

Models Learnable by Belief Net Learning Algorithms Equipped with Single-Link Search

Y. Xiang

Department of Computer Science, University of Regina
Regina, Saskatchewan, Canada S4S 0A2, yxiang@cs.uregina.ca

Abstract

Common algorithms for learning belief networks employ a single-link lookahead search. It is unclear, however, what types of domain models are learnable by such algorithms and what types of models will escape. We provide an axiomatic characterization of models learnable by a class of learning algorithms that use a single-link search.

The characterization identifies models that are definitely learnable and definitely unlearnable by the entire class of algorithms. It also identifies models that are highly likely to escape current learning algorithms. A comparison between forward and backward single-link search is also presented.

1 Introduction

Common algorithms for learning belief networks [4, 7, 1, 12, 3] use a single-link lookahead search to select candidate network structures. It is unclear, however, what types of (probabilistic) domain models are learnable by such algorithms and what types of models will escape. We investigate this question by providing an axiomatic characterization of models learnable by a class of learning algorithms that use a single-link search. The characterization is derived through a generalization of these learning algorithm.

The characterization identifies models that are definitely learnable and definitely unlearnable by the entire class of algorithms. It also identifies

models that are highly likely to escape current learning algorithms. The results suggest directions for improving these algorithms and also provide a basis to analysis of the new learning algorithms.

In Section 2, we overview the necessary background. We introduce the generalized algorithm called LIM in Section 3. In Section 4, we show that common concepts in belief network literature are inadequate to characterize domain models learnable by LIM. An axiomatic characterization is presented and its implications are discussed in Section 5. We compare forward and backward single-link search in Section 6.

2 Background

Let N be a set of discrete variables in a problem domain. Each variable is associated with a set of possible values. A *configuration* or a *tuple* of $N' \subseteq N$ is an assignment of values to every variable in N' . A *probabilistic domain model* (PDM) over N determines the probability of every tuple of N' for each $N' \subseteq N$. For three disjoint sets X , Y and Z of variables, X and Y are independent given Z if $P(X|Y, Z) = P(X|Z)$ whenever $P(Y, Z) > 0$. We denote the conditional independence relation by $I(X, Z, Y)$. A PDM satisfies the following axioms [9]:

Symmetry $I(X, Z, Y) \implies I(Y, Z, X)$.

Decomposition $I(X, Z, Y \cup W) \implies I(X, Z, Y) \ \& \ I(X, Z, W)$.

Weak Union $I(X, Z, Y \cup W) \implies I(X, Z \cup W, Y)$.

Contraction $I(X, Z, Y) \ \& \ I(X, Z \cup Y, W) \implies I(X, Z, Y \cup W)$.

If the PDM is strictly positive, then the following also holds:

Intersection $I(X, Z \cup W, Y) \ \& \ I(X, Z \cup Y, W) \implies I(X, Z, Y \cup W)$.

For disjoint subsets X , Y and Z of nodes in a graph G , we use $\langle X|Z|Y \rangle_G$ to denote that nodes in Z *graphically separate* nodes in X and nodes in Y . When G is undirected, $\langle X|Z|Y \rangle_G$ denotes that nodes in Z intercept all paths between X and Y . When G is directed acyclic graph (DAG), graphical separation is defined by *d-separation* [9]. A graph G is an *I-map*

of a PDM over N if there is an one-to-one correspondence between nodes of G and variables in N such that for all disjoint subsets X, Y and Z of N , $\langle X|Z|Y \rangle_G \implies I(X, Z, Y)$. G is a *D-map* if $\langle X|Z|Y \rangle_G \iff I(X, Z, Y)$. G is a *P-map* if it is both an I-map and a D-map. G is a *minimal* I-map if no link can be removed such that the resultant graph is still an I-map.

A dependency model M (may or may not be a PDM) with an undirected P-map is called a *graph-isomorph* [9]. M is a graph-isomorph iff it satisfies Symmetry, Decomposition, Intersection and the following axioms, where $v \in N$:

Strong Union $I(X, Z, Y) \implies I(X, Z \cup W, Y)$.

Transitivity $I(X, Z, Y) \implies I(X, Z, v) \text{ or } I(v, Z, Y)$.

A dependency model M with a P-map that is a DAG is called a *DAG isomorph* [9]. A DAG isomorph satisfies Symmetry, Decomposition, Intersection, Weak Union, Contraction and the following axioms, where $x, y, z, v \in N$:

Composition $I(X, Z, Y) \ \& \ I(X, Z, W) \implies I(X, Z, Y \cup W)$.

Weak Transitivity $I(X, Z, Y) \ \& \ I(X, Z \cup v, Y) \implies I(X, Z, v) \text{ or } I(v, Z, Y)$.

Chordality $I(x, \{v, z\}, y) \ \& \ I(v, \{x, y\}, z) \implies I(x, v, y) \text{ or } I(x, z, y)$.

A belief network consists of a graph structure and a jpd factorized according to the structure. Commonly used structures are DAGs for Bayesian networks (BNs) and chordal graphs for decomposable Markov networks (DMNs) [15]. Common algorithms for learning belief networks [4, 7, 1, 12, 3] start with an empty graph (no links). Links are added to the current graph one at a time (the single-link lookahead search). All graphs differing from the current graph by a single link are evaluated according to a scoring metric before the one with the highest score is adopted (the greedy search).

