Assignment 2 - Network Analysis 2022

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Contents

Conceptual Questions

Question 1 (3 points)

Are the following statements true or false (0.5 point per statement)? Explain why.

1. Suppose that nodes n_1 and n_2 in a GGM are not connected (edge weight = 0). We can thus infer that these nodes are conditionally independent.
   TRUE: Yes, if two nodes are not connected, they are independent *conditional on all other nodes* in the network (Blanken, Isvoranu, & Epskamp, 2022).

2. Suppose that model A is more complex than model B, and model B is nested in model A. If model A and model B fit the data about equally well, we would prefer model A.
   FALSE: No, if we have two models fit equally well (performs equall well), then we prefer the simper one (i.e., Occam's razor principle). So we would prefer model *B* not model *A* in this case (Blanken, 2022).

3. Thresholding and pruning at the same α level should lead to the same estimated network parameters.
   FALSE: No, they don't lead to the same estimated parameters. Because in pruning, we remove the edges that do not meet the criterion and *re-estimate* the model so that the parameters are estimated based on the final (pruned) model. Contrary to this, in thresholding, the edges that do not meet the criterion are set to zero so that they are not visualized in the network, yet the other non-zero edge weights are *not re-estimated*. Therefore, the parameter estimates would likely to differ (Blanken, 2022).

4. Regularization penalizes the complexity of the parameters in the model.
   TRUE: Yes, the statement is true. With regularization, parameters are estimated by optimizing *penalized* likelihood function, which is based on the complexity of the model parameters (Blanken, Isvoranu, & Epskamp, 2022).

5. A stepwise model search algorithm is guaranteed to find a global optimum.
   FALSE: No, It is guaranteed to find a *local* optimum but not a *global* optimum (i.e., we do not know if it is the *best* fitting model) (Blanken, Isvoranu, & Epskamp, 2022).

6. The null hypothesis when comparing networks via the NCT is that networks are different.
   FALSE: No, the null hypothesis when comparing networks via the NCT is that the (true data generating) network structures are the same (Van Borkulo et al., 2022).

Partial Correlation Networks

```r
# download the file NA_2020_data.csv from https://osf.io/45n6d/
# load the data into R
data <- read.csv("data/NA_2020_data.csv")

# select a subset of variables
include <- c(
"Q10", # I try to keep a regular sleep pattern
"Q13", # I am worried about my current sleeping behavior
"Q14", # My sleep interferes with my daily functioning
"Q68", # I am happy with my physical health.
"Q70", # I feel optimistic about the future.
"Q75", # I am very happy
"Q77", # I often feel alone
```

```
"Q80" # I am happy with my love life
)
# subset the data
data_subset <- data[,include]

# rename the variables
names(data_subset) <- c("regular_sleep",
"worried_sleep",
"sleep_interfere",
"happy_health",
"optimistic_future",
"very_happy",
"feel_alone",
"happy_love_life")
```

Question 2 (2 points)

Compute both the marginal correlation (using `cor()`) and the partial correlation (using `partial.r()`), conditioning on all remaining variables between the nodes `feel alone` and `optimistic future`. Interpret your results by comparing the marginal and partial correlation you computed.

As shown below, the marginal correlation between `feel alone` and `optimistic future` is around -0.26, while the partial correlation is almost *zero* (-0.02). This indicates that the (linear) dependencies between `feel alone` and `optimistic future` are mainly due to the other variables. That is, once we remove (account for) the influence of the other variables, there is almost no dependencies left between `feel alone` and `optimistic future`. In other words, the dependencies between `feel alone` and `optimistic future` can be mostly explained by the other variables.

```
# marginal correlation
data_subset %>%
  # filter NAs
  na.omit() %>%
  select(feel_alone, optimistic_future) %>%
  cor() %>%
  round(2)

# partial correlation
partial.r(data = data_subset, x = c(5,7), y = c(1,2,3,4,6,8), use="pairwise")
```

```
                  feel_alone optimistic_future
feel_alone              1.00             -0.26
optimistic_future      -0.26              1.00
partial correlations
                  optimistic_future feel_alone
optimistic_future              1.00      -0.02
feel_alone                    -0.02       1.00
```

Question 3 (1 point)

This precision matrix K can then be standardized to obtain the partial correlation coefficient matrix P (the partial correlation between variable i and j after conditioning on all other variables in the data set):

$$p_{i,j} = \begin{cases} -\dfrac{K_{i,j}}{\sqrt{K_{i,i}}\cdot\sqrt{K_{j,j}}}, & i \neq j \\ 1, & i = j \end{cases} \tag{1}$$

Using the formula above, compute the partial correlation between `feel alone` and `optimistic future` and compare your result to the partial correlation obtained using partial.r().

As shown below, the computed partial correlation between `feel alone` and `optimistic future` using the formula above leads to the same result (-0.02) as using `partial.r()` function.

```
# calculate the partial correlation matrix
par.corr <- matrix(nrow=nrow(Kappa), ncol=ncol(Kappa))
for(k in 1:nrow(par.corr)) {
  for(j in 1:ncol(par.corr)) {
    if(k == j){
      par.corr[j, k] <- 1
    } else {
    par.corr[j, k] <- -Kappa[j,k]/sqrt(Kappa[j,j]*Kappa[k,k])}
  }
}
# specify the dimension names
colnames(par.corr) <- rownames(par.corr) <- colnames(Kappa)
# show the partial correlation matrix
round(par.corr,2)
```

	regular_sleep	worried_sleep	sleep_interfere	happy_health
regular_sleep	1.00	-0.07	-0.01	0.13
worried_sleep	-0.07	1.00	0.65	-0.04
sleep_interfere	-0.01	0.65	1.00	-0.08
happy_health	0.13	-0.04	-0.08	1.00
optimistic_future	0.03	-0.08	0.03	0.19
very_happy	0.02	0.01	-0.05	0.26
feel_alone	0.12	0.12	0.10	0.11
happy_love_life	0.08	-0.04	0.07	0.01

	optimistic_future	very_happy	feel_alone	happy_love_life
regular_sleep	0.03	0.02	0.12	0.08
worried_sleep	-0.08	0.01	0.12	-0.04
sleep_interfere	0.03	-0.05	0.10	0.07
happy_health	0.19	0.26	0.11	0.01
optimistic_future	1.00	0.45	-0.02	0.00
very_happy	0.45	1.00	-0.27	0.24
feel_alone	-0.02	-0.27	1.00	-0.14
happy_love_life	0.00	0.24	-0.14	1.00

```
## extract partial corr. between optimistic_future and feel_alone
par.corr[5,7]
```

```
[1] -0.02208709
```

Ising Model

```
## true network
graph <- qgraph(trueNetwork, labels = Symptoms, layout='spring', theme = "colorblind")
Layout <- graph$layout # to save the layout for visual comparison
## simulate data given an Ising model
sampleSize <- 1000
set.seed(2022)
newData <- IsingSampler(sampleSize, graph = trueNetwork, thresholds = Thresholds)
```

Question 4 (2 points)

Use the `bootnet` package and specify the right "default". Plot the resulting network and fix the layout of your estimated network to be the same as in the original network model. Visually compare the two networks to verify whether the networks match one another.

