

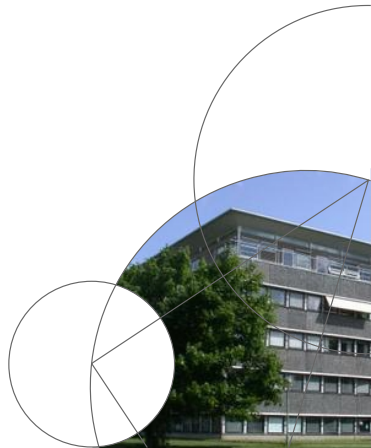


Faculty of Science



Likelihood Analysis of Gaussian Graphical Models

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Overview of lectures

- Lecture 1** Markov Properties and the Multivariate Gaussian Distribution
- Lecture 2** *Likelihood Analysis of Gaussian Graphical Models*
- Lecture 3** Gaussian Graphical Models with Additional Restrictions; structure identification.

For reference, if nothing else is mentioned, see Lauritzen (1996), Chapters 3 and 4.



Fundamental properties

For random variables X , Y , Z , and W it holds

(C1) If $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \mid Z$ then $Y \perp\!\!\!\perp X \mid Z$;

(C2) If $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \mid Z$ and $U = g(Y)$, then $X \perp\!\!\!\perp U \mid Z$;

(C3) If $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \mid Z$ and $U = g(Y)$, then
 $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \mid (Z, U)$;

(C4) If $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \mid Z$ and $X \perp\!\!\!\perp W \mid (Y, Z)$, then
 $X \perp\!\!\!\perp (Y, W) \mid Z$;

If density w.r.t. product measure $f(x, y, z, w) > 0$ also

(C5) If $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \mid (Z, W)$ and $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Z \mid (Y, W)$ then
 $X \perp\!\!\!\perp (Y, Z) \mid W$.



Semi-graphoid

An *independence model* (Studeny, 2005) \perp_σ is a ternary relation over subsets of a finite set V . It is a *graphoid* if for all disjoint subsets A, B, C, D :

- (S1) if $A \perp_\sigma B \mid C$ then $B \perp_\sigma A \mid C$ (*symmetry*);
- (S2) if $A \perp_\sigma (B \cup D) \mid C$ then $A \perp_\sigma B \mid C$ and $A \perp_\sigma D \mid C$ (*decomposition*);
- (S3) if $A \perp_\sigma (B \cup D) \mid C$ then $A \perp_\sigma B \mid (C \cup D)$ (*weak union*);
- (S4) if $A \perp_\sigma B \mid C$ and $A \perp_\sigma D \mid (B \cup C)$, then $A \perp_\sigma (B \cup D) \mid C$ (*contraction*);
- (S5) if $A \perp_\sigma B \mid (C \cup D)$ and $A \perp_\sigma C \mid (B \cup D)$ then $A \perp_\sigma (B \cup C) \mid D$ (*intersection*).

Semigraphoid if only (S1)–(S4). It is *compositional* if also

- (S6) if $A \perp_\sigma B \mid C$ and $A \perp_\sigma D \mid C$ then $A \perp_\sigma (B \cup D) \mid C$ (*composition*).



Separation in undirected graphs

Let $\mathcal{G} = (V, E)$ be finite and simple undirected graph (no self-loops, no multiple edges).

For subsets A, B, S of V , let $A \perp_{\mathcal{G}} B \mid S$ denote that S *separates A from B in \mathcal{G}* , i.e. that all paths from A to B intersect S .

Fact: *The relation $\perp_{\mathcal{G}}$ on subsets of V is a compositional graphoid.*

This fact is the reason for choosing the name 'graphoid' for such independence model.



Probabilistic Independence Model

For a system V of *labeled random variables* $X_v, v \in V$, we use

$$A \perp\!\!\!\perp B \mid C \iff X_A \perp\!\!\!\perp X_B \mid X_C,$$

where $X_A = (X_v, v \in A)$ denotes the variables with labels in A .

The properties (C1)–(C4) imply that $\perp\!\!\!\perp$ *satisfies the semi-graphoid axioms* and the *graphoid axioms if the joint density of the variables is strictly positive*.

