THE POON-DOMINGOS PARAMETER LEARNING ALGORITHM FOR IMAGE COMPLETION AND CLASSIFICATION ON SUM-PRODUCT NETWORKS

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ABSTRACT. In this document we describe the Poon-Domingos [PD11] parameter learning algorithm for image classification and completion.

1. Structure

The Poon-Domingos algorithm uses a fixed structure and then learns the weights through generative learning. We first give an overview on how to build the structure given an image and then provide a pseudo-code algorithm for building such structure. In this document we assume instances as images. However, the Poon-Domingos structure allows for any object with local dependencies.

1.1. Overview

The Poon-Domingos structure models a probability distribution over a set of variables with local dependencies. On the plain, one could argue it models rectangular neighborhoods for each point in the space. In the article [PD11], Poon and Domingos use images as a dataset, with dependencies being rectangular pixel neighborhoods. Images are an example of local dependencies, since a pixel has possible dependencies with their neighbors.

Dennis and Ventura explain an intuition of how the Poon-Domingos structure algorithm works [DV12]. We expand on this intuition, giving insights on how such an algorithm is built and showing a pseudo-code visualization of it. Once we have shown how to build the SPN structure, we describe generative learning through gradient descent, and later expectation-maximization.

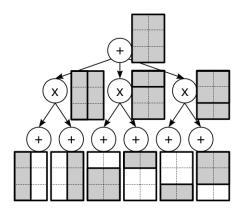


FIGURE 1. The Poon architecture with r=1 resolution and k=1 sum nodes per region on a 2×3 image. At each r resolution axis-aligned rectangular decomposition, we create k sum nodes. [DV12]

1.2. Definitions and properties

Definition 1.1 (Region). A Region \mathcal{R} is a rectangular part of an image. Let $p_0 = (x_0, y_0)$ and $p_1 = (x_1, y_1)$ be the top-left and bottom-right pixels of \mathcal{R} relative to the image. These are called the coordinates of \mathcal{R} .

Definition 1.2 (Region Node). A Region Node R has a one-to-one and onto mapping with a Region R. R has k internal nodes associated with it. If R is over an $r \times r$ set of pixels (i.e. the atomic unit), then R has k leaf nodes (e.g. k-mixture of gaussians). Else, R has k sum nodes.

Definition 1.3 (Decomposition). Let \mathcal{R} be a Region. A Decomposition \mathcal{D} is an axis-aligned partitioning of \mathcal{R} into two Regions \mathcal{R}_1 and \mathcal{R}_2 .

The decomposition \mathcal{D} of a Region \mathcal{R} involves a few steps. Let \mathcal{R}_1 and \mathcal{R}_2 be the resulting subregions product of the decomposition. The resulting subgraph of the SPN S of this decomposition is a DAG G. If \mathcal{R} is the entire image, then the root of G is a single sum node and G = S. Otherwise, then the root of G is a region node and thus the root of G is a set of G sum nodes. Let G be the root node of G. Region nodes G and G will both have G sum nodes (or univariate distributions for leaves). We shall denote as G in the G sum node of region node G in G sum nodes (G into G into G

Since a region node R is unique, we may have different decompositions in which the same region appears more than once. For this reason we should create a single

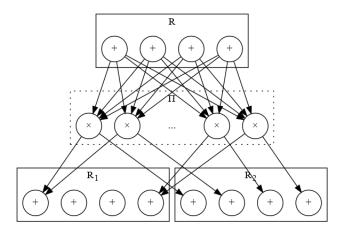


FIGURE 2. A decomposition of a Region \mathcal{R} into two subregions \mathcal{R}_1 and \mathcal{R}_2 . The set Π of product nodes are the decomposition nodes that connect the unsplit image to the partitions. Each element $\pi \in \Pi$ connects a pairing of a sum node of \mathcal{R}_1 and of \mathcal{R}_2 .

Region Node for each possible region. We need a map function that takes the top-left and bottom-right pixel positions of a region and maps it to a number for storage. Since every region is unique, we need a one-to-one and onto function.

Definition 1.4 (Region map function). A region map function is a function that maps a region into an integer. We define it as

$$f: \mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n \to \mathbb{Z}_{m^2 n^2}$$
$$f(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2) = ((y_1 m + x_1) m + x_2) n + y_2$$

where $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ and $y_1, y_2 \in \mathbb{Z}_n$.

