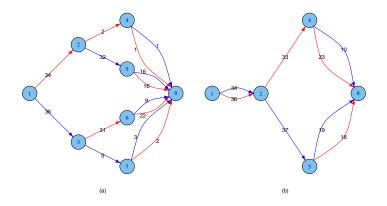
APFA equivalent to conventional Markov models



State merging

- Simplifying APFA involves state merging.
- Only states at the same level may be merged.
- Suppose we wish to merge state *w* into state *v*.
- That is, redirect all incoming edges to w to v instead, and all outgoing edges from w to outgo from v instead.
- This can lead to the existence of outgoing edges from v with duplicate symbols.
- Any such edges must therefore also be merged, and if their target nodes are distinct, these must also be merged.
- ► So the operation is recursive.
- ► Write L(s) for the merge-list induced by merging s. E.g. L({2,3}) = {2,3}, {5,7}, {4,6}.

An example of state merging



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- ► We can construct likelihood ratio tests of nested hypotheses, that is of A₀ versus A, where A₀ is a submodel of A.
- For example, for the APFA shown 3 slides back, the deviance is

$$G^2 = -2[\hat{\ell}(\mathcal{A}) - \hat{\ell}(\mathcal{A}_0)]$$
(4)

$$= 53.1228$$
 (5)

- ► Under A₀, G² ~ χ²(k) where k is the difference in model dimension (number of free parameters) between the models.
- ▶ By inspection we see that A has 7 free parameters and A₀ has 4, so k = 3, and clearly A₀ fits very poorly.

The same test can be computed by applying a standard contingency table test of independence to the table

source	(1,1)	(1,2)	(2,1)	(2,2)
2	2	3	22	9
3	16	16	1	1

► Recall that for an r × c table of counts {n_{ij}}_{i=1...r;j=1...c} the deviance is

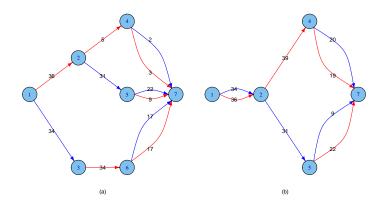
$$G^{2} = 2 \sum_{i,j} n_{ij} \log \frac{n_{ij} n_{++}}{n_{i+} n_{+j}}$$
(6)

with degrees of freedom given as

$$k = (\#\{i: n_{i+} > 0\} - 1)(\#\{j: n_{+j} > 0\} - 1)$$
(7)

where n_{i+} and n_{+j} are the row and column totals, respectively.

Another example



Adjusted degrees of freedom

As before we can construct the contingency table

source	(1,1)	(1,2)	(2,1)	(2,2)	and find $G^2 = 67.288$ on 3 d.f.
2	2	3	22	9	and find $G^2 = 07.288$ on 3 d.f.
3	17	17	0	0	

or we can decompose the test

element of $\mathcal{L}(2,3)$		< 2 ble	G ²	df	
(2,3)	5 34	31 0	67.112	1	and find $G^2 = 67.288$ on 2 d.f.
(4,6)	2 17	3 17	0.176	1	
sum			67.288	2	

- This is a sharper result that takes account of inestimability.
- ► We call these the adjusted degrees of freedom.
- For large APFA the unadjusted and adjusted degrees of freedom can differ considerably.

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- The sample tree is constructed and then simplified in a series of state merging operations.
- Two nodes v and w at level i are merged

 $\Pr(\text{future}|\mathbf{X}_{\leq i} \text{ goes through } v) = \Pr(\text{future}|\mathbf{X}_{\leq i} \text{ goes through } w).$

or in other words if $\forall \mathbf{x}_{>i}$,

$$\Pr(\mathbf{X}_{>i} = \mathbf{x}_{>i} | \mathbf{X}_{\leq i} \in \mathcal{C}(v)) = \Pr(\mathbf{X}_{>i} = \mathbf{x}_{>i} | \mathbf{X}_{\leq i} \in \mathcal{C}(w)).$$

- The decision is based on a measure of similarity δ(v, w) between nodes v and w, and a fixed threshold, μ.
- v and w are called similar if δ(v, w) < μ: otherwise they are called dissimilar. Dissimilar nodes are not merged.</p>

- 1. Start with the sample tree.
- **2.** From level 1 to p 1:

Repeatedly merge similar nodes until all the resulting nodes are pairwise dissimilar.

