

Machine Learning Course - CS-433

# Graphical Models – Bayes Nets

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# Outline

Assume that you are given a large set of random variables, call them  $X_1, \dots, X_D$ . You might be interested in their relationship. E.g., you might be interested if  $X_1$  is independent of  $X_2$  given lets say  $X_3$ . Or perhaps you have a description of the “local” relationships between these random variables and have observed some of them and now you want to know what this tells you about some of the other random variables (inference).

*Graphical models* is a good framework to answer such questions. As the name suggests, graphical models are models that use a *graphical* depiction of the relationships between random variables. There are quite a few related but distinct such descriptions. To name the most prominent ones, there are *Bayes Nets*, *Markov Random Fields*, and *Factor Graphs*.

In the next few lectures we will look at two of these models, namely Bayes Nets and Factor Graphs. We will discuss their definition and their relationship. We will then see how these graphical representations can be used to answer some basic questions of interest. Finally, we discuss the *sum-product* algorithm, a low-complexity algorithm to compute marginals. It is exact for factor graphs that are trees and it is often a useful approximate for general models. In this first lecture we will discuss Bayes Nets.

Chapter 8 of the book by Christopher Bishop contains most of the material we will be discussing.

# Bayes Nets

Assume that we have a set of random variables  $X_1, \dots, X_D$  with joint distribution  $p(X_1, \dots, X_D)$ . For much of what we will discuss it will not matter if these are discrete or continuous random variables. We will always use the notation  $p(\cdot)$  and speak of the probability as if these random variables were discrete. In the continuous case just think of  $p(\cdot)$  as the density.

A basic representation of a joint distribution that is universally applicable is to use the chain rule to write

$$p(X_1, \dots, X_D) = p(X_1)p(X_2|X_1)\cdots p(X_D|X_1, \dots, X_{D-1}). \quad (1)$$

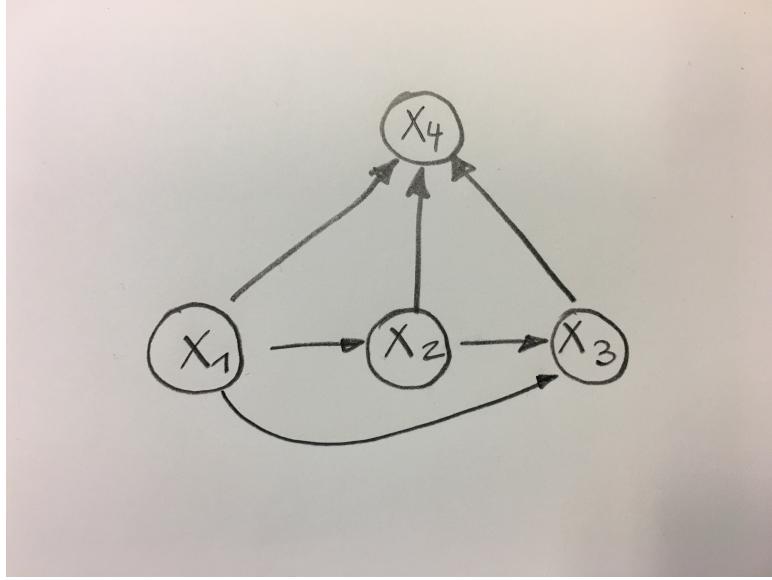
In the above expansion we have used the order  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_D$  but we could have used any of the  $D!$  orders. This degree of freedom will be important.

To be concrete, assume that  $D = 4$  so that we get

$$p(X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4) = p(X_1)p(X_2|X_1)p(X_3|X_1, X_2)p(X_4|X_1, X_2, X_3). \quad (2)$$

There is a very natural graphical representation of this factorization which is shown in Figure 1. Associate one *node* to each of the  $D$  random variables (and hence by association to each of the  $D$  factors). Label these nodes by the random variable they represent. Draw a *directed* edge from node  $X_j$  to node  $X_i$  if  $X_j$  appears in the conditioning of the term  $p(X_i|\dots)$ . We say that  $X_j$  is a *parent* of  $X_i$  and that  $X_i$  is a *child* of  $X_j$ .