3 LIM: A Generalized Learning Algorithm

In order to characterize models learnable by algorithms using the single-link lookahead search, we propose an algorithm as a generalization of those

algorithms. We then characterize the models learnable by the generalized algorithm. We shall take it granted that the ideal outcome of an algorithm for learning belief networks is an approximate minimal I-map of the data generating PDM (see [9] for arguments for the minimal I-map).

Suppose an algorithm LIM for Learning I-Maps is equipped with a test whether $P(X|Y, Z) = P(X|Z)$ holds (equivalent to $I(X, Y, Z)$) for three disjoint subsets of variables X , Y and Z . Clearly, if we allow such test to be performed for arbitrary X , Y and Z , then LIM will be able to learn an I-map of any PDM. Unfortunately, the complexity of LIM will be exponential. We therefore restrict LIM such that the test is only performed based on the currently learned graph in the following manner:

LIM starts with an empty graph G . It systematically selects a link $\{x, y\}$ not contained in G such that one of the following two cases is true:

1. x and y are contained in different components of G .
2. Every node (at least one) adjacent to both x and y is adjacent to every other such node, and these nodes intercept every path between x and y .

We shall call the links that satisfy the above conditions *type 1* and *type 2* links, respectively. In Figure 1, the missing link (b, c) is a type 1 link, and (a, d) and (d, g) are type 2 links. For a type 1 link, LIM tests if $P(x|y) = P(x)$ (equivalent to $I(x, \phi, y)$). For a type 2 link, LIM tests if $P(x|y, C) = P(x|C)$ (equivalent to $I(x, C, y)$), where C is the set of nodes adjacent to both x and y . If the test is negative, then the link $\{x, y\}$ is added to the current graph. LIM repeats the above until no type 1 or type 2 links can be added.

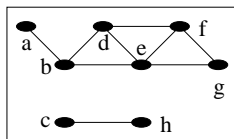


Figure 1: Illustration of type 1 and type 2 links

The following Theorem shows that LIM actually returns a chordal graph and therefore learns a DMN. As the learned DMN will be an approximation of the data-generating PDM, we do not require the structure of a DMN to

be a minimal I-map of the PDM as required in some literature (e.g., in [9]). DMNs are closely related to BNs but are simpler to study for the purpose of this analysis¹.

Theorem 1 *For any PDM, LIM returns a chordal graph on termination.*

Proof:

We prove by induction on the number i of links in the learned graph. LIM starts with an empty graph ($i = 0$) which is chordal. We assume that when LIM learns $i = k \geq 0$ links, the graph G is chordal.

When LIM learns the $k + 1$ 'th link $\{x, y\}$, the link must be added to G as either type 1 or type 2. Denote the new graph by G' . If $\{x, y\}$ is type 1, it connects two components of G . Since G is chordal by assumption, each component of G is chordal. When two components are connected by a single-link, the resultant new component is also chordal. Hence G' is chordal.

We now show by contradiction that G' is chordal if $\{x, y\}$ is added as type 2. Assume that G' is not chordal. Then there must be a cycle of length > 3 without a chord. Since G is chordal, the new link $\{x, y\}$ must be in the cycle. There must be at least two other nodes v and w in the cycle such that $x - v - \dots - w - y$ form a simple path in G , $\{x, w\}$ is not in G , $\{v, y\}$ is not in G , and every other node on the path is adjacent to neither x nor y . Now we have found a path between x and y in G on which none of the nodes is adjacent to both x and y . This contradicts the assumption that $\{x, y\}$ is a type 2 link. \square

LIM can be viewed as a generalization of several commonly used algorithms for learning belief network structures [4, 7, 1, 12, 3]. A test similar to what is used in LIM was used by Rebane and Pearl [10]. It has been shown [15] that the cross entropy scoring metric used in [4, 12] is equivalent to the independence test. Average mutual information was used in [7] to rank order candidate links. Mutual information between two variables is zero iff they are independent.

Commonly used learning algorithms are usually able to differentiate between a strong dependence from a weak one in the dataset such that a link corresponding to a weak true dependence or a false dependence due to sampling may be rejected. These algorithms commonly select the link to add

¹See [8], for example, for how testing d-separation [9] in a DAG D (a BN structure) can be performed in a simpler way in an undirected graph converted from D .

that corresponds to the strongest dependence among alternatives (indicated by the score) such that the learned structure is as close to the minimal I-map or as sparse as possible. We have chosen to abstract these capabilities out from LIM. Namely, LIM cannot detect a strong dependence from a weak one, cannot reject any noise, nor does LIM try to minimize the links added. It on average will not learn an I-map that is close to minimal and it may sometime (but not always) learn a trivial I-map (complete graph). These are not our concerns here. The important features left in LIM are its single-link lookahead search and its use of a restricted independence test. By using such a simplified algorithm, we demonstrate what is learnable by common learning algorithm by showing what is learnable by LIM. We can also demonstrate some models unlearnable by common learning algorithms without being distracted by unimportant details of these algorithms. Below we will examine the models learnable and unlearnable by LIM.

4 Inadequacy of Common Concepts for Characterization

A characterization of models learnable by LIM should help distinguish models that are learnable and unlearnable by LIM. Can some common concept, e.g., strictly positive models or models with P-maps, be used as such a characterization? In this section, we examine models classifiable using some common concepts and show that these concepts are inadequate to characterize models learnable by LIM.

4.1 Strictly positive models

First, we show that strict positiveness cannot characterize models learnable by LIM.

