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11 Efficient learning of bounded treaudible Payerian networks 11 $\frac{11}{12}$ Efficient learning of bounded-treewidth Bayesian networks $\frac{11}{12}$ 13 from complete and incomplete data sets **13** and incomplete data sets 14

¹⁵ Mauro Scanagatta de Ciorgio Coranida Marco Zaffalonda Japuin Vool^b II Kang ^b 16 16 Mauro Scanagatta a, Giorgio Corani a, Marco Zaffalon a, Jaemin Yoo b, U. Kang ^b

17 a IDSIA, Switzerland 17 a 1996 a 1997 a 1998 a 1999 a 1998 a 1999 a 1999 a 1999 a 1999 a 1999 a 1999 a 199 ^a *IDSIA, Switzerland*

18 18 ^b *Seoul National University, Republic of Korea*

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22 $\frac{22}{\text{Article history:}}$ Learning a Bayesian networks with bounded treewidth is important for reducing the $\frac{22}{\text{°}}$ ²³ 23 Received 11 December 2017 **complexity of the inferences.** We present a novel anytime algorithm (k-MAX) method ²⁴ Received in revised form 12 February 2018 for this task, which scales up to thousands of variables. Through extensive experiments ²⁴ 25 Accepted 13 February 2018
we show that it consistently yields higher-scoring structures than its competitors on 25 26 Avallable online xxxx

complete data sets. We then consider the problem of structure learning from incomplete 26 $\frac{27}{\text{Kewords}}$ $\frac{1}{\text{Kewords}}$ atta sets. This can be addressed by structural EM, which however is computationally $\frac{27}{\text{Kewords}}$ ²⁸ Structural learning and the state of the very demanding. We thus adopt the novel k-MAX algorithm in the maximization step of 28 29 29 structural EM, obtaining an efficient computation of the expected sufficient statistics. We 30 30 test the resulting structural EM method on the task of imputing missing data, comparing 31 Structural EM **in a construct of the state-of-the-art approach based on random forests. Our approach achieves** 31 ₃₂ Incomplete data sets **12** the same imputation accuracy of the competitors, but in about one tenth of the time. Eurthermore we show that it has worst-case complexity linear in the input size, and that ₃₃ it is easily parallelizable.

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40 1 Introduction 40 **1. Introduction**

42 42 43 43 The size of an explicit representation of the joint distribution of *n* categorical random variables is exponential in *n*. $_{44}$ Bayesian networks [\[1\]](#page--1-0) compactly represent joint distributions by exploiting independence relations and encoding them $_{\rm 44}$ ₄₅ into a directed acyclic graph (DAG), also referred to as *structure.* Yet, algorithms able to perform structure learning from ₄₅ $_{46}$ thousands of variables have been devised only very recently for Bayesian networks [\[2,3\]](#page--1-0) and for chordal log-linear graphical $_{46}$ $_{47}$ models (that can be exactly mapped on Bayesian networks) [\[4,5\]](#page--1-0).

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 $_{48}$ Given a Bayesian network, the task of computing the marginal distribution of a set of variables, possibly given evidence $_{\rm 48}$ 49 49 on another set of variables, is called *inference*. The complexity of exact inference grows exponentially in the *treewidth* [\[1,](#page--1-0) $_{50}$ Chap. 7] of the DAG, under the exponential time hypothesis [\[6\]](#page--1-0). In order to allow tractable inference we thus need to learn $_{50}$ $_{51}$ Bayesian networks with a bounded-treewidth structure; this problem is NP-hard [\[7\]](#page--1-0).

₅₂ Most research on learning bounded-treewidth Bayesian networks adopts a score-based approach. The score measures 52 $_{53}$ the fit of the DAG to the data; the goal is hence to find the highest-scoring DAG that respects the treewidth bound. Exact $_{53}$ 54 54 methods [\[7–9\]](#page--1-0) exist, but their applicability is restricted to small domains. Approximate approaches that scale up to some

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⁵⁷ 57 *E-mail addresses:* mauro@idsia.ch (M. Scanagatta), giorgio@idsia.ch (G. Corani), zaffalon@idsia.ch (M. Zaffalon), jaeminyoo@snu.ac.kr (J. Yoo), 58 58 ukang@snu.ac.kr (U. Kang).

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 1 hundreds of variables [\[10,11\]](#page--1-0) have been more recently proposed. A recent breakthrough has been achieved by the k-greedy 2 algorithm [\[3\]](#page--1-0). It consistently yields higher-scoring DAGs than its competitors and it scales to several *thousands* of variables.

 3 In this paper we present a new algorithm called k-MAX, which improves over k-greedy. Both k-MAX and k-greedy are 4 anytime algorithms: they can be stopped at any moment, yielding the current best solution. k-MAX adopts a set of more 5 sophisticated heuristics compared to k-greedy; as a result it consistently yields higher-scoring DAGs than both k-greedy and 6 other competitors, as demonstrated by our extensive experiments on complete data sets.