Proposition 1.1. The region map function is one-to-one and onto.

Proof. We first prove f is one-to-one. If f is injective, then $f(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2) = f(x_1', y_1', x_2', y_2') \Rightarrow (x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2) = (x_1', y_1', x_2', y_2')$. Suppose $f(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2) = f(x_1', y_1', x_2', y_2')$ for some $x_i \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ and $y_i \in \mathbb{Z}_n$. Then we have:

$$((y_1m + x_1)m + x_2)n + y_2 = ((y'_1m + x'_1)m + x'_2)n + y'_2$$

$$(m^2y_1 + mx_1 + x_2)n + y_2 = (m^2y'_1 + mx'_1 + x'_2)n + y'_2$$

$$m^2ny_1 + mnx_1 + nx_2 + y_2 = m^2ny'_1 + mnx'_1 + nx'_2 + y'_2$$

$$m^2n(y_1 - y'_1) + mn(x_1 - x'_1) + n(x_2 - x'_2) + (y_2 - y'_2) = 0$$

But m, n > 0. Therefore, it is easy to see that $x_i - x_i' = 0$ and $y_i - y_i' = 0$ is necessary for the equation to hold. Proof of surjection is simple. Since we know f is one-to-one and that $\mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n$ has the same number of elements as $\mathbb{Z}_{m^2n^2}$, than it follows that f must be onto.

Bijection of the region map function is necessary since we need the inverse function f^{-1} to be symmetrical to f. That is, we must be able to encode a region into

a number and later be able to find what region a number represents. We define the inverse function of f below.

Definition 1.5 (Inverse region map function). The inverse of the region map function is given by the decomposition of an integer $r \in \mathbb{Z}_{m^2n^2}$ into a tuple $(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2) \in \mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m \mathbb{Z}_n$. Let $g = f^{-1}$. We define g as an algorithm as follows

```
Algorithm 1 Function Encode := f^{-1} = q
```

```
Input r \in \mathbb{Z}_{m^2n^2}
Output (x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2) \in \mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n \times \mathbb{Z}_m \times \mathbb{Z}_n

1: y_2 \leftarrow i \mod n

2: Let c \in \mathbb{Z}_{m^2n^2}

3: c \leftarrow \frac{(r-y_2)}{n}

4: x_2 \leftarrow c \mod m

5: c \leftarrow \frac{c-x_2}{m}

6: x_1 \leftarrow c \mod m

7: y_1 \leftarrow \frac{c-x_1}{w}

8: return (x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2)
```

1.3. Structural algorithm

We now show how to construct the Poon-Domingos architecture given an image I (which is equivalent to a Region consisting of the entire image), resolution r and m sum nodes per region.

The algorithm, as summarized in the last subsection, can be constructed recursively. However we avoid this technique in favor of an iterative version, which uses less memory. We must first do a preprocessing of Regions. We iterate over all possible subrectangles in I, create a Region for each of them and assign an identification number to it. This number is the value of the region map function given the region's position. We name the region map function as ${\tt Encode}$ that takes a region position and returns a non-negative integer. Similarly, we name the inverse function of ${\tt Encode}$ as ${\tt Decode}$ that takes a non-negative integer and returns a region position.

We denote by $[\mathcal{R}]$, where \mathcal{R} is a region, a function that returns a pair of positive integers that represent the width and height of \mathcal{R} . Once we have constructed all possible regions, we iterate over all possible decompositions according to the following steps:

- 1. Select each possible region \mathcal{R} in image I
- 2. If $\mathcal{R} = I$, then R is a sum node and is root
- 3. Else if R contains only gaussians, skip this region
- 4. Else, R exists and is a set of sum nodes
- 5. Partition \mathcal{R} into a pairing of subregions \mathcal{R}_1 and \mathcal{R}_2
- 6. For each subregion \mathcal{R}_i 6.1 Let $(w, h) \leftarrow \mathcal{R}_i$

8.3 Add π as child of all inner sum nodes of R

- 6.2 If w > r and h > r then region node R_i must be a set of m gaussians
 6.3 Else, region node R_i must be a set of m sum nodes
 7. Create a set Π of product nodes
 8. For each pair (R₁ⁱ, R₂^j), where R_p^q is the inner node q of subregion node R_p
 8.1 Create a product node π and add it to set Π
 8.2 Add R₁ⁱ and R₂^j as children of π
- 9. Go to step 1.