A regular multivariate Gaussian distribution defines a compositional graphoid independence model, as we shall see later.



Markov properties for undirected graphs

$\mathcal{G} = (V, E)$ simple undirected graph; An independence model \perp_{σ} satisfies

(P) *the pairwise Markov property* if

$$\alpha \not\sim \beta \implies \alpha \perp_{\sigma} \beta \mid V \setminus \{\alpha, \beta\};$$

(L) *the local Markov property* if

$$\forall \alpha \in V : \alpha \perp_{\sigma} V \setminus \text{cl}(\alpha) \mid \text{bd}(\alpha);$$

(G) *the global Markov property* if

$$A \perp_{\mathcal{G}} B \mid S \implies A \perp_{\sigma} B \mid S.$$



Structural relations among Markov properties

For any semigraphoid it holds that

$$(G) \implies (L) \implies (P)$$

If \perp_σ satisfies graphoid axioms it further holds that

$$(P) \implies (G)$$

so that *in the graphoid case*

$$(G) \iff (L) \iff (P).$$

The latter holds in particular for $\perp\!\!\!\perp$, when $f(x) > 0$.



The multivariate Gaussian

A d -dimensional random vector $X = (X_1, \dots, X_d)$ has a *multivariate Gaussian distribution* or *normal* distribution on \mathcal{R}^d if there is a vector $\xi \in \mathcal{R}^d$ and a $d \times d$ matrix Σ such that

$$\lambda^\top X \sim \mathcal{N}(\lambda^\top \xi, \lambda^\top \Sigma \lambda) \quad \text{for all } \lambda \in \mathcal{R}^d. \quad (1)$$

We then write $X \sim \mathcal{N}_d(\xi, \Sigma)$. Then

$$X_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\xi_i, \sigma_{ii}), \quad \text{Cov}(X_i, X_j) = \sigma_{ij}.$$

Hence ξ is the *mean vector* and Σ the *covariance matrix* of the distribution.

A multivariate Gaussian distribution is determined by its mean vector and covariance matrix.



Density of multivariate Gaussian

If Σ is *positive definite*, i.e. if $\lambda^\top \Sigma \lambda > 0$ for $\lambda \neq 0$, the distribution has density on \mathcal{R}^d

$$f(x | \xi, \Sigma) = (2\pi)^{-d/2} (\det K)^{1/2} e^{-(x-\xi)^\top K (x-\xi)/2}, \quad (2)$$

where $K = \Sigma^{-1}$ is the *concentration matrix* of the distribution. Since a positive semidefinite matrix is positive definite if and only if it is invertible, we then also say that Σ is *regular*.



Adding two independent Gaussians yields a Gaussian:

If $X \sim \mathcal{N}_d(\xi_1, \Sigma_1)$ and $X_2 \sim \mathcal{N}_d(\xi_2, \Sigma_2)$ and $X_1 \perp\!\!\!\perp X_2$

$$X_1 + X_2 \sim \mathcal{N}_d(\xi_1 + \xi_2, \Sigma_1 + \Sigma_2).$$

Affine transformations preserve multivariate normality:

If L is an $r \times d$ matrix, $b \in \mathcal{R}^r$ and $X \sim \mathcal{N}_d(\xi, \Sigma)$, then

$$Y = LX + b \sim \mathcal{N}_r(L\xi + b, L\Sigma L^\top).$$



Marginal and conditional distributions

Partition X into X_A and X_B , where $X_A \in \mathcal{R}^A$ and $X_B \in \mathcal{R}^B$ with $A \cup B = V$. Partition mean vector, concentration and covariance matrix accordingly as

$$\xi = \begin{pmatrix} \xi_A \\ \xi_B \end{pmatrix}, \quad K = \begin{pmatrix} K_{AA} & K_{AB} \\ K_{BA} & K_{BB} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{AA} & \Sigma_{AB} \\ \Sigma_{BA} & \Sigma_{BB} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then, if $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\xi, \Sigma)$ it holds that

$$X_B \sim \mathcal{N}_s(\xi_B, \Sigma_{BB}).$$

Also

$$X_A | X_B = x_B \sim \mathcal{N}_A(\xi_{A|B}, \Sigma_{A|B}).$$



Here

$$\xi_{A|B} = \xi_A + \Sigma_{AB} \Sigma_{BB}^{-1} (x_B - \xi_B) \quad \text{and} \quad \Sigma_{A|B} = \Sigma_{AA} - \Sigma_{AB} \Sigma_{BB}^{-1} \Sigma_{BA}.$$

