

# gPy User Manual

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## Abstract

`gPy` is a Python package intended to help students (and others) understand algorithms related to graphical models, particularly Bayesian networks. Python was chosen since it is easy to learn, high-level and because it is ‘executable pseudo-code’. Why present an algorithm using non-executable pseudo-code when an executable version is possible? The object-oriented features of Python are used to reinforce commonalities between different graphical models.

`gPy` does not contain any algorithms not found elsewhere and since it is implemented in an interpreted language it will not provide the fastest implementation of those algorithms.

The only thing you need to have to use `gPy` is an installation of Python 2.4 or higher. If you’re running a reasonably recent distribution of Linux, Python 2.4 will probably already be available. In any event, the latest version of Python (for Linux, Windows and Mac) can be downloaded from [www.python.org](http://www.python.org)

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# Chapter 1

## How to read this manual

This manual contains many examples of using `gPy` in a Python interactive session. To do these examples yourself, just start the Python interpreter and type in the stuff (displayed in **this font**) which comes after the prompt `>>>` . Stuff in normal font is my commentary on what you are doing, so does not provide it as input to the Python interpreter. Many examples produce output (also in **this font**), and the Python module `doctest` has been used to check that the output you see here is what is actually produced. There is one small exception. Sometimes the output does not fit on one line of text, so line breaks have been added to maintain readability. Note that no attempt has been made to fit each Python examples on a single page.

## Chapter 2

# Quick start

Assuming that you have installed `gPy` (and Python!) so that your Python installation can find the `gPy` modules, you can do the following to get a quick idea of how to use `gPy`. Firstly, grab the *Asia* Bayesian network from the `gPy.Examples` modules. This network has the name `asia` in that module so you do:

```
>>> from gPy.Examples import asia
```

Check that the name `asia` really does refer to an object in the class `BN`.

```
>>> type(asia)
<class 'gPy.Models.BN'>
```

The obvious thing to do now is to have a look at the `BN`.

```
>>> print asia
```

Smoking	Bronchitis	
	absent	present
non smoker	0.70	0.30
smoker	0.40	0.60

Smoking	Cancer	
	absent	present
non smoker	0.99	0.01
smoker	0.90	0.10

Bronchitis	TbOrCa	Dyspnea	
		absent	present

absent	false	0.90	0.10
absent	true	0.30	0.70
present	false	0.20	0.80
present	true	0.10	0.90

Smoking	
nonsmoker	smoker
0.50	0.50

Cancer	Tuberculosis	TbOrCa	
		false	true
absent	absent	1.00	0.00
absent	present	0.00	1.00
present	absent	0.00	1.00
present	present	0.00	1.00

VisitAsia	Tuberculosis	
	absent	present
no_visit	0.99	0.01
visit	0.95	0.05

VisitAsia	
no_visit	visit
0.99	0.01

TbOrCa	XRay	
	abnormal	normal
false	0.05	0.95
true	0.98	0.02

So, the textual representation of a BN is simply a list of the CPTs in the BN. Each CPT in the BN can be accessed via the name of its child variable.

```
>>> print asia['Bronchitis']
```

Smoking	Bronchitis	
	absent	present
nonsmoker	0.70	0.30
smoker	0.40	0.60

```
>>> print asia['Smoking']
```

Smoking	
nonsmoker	smoker
0.50	0.50

A basic operation for graphical models is *factor multiplication*, CPTs are a special sort of factor. To multiply two CPTs we just use the `*` operator.

```
>>> example_factor = asia['Bronchitis'] * asia['Smoking']
>>> print example_factor
```

Bronchitis	Smoking	
absent	nonsmoker	0.35
absent	smoker	0.20
present	nonsmoker	0.15
present	smoker	0.30

`example_factor` is a `Factor` object, whereas e.g. `asia['Bronchitis']` is a `CPT` object (a special case—a subclass—of a `Factor` object). This is why they are printed out differently.

```
>>> type(example_factor)
<class 'gPy.Parameters.Factor'>
>>> type(asia['Bronchitis'])
<class 'gPy.Parameters.CPT'>
```

Factors are functions mapping combinations of values of discrete variables to numbers. These numbers don't have to be probabilities.

```
>>> example_factor *= 5
>>> print example_factor
```

Bronchitis	Smoking	
absent	nonsmoker	1.75
absent	smoker	1.00

```

present | nonsmoker | 0.75
present | smoker   | 1.50

```

Note that we just altered the object `example_factor` by multiplying it by 5. Many `gPy` operations alter objects so it is sometimes useful to make copies.

```
>>> my_copy = example_factor.copy()
```

Simple numbers are allowed to be treated as factors. Also we can iterate over all the CPTs in a BN. These two facts make it easy to make a factor which is an explicit representation of the full joint distribution defined by `asia`. If you're not familiar with using the Python interpreter be careful: On the first line with `...` put a space so that the `j` of `joint` lines up with the `o` of `for`. This provides white space indentation which Python uses to make program blocks. Just hit return when you get the second `...` prompt.

```

>>> joint = 1
>>> for cpt in asia:
...   joint *= cpt
...
>>> print joint

```

Bronchitis	Cancer	Dyspnea	Smoking	TbOrCa	Tuberculosis	VisitAsia	XRay	
absent	absent	absent	nonsmoker	false	absent	no_visit	abnormal	0.02
absent	absent	absent	nonsmoker	false	absent	no_visit	normal	0.29
absent	absent	absent	nonsmoker	false	absent	visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	nonsmoker	false	absent	visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	nonsmoker	false	present	no_visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	nonsmoker	false	present	no_visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	nonsmoker	false	present	visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	nonsmoker	false	present	visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	nonsmoker	true	absent	no_visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	nonsmoker	true	absent	no_visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	nonsmoker	true	absent	visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	nonsmoker	true	absent	visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	nonsmoker	true	present	no_visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	nonsmoker	true	present	no_visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	nonsmoker	true	present	visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	nonsmoker	true	present	visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	smoker	false	absent	no_visit	abnormal	0.01
absent	absent	absent	smoker	false	absent	no_visit	normal	0.15
absent	absent	absent	smoker	false	absent	visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	smoker	false	absent	visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	smoker	false	present	no_visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	smoker	false	present	no_visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	smoker	false	present	visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	smoker	false	present	visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	smoker	true	absent	no_visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	smoker	true	absent	no_visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	smoker	true	absent	visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	smoker	true	absent	visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	smoker	true	present	no_visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	smoker	true	present	no_visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	smoker	true	present	visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	absent	smoker	true	present	visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	present	nonsmoker	false	absent	no_visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	present	nonsmoker	false	absent	no_visit	normal	0.03
absent	absent	present	nonsmoker	false	absent	visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	present	nonsmoker	false	absent	visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	present	nonsmoker	false	present	no_visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	present	nonsmoker	false	present	no_visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	present	nonsmoker	false	present	visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	present	nonsmoker	false	present	visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	present	nonsmoker	true	absent	no_visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	present	nonsmoker	true	absent	no_visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	present	nonsmoker	true	absent	visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	present	nonsmoker	true	absent	visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	present	nonsmoker	true	present	no_visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	present	nonsmoker	true	present	no_visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	present	nonsmoker	true	present	visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	present	nonsmoker	true	present	visit	normal	0.00
absent	absent	present	smoker	false	absent	no_visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	present	smoker	false	absent	no_visit	normal	0.02
absent	absent	present	smoker	false	absent	visit	abnormal	0.00
absent	absent	present	smoker	false	absent	visit	normal	0.00





present	present	present	nonsmoker	true	absent	visit	abnormal	0.00
present	present	present	nonsmoker	true	absent	visit	normal	0.00
present	present	present	nonsmoker	true	present	no_visit	abnormal	0.00
present	present	present	nonsmoker	true	present	no_visit	normal	0.00
present	present	present	nonsmoker	true	present	visit	abnormal	0.00
present	present	present	nonsmoker	true	present	visit	normal	0.00
present	present	present	smoker	false	absent	no_visit	abnormal	0.00
present	present	present	smoker	false	absent	no_visit	normal	0.00
present	present	present	smoker	false	absent	visit	abnormal	0.00
present	present	present	smoker	false	absent	visit	normal	0.00
present	present	present	smoker	false	present	no_visit	abnormal	0.00
present	present	present	smoker	false	present	no_visit	normal	0.00
present	present	present	smoker	false	present	visit	abnormal	0.00
present	present	present	smoker	false	present	visit	normal	0.00
present	present	present	smoker	true	absent	no_visit	abnormal	0.03
present	present	present	smoker	true	absent	no_visit	normal	0.00
present	present	present	smoker	true	absent	visit	abnormal	0.00
present	present	present	smoker	true	absent	visit	normal	0.00
present	present	present	smoker	true	present	no_visit	abnormal	0.00
present	present	present	smoker	true	present	no_visit	normal	0.00
present	present	present	smoker	true	present	visit	abnormal	0.00
present	present	present	smoker	true	present	visit	normal	0.00

The default precision of two decimal places causes a lot of rounding errors in the presentation. To change this pull the `Parameters` module into your namespace and alter the value of its `precision` variable.

```
>>> import gPy.Parameters
>>> gPy.Parameters.precision = 4
```

If you were to print out `joint` again (I won't since it takes up so much space!) you would get some more numbers after the decimal point.

## Chapter 3

# Hypergraphs

In `gPy` *hypergraphs*, rather than graphs, are the central structure; although the latter still play an important role. A hypergraph ( $\mathcal{H}$ ) is simply a collection of subsets of a finite set ( $H$ ). These subsets ( $h \in \mathcal{H}$ ) are known as *hyperedges*.  $H$  is called the *base set*. The elements of  $H$  are known as *vertices*. In `gPy`, hypergraphs are restricted so that  $H = \bigcup_{h \in \mathcal{H}} h$ : every element of the base set is contained in at least one hyperedge. Table 3.1 gives some example hypergraphs.

