

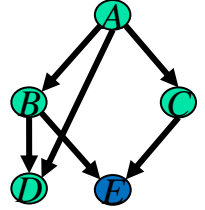
Inference for probabilistic networks (continued)



- Bucket elimination
 - Belief-updating, $P(e)$, partition function
 - Marginals, probability of evidence
 - The impact of evidence
 - for MPE (\rightarrow MAP)
 - for MAP (\rightarrow Marginal Map)
- Induced-Width (Dechter 3.4,3.5)

The Impact of Evidence?

Algorithm *BE-bel*



$$P(A | E = 0) = \alpha \sum_{E=0, D, C, B} P(A) \cdot P(B | A) \cdot P(C | A) \cdot P(D | A, B) \cdot P(E | B, C)$$

$\sum_b \Pi$ ← Elimination operator

bucket B:

$$P(b|a) \quad P(d|b,a) \quad P(e|b,c)$$

$B=1$

bucket C:

$$P(c|a) \quad \lambda^B(a, d, c, e)$$

bucket D:

$$\lambda^C(a, d, e)$$

bucket E:

$$e=0 \quad \lambda^D(a, e)$$

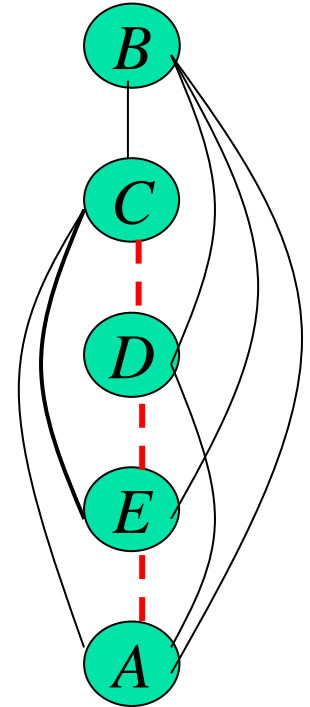
bucket A:

$$P(a) \quad \lambda^E(a)$$

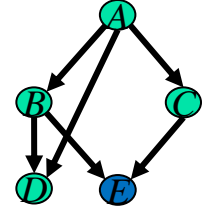
$$P(e=0)$$

$$P(a|e=0)$$

$W^*=4$
"induced width"
(max clique size)

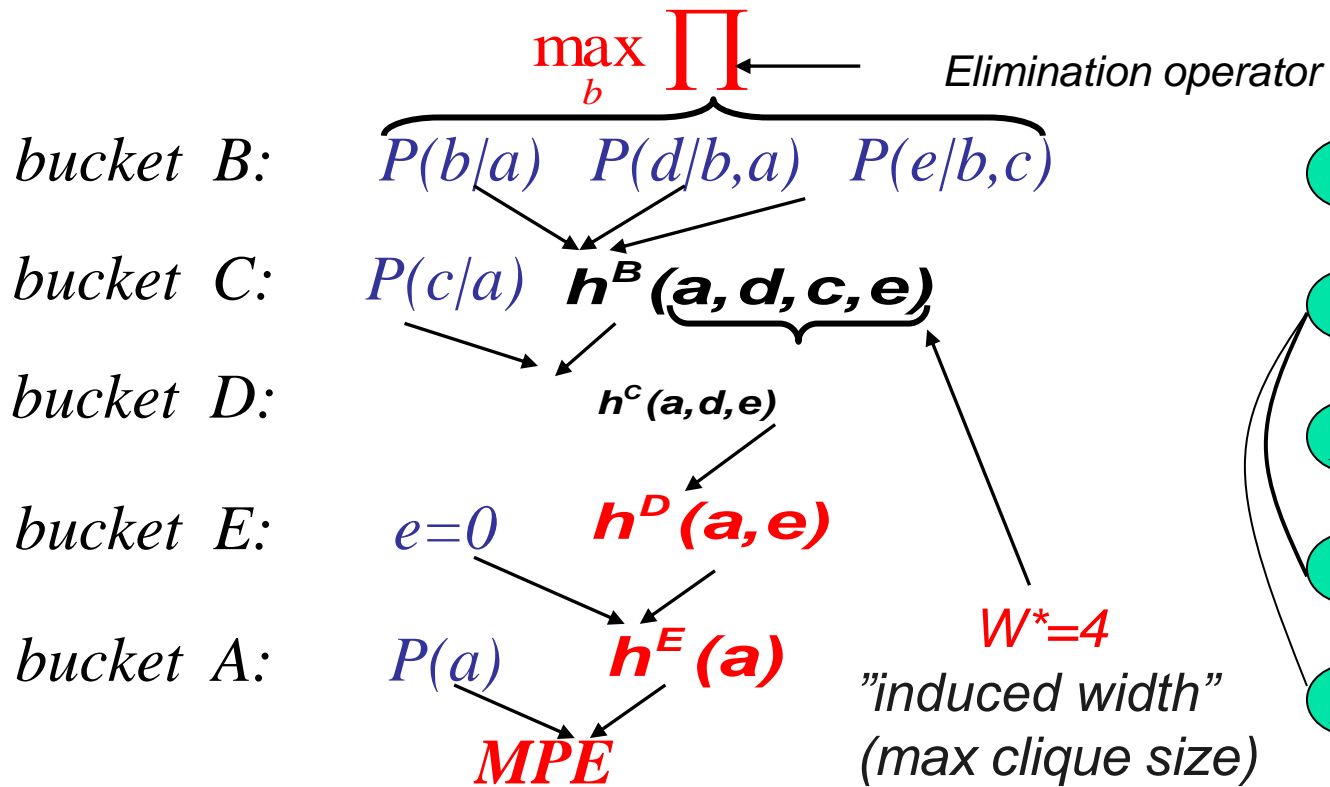


$$MPE = \max_{\bar{x}} P(\bar{x})$$



\sum is replaced by *max* :

$$MPE = \max_{a,e,d,c,b} P(a)P(c|a)P(b|a)P(d|a,b)P(e|b,c)$$



Generating the MPE-tuple

5. $b' = \arg \max P(b | a') \times P(d' | b, a') \times P(e' | b, c')$

4. $c' = \arg \max P(c | a') \times h^B(a', d', c, e')$

3. $d' = \arg \max_d h^C(a', d, e')$

2. $e' = 0$

1. $a' = \arg \max_a P(a) \cdot h^E(a)$

B: $P(b/a) \quad P(d/b,a) \quad P(e/b,c)$

C: $P(c/a) \quad h^B(a, d, c, e)$

D: $h^C(a, d, e)$

E: $e=0 \quad h^D(a, e)$

A: $P(a) \quad h^E(a)$

Return (a', b', c', d', e')



Inference for probabilistic networks

- **Bucket elimination**
 - Belief-updating, $P(e)$, partition function
 - Marginals, probability of evidence
 - The impact of evidence
 - for MPE (\rightarrow MAP)
 - for MAP (\rightarrow Marginal Map)
- **Induced-Width (Dechter 3.4,3.5)**



Finding a Small Induced-Width

- NP-complete
- A tree has induced-width of ?
- Greedy algorithms:
 - Min width
 - Min induced-width
 - Max-cardinality and chordal graphs
 - Fill-in (thought as the best)
- Anytime algorithms
 - Search-based [Gogate & Dechter 2003]
 - Stochastic (CVO) [Kask, Gelfand & Dechter 2010]



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Min-width Ordering

MIN-WIDTH (MW)

input: a graph $G = (V, E)$, $V = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$

output: A min-width ordering of the nodes $d = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$.

1. **for** $j = n$ to 1 by -1 **do**
2. $r \leftarrow$ a node in G with smallest degree.
3. put r in position j and $G \leftarrow G - r$.
 (Delete from V node r and from E all its adjacent edges)
4. **endfor**

Proposition: algorithm min-width finds a min-width ordering of a graph
What is the Complexity of MW?

$O(e)$



Greedy Orderings Heuristics

- **Min-induced-width**

- From last to first, pick a node with smallest width, then connect parent and remove

- **Min-Fill**

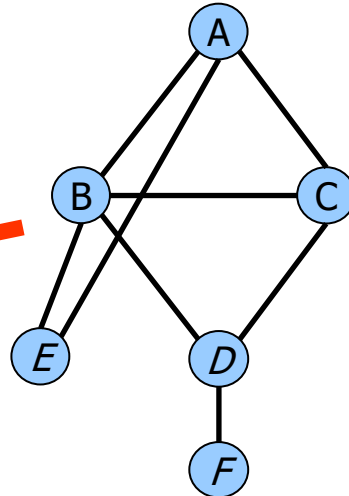
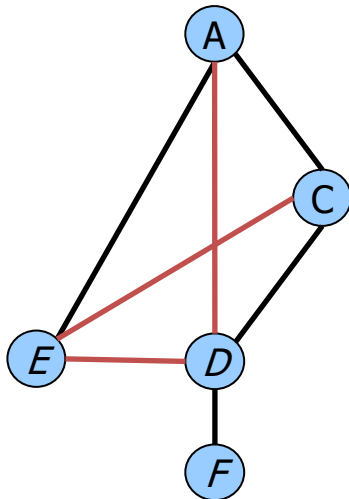
- From last to first, pick a node with smallest fill-edges

Complexity? $O(n^3)$

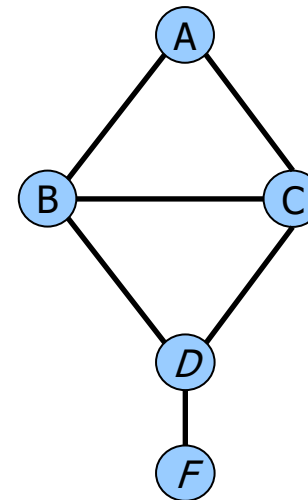
Min-Fill Heuristic

- Select the variable that creates the fewest "fill-in" edges

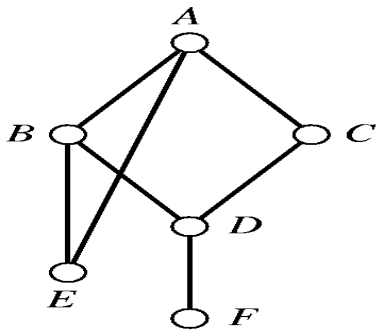
*Eliminate B next?
Connect neighbors
"Fill-in" = 3:
(A,D), (C,E), (D,E)*



