Small Contingency Tables with Large Gaps

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Abstract

We construct examples of contingency tables on \( n \) binary random variables where the gap between the linear programming lower/upper bound and the true integer lower/upper bounds on cell entries is exponentially large. These examples provide evidence that linear programming may not be an effective heuristic for detecting disclosures when releasing margins of multi-way tables.

1 Introduction

A fundamental problem in data security is to determine what information about individual survey respondents can be inferred from the release of partial data. The particular instance of this problem we are interested in concerns the release of margins of a multidimensional contingency table. In particular, given a collection of margins of a multi-way table, can individual cell entries in the table be inferred. This type of problem arises when statistical agencies like a census bureau release summary data to the public, but are required by law to maintain the privacy of individual respondents.

Many authors [1, 2, 3] have proposed that an individual cell entry is secure if, among all contingency tables with the given fixed marginal totals, the upper bound and lower bound for the cell entry are far enough apart. In general, solving the integer program associated with finding the sharp integer upper and lower bounds a cell entry is known to be NP-hard. A heuristic which has been suggested for approximating these upper and lower bounds is to solve the appropriate linear programming relaxation. Based on theoretical results for 2-way tables and practical experience for some small multi-way tables, some authors have suggested that the linear programming bounds and other heuristics should always constitute good approximations to the true bounds for cell values.

In this paper, we attempt to refute the claim that the linear programming bounds are, in general, good approximations to the true integer bounds. In particular, we will show the following:

**Theorem 1.** There is a sequence of hierarchical models on \( n \) binary random variable and a collection of margins such that the gap between the linear programming lower (upper) bounds and the integer programming lower (upper) bounds for a cell entry grows exponentially in \( n \).

For instance, on 10 binary random variables, our construction produces an instance where this difference is more than 100. This constitutes a significant discrepancy between the heuristic and reality, in a problem of size which is quite small from the practical standpoint.
The outline of this paper is as follows. In the next section we review hierarchical models and the algebraic techniques that we will use to construct our examples. The third section is devoted to the explicit construction, and in the fourth section we discuss practical consequences of our examples.

2 Graphical Models, Gröbner Bases, and Graver Bases

A hierarchical model is given by a collection of subsets \( \Delta \) of the \( n \)-element set \([n] := \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}\) together with an integer vector \( d = (d_1, \ldots, d_n) \). Without loss of generality, we can take \( \Delta \) to be a simplicial complex. In the setting of probabilistic inference, a hierarchical model is intended to encode interactions between a collection of \( n \) discrete random variables: the number of states is the \( i \)-th random variable is \( d_i \) and there is an interaction factor between the set of random variables indexed by each \( F \in \Delta \) (see, for example, [6] for an introduction). From the standpoint of data security, \( n \) is the number of dimensions of a multi-way contingency table, the \( d_i \) represent the number of levels in each dimension, and the elements \( F \in \Delta \) are the particular margins that are released. For the rest of this paper \( d_i = 2 \) for all \( i \); that is, we are considering dichotomous tables or binary random variables.

Computing the \( \Delta \)-margins of a multi-way table is a linear transformation. We denote by \( A_\Delta \) the matrix in the standard basis that computes these margins. Finding the minimum value for a cell entry given the \( \Delta \)-margins \( b \) amounts to solving the following integer program, which we denote \( IP_\Delta \):

\[
\min u_0 \ \text{subject to} \\
A_\Delta u = b, \ u \geq 0, \ u \text{ integral.}
\]

The linear programming relaxation drops the integrality condition. We denote it by \( LP_\Delta \):

\[
\min u_0 \ \text{subject to} \\
A_\Delta u = b, \ u \geq 0.
\]

The integer programming gap \( \text{gap}_- (\Delta) \) is the largest difference between the optimal solution of \( IP_\Delta \) and \( LP_\Delta \) over all feasible marginals \( b \) [5]. Explicitly computing the integer programming gap is a difficult problem, even for quite small models \( \Delta \). However, using properties of Gröbner bases, it is easy to give lower bounds on this gap. Recall the definition of a Gröbner basis:

**Definition 2.** A reduced Gröbner basis \( G_c \) of \( A_\Delta \) with respect to the cost vector \( c \) is a minimal set of improving vectors that solves the integer program \( IP_{\Delta,c} \) for any feasible right hand side \( b \).