### 3.1 Constructing hypergraphs

In `gPy`, hypergraphs are object of the class `gPy.Hypergraph.Hypergraph` (or one of its subclasses). To construct a hypergraph it suffices to send the desired hyperedges to the `Hypergraph` constructor method:

```
>>> from gPy.Hypergraphs import Hypergraph
>>> hg1 = Hypergraph(['AB', 'BC', 'CD', 'DA'])
>>> hg2 = Hypergraph((), ['A'], ['A', 'B', 'C'])
>>> print hg1
( {B, C}, {A, D}, {A, B}, {C, D} )
>>> print hg2
( {A, B, C}, {}, {A} )
```

$\mathcal{H}$
$(\{A\}, \{A\}, \{A, B\})$
$\{\emptyset, \{A\}, \{A, B\}\}$
$\{\{A, B\}, \{B, C\}, \{A, C\}\}$
$\{\{A, B\}, \{B, C\}, \{C, D\}, \{A, D\}\}$
$\{\{A, B\}, \{B, C\}\}$

Table 3.1: Example hypergraphs

$\mathcal{H}$	Simple?	Reduced?	Graphical?	Decomposable?
$(\{A\}, \{A\}, \{A, B\})$	N	N	Y	Y
$\{\emptyset, \{A\}, \{A, B\}\}$	Y	N	Y	Y
$\{\{A, B\}, \{B, C\}, \{A, C\}\}$	Y	Y	N	N
$\{\{A, B\}, \{B, C\}, \{C, D\}, \{A, D\}\}$	Y	Y	Y	N
$\{\{A, B\}, \{B, C\}\}$	Y	Y	Y	Y

Table 3.2: Classification of example hypergraphs

Each vertex should be some immutable object (in most real applications it will be a string—the name of some random variable). Each hyperedge is an *iterable* of vertices, this will normally just be a sequence such as a list or tuple, but sets can be used as well. Note that in Python a string is seen as a sequence of characters. This was used in the construction of `hg1` above.

Empty hypergraphs are permissible, in fact the empty tuple is the default collection of hyperedges.

```
>>> e = Hypergraph()
>>> print e
( )
```

Empty hypergraphs are useful as ‘initial’ hypergraphs to which hyperedges can be added later.

### 3.1.1 Constructing hypergraphs with specific properties

`gPy` provides the classes `SimpleHypergraph`, `ReducedHypergraph`, `GraphicalHypergraph`, `ReducedGraphicalHypergraph`, `DecomposableHypergraph` and `ReducedDecomposableHypergraph` for hypergraphs with specific properties. A *simple* hypergraph has no repeated hyperedges. A *reduced* hypergraph contains no hyperedge contained in another (and so is always simple). A *graphical* hypergraph is such that its reduction constitutes the cliques of some undirected graph. A *decomposable* hypergraph is a graphical hypergraph whose reduction constitutes the cliques of some triangulated graph.

Table 3.2 repeats the example hypergraphs of Table 3.1 but with their classifications added. Fig 3.1 gives the hierarchical relationships between these classes.

To construct objects of any of `Hypergraph`’s subclasses, one option is to send a `Hypergraph` to the class constructor, if this object meets the conditions of the subclass (i.e. is reduced, graphical, decomposable, etc) then an object of the required class is returned, if not an exception is raised. The returned object will share its attributes with the inputted object. Here’s some examples of successful attempts to construct various objects:

```
>>> from gPy.Hypergraphs import *
>>> sg = SimpleHypergraph(Hypergraph(['ABC', 'BCD']))
>>> print sg
```

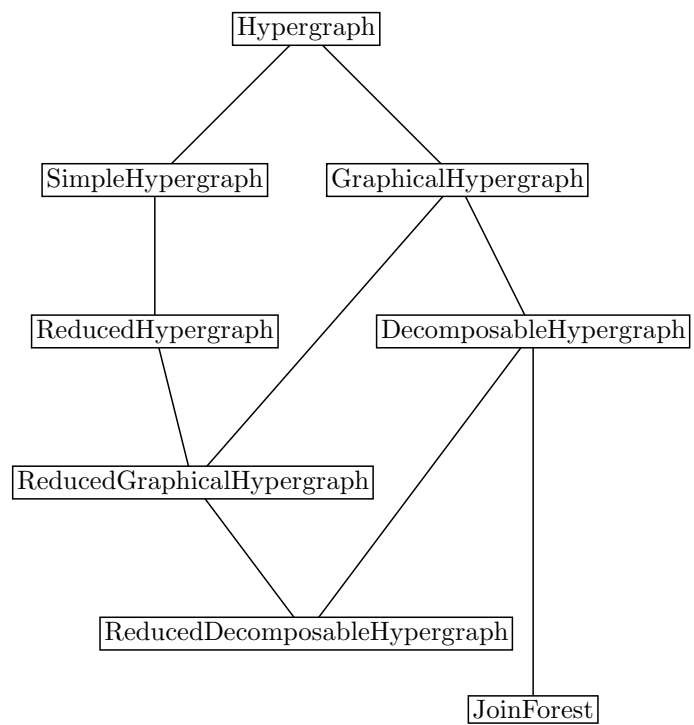


Figure 3.1: Hypergraph hierarchy

```

{ {B, C, D}, {A, B, C} }
>>> dg = DecomposableHypergraph(Hypergraph(['ABC', 'BCD']))
>>> gg = GraphicalHypergraph(Hypergraph(['AB', 'BC', 'CD', 'AD']))
>>> rg = ReducedHypergraph(Hypergraph(['AB', 'BC', 'CA']))

```

Note that the simple hypergraph `sg` is printed out using `'{'` and `'}'` as delimiters to make evident that that it is a `set` of hyperedges. Generally, a hypergraph need not be a set of hyperedges due to the possible existence of repeated hyperedges.

Here are some failed attempts to construct particular sorts of hypergraphs:

```

>>> hg1 = Hypergraph(['ABC', 'BC', 'CD', 'DA'])
>>> print hg1
( {A, B, C}, {B, C}, {A, D}, {C, D} )
>>> rhg = ReducedHypergraph(hg1)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
    File "/home/jc/godot/research/gPy/gPy/Hypergraphs.py", line 1679, in __init__
      raise RedundancyError("%s is not reduced due to %s" % (hypergraph,h))
gPy.Hypergraphs.RedundancyError: ( {A, B, C}, {B, C}, {A, D}, {C, D} ) is not reduced due to {A, B, C}
>>> ghg = GraphicalHypergraph(hg1)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
    File "/home/jc/godot/research/gPy/gPy/Hypergraphs.py", line 1959, in __init__
      raise GraphicalityError("%s is not graphical" % hypergraph)
gPy.Hypergraphs.GraphicalityError: ( {A, B, C}, {B, C}, {A, D}, {C, D} )
is not graphical
>>> dhg = DecomposableHypergraph(hg1)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
    File "/home/jc/godot/research/gPy/gPy/Hypergraphs.py", line 2049, in __init__
      JoinForest(hypergraph,modify,trace,elimination_order)
    File "/home/jc/godot/research/gPy/gPy/Hypergraphs.py", line 2159, in __init__
      hypergraph._uforest = hypergraph.join_forest()
    File "/home/jc/godot/research/gPy/gPy/Hypergraphs.py", line 814, in join_forest
      raise DecomposabilityError("%s is not decomposable" % self)
gPy.Hypergraphs.DecomposabilityError: ( {A, B, C}, {B, C}, {A, D}, {C, D} )
is not decomposable

```

The constructor for the general hypergraph class `Hypergraph` can also be used in this way: being sent a hypergraph as input rather than a collection of edges:

```

>>> dg = DecomposableHypergraph(Hypergraph(['ABC', 'BCD']))
>>> type(dg)
<class 'gPy.Hypergraphs.DecomposableHypergraph'>
>>> new_hg = Hypergraph(dg)
>>> type(new_hg)
<class 'gPy.Hypergraphs.Hypergraph'>

```

This approach would typically be used if we want to ‘forget’ that a particular hypergraph has certain properties. For example, suppose we wanted to add a redundant hyperedge to a hypergraph of class `ReducedHypergraph` thus rendering it no longer reduced. Doing so would cause an exception, so it is necessary to construct a `Hypergraph` object first and then add the redundant hyperedge:

```
>>> rg = ReducedHypergraph(Hypergraph(['AB', 'BC', 'CA']))
>>> rg.add_hyperedge('A')
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
  File "/home/jc/godot/research/gPy/gPy/Hypergraphs.py", line 689, in add_hyperedge
    raise RedundancyError("%s would make %s no longer reduced" % (hyperedge,self))
gPy.Hypergraphs.RedundancyError: Adding {A} would make { {B, C}, {A, C}, {A, B} }
no longer reduced
>>> hg = Hypergraph(rg)
>>> hg.add_hyperedge('A')
>>> print hg
( {B, C}, {A, C}, {A, B}, {A} )
```

As a convenience it is also possible to construct any type of hypergraph directly from hyperedges, exactly as described for the `Hypergraph` class in Section 3.1:

```
>>> dg1 = DecomposableHypergraph(['ABC', 'BCD'])
>>> gg1 = GraphicalHypergraph(['AB', 'BC', 'CD', 'AD'])
>>> rg1 = ReducedHypergraph(['AB', 'BC', 'CA'])
```

When called in this way a temporary internal `Hypergraph` is constructed from the hyperedges, and the object is constructed from this temporary `Hypergraph` exactly as it had been supplied as an argument.