As shown below in Figure 1, the estimated network on the simulated data (right) mostly matches to the original network (left), given that the majority of the strong edges present in the original network also are observed in the estimated network. Yet, the estimated Ising model is much more sparse than the original network and that is partly due to the regularization that is applied (LASSO regularization based on EBIC with $\gamma = 0.25$ by default). In addition, there are a couple of edges that are newly introduced or the sign is flipped in the estimated network (e.g., `happy-sad`, `sad-sleep`, `enjoy-effort`), which could be again partly due to regularization process. According to Epskamp and Fried (2018), the differences may arise because after some of the edges are set to zero, the rest of non-zero edge weights are *re-estimated* during regularization.

Note: By default, we use tuning parameter (γ) value of 0.25, *listwise-deletion* for missing values, *AND* rule, and *median-split* for dichotomizing variables.

```
## estimate network using LASSO regularization with EBIC model selection
est_net <- estimateNetwork(newData, default="IsingFit") # gamma = 0.25 by defult
est_net$labels <- Symptoms
est_graph <- plot(est_net, labels=Symptoms, layout=Layout)
```
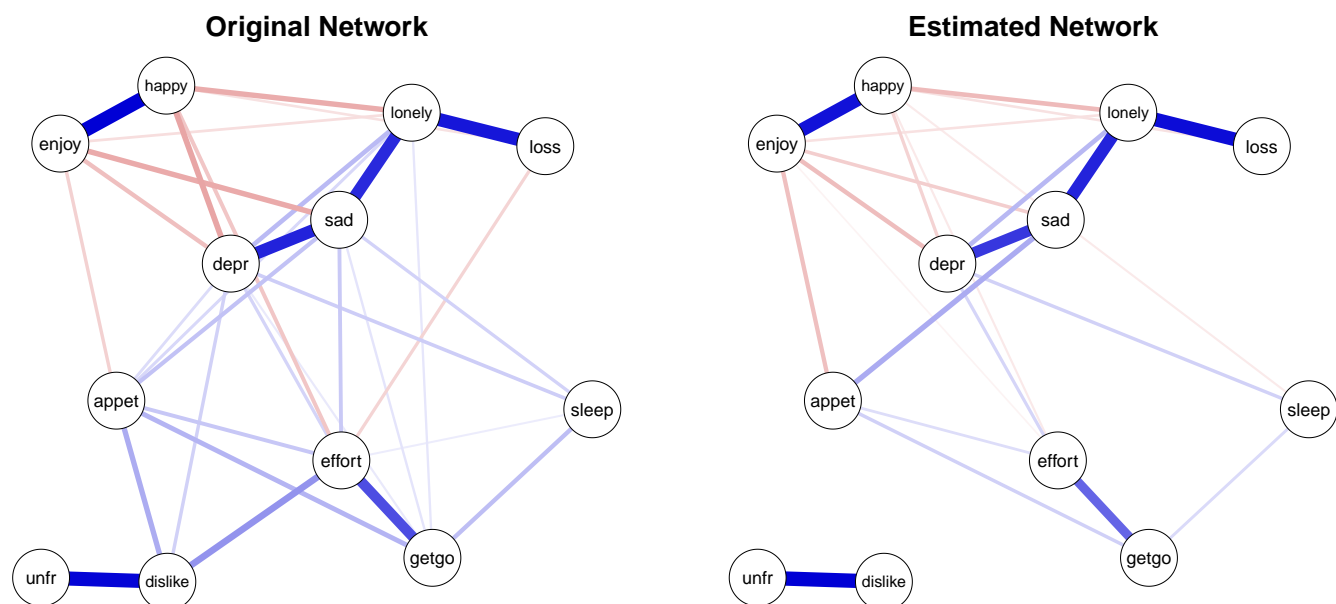

Figure 1: Comparison of Network Models

Network Inference

Question 5 (2 points)

Choose at least one metric to compute on the network you just estimated. Explain how to interpret the metric conceptually, why you choose this method for this estimated network, and interpret the results.

Out of various centrality indices, I wanted to focus on centrality metrics for *direct* connectivity, that is taking into account only the immediate connections of a node. My interest lies in investigating the importance of nodes based on their direct connections (i.e., most (strongly) connected nodes). For that, I choose to compute the *node degree* and *node strength*. *Degree* is one of the most general measures for direct centrality, but then considering that the estimated network is weighted network, it makes sense to also look at the weighted version of degree, which is termed *node strength* (Fried et al., 2022).

- **Node degree** (summation of the number of connected edges to a node):

$$Degree(i) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij}$$

,where a_{ij} represents the element at row i and column j of the adjacency matrix A.

- **Node strength** (summation of the absolute edge weights connected to a node).

$$Strength(i) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} |w_{ij}|$$

,where w_{ij} represents the element at row i and column j of the weight matrix W.

If a node ranks high on *degree*, it indicates that it has many direct relations to other nodes in the network, and correspondingly we can infer that it is an important node as it can influence many other nodes. If a node ranks high on *node strength*, it indicates that it has many direct *strong* relations to other nodes in the network. Accordingly, it implies that the node is relatively more central in terms of influencing the states of other nodes, and hence it is critical in deciding the overall structure of the network (Deserno et al., 2022).

The resulting centrality metrics on the estimated network is shown in Figure 2. Based on the pure *degree*, it can be seen that `happy`, `enjoy`, and `depre` are deemed important as they have the highest number of edges (6 edges in total). However, when taking into account for the weights of edges (i.e., *node strength*), `lonely`, `sad`, and `depre` are the most central nodes, given that their strength values are the highest (around 5, 4, and 3, respectively; they are raw values, not standardized). Whereas, the least central nodes are `sleep` and `appet`, which have around 0.7 and 1.7 of node strength. We could interpret that the symptoms of being lonely, sad, and depressed play a key role in the network as they have strong connections to the other symptom nodes. On the other hand, poor sleep and appetite have relatively less influences on the others and accordingly play a less central role in the network.