Using the matrix identities

$$K_{AA}^{-1} = \Sigma_{AA} - \Sigma_{AB} \Sigma_{BB}^{-1} \Sigma_{BA} \quad (3)$$

and

$$K_{AA}^{-1} K_{AB} = -\Sigma_{AB} \Sigma_{BB}^{-1}, \quad (4)$$

it follows that

$$\xi_{A|B} = \xi_A - K_{AA}^{-1} K_{AB} (x_B - \xi_B) \quad \text{and} \quad K_{A|B} = K_{AA}.$$

Note that the *marginal covariance is simply expressed in terms of Σ* whereas the *conditional concentration is simply expressed in terms of K* .



Further, since

$$\xi_{A|B} = \xi_A - K_{AA}^{-1} K_{AB} (x_B - \xi_B) \quad \text{and} \quad K_{A|B} = K_{AA},$$

X_A and X_B are independent if and only if $K_{AB} = 0$, giving
 $K_{AB} = 0$ if and only if $\Sigma_{AB} = 0$.

More generally, if we partition X into X_A, X_B, X_C , the conditional concentration of $X_{A \cup B}$ given $X_C = x_C$ is

$$K_{A \cup B|C} = \begin{pmatrix} K_{AA} & K_{AB} \\ K_{BA} & K_{BB} \end{pmatrix},$$

so

$$X_A \perp\!\!\!\perp X_B \mid X_C \iff K_{AB} = 0.$$

It follows that *a Gaussian independence model is a compositional graphoid.*



Gaussian graphical model

$\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{G})$ denotes the symmetric matrices A with $a_{\alpha\beta} = 0$ unless $\alpha \sim \beta$ and $\mathcal{S}^+(\mathcal{G})$ their positive definite elements.

A *Gaussian graphical model* for X specifies X as multivariate normal with $K \in \mathcal{S}^+(\mathcal{G})$ and otherwise unknown.

Note that the density then factorizes as

$$\log f(x) = \text{constant} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\alpha \in V} k_{\alpha\alpha} x_{\alpha}^2 - \sum_{\{\alpha, \beta\} \in E} k_{\alpha\beta} x_{\alpha} x_{\beta},$$

hence *no interaction terms involve more than pairs..*



Likelihood with restrictions

The likelihood function based on a sample of size n is

$$L(K) \propto (\det K)^{n/2} e^{-\text{tr}(Kw)/2},$$

where w is the (Wishart) matrix of sums of squares and products and $\Sigma^{-1} = K \in \mathcal{S}^+(\mathcal{G})$.

Define the matrices $T^u, u \in V \cup E$ as those with elements

$$T_{ij}^u = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } u \in V \text{ and } i = j = u \\ 1 & \text{if } u \in E \text{ and } u = \{i, j\}; \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

then $T^u, u \in V \cup E$ forms a basis for the linear space $\mathcal{S}(\mathcal{G})$ of symmetric matrices over V which have zero entries ij whenever i and j are non-adjacent in \mathcal{G} .



Further, as $K \in \mathcal{S}(\mathcal{G})$, we have

$$K = \sum_{v \in V} k_v T^v + \sum_{e \in E} k_e T^e \quad (5)$$

and hence

$$\text{tr}(Kw) = \sum_{v \in V} k_v \text{tr}(T^v w) + \sum_{e \in E} k_e \text{tr}(T^e w);$$

leading to the log-likelihood function

$$\begin{aligned} l(K) &= \log L(K) \sim \frac{n}{2} \log(\det K) - \text{tr}(Kw)/2 \\ &= \frac{n}{2} \log(\det K) \\ &\quad - \sum_{v \in V} k_v \text{tr}(T^v w)/2 + \sum_{e \in E} k_e \text{tr}(T^e w)/2. \end{aligned}$$



Hence we can identify the family as a (regular and canonical) exponential family with $-\text{tr}(T^u W)/2$, $u \in V \cup E$ as canonical sufficient statistics.