*Eliminate E next?
Neighbors already connected
"Fill-in" = 0*



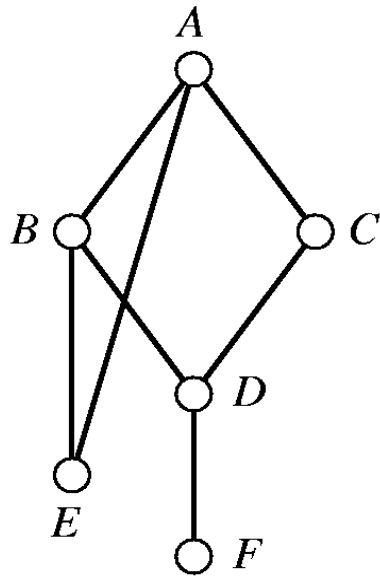
Example



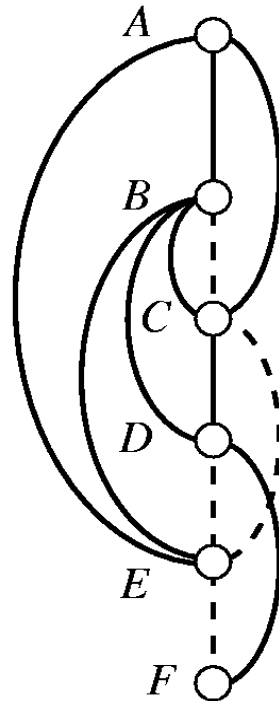
(a)



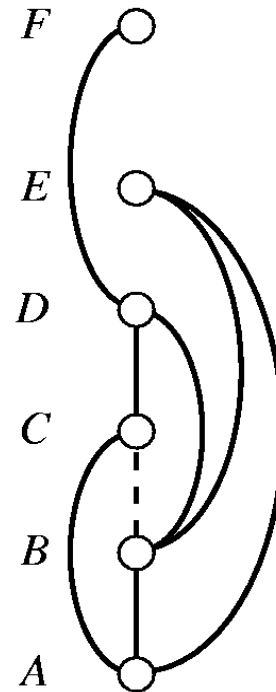
Different Induced-Graphs



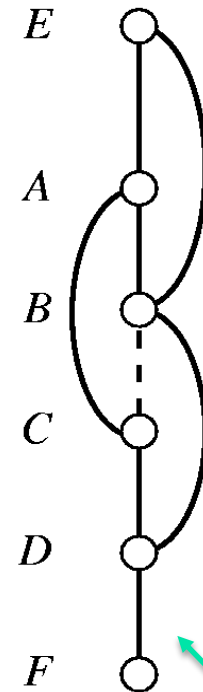
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

A Min-fill ordering

A Miw ordering



Which Greedy Algorithm is Best?

- Min-Fill, prefers a node who adds the least number of fill-in arcs.
- Empirically, fill-in is the best among the greedy algorithms (MW,MIW,MF,MC)
- Complexity of greedy orderings?
- MW is $O(e)$, MIW: $O(n^3)$, MF $O(n^3)$, MC is $O(e+n)$ (MC: read on your own)

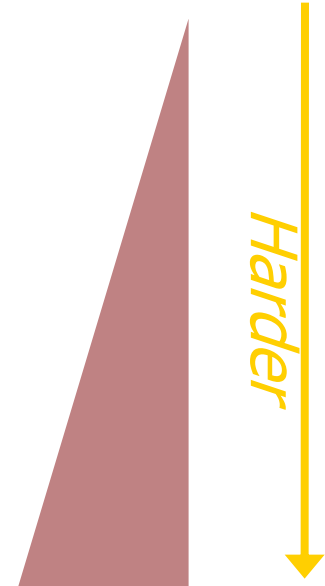


Inference for probabilistic networks

- Bucket elimination (Dechter chapter 4)
 - Belief-updating, $P(e)$, partition function
 - Marginals, probability of evidence
 - The impact of evidence
 - for MPE (\rightarrow MAP)
 - for MAP (\rightarrow Marginal Map)
 - Influence diagrams ?
- Induced-Width (Dechter, Chapter 3.4)

Marginal Map

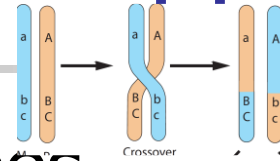
▶ Max-Inference	$f(\mathbf{x}^*) = \max_{\mathbf{x}} \prod_{\alpha} f_{\alpha}(\mathbf{x}_{\alpha})$
▶ Sum-Inference	$Z = \sum_{\mathbf{x}} \prod_{\alpha} f_{\alpha}(\mathbf{x}_{\alpha})$
▶ Mixed-Inference	$f(\mathbf{x}_M^*) = \max_{\mathbf{x}_M} \sum_{\mathbf{x}_S} \prod_{\alpha} f_{\alpha}(\mathbf{x}_{\alpha})$



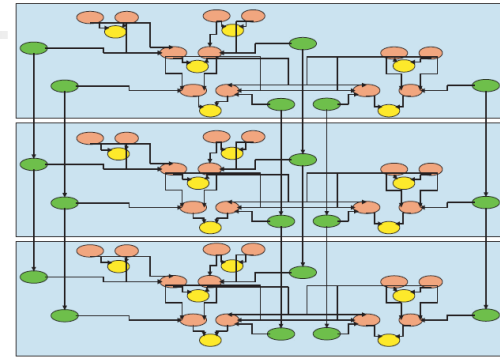
- **NP-hard**: exponentially many terms

Example for MMAP Applications

- Haplotype in Family pedigrees



6 people, 3 markers



- Coding networks

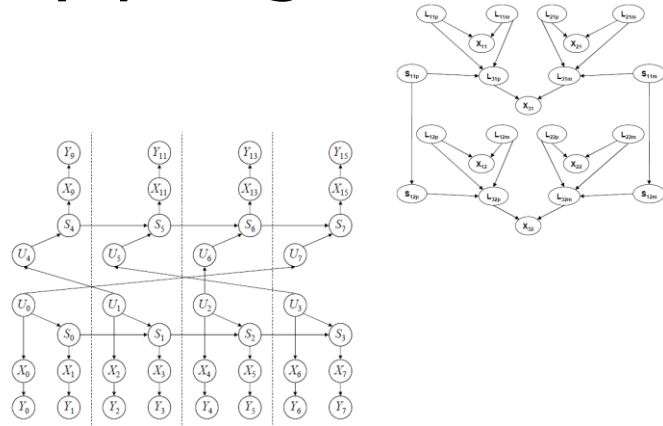
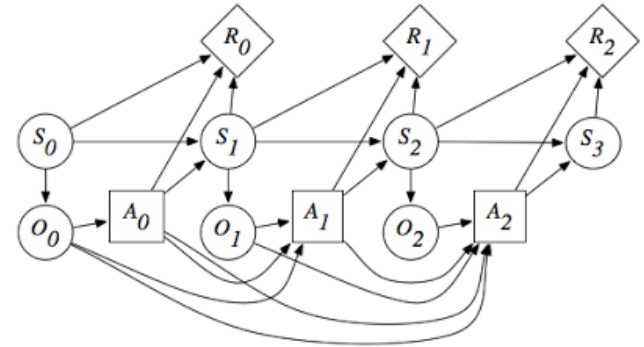
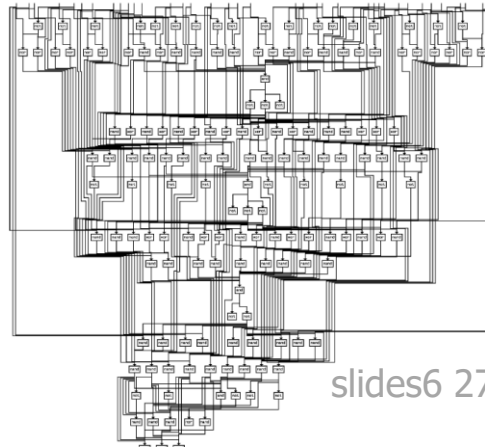


Figure 5.24: A Bayesian network for a turbo code.

- Probabilistic planning

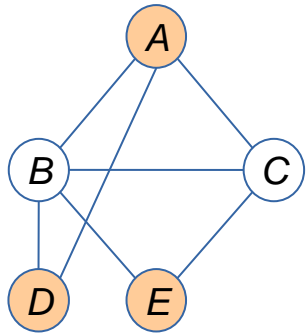


- Diagnosis



Bucket Elimination for MMAP

Bucket Elimination



$$\mathbf{X}_M = \{A, D, E\}$$

$$\mathbf{X}_S = \{B, C\}$$

$$\max_{\mathbf{X}_M} \sum_{\mathbf{X}_S} P(\mathbf{X})$$

constrained elimination order

SUM

MAX

$$B: \underbrace{f(A, B) f(B, C) f(B, D) f(B, E)}_{\Sigma_B}$$

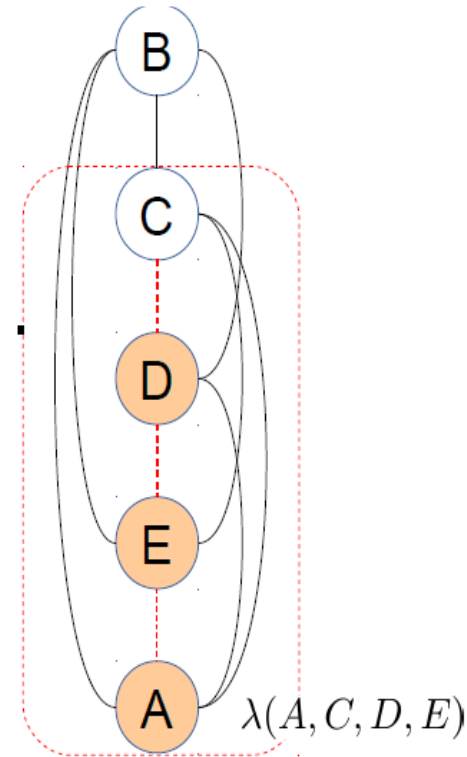
$$C: \underbrace{\lambda^B(A, C, D, E) f(A, C) f(C, E)}_{\Sigma_C}$$