### 3.1.2 Constructing hypergraphs without checks

In some cases you may know that a particular hypergraph has the properties required for a hypergraph class ‘below’ it in the hierarchy (Fig 3.1) and wish to avoid the cost of pointlessly checking that it meets the necessary conditions. In this case, an object of the relevant class can be constructed using the optional `check` argument set to `False` (the default it `True`). This facility should only be used if you are absolutely sure that no checking is required: otherwise you can, for example, construct a `ReducedHypergraph` object that is not reduced!

```
>>> hg = Hypergraph(['BC', 'AB', 'A', 'CD'])
>>> print hg
( {B, C}, {A, B}, {A}, {C, D} )
>>> r = ReducedHypergraph(hg.copy())
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
  File "/home/jc/godot/research/gPy/gPy/Hypergraphs.py", line 678, in __init__
```

```

    if hypergraph is None:
gPy.Hypergraphs.RedundancyError: ( {B, C}, {A, B}, {A}, {C, D} ) is
not reduced due to frozenset(['A'])
>>> r = ReducedHypergraph(hg.copy(),check=False)
>>> print r
{ {B, C}, {A, B}, {A}, {C, D} }

```

### 3.1.3 Constructing hypergraphs by copying existing hypergraphs

New hypergraphs can be made by copying existing hypergraphs. The copy is a ‘deep’ copy: it is completely independent from the original, any alterations done to one will have no effect on the other.

```

>>> hg = Hypergraph(['AB', 'BC', 'CD', 'DA'])
>>> hg_cp = hg.copy()
>>> hg.add_hyperedge('EF')
>>> hg_cp.remove_hyperedge('AB')
>>> print hg
( {E, F}, {B, C}, {A, D}, {A, B}, {C, D} )
>>> print hg_cp
( {C, D}, {B, C}, {A, D} )

```

### 3.1.4 Constructing hypergraphs by modifying existing hypergraphs

It is often useful to construct a hypergraph meeting certain conditions from a hypergraph which does not meet these conditions. For example, we can construct a reduced hypergraph from an arbitrary hypergraph by simply deleting redundant hyperedges. Graphical and decomposable hypergraphs can be constructed from arbitrary hypergraphs by merging hyperedges. To do this set the optional `modify` constructor argument to `True` (default is `False`). Firstly, consider doing this for `ReducedHypergraph` objects since in this case there is one obvious choice for modification—deleting redundant hyperedges:

```

>>> hg = Hypergraph(['BC', 'AB', 'A', 'CD'])
>>> print hg
( {B, C}, {A, B}, {A}, {C, D} )
>>> rhg = ReducedHypergraph(hg.copy(),modify=True)
>>> print rhg
{ {B, C}, {A, B}, {C, D} }

```

At time of writing `gPy` provides no way of constructing `GraphicalHypergraph` and `ReducedGraphicalHypergraph` objects from hypergraphs which fail to meet the necessary conditions. However, it is possible to construct a `DecomposableHypergraph` from a non-decomposable hypergraph.

## Constructing decomposable hypergraphs

To construct a decomposable hypergraph—a `DecomposableHypergraph` object—from an existing hypergraph there are a number of options. If the existing hypergraph is decomposable then calls such as:

```
>>> dg = DecomposableHypergraph(Hypergraph(['ABC', 'BCD']))
>>> dg = DecomposableHypergraph(['ABC', 'BCD'])
>>> dg = DecomposableHypergraph(['ABC', 'BCD'],check=False)
```

suffice as previously explained.

If it is not safe to assume that the input hypergraph is decomposable then it can be modified to become decomposable by having some of its hyperedges merged. Each *elimination ordering* of the vertices of an arbitrary hypergraph determines a decomposable hypergraph, so one option for making decomposable hypergraphs is to supply such an ordering:

```
>>> hg = Hypergraph(['A', 'AB', 'BC', 'CD', 'AD'])
>>> dg = DecomposableHypergraph(hg,modify=True,elimination_order='ABCD')
>>> print dg
( {B, C, D}, {A, B, D} )
>>> print hg
( {B, C, D}, {A, B, D} )
>>> print type(dg)
<class 'gPy.Hypergraphs.DecomposableHypergraph'>
>>> print type(hg)
<class 'gPy.Hypergraphs.Hypergraph'>
```

Note that `hg` and `dg` are now identical except for their class. Had we wished to keep the original `hg` intact we would have sent `hg.copy()` to the `DecomposableHypergraph` constructor instead.

Some elimination orders are better than others in the sense that they do not create big hyperedges in the constructed decomposable hypergraph:

```
>>> hg = Hypergraph(['AB', 'AC', 'AD', 'AE'])
>>> print hg
( {A, E}, {A, D}, {A, C}, {A, B} )
>>> dg_bad = DecomposableHypergraph(hg.copy(),modify=True,elimination_order='ABCDE')
>>> dg_good = DecomposableHypergraph(hg.copy(),modify=True,elimination_order='BCDEA')
>>> print dg_bad
( {A, B, C, D, E} )
>>> print dg_good
( {A, E}, {A, D}, {A, C}, {A, B} )
>>> dg_lessbad = DecomposableHypergraph(hg.copy(),modify=True,
... elimination_order='BCADE')
>>> print dg_lessbad
( {A, C}, {A, B}, {A, D, E} )
```

`hg` here is in fact already decomposable, but by choosing to eliminate `A` first we construct `dg_bad` in which all hyperedges of `hg` have been merged into one big hyperedge. The elimination order where `A` is left to last avoids the need to merge any hyperedges (`dg_good`) whereas `dg_lessbad` does some unnecessary merging, but less than `dg_bad`.

Naturally, it would be nice to automatically find good elimination orders. Unfortunately this is a NP-hard problem, but we can still find reasonable strategies. In `gPy`, if no elimination order is supplied restricted maximum cardinality search on hypergraphs [3] is used to find one. Maximum cardinality search has the nice property that if the input hypergraph is already decomposable an ordering is found which does not create any new hyperedges:

```
>>> dg = DecomposableHypergraph(hg.copy(),modify=True)
>>> print dg
( {A, E}, {A, D}, {A, C}, {A, B} )
```

If the input hypergraph is not decomposable then the ordering is usually reasonably good, but not always. Here's an example of a bad ordering ('ABCDE') creating a hypergraph with big hyperedges and the internally generated maximum cardinality search ordering doing a better job:

```
>>> hg2 = Hypergraph(['AB', 'BC', 'CD', 'DA', 'AE'])
>>> dg2a = DecomposableHypergraph(hg2.copy(),modify=True,elimination_order='ABCDE')
>>> dg2b = DecomposableHypergraph(hg2.copy(),modify=True)
>>> print dg2a
( {B, C, D, E}, {A, B, D, E} )
>>> print dg2b
( {B, C, D}, {A, B, D}, {A, E} )
```

### 3.1.5 Potential pitfalls in creating hypergraphs

Recall that a new hypergraph constructed from an old one has identical attributes to the original hypergraph. This can lead a hypergraph to get into an illegal state:

```
>>> rg = ReducedHypergraph(Hypergraph(['AB', 'BC', 'CA']))
>>> hg = Hypergraph(rg)
>>> hg.add_hyperedge('A')
>>> rg._hyperedges is hg._hyperedges
True
>>> print rg
{ {B, C}, {A, C}, {A, B}, {A} }
>>> type(rg)
<class 'gPy.Hypergraphs.ReducedHypergraph'>
```

Because `rg` and `hg` share the same `_hyperedges` attribute, adding the redundant hyperedge to `hg` also adds it to `rg` even though the latter is of class `ReducedHypergraph`. This behaviour is allowed in `gPy` since it is sometimes

useful to have distinct hypergraph objects sharing the same attributes. Also, it is very easy to avoid the problem of illegal states: construct hypergraphs using unnamed input hypergraphs, in which case the input hypergraph will be immediately garbage collected. This approach was taken in many of the examples given above. Alternatively, a named input hypergraph can be used if it not used afterwards (and so will be garbage collected at some point), or it can even be explicitly deleted (although this would rarely be necessary). If you want to construct a new hypergraph from an existing one, and wish the two to have independent existences, just use a copy—which will be a deep copy—of the existing hypergraph to construct the new one:

```
>>> hg = Hypergraph(('AB', 'BC', 'CD'))
>>> rhg = ReducedHypergraph(hg.copy())
>>> hg.add_hyperedge('A')
>>> print hg
( {B, C}, {A, B}, {A}, {C, D} )
>>> print rhg
{ {B, C}, {A, B}, {C, D} }
```

## 3.2 Getting information about hypergraphs

### 3.2.1 Basic information

```
>>> from gPy.Hypergraphs import *
>>> hg5 = Hypergraph(['TE', 'TAG', 'AGS', 'FOO'])
>>> print hg5
( {F, O}, {A, G, T}, {A, G, S}, {E, T} )
>>> 'TE' in hg5
True
>>> 'TA' in hg5
False
>>> ['T', 'E'] in hg5
True
>>> ('T', 'E') in hg5
True
>>> set(['T', 'E']) in hg5
True
>>>
```

### 3.2.2 Paths in hypergraphs

```
Python 2.4.3 (#1, Jul 26 2006, 20:13:39)
[GCC 3.4.6] on linux2
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
>>> from gPy.Hypergraphs import *
>>> hg4 = Hypergraph(['AT', 'TE', 'TAG', 'AGS'])
```

```

>>> print hg4
( {A, G, T}, {A, T}, {A, G, S}, {E, T} )
>>> hg4.reachable(['T'], ['A'])
['E', 'G', 'S']
>>> hg4.reachable(['T'], ['A', 'G'])
['E']

>>> hg4.separates(['T'], ['E'], ['A'])
False
>>> hg4.separates(['T'], ['G'], ['A'])
False
>>> hg4.separates(['T'], ['S'], ['A'])
False
>>> hg4.separates(['T'], ['S'], ['A', 'G'])
True
>>>