⁷ Structure learning algorithms commonly assume data sets to be complete; yet real data sets are often incomplete. Struc- 8 ture learning on incomplete data sets can be accomplished via the *structural expectation-maximization* (SEM) algorithm [\[12\]](#page--1-0), 9 which alternates between an estimation of the sufficient statistics given the current model (expectation step), and the ¹⁰ search of a new model given the expected sufficient statistics (maximization step). Yet, SEM is computationally demanding: ¹⁰ ¹¹ in particular the expectation step requires computing several inferences, which might become prohibitive if the model has ¹¹ ¹² unbounded treewidth and/or there are many missing data whose actual value has to be inferred. We adopt k-MAX as the ¹³ structure learning algorithm within SEM; in this way we obtain a fast implementation of SEM, since the bounded-treewidth ¹³ ¹⁴ structures learned in the different iterations perform efficient inferences. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first ¹⁴ 15 implementation of SEM that is able to scale to thousands of variables.

¹⁶ To test our method, we use the Bayesian networks learned by SEM in order to perform data imputation. We consider as a ¹⁷ competitor a recent method for data imputation based on random forests [\[13\]](#page--1-0) and we compare the two approaches on data ¹⁷ ¹⁸ sets with different degrees of missingness. The two approaches achieve the same imputation accuracy, but our approach is ¹⁸ ¹⁹ faster by almost one order of magnitude. Furthermore we show that the complexity of our method scales linearly in the ¹⁹ ²⁰ input size (Subsec. [7.4\)](#page--1-0), and that it is easily parallelizable (Subsec. [7.5\)](#page--1-0). To the best of our knowledge, it is the first approach ²⁰ 21 in the literature able to do so.

²² In Section 2 we present the technical background of the paper. In Section 3 we detail our approach for bounded- ²² 23 treewidth structure learning, k-MAX. In Section [4](#page--1-0) and [5](#page--1-0) we evaluate its performance against existing state-of-the-art 24 approaches. In Section [6](#page--1-0) we present how k-MAX can be used in the SEM algorithm, obtaining the SEM-k-MAX algorithm. 25 It is evaluated in Section [7](#page--1-0) on the task of data imputation against the state-of-the-art approach. Section [8](#page--1-0) concludes our 26 разрет. 26 развитие одности с производите с при страниционално с при страниционално с 20 разрет с 20 разре paper.

²⁷ The software of this paper is available from [http://ipg.idsia.ch/software/blip,](http://ipg.idsia.ch/software/blip) together with supplementary material con-28 taining the detailed results of our experiments.

30 **2. Treewidth and** *k***-trees**

 32 Intuitively, the treewidth *k* quantifies the extent to which a graph resembles a tree. Following the terminology of [\[14\]](#page--1-0) 33 we now provide a formal definition. Let us recall that a *clique* of an undirected graph is a subset of its nodes such that ³⁴ every two distinct nodes are linked by an edge. Moreover, a clique is *maximal* if it is not a subset of a larger clique. ³⁴

 35 *Treewidth of an undirected graph.* We denote an undirected graph by *H* = *(V , E)* where *V* is the vertex set and *E* is 36 the edge set. An undirected graph is *triangulated* when every cycle of length greater than or equal to 4 has a *chord*, that 37 is, an edge connecting two non-consecutive nodes in the cycle [\[1,](#page--1-0) Def. 9.16]. Triangulated graphs are also called *chordal* 38 graphs. The *triangulation* of a graph is the operation of adding chords until the graph is triangulated. The treewidth of a 39 triangulated graph is the size of its largest clique minus one. The treewidth of *H* is the minimum treewidth among all the 40 possible triangulations of *H*.

 41 *Treewidth of a Bayesian network.* The moral graph of the DAG associated to a Bayesian network is an undirected graph that 42 includes an edge (*i* − *j*) for every edge (*i* → *j*) in the DAG and an edge (*p* − *q*) for every pair of edges (*p* → *i*), (*q* → *i*) in 43 the DAG. The treewidth of the DAG is the treewidth of its moral graph.

45 2.1. k-trees 45 and 45 and 45 and 45 and 45 and 45 and 46 *2.1. k-trees*

 47 A *k*-tree is an undirected *edge-maximal* graph of treewidth *k*, that is, the addition of any edge to the *k*-tree increases its 48 treewidth. It is defined inductively as follows [\[15\]](#page--1-0). *Base case*: a clique with *(k* + 1*)* nodes is a *k*-tree. *Inductive step*: given a 49 k-tree H_n on *n* nodes, a k-tree H_{n+1} on $(n+1)$ nodes is obtained by connecting the $(n+1)$ -th node to a k-clique of H_n 49 50 (a *k*-clique is a clique over *k* nodes). See Fig. [1](#page--1-0) for an example. As a final remark, a sub-graph of a *k*-tree is called *partial* 51 *k-tree*; its treewidth is at most *k*.

53 **3. Structure learning of Bayesian networks**

 55 We consider the problem of learning the structure of a Bayesian network from a complete data set. The set of *n* categor- ical random variables is $\mathcal{X} = \{X_1, ..., X_n\}$. The goal is to find the highest-scoring bounded-treewidth DAG $\mathcal{G} = (V, E)$, where 56 *V* is the collection of nodes and *E* is the collection of arcs. *E* can be represented by the set of parents $\Pi_1, ..., \Pi_n$ of all 57 58 variables.

 59 Structure learning is usually accomplished in two steps. First, *parent set identification* is the identification of a list (*cache*) 60 *Li* of candidate parent sets independently for each variable *Xi* . Second, *structure optimization* is the assignment of a parent 61 set to each node in order to maximize the score of the resulting DAG.

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