$$D: \underbrace{\lambda^C(A, D, E) f(A, D)}_{\max_D}$$

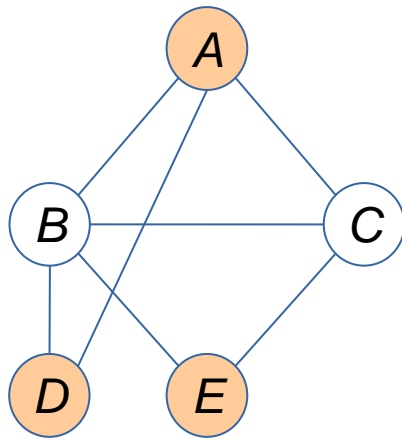
$$E: \underbrace{\lambda^D(A, E)}_{\max_E}$$

$$A: \underbrace{\lambda^E(A)}_{\text{MAP}^*}$$

MAP* is the marginal MAP value

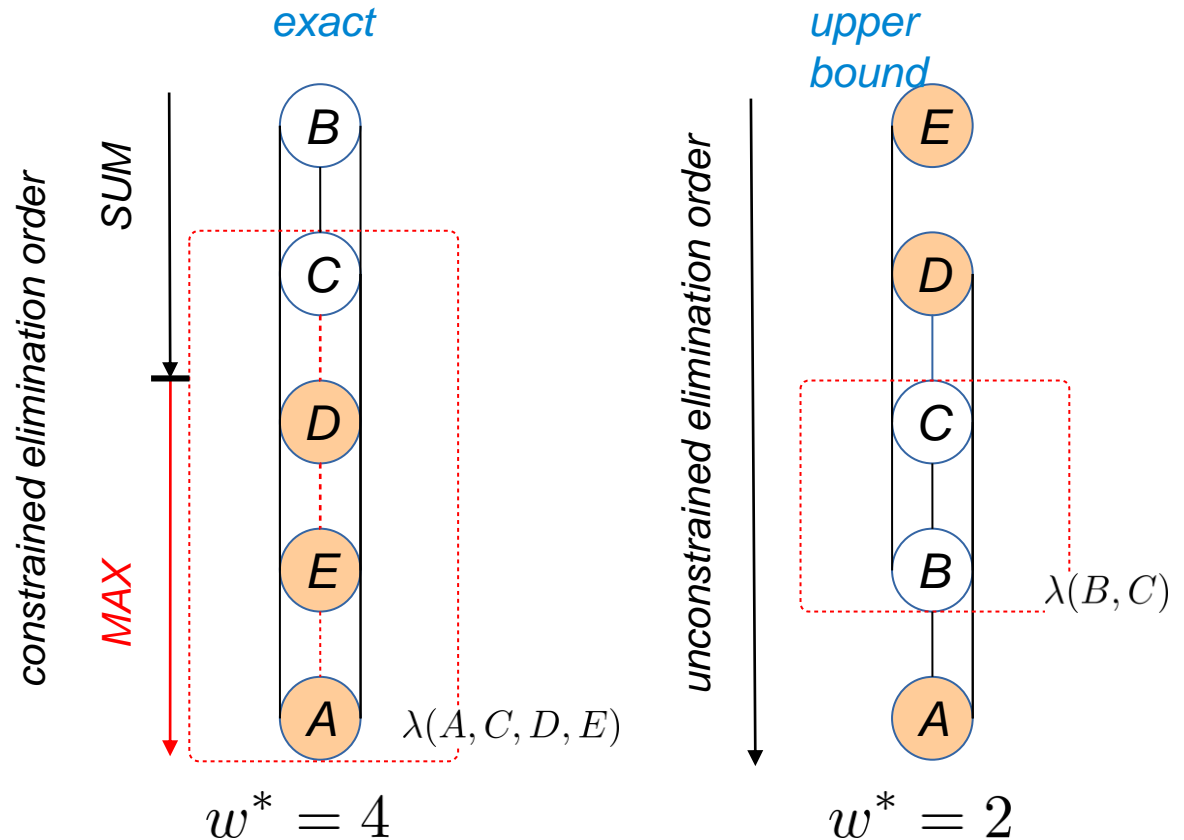


Why is MMAP harder?



$$\mathbf{X}_M = \{A, D, E\}$$

$$\mathbf{X}_S = \{B, C\}$$



In practice, constrained induced is much larger!

$$\max_X \sum_Y \phi \leq \sum_Y \max_X \phi$$

(Park & Darwiche, 2003)
(Yuan & Hansen, 2009)



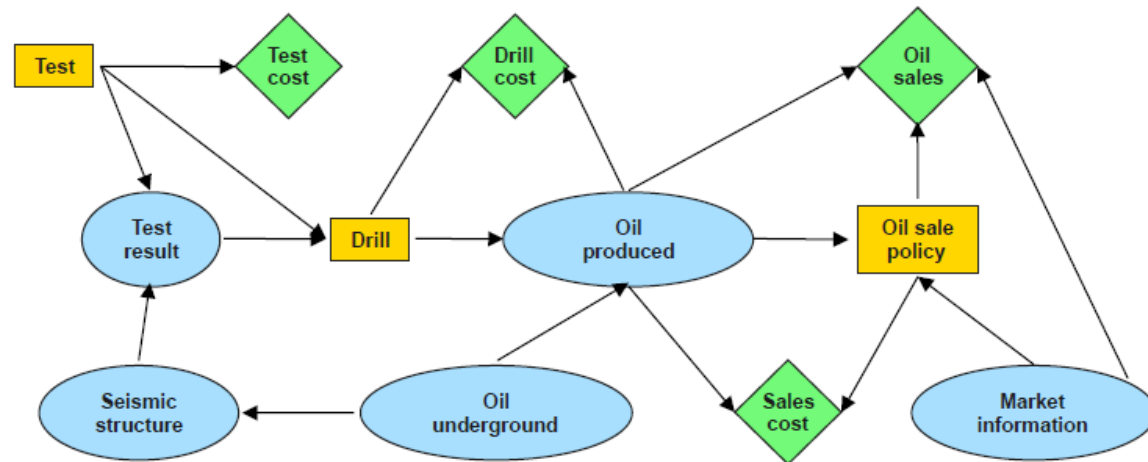
Inference for probabilistic networks

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- Induced-Width (Dechter, Chapter 3.4)
- Mixed networks
- Influence diagrams ?

Ex: “oil wildcatter”

e.g., [Raiffa 1968; Shachter 1986]

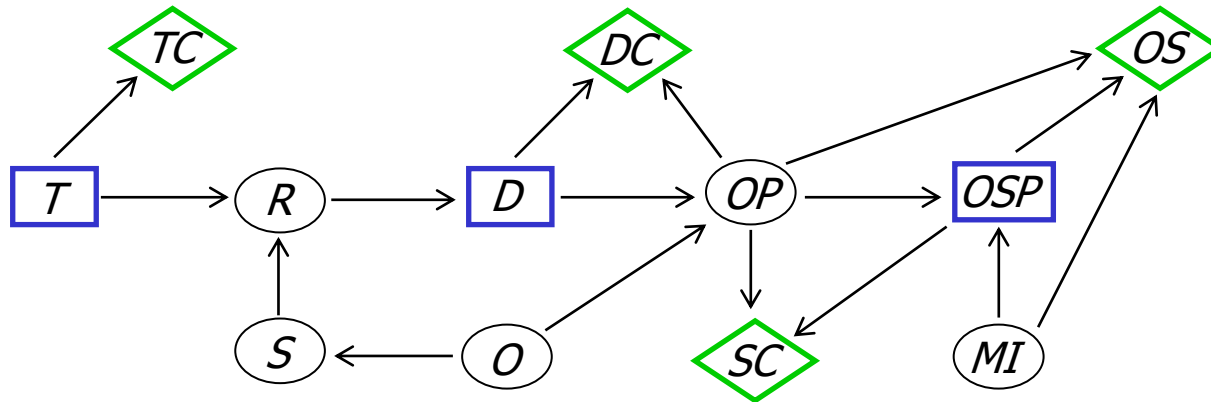
- Influence diagram:



- Three actions: test, drill, sales policy
- Chance variables:
 $P(\text{oil})$ $P(\text{seismic}|\text{oil})$ $P(\text{result} | \text{seismic}, \text{test})$ $P(\text{produced} | \text{oil}, \text{drill})$ $P(\text{market})$
- Utilities capture costs of actions, rewards of sale
 $\text{Oil sales} - \text{Test cost} - \text{Drill cost} - \text{Sales cost}$

Influence Diagrams

Influence diagram $ID = (X, D, P, R)$.



Chance variables $X = X_1, \dots, X_n$ over domains.

Decision variables $D = D_1, \dots, D_m$

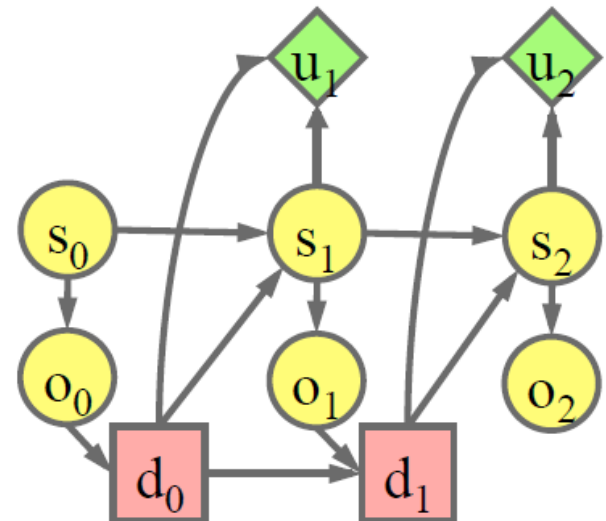
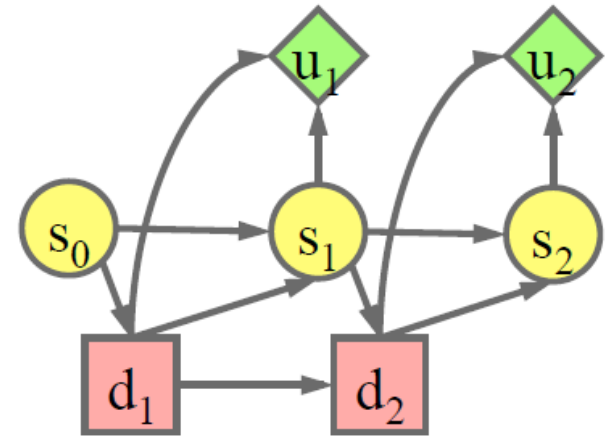
CPT's for chance variables $P_i = P(X_i | pa_i), i = 1..n$

Reward components $R = \{r_1, \dots, r_j\}$

Utility function $u = \sum i r_i$

Common examples

- Markov decision process
 - Markov chain state sequence
 - Actions “ d_i ” influence state transition
 - Rewards based on action, new state
 - Temporally homogeneous
- Partially observable MDP
 - Hidden Markov chain state sequence
 - Generate observations
 - Actions based on observations





Influence Diagrams

(continue)

A decision rule for D_i is a mapping: $\delta_i : \Omega_{paD_i} \rightarrow \Omega_{D_i}$
where Ω_S is the cross product of domains in S .