We can generalize the above procedure by allowing *groups* of random variables at each step rather than a single random variable at a time. But since we can think of a group of



**Node or vertex: noeud**  
**Edge: lien**

**Arrête d'oublier ça !**

Figure 1: A Bayes net corresponding to the factorization written in (2).

random variables as a single random variable (in a larger domain) this is not really more general.

Note that this representation is “universal” and applies to any distribution since so far all we used is the chain rule. So regardless of how we expand the joint distribution we always will get the “same” graph (in the sense that the graph has the same “topology.” The representation will become more interesting if some of the edges in this generic graph are missing. E.g., assume that our distribution is such that  $p(X_3|X_1, X_2)$  is equal to  $p(X_3|X_2)$ . In this case we get the graph shown in Figure 2.

## Conditional Independence

So far we have gone from a joint distribution to a graph. But assume now that conversely we have a directed graph which corresponds to such a factorization and we want to

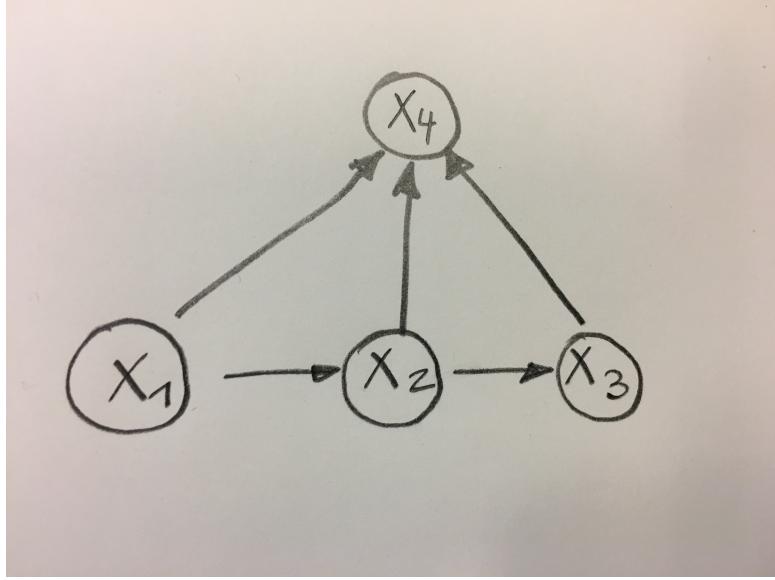


Figure 2: A Bayes net corresponding to the factorization written in (2) with the additional property that  $p(X_3|X_1, X_2) = p(X_3|X_2)$ .

draw basic conclusions about the relationship of the various random variables. Of course not any directed graph does correspond to a valid factorization – the graph has to be acyclic and any acyclic graph can be interpreted as a Bayes net. (To show this, all we need to show is that there is an order in which we can “peel off” the nodes. Here is a simple way to find a valid order. Every finite directed acyclic graph has to have a source, i.e., a node with only outgoing edges. Take such a source node as your first factor and peel it off. The remaining graph is again directed and acyclic. Iterate to determine the remaining factors.)

Let us now look at three simple graphs, each only involving three variables. This will help us to clarify the important concept of *D-separation*.

