Consider the case where $\xi=0$ and a sample $X^{1}=x^{1}, \ldots, X^{n}=x^{n}$ from a multivariate Gaussian distribution $\mathcal{N}_{d}(0, \Sigma)$ with $\Sigma$ regular. Using the expression for the density, we get the likelihood function

$$
\begin{align*}
L(K) & =(2 \pi)^{-n d / 2}(\operatorname{det} K)^{n / 2} e^{-\sum_{\nu=1}^{n}\left(x^{\nu}\right)^{\top} K x^{\nu} / 2} \\
& \propto(\operatorname{det} K)^{n / 2} e^{-\sum_{\nu=1}^{n} \operatorname{tr}\left\{K x^{\nu}\left(x^{\nu}\right)^{\top}\right\} / 2} \\
& =(\operatorname{det} K)^{n / 2} e^{-\operatorname{tr}\left\{K \sum_{\nu=1}^{n} x^{\nu}\left(x^{\nu}\right)^{\top}\right\} / 2} \\
& =(\operatorname{det} K)^{n / 2} e^{-\operatorname{tr}(K w) / 2} . \tag{1}
\end{align*}
$$

where

$$
W=\sum_{\nu=1}^{n} X^{\nu}\left(X^{\nu}\right)^{\top}
$$

is the matrix of sums of squares and products.

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Rewriting the likelihood function as

$$
\log L(K)=\frac{n}{2} \log (\operatorname{det} K)-\operatorname{tr}(K w) / 2
$$

we can of course also differentiate to find the maximum, leading to the equation

$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial k_{i j}} \log (\operatorname{det} K)=w_{i j} / n
$$

which in combination with the previous result yields

$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial K} \log (\operatorname{det} K)=K^{-1}
$$

The latter can also be derived directly by writing out the determinant, and it holds for any non-singular square matrix, i.e. one which is not necessarily positive definite.

The likelihood function based on a sample of size $n$ is

$$
L(K) \propto(\operatorname{det} K)^{n / 2} e^{-\operatorname{tr}(K w) / 2}
$$

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

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

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 $\mathcal{G}$ ．

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

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

$$
\frac{\partial}{\partial k_{u}} \log \operatorname{det}(K)=\operatorname{tr}\left(T^{u} \Sigma\right)
$$

with（2）．This eventually yields the likelihood equations

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

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
K=\sum_{v \in V} k_{v} T^{v}+\sum_{e \in E} k_{e} T^{e} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

and hence

$$
\operatorname{tr}(K w)=\sum_{v \in V} k_{v} \operatorname{tr}\left(T^{v} w\right)+\sum_{e \in E} k_{e} \operatorname{tr}\left(T^{e} w\right)
$$

leading to the log－likelihood function

$$
\begin{aligned}
I(K)= & \log L(K) \sim \frac{n}{2} \log (\operatorname{det} K)-\operatorname{tr}(K w) / 2 \\
= & \frac{n}{2} \log (\operatorname{det} K) \\
& -\sum_{v \in V} k_{v} \operatorname{tr}\left(T^{\vee} w\right) / 2+\sum_{e \in E} k_{e} \operatorname{tr}\left(T^{e} w\right) / 2
\end{aligned}
$$

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The likelihood equations

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

can also be expressed as

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

We should remember the model restriction
$K=\Sigma^{-1} \in \mathcal{S}^{+}(\mathcal{G})$ ．
This＇fits variances and covariances along nodes and edges in $\mathcal{G}^{\prime}$ so we can write the equations as

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

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

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

$$
M_{c} K=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
n\left(w_{c c}\right)^{-1}+K_{c a}\left(K_{a a}\right)^{-1} K_{a c} & K_{c a}  \tag{3}\\
K_{a c} & K_{a a}
\end{array}\right) .
$$

This operation is clearly well defined if $w_{c c}$ is positive definite Recall the identity

$$
\left(K_{A A}\right)^{-1}=\Sigma_{A A}-\Sigma_{A B} \Sigma_{B B}^{-1} \Sigma_{B A}
$$

Switching the role of $K$ and $\Sigma$ yields

$$
\Sigma_{A A}=\left(K^{-1}\right)_{A A}=\left(K_{A A}-K_{A B} K_{B B}^{-1} K_{B A}\right)^{-1}
$$

and hence

$$
\Sigma_{c c}=\left(K^{-1}\right)_{c c}=\left\{K_{c c}-K_{c a}\left(K_{a a}\right)^{-1} K_{a c}\right\}^{-1}
$$

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Next we choose any ordering $\left(c_{1}, \ldots, c_{k}\right)$ of the cliques in $\mathcal{G}$
Choose further $K_{0}=I$ and define for $r=0,1, \ldots$

$$
K_{r+1}=\left(M_{c_{1}} \cdots M_{c_{k}}\right) K_{r} .
$$

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.