Example 2 (An unlearnable strictly positive model) Table 1 shows a strictly positive model of three binary variables. The marginals are $P(x = 0) = 0.6$, $P(y = 0) = 0.4$ and $P(z = 0) = 0.2$. Each variable is dependent of the other two, e.g., $P(x|y, z) \neq P(x)$. Therefore, the minimal I-map of the model is a complete graph. However, each pair of variables are marginally independent, e.g., $P(x|y) = P(x)$.

(x, y, z)	$P(\cdot)$	(x, y, z)	$P(\cdot)$
(0, 0, 0)	0.024	(1, 0, 0)	0.056
(0, 0, 1)	0.216	(1, 0, 1)	0.104
(0, 1, 0)	0.096	(1, 1, 0)	0.024
(0, 1, 1)	0.264	(1, 1, 1)	0.216

Table 1: A strictly positive model

In learning this model, LIM starts with an empty graph. Since the independence test for each of the three type 1 links succeeds, LIM will return the empty graph, which is not an I-map.

Example 2 shows that strict positiveness is not a sufficient condition of learnability by LIM.

Example 3 (A learnable non-positive model) Let M be over $N = \{x, y, z\}$, where x and y are *probabilistically* dependent, and $z = y$ (*logically* dependent). M is not strictly positive since $P(x, y, z \neq y) = 0$.

For this model, LIM may learn two type 1 links $\{x, y\}$ and $\{y, z\}$, and then halts, which gives a minimal I-map. Alternatively, LIM may learn two type 1 links $\{x, y\}$ and $\{x, z\}$, followed by type 2 link $\{y, z\}$, which gives a trivial I-map.

Example 3 shows that strict positiveness is not a necessary condition of learnability by LIM either.

4.2 Faithful models

A model M that has a P-map is said to be *faithful* [11]. We show that faithfulness does not characterize learnability by LIM.

Example 4 (A learnable unfaithful model) Dead battery and no fuel are two independent causes for a car not to start. Since dead battery and no fuel become dependent given that the car does not start (called **induced dependency** [9]), the minimal undirected I-map of this model is a complete

graph. Since dead battery and no fuel are marginally independent, the I-map is not a D-map. Hence the model is unfaithful.

For this model, LIM will first learn two type 1 links $\{battery, start\}$ and $\{fuel, start\}$. Now $\{battery, fuel\}$ is a type 2 link and the independence test fails. Hence, LIM returns the minimal I-map.

The model in Example 4 is not a graph-isomorph, but it is a DAG isomorph. The next example shows a model that is a graph-isomorph but not a DAG isomorph.

Example 5 (Another learnable unfaithful model) Let M be a graph-isomorph over $N = \{X, Y, Z, W\}$, where the undirected graph has a diamond-shape with links $\{\{X, Y\}, \{Y, Z\}, \{Z, W\}, \{W, X\}\}$. It is not a DAG isomorph [9].

For this model, LIM may first learn any three type 1 links, say, $\{X, Y\}$, $\{Y, Z\}$ and $\{Z, W\}$. It will then learn a type 2 link, say, $\{X, Z\}$, followed by another, $\{W, X\}$. LIM will now halt with the learned graph being a minimal (chordal) I-map.

The next example shows a model that is both a graph-isomorph and a DAG isomorph, but is unlearnable by LIM.

Example 6 (An unlearnable faithful model) Figure 2 (a) shows the P-map of a PDM. For this model, LIM may learn the graph in (b) in the order of link labels. First, four type 1 links are learned, and then three type 2 links are learned. Now, the only type 2 links that may be added are $\{x, z\}$ and $\{y, w\}$. Since the PDM satisfies $I(x, \{y, v\}, z)$ and $I(y, \{z, v\}, w)$, LIM will halt. Note that the link $\{x, w\}$ is not a type 2 link. Note also that since the P-map in (a) is chordal, the PDM is also isomorphic to a DAG.

The above examples show that faithfulness is neither a necessary condition nor a sufficient condition of learnability by LIM, and therefore is not an adequate characterization.

4.3 Pseudo-independent models

A pseudo-independent (PI) model is a probabilistic model where a set of collectively dependent variables displays marginal independence. A set N of

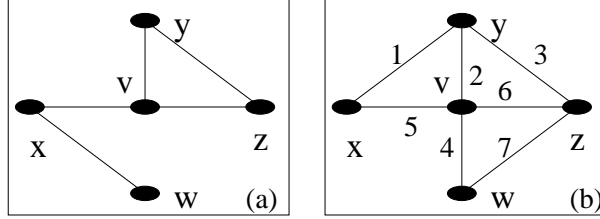


Figure 2: (a) A P-map of a PDM. (b) A learned structure by LIM.

variables are *generally dependent* if for any proper subset A , $\neg I(A, \phi, N \setminus A)$ holds.

Definition 7 A PDM over a set N of generally dependent variables is **PI** if there exists a partition $\{A_1, \dots, A_k\}$ ($k > 1$) of N such that for each $x \in A_i$ and each $y \in A_j$ ($i \neq j$), x and y are marginally independent.

Example 2 is a PI model. More elaborated definitions of PI models can be found in [13]. Theorem 8 shows that a necessary condition of learnability by LIM is that M is non-PI.

Theorem 8 LIM cannot learn an I-map of a PDM M if M is PI.

Proof:

Let M be a PI model. According to Definition 7, the domain variables can be partitioned into marginally independent subsets. Consider two such subsets A and B . Since LIM starts with an empty graph, A and B are initially disconnected. Since the test “ $P(x|y) = P(x)$?” will succeed for each $x \in A$ and each $y \in B$, no type 1 links will ever be added between A and B . Hence, LIM will return a graph G with A and B disconnected.