Algorithm 2 CreateRegions

```
Input A pair (w, h) representing the image I dimensions
Input Dataset \mathcal{D}
Input Integer m as number of components in each Region
Input Integer r as resolution
Output A list \mathcal{L} of Nodes indexed by their region map function value
 1: Let n = w \cdot h
 2: for i \leftarrow 0..(n-1) do
 3:
         x_1 \leftarrow i \mod w
 4:
         y_1 \leftarrow i/w
         for x_2 \leftarrow (w-1)..x_1 decreasingly do
 5:
             for y_2 \leftarrow (h-1)..y_1 decreasingly do
 6:
                 if x_1 = 0 and y_1 = 0 and x_2 = w - 1 and y_2 = h - 1 then
 7:
                       ▶ The entire image is the root sum node
 8:
                       j \leftarrow \texttt{Encode}(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2)
 9:
                       \mathcal{L}[j] \leftarrow \texttt{SumNode}()
10:
                       \triangleright SumNode returns a sum node
11:
                  end if
12:
                  Let R be a new Region node
13:
14:
                  Let d_x = x_2 - x_1 and d_y = y_2 - y_1
                  if d_x < r or d_y < r then
15:
16:
                       x \leftarrow \max(x_1 + r, x_2)
                       y \leftarrow \max(y_1 + r, y_2)
17:
                       r \leftarrow \texttt{Encode}(x_1, y_1, x, y)
18:
19:
                       R \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[r]
                  else if d_x = r and d_y = r then
20:
                       R \leftarrow \texttt{GaussianMixture}(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2, D, m)
21:
                       \triangleright GaussianMixture returns a node containing m gaussians
22:
23:
                  else
                       R \leftarrow \texttt{RegionNode}(m)
24:
                       \triangleright RegionNode returns a node containing m sum nodes
25:
                  end if
26:
27:
                  j \leftarrow \texttt{Encode}(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2)
                  \mathcal{L}[j] \leftarrow R
28:
             end for
29:
         end for
30:
31: end for
32: return \mathcal{L}
```

The structural algorithm is almost complete. The main object of interest now is on finding all possible regions in an image. Consider the matrix $M_{n\times m}$ as the image representation of I indexed by 0. Then we can find all possible regions by iteration over every top-left position (x,y) and for each of these positions iterating over all bottom-right pixels $(x+p,y+q), 0 \le p < n, 0 \le q < m$.

We assume a dataset \mathcal{D} where each instance $\mathcal{D}[X]$ gives an ordered sequence of integers corresponding to the image pixels in expanded form. Let R be a region, (x_1, y_1) be its top-left position and (x_2, y_2) its bottom-right position. We call (x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2) the coordinates of R.

Proposition 1.2. Let R_1 be the region in Line 13 in function CreateRegions. Line 19 always yields a region R_2 that has already been previously created.

Proof. Let (x_1, y_1) be R_1 's top-left position. We fix $x_2 \ge x_1 + r$. The third for loop in CreateRegions yields a decreasing sequence from h-1 to y_1 . So for each y_2 in this ordered sequence, the previous instance will have already been computed. It then follows that for every $y_2 = y_1 + r - k$, $0 \le k \le r$, it is true that $y_1 + r$ has already been computed. We do the same for x_2 by fixing $y_2 \ge y_1 + r$. When both $x_2 < x_1 + r$ and $y_2 < y_1 + r$, we fall into the previous subcases.

