Bounding the Complexity of Structural Expectation-Maximization

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Abstract

Structural expectation-maximization is the most common approach to address the problem of learning Bayesian networks from incomplete datasets. Its main limitation is that its computational cost is usually extremely demanding when the number of variables or the number of instances is not small. The bottleneck of this algorithm is the inference complexity of the model candidates. Thus, bounding the inference complexity of each Bayesian network during the learning process is key to make structural expectation-maximization efficient. In this paper, we propose a tractable adaptation of structural expectation-maximization and perform experiments to analyze its performance.

1. Introduction

Bayesian networks (BNs) (Pearl, 1988; Koller & Friedman, 2009) provide a compact and self-explanatory representation of multidimensional probability distributions. A BN $\mathcal{B} = (\mathcal{G}, \boldsymbol{\theta})$ is composed of a structure \mathcal{G} , a directed acyclic graph that encodes conditional independences among triplets of variables in the network, and a set of parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$, i.e., the conditional probability distributions of each variable given its parents in the graph.

In the presence of missing values or hidden variables, BNs can be learned using Friedman's structural expectation-maximization algorithm (SEM) (Friedman, 1997), which extends the well-known expectation-maximization algorithm (Dempster et al., 1977; McLachlan & Krishnan, 2008) to simultaneously learn the structure and parameters of a BN. Because of its iterative nature, SEM is known to be a very computationally demanding algorithm. Moreover, as inference in BNs is NP-hard (Cooper, 1990), its computational cost may be prohibitive when the inference complexity of

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the network candidates is high.

Very recently, Scanagatta et al. (2018) have proposed the SEM-kMAX algorithm, a method for learning Bayesian networks with bounded treewidth from partially observed data. Unlike Friedman's SEM, they use hard assignments to complete the data in each iteration because keeping soft completions of the data in memory is infeasible for their proposal.

The main difference between using soft and hard assignments in SEM is that they involve optimizing over different objective functions. Soft assignments guarantee that the model is optimized with respect to the observed data, while hard assignments involve optimizing over both the model and the learned assignment to the missing values. In the problem of learning BNs from incomplete data, the objective function to be optimized is the former, given that the model that best explains the observed data is sought.

In this paper we propose a tractable adaptation of Friedman's SEM that uses soft assignments to guarantee that models are optimized with respect to the observed data. Additionally, hard assignments allow us to efficiently search for promising structure candidates at each iteration.

2. Tractable SEM

The most common approach to limit the inference complexity of the models is to bound its treewidth. Nevertheless, treewidth does not consider the cardinality of each variable, which can greatly influence the inference complexity of the networks. The below scoring function directly penalizes log-likelihood of the model for dataset \mathcal{D} with the cost of inference:

$$\operatorname{sc}(\mathcal{D}, (\mathcal{G}, \boldsymbol{\theta})) = \ell(\boldsymbol{\theta}|\mathcal{D}) - k \cdot \operatorname{size}(\mathcal{G}),$$
 (1)

where k>0 represents the weight of the inference complexity penalization given by $\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{G})$, which is the number of arithmetic operations (sums and products) required to perform inference with variable elimination (Shachter, 1990) for the BN \mathcal{B} . Note that $\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{G})$ depends on the chosen elimination order. An optimal elimination order for \mathcal{G} should minimize $\operatorname{size}(\mathcal{G})$, but finding it is an NP-hard problem (Arnborg et al., 1987). In the rest of the paper we assume the use of any heuristic with polynomial complexity (e.g.,

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Algorithm 1 Pseudocode of Tractable SEM (TSEM)

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1: Input: Incomplete dataset \mathcal{D}
 2: choose \theta_0
 3: for j = 0, 1, \ldots until convergence do
           let \mathcal{D}_{i+1}^{s} and \mathcal{D}_{i+1}^{h} be the soft and the hard comple-
            tion of \mathcal{D} according to \theta_i
            let \mathcal{G}' be the result of applying the local change
           that maximizes sc(\mathcal{D}_{i+1}^h, (\mathcal{G}', \boldsymbol{\theta}')) where \boldsymbol{\theta}' are the
           maximum-likelihood parameters of \mathcal{G}' for \mathcal{D}_{i+1}^{h}
           let \theta_{j+1} and \theta'_{j+1} be the maximum-likelihood pa-
           rameters of \mathcal{G} and \mathcal{G}' for \mathcal{D}_{j+1}^{s}, respectively
           \text{if} \quad \mathrm{sc}(\mathcal{D}_{j+1}^{\mathrm{s}}, (\mathcal{G}', \boldsymbol{\theta}'_{j+1})) \quad > \ \mathrm{sc}(\mathcal{D}_{j+1}^{\mathrm{s}}, (\mathcal{G}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{j+1}))
 7:
                (\mathcal{G}_{i+1}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{i+1}) \leftarrow (\mathcal{G}', \boldsymbol{\theta}'_{i+1})
 8:
 9:
                return (\mathcal{G}, \boldsymbol{\theta}_{i+1})
10:
           end if
11:
12: end for
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Markowitz (1957) or Kjærulff (1990)) for this purpose.