The likelihood equations can be obtained from this fact or by differentiation, combining the fact that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial k_u} \log \det(K) = \text{tr}(T^u \Sigma)$$

with (5).

This eventually yields the *likelihood equations*

$$\text{tr}(T^u w) = n \text{tr}(T^u \Sigma), \quad u \in V \cup E.$$



The likelihood equations

$$\text{tr}(T^u w) = n \text{tr}(T^u \Sigma), \quad u \in V \cup E.$$

can also be expressed as

$$n \hat{\sigma}_{vv} = w_{vv}, \quad n \hat{\sigma}_{\alpha\beta} = w_{\alpha\beta}, \quad v \in V, \{\alpha, \beta\} \in E.$$

Remember the *model restriction* $K = \Sigma^{-1} \in \mathcal{S}^+(\mathcal{G})$.

This 'fits variances and covariances along nodes and edges in \mathcal{G} ' so we can write the equations as

$$n \hat{\Sigma}_{cc} = w_{cc} \text{ for all cliques } c \in \mathcal{C}(\mathcal{G}).$$

General theory of exponential families ensure the solution to be unique, provided it exists.



Iterative Proportional Scaling

For $K \in \mathcal{S}^+(\mathcal{G})$ and $c \in \mathcal{C}$, define the operation of *adjusting the c -marginal* as follows: Let $a = V \setminus c$ and

$$M_c K = \begin{pmatrix} n(w_{cc})^{-1} + K_{ca}(K_{aa})^{-1}K_{ac} & K_{ca} \\ K_{ac} & K_{aa} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (6)$$

This operation is clearly well defined if w_{cc} is positive definite.

Recall the identity

$$(K_{AA})^{-1} = \Sigma_{AA} - \Sigma_{AB}\Sigma_{BB}^{-1}\Sigma_{BA}.$$

Switching the role of K and Σ yields

$$\Sigma_{AA} = (K^{-1})_{AA} = (K_{AA} - K_{AB}K_{BB}^{-1}K_{BA})^{-1}.$$



Hence

$$\Sigma_{CC} = (K^{-1})_{CC} = \{K_{CC} - K_{Ca}(K_{aa})^{-1}K_{ac}\}^{-1}.$$

Thus the C -marginal covariance $\tilde{\Sigma}_{CC}$ corresponding to the adjusted concentration matrix becomes

$$\begin{aligned}\tilde{\Sigma}_{CC} &= \{(M_c K)^{-1}\}_{CC} \\ &= \{n(w_{CC})^{-1} + K_{Ca}(K_{aa})^{-1}K_{ac} - K_{Ca}(K_{aa})^{-1}K_{ac}\}^{-1} \\ &= w_{CC}/n,\end{aligned}$$

hence $M_c K$ *does indeed adjust the marginals*.

From (6) it is seen that the pattern of zeros in K is preserved under the operation M_c , and it stays positive definite.

In fact, M_c *scales proportionally* in the sense that

$$f\{x \mid (M_c K)^{-1}\} = f(x \mid K^{-1}) \frac{f(x_c \mid w_{CC}/n)}{f(x_c \mid \Sigma_{CC})}.$$



Next we choose any ordering (c_1, \dots, c_k) of the cliques in \mathcal{G} .
Choose further $K_0 = I$ and define for $r = 0, 1, \dots$

$$K_{r+1} = (M_{c_1} \cdots M_{c_k})K_r.$$

Then we have: *Consider a sample from a covariance selection model with graph \mathcal{G} . Then*

$$\hat{K} = \lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} K_r,$$

provided the maximum likelihood estimate \hat{K} of K exists.

This algorithm is also known as *Iterative Proportional Scaling* or *Iterative Marginal Fitting*.



Factorization

Assume density f w.r.t. product measure on \mathcal{X} .

For $a \subseteq V$, $\psi_a(x)$ denotes a function which depends on x_a only, i.e.

$$x_a = y_a \implies \psi_a(x) = \psi_a(y).$$

We can then write $\psi_a(x) = \psi_a(x_a)$ without ambiguity.