A policy is a list of decision rules $\Delta = (\delta_1, \dots, \delta_m)$

Task: Find an optimal policy that maximizes the expected utility.

$$E = \max_{\Delta=(\delta_1, \dots, \delta_m)} \sum_{x=(x_1, \dots, x_n)} \prod_i P_i(x) u(x)$$



General Graphical Models

Definition 2.2 Graphical model. A *graphical model* \mathcal{M} is a 4-tuple, $\mathcal{M} = \langle \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{F}, \otimes \rangle$, where:

1. $\mathbf{X} = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ is a finite set of variables;
2. $\mathbf{D} = \{D_1, \dots, D_n\}$ is the set of their respective finite domains of values;
3. $\mathbf{F} = \{f_1, \dots, f_r\}$ is a set of positive real-valued discrete functions, defined over scopes of variables $\mathcal{S} = \{S_1, \dots, S_r\}$, where $S_i \subseteq \mathbf{X}$. They are called *local* functions.
4. \otimes is a *combination* operator (e.g., $\otimes \in \{\prod, \sum, \bowtie\}$ (product, sum, join)). The combination operator can also be defined axiomatically as in [Shenoy, 1992], but for the sake of our discussion we can define it explicitly, by enumeration.

The graphical model represents a *global function* whose scope is \mathbf{X} which is the combination of all its functions: $\otimes_{i=1}^r f_i$.

General Bucket Elimination

Algorithm General bucket elimination (GBE)

Input: $\mathcal{M} = \langle \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{F}, \otimes \rangle$. $F = \{f_1, \dots, f_n\}$ an ordering of the variables, $d = X_1, \dots, X_n$;
 $Y \subseteq X$.

Output: A new compiled set of functions from which the query $\downarrow_Y \otimes_{i=1}^n f_i$ can be derived in linear time.

1. **Initialize:** Generate an ordered partition of the functions into $bucket_1, \dots, bucket_n$, where $bucket_i$ contains all the functions whose highest variable in their scope is X_i . An input function in each bucket ψ_i , $\psi_i = \otimes_{i=1}^n f_i$.

2. **Backward:** For $p \leftarrow n$ downto 1, do

for all the functions $\psi_p, \lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_j$ in $bucket_p$, do

- **If** (observed variable) $X_p = x_p$ appears in $bucket_p$, assign $X_p = x_p$ in ψ_p and to each λ_i and put each resulting function in appropriate bucket.
- **else**, (combine and marginalize)
 $\lambda_p \leftarrow \downarrow_{S_p} \psi_p \otimes (\otimes_{i=1}^j \lambda_i)$ and add λ_p to the largest-index variable in $scope(\lambda_p)$.

3. **Return:** all the functions in each bucket.

Theorem 4.23 Correctness and complexity. *Algorithm GBE is sound and complete for its task. Its time and space complexities is exponential in the $w^*(d) + 1$ and $w^*(d)$, respectively, along the order of processing d .*

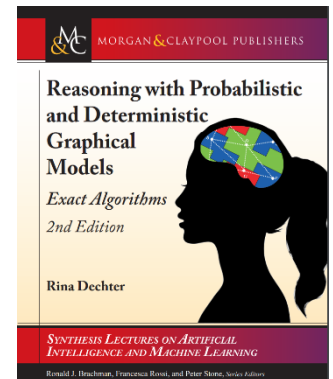


Causal and Probabilistic Reasoning

Slides Set 6: Exact Inference Algorithms Tree-Decomposition Schemes

Rina Dechter

(Dechter chapter 5, Darwiche chapter 6-7)





Outline

- From bucket-elimination (BE) to bucket-tree elimination (BTE)
- From BTE to CTE, Acyclic networks, the join-tree algorithm
- Generating join-trees, the treewidth
- Examples of CTE for Bayesian network
- Belief-propagation on acyclic probabilistic networks (poly-trees) and Loopy networks
- Conditioning with elimination (Dechter, 7.1, 7.2)

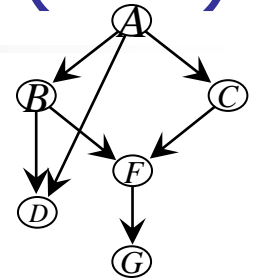


Outline

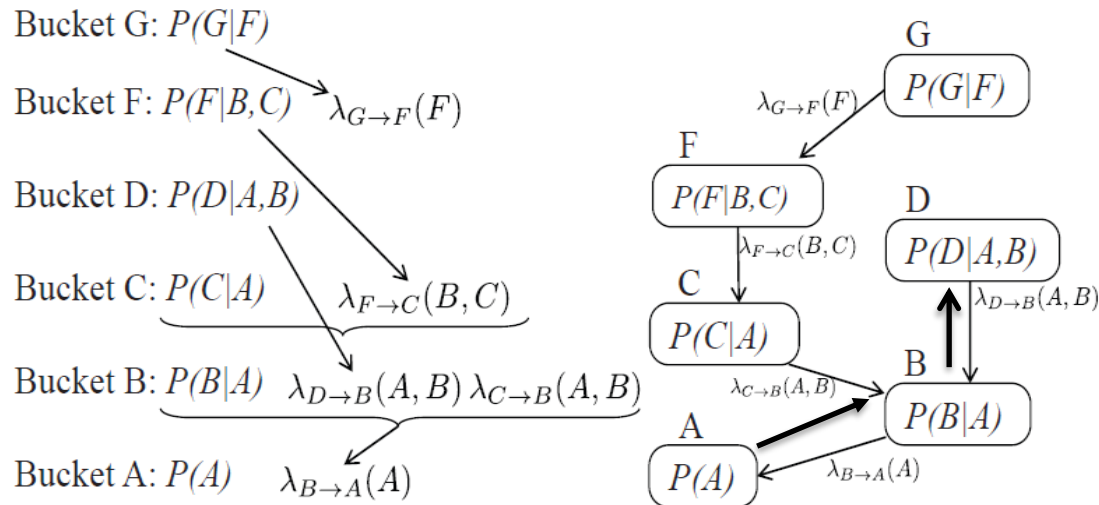
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From BE to Bucket-Tree Elimination(BTE)

First, observe the BE operates on a tree.



Second, What if we want the marginal on D?



$P(D)?$

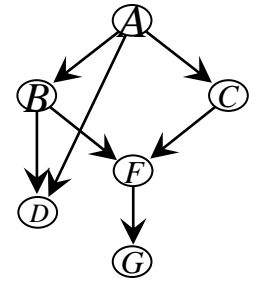
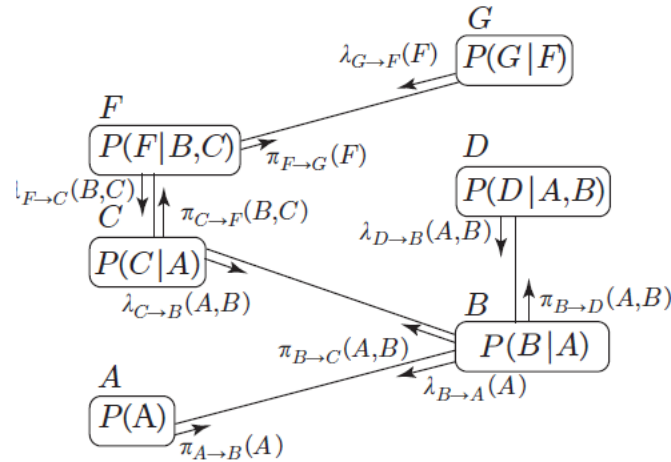
$$\pi_{A \rightarrow B}(a) = P(A),$$

$$\pi_{B \rightarrow D}(a, b) = p(b|a) \cdot \pi_{A \rightarrow B}(a) \cdot \lambda_{C \rightarrow B}(b)$$

$$bel(d) = \alpha \sum_{a,b} P(d|a, b) \cdot \pi_{B \rightarrow D}(a, b).$$

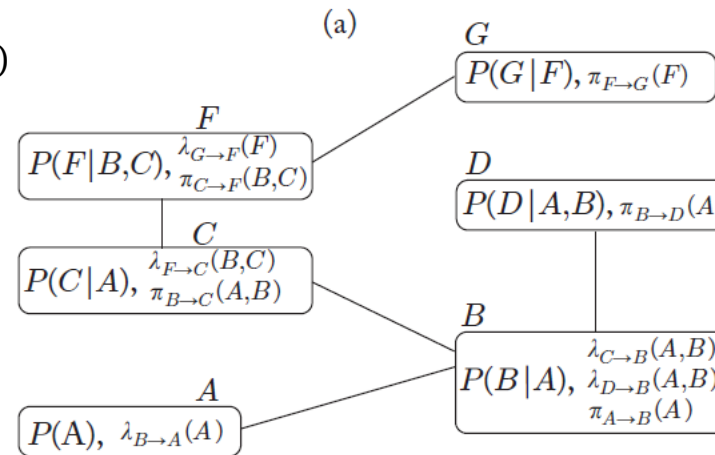
BTE: Allows Messages Both Ways

Initial buckets
+ messages



Output buckets

$$P(F) = \sum_{b,c} P(F|b,c) \pi_{C \rightarrow F}(b,c) \lambda_{G \rightarrow F}(F)$$



$$P(D) = \sum_{a,b} P(D|a,b) \pi_{B \rightarrow D}(a,b)$$



(b)

BTE

Theorem: When BTE terminates The product of functions in each bucket is the beliefs of the variables joint with the evidence.

$$\text{elim}(i,j) = \text{scope}(B_i) - \text{scope}(B_j)$$

ALGORITHM BUCKET-TREE ELIMINATION (BTE)

Input: A problem $\mathcal{M} = \langle \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{F}, \prod, \sum \rangle$, ordering d .

$X = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ and $F = \{f_1, \dots, f_r\}$

Evidence $E = e$.

Output: Augmented buckets $\{B'_i\}$, containing the original functions and all the π and λ functions received from neighbors in the bucket tree.