Since variables in M are generally dependent, any I-map of M must be connected. Hence LIM cannot learn an I-map of M . \square

An important relation between PI models and single-link search is the connectivity of the learned graph shown by Theorem 9.

Theorem 9 Let M be a generally dependent PDM over N and G be a graph learned by LIM from M . Then G is connected iff M is non-PI.

Proof:

The necessity is clear from the proof of Theorem 8. We show the sufficiency below:

Assume that M is generally dependent and non-PI. Then there is no marginally independent partitions of N . Hence LIM will be able to find type 1 links which fail the independence test until the learned graph is connected. \square

PI models are not the only type of models unlearnable by LIM. The following example demonstrates this.

Example 10 (An unlearnable non-PI model) Table 2 shows a model of four variables. It is non-PI since $\neg I(x, \phi, y)$, $\neg I(y, \phi, z)$ and $\neg I(z, \phi, w)$.

Its minimal I-map is a complete graph, which can be inferred as follows: If there exists a minimal I-map that is not complete, then at least one pair of variables is not connected directly. This pair must then be independent given the other two. However for each variable, its distribution conditioned on the other three variables is *not* degenerated. For example, no conditioning variable may be removed in $P(x|y, z, w)$ without changing the distribution.

In learning this model, LIM may first learn three type 1 links $\{x, y\}$, $\{y, z\}$ and $\{z, w\}$. Now only two type 2 links $\{x, z\}$ and $\{y, w\}$ may be added. However, since this model satisfies $I(x, y, z)$ and $I(y, z, w)$, both type 2 links will be rejected. Hence, LIM will return a graph with only the three type 1 links, which is not an I-map.

(x, y, z, w)	$P(\cdot)$	(x, y, z, w)	$P(\cdot)$	(x, y, z, w)	$P(\cdot)$	(x, y, z, w)	$P(\cdot)$
(0, 0, 0, 0)	0.4192	(0, 1, 0, 0)	0.0189	(1, 0, 0, 0)	0.0548	(1, 1, 0, 0)	0.0613
(0, 0, 0, 1)	0.0725	(0, 1, 0, 1)	0.0005	(1, 0, 0, 1)	0.0088	(1, 1, 0, 1)	0.0132
(0, 0, 1, 0)	0.0690	(0, 1, 1, 0)	0.0065	(1, 0, 1, 0)	0.0156	(1, 1, 1, 0)	0.0773
(0, 0, 1, 1)	0.0871	(0, 1, 1, 1)	0.0296	(1, 0, 1, 1)	0.0045	(1, 1, 1, 1)	0.0611

Table 2: A non-PI model

Example 10 shows that although being a non-PI model is a necessary condition for learnability by LIM, it is not a sufficient condition. Hence pseudo-independence cannot characterize models learnable by LIM.

Example 10 is in fact a positive and non-PI model. Therefore, it also shows that the combination of positiveness and non-PI is still not a sufficient condition for learnability by LIM.

4.4 On the effect of greedy search

For Example 10, one might wonder if a greedy search may change the situation. That is *not* the case. Among the six potential links, the three links learned above have stronger dependence between their endpoints, measured by *average mutual information*, compared with the other three links. Therefore, even if LIM is augmented with the ability to compare the strength of dependence among alternative links and modified into a greedy search algorithm, the learning outcome will still be the same as described in Example 10.

On the other hand, if LIM chooses an order different from a greedy search, it may be able to learn the I-map of the model in Example 10. For example, it may first learn type 1 links $\{x, y\}$, $\{x, z\}$ and $\{z, w\}$. The type 2 link $\{y, z\}$ and then $\{x, w\}$ can then be learned since the corresponding independence tests will fail. Finally, the type 2 link $\{y, w\}$ will be learned.

Note that we are not suggesting learning a complete graph in general. The above example can be easily extended into a sparse model with more variables while keeping the dependence among $\{x, y, z, w\}$ unchanged. Hence, the example only illustrates a subprocess in learning a generally much large model.

5 Characterization of LIM-learnable Models

In this section, we show that the class of PDMs learnable by LIM can be characterized by the following properties:

Definition 11 *Let X, Y, Z, V and W be any disjoint subsets of variables.*

Composition: $I(X, Y, Z) \ \& \ I(X, Y, W) \implies I(X, Y, Z \cup W)$.

Strong Transitivity: $I(X, Y \cup V, Z) \ \& \ I(Y, Z \cup V, W) \implies I(X, Y \cup V, Z \cup W)$.

We shall consider only chordal graphs as candidate I-maps of PDMs. We shall use a junction tree (JT) of a chordal graph in our investigation. A JT

T of a chordal graph G is a tree. Each node in T is labeled by a (maximal) clique of G and each link, called a *sepset*, is labeled by the intersection of the two cliques at its ends. T is so connected that the intersection of any two cliques is contained in each sepset on the unique path between them.

To ensure the validity of any conclusion drawn from the JT, we need to establish the equivalence of a chordal graph and its JTs as I-maps. Although JTs have been used in run time inference computations of belief networks [6, 14], we do not realize a formal establishment of such a relation in the literature.