Algorithm 3 Structure

```
Input A pair (w, h) representing the image I dimensions
Input Dataset \mathcal{D}
Input Integer m as number of components in each Region
Input Integer r as resolution
Output An SPN S containing the learned structure from image I
 1: \mathcal{L} \leftarrow \texttt{CreateRegions}(w, h, D, m, r)
 2: for each key and value pair (k, R) in \mathcal{L} do
         if k = s then
 3:
              skip
 4:
         end if
 5:
         (x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2) \leftarrow \mathsf{Decode}(k)
 6:
         LeftQuadrant(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2, m, \mathcal{L})
 7:
         BottomQuadrant(x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2, m, \mathcal{L})
 8:
 9: end for
10: s \leftarrow \texttt{Encode}(0, 0, w - 1, h - 1)
11: S \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[s]
12: \triangleright S is the root node
13: return S
```

Next, we clarify functions LeftQuadrant and BottomQuadrant. Recall the algorithm outline we listed earlier. For each decomposition of a region into two subregions, we must create a set of product nodes whose internal products nodes are connected the two distinct subregion internal nodes. Let R be a region. Our goal is to find the parent regions of R. In other words, we must find all possible decompositions in which R is one of the two disjoint subregions. Since we only take

axis-aligned decompositions into account, we can represent all possible decompositions of R as tightly-bound subrectangles.

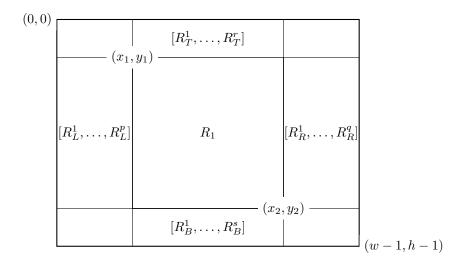


FIGURE 3. Given a decomposition of a region into two subregions, where one of them is R_1 , we can find any possible complementary regions of R_1 by searching each quadrant. The image above shows all possible decompositions containing R_1 , where the set $[R_Q^1, \ldots, R_Q^m]$, where Q is a quadrant, contains all complementary regions of R_1 in the direction of Q. A decomposition is two regions R_1 and R_Q^i .

To find all the decompositions that contains a region R_1 , we take each possible quadrant (we name them $\{L, R, T, B\}$ for Left, Right, Top and Bottom) and then take all possible R_Q^i region, where Q is the quadrant and i the i-th region in Q. It suffices to find decompositions from L and B, as we will eventually do the same for the complementary region of R_1 , which will account for the R and T quadrants.

Figure 4 shows a decomposition that contains subregions R_1 and R_2 . Let (x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2) be the coordinates to R_1 . We have x_1 subregions R_2 that are possible decompositions with R_1 . Similarly for Figure 5, we have y_1 possible subregions R_2 . Consider the left quadrant. If R_1 switches place with R_2 , it becomes clear that we now have the right quadrant. Similarly for the bottom quadrant, by switching R_1 and R_2 , we have the top quadrant. This means our previous assumption that it is enough to take the left and bottom quadrant is correct.

At each pairing of subregions R_1 and R_2 in each quadrant Q, we must create a set of product nodes Π and connect the parent region $R = R_1 \cup R_2$ to all the internal product nodes of Π . We now define functions LeftQuadrant and BottomQuadrant. Both functions are similar, and the only difference is for the left quadrant we iterate horizontally searching for subregions complementary to R_1 . In the bottom quadrant, we iterate vertically searching for the complementaries.

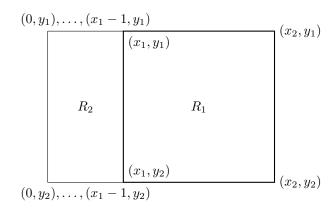


FIGURE 4. The left quadrant. Region R_2 is the complementary region of R_1 and can take any coordinates (x', y_1, x_1, y_2) , where $0 \le x' \le x_1 - 1$.

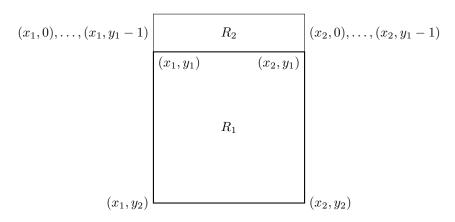


FIGURE 5. The bottom quadrant. Region R_2 is the complementary region of R_1 and can take any coordinates (x_1, y', x_2, y_1) , where $0 \le y' \le y_1 - 1$.

In both functions, we are taking region partitions R_1 and R_2 , getting the parent region R, which is equivalent to getting the union of R_1 and R_2 , and then iterating over all possible 2-combinations of internal nodes of R_1 and R_2 . We then add all product nodes as children of R's internal sum nodes. If R is a single regular sum node, then we have reached the root node, and it is sufficient to simply add the product nodes as children of R, since R has no internal nodes.

