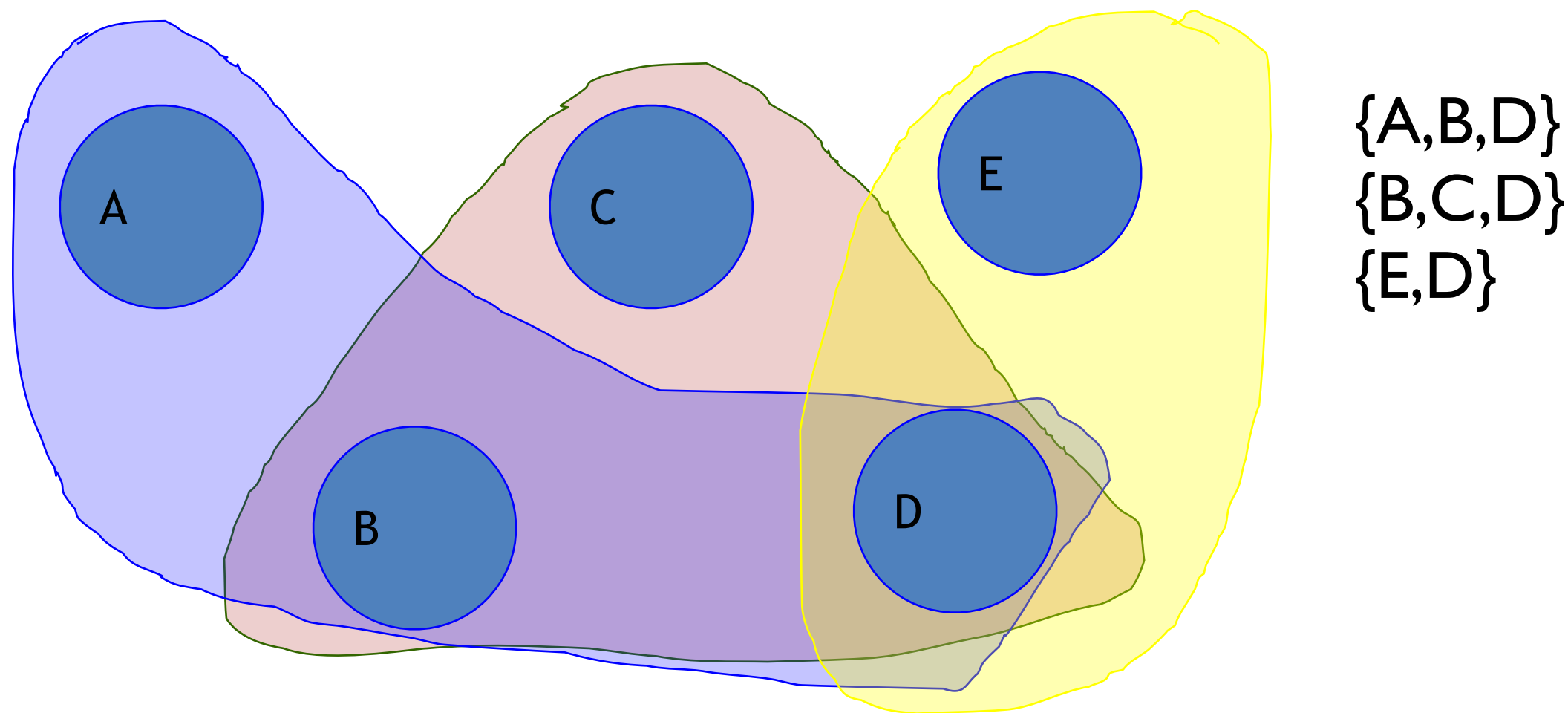


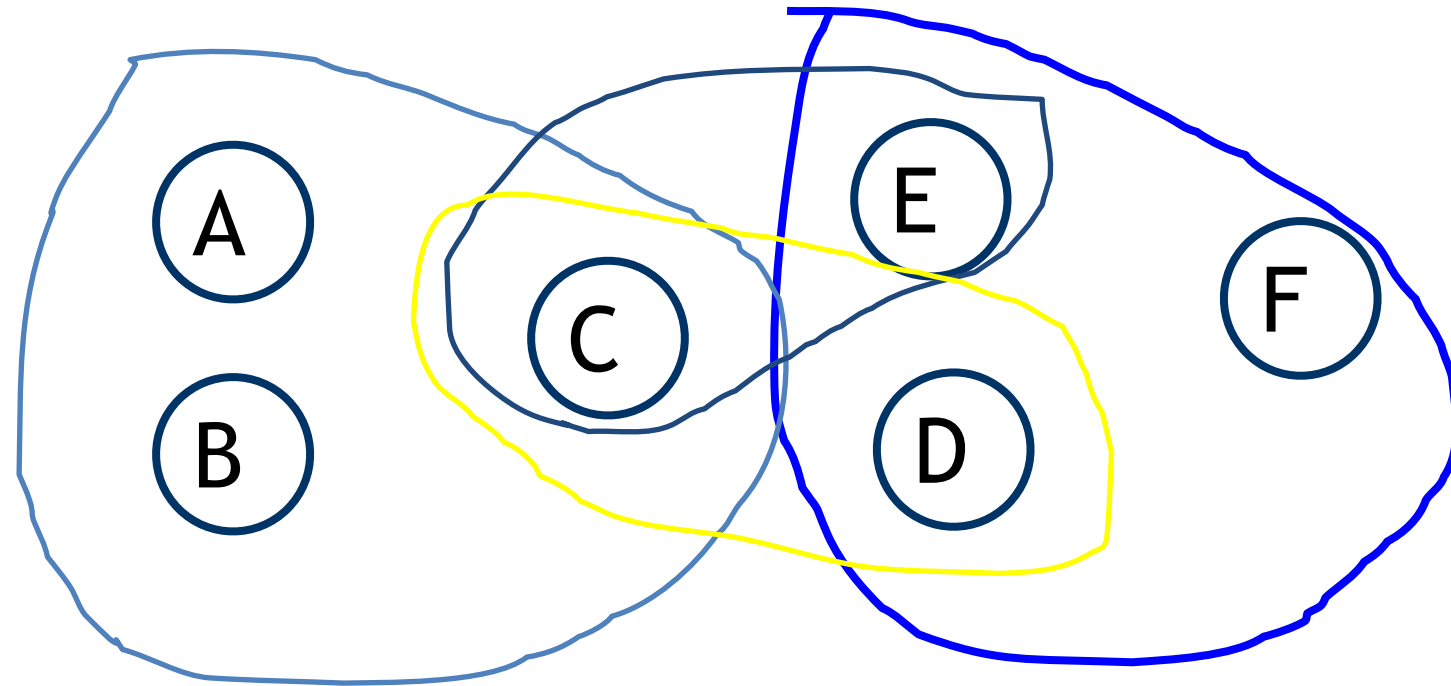
# Back to ... Hypergraphs & VE Complexity

A **hypergraph** has vertices just like an ordinary graph, but instead of edges between two vertices  $X \leftrightarrow Y$  it contains **hyperedges**.