1. **Pre-processing:** Partition functions to the ordered buckets as usual and generate the bucket tree.

2. **Top-down phase:** λ messages (BE) do

for $i = n$ to 1, in reverse order of d process bucket B_i :

The message $\lambda_{i \rightarrow j}$ from B_i to its parent B_j , is:

$$\lambda_{i \rightarrow j} \leftarrow \sum_{\text{elim}(i,j)} \psi_i \cdot \prod_{k \in \text{child}(i)} \lambda_{k \rightarrow i}$$

endfor

3. **bottom-up phase:** π messages

for $j = 1$ to n , process bucket B_j do:

B_j takes $\pi_{k \rightarrow j}$ received from its parent B_k , and computes a message $\pi_{j \rightarrow i}$ for each child bucket B_i by

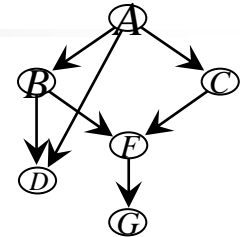
$$\pi_{j \rightarrow i} \leftarrow \sum_{\text{elim}(j,i)} \pi_{k \rightarrow j} \cdot \psi_j \cdot \prod_{r \neq i} \lambda_{r \rightarrow j}$$

endfor

4. **Output:** augmented buckets B'_1, \dots, B'_n , where each B'_i contains the original bucket functions and the λ and π messages it received.

Figure 5.3: Algorithm bucket-tree elimination.

Bucket-Tree Construction From the Graph



1. Pick a (good) variable ordering, d .
2. Generate the induced ordered graph
3. From top to bottom, each bucket of X is mapped to pairs (variables, functions)
4. The variables are the clique of X , the functions are those placed in the bucket
5. Connect the bucket of X to earlier bucket of Y if Y is the closest node connected to X

Example: Create bucket tree for ordering A, B, C, D, F, G



Asynchronous BTE: Bucket-tree Propagation (BTP)

BUCKET-TREE PROPAGATION (BTP)

Input: A problem $\mathcal{M} = \langle \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{F}, \prod, \sum \rangle$, ordering d . $X = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ and $F = \{f_1, \dots, f_r\}$, $\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{e}$. An ordering d and a corresponding bucket-tree structure, in which for each node X_i , its bucket B_i and its neighboring buckets are well defined.

Output: Explicit buckets. Assume functions assigned with the evidence.

1. **for** bucket B_i **do**:

2. **for** each neighbor bucket B_j **do**,

 once all messages from all other neighbors were received, **do**

 compute and send to B_j the message

$$\lambda_{i \rightarrow j} \Leftarrow \sum_{elim(i,j)} \psi_i \cdot \left(\prod_{k \neq j} \lambda_{k \rightarrow i} \right)$$

3. **Output:** augmented buckets B'_1, \dots, B'_n , where each B'_i contains the original bucket functions and the λ messages it received.



Query Answering

COMPUTING MARGINAL BELIEFS

Input: a bucket tree processed by BTE with augmented buckets: Bt_1, \dots, Bt_n

output: beliefs of each variable, bucket, and probability of evidence.

$$bel(B_i) \Leftarrow \alpha \cdot \prod_{f \in Bt_i} f$$

$$bel(X_i) \Leftarrow \alpha \cdot \sum_{B_i - \{X_i\}} \prod_{f \in Bt_i} f$$

$$P(evidence) \Leftarrow \sum_{B_i} \prod_{f \in Bt_i} f$$

Figure 5.4: Query answering.



Complexity of BTE/BTP on Trees

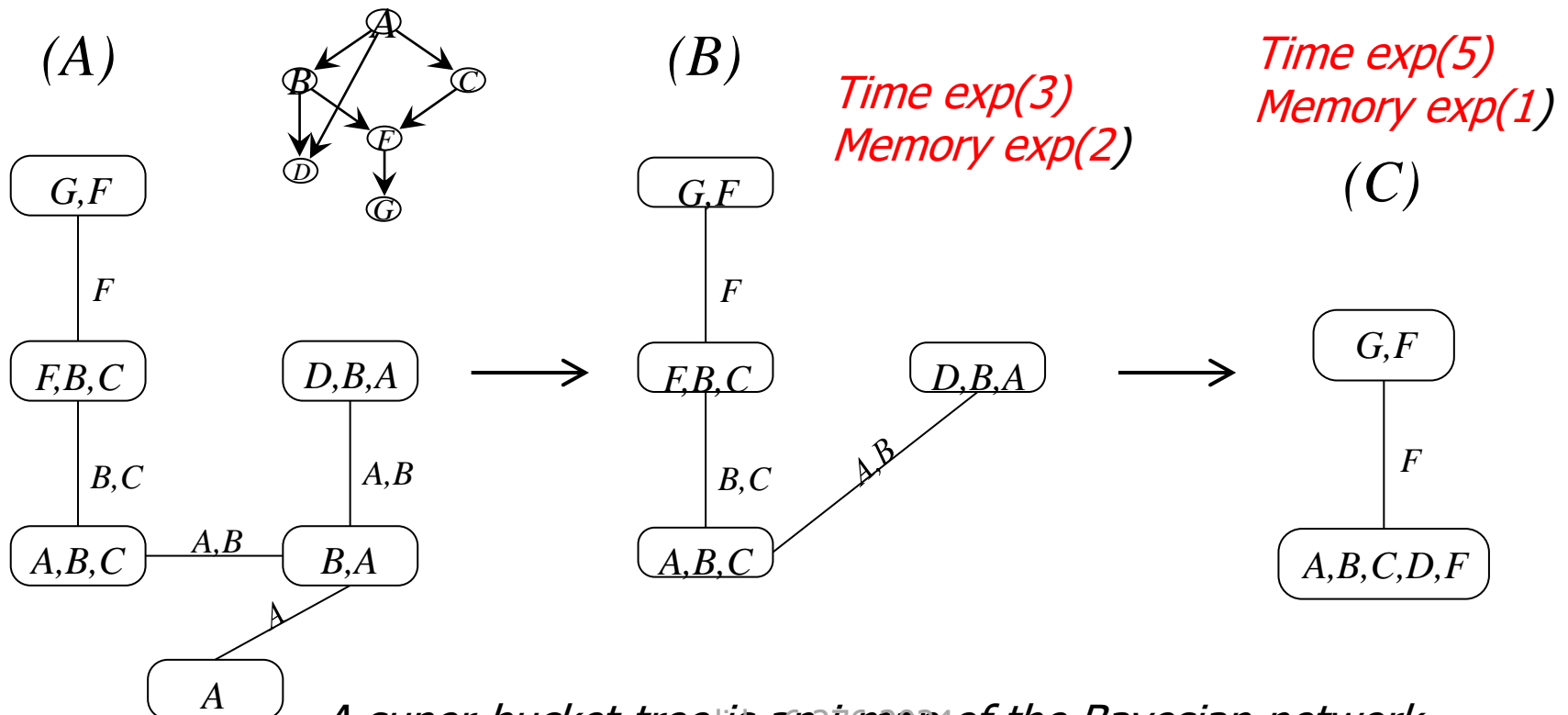
Theorem 5.6 Complexity of BTE. *Let $w^*(d)$ be the induced width of (G^*, d) where G is the primal graph of $\mathcal{M} = \langle \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{F}, \prod, \sum \rangle$, r be the number of functions in \mathbf{F} and k be the maximum domain size. The time complexity of BTE is $O(r \cdot \text{deg} \cdot k^{w^*(d)+1})$, where deg is the maximum degree of a node in the bucket tree. The space complexity of BTE is $O(n \cdot k^{w^*(d)})$.*

Proposition 5.8 BTE on trees *For tree graphical models, algorithms BTE and BTP are time and space $O(nk^2)$ and $O(nk)$, respectively, when k bound the domain size and n bounds the number of variables.*

This will be extended to acyclic graphical models shortly

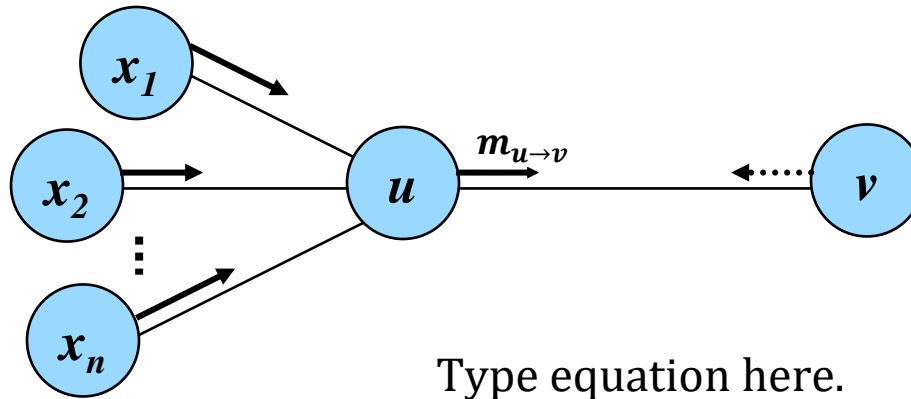
From Buckets to Tree-Clusters

- Merge non-maximal buckets into maximal clusters.
- Connect clusters into a tree: connect each cluster to one with which it shares a largest subset of variables.
- Separators are variable-intersection on adjacent clusters.



A super-bucket-tree is an *i-map* of the Bayesian network

Message Passing on a Tree Decomposition



For max-product
Just replace \sum
With max.