```

### 3.2.3 Iterators for hypergraphs

```

>>> from gPy.Hypergraphs import *
>>> hg5 = Hypergraph(['TE', 'TAG', 'AGS', 'FOO'])
>>> for h in hg5:
...   print h
...
frozenset(['O', 'F'])
frozenset(['A', 'T', 'G'])
frozenset(['A', 'S', 'G'])
frozenset(['E', 'T'])
>>>

```

## 3.3 Printing and displaying hypergraphs

## 3.4 Relations between hypergraphs

## 3.5 Altering hypergraphs

Hypergraphs are *mutable* objects and so can be altered. The two basic operators are: `add_hyperedge` and `remove_hyperedge` which work as follows:

```

>>> hg1 = Hypergraph(['BC', 'AD', 'AB', 'CD'])
>>> print hg1
( {C, D}, {B, C}, {A, D}, {A, B} )
>>> hg1.add_hyperedge('ABC')
>>> print hg1
( {A, B, C}, {C, D}, {B, C}, {A, D}, {A, B} )

```

```
>>> hg1.remove_hyperedge(('A', 'B'))
>>> print hg1
( {A, B, C}, {C, D}, {B, C}, {A, D} )
```

Note the flexibility with which hyperedges are specified. Any sequence will do (in fact, any iterable).

### 3.5.1 Altering hypergraphs with specific properties

Examples of adding redundant edges etc.

## 3.6 Generating objects from hypergraphs

### 3.6.1 Generating hypergraphs from hypergraphs

### 3.6.2 Generating graphs from hypergraphs

Each hypergraph  $\mathcal{H}$  has an associated (undirected) graph  $\mathcal{H}_{[2]}$ , called its 2-section.  $\mathcal{H}_{[2]}$  has the same vertices as  $\mathcal{H}$  and two vertices are connected in  $\mathcal{H}_{[2]}$  if and only if they are both elements of some hyperedge in  $\mathcal{H}$ . 2-sections are generated using the `two_section` method of `gPy.Hypergraphs.Hypergraph`:

```
>>> print hg1
( {A, B, C}, {C, D}, {B, C}, {A, D} )
>>> print hg1.two_section()
Vertices:
['A', 'B', 'C', 'D']
Lines:
A - B
A - C
A - D
B - C
C - D
```

Fig 3.2 provides an example of a two-section graph generated from a hypergraph.

To generate the clique hypergraph `gPy` provides the `gPy.Graphs.UGraph` method `hypergraph`. Here we generate the hypergraph of the graph displayed in Fig 3.2.

```
>>> g1 = hg1.two_section()
>>> print g1
Vertices:
['A', 'B', 'C', 'D']
Lines:
A - B
```

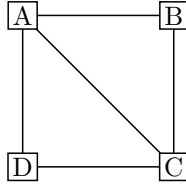


Figure 3.2: The graph of the hypergraph  $\{\{A, B, C\}, \{B, C\}, \{A, D\}, \{C, D\}\}$

```
A - C
A - D
B - C
C - D
```

```
>>> print g1.hypergraph()
{ {A, B, C}, {A, C, D} }
```

It is interesting to examine the relationship between a hypergraph  $\mathcal{H}$ :

```
>>> print hg1
( {A, B, C}, {C, D}, {B, C}, {A, D} )
```

and  $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{H}_{[2]})$ , the clique hypergraph of its two-section:

```
>>> print hg1.two_section().hypergraph()
{ {A, B, C}, {A, C, D} }
```

It is not difficult to prove that for any hypergraph  $\mathcal{H}$ , every hyperedge in  $\mathcal{H}$  is contained within some hyperedge in  $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{H}_{[2]})$ . However, the reverse does not always follow. In the example above the hyperedge  $\{A, C, D\}$  of  $\mathcal{C}(\mathcal{H}_{[2]})$  is not contained in any hyperedge of  $\mathcal{H}$ . This means that  $\mathcal{H}$  is *not graphical*.

### 3.7 Internal representation of hypergraphs

Internally, each hyperedge is stored as a `frozenset` of vertices. Each hypergraph has a private attribute `_hyperedges` which is just the `set` of these hyperedges which constitute the hypergraph. For simple hypergraphs—of which more later—this attribute contains all the information required to define the hypergraph. However, it is useful to also maintain a mapping from each vertex to the set of hyperedges which contain it—its *star*. (This is essentially the *dual hypergraph* [1].) This mapping (a Python dictionary) is the private attribute `_star`. Here is the internal representation of the `hg1` hypergraph given earlier (with added fake line breaks to make the output readable):

```

>>> hg1 = Hypergraph(['AB', 'BC', 'CD', 'AD'])
>>> for att, val in vars(hg1).items():
...     print att
...     print val
...     print
...
_hyperedges
set([frozenset(['C', 'B']), frozenset(['A', 'D']),
frozenset(['A', 'B']), frozenset(['C', 'D'])])

_star
{'A': set([frozenset(['A', 'D']), frozenset(['A', 'B'])]),
'C': set([frozenset(['C', 'B']), frozenset(['C', 'D'])]),
'B': set([frozenset(['C', 'B']), frozenset(['A', 'B'])]),
'D': set([frozenset(['A', 'D']), frozenset(['C', 'D'])])}

```

## Chapter 4

# Join Forests

To each decomposable hypergraph there is one or more associated *join forests*. A join forest  $\mathcal{F}$  for a decomposable hypergraph  $\mathcal{H}$ , is an undirected graph whose vertices are the hyperedges of  $\mathcal{H}$  with the following two properties:

1. The graph is a **forest**: it is the disjoint union of one or more **trees**. An (undirected) tree is a graph which contains no cycles.
2. The join forest  $\mathcal{F}$  obeys the *join property*. If hyperedges  $h_1$  and  $h_2$  are in the same tree in  $\mathcal{F}$ , then for any hyperedge  $h_3$  on the (unique) path between  $h_1$  and  $h_2$  we have:  $h_1 \cap h_2 \subseteq h_3$ .

Join forests are also often referred to as **junction forests**, for example in [2]. Also many presentations make the assumption that there is only one tree in the forest and so talk about *join trees* or *junction trees*.

In gPy, join forests are constructed similarly to `DecomposableHypergraph` objects with one difference: the `JoinForest` constructor does not accept a `check` argument since the construction of a join forest inevitably checks that the input hypergraph is decomposable. The `JoinForest` class is a direct subclass of the `DecomposableHypergraph` class, see Fig 4.1 for the full hierarchy of hypergraphs. `JoinForest` objects have an additional `_uforest` attribute which contains the join forest itself. The join forest is a `gPy.Graphs.UForest` object.

Here's two examples of constructing `JoinForest` objects:

```
>>> hg2 = Hypergraph(['AB', 'BC', 'CD', 'DA', 'AE'])
>>> jf2a = JoinForest(hg2.copy(), modify=True, elimination_order='ABCDE')
>>> print jf2a
( {B, C, D, E}, {A, B, D, E} )
Vertices:
[{B, C, D, E}, {A, B, D, E}]
Lines:
{A, B, D, E} - {B, C, D, E}

>>> jf2b = JoinForest(hg2.copy(), modify=True)
```

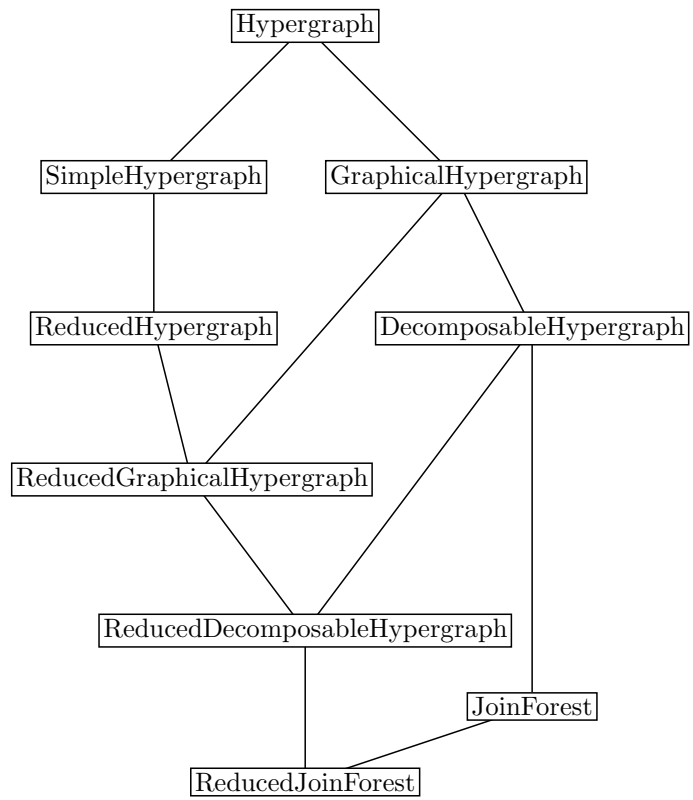


Figure 4.1: Hypergraph hierarchy including join forests

```
>>> print jf2b
( {B, C, D}, {A, B, D}, {A, E} )
Vertices:
[ {B, C, D}, {A, B, D}, {A, E} ]
Lines:
{A, B, D} - {B, C, D}
{A, E} - {A, B, D}
```

TRACE STUFF!!!!