Note that, however, without the knowledge on the accuracy and stability of these centrality estimates, we cannot surely conclude that for example, `lonely` is the most central node in this estimated network. We will actually check the stability of centrality metric in the following section (*Question 8*).

```
## compute the degree and create a plot
degree <- apply(est_net$graph, 2, function(x) sum(x != 0)) %>%
  as.data.frame() %>%
  rename("degree" = ".") %>%
  mutate(vars = est_net$labels, title= "Degree") %>%
```

```
  ggplot(aes(x=reorder(vars, degree), y = degree)) +
  geom_col(width=.07) + geom_point()+
  coord_flip() + theme_bw() +
  labs(x="", y="") + facet_grid(. ~title)
## compute strength and create a plot
strength <- centralityPlot(est_graph, include = "Strength", scale = "raw", orderBy = "Strength")
# combine two plots
ggpubr::ggarrange(degree, strength, ncol=2)
```
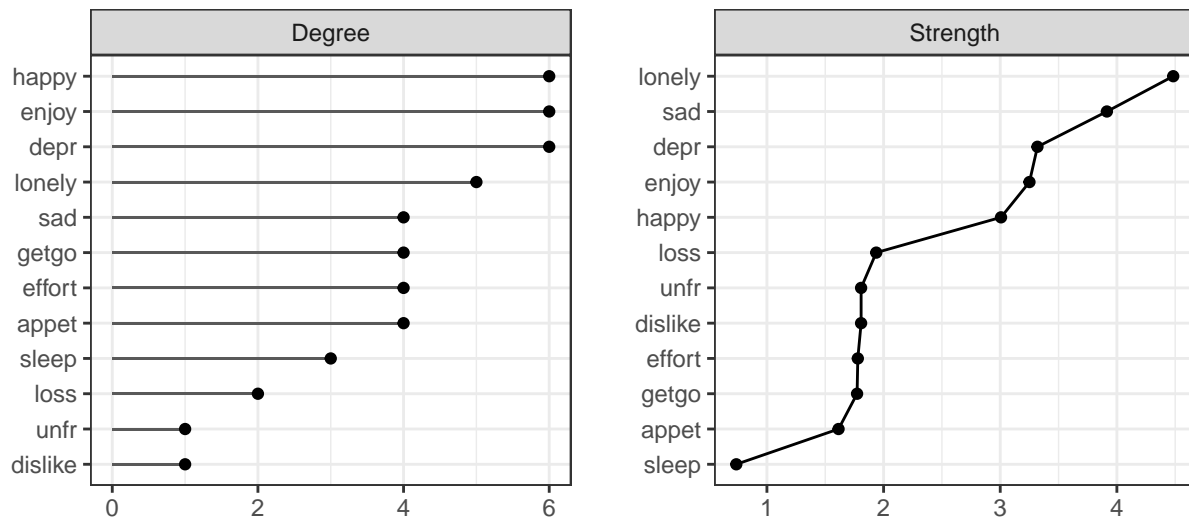

Figure 2: Centrality metrics

Accuracy and stability (conceptual)

Question 6 (3 points)

```
## estimated network parameter matrix
estEdges <- est_net$graph
dimnames(estEdges) <- list(est_net$labels, est_net$labels)
## extract lower triangles for true & estimated network
trueEdges <- trueNetwork[lower.tri(trueNetwork,diag=FALSE)]
estEdges <- estEdges[lower.tri(estEdges, diag=FALSE)]

## true positive (TP)
tp <- sum(trueEdges != 0 & estEdges != 0)
## true negative (TN)
tn <- sum(trueEdges == 0 & estEdges == 0)
## false positive (FP)
fp <- sum(trueEdges == 0 & estEdges != 0)
## false negative (FN)
fn <- sum(trueEdges != 0 & estEdges == 0)
```

6-1. Compute the sensitivity, the specificity, and the edge weight correlation for the network model you estimated from the simulated data. Which conclusions can you draw from your calculations? (2 points)

As shown in Table 1, the *specificity* is relatively high around 0.94, while the *sensitivity* is quite low as 0.64. This tells us that the estimated network contains very few *false positive* edges (low specificity) but not many *true positive* edges either (low sensitivity). It perhaps indicates that the regularization (eLasso) might have been too conservative such that it has suppressed too many small edges to zero. In addition, the fairly high *edge weight correlation* of 0.94 implies that the estimated edge weights overall align quite well with the true edge weights. As a conclusion, the low *sensitivity*, high *specificity*, and high *edge weight correlation* together reflect the fact that most of the weak edges are underestimated (set to zero), yet the important (strong) connections are mostly correctly identified (van Borkulo et al., 2014).

```
## sensitivity
sensitivity <- tp / (tp + fn)
## specificity
specificity <- tn / (tn + fp)
## edge weight correlation
edge_corr <- cor(trueEdges, estEdges)
```

Table 1: Evaluation criteria

Sensitivity	Specificity	Edge.weight.correlation
0.636	0.939	0.944

6-2. As we have also discussed during the lecture, there is a trade-off between the sensitivity, specificity, and the estimation parameters that we have set. What do you expect to happen to the sensitivity and specificity when you would lower the tuning hyper parameter? (1 points)

If we lower the tuning parameter (γ), which controls the strength of penalty, it would lead to a greater number of estimated edges (i.e., less number of weak edges will be put to zero). Accordingly, the sensitivity will become higher, but at the expense of specificity. Therefore, lowering gamma (γ) would *increase sensitivity* and *decrease specificity*.

Question 7 (2 points)

Perform a non-parametric bootstrap to investigate the accuracy of the Ising model that we estimated on the N = 1000 simulated data set. Plot the bootstrapped confidence intervals. What do you notice with the confidence intervals? Investigate different options (e.g., split0).

The red dot indicates the sample values, gray dots are boostrapped mean values, and the gray lines are the 95% bootstrapped CIs. Each horizontal line represents one edge of the network, ordered from the edge with the highest edge-weight to the edge with the lowest edge-weight.

Figure 3 shows the resulting bootstrapped CIs (BCIs) around the estimated edge-weights of Ising model. First thing that we notice is that there is a quite a big chunk of edges that are estimated to be zero. It is likely due to the regularization that is applied in our Ising model, which suppresses weak edges to zero. Regarding this, one thing that we need to be cautious when we interpret these BCIs: as these BCIs are obtained from the regularized edge weights, the interpretation of BCIs is limited to only show the variability in parameter estimates (not the typical interpretation of 95% analytic CIs). We need to keep in mind that all edge estimates are biased towards zero. That

is, observing that an edge is not set to zero already indicates that the edge is sufficiently strong to be included in the model. Overall most of the BCIs are not too wide and the sample values do not deviate much from the boostrap means, indicating that edge-weights are estimated with quite a high certainty. This could be due to the sufficiently high sample size ($n = 1000$). However, there is a sign of severe instability in one of the edges (the one on the top: the edge between `unfr` and `dislike`), which shows a much larger BCI. This erroneously wide BCI could be due to the violation of assumptions (Epskamp, Borsboom, &, Fried, 2018). All in all, it is recommended to be cautious when we make inferences on the edge weights in our estimated network, given that some of the BCIs are yet fairly wide, even though the edges mostly seem to be estimated with a decent certainty.