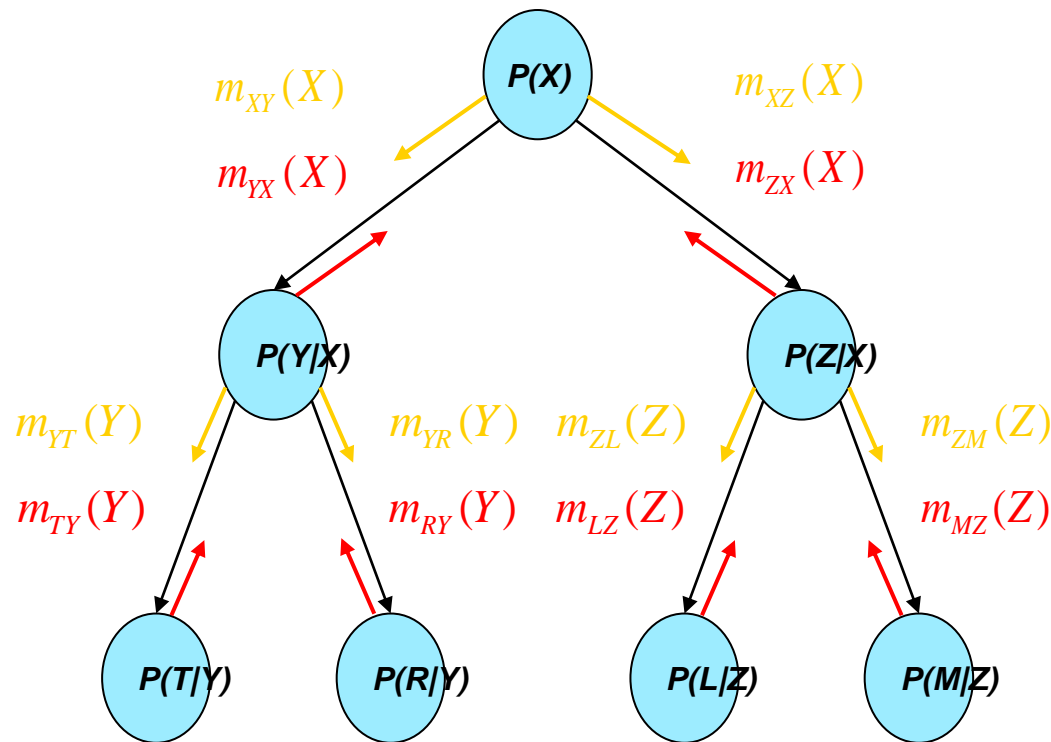
$$\text{Cluster}(u) = \psi(u) \cup \{m_{X_1 \rightarrow u}, m_{X_1 \rightarrow u}, m_{X_2 \rightarrow u}, \dots, m_{X_n \rightarrow u}\}$$

$$\text{Elim}(u, v) = \text{cluster}(u) - \text{sep}(u, v)$$

$$\mathbf{m}_{u \rightarrow v} = \sum_{\text{elim}(u, v)} \psi(u) \prod_{r \in \text{neighbor}(u), r \neq v} \{\mathbf{m}_{r \rightarrow u}\}$$

Propagation in Both Directions

- Messages can propagate both ways and we get beliefs for each variable





Outline

- From bucket-elimination (BE) to bucket-tree elimination (BTE)
- From BTE to CTE, Acyclic networks, the join-tree algorithm
- Generating join-trees, the treewidth
- Examples of CTE for Bayesian network
- Belief-propagation on acyclic probabilistic networks (poly-trees) and Loopy networks
- **Conditioning with elimination (Dechter, 7.1, 7.2)**

The Idea of Cutset-Conditioning

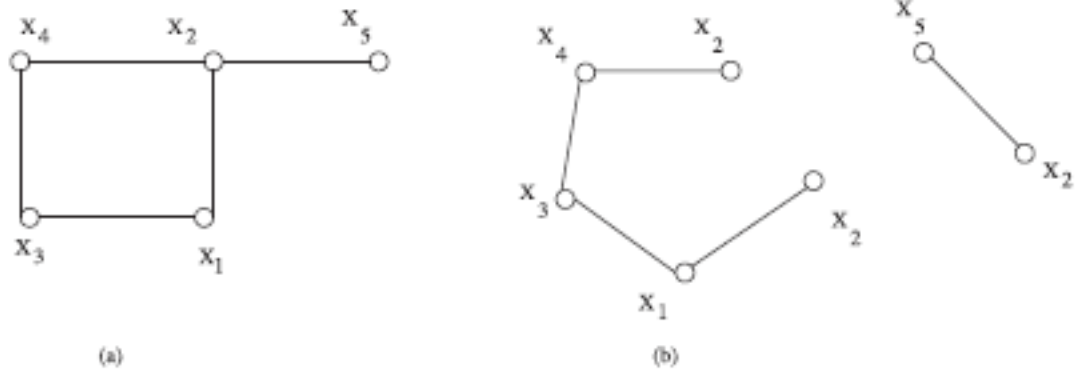


Figure 7.1: An instantiated variable cuts its own cycles.

Conditioning - the Probability Tree

$$P(D = 1, G = 0) = \sum_a P(a) \sum_c P(c|a) \sum_b P(b|a) \sum_f P(f|b,c) P(d = 1|b,a) P(g = 0|f)$$

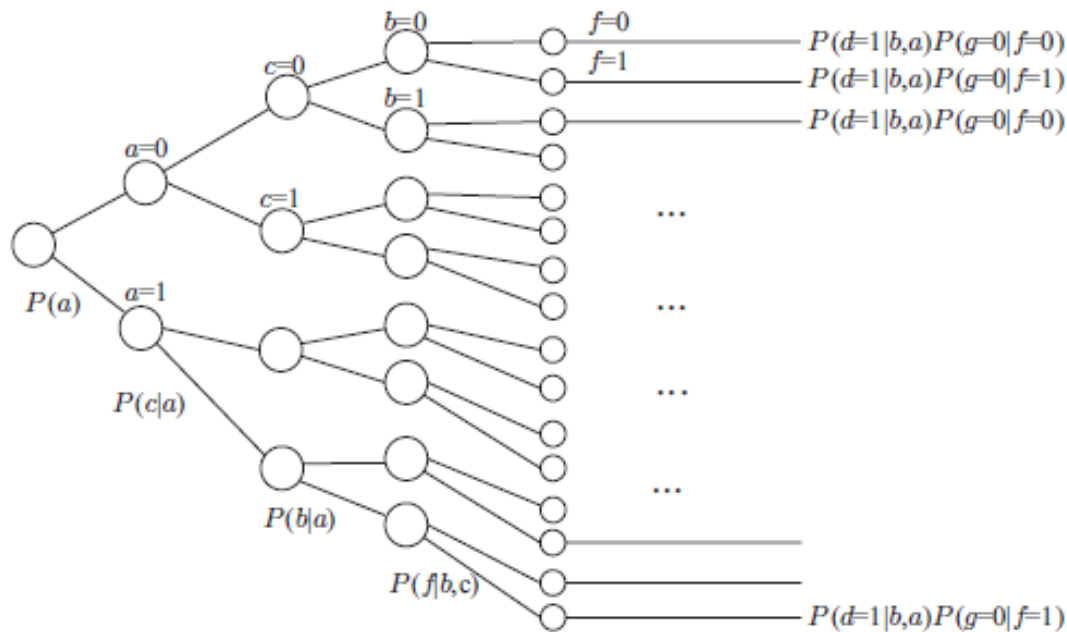
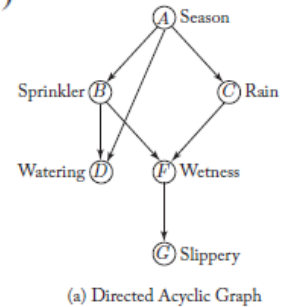
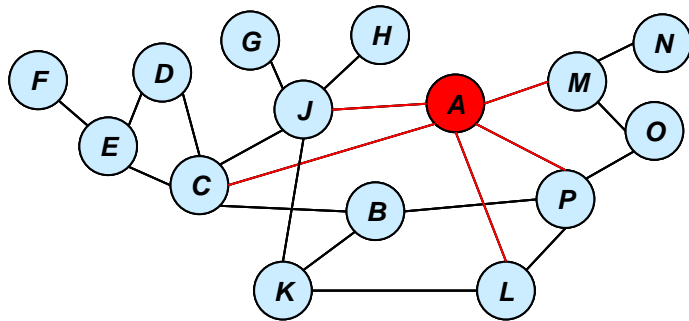


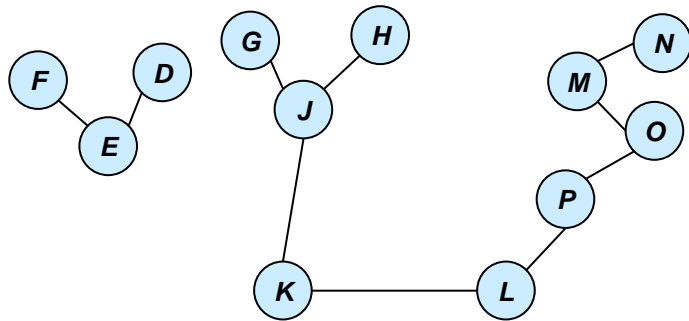
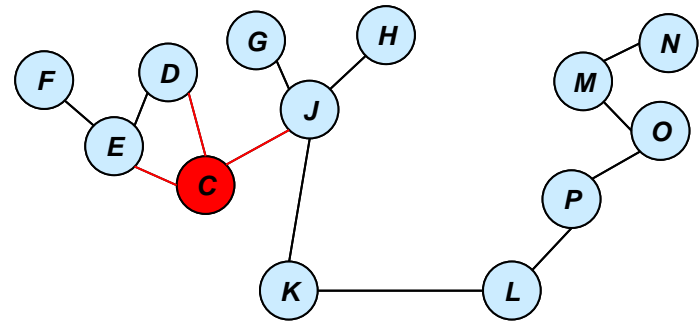
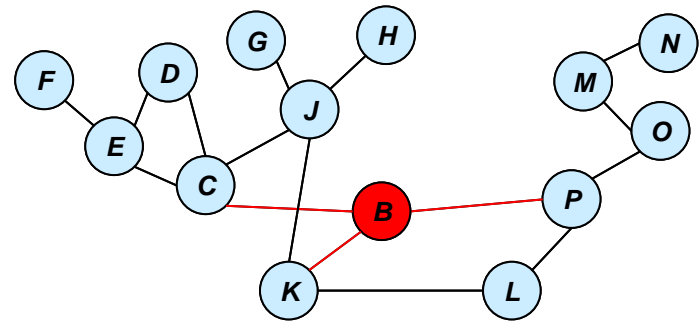
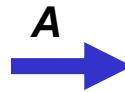
Figure 6.1: Probability tree for computing $P(d = 1, g = 0)$.