In the literature of discrete optimization, Gröbner bases are often called test sets. A lower bound on \( \text{gap}_- (\Delta) \) is given by inspecting the coordinates of the Gröbner basis with respect to the cost vector \( c = e_{000\ldots0} \).

**Theorem 3 ([5], Corollary 4.3).** The value \( \text{gap}_- (\Delta) \) is greater than or equal to one less than the largest coordinate \( g_{000\ldots0} \) of any element in the reduced Gröbner basis \( G_c \) of \( A_\Delta \).
The precise definition of the Gröbner bases can be found in [7], however, we will restrict to a special family of models where the Gröbner basis elements we need have a simpler description. For this, we will need to recall the definition of the Graver basis. Note that any integer vector $u$, can be written uniquely as $u = u^+ - u^-$, where $u^+$ and $u^-$ are nonnegative with disjoint support.

**Definition 4.** A nonzero integer vector $u \in \ker(A)\Delta$ is called primitive is there does not exist an integer vector $v \in \ker(A)\Delta \setminus \{0, u\}$ such that $v^+ \leq u^+$ and $v^- \leq u^-$. The set of vectors $\{u \in \ker(A)\Delta | u$ is primitive$\}$ is called the *Graver basis* of $A\Delta$.

Given a simplicial complex $\Gamma$ on $[n-1]$ there is a natural construction of a new simplicial complex $\Delta = \logit(\Gamma)$ on $[n]$ which corresponds to taking the logit model with a binary response variable. The new model is defined as

$$\logit(\Gamma) := \{S \cup \{n\}| S \in \Gamma\} \cup 2^{[n-1]}$$

where $2^{[n-1]}$ is the set of all subsets of $[n-1]$. Note that $\ker(A\Gamma)$ and $\ker(A\logit(\Gamma))$ are isomorphic, and there is a natural identification: $u \in \ker(A\Gamma)$ if and only if $(u, -u) \in \ker(A\logit(\Gamma))$. This follows by inspecting the condition required by the margin associated to the facet $[n-1]$ of $\logit(\Gamma)$. A fundamental fact about logit models is that their Gröbner bases are easy to describe in terms of the Graver basis of $A\Gamma$, namely:

**Theorem 5 ([7] Theorem 7.1).** Let $\Gamma$ be a model and $\Delta = \logit(\Gamma)$ on $[n]$ then:

1. $Gr(A\Delta) = \{(u, -u)| u \in Gr(A\Gamma)\}$,
2. $\{g \in Gr(A\Delta)| c \cdot g > 0\} \subseteq G_c$.

Note that Theorem 5 is only true when the response variable is binary. We now have all the tools in hand to construct our example.

### 3 The Construction

Our main result is the following:

**Theorem 6.** For each $n \geq 3$, there is a hierarchical model $\Delta_n$ on $n$-binary random variables such that

$$\text{gap}_-(\Delta_n) \geq 2^{n-3} - 1.$$  

A similar statement about exponential growth of the gap for upper bounds can be derived by an analogous argument.

**Proof.** Our strategy will be to construct a hierarchical model $\Delta_n$ which has Gröbner basis elements whose $0$ entry is large. This will force the large gap by Theorem 3.

Let $\Gamma_n$ be the hierarchical model on $n-1$ random variables

$$\Gamma_n = \{S|S \subset [n-2], S \neq [n-2]\} \cup \{\{n-1\}\}.$$  

3
That is, $\Gamma_n$ is the union of the boundary of an $n - 3$ simplex together with an isolated point. Take $\Delta_n = \logit(\Gamma_n)$. To show the theorem with respect to $\Delta_n$ is suffices to show that $A\Gamma_n$ has elements in its Graver basis that have large entries in their 0 coordinate, by Theorem 5.

Consider the vector

$$f_n = 2^{n-3}e_{(0,0)} + \sum_{i \neq 0, \sum j \text{ even}} e_{(i,1)} - (2^{n-3} - 1)e_{(0,1)} - \sum_{i \sum j \text{ odd}} e_{(i,0)}.$$ 

Here $e_{(i,k)}$ denotes the standard unit vector whose index is $(i,k) \in \{0,1\}^{n-1}$; that is, $e_{(i,k)}$ is the integral table whose only nonzero entry is a one in the $(i,k)$ position. Note that $i \in \{0,1\}^{n-2}$ is an index on the first $n - 2$ random variables.