Figure 4 shows the *split-0* BCIs, where the BCIs are drawn only using the bootstrapped samples of non-zero estimates and coupled with a proportion of times that the parameter was put to zero. Accordingly, it shows how often an edge was included and the estimated value of corresponding edge through fading BCIs (when the edge is not often included, it is faded; Epskamp et al., 2018). As expected, there is no more big chunks of BCIs that are cut off at zero like above in Figure 3, since they are excluded. And if the edges are consistently not included (faded ones) the *split-0* BCIs tend to be wider (compared to the one that are consistently included), since they are estimated based on only the times when the parameters are included as non-zero. In addition, the *split-0* BCIs tend to be smaller compared to the BCIs from Figure 3, because they are estimated only when they were actually not zero, which make their variations smaller.

Figure 5 and Figure 6 shows the bootstrapped difference tests ($\alpha = 0.05$) between edge-weights that were non-zero in the estimated network and node strength, respectively. Gray boxes indicate nodes or edges that do not differ significantly from one-another and black boxes represent nodes or edges that do differ significantly from one-another. Colored boxes in the edge-weight plot correspond to the color of the edge in the estimated network (see Figure 1), and white boxes in the centrality plot show the value of node strength.

From Figure 5, it can be seen that quite a portion of edges (almost half) are shown to not significantly differ from one another. And Figure 6 shows that again about a half of node strengths cannot be shown to significantly differ from each other. Note that however, *no correction* for multiple testing was applied in both plots.

```r
# run bootstrapping
boots_ising <- bootnet(est_net, nBoots = 3000, nCores = 8)
# save results
save(est_net, boots_ising, file="data/Ising_Bootstrap.RData")


# load bootstrapping result
load("data/Ising_Bootstrap.RData")
## plot the bootstrapped confidence interval
plot(boots_ising, order = "sample", plot = "interval")


## plot split-0 BCIs
plot(boots_ising, order = "sample", plot = "interval", split0 = TRUE)


## plot significant differences (alpha = 0.05) of edges
plot(boots_ising, "edge", plot = "difference", onlyNonZero = TRUE, order = "sample") + My_Theme


## plot significant differences (alpha = 0.05) of node strength
plot(boots_ising, statistics = "strength", plot = "difference") + My_Theme
```
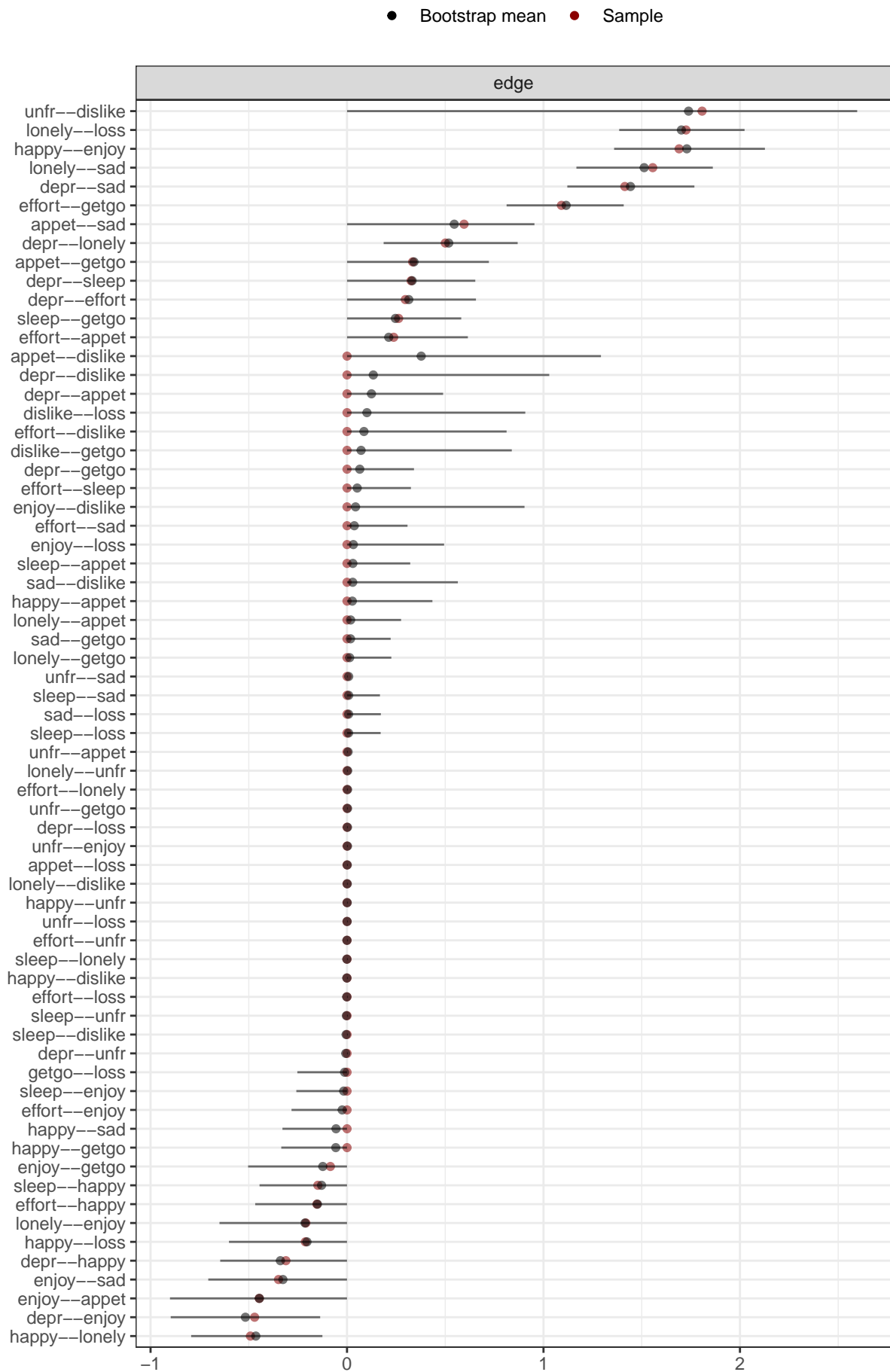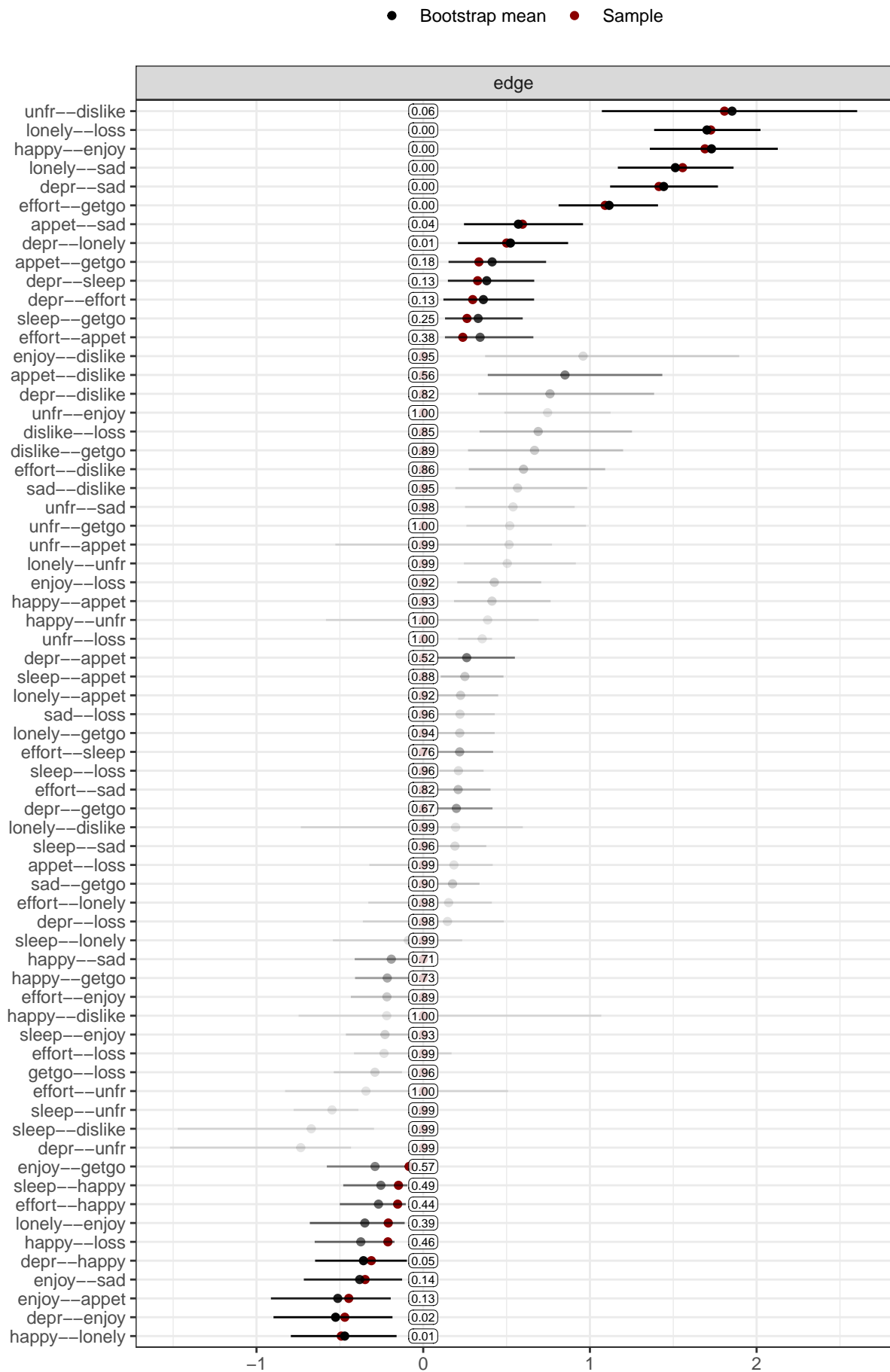
Figure 3: Bootstrapped CIs
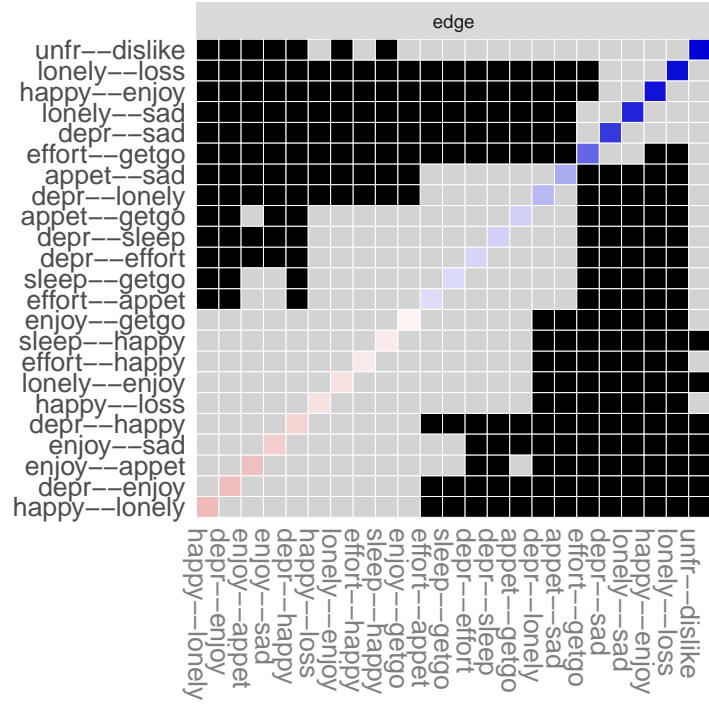
Figure 4: split0 Bootstrapped CIs

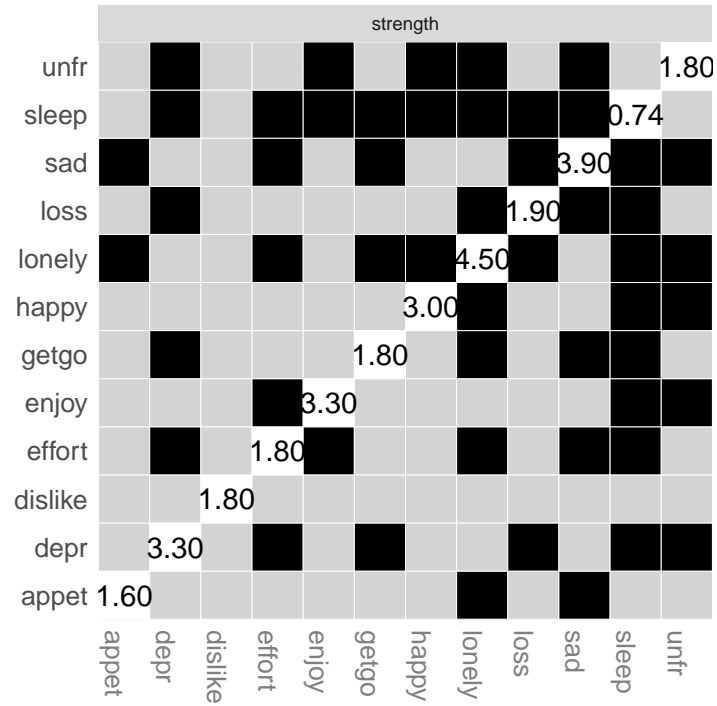Figure 5: Bootstrapped difference tests between edge weights

Figure 6: Bootstrapped difference tests between node strength

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Question 8 (3 points)

Perform a case-dropping bootstrap to investigate the stability of the centrality metric you choose in Question 5. Generate the stability plot as discussed in the lecture and report the CS-coefficient. Interpret the results of the case-dropping bootstrap.