We start with the example shown in Figure 3. This corre-

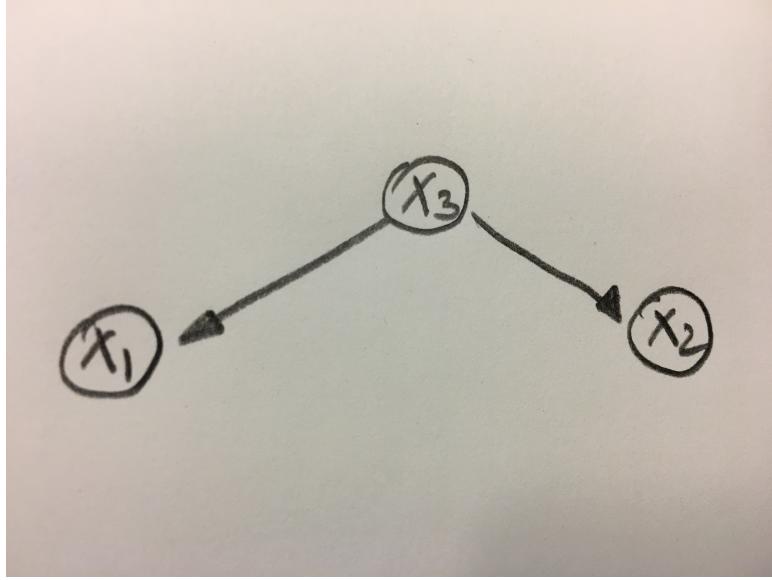


Figure 3: First example:  $X_3$  is *tail-to-tail* with respect to the path from  $X_1$  to  $X_2$ . Conditioning leads to independence.

sponds to the factorization

$$p(X_1, X_2, X_3) = p(X_3)p(X_1|X_3)p(X_2|X_3).$$

If we marginalize out  $X_3$  then, generically,  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are not independent, i.e.,  $p(X_1, X_2) \neq p(X_1)p(X_2)$  for this case. But let us look at the conditioned quantity  $p(X_1, X_2|X_3)$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned} p(X_1, X_2|X_3) &= \frac{p(X_1, X_2, X_3)}{p(X_3)} \\ &= \frac{p(X_3)p(X_1|X_3)p(X_2|X_3)}{p(X_3)} \\ &= p(X_1|X_3)p(X_2|X_3). \end{aligned}$$

So we see that a distribution that has the indicated factorization has the property that  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are independent *given*  $X_3$ . This is sometimes written as

$$X_1 \perp X_2 \mid X_3.$$

Our aim will be to find a simple “graphical” way of determining such (conditional) independence relationships. So let us look at the correspond Bayes net again. If you look at the graph you see that  $X_3$  influences both  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ . This is why generically these two are not independent. Choosing a particular value of  $X_3$  changes in general the distribution of both  $X_1$  and  $X_2$ . Hence, knowing lets say the value of  $X_1$  tells us something about the value of  $X_2$ .

But consider the (only) path from  $X_1$  to  $X_2$ . It goes via  $X_3$ . Note that in this path the two arrows both *point away* from  $X_3$ . It is standard terminology to say that  $X_3$  is *tail-to-tail* with respect to this path.

Such a tail-to-tail constellation “blocks” the influence going from  $X_1$  to  $X_2$  or vice versa, *assuming that we condition* on  $X_3$ . I.e., this conditioning causes  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  to become conditionally independent.

Let us now move to our next example. It is shown in Figure 4. This corresponds to the factorization

$$p(X_1, X_2, X_3) = p(X_1)p(X_3|X_1)p(X_2|X_3).$$

Now  $X_1$  influences  $X_3$  which in turn influences  $X_2$ . Hence  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are generically not independent.