Definition

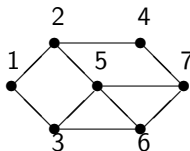
The distribution of X *factorizes w.r.t. \mathcal{G}* or satisfies (F) if

$$f(x) = \prod_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \psi_a(x)$$

where \mathcal{A} are *complete* subsets of \mathcal{G} .

Complete subsets of a graph are sets with all elements pairwise neighbours.





The *cliques* of this graph are the maximal complete subsets $\{1, 2\}$, $\{1, 3\}$, $\{2, 4\}$, $\{2, 5\}$, $\{3, 5, 6\}$, $\{4, 7\}$, and $\{5, 6, 7\}$. A complete set is any subset of these sets.

The graph above corresponds to a factorization as

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(x) &= \psi_{12}(x_1, x_2)\psi_{13}(x_1, x_3)\psi_{24}(x_2, x_4)\psi_{25}(x_2, x_5) \\
 &\times \psi_{356}(x_3, x_5, x_6)\psi_{47}(x_4, x_7)\psi_{567}(x_5, x_6, x_7).
 \end{aligned}$$



Theorem

Let (F) denote the property that f factorizes w.r.t. \mathcal{G} and let (G) , (L) and (P) denote Markov properties for $\perp\!\!\!\perp$. It then holds that

$$(F) \implies (G).$$

If f is continuous and $f(x) > 0$ for all x , $(P) \implies (F)$.

The former of these is a simple direct consequence of the factorization whereas the second implication is more subtle.

Thus in the case of positive density (but typically only then), *all the properties coincide*:

$$(F) \iff (G) \iff (L) \iff (P).$$



Graph decomposition

Consider an *undirected* graph $\mathcal{G} = (V, E)$. A partitioning of V into a triple (A, B, S) of subsets of V forms a *decomposition* of \mathcal{G} if

$$A \perp_{\mathcal{G}} B \mid S \text{ and } S \text{ is complete.}$$

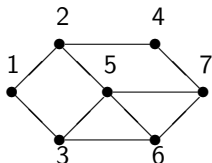
The decomposition is *proper* if $A \neq \emptyset$ and $B \neq \emptyset$.

The *components* of \mathcal{G} are the induced subgraphs $\mathcal{G}_{A \cup S}$ and $\mathcal{G}_{B \cup S}$.

A graph is *prime* if no proper decomposition exists.

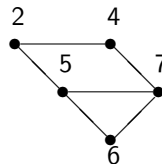
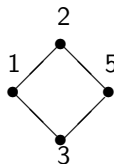
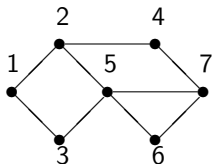


Example



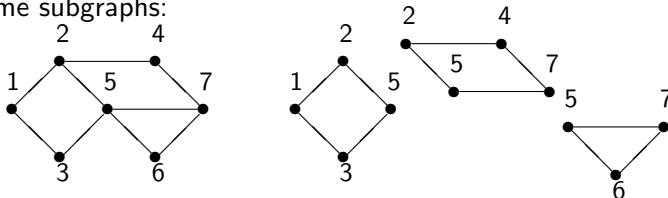
The graph to the left is prime

Decomposition with $A = \{1, 3\}$, $B = \{4, 6, 7\}$ and $S = \{2, 5\}$



Decomposability

Any graph can be recursively decomposed into its maximal prime subgraphs:



A graph is *decomposable* (or rather fully decomposable) if it is complete or admits a proper decomposition into *decomposable* subgraphs.

Definition is recursive. Alternatively this means that *all maximal prime subgraphs are cliques*.



Factorization of Markov distributions

Suppose P satisfies (F) w.r.t. \mathcal{G} and (A, B, S) is a decomposition. Then

- (i) P_{AUS} and P_{BUS} satisfy (F) w.r.t. \mathcal{G}_{AUS} and \mathcal{G}_{BUS} respectively;
- (ii) $f(x)f_S(x_S) = f_{AUS}(x_{AUS})f_{BUS}(x_{BUS})$.