3. Merge all nodes at level *p*.

Similarity scores

Ron et al proposed the similarity score

$$\delta_{R}(v,w) = \max_{k=i+1,...,k} \max_{\mathbf{X}_{i+1},...,k} |\hat{\mathbf{X}}_{\leq i} \in \mathcal{C}(v)) - \hat{\Pr}(\mathbf{X}_{i+1,...,k} = \mathbf{x}_{i+1,...,k} | \mathbf{X}_{\leq i} \in \mathcal{C}(w))|$$

 We propose instead a score based on the penalized likelihood criterion

$$IC(\mathcal{A}) = -2\hat{\ell}(\mathcal{A}) + \alpha \dim(\mathcal{A})$$
(8)

namely

$$\delta_{IC}(v,w) = IC(A_0) - IC(A)$$

= $G^2 - \alpha k$ (9)

We set $\mu = 0$, so that two nodes are similar whenever merging them decreases the IC.

- ► Thus the selection algorithm seeks to minimize the IC.
- We are currently comparing the performance of this algorithm with the one in Beagle.

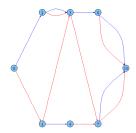
An example

Level	Node pair	G^2	k	δ_{IC}	Action
1	1,2	53.98	5	32.74	go to next level
2	3,4	20.78	3	8.03	
2	3,5	1.03	3	-11.71	
2	3,6	5.60	3	-7.14	
2	4,5	58.49	3	45.74	
2	4,6	0.36	1	-3.89	
2	5,6	7.43	3	-5.31	merge 5 into 3
2	3,4	61.36	3	48.62	
2	3,6	7.60	3	-5.15	
2	4,6	0.36	1	-3.89	merge 6 into 3
2	3,4	56.60	3	43.85	go to next level
3	7,8	2.88	1	-1.37	
3	7,9	0.05	1	-4.19	
3	8,9	5.40	1	1.15	merge 9 into 7
3	7,8	6.41	1	2.16	stop

An example

(a)

(b)



(C)

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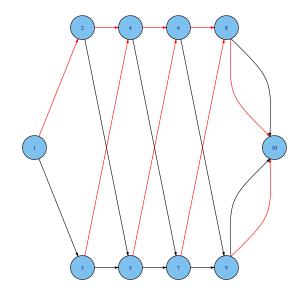
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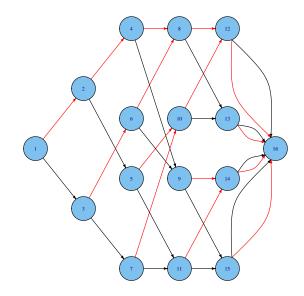
Independence



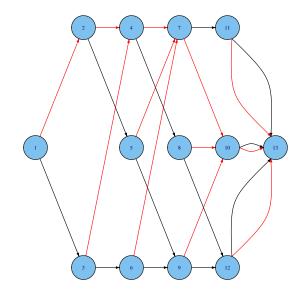
First order Markov

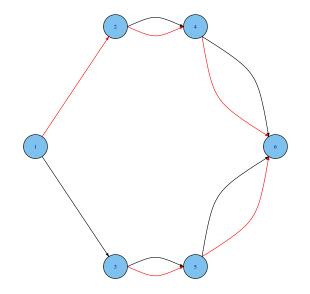


Second order Markov



Variable order Markov





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- This talk has tried to describe APFA as statistical models.
- An APFA embodies a set of context-specific conditional independence relations, and may be represented as a directed multigraph.
- ► So it may be called a context-specific graphical model.
- APFA form a very rich class of models for discrete longitudinal data.
- We have shown how likelihood ratio tests may be constructed, and used this to modify the selection algorithm of Ron et al. (1998).
- We are preparing an R package to work with the models.