Figure 7 (a) shows that the correlation of node strength over various size of sub-samples. The *line* indicates the mean strength of correlation, and the *area* indicates the range from 2.5th quantile to the 97.5th quantile. As you can see, the mean strength drops slightly but mainly remain stable across different size of sampled cases. It means that the order of node strength remains more or less the same after re-estimating the network with smaller subsetted cases. The area on the other hand becomes obviously wider as the size of sampled cases become smaller, which is not surprising as there are higher variabilities with the smaller samples. Figure 7 (b) shows the node strength of individual nodes across case-dropping bootstrapped sampels. It shows that the strength steadily decreases in most of the nodes as sampled cases become smaller, but the changes are not too dramatic. All in all, we could conclude that the stability of *node strength* is fine based on the stability plot (Figure 7).

The CS-coefficient of node strength is 0.672, which is above the recommended cut-off 0.5 (Epskamp, Borsboom & Fried, 2018). Given this, it could be concluded that we can substantively interpret the order of node strength. However, note that the cut-off value of 0.5 is rather chosen arbitrarily (just based on one simulation study: Epskamp et al., 2018), hence we still need to be careful when we try to make inferences on node strength.

```
## perform case-dropping bootstrapping
boots_casedrop <- bootnet(est_net, nBoots = 3000, nCores = 8, type = "case", statistics = "strength")
# save results
save(est_net, boots_casedrop, file="data/Casedrop_Bootstrap.RData")
```

```
# load case-dropping bootstrapping result
load("data/Casedrop_Bootstrap.RData")
## generate the stability plot
str_stab <- plot(boots_casedrop) + labs(title="(a) Overall Node Strength") +
  theme(legend.position = "none", plot.title = element_text(hjust = 0.5)) + my_Theme
## node strength estimates of inidividual nodes
str_pernode <- plot(boots_casedrop, perNode = TRUE) + labs(title="(b) Strength of Individual Node") +
  theme(legend.position = "none", plot.title = element_text(hjust = 0.5)) + my_Theme
```

```
## Centrality stability coefficient
corStability(boots_casedrop)
```

```
=== Correlation Stability Analysis ===

Sampling levels tested:
   nPerson Drop%   n
1      250  75.0 278
2      328  67.2 294
3      406  59.4 298
4      483  51.7 302
5      561  43.9 322
6      639  36.1 301
7      717  28.3 286
8      794  20.6 309
9      872  12.8 288
10     950   5.0 322
```

```
Maximum drop proportions to retain correlation of 0.7 in at least 95% of the samples:

intercept: 0.75 (CS-coefficient is highest level tested)
  - For more accuracy, run bootnet(..., caseMin = 0.672, caseMax = 1)

strength: 0.672
  - For more accuracy, run bootnet(..., caseMin = 0.594, caseMax = 0.75)

Accuracy can also be increased by increasing both 'nBoots' and 'caseN'.
```
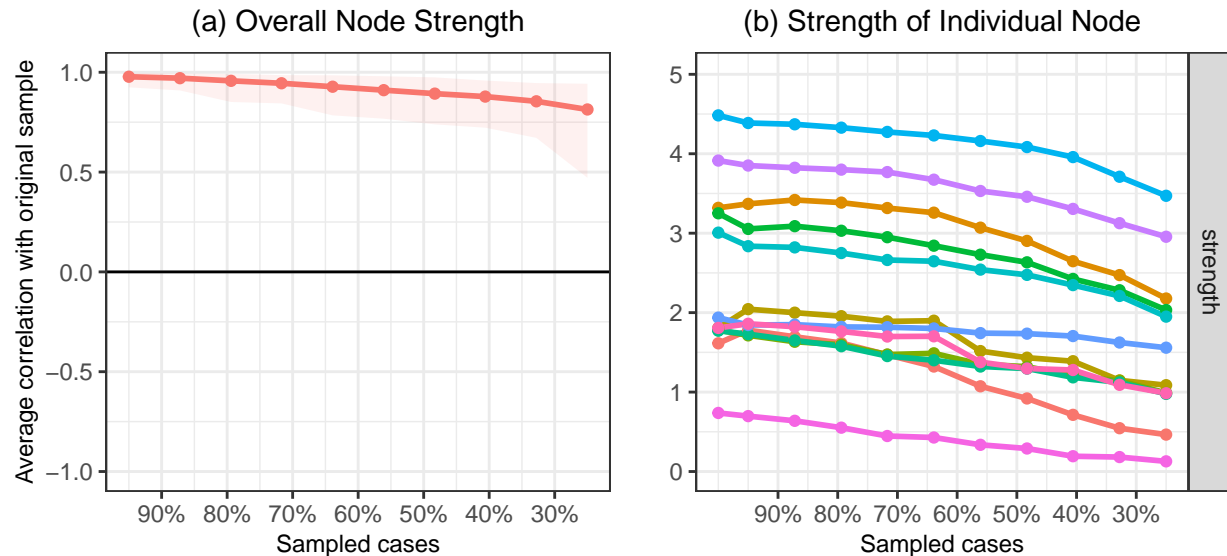

Figure 7: Node strength between case-dropping bootstrapped samples

Gaussian Graphical Models

```r
# download the network.csv file from https://osf.io/vufj4/ & load into R
data <- read.csv("data/network.csv")
# We will only look at depression symptoms
data_dep <- data %>% select(D.Anhedonia:D.Suicide)
# Rename:
names(data_dep) <- gsub("D\\.","",names(data_dep))
#Show the data:
head(data_dep)
```

```
  Anhedonia Sad.Mood Sleep Energy Appetite Guilt Concentration Motor Suicide
1         2        3     2      2        2     1             2     1       0
2         3        2     3      3        3     3             3     3       1
3         2        2     2      2        2     2             2     2       1
4         3        3     3      3        3     0             3     3       0
5         3        3     3      3        3     3             3     3       1
6         2        3     3      2        2     1             1     2       0
```

Question 9 (3 points)

With the `bootnet` package estimate a GGM using a (1) a pruning method, (2) a regularization method, and (3) a stepwise model search method. Plot all networks. Are there strong differences between the estimated network models? Please explain why (or why not).