The converse also holds in the sense that *if (i) and (ii) hold, and (A, B, S) is a decomposition of \mathcal{G} , then P factorizes w.r.t. \mathcal{G} .*



Recursive decomposition of a decomposable graph into cliques yields the formula:

$$f(x) \prod_{S \in \mathcal{S}} f_S(x_S)^{\nu(S)} = \prod_{C \in \mathcal{C}} f_C(x_C).$$

Here \mathcal{S} is the set of *minimal complete separators* occurring in the decomposition process and $\nu(S)$ the number of times such a separator appears in this process.



Characterizing decomposable graphs

A graph is *chordal* if all cycles of length ≥ 4 have chords.

The following are equivalent for any undirected graph \mathcal{G} .

- (i) \mathcal{G} is chordal;
- (ii) \mathcal{G} is decomposable;
- (iii) All maximal prime subgraphs of \mathcal{G} are cliques;

There are also many other useful characterizations of chordal graphs and algorithms that identify them.

Trees are chordal graphs and thus decomposable.



If the graph \mathcal{G} is chordal, we say that the graphical model is *decomposable*.

In this case, *the IPS-algorithm converges in a finite number of steps*.

We also have the *factorization of densities*

$$f(x|\Sigma) = \frac{\prod_{C \in \mathcal{C}} f(x_C | \Sigma_C)}{\prod_{S \in \mathcal{S}} f(x_S | \Sigma_S)^{\nu(S)}} \quad (7)$$

where $\nu(S)$ is the number of times S appear as intersection between neighbouring cliques of a junction tree for \mathcal{C} .



Relations for trace and determinant

Using the factorization (7) we can for example match the expressions for the trace and determinant of Σ

$$\text{tr}(KW) = \sum_{C \in \mathcal{C}} \text{tr}(K_C W_C) - \sum_{S \in \mathcal{S}} \nu(S) \text{tr}(K_S W_S)$$

and further

$$\det \Sigma = \{\det(K)\}^{-1} = \frac{\prod_{C \in \mathcal{C}} \det\{\Sigma_C\}}{\prod_{S \in \mathcal{S}} \{\det(\Sigma_S)\}^{\nu(S)}}$$

These are some of many relations that can be derived using the decomposition property of chordal graphs.



The same factorization clearly holds for the maximum likelihood estimates:

$$f(x | \hat{\Sigma}) = \frac{\prod_{C \in \mathcal{C}} f(x_C | \hat{\Sigma}_C)}{\prod_{S \in \mathcal{S}} f(x_S | \hat{\Sigma}_S)^{\nu(S)}} \quad (8)$$

Moreover, it follows from the general likelihood equations that

$$\hat{\Sigma}_A = W_A/n \text{ whenever } A \text{ is complete.}$$

Exploiting this, we can obtain an explicit formula for the maximum likelihood estimate in the case of a chordal graph.



For a $|d| \times |e|$ matrix $A = \{a_{\gamma\mu}\}_{\gamma \in d, \mu \in e}$ we let $[A]^V$ denote the matrix obtained from A by filling up with zero entries to obtain full dimension $|V| \times |V|$, i.e.

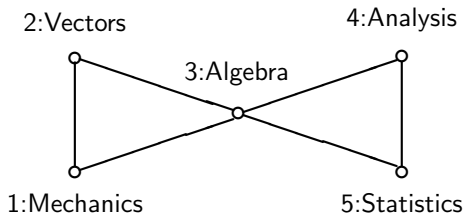
$$\left([A]^V\right)_{\gamma\mu} = \begin{cases} a_{\gamma\mu} & \text{if } \gamma \in d, \mu \in e \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The maximum likelihood estimates exists if and only if $n \geq C$ for all $C \in \mathcal{C}$. Then the following simple formula holds for the maximum likelihood estimate of K :

$$\hat{K} = n \left\{ \sum_{C \in \mathcal{C}} \left[(w_C)^{-1} \right]^V - \sum_{S \in \mathcal{S}} \nu(S) \left[(w_S)^{-1} \right]^V \right\}.$$



Mathematics marks



This graph is chordal with cliques $\{1, 2, 3\}$, $\{3, 4, 5\}$ with separator $S = \{3\}$ having $\nu(\{3\}) = 1$.