Conditional independence is portrayed in an I-map by graphical separation. We define graphical separation in a JT of a chordal graph as follows:

Definition 12 *Let T be a JT of cliques of a chordal graph G . For any disjoint subsets X, Y and Z of nodes in G , X and Y are **s-separated** by Z in T , denoted by $\langle X|Z|Y \rangle_T$, if for each $x \in X$, $y \in Y$ and each two cliques C_x, C_y in T such that $x \in C_x$ and $y \in C_y$,*

1. $C_x \neq C_y$, and
2. on the path between C_x and C_y in T , there is a sepset $S \subseteq Z$.

The following theorem shows that, using s-separation, a JT of a chordal graph portrays exactly the same set of relations of graphical separation as its deriving chordal graph.

Theorem 13 *Let T be a JT of cliques for a connected chordal graph G . For any disjoint subsets X, Y and Z of nodes in G ,*

$$\langle X|Z|Y \rangle_G \iff \langle X|Z|Y \rangle_T .$$

Proof:

First, we show $\langle X|Z|Y \rangle_G \implies \langle X|Z|Y \rangle_T$.

For each $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$, $\langle X|Z|Y \rangle_G$ means that $\{x, y\}$ is not a link in G . Hence x and y cannot be in the same clique, which implies the first condition in Definition 12.

Suppose the second condition is false. Then on the path between C_x and C_y in T , no sepset is a subset of Z . Denote these sepsets as S_1, \dots, S_n ($n \geq 1$).

If $n = 1$, C_x and C_y are adjacent in T . If $S_1 \not\subseteq Z$, then we can find $s_1 \in S_1$ such that $s_1 \notin Z$. This means that both $\{x, s_1\}$ and $\{s_1, y\}$ are links in G due to construction of T . Hence $\langle X|Z|Y \rangle_G$ is false: a contradiction.

If $n > 1$ and none of S_i ($1 \leq i \leq n$) is a subset of Z , then for each i we can find $s_i \in S_i$ such that $s_i \notin Z$. Either $s_i = s_{i+1}$ in which case we have one less node to consider, or $\{s_i, s_{i+1}\}$ is a link in G . This is clearly true since s_i and s_{i+1} are contained in the same clique in T . We have thus found a path (x, s_1, \dots, s_n, y) where every node $s_i \notin Z$. Hence $\langle X|Z|Y \rangle_G$ is false: a contradiction.

Next, we show $\langle X|Z|Y \rangle_G \iff \langle X|Z|Y \rangle_T$.

Let $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$ be contained in cliques C_x and C_y in T , respectively. Suppose that on the path between C_x and C_y , there is a sepset $S \subseteq Z$. We show that $\langle x|S|y \rangle_G$ holds and so does $\langle x|Z|y \rangle_G$.

Assume that $\langle x|S|y \rangle_G$ does not hold. Then there exists a path $(x, v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n, y)$ in G not through S . That is, $v_i \notin S$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$.

On the other hand, if v_{i-1} , v_i and v_{i+1} are not contained in a same clique in T such that v_{i-1} , v_i are in clique C_{i-1} and v_i , v_{i+1} are in C_{i+1} , then on the unique path between C_{i-1} and C_{i+1} in T , every sepset must contain v_i . To accommodate the case where $n = 1$, we shall denote $v_0 = x$ and $v_{n+1} = y$. Hence on the path from C_x to C_y in T , every sepset contains at least one $v_i \notin S$. This contradicts that S is a sepset between C_x and C_y . \square

Next, we show that for any PDM that satisfies Composition and Strong Transitivity, the dependence structure learned by LIM will be an I-map. Due to the equivalence of a chordal graph G and its JT T as I-maps (Theorem 13), we need only to show that

$$\langle X|Z|Y \rangle_T \implies I(X, Z, Y)$$

holds for any G learned by LIM.

In the following formal results, we sometime assume a *generally dependent* PDM. This is not a restriction of the learnable models but rather a simplification of proofs. When the underlying PDM is not generally dependent, our result is applicable to each independent submodel.

Theorem 14 shows that the Composition axiom rules out PI models. It is also needed by Lemma 15.

Theorem 14 *Let M be a generally dependent PDM over N that satisfies Composition. Then M is non-PI.*

Proof:

We shall build a subset S of N from a singleton such that each new element of S is dependent on at least one existing element of S . When $S = N$, we have shown that M is non-PI. We prove by induction on the cardinality of S .

Let $S_1 = \{x\}$ for any $x \in N$. We search for $y \in N \setminus \{x\}$ such that $\neg I(x, \phi, y)$. If $I(x, \phi, y_1)$ holds for $y_1 \in N \setminus \{x\}$, then from general dependence and Composition (contrapositive form) of M , we have

$$\neg I(x, \phi, N \setminus \{x\}) \ \& \ I(x, \phi, y_1) \implies \neg I(x, \phi, N \setminus \{x, y_1\}).$$

We then search for $y \in N \setminus \{x, y_1\}$ such that $\neg I(x, \phi, y)$. By recursively applying general dependence over the remaining subset and Composition, we will find $y \in N \setminus \{x\}$ such that $\neg I(x, \phi, y)$. We update $S_2 = \{x, y\}$.