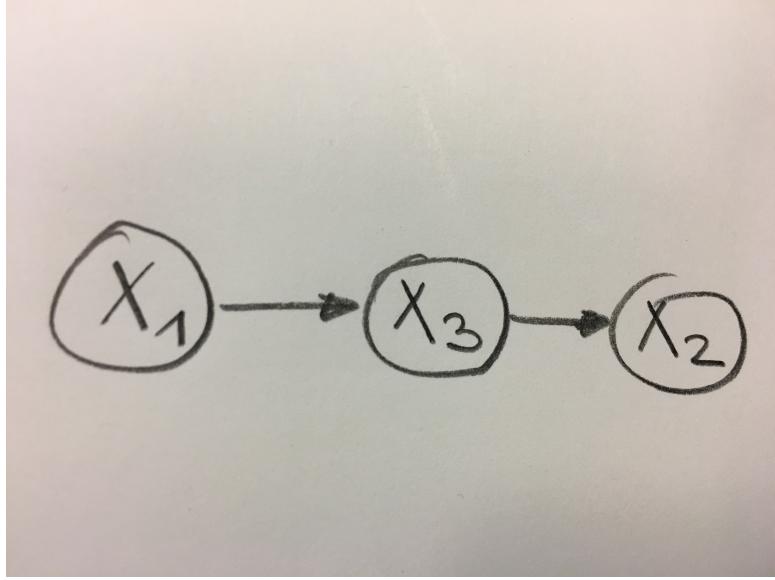


Figure 4: Second example:  $X_3$  is *head-to-tail* with respect to the path from  $X_1$  to  $X_2$ . Conditioning leads to independence.

But let us look again at the quantity  $p(X_1, X_2 | X_3)$ . We have

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(X_1, X_2 | X_3) &= \frac{p(X_1, X_2, X_3)}{p(X_3)} \\
 &= \frac{p(X_1)p(X_3 | X_1)p(X_2 | X_3)}{p(X_3)} \\
 &= \frac{p(X_1)p(X_3)p(X_1 | X_3)p(X_2 | X_3)}{p(X_1)p(X_3)} \\
 &= p(X_1 | X_3)p(X_2 | X_3).
 \end{aligned}$$

So we see that also in this case  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are independent given  $X_3$ .

It is standard terminology to say that  $X_3$  is *head-to-tail/tail-to-head* with respect to this path. Such a path does “connect”  $X_1$  to  $X_2$  but if we condition on  $X_3$  then again this path is “blocked,” and the two variables become independent.

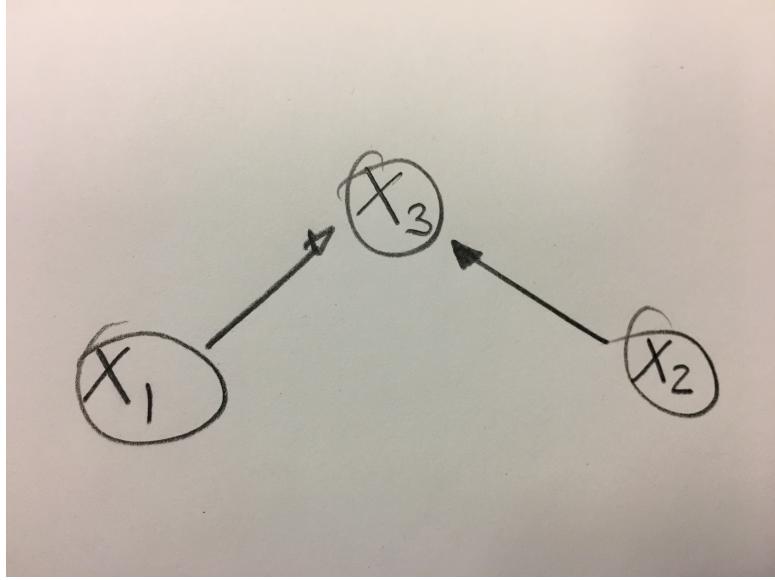


Figure 5: Third example:  $X_3$  is *head-to-head* with respect to the path from  $X_1$  to  $X_2$ . Conditioning *creates* dependence.

Let us now look at our final example. It is shown in Figure 5. This corresponds to the factorization

$$p(X_1, X_2, X_3) = p(X_1)p(X_2)p(X_3|X_1, X_2).$$

Marginalizing out  $X_3$ , we see that in this case  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are independent. But if we condition on  $X_3$  then generically we create a dependence. So, contrary to the previous two cases, a *head-to-head* path *creates* dependence if we condition on  $X_3$ .