Complexity of conditioning: exponential time, linear space

Cycle-Cutset Conditioning



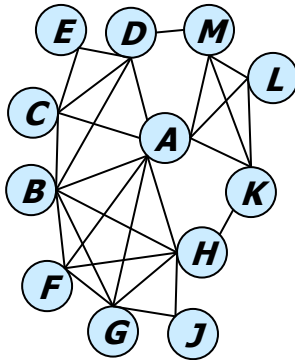
Cycle cutset = {A,B,C}



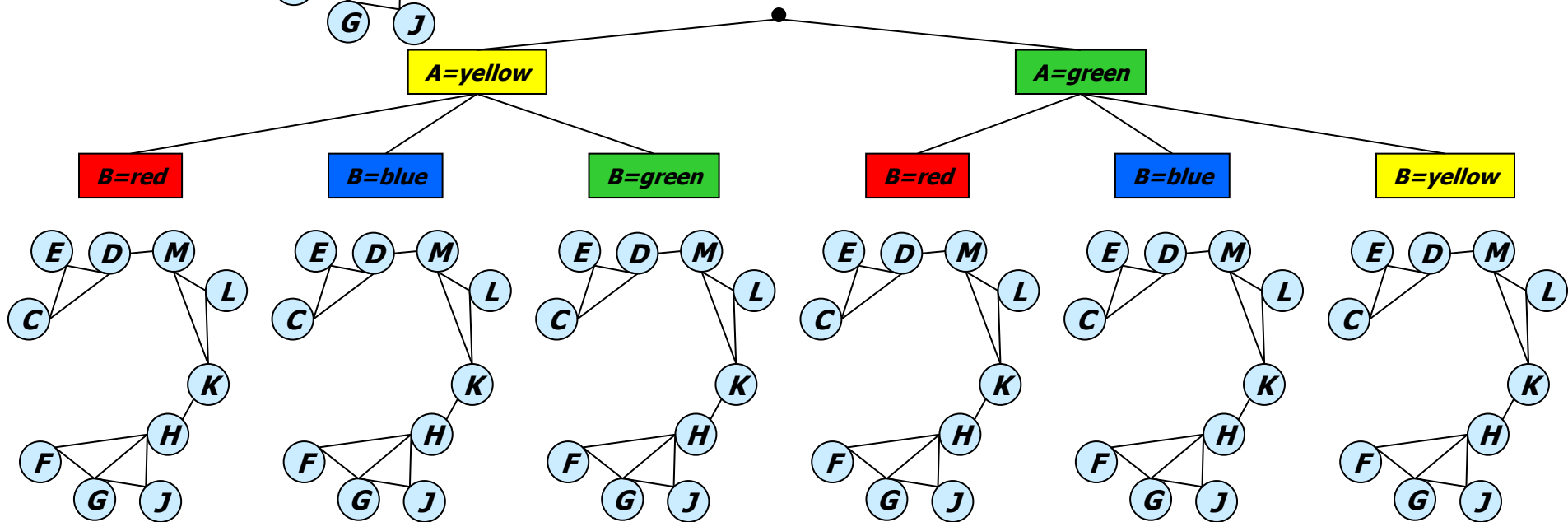
1-cutset = {A,B,C}, size 3

Search Over the Cutset (cont)

Graph
Coloring
problem

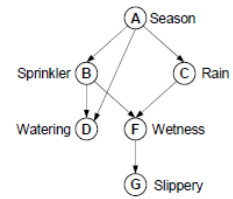


- Inference may require too much memory
- **Condition** on some of the variables

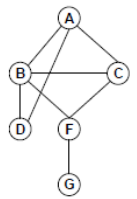


2-cutset = {A,B}, size = 2

The Impact of Observations



(a) Directed acyclic graph



(b) Moral graph

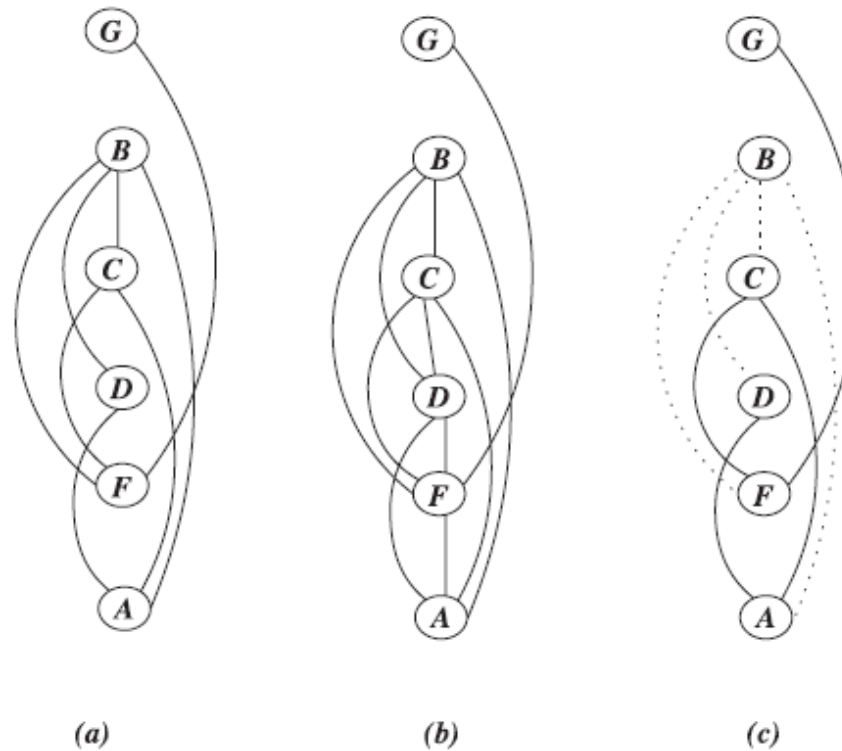


Figure 4.9: Adjusted induced graph relative to observing B .

Ordered graph

Induced graph

Ordered conditioned graph



The Idea of Cutset-Conditioning

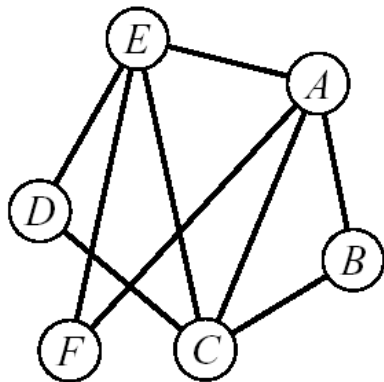
*We observed that when variables are assigned, connectivity reduces.
The magnitude of saving is reflected through the "conditioned-induced graph"*

- *Cutset-conditioning exploit this in a systematic way:*
- *Select a subset of variables, assign them values, and*
- *Solve the conditioned problem by bucket-elimination.*
- *Repeat for all assignments to the cutset.*

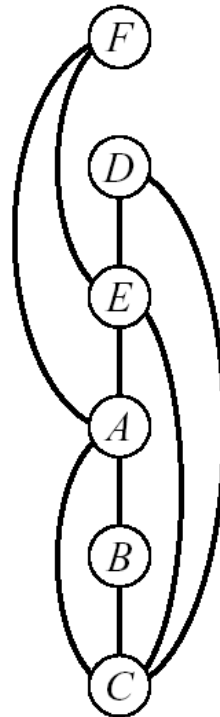
Algorithm VEC

The Cycle-Cutset Scheme: Condition Until Treeness

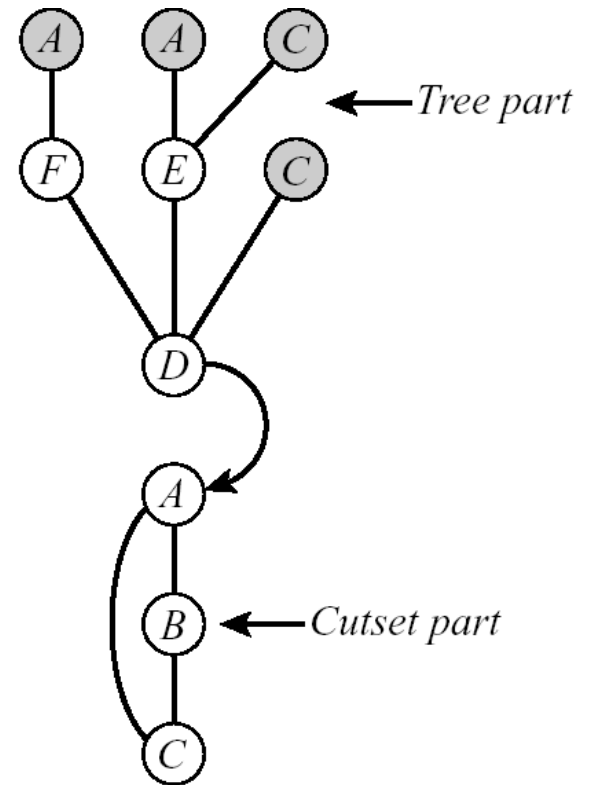
- **Cycle-cutset**
- **i -cutset**
- **$C(i)$ -size of i -cutset**



(a)



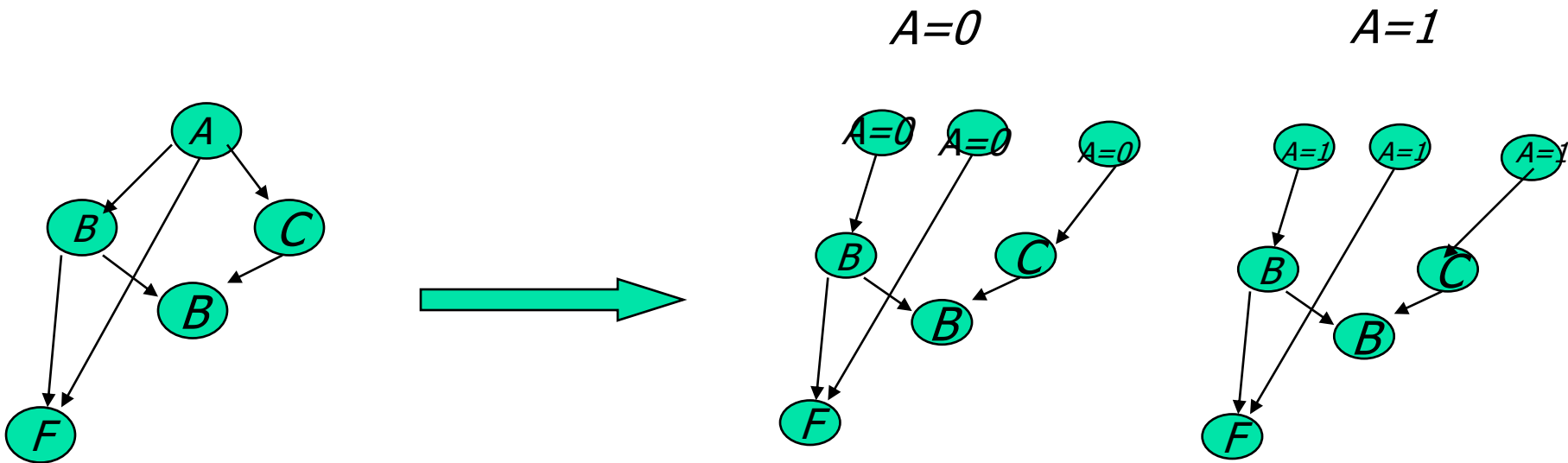
(b)



(c)

Loop-Cutset Conditioning

- You condition until you get a polytree



$$P(B|F=0) = P(B, A=0|F=0) + P(B, A=1|F=0)$$

Loop-cutset method is time exponential in loop-cutset size but linear space. For each cutset we can do BE (belief propagation.)