We will now show that $f_n$ is a primitive vector in $\ker(A\Gamma_n)$. First we must show that $f_n \in \ker(A\Gamma_n)$; that is, the positive and the negative part of $f_n$ have the same margins with respect to $\Gamma_n$. However, the margin with respect to any of the subsets $S \subset [n-2], S \neq [n-2]$ is the same: namely, it is the vector $m_n$ given by

$$m_n = (2^{n-3} - 1)e_0 + \sum_{i \in \{0,1\}^{n-3}} e_i.$$ 

The margin with respect to $\{n - 1\}$ is the vector $m'_n$ given by

$$m'_n = 2^{n-3}e_0 + (2^{n-3} - 1)e_1.$$ 

In particular, these margins are the same and so $f_n$ belongs to $\ker(A\Gamma_n)$.

Now we must show that $f_n$ is a primitive vector in $\ker(A\Gamma_n)$. Suppose to the contrary that there was some nontrivial $g_n \in \ker(A\Gamma_n)$ such that $g_n^+ \leq f_n^+$ and $g_n^- \leq f_n^-$. Suppose that one of the coordinates of $g_n^+$ was nonzero in a position indexed by some $(i,1)$ with $\sum j$ even. Then this forces $g_n^+$ to have nonzero entries in all the possible positions indexed by $(i,1)$ with $\sum j$ even if the margins with respect to the $S \subset [n-2]$ are to be the same in $g_n^+$ and $g_n^-$. However, this implies that the margin of $g_n^+$ with respect to $\{n - 1\}$ has an entry of $2^{n-3} - 1$ in the 1 position. This forces $g_n = f_n$ if $g_0 \in \ker(A\Gamma_n)$. On the other hand, since $g_n \neq 0$, it must have some positive entry. However, its only positive entry could not be in the $(0,0)$ position since this would force a negative entry in some position $(i,0)$. By the preceding argument, this implies that $g_n = f_n$ and thus $f_n$ is a primitive vector.

To explicitly construct an example of a set of margins $b$ with respect to $\Delta_n$ where the gap between the LP and IP optima is $2^{n-3} - 1$ just take

$$u = (2^{n-3} - 1)e_{(0,0,0)} + \sum_{i \neq 0, \sum j \text{ even}} e_{(i,1,0)} + (2^{n-3} - 1)e_{(0,1,1)} + \sum_{i \sum j \text{ odd}} e_{(i,0,1)},$$

and $b = A_{\Delta_n} u$. It follows that $u$ cannot be improved to an nonnegative integer table with smaller $(0,0,0)$ coordinate by appealing to the Gröbner basis. However, the nonnegative rational vector
\[ v = u - \frac{2^{n-3} - 1}{2^{n-3}} (f_n, -f_n) \]

has the same margins \( b \) as \( u \) but has \((0, 0, 0)\) coordinate 0.

4 Discussion

In this paper, we constructed an example to show that the gap between the linear programming lower bounds and the integer programming lower bounds for a cell entry can be exponentially large in the number of binary random variables of a hierarchical model. Previous explicit constructions of this type \[1\] gave gaps that were linear in the number of random variables.

There are a number of possible modifications to our result which can be made, to produce examples of different flavors. For instance, small modifications of our argument can be used to produce exponential gaps between the linear programming and integer programming upper bounds for cell entries. Furthermore, by adding extra dimensions by subdividing \( \Delta \), and using some of the techniques in \[4\], one can produces instances of purely graphical models with these exponential growth properties.

While it is not clear how often, given a random collection of margins \( b \), one should expect to encounter the exponentially large gaps we have demonstrated, we expect that for problems on large sparse tables, large gaps between the LP and IP solutions will be not be exceptional. This feeling is based on the observation that if any gap value can occur, then so can all the integer values smaller than this gap. This suggests that research needs to be done to determine better heuristics for approximating bounds on cell entries in large sparse tables.

References

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