## Chapter 5

# Graphs

# Chapter 6

## Factors

### 6.1 Constructing factors

Factors are the building blocks of graphical models. In Chapter 2 there were some examples of extracting factors from the ‘Asia’ Bayesian network. This BN is available ready-made from the `gPy.Examples` module and so getting hold of its factors is easy. In contrast, in this section the process of constructing factors ‘from scratch’ is described.

Here is an example of the basic method for making factors:

```
Python 2.4.3 (#1, Jul 26 2006, 20:13:39)
[GCC 3.4.6] on linux2
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.
>>> from gPy.Parameters import Factor
>>> f = Factor('ABC',new_domain_variables={'A':'yn','B':'ox','C':(1,2,3)})
>>> print f
```

```
A | B | C |
- | - | - | ----
n | o | 1 | 1.00
n | o | 2 | 1.00
n | o | 3 | 1.00
n | x | 1 | 1.00
n | x | 2 | 1.00
n | x | 3 | 1.00
y | o | 1 | 1.00
y | o | 2 | 1.00
y | o | 3 | 1.00
y | x | 1 | 1.00
y | x | 2 | 1.00
y | x | 3 | 1.00
```

Refer to the API documentation for the full details of arguments that can be sent to the `Factor` constructor. In the case above a factor with 3 variables—A, B and C—was made. The values the variables can take was specified by sending an appropriate dictionary as the value of `new_domain_variables` argument. Note that no data values were supplied, and a default value of 1 is thus given to every joint instantiation of the variables. Here’s an example, which is a continuation of the session just above, of supplying data values when constructing a factor:

```
>>> g = Factor('ABC', data=range(2*2*3))
>>> print g
```

```
A | B | C |
- | - | - | ----
n | o | 1 |      0
n | o | 2 |      1
n | o | 3 |      2
n | x | 1 |      3
n | x | 2 |      4
n | x | 3 |      5
y | o | 1 |      6
y | o | 2 |      7
y | o | 3 |      8
y | x | 1 |      9
y | x | 2 |     10
y | x | 3 |     11
```

Note that the data is expected to be a sequence of values of the right length for the factor and the data values in this sequence are assigned to the joint instantiations according to the standard (lexicographic) ordering of variables and their values. This is generally not a convenient way of getting the right values in a factor. It is usually much easier to construct a factor with dummy data values and then set individuals data values using the methods described in Section 6.3.

Note also that when constructing factors `g`, it was not necessary to declare values for its variables using the `new_domain_variables`. This is because, assuming we’re in the same environment in which factor `f` was constructed, these variables are already ‘known’. This is because, by default, when variables are declared using `new_domain_variables` the mapping from variables to their values is stored in an ‘internal default domain’. Also, by default, factors (and indeed any object which has variables looks for the values of its variables in this internal default domain. This is how come `g` picks up the right values for its variables.

Functions for displaying, clearing and setting the internal default domain are available as functions in the `gPy.Variables` module:

```
>>> from gPy import Variables
```

```

>>> Variables.print_default_domain()
{'A': frozenset(['y', 'n']), 'C': frozenset([1, 2, 3]),
 'B': frozenset(['x', 'o'])}
>>> Variables.clear_default_domain()
>>> Variables.print_default_domain()
{}
>>> Variables.set_default_domain({'A':'yn', 'B':'ox', 'C':(1,2,3)})
>>> Variables.print_default_domain()
{'A': frozenset(['y', 'n']), 'C': frozenset([1, 2, 3]),
 'B': frozenset(['x', 'o'])}

```

These functions are rarely useful since variables can be added to the internal default domain using `new_domain_variables` when an object that needs these new variables is constructed. However, sometimes it is neater to ‘declare’ all variables that your code ever needs with a call to `Variables.set_default_domain`, and then there is no need to use the `new_domain_variables` argument when constructing objects that need these variables.

## 6.2 Copying factors

todo  
also `copy_rename`.

## 6.3 Accessing and modifying data in factors

Data in a factor can be accessed using the usual Python indexing syntax: `[]`. There are a three permissible forms of index:

**Dictionary** If a dictionary is supplied as an index, the keys of the dictionary should be the variables in the factor. Associated with each variable key should be a single value for that variable. The single data value associated with the joint instantiation thus specified is returned.

**Sequence** If a sequence is supplied it should be a sequence of variable values, ordered according to the lexicographical ordering of the variable names. This specifies a joint instantiation corresponding to a row of the printed representation of a factor, and the corresponding data value is returned.

**Anything else** Any index which is not a dictionary or a sequence is viewed as an index for the internal `_data` attribute, a list which holds the data.

Here are some examples of using these various indexing options to yank out data values:

```

Python 2.4.3 (#1, Jul 26 2006, 20:13:39)
[GCC 3.4.6] on linux2
Type "help", "copyright", "credits" or "license" for more information.

```

```

>>> from gPy.Examples import asia
>>> factor = asia['Dyspnea']*1
>>> import gPy.Parameters
>>> gPy.Parameters.precision = 2
>>> print factor

```

Bronchitis	Dyspnea	TbOrCa	
absent	absent	false	0.90
absent	absent	true	0.30
absent	present	false	0.10
absent	present	true	0.70
present	absent	false	0.20
present	absent	true	0.10
present	present	false	0.80
present	present	true	0.90

```

>>> factor[2]
0.10000000000000001
>>> factor['absent','absent','true']
0.29999999999999999
>>> factor[{'Dyspnea':'absent','Bronchitis':'absent','TbOrCa':'true'}]
0.29999999999999999
>>> factor[2:4]
[0.10000000000000001, 0.69999999999999996]

```

One can also set data values in the same way.

```

>>> factor[{'Bronchitis':'absent','TbOrCa':'false','Dyspnea':'absent'}] = 0.7
>>> print factor

```

Bronchitis	Dyspnea	TbOrCa	
absent	absent	false	0.70
absent	absent	true	0.30
absent	present	false	0.10
absent	present	true	0.70
present	absent	false	0.20
present	absent	true	0.10
present	present	false	0.80
present	present	true	0.90

```

>>> factor['absent','present','true'] = 1.2
>>> print factor

```

Bronchitis	Dyspnea	TbOrCa	
absent	absent	false	0.70
absent	absent	true	0.30
absent	present	false	0.10
absent	present	true	0.70
present	absent	false	0.20
present	absent	true	0.10
present	present	false	0.80
present	present	true	0.90

```

absent      | absent | false | 0.70
absent      | absent | true  | 0.30
absent      | present| false | 0.10
absent      | present| true  | 1.20
present     | absent | false | 0.20
present     | absent | true  | 0.10
present     | present| false | 0.80
present     | present| true  | 0.90

```

```

>>> factor[5:] = 1,2,3
>>> print factor

```

```

Bronchitis | Dyspnea | TbOrCa |
----- | ----- | ----- | ----
absent     | absent  | false  | 0.70
absent     | absent  | true   | 0.30
absent     | present | false  | 0.10
absent     | present | true   | 1.20
present    | absent  | false  | 0.20
present    | absent  | true   | 1.00
present    | present | false  | 2.00
present    | present | true   | 3.00

```

## 6.4 Iterating over factors

Sometimes it is useful to iterate over factors. There are various ways of doing this. A `for` loop starting `for f in factor:` will iterate over the factors corresponding to ‘slicing’ on the various values of the lexicographically first variable mentioned in `factor`. A new `gPy.Parameters.Factor` object is yielded on each iteration.

```

>>> from gPy.Examples import asia
>>> factor = asia['Dyspnea']*1
>>> print factor

```

```

Bronchitis | Dyspnea | TbOrCa |
----- | ----- | ----- | ----
absent     | absent  | false  | 0.90
absent     | absent  | true   | 0.30
absent     | present | false  | 0.10
absent     | present | true   | 0.70
present    | absent  | false  | 0.20
present    | absent  | true   | 0.10
present    | present | false  | 0.80

```

```
present | present | true | 0.90
```

```
>>> for f in factor:  
...   print f  
...
```

```
Dyspnea | TbOrCa |  
----- | ----- | ----  
absent  | false  | 0.90  
absent  | true   | 0.30  
present | false  | 0.10  
present | true   | 0.70
```

```
Dyspnea | TbOrCa |  
----- | ----- | ----  
absent  | false  | 0.20  
absent  | true   | 0.10  
present | false  | 0.80  
present | true   | 0.90
```

This form of iteration takes advantage of the internal representation of a factor's data and is thus efficient. However, it is only rarely useful.