The last example (and the fact that dependence is created) is at the core of a phenomenon that is called *explaining away*. Assume that all the random variables are binary. Let  $X_1$  be 1 mean that you are super smart (and  $X_1 = 0$  mean that you are not so super smart :-)),  $X_2 = 1$  mean that the final exam is super easy, and  $X_3 = 1$  that you got a 6 in the final exam. A priori  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  might be independent. But if you

$x = 1$  : you're smart  
 $y = 1$  : exam is easy  
 $z = 1$  : you've got a 6

→ if you know you have a 6 and the exam was easy, you decrease prob.  
 of « guessing » that you're smart.

learn that  $X_3 = 1$  then we create dependence: In particular, if there is now also evidence that  $X_2 = 1$  this will change the probability that  $X_1 = 1$  since  $X_2 = 1$  already “explains away” why you passed the exam with a top grade.

## D-Separation and Conditional Independence

Let us now state a general simple graphical criterion by which we can decide on (conditional) independence. We will see the same elements that we encountered in our previous examples reappear.

**Lemma.** *The (set of) random variable(s)  $X$  is conditionally independent of the (set of) random variable(s)  $Y$  conditioned on the (set of random) variable(s)  $Z$  if and only if  $X$  and  $Y$  are  $D$ -separated by  $Z$ .*

**Definition 0.1** ( $D$ -Separation). *We say that  $X$  and  $Y$  are  $D$ -separated by  $Z$  (all of them can be sets of random variables) iff every path from any element of  $X$  to any element of  $Y$  is blocked by  $Z$ .*

**Definition 0.2** (Blocked Path). *We say that a path from a node  $X$  to a node  $Y$  is blocked by  $Z$  iff it contains a variable such that either*

1. *this variable is in  $Z$  and it is head-to-tail or tail-to-tail (as in our two first examples), or*
2. *the node is head-to-head and neither this node nor any of its descendants are in  $Z$  (like in our last example).*

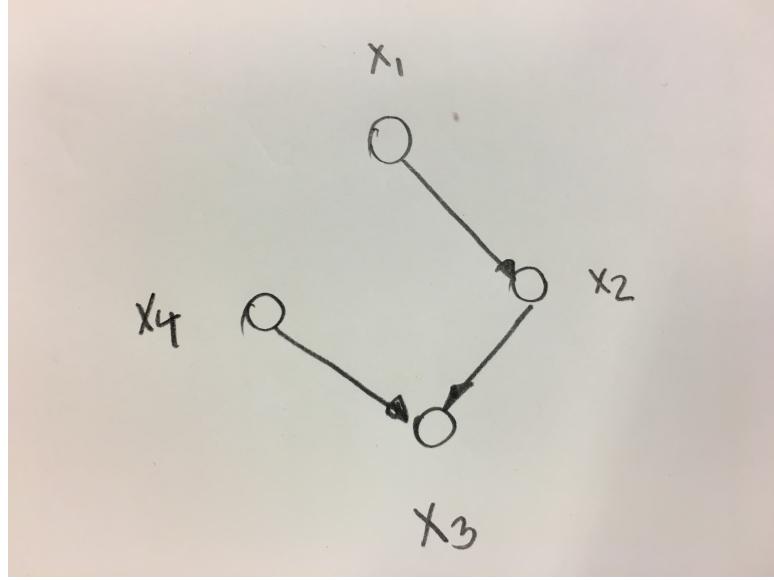


Figure 6: A Bayes net with four nodes.

Note: *Descendant* means child, or child of child, or ...  
 Consider the example shown in Figure 6.

- Is  $X_1$  independent of  $X_3$  given  $X_2$ ? The answer is *yes*. There is only one path from  $X_1$  to  $X_3$ . It goes through  $X_2$  and  $X_2$  is head-to-tails wrt this path. Therefore the only path is *blocked* by  $X_2$  according to criterion 1 above.
- Is  $X_3$  independent of  $X_1$  given  $X_2$ ? The answer is again *yes*. The notion of independence as well as our criteria above are symmetric.
- Is  $X_4$  independent of  $X_1$  given  $X_2$ ? The answer is again *yes*. There is only one path from  $X_1$  to  $X_4$ ? It goes through  $X_2$  and  $X_2$  is head-to-tails wrt this path. Therefore the only path is *blocked* by  $X_2$  according to criterion 1 above.
- Is  $X_4$  independent of  $X_1$  given  $X_3$ ? The answer is *no*.