The layout is set the same across the different networks using `AverageLayout` and the `maximum` argument is used to make the edges in the networks comparable.

Overall, the differences do not seem to be very strong in the structure of estimated network models as shown in Figure 8. But if you look into them closely, it could be seen that the regularization method presents more edges than the other two methods, followed by pruning (i.e., number of edges = *regularization > pruning > stepwise*). This difference is somewhat expected, since regularization tends to be less conservative than the other two non-regularized methods and stepwise model search method is relatively more conservative (Isvoranu & Epskamp, 2021).

But again, these differences are not that prominent especially when we look at the overall structure, and in general it is known to be the case (Blanken, Isvoranu, & Epskamp, 2022). However, when we are interested in any particular individual edges, these differences shall matter. According to Blanken et al.(2022), the rather subtle differences between the networks estimated from different methods could be due to the sufficient sample size (in this case $n = 675$), which make the different methods to converge.

```r
## (1) pruning
prunde_mod <- ggm(data_dep) %>% runmodel %>%
  prune(alpha=0.05) # alpha level = 0.05
pruned_net <- getmatrix(prunde_mod, "omega")


## (2) regularization
# tuning = 0.5 by default
reg_net <- estimateNetwork(data_dep, default="EBICglasso")


## (3) stepwise model search
sw_net <- estimateNetwork(data_dep, default="ggmModSelect", stepwise=TRUE)


## specify the comparable plotting settings
layout(t(1:3))
# get the average layout
avelayout <- averageLayout(pruned_net, reg_net, sw_net)
# set the same max value
Max <- max(abs(c(getWmat(pruned_net), getWmat(reg_net), getWmat(sw_net))))
# get labels
labelss <- c("Anhd", "Sad", "Sleep", "Energy", "Appe", "Guilt", "Concen", "Motor", "Suicide")


## plotting the networks
pruned_graph <- qgraph(pruned_net, layout = avelayout, theme = "colorblind",
                       title = "Pruning (sig = 0.05)", labels=labelss, vsize=15, title.cex = 1.5,
                       maximum=Max, details=T)
reg_graph <- plot(reg_net, title = "Regularization (gamma = 0.5)", layout=avelayout, vsize=15, labels=label
                  title.cex = 1.5, maximum=Max, details=T)
sw_graph <- plot(sw_net, layout = avelayout, title = "Stepwise", vsize=15, labels=labelss,
                 title.cex = 1.5, maximum=Max, details=T)
```
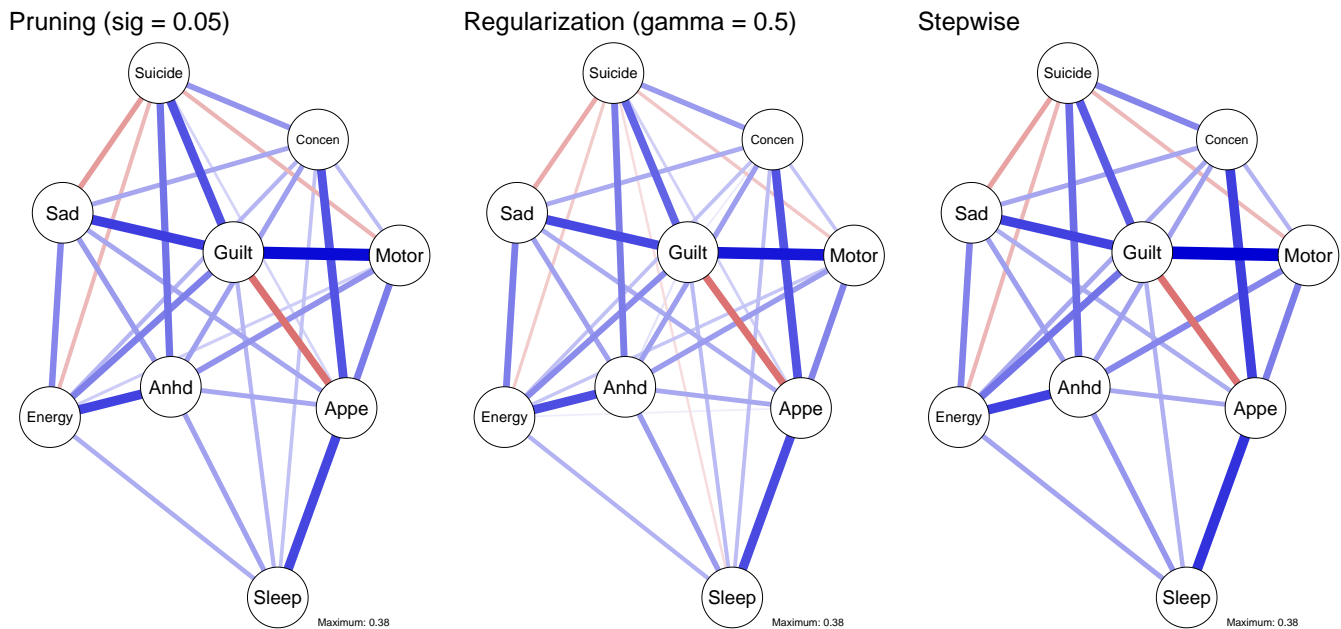
Figure 8: Comparison of model search algorithms

BONUS: Question 10 (1 point)

(a) Estimate separate networks for both sexes with your preferred algorithm from above.

As shown below, I chose to use the regularization method (i.e., EBICglasso) to estimate the networks. See Figure 9 for the separate network models for both sexes.