A more useful iterator is provided by the `insts` method which iterates over the joint instantiations of a factor:

```
>>> print factor
```

```
Bronchitis | Dyspnea | TbOrCa |  
----- | ----- | ----- | ----  
absent     | absent  | false   | 0.90  
absent     | absent  | true    | 0.30  
absent     | present | false   | 0.10  
absent     | present | true    | 0.70  
present    | absent  | false   | 0.20  
present    | absent  | true    | 0.10  
present    | present | false   | 0.80  
present    | present | true    | 0.90
```

```
>>> for inst in factor.insts():  
...   print inst  
...  
( 'absent', 'absent', 'false' )  
( 'absent', 'absent', 'true' )  
( 'absent', 'present', 'false' )  
( 'absent', 'present', 'true' )
```

```

('present', 'absent', 'false')
('present', 'absent', 'true')
('present', 'present', 'false')
('present', 'present', 'true')

```

The values within a joint instantiation are ordered according to the lexicographical ordering of the variables. This makes it easy to generate a sequence of 'named' instantiations using Python's builtin `sorted` and `zip` functions:

```
>>> print factor
```

Bronchitis	Dyspnea	TbOrCa	
absent	absent	false	0.90
absent	absent	true	0.30
absent	present	false	0.10
absent	present	true	0.70
present	absent	false	0.20
present	absent	true	0.10
present	present	false	0.80
present	present	true	0.90

```

>>> sorted_variables = sorted(factor.variables())
>>> for inst in factor.insts():
...   print zip(sorted_variables,inst)
...
[('Bronchitis', 'absent'), ('Dyspnea', 'absent'), ('TbOrCa', 'false')]
[('Bronchitis', 'absent'), ('Dyspnea', 'absent'), ('TbOrCa', 'true')]
[('Bronchitis', 'absent'), ('Dyspnea', 'present'), ('TbOrCa', 'false')]
[('Bronchitis', 'absent'), ('Dyspnea', 'present'), ('TbOrCa', 'true')]
[('Bronchitis', 'present'), ('Dyspnea', 'absent'), ('TbOrCa', 'false')]
[('Bronchitis', 'present'), ('Dyspnea', 'absent'), ('TbOrCa', 'true')]
[('Bronchitis', 'present'), ('Dyspnea', 'present'), ('TbOrCa', 'false')]
[('Bronchitis', 'present'), ('Dyspnea', 'present'), ('TbOrCa', 'true')]

```

Alternatively, dictionaries can be used to represent named instantiations. These can then be used as indices to e.g. modify data values of the factor (although this is a rather inefficient approach).

```
>>> print factor
```

Bronchitis	Dyspnea	TbOrCa	
absent	absent	false	0.90
absent	absent	true	0.30
absent	present	false	0.10
absent	present	true	0.70

```

present | absent | false | 0.20
present | absent | true  | 0.10
present | present| false | 0.80
present | present| true  | 0.90

```

```

>>> for inst in factor.insts():
...   print dict(zip(sorted_variables,inst))
...
{'TbOrCa': 'false', 'Dyspnea': 'absent', 'Bronchitis': 'absent'}
{'TbOrCa': 'true', 'Dyspnea': 'absent', 'Bronchitis': 'absent'}
{'TbOrCa': 'false', 'Dyspnea': 'present', 'Bronchitis': 'absent'}
{'TbOrCa': 'true', 'Dyspnea': 'present', 'Bronchitis': 'absent'}
{'TbOrCa': 'false', 'Dyspnea': 'absent', 'Bronchitis': 'present'}
{'TbOrCa': 'true', 'Dyspnea': 'absent', 'Bronchitis': 'present'}
{'TbOrCa': 'false', 'Dyspnea': 'present', 'Bronchitis': 'present'}
{'TbOrCa': 'true', 'Dyspnea': 'present', 'Bronchitis': 'present'}
>>> for inst in factor.insts():
...   factor[dict(zip(sorted_variables,inst))] = 0.4
...
>>> print factor

```

```

Bronchitis | Dyspnea | TbOrCa |
----- | ----- | ----- | ----
absent     | absent  | false   | 0.40
absent     | absent  | true    | 0.40
absent     | present | false   | 0.40
absent     | present | true    | 0.40
present    | absent  | false   | 0.40
present    | absent  | true    | 0.40
present    | present | false   | 0.40
present    | present | true    | 0.40

```

A much more efficient way of modifying data values while iterating is to take advantage of the fact that instantiations and data values follow the same ordering, so the *i*th instantiation corresponds to the *i*th value. Together with Python's builtin `enumerate` function this provides a quick and easy way of updating data values:

```

>>> factor = asia['Dyspnea']*1
>>> print factor

```

```

Bronchitis | Dyspnea | TbOrCa |
----- | ----- | ----- | ----
absent     | absent  | false   | 0.90
absent     | absent  | true    | 0.30
absent     | present | false   | 0.10

```

```

absent    | present | true   | 0.70
present   | absent  | false  | 0.20
present   | absent  | true   | 0.10
present   | present | false  | 0.80
present   | present | true   | 0.90

```

```

>>> for i, inst in enumerate(factor.insts()):
...   if inst[1] == 'absent':
...     factor[i] = 0.4
...
>>> print factor

```

```

Bronchitis | Dyspnea | TbOrCa |
----- | ----- | ----- | ----
absent     | absent  | false  | 0.40
absent     | absent  | true   | 0.40
absent     | present | false  | 0.10
absent     | present | true   | 0.70
present    | absent  | false  | 0.40
present    | absent  | true   | 0.40
present    | present | false  | 0.80
present    | present | true   | 0.90

```

## 6.5 Conditional probability tables

Conditional probability tables (from now on abbreviated to CPTs) are a special type of factor which define an (in general) different probability distribution for one of factor's variables (the *child* variable) *conditional* on each joint instantiation of the other variables in the factor. These are the factors which parameterise a Bayesian network.

### 6.5.1 Constructing CPTs

The only way of constructing a CPT is to use an existing factor and specify which variable is to be the child. The simplest case is when the factor already happens to be a valid CPT:

```

>>> from gPy.Examples import asia
>>> factor = asia['Dyspnea']*1
>>> print factor

```

```

Bronchitis | Dyspnea | TbOrCa |
----- | ----- | ----- | ----
absent     | absent  | false  | 0.90
absent     | absent  | true   | 0.30

```

```

absent    | present | false | 0.10
absent    | present | true  | 0.70
present   | absent  | false | 0.20
present   | absent  | true  | 0.10
present   | present | false | 0.80
present   | present | true  | 0.90

```

```

>>> from gPy.Parameters import CPT
>>> cpt = CPT(factor, 'Dyspnea')
>>> print cpt

```

```

Bronchitis | TbOrCa |      Dyspnea
           |        |      absent present
----- | ----- | -----
absent     | false  |      0.90   0.10
absent     | true   |      0.30   0.70
present    | false  |      0.20   0.80
present    | true   |      0.10   0.90

```

Note that a factor which is a CPT has a different printed representation to a normal factor. (Internally, the only difference, apart from the class, is the specification of the child variable.)

### Potential pitfalls in constructing CPTs

After a CPT object has been constructed, the factor used to construct it has identical shared attributes with the CPT, *including a `_child` attribute specifying the child variable*. The only difference is the class of the objects. To avoid any possible confusion a safe bet is to use a copy of a factor to construct a CPT:

```

>>> print factor

```

```

Bronchitis | Dyspnea | TbOrCa |
----- | ----- | ----- | ----
absent     | absent  | false  | 0.90
absent     | absent  | true   | 0.30
absent     | present | false  | 0.10
absent     | present | true   | 0.70
present    | absent  | false  | 0.20
present    | absent  | true   | 0.10
present    | present | false  | 0.80
present    | present | true   | 0.90

```

```

>>> cpt = CPT(factor.copy(), 'Dyspnea')

```

## Options for constructing CPTs

Firstly, note that the default behaviour for constructing CPTs is *not* to check that the resulting object is a valid CPT. This is because it is often useful to construct 'fake' CPTs. To check that the factor used to construct a CPT is indeed a CPT, use the `cpt_check` flag:

```
>>> cpt = CPT(factor.copy(), 'Bronchitis', cpt_check=True)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
  File "/home/jc/godot/research/gPy/gPy/Parameters.py", line 919, in __init__
    raise CPTError(errmsg)
gPy.Parameters.CPTError:
For child: Bronchitis
For row: [0, 4]
Sum was: 1.10 (should be 1.0)
```

In other cases, it is useful to normalise data values in the input factor so that the factor is forced to become a CPT. To do this use the `cpt_force` flag:

```
>>> cpt = CPT(factor.copy(), 'Bronchitis', cpt_force=True)
>>> print cpt
```

Dyspnea	TbOrCa	Bronchitis	
		absent	present
absent	false	0.82	0.18
absent	true	0.75	0.25
present	false	0.11	0.89
present	true	0.44	0.56

Sometimes this normalisation can produce a division by zero which raises an exception. It is sometimes convenient to permit a 'fake' CPT to be constructed even in this situation. To do so, use the `allow_dummies` flag:

```
>>> factor = asia['TbOrCa']*1
>>> print factor
```

Cancer	TbOrCa	Tuberculosis	
absent	false	absent	1.00
absent	false	present	0.00
absent	true	absent	0.00
absent	true	present	1.00
present	false	absent	0.00
present	false	present	0.00
present	true	absent	1.00

```
present | true | present | 1.00
```

```
>>> cpt = CPT(factor.copy(), 'Tuberculosis', cpt_force=True)
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
    File "/home/jc/godot/research/gPy/gPy/Parameters.py", line 911, in __init__
      self._data[indx] /= prob_sum
ZeroDivisionError: float division
>>> cpt = CPT(factor.copy(), 'Tuberculosis', cpt_force=True, allow_dummies=True)
>>> print cpt
```

Cancer	TbOrCa	Tuberculosis	
		absent	present
absent	false	1.00	0.00
absent	true	0.00	1.00
present	false	0.00	0.00
present	true	0.50	0.50

Note that the row of the CPT where the zero division error has been suppressed has a row of zeroes. This is to flag that some cheating has been going on. Naturally using this row as if actually defined a proper distribution over Tuberculosis will cause an error at a later stage.

### 6.5.2 Extracting data from CPTs

CPTs can be indexed exactly like any other factor is desired. But they also come with an extra indexing possibilities. If the index corresponds to a row of the CPT then a single-variable CPT for the child is returned, rather than just data:

```
>>> cpt = asia['Dyspnea']
>>> print cpt
```

Bronchitis	TbOrCa	Dyspnea	
		absent	present
absent	false	0.90	0.10
absent	true	0.30	0.70
present	false	0.20	0.80
present	true	0.10	0.90

```
>>> print cpt['absent', 'true']
```

```
Dyspnea
absent present
```

```

-----
      0.30    0.70

>>> print cpt({'Bronchitis':'absent','TbOrCa':'true'})

      Dyspnea
      absent  present
-----
      0.30    0.70

```

To get at individual numbers in a CPT there are two options: either index exactly as for arbitrary factors:

```
>>> print cpt({'Bronchitis':'absent','TbOrCa':'true','Dyspnea':'present'})
0.7
```

or use two indices:

```
>>> print cpt({'Bronchitis':'absent','TbOrCa':'true'})[['present']]
0.7
```

Note how, in the last example, it was necessary to use ['present'] as an index rather than 'present'. This is because the index will be interpreted as a sequence.