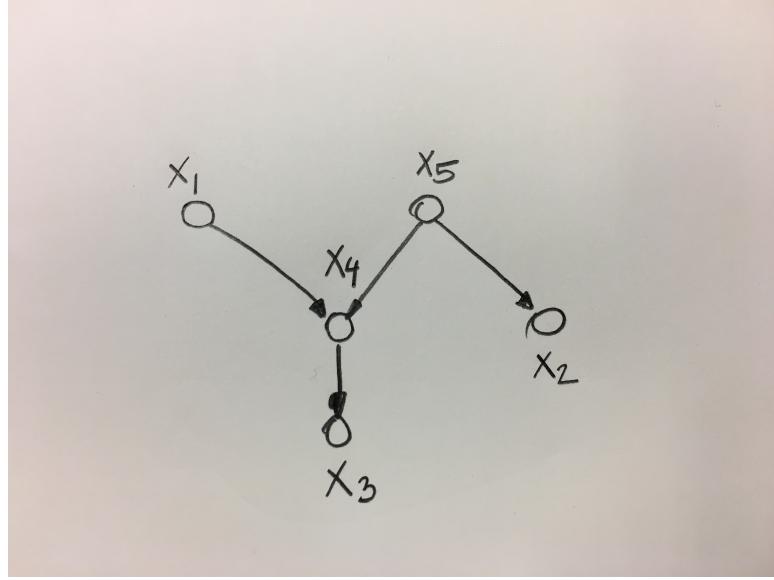


Figure 7: Another Bayes Net.

Neither of the above two criteria apply.

- Is  $X_4$  independent of  $X_1$  given  $X_3$  and  $X_2$ . The answer is *yes*.
- Is  $X_4$  independent of  $X_1$  given the empty set? The answer is *yes*. The only path between them is blocked at  $X_3$  which is head-to-head, and neither  $X_3$  nor any of its descendants (it has none) belong to  $Z$ , which is the empty set.

Let us look at one more example. It is shown in Figure 7. We will not work the answers here, but it might be a good additional exercise to work out the answer yourself.

- Is  $X_1$  independent of  $X_2$  given  $X_3$ ?  
*given X4: no  
given X3: neither,*  
*-> x1 to x2 is blocked by x4 which has descendant x3, which is in Z*
- Is  $X_1$  independent of  $X_2$  given  $X_5$ ?  
*yes (tail-to-tail)*

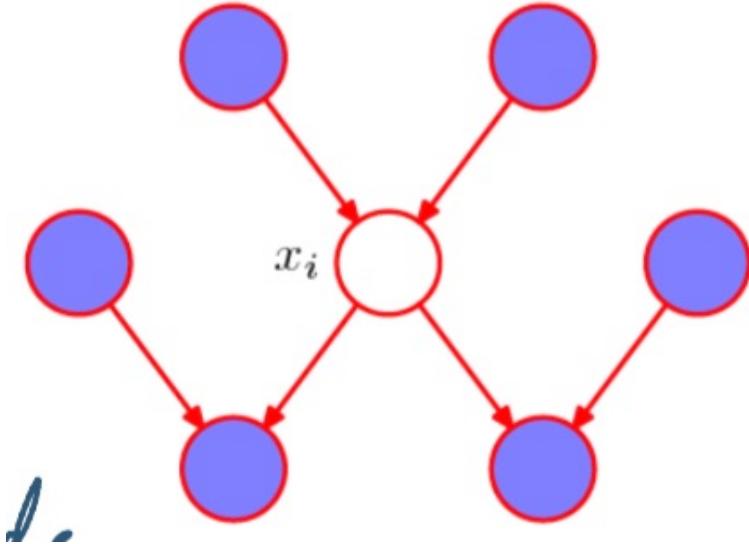


Figure 8: Markov blanket of  $X_i$ .