Note: Since it was not indicated, I assume `sex=1` to be male and `sex=2` to be female.

```r
## data of male groups
data_males <- data %>%
  select(sex, D.Anhedonia:D.Suicide) %>%
  filter(sex == 1) %>%
  rename_all(~stringr::str_remove_all(., "[.D]")) %>%
  select(-sex)

## data of female groups
data_females <- data %>%
  select(sex, D.Anhedonia:D.Suicide) %>%
  filter(sex == 2) %>%
  rename_all(~stringr::str_remove_all(., "[.D]")) %>%
  select(-sex)

## estimate network with EBICglasso regularization
network_males <- estimateNetwork(data_males,
default = "EBICglasso",
corMethod = "spearman")

network_females <- estimateNetwork(data_females,
default = "EBICglasso",
corMethod = "spearman")
```
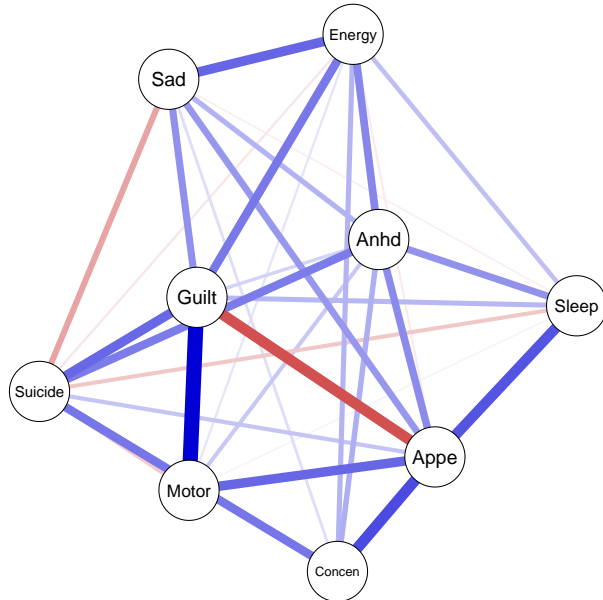
```
## plot the network for both groups
L <- averageLayout(network_males, network_females)
Max <- max(abs(c(getWmat(network_males), getWmat(network_females))))
layout(t(1:2))
plot(network_males, layout = L, title = "Males", maximum = Max, labels=labelss)
plot(network_females, layout = L, title = "Females", maximum = Max, labels=labelss)
```
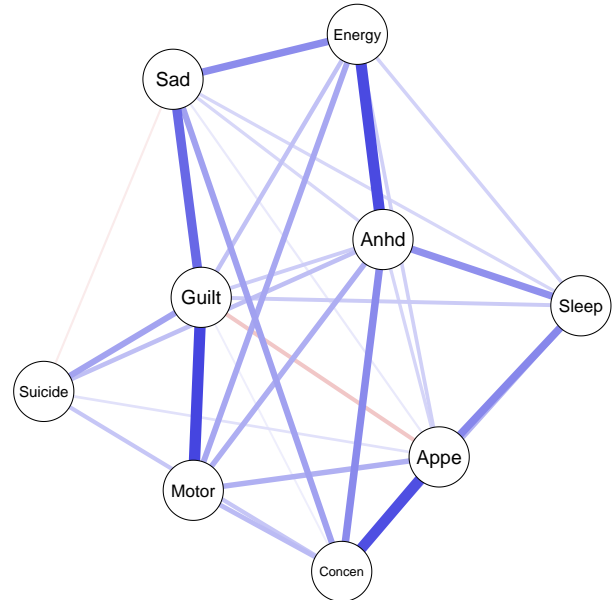

Figure 9: Comparison of network models between gender

b) Use the `NetworkComparisonTest (NCT)` to perform compare the global characteristics of both networks by focusing on (1) the global strength test evaluating the global strength invariance, and (2) the omnibus test evaluating the network structure invariance. What do you conclude about differences between these two samples?

According to van Borkulo et al. (2022), the minimum iteration number to get the reliable network comparison test result is 1000. Therefore, here I used 10,000 iterations to ensure that the result is sufficiently reliable.

Conclusion:

(1) The global strength test result is shown below in the *summary* as well as in the left graph from Figure 10. The null hypothesis states that the overall level of connectivity is the same across sub-populations. As the resulting p-value is 0.0559 ($p > 0.05$), we don't reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the global strength does not differ significantly in the two sample networks.

(2) Regarding the network structure, again we can check the *summary* and the right graph from Figure 10. The null hypothesis states that all edges are equal. Given that the p-value is 0.2831 ($p > 0.05$), again we don't reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the network structures are not significantly different.

```
## network comparison test
# set the seed for reproducibility
set.seed(123)
# number of iterations: 10,000
# testing the two aspects : network invariance, global strength
nct <- NCT(network_males, network_females, it=10000)
```

```
## summary of nct results
summary(nct)
```

```
NETWORK INVARIANCE TEST
      Test statistic M:  0.1960128
p-value 0.2831

GLOBAL STRENGTH INVARIANCE TEST
      Global strength per group:  5.083901 3.903436
Test statistic S:  1.180466
p-value 0.0559

EDGE INVARIANCE TEST
      Edges tested:
Test statistic E:
p-value

CENTRALITY INVARIANCE TEST
      Nodes tested:
Centralities tested:
Test statistic C:
p-value
```

```
## Plotting of NCT results
layout(t(1:2))
# global strength invariance test
plot(nct, what="strength")
# network structure invariance test
plot(nct, what="network")
```
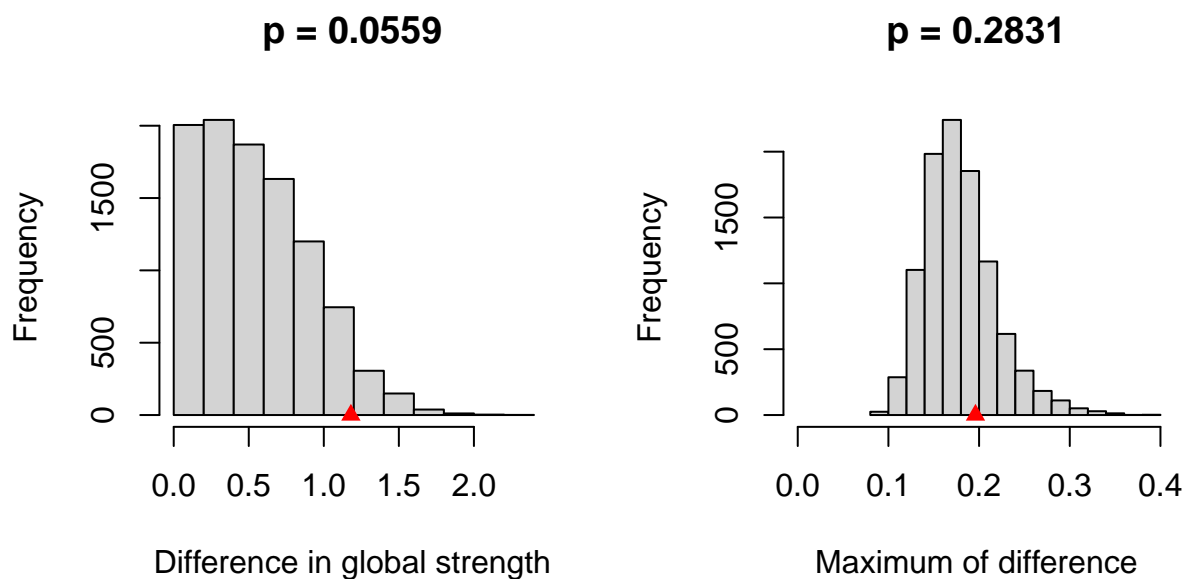

Figure 10: Reference distributions for network comparison tests

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