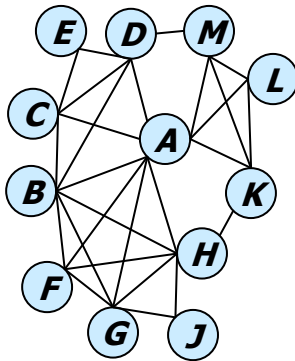


Loop-Cutset, q-Cutset, cycle-cutset

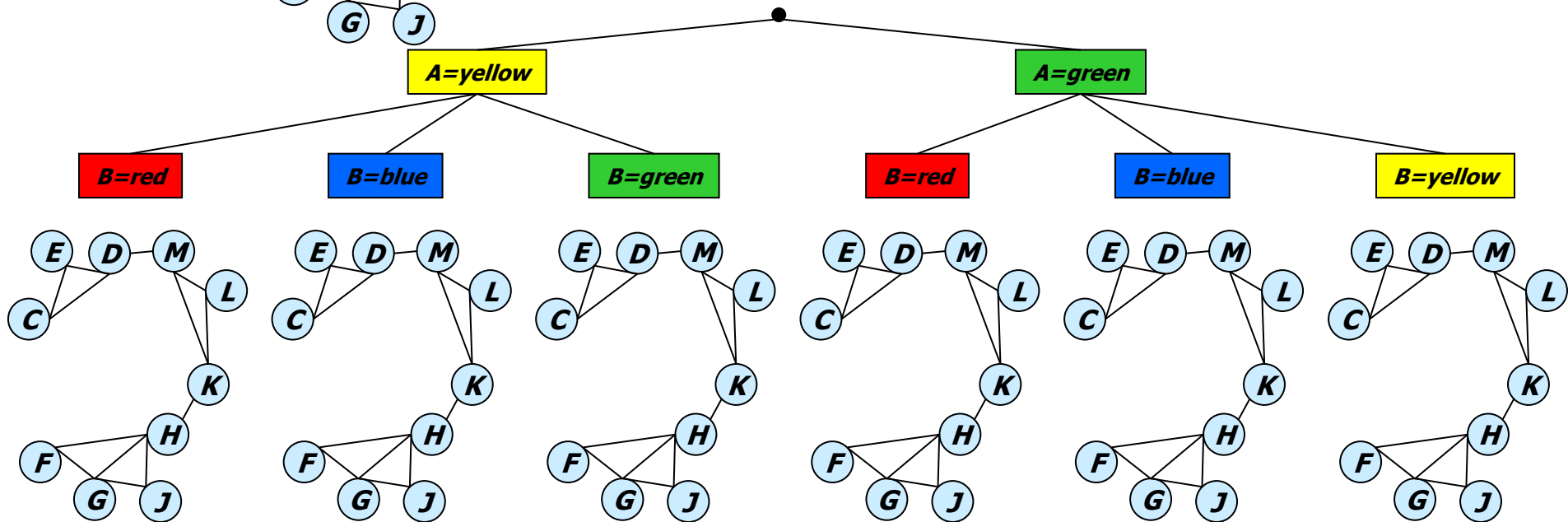
- A loop-cutset is a subset of nodes of a *directed* graph that when removed the remaining graph is a poly-tree
- A q-cutset is a subset of nodes of an *undirected* graph that when removed the remaining graph has an induced-width of q or less.
- A cycle-cutset is a q-cutset such that $q=1$.

Search Over the Cutset (cont)

Graph
Coloring
problem



- Inference may require too much memory
- **Condition** on some of the variables



$2\text{-cutset} = \{A, B\}$, size = 2



VEC: Variable Elimination with Conditioning; or, q-cutset Algorithms

- VEC-bel:
 - Identify a q-cutset, C , of the network
 - For each assignment to $C=c$ solve the conditioned sub-problem by CTE or BTE.
 - Accumulate probabilities.
 - Time complexity: nk^{c+q+1}
 - Space complexity: nk^q



Algorithm VEC (Variable-elimination with conditioning)

ALGORITHM VEC-EVIDENCE

Input: A belief network $\mathcal{B} = \langle \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{P} \rangle$, an ordering $d = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$; evidence e over E , a subset C of conditioned variables;

output: The probability of evidence $P(e)$

Initialize: $\lambda = 0$.

1. For every assignment $C = c$, do
 - $\lambda_1 \leftarrow$ The output of BE-bel with $c \cup e$ as observations.
 - $\lambda \leftarrow \lambda + \lambda_1$. (update the sum).

2. **Return** $P(e) = \alpha \cdot \lambda$ (α is a normalization constant.)



What Hybrid Should We Use?

- $q=1$? (loop-cutset?)
- $q=0$? (Full search?)
- $q=w^*$ (Full inference)?
- q in between?
- depends... on the graph
- What is relation between cycle-cutset and the induced-width?



Properties; Conditioning+Elimination

Definition 5.6.1 (cycle-cutset, w -cutset) *Given a graph G , a subset of nodes is called a w -cutset iff when removed from the graph the resulting graph has an induced-width less than or equal to w . A minimal w -cutset of a graph has a smallest size among all w -cutsets of the graph. A cycle-cutset is a 1-cutset of a graph.*

A cycle-cutset is known by the name a *feedback vertex set* and it is known that finding the minimal such set is NP-complete [41]. However, we can always settle for approximations, provided by greedy schemes. Cutset-decomposition schemes call for a new optimization task on graphs:

Definition 5.6.2 (finding a minimal w -cutset) *Given a graph $G = (V, E)$ and a constant w , find a smallest subset of nodes U , such that when removed, the resulting graph has induced-width less than or equal w .*

Tradeoff between w^* and q -cutsets

Theorem 7.7 Given graph G , and denoting by c_q^* its minimal q -cutset then,

$$1 + c_1^* \geq 2 + c_2^* \geq \dots q + c_q^*, \dots \geq w^* + c_{w^*}^* = w^*.$$

Proof. Let's assume that we have a q -cutset of size c_q . Then if we remove it from the graph the result is a graph having a tree decomposition whose treewidth is bounded by q . Let's T be this decomposition where each cluster has size $q + 1$ or less. If we now take the q -cutset variables and add them back to every cluster of T , we will get a tree decomposition of the whole graph (exercise: show that) whose treewidth is $c_q + q$. Therefore, we showed that for every c_q -size q -cutset, there is a tree decomposition whose treewidth is $c_q + q$. In particular, for an optimal q -cutset of size c_q^* we have that w^* , the treewidth obeys, $w^* \leq c_q^* + q$. This does not complete the proof because we only showed that for every q , $w^* \leq c_q^* + q$. But, if we remove even a single node from a minimal q -cutset whose size is c_q^* , we get a $q + 1$ cutset by definition, whose size is $c_q^* - 1$. Therefore, $c_{q+1}^* \leq c_q^* - 1$. Adding q to both sides of the last inequality we get that for every $1 \leq q \leq w^*$, $q + c_q^* \geq q + 1 + c_{q+1}^*$, which completes the proof. \square

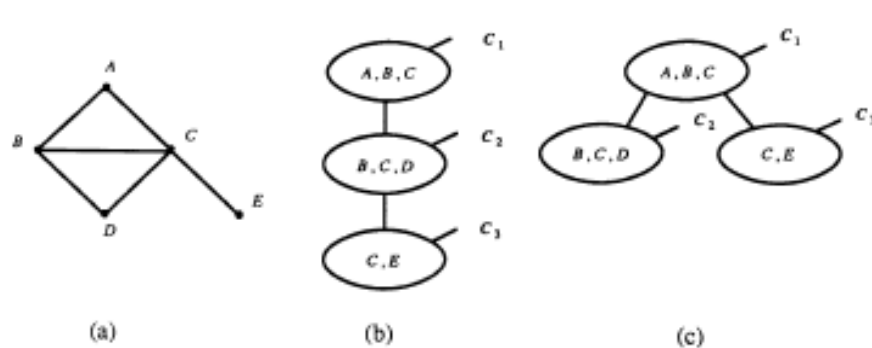


*Generating Join-trees
(Junction-trees); a special type of
tree-decompositions*



ASSEMBLING A JOIN TREE

1. Use the fill-in algorithm to generate a chordal graph G' (if G is chordal, $G = G'$).
2. Identify all cliques in G' . Since any vertex and its parent set (lower ranked nodes connected to it) form a clique in G' , the maximum number of cliques is $|V|$.
3. Order the cliques C_1, C_2, \dots, C_t by rank of the highest vertex in each clique.
4. Form the join tree by connecting each C_i to a predecessor C_j ($j < i$) sharing the highest number of vertices with C_i .



EXAMPLE: Consider the graph in Figure 3.9a. One maximum cardinality ordering is (A, B, C, D, E) .

- Every vertex in this ordering has its preceding neighbors already connected, hence the graph is chordal and no edges need be added.
- The cliques are ranked C_1, C_2 , and C_3 as shown in Figure 3.9b.
- $C_3 = \{C, E\}$ shares only vertex C with its predecessors C_2 and C_1 , so either one can be chosen as the parent of C_3 .
- These two choices yield the join trees of Figures 3.9b and 3.9c.
- Now suppose we wish to assemble a join tree for the same graph with the edge (B, C) missing.
- The ordering (A, B, C, D, E) is still a maximum cardinality ordering, but now when we discover that the preceding neighbors of node D (i.e., B and C) are nonadjacent, we should fill in edge (B, C) .
- This renders the graph chordal, and the rest of the procedure yields the same join trees as in Figures 3.9b and 3.9c.

Examples of (Join)-Trees Construction