In this structural algorithm we do not mention edge weights. However we could have initialized weights randomly (in the [0,1] range), set all weights to zero or set them to a uniform distribution. We talk about weight learning in more depth in the next section.

We now have most of the structural algorithm formally defined. However, we have not clearly defined two data structures: GaussianMixture and RegionNode.

Algorithm 4 LeftQuadrant

```
Input Coordinates (x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2) of region R_1
Input Integer m number of components
Input Node map \mathcal{L}
 1: for x \leftarrow 0..(x_1 - 1) do
          R_2 \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\texttt{Encode}(x, y_1, x_1, y_2)] \quad \triangleright R_2 is the complementary region of R_1
          R \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\texttt{Encode}(x, y_1, x_2, y_2)] \quad \triangleright R \text{ is the parent region (i.e. } R = R_1 \cup R_2)
 3:
          for i \leftarrow 1..m do
 4:
              for j \leftarrow 1..m do
 5:
                   \pi \leftarrow \texttt{ProductNode}()
 6:
                   \pi.AddChild(R_1^i), \pi.AddChild(R_2^j)
 7:
                   if R is a Region node then
 8:
                        for l \leftarrow 1..m do
 9:
                             R^l . AddChild(\pi)
10:
                        end for
11:
12:
                   else \triangleright R is a sum node and is the entire image
                        R.\mathtt{AddChild}(\pi)
13:
                   end if
14:
              end for
15:
          end for
16:
17: end for
```

Algorithm 5 BottomQuadrant

```
Input Coordinates (x_1, y_1, x_2, y_2) of region R_1
Input Integer m number of components
Input Node map \mathcal{L}
 1: for y \leftarrow 0..(y_1 - 1) do
          R_2 \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\texttt{Encode}(x_1, y, x_2, y_1)] \quad \triangleright R_2 \text{ is the complementary region of } R_1
          R \leftarrow \mathcal{L}[\texttt{Encode}(x_1, y, x_2, y_2)] \quad \triangleright R \text{ is the parent region (i.e. } R = R_1 \cup R_2)
 3:
 4:
          for i \leftarrow 1..m do
              for j \leftarrow 1..m do
 5:
                    \pi \leftarrow \texttt{ProductNode}()
 6:
                    \pi. AddChild(R_1^i), \pi. AddChild(R_2^j)
 7:
                   if R is a Region node then
 8:
                        for l \leftarrow 1..m do
 9:
                             R^l.AddChild(\pi)
10:
11:
                   else \triangleright R is a sum node and is the entire image
12:
                        R.\mathtt{AddChild}(\pi)
13:
                   end if
14:
15:
               end for
          end for
16:
17: end for
```

The former can be thought of as a sum node with m gaussians, and the latter simply a set of m sum nodes. Let G be an m-gaussian node. We assume that G is

a sum node with m gaussians as leaves. Additionally, the value of G is the value of the sum node, and G itself will be, for simplicity purposes, considered a leaf itself.

2. Parameter learning

The [PD11] article mentions two ways of weight updating, gradient descent (GD) through backpropagation and expectation-maximization (EM). Both suffer from the gradient diffusion problem, that is, for deep structures, the signal fades away as we go down layers, reaching zero in a few steps. This is countered by using a hard version based on the MAP states instead of marginal inference. For each weight update algorithm, we first show the soft version using marginal inference, and then show the hard version using MAP inference. Both algorithms can be applied the same way in the master learning algorithm from [PD11] shown below.

Algorithm 6 LearnSPN

Input A pair (w, h) representing the image I dimensions

Input Dataset \mathcal{D}

Input Integer m as number of components in each Region

Input Integer r as resolution

Output An SPN with learned weights

1: $S \leftarrow \texttt{Structure}(w, h, \mathcal{D}, m, r)$

2: InitializeWeights(S)

3: repeat

4: UpdateWeights (S, \mathcal{D})

5: **until** convergence

6: $S \leftarrow \texttt{PruneZeroWeights}(S)$

7: $\mathbf{return}\ S$

Weight initialization, as mentioned in the previous section, can be done either through randomization in the unit interval, a uniformed distribution or all weights set to zero.