Algorithm 1 describes our proposal. In order to guide the structure search towards models with low inference complexity, Algorithm 1 scores each model according to Equation (1). The bottleneck of SEM is the computation of the expected sufficient statistics (ESS) for each network candidate. This can be very computationally demanding even when inference can be performed efficiently. To address this problem, our approach heuristically selects the most promising candidate structure at each iteration (line 5), using hard assignments to complete the data. Given a completed dataset the scoring function is decomposable, and the search of the optimal local change can be done efficiently. Subsequently, a soft completion of the data is used to compare the candidate structure with the previous one (lines 6–7). This ensures that the score at Equation (1) is improved with respect to the observed data at each iteration, guaranteeing its convergence.

2.1. Complexity of Algorithm 1

Completing dataset \mathcal{D}_{j+1}^{h} (line 4) requires performing M inference queries, where M is the number of instances of \mathcal{D} . This can be done efficiently when the complexity of inference is bounded. Completing dataset \mathcal{D}_{j+1}^{s} (line 4) requires exponential time and space in the number of missing values. Nevertheless, computing the ESS of \mathcal{D}_{j+1}^{s} for a structure is clearly less computationally demanding. Efficient inference methods as junction trees would require M inference queries to compute the ESS for a given structure candidate. Algorithm 1 computes the ESS of only two candidates at each iteration (line 6), which can be done efficiently. It is evident that lines 5–11 can be computed in tractable time

Table 1: Comparison of the mean \pm standard deviation obtained with TSEM and SEM-kMAX in the 10 datasets. L_time is the learning time (in seconds), L_acc is the imputation accuracy and tw is the treewidth of the output model. The best results are denoted in boldface.

	Method	L_time	L_acc	tw
T	TSEM	199±13	0.956 ± 0.001	4.9±0.3
WI	SEM-kMAX	1036±295	0.943 ± 0.003	3.2±0.4
_	TSEM	667±96	0.903 ± 0.002	2.3±0.5
PA	SEM-kMAX	1239±176	0.864 ± 0.005	3.1±0.3
	TSEM	3821±399	0.910 ± 0.001	2.9 ± 0.3
\mathbf{z}	SEM-kMAX	1976 ± 284	0.885 ± 0.002	3.1 ± 0.3

given a completed dataset. Finally, the number of iterations of the loop at line e depends on the stopping criterion. If the stopping criterion is $\mathcal{G}_{j+1} = \mathcal{G}_j$ and the local changes considered at line 5 are only arc additions the maximum number of iterations that this algorithm could perform is bounded by n^2 , where n is the number of variables in \mathcal{D} .

3. Experimental Results

In this section we compare our approach with SEM-kMAX to highlight the advantages and drawbacks of the proposed strategy. We generated 10 datasets of 2000 instances and 50% of missing values from the following real-world BNs: WIN95PTS (Horvitz et al., 1998), PATHFINDER (Heckerman et al., 1992), and MUNIN1 (Andreassen et al., 1989). We refer to these networks as WI, PA and MU, respectively.

Our approach requires to fix the weight of the complexity penalization k for the score (Equation (1)). We empirically set k to 0.05. Other small values of k produced similar results. We set the parameters of SEM-kMAX to the values suggested by Scanagatta et al. (2018). Concretely, they set an execution time of n seconds (i.e., a second for each variable) to compute the cache of best parent sets and n/10 seconds for the structure search.

Table 1 shows the experimental results that compare the above approaches. TSEM outperformed SEM-kMAX in terms of imputation accuracy in all the evaluated datasets. Apparently, this is caused by the differences between using soft and hard completions of the data. Analyzing the learning times, TSEM is faster in datasets generated from medium-sized networks and slower in those generated from the largest network. This can be explained by the bound in execution time set for SEM-kMAX which forces its learning time to scale linearly.

4. Conclusions

In this paper we proposed an efficient adaptation of SEM, providing guarantees on its convergence. TSEM showed promising experimental results, outperforming the state-ofthe-art.

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