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
\tilde{\Sigma}_{c c} & =\left\{\left(M_{c} K\right)^{-1}\right\}_{c c} \\
& =\left\{n\left(w_{c c}\right)^{-1}+K_{c a}\left(K_{a a}\right)^{-1} K_{a c}-K_{c a}\left(K_{a a}\right)^{-1} K_{a c}\right\}^{-1} \\
& =w_{c c} / n,
\end{aligned}
$$

hence $M_{c} K$ does indeed adjust the marginals. From (3) it is seen that the pattern of zeros in $K$ is preserved under the operation $M_{c}$, and it can also be seen to stay positive definite.
In fact, $M_{c}$ scales proportionally in the sense that

$$
f\left\{x \mid\left(M_{c} K\right)^{-1}\right\}=f\left(x \mid K^{-1}\right) \frac{f\left(x_{c} \mid w_{c c} / n\right)}{f\left(x_{c} \mid \Sigma_{c c}\right)} .
$$

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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

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

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 $S=\{2,5\}$


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## Factorization of Markov distributions

Suppose $P$ satisfies (F) w.r.t. $\mathcal{G}$ and $(A, B, S)$ is a
decomposition. Then
(i) $P_{A \cup S}$ and $P_{B \cup S}$ satisfy (F) w.r.t. $\mathcal{G}_{A \cup S}$ and $\mathcal{G}_{B \cup S}$ respectively;
(ii) $f(x) f_{S}\left(x_{S}\right)=f_{A \cup S}\left(x_{A \cup S}\right) f_{B \cup S}\left(x_{B \cup S}\right)$.

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. $\mathcal{G}$.

## 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.

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

$$
f(x) \prod_{S \in \mathcal{S}} f_{S}\left(x_{S}\right)^{\nu(S)}=\prod_{C \in \mathcal{C}} f_{C}\left(x_{C}\right) .
$$

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 $\geq 4$ 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.

## Relations for trace and determinant

Using the factorization (4) we can for example match the expressions for the trace and determinant of $\Sigma$

$$
\operatorname{tr}(K W)=\sum_{C \in \mathcal{C}} \operatorname{tr}\left(K_{C} W_{C}\right)-\sum_{S \in \mathcal{S}} \nu(S) \operatorname{tr}\left(K_{S} W_{S}\right)
$$

and further

$$
\operatorname{det} \Sigma=\{\operatorname{det}(K)\}^{-1}=\frac{\prod_{C \in \mathcal{C}} \operatorname{det}\left\{\Sigma_{C}\right\}}{\prod_{S \in \mathcal{S}}\left\{\operatorname{det}\left(\Sigma_{S}\right)\right\}^{\nu(S)}}
$$

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

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x \mid \Sigma)=\frac{\prod_{C \in \mathcal{C}} f\left(x_{C} \mid \Sigma_{C}\right)}{\prod_{S \in \mathcal{S}} f\left(x_{S} \mid \Sigma_{S}\right)^{\nu(S)}} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

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The same factorization clearly holds for the maximum likelihood estimates:

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x \mid \hat{\Sigma})=\frac{\prod_{C \in \mathcal{C}} f\left(x_{C} \mid \hat{\Sigma}_{C}\right)}{\prod_{S \in \mathcal{S}} f\left(x_{S} \mid \hat{\Sigma}_{S}\right)^{\nu(S)}} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

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.

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For a $|d| \times|e|$ matrix $A=\left\{a_{\gamma \mu}\right\}_{\gamma \in d, \mu \in e}$ 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 $K$ :

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

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

$$
\hat{K}=87\left(\begin{array}{ccccc}
w_{[123]}^{11} & w_{[123]}^{12} & w_{[123]}^{13} & 0 & 0 \\
w_{[123]}^{2123]} & w_{[123]}^{2123} & w_{[123]}^{32} & 0 & 0 \\
w_{[123]}^{123} & w_{[123]}^{22} & w_{[123]}^{33}+w_{[345]}^{33}-1 / w_{33} & w_{[345]}^{33} & w_{[345]}^{35} \\
0 & 0 & w_{[34]}^{43} & w_{[345]}^{44} & w_{[345]}^{45} \\
0 & 0 & w_{[345]}^{53} & w_{[345]}^{54} & w_{[345]}^{55}
\end{array}\right)
$$

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

$$
W_{[123]}=\left(\begin{array}{lll}
w_{11} & w_{12} & w_{13} \\
w_{21} & w_{22} & w_{23} \\
w_{31} & w_{32} & w_{33}
\end{array}\right)
$$

and so on.

## Mathematics marks



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

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## 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) $\mathcal{G}^{\prime}$ of which $\mathcal{G}$ is a subgraph.
Let $n^{\prime}=\max _{C \in \mathcal{C}^{\prime}}|C|$, where $\mathcal{C}^{\prime}$ is the set of cliques in $\mathcal{G}^{\prime}$ and let $n^{+}$denote smallest possible value of $n^{\prime}$.

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.

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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.


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.

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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, 2014), for example it can be shown that $n=4$ observations suffice for any planar graph, an interesting parallel to the four-colour theorem.

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