Suppose we have updated S_i ($i > 1$). Next we search for $v \in S_i$ and $z \in N \setminus S_i$ such that $\neg I(v, \phi, z)$ holds. If $I(v_1, \phi, z)$ holds for $v_1 \in S_i$ and each $z \in N \setminus S_i$, then by Composition we have $I(v_1, \phi, N \setminus S_i)$. In that case, by general dependence and Composition of M we have

$$\neg I(N \setminus S_i, \phi, S_i) \ \& \ I(N \setminus S_i, \phi, v_1) \implies \neg I(N \setminus S_i, \phi, S_i \setminus \{v_1\}).$$

If $I(v_2, \phi, z)$ holds for $v_2 \in S_i \setminus \{v_1\}$ and each $z \in N \setminus S_i$, then by Composition we have $I(v_2, \phi, N \setminus S_i)$. In that case, by general dependence and Composition of M we have

$$\neg I(N \setminus S_i, \phi, S_i) \ \& \ I(N \setminus S_i, \phi, \{v_1, v_2\}) \implies \neg I(N \setminus S_i, \phi, S_i \setminus \{v_1, v_2\}).$$

Repeating this argument, we eventually will find $v \in S_i$ and $z \in N \setminus S_i$ such that $\neg I(v, \phi, z)$ holds. We can then update $S_{i+1} = S_i \cup \{z\}$. \square

Lemma 15 shows that if a PDM satisfies Composition and Strong Transitivity, then in any graph learned by LIM, a clique sepsset portrays conditional independence correctly.

Lemma 15 *Let M be a generally dependent PDM over N that satisfies Composition and Strong Transitivity. Let G be a chordal graph returned by LIM and T be a JT of G .*

Then $I(C_a \setminus S, S, C_b \setminus S)$ holds for each pair of cliques C_a and C_b in T where S is a sepsset on the path between C_a and C_b .

Proof:

By Theorem 14, M is non-PI. By Theorems 1 and 9, G is chordal and connected. Hence T exists.

We first show that $I(C_a \setminus C_b, C_a \cap C_b, C_b \setminus C_a)$ holds for any adjacent C_a and C_b . LIM halts only if $I(x, C_a \cap C_b, y)$ holds for each pair of adjacent cliques C_a, C_b in T and each pair of nodes $x \in C_a \setminus C_b$ and $y \in C_b \setminus C_a$. Otherwise, $\{x, y\}$ is a type 2 link that fails the independence test. Assume that $I(x, C_a \cap C_b, Y)$ holds, where $Y \subset C_b \setminus C_a$. Let $Y' = Y \cup \{y'\}$ where $y' \in C_b \setminus (C_a \cup Y)$. From Composition,

$$I(x, C_a \cap C_b, y') \ \& \ I(x, C_a \cap C_b, Y) \implies I(x, C_a \cap C_b, Y').$$

Hence, for each $x \in C_a \setminus C_b$, we have $I(x, C_a \cap C_b, C_b \setminus C_a)$. Assume that $I(X, C_a \cap C_b, C_b \setminus C_a)$ holds, where $X \subset C_a \setminus C_b$. Let $X' = X \cup \{x'\}$ where $x' \in C_a \setminus (C_b \cup X)$. From Composition,

$$I(X, C_a \cap C_b, C_b \setminus C_a) \ \& \ I(x', C_a \cap C_b, C_b \setminus C_a) \implies I(X', C_a \cap C_b, C_b \setminus C_a).$$

Hence, $I(C_a \setminus C_b, C_a \cap C_b, C_b \setminus C_a)$ holds for each pair of adjacent C_a and C_b .

Next, we show that $I(C_a \setminus S, S, C_b \setminus S)$ holds for non-adjacent C_a and C_b , where S is a sepset on the path between C_a and C_b . Let three adjacent cliques $C_a = X \cup Y \cup V$, $C_1 = Y \cup V \cup Z \cup A$ and $C_b = V \cup Z \cup W$ form a chain $C_a - C_1 - C_b$ in T , where each letter denotes a disjoint subset of variables. We show that $I(X, Y \cup V, Z \cup W)$ holds. From the above proof and Decomposition, we have $I(X, Y \cup V, Z)$ and $I(Y, V \cup Z, W)$. From Strong Transitivity, we conclude $I(X, Y \cup V, Z \cup W)$.

Now consider a chain of $n \geq 1$ intermediate cliques in T , $C_a - C_1 - \dots - C_n - C_b$. We denote $C_i \setminus \cup_{j \neq i} C_j$ by R_i and denote $C_i \setminus R_i$ by D_i for $1 \leq i \leq n$. R_i is the subset of C_i not contained in any other cliques. It is irrelevant here as can be seen from the subset A above. Note $(D_{i-1} \cap D_i) \cup (D_i \cap D_{i+1}) = D_i$ but $(C_{i-1} \cap C_i) \cup (C_i \cap C_{i+1}) = C_i$ is not true in general.

Assume $I(C_a \setminus S, S, C_b \setminus S)$ holds for $n = m \geq 1$. When $n = m + 1$, the clique chain becomes $C_a - C_1 - \dots - C_m - C_n - C_b$. We show that $I(C_a \setminus S, S, C_b \setminus S)$ still holds where S is a sepset on the chain.

Let S be the sepset between C_{i-1} and C_i ($i \leq n$), and S' be the sepset between C_i and C_{i+1} . Note that S is a sepset in the subchain from C_a to C_i , and S' is a sepset in the subchain from C_i to C_b . Either subchain has no more

than m intermediate cliques. From the assumption and Decomposition, we have

$$I(C_a \setminus S, S, D_i \setminus S) \quad \text{and} \quad I(D_i \setminus S', S', C_b \setminus S').$$

Since $D_i = S \cup S'$, we have $S \supseteq D_i \setminus S'$ and $S' \supseteq D_i \setminus S$. From Strong Transitivity with

$$X = C_a \setminus S, \quad Y = D_i \setminus S', \quad Z = D_i \setminus S, \quad V = S \cap S', \quad \text{and} \quad W = C_b \setminus S',$$

we conclude $I(C_a \setminus S, S, (D_i \setminus S) \cup (C_b \setminus S'))$.