## Markov Blanket

Given a node  $X_i$  we can ask if there is a kind of *minimal* set so that every random variable outside this set is conditionally independent of  $X_i$ . This is what is typically called the *Markov blanket*. Figure 8 shows such a blanket.

**Definition 0.3** (Markov Blanket). *The Markov blanket of a node  $X_i$  is the set of parents, children, and co-parents of the node  $X_i$ . Here, by co-parent, we mean other parents of the children of  $X_i$ .*

It is a nice exercise to show that indeed any other node  $X_j$  which is not in the Markov blanket of  $X_i$  is conditionally independent of  $X_i$  given its Markov blanket by showing that  $X_j$  is  $D$ -separated from  $X_i$  by the Markov blanket.

Let us look at one of the cases. Fix  $X_i$  and let  $Z$  be its Markov blanket. Let  $X_j$ ,  $j \neq i$ , and  $X_j \notin Z$ . Consider a path from  $X_i$  to  $X_j$  and assume that this path goes through a child of  $X_i$  (every path from  $X_i$  to  $X_j$  has to go through

either a child or a parent of  $X_i$ ). Let this child be  $Y$ . Note that  $Y$  must either be head-to-head or head-to-tail with respect to this path since the edge from  $X_i$  to  $Y$  is directed from  $X_i$  to  $Y$  (by assumption  $Y$  is a child of  $X_i$ ). If the path is head-to-tail we are done since then this path is blocked by  $Y$ . But if  $Y$  is head-to-head then it must be true that the path also contains a co-parent of  $Y$ , call it  $U$ . Now this co-parent must either be tail-to-tail or tail-to-head with respect to this path. In both cases this co-parent blocks this path. The second case can be dealt with in a similar manner.

## Sampling and Marginals

So far we have discussed how we can recognize independence relationship if we are given a Bayes net.

Perhaps even more important is the ability to compute marginals given a Bayes net or to be able to sample given a Bayes net. These two tasks are related.

To see this, assume at first that we can sample efficiently given a Bayes net. To simplify things even further, assume that all variables are binary, i.e.,  $X_i \in \{0, 1\}$ . We could then generate many independent samples  $\{X_n\}_{n=1}^N = \{(X_{1n}, \dots, X_{Dn})\}_{n=1}^N$ . In order to estimate the marginal for  $X_i$ , i.e., in order to estimate  $\mathbb{E}[X_i]$ , we can then compute the corresponding empirical quantity  $\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N X_{in}$  and we know that this will converge to the true mean when we increase  $N$ .

Conversely, assume that we can efficiently compute marginals of any Bayes net. We want to sample from the joint distribution. We can then compute the marginal of the net with

respect to  $X_1$  lets say, and then flip a coin according to this marginal. We now have reduced the problem to generating a sample from the Bayes net where  $X_1$  is already known and we can recurse.

The problem is that in general neither sampling nor computing marginals can be done efficiently except for special cases. If you look at (1) you see that in order to generate a sample by deciding on one variable at a time (taking the previous choices into account) then in order to sample  $X_i$  given the previous realizations of  $X_1, \dots, X_{i-1}$  we would need a table that has size (in the binary case)  $2^{i-1}$  (this table contains the conditional probabilities). In other words, at least the storage complexity is exponential in the size of the net.

More generally, the storage requirement will be exponential in the largest number of parents any node in the network has.

Of course, if the Bayes net is a chain, then this task is very easy! In our next lecture we will talk about factor graphs. This is another graphical model. And we will ask how complex it is to compute marginals. This will lead us to the sum-product algorithm which is exact in the case where the factor graph is a tree and often gives a useful approximation even in the case where we have cycles.