### Iterating over CPTs

gPy provides a number of methods for iterating over the rows of CPTs. For example `parent_insts` allows you to iterate through the possible joint instantiations of the parents in a CPT:

```
>>> from gPy.Examples import asia
>>> print asia['Dyspnea']
```

Bronchitis	TbOrCa	Dyspnea	
		absent	present
absent	false	0.90	0.10
absent	true	0.30	0.70
present	false	0.20	0.80
present	true	0.10	0.90

```
>>> for row in asia['Dyspnea'].parent_insts():
...     print row
...
('absent', 'false')
('absent', 'true')
```

```
('present', 'false')
('present', 'true')
```

The `parent_insts_data` method iterates over the data values corresponding to each instantiation of the parents:

```
>>> for data_row in asia['Dyspnea'].parent_insts_data():
...   print data_row
...
[0.900000000000000002, 0.10000000000000001]
[0.29999999999999999, 0.69999999999999996]
[0.20000000000000001, 0.80000000000000004]
[0.10000000000000001, 0.90000000000000002]
```

Both of these methods return iterators and so have a `next` method for generating the next item in the iteration. The `next` method is useful for parallel iteration:

```
>>> data_itr = asia['Dyspnea'].parent_insts_data()
>>> for row in asia['Dyspnea'].parent_insts():
...   print row, ' | ', data_itr.next()
...
('absent', 'false') | [0.90000000000000002, 0.10000000000000001]
('absent', 'true') | [0.29999999999999999, 0.69999999999999996]
('present', 'false') | [0.20000000000000001, 0.80000000000000004]
('present', 'true') | [0.10000000000000001, 0.90000000000000002]
```

# Chapter 7

## Models

### 7.1 Altering models

The two central ways of altering an existing model are by adding and removing factors. When removing a factor, the factor is specified by its variables and the `remove` method is used.

```
>>> from gPy.Examples import asia
>>> asiac = asia.copy()
>>> asiac.remove(['Bronchitis', 'Smoking'])
>>> print asiac
```

Bronchitis	TbOrCa	Dyspnea	
		absent	present
absent	false	0.90	0.10
absent	true	0.30	0.70
present	false	0.20	0.80
present	true	0.10	0.90

Smoking	Cancer	
	absent	present
nonsmoker	0.99	0.01
smoker	0.90	0.10

Cancer	Tuberculosis	TbOrCa	
		false	true
absent	absent	1.00	0.00

absent	present		0.00	1.00
present	absent		0.00	1.00
present	present		0.00	1.00

```

      Smoking
    nonsmoker smoker
-----
          0.50   0.50

```

TbOrCa		XRay	
		abnormal	normal
-----		-----	-----
false		0.05	0.95
true		0.98	0.02

VisitAsia		Tuberculosis	
		absent	present
-----		-----	-----
no_visit		0.99	0.01
visit		0.95	0.05

```

      VisitAsia
    no_visit visit
-----
          0.99   0.01

```

```

>>> type(asiac)
<class 'gPy.Models.SFR'>

```

In the example immediately above the factor with `Bronchitis` and `Smoking` as variables has been removed. As a result the `asiac` object is no longer a BN Bayesian network object, and has become a mere `SFR` (a simple factored representation) object. Nonetheless, since its factors all remain CPTs they are printed out as such.

## 7.2 Copying models

Some methods alter the model object upon which they are called. Methods which perform conditioning (see Section 7.3) are an important example. If the original model object is still required such methods need to be called on a *copy* of the model, not the model itself.

```
>>> from gPy.Examples import asia
>>> asia_cp = asia.copy()
>>> asia_cp.remove('Cancer')
>>> print asia['Cancer']
```

Smoking	Cancer	
	absent	present
nonsmoker	0.99	0.01
smoker	0.90	0.10

```
>>> print asia_cp['Cancer']
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
    File "/home/jc/godot/research/gPy/gPy/Models.py", line 82, in __getitem__
      return self._factors[frozenset(hyperedge)]
KeyError: frozenset(['a', 'C', 'e', 'c', 'n', 'r'])
```

Note that in this example, the CPT for **Cancer** was removed by just send the string **'Cancer'** to the **remove** method. This is a special way of removing CPTs that only works for BN objects.

For all model classes, `model.copy()` returns a copy of the model. However, the default behaviour of `copy` is to make a 'shallow' copy: where the model and its copy share the same *domain*—the same dictionary mapping variables to their set of possible values. In this case, altering the domain of the copy also alters that of the original model. *Conditioning* a model does exactly this; observing a variable to have a particular value removes from the domain all other values associated with that variable.

It follows that if the copy is to be conditioned, or its domain altered in any other way, then the copy needs to be a deep copy. A deep copy is returned by `model.copy(copy_domain=True)`. Altering the domain of a copy constructed in this way, by conditioning for example, leaves the original unchanged in any way.

### 7.3 Conditioning models

To alter a model by conditioning on some observation use the `condition` method. This method takes one argument which is a dictionary mapping variables to their observed values. Here's an example of conditioning the `asia` Bayesian network:

```
>>> asiac = asia.copy(True)
>>> print asiac
```

Smoking	Bronchitis	
	absent	present
nonsmoker	0.70	0.30

smoker		0.40	0.60
--------	--	------	------

Smoking		Cancer	
		absent	present
-----		-----	-----
nonsmoker		0.99	0.01
smoker		0.90	0.10

Bronchitis		TbOrCa		Dyspnea	
				absent	present
-----		-----		-----	-----
absent		false		0.90	0.10
absent		true		0.30	0.70
present		false		0.20	0.80
present		true		0.10	0.90

Smoking	
nonsmoker	smoker
-----	-----
0.50	0.50

Cancer		Tuberculosis		TbOrCa	
				false	true
-----		-----		-----	-----
absent		absent		1.00	0.00
absent		present		0.00	1.00
present		absent		0.00	1.00
present		present		0.00	1.00

VisitAsia		Tuberculosis	
		absent	present
-----		-----	-----
no_visit		0.99	0.01
visit		0.95	0.05

VisitAsia	
no_visit	visit
-----	-----
0.99	0.01

TbOrCa	XRay	
	abnormal	normal
false	0.05	0.95
true	0.98	0.02

```
>>> foo = asiatic.condition({'Dyspnea':['absent']})
>>> print asiatic
```

Bronchitis	Dyspnea	TbOrCa	
absent	absent	false	0.90
absent	absent	true	0.30
present	absent	false	0.20
present	absent	true	0.10

Bronchitis	Smoking	
absent	nonsmoker	0.70
absent	smoker	0.40
present	nonsmoker	0.30
present	smoker	0.60

Cancer	Smoking	
absent	nonsmoker	0.99
absent	smoker	0.90
present	nonsmoker	0.01
present	smoker	0.10

Cancer	TbOrCa	Tuberculosis	
absent	false	absent	1.00
absent	false	present	0.00
absent	true	absent	0.00
absent	true	present	1.00
present	false	absent	0.00
present	false	present	0.00
present	true	absent	1.00
present	true	present	1.00

```
Smoking |
----- | ----
nonsmoker | 0.50
smoker | 0.50
```

```
TbOrCa | XRay |
----- | ----- | ----
false | abnormal | 0.05
false | normal | 0.95
true | abnormal | 0.98
true | normal | 0.02
```

```
Tuberculosis | VisitAsia |
----- | ----- | ----
absent | no_visit | 0.99
absent | visit | 0.95
present | no_visit | 0.01
present | visit | 0.05
```

```
VisitAsia |
----- | ----
no_visit | 0.99
visit | 0.01
```

Note that the conditioned `asia` is no longer a Bayesian network. The `condition` method returns the newly conditioned object, so avoid having this printed out to the interpreter session, it is just assigned to a dummy variable `foo`. This is correct since one of its factors (the one including `Dyspnea`) is no longer a CPT. By default, `gPy` plays safe and makes all conditioned models members of the general `SFR` class. If you want to force the class of an object to stay the same even after conditioning set the `keep_class` flag: `model.condition(some_dict,keep_class=True)`.

In general, it is possible to condition by specifying a set of values which are still possible values for a variable (implicitly stating that other values are ruled out). For this reason the values in the dictionary specifying the condition must be a *iterable* of values (e.g. a set, list or tuple). It is easy to get tripped up by this by specifying a string as a dictionary value:

```
>>> asia.copy(True).condition({'Dyspnea':'absent'})
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
  File "/home/jc/godot/research/gPy/gPy/Models.py", line 179, in condition
    raise ValueError(
ValueError: Dyspnea has values ('absent', 'present'). 'a' is not one of them
```

## 7.4 Join forest representations

### 7.4.1 Creating join forest representations

To run the probability propagation algorithm (‘calibration’) on join forests, a join forest is required. If your original is not a join forest model—for example it may be a Bayesian network—then you need to construct a join forest from it. Typically, the hypergraph associated with your model will not be decomposable, so this hypergraph will need to be altered before a join forest can be built for it. (Recall that a join forest has the hyperedges of a decomposable hypergraph for its vertices.) In the case of Bayesian networks, unless all variables are mutually independent (hardly typical!), the associated hypergraph will not even be reduced, let alone decomposable.