Since one degree of freedom is lost by subtracting the average, we get in this example

$$\hat{K} = 87 \begin{pmatrix} w_{[123]}^{11} & w_{[123]}^{12} & w_{[123]}^{13} & 0 & 0 \\ w_{[123]}^{21} & w_{[123]}^{22} & w_{[123]}^{23} & 0 & 0 \\ w_{[123]}^{31} & w_{[123]}^{32} & w_{[123]}^{33} + w_{[345]}^{33} - 1/w_{33} & w_{[345]}^{34} & w_{[345]}^{35} \\ 0 & 0 & w_{[345]}^{43} & w_{[345]}^{44} & w_{[345]}^{45} \\ 0 & 0 & w_{[345]}^{53} & w_{[345]}^{54} & w_{[345]}^{55} \end{pmatrix}$$

where $w_{[123]}^{ij}$ is the ij th element of the inverse of

$$W_{[123]} = \begin{pmatrix} w_{11} & w_{12} & w_{13} \\ w_{21} & w_{22} & w_{23} \\ w_{31} & w_{32} & w_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$

and so on.



Existence of the MLE

The IPS algorithm converges to the maximum likelihood estimator of \hat{K} of K *provided that the likelihood function does attain its maximum.*

The question of existence is non-trivial.

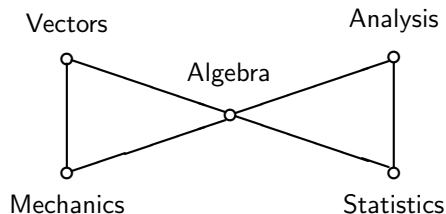
A *chordal cover* of \mathcal{G} is a chordal graph (no cycles without chords) \mathcal{G}' of which \mathcal{G} is a subgraph.

Let $n' = \max_{C \in \mathcal{C}'} |C|$, where \mathcal{C}' is the set of cliques in \mathcal{G}' and let n^+ *denote smallest possible value* of n' .

The quantity $\tau(\mathcal{G}) = n^+ - 1$ is known as the *treewidth* of \mathcal{G} (Halin, 1976; Robertson and Seymour, 1984).

The condition $n > \tau(\mathcal{G})$ is sufficient for the existence of the MLE.

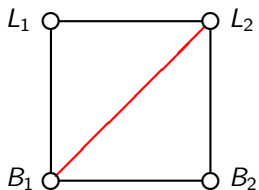




This graph has treewidth $\tau(\mathcal{G})=2$ since it is itself chordal and the largest clique has size 3.

Hence $n = 3$ *observations is sufficient for the existence of the MLE.*





This graph has also treewidth $\tau(\mathcal{G})=2$ since a chordal cover can be obtained by adding a diagonal edge.

Hence also here $n = 3$ observations is sufficient for the existence of the MLE.



Determining the treewidth $\tau(\mathcal{G})$ is a difficult combinatorial problem (Robertson and Seymour, 1986), but for any n it can be *decided with complexity $O(|V|)$ whether $\tau(\mathcal{G}) < n$* (Bodlaender, 1997).

If we let n^- denote the maximal clique size of \mathcal{G} , *a necessary condition is that $n \geq n^-$.*

For $n^- \leq n \leq \tau(\mathcal{G})$ it is unclear.



Buhl (1993) shows for a p -cycle, we have $n^- = 2$ and $\tau(\mathcal{G}) = 2$. If now $n = 2$, the probability that the MLE exists is strictly between 0 and 1. In fact,

$$P\{\text{MLE exists} \mid K = I\} = 1 - \frac{2}{(p-1)!}.$$

Similar results hold for the bipartite graphs $K_{2,m}$ (Uhler, 2012) and other special cases, but general case is unclear.

Recently there has been considerable progress (Gross and Sullivant, 2015), for example it can be shown that $n = 4$ *observations suffice for any planar graph*, an interesting parallel to the four-colour theorem.



The *r-core* of a graph \mathcal{G} is obtained by repeatedly removing all vertices with less than r neighbours.

It then holds (Gross and Sullivant, 2015) that *if the r -core of \mathcal{G} is empty, then $n = r$ observations are enough.*



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