We now only have to show $(D_i \setminus S) \cup (C_b \setminus S') \supseteq C_b \setminus S$.

Since $D_i \setminus S = S' \setminus S$, and $S' = (S' \setminus S) \cup (S' \cap S)$, we have

$$(D_i \setminus S) \cup (C_b \setminus S') = (S' \setminus S) \cup (C_b \setminus ((S' \setminus S) \cup (S' \cap S))) = (S' \setminus S) \cup (C_b \setminus (S \cap S')).$$

Since $C_b \cap (S \setminus S') = \phi$ (T is a JT), we obtain

$$C_b \setminus (S \cap S') = C_b \setminus ((S' \cap S) \cup (S \setminus S')) = C_b \setminus S.$$

Hence, $(D_i \setminus S) \cup (C_b \setminus S') = (S' \setminus S) \cup (C_b \setminus S) \supseteq C_b \setminus S$. \square

Lemma 16 extends Lemma 15 by allowing the separating subset to be any superset of a clique sepset.

Lemma 16 *Let M be a generally dependent PDM over N that satisfies Composition and Strong Transitivity. Let G be a chordal graph returned by LIM and T be a JT of G .*

Then $I(C_a \setminus Q, Q, C_b \setminus Q)$ holds for each pair of cliques C_a and C_b in T where Q contains a sepset on the path between C_a and C_b .

Proof:

Let the sepset between C_a and C_b be $S \subseteq Q$. We have $I(C_a \setminus Q, S, C_b \setminus Q)$ by Lemma 15 and Decomposition. Given S , T is partitioned into two subtrees T_a (containing C_a) and T_b (containing C_b). Let Q_a (Q_b) be the subset of $Q \setminus S$ that is contained in T_a (T_b).

For each variable $y \in Q_b$, we have $I(C_a \setminus Q, S, y)$ by Lemma 15. By Composition, we derive $I(C_a \setminus Q, S, Q_b \cup (C_b \setminus Q))$. From Weak Union, we have $I(C_a \setminus Q, S \cup Q_b, C_b \setminus Q)$. For each variable $x \in Q_a$, from the symmetry of x and $C_a \setminus Q$, we have $I(x, S \cup Q_b, C_b \setminus Q)$. By Composition,

we derive $I(Q_a \cup (C_a \setminus Q), S \cup Q_b, C_b \setminus Q)$. From Weak Union, we have $I(C_a \setminus Q, S \cup Q_b \cup Q_a, C_b \setminus Q) = I(C_a \setminus Q, Q, C_b \setminus Q)$. \square

Finally, we extend Lemma 16 to conditional independence of any subsets.

Theorem 17 *Let M be a generally dependent PDM over N that satisfies Composition and Strong Transitivity. Let G be a chordal graph returned by LIM and T be a JT of G . Let X, Y, Z be any disjoint subsets of N such that $\langle X|Z|Y \rangle_T$ holds according to s -separation.*

Then $I(X, Z, Y)$ holds.

Proof: Let X_1, \dots, X_m be all cliques in T such that $X \cap X_i \neq \phi$ ($1 \leq i \leq m$), and Y_1, \dots, Y_n be all cliques in T such that $Y \cap Y_j \neq \phi$ ($1 \leq j \leq n$). For each X_i and each Y_j , we have $I(X_i, Z, Y_j)$ by Lemma 16. Applying Composition to Y_j ($1 \leq j \leq n$), we have $I(X_i, Z, Y)$ for each given i . Applying Composition to X_i ($1 \leq i \leq m$), we obtain $I(X, Z, Y)$. \square

Theorem 17, together with Theorem 13, implies that LIM will return an I-map as long as the underlying PDM satisfies Composition and Strong Transitivity. This is summarized in Corollary 18. Note that the general dependence can now be removed.

Corollary 18 *Let M be a PDM that satisfies Composition and Strong Transitivity. Let G be a chordal graph returned by LIM. Then G is an I-map of M .*

The importance of Corollary 18 lies in the generality of LIM. It implies that a PDM satisfying Composition and Strong Transitivity is learnable by *any* algorithm, for learning BNs or DMNs, equipped with a single-link search and some scoring metric equivalent to a conditional independence test.

Can PDMs violating Composition be learned by LIM in general? Theorems 14 and 9 show PI models as PDMs that violate Composition and are unlearnable by LIM. The generality of LIM then implies that PI models are unlearnable by *any* algorithm, for learning BNs or DMNs, equipped with a single-link search and some scoring metric equivalent to a conditional independence test.

Can PDMs violating Strong Transitivity be learned by LIM in general? Example 10 shows the kind of non-PI PDMs that violate Strong Transitivity

and are not learnable by LIM when certain search paths (including greedy search) are followed. The generality of LIM then implies that if Strong Transitivity does not hold in a PDM, the learning outcome is likely to be incorrect for *any* belief network learning algorithm, equipped with a single-link search and some scoring metric equivalent to a conditional independence test, and followed a *single* search path.