Join forest models are object of class `gPy.Models.JFR`. Here is an example of JFR creation (the output has been altered to break long lines).

```
>>> from gPy.Examples import asia
>>> from gPy.Models import JFR
>>> asia_jfm = JFR(asia.copy(True),modify=True)
>>> print asia_jfm
```

Cliques:

Bronchitis	Dyspnea	TbOrCa	
absent	absent	false	0.90
absent	absent	true	0.30
absent	present	false	0.10
absent	present	true	0.70
present	absent	false	0.20
present	absent	true	0.10
present	present	false	0.80
present	present	true	0.90

Bronchitis	Smoking	TbOrCa	
absent	nonsmoker	false	0.70
absent	nonsmoker	true	0.70
absent	smoker	false	0.40
absent	smoker	true	0.40
present	nonsmoker	false	0.30
present	nonsmoker	true	0.30
present	smoker	false	0.60
present	smoker	true	0.60

Cancer	Smoking	TbOrCa	
--------	---------	--------	--

-----	-----	-----	----
absent	nonsmoker	false	0.49
absent	nonsmoker	true	0.49
absent	smoker	false	0.45
absent	smoker	true	0.45
present	nonsmoker	false	0.01
present	nonsmoker	true	0.01
present	smoker	false	0.05
present	smoker	true	0.05

Cancer	TbOrCa	Tuberculosis	----
-----	-----	-----	----
absent	false	absent	1.00
absent	false	present	0.00
absent	true	absent	0.00
absent	true	present	1.00
present	false	absent	0.00
present	false	present	0.00
present	true	absent	1.00
present	true	present	1.00

TbOrCa	XRay	----
-----	-----	----
false	abnormal	0.05
false	normal	0.95
true	abnormal	0.98
true	normal	0.02

Tuberculosis	VisitAsia	----
-----	-----	----
absent	no_visit	0.98
absent	visit	0.01
present	no_visit	0.01
present	visit	0.00

Separators:

Bronchitis	TbOrCa	----
-----	-----	----
absent	false	1.00
absent	true	1.00
present	false	1.00
present	true	1.00

Cancer	TbOrCa	
absent	false	1.00
absent	true	1.00
present	false	1.00
present	true	1.00

Smoking	TbOrCa	
nonsmoker	false	1.00
nonsmoker	true	1.00
smoker	false	1.00
smoker	true	1.00

TbOrCa	
false	1.00
true	1.00

Tuberculosis	
absent	1.00
present	1.00

Join Forest:

```
{ {Bronchitis, Smoking, TbOrCa}, {TbOrCa, XRay}, {Cancer, Smoking, TbOrCa},
{Tuberculosis, VisitAsia}, {Bronchitis, Dyspnea, TbOrCa},
{Cancer, TbOrCa, Tuberculosis} }
```

Vertices:

```
[{Bronchitis, Smoking, TbOrCa}, {TbOrCa, XRay}, {Cancer, Smoking, TbOrCa},
{Tuberculosis, VisitAsia}, {Bronchitis, Dyspnea, TbOrCa},
{Cancer, TbOrCa, Tuberculosis}]
```

Lines:

```
{Cancer, Smoking, TbOrCa} - {Bronchitis, Smoking, TbOrCa}
{TbOrCa, XRay} - {Bronchitis, Smoking, TbOrCa}
{Bronchitis, Dyspnea, TbOrCa} - {Bronchitis, Smoking, TbOrCa}
{Cancer, TbOrCa, Tuberculosis} - {Cancer, Smoking, TbOrCa}
{Cancer, TbOrCa, Tuberculosis} - {Tuberculosis, VisitAsia}
```

If the modify flag is not set, and the input model is not decomposable then

an exception will be raised. Here is an example of this behaviour:

```
>>> from gPy.Models import JFR
>>> from gPy.Examples import asia
>>> asia_jfm_ex = JFR(asia.copy(True))
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in ?
  File "/home/jc/godot/research/gPy/gPy/Models.py", line 1009, in __init__
    join_forest = ReducedJoinForest(hm._hypergraph,modify,True,elimination_order)
  File "/home/jc/godot/research/gPy/gPy/Hypergraphs.py", line 2160, in __init__
    hypergraph._uforest = hypergraph.join_forest()
  File "/home/jc/godot/research/gPy/gPy/Hypergraphs.py", line 814, in join_forest
    raise DecomposabilityError("%s is not decomposable" % self)
gPy.Hypergraphs.DecomposabilityError: { {TbOrCa, XRay}, {Bronchitis, Smoking},
{Tuberculosis, VisitAsia}, {VisitAsia}, {Smoking},
{Bronchitis, Dyspnea, TbOrCa}, {Cancer, Smoking},
{Cancer, TbOrCa, Tuberculosis} } is not decomposable
```

## 7.4.2 Calibrating join forest models

To calibrate a join forest model just use the `calibrate` method. Note that currently gPy does not keep track of whether a JFR is calibrated or not. In the following example, the default precision (two) for printing numbers in factors makes some numbers appear to be zeroes when they are not. This can be fixed by setting `gPy.Parameters.precision` to a larger value

```
>>> asia_jfm = JFR(asia.copy(),modify=True)
>>> asia_jfm.calibrate()
>>> print asia_jfm
Cliques:
```

Bronchitis	Dyspnea	TbOrCa	
absent	absent	false	0.47
absent	absent	true	0.01
absent	present	false	0.05
absent	present	true	0.02
present	absent	false	0.08
present	absent	true	0.00
present	present	false	0.33
present	present	true	0.03

Bronchitis	Smoking	TbOrCa	
absent	nonsmoker	false	0.34
absent	nonsmoker	true	0.01

absent	smoker	false	0.18
absent	smoker	true	0.02
present	nonsmoker	false	0.15
present	nonsmoker	true	0.00
present	smoker	false	0.27
present	smoker	true	0.03

Cancer	Smoking	TbOrCa	
-----	-----	-----	----
absent	nonsmoker	false	0.49
absent	nonsmoker	true	0.01
absent	smoker	false	0.45
absent	smoker	true	0.00
present	nonsmoker	false	0.00
present	nonsmoker	true	0.00
present	smoker	false	0.00
present	smoker	true	0.05

Cancer	TbOrCa	Tuberculosis	
-----	-----	-----	----
absent	false	absent	0.94
absent	false	present	0.00
absent	true	absent	0.00
absent	true	present	0.01
present	false	absent	0.00
present	false	present	0.00
present	true	absent	0.05
present	true	present	0.00

TbOrCa	XRay	
-----	-----	----
false	abnormal	0.05
false	normal	0.89
true	abnormal	0.06
true	normal	0.00

Tuberculosis	VisitAsia	
-----	-----	----
absent	no_visit	0.98
absent	visit	0.01
present	no_visit	0.01
present	visit	0.00

Separators:

Bronchitis	TbOrCa	
absent	false	0.52
absent	true	0.03
present	false	0.41
present	true	0.04

Cancer	TbOrCa	
absent	false	0.94
absent	true	0.01
present	false	0.00
present	true	0.05

Smoking	TbOrCa	
nonsmoker	false	0.49
nonsmoker	true	0.01
smoker	false	0.45
smoker	true	0.05

TbOrCa	
false	0.94
true	0.06

Tuberculosis	
absent	0.99
present	0.01

Join Forest:

```
{ {Bronchitis, Smoking, TbOrCa}, {TbOrCa, XRay}, {Cancer, Smoking, TbOrCa},  
{Tuberculosis, VisitAsia}, {Bronchitis, Dyspnea, TbOrCa},  
{Cancer, TbOrCa, Tuberculosis} }
```

Vertices:

```
[{Bronchitis, Smoking, TbOrCa}, {TbOrCa, XRay}, {Cancer, Smoking, TbOrCa},  
{Tuberculosis, VisitAsia}, {Bronchitis, Dyspnea, TbOrCa},  
{Cancer, TbOrCa, Tuberculosis}]
```

Lines:

```
{Cancer, Smoking, TbOrCa} - {Bronchitis, Smoking, TbOrCa}
{TbOrCa, XRay} - {Bronchitis, Smoking, TbOrCa}
{Bronchitis, Dyspnea, TbOrCa} - {Bronchitis, Smoking, TbOrCa}
{Cancer, TbOrCa, Tuberculosis} - {Cancer, Smoking, TbOrCa}
{Cancer, TbOrCa, Tuberculosis} - {Tuberculosis, VisitAsia}
```

### 7.4.3 Extracting single variable marginals from join forest models

As a convenience, `gPy` provides the `var_marginal` method which can be used to extract the marginal distribution over a single variable from a JFM. `var_marginal` returns a parentless CPT. The *assumption* is that the JFM in question has already been calibrated.

```
>>> print asia_jfm.var_marginal('Dyspnea')
```

```
      Dyspnea
absent present
-----
      0.56    0.44
```

```
>>> print asia_jfm.var_marginal('Bronchitis')
```

```
      Bronchitis
absent present
-----
      0.55    0.45
```

```
>>> print asia_jfm.var_marginal('Bronchitis')[['absent']]
0.55
```

## Chapter 8

# Samplers

### 8.1 Sampling from unstructured discrete distributions

To sample from arbitrary discrete distributions, gPy provides the `gPy.Samplers.MultinomialSampler` class. To construct an object of this class a dictionary mapping each value of the distribution to its probability must be provided:

```
>>> from gPy.Samplers import MultinomialSampler
>>> bias_coin = MultinomialSampler({'h':0.7,'t':0.3})
```

The `MultinomialSampler` class provides a single `sample` method (at time of writing):

```
>>> for i in xrange(30):
...     print bias_coin.sample(),
...
h t h h h t t h h t h h t h h h t h t h h h t h h h t t t h
```

# Bibliography

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- [2] Steffen L. Lauritzen. *Graphical Models*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, 1996.
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