Pruning zero weights is done by recursively removing edges that have zero weights. Then, while there exists non-root parentless nodes, remove each of them.

Algorithm 7 PruneZeroWeights

Input An SPN S

Output The resulting SPN after pruning

- 1: Let Q be a queue data structure
- 2: Let T be a stack data structure
- 3: Let V be a list of booleans, where V[i] is true if node i has already been visited
- 4: Let L be an adjacency list where L[i] contains a list of nodes
- 5: Q.Enqueue(S), T.Push(S)
- 6: $V[S] \leftarrow \mathbf{true}, L[S] \leftarrow []$

```
7: for each child c of S do
        L[c]. Add(S)
9: end for
10: while not Q.Empty() do
        s \leftarrow Q.\mathtt{Dequeue}()
11:
        for each child c of s do
12:
            L[c].Add(s)
13:
           if not V[c] then
14:
                Q.\mathtt{Enqueue}(c), T.\mathtt{Push}(c)
15:
                V[c] \leftarrow \mathbf{true}
16:
            end if
17:
        end for
18:
19: end while
    Let M be a map where M[i] is true if node i is marked for deletion.
    while not T. Empty() do
        s \leftarrow T.\mathtt{Dequeue}()
22:
        if s is a sum node then
23:
24:
            for each edge e_{s,i} in s do
               if Val(e_{s,i}) = 0 then
25:
                    Delete edge e_{s,i}
26:
27:
                    L[i].Remove(s)
                    RecursivelyDeleteOrphans(i, L, M)
28:
               end if
29:
           end for
30:
31:
        end if
32: end while
33: for each key value pair (s, e) in M do
        if e = true then
34:
            Delete node s from S
35:
        end if
36:
37: end for
38: return S
```

We denote $e_{i,j}$ as an edge that goes from node i to node j. We denote $\operatorname{Val}(e_{i,j})$ as the weight value of edge $e_{i,j}$. In Algorithm 7, we traverse the graph of SPN S in a bottom-up fashion. We run through the graph this particular way to avoid recomputations. By going bottom-up, at every zero weight edge of a sum node s we encounter, we can guarantee that there are no zero edges on the descendants of s. In function PruneZeroWeights, we first store a copy of the graph through an adjacency list L. List L stores the parents of a node i. That is, for every entry L[i], where i is a node, L[i] is a list of parent nodes of i. We only need to account for sum nodes, as they are the only type of node who have weights on their outgoing edges. Once we start iterating over every sum node s, we check each outgoing edge of s. If we find a zero weight edge, we first delete such edge from s, remove s as a parent from the copied graph adjacency list s and run function RecursivelyDeleteOrphans. This function will delete every descendant of s that has no parent nodes. Since we traverse the graph bottom-up, we guarantee that at every call of RecursivelyDeleteOrphans, there exists no zero weight edge in

the graph scope of the function. Therefore, it suffices to recursively delete orphan nodes.

Algorithm 8 simply performs a breadth-first search on the given sub-SPN, searching for any orphan nodes according to list L. When it finds such a node s, it marks s for deletion and removes s as parent of its children. Then, it does the same for all children of s.

Algorithm 8 RecursivelyDeleteOrphans

```
Input An SPN S
Input L adjacency list from PruneZeroWeights
Input M map to mark node deletion
 1: Let Q be a queue data structure
 2: Q.Enqueue(S)
 3: while not Q.Empty() do
 4:
       s \leftarrow Q.\mathtt{Dequeue}()
       if L[s].Empty() then
 5:
           M[s] = \mathbf{true}
 6:
           for each child c of s do
 7:
               L[c].Remove(s)
 8:
 9:
           end for
10:
           for each child c of s do
               Q. Enqueue(c)
11:
           end for
12:
       end if
14: end while
```

Function UpdateWeights is what determines whether the algorithm uses gradient descent of expectation-maximization. In the next subsections we detail on how to perform generative parameter learning using the two techniques.

- 2.1. Gradient descent
- 2.2. Expectation-maximization

References

- [DV12] Aaron Dennis and Dan Ventura. "Learning the Architecture of Sum-Product Networks Using Clustering on Variables". In: Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems 25 (2012).
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