Our characterization of learnability by LIM may be compared with faithfulness as follows: Both graph-isomorph and DAG isomorph are closely tied to strict positiveness through the Intersection axiom (Section 2). Our characterization of learnability by LIM does not require Intersection and therefore does not depend on strict positiveness. This can be seen from Example 3 which violates Intersection but is learnable. DAG isomorph also requires the Chordality axiom. It is not required by our characterization as can also be seen from Example 5. Hence, LIM-learnable models are *not* a subset of either graph-isomorph or DAG isomorph. In other words, LIM-learnable models are *not* a subset of faithful models.

On the other hand, our characterization requires Strong Transitivity, which is stronger than the Transitivity axiom for graph-isomorph and the Weak Transitivity for DAG isomorph. As shown in Example 6, a PDM that is both a graph-isomorph and a DAG isomorph can violate Strong Transitivity. Hence, faithful models are *not* a subset of models characterized by Composition and Strong Transitivity.

6 On Backward Single-link Search

Single-link search can be performed as forward (starting from an empty graph) or backward (starting with a complete graph) [9, 11]. LIM is essentially a generalization of forward single-link search. Backward single-link search has been shown to be able to learn a minimal I-map when the PDM is faithful [2]. However, compared with forward search, backward search has a weakness when the PDM is unfaithful.

Consider PDMs with small embedded PI submodels [13]. Although LIM (thus single-link forward search) cannot learn I-maps of such models, a single-link search followed by a multi-link search with small number of lookahead links will be able to learn I-maps of such models [15, 5]. Namely, the links missed in the single-link search due to model's violation of Composition can

be fixed by additional computations. The graph learned from single-link search serves as a *basis* for the further computation.

On the other hand, since backward search starts with independence test of lower orders and has no mechanism to add (mistakenly) deleted links, the single-link search process itself must be modified. The modification requires higher order independence tests to be performed early on. Since backward search derives its efficiency from early deletion of many links through lower order independence tests, the modification will increase the complexity significantly. We shall elaborate on this in a longer version of this paper.

7 Remarks

In this paper, we provided an axiomatic characterization of models learnable by a class of algorithms for learning belief networks equipped with a single-link lookahead search and some form of conditional independence test. The characterization identifies models satisfying Composition and Strong Transitivity axioms as learnable, PI models violating Composition as unlearnable, and models violating Strong Transitivity as unlikely to be learned correctly by following a single search path. These results not only improve our understanding of common algorithms for learning belief networks, but also suggest useful directions for improving these algorithms. The elaboration of these improvements, however, is beyond the scope of this paper.

We also compared between forward and backward single-link search. Although backward search learning algorithms perform well in faithful domains, it appears that forward search learning algorithms are easier to extend for learning in unfaithful domains.

Acknowledgement

This work is supported by grant OGP0155425 from the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council and grant from the Institute for Robotics and Intelligent Systems in the Networks of Centres of Excellence Program of Canada.

References

- [1] G.F. Cooper and E. Herskovits. A Bayesian method for the induction of probabilistic networks from data. *Machine Learning*, (9):309–347, 1992.

- [2] L.M. de Campos and J.F. Huete. Algorithms for learning decomposable models and chordal graphs. In *Proc. 13th Conf. on Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence*, Providence, 1997.
- [3] D. Heckerman, D. Geiger, and D.M. Chickering. Learning Bayesian networks: the combination of knowledge and statistical data. *Machine Learning*, 20:197–243, 1995.
- [4] E.H. Herskovits and G.F. Cooper. Kutato: an entropy-driven system for construction of probabilistic expert systems from database. In *Proc. 6th Conf. on Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence*, pages 54–62, Cambridge,, 1990.
- [5] J. Hu and Y. Xiang. Learning belief networks in domains with recursively embedded pseudo independent submodels. In *Proc. 13th Conf. on Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence*, Providence, 1997.
- [6] F.V. Jensen, S.L. Lauritzen, and K.G. Olesen. Bayesian updating in causal probabilistic networks by local computations. *Computational Statistics Quarterly*, (4):269–282, 1990.
- [7] W. Lam and F. Bacchus. Learning Bayesian networks: an approach based on the MDL principle. *Computational Intelligence*, 10(3):269–293, 1994.
- [8] S.L. Lauritzen, A.P. Dawid, B.N. Larsen, and H.G. Leimer. Independence properties of directed Markov fields. *Networks*, 20:491–505, 1990.
- [9] J. Pearl. *Probabilistic Reasoning in Intelligent Systems: Networks of Plausible Inference*. Morgan Kaufmann, 1988.
- [10] G. Rebane and J. Pearl. The recovery of causal ploy-trees from statistical data. In *Proc. of Workshop on Uncertainty in Artificial Intelligence*, pages 222–228, Seattle, 1987.
- [11] P. Spirtes, C. Glymour, and R. Scheines. *Causation, prediction, and Search*. Springer-Verlag, 1993.
- [12] S.K.M. Wong and Y. Xiang. Construction of a Markov network from data for probabilistic inference. In *Proc. 3rd Inter. Workshop on Rough Sets and Soft Computing*, pages 562–569, San Jose, 1994.
- [13] Y. Xiang. Towards understanding of pseudo-independent domains. In *Proc. 10th Inter. Symp. on Methodologies for Intelligent Systems*, Charlotte, 1997.
- [14] Y. Xiang, D. Poole, and M. P. Beddoes. Multiply sectioned Bayesian networks and junction forests for large knowledge based systems. *Computational Intelligence*, 9(2):171–220, 1993.
- [15] Y. Xiang, S.K.M. Wong, and N. Cercone. A ‘microscopic’ study of minimum entropy search in learning decomposable Markov networks. *Machine Learning*, 26(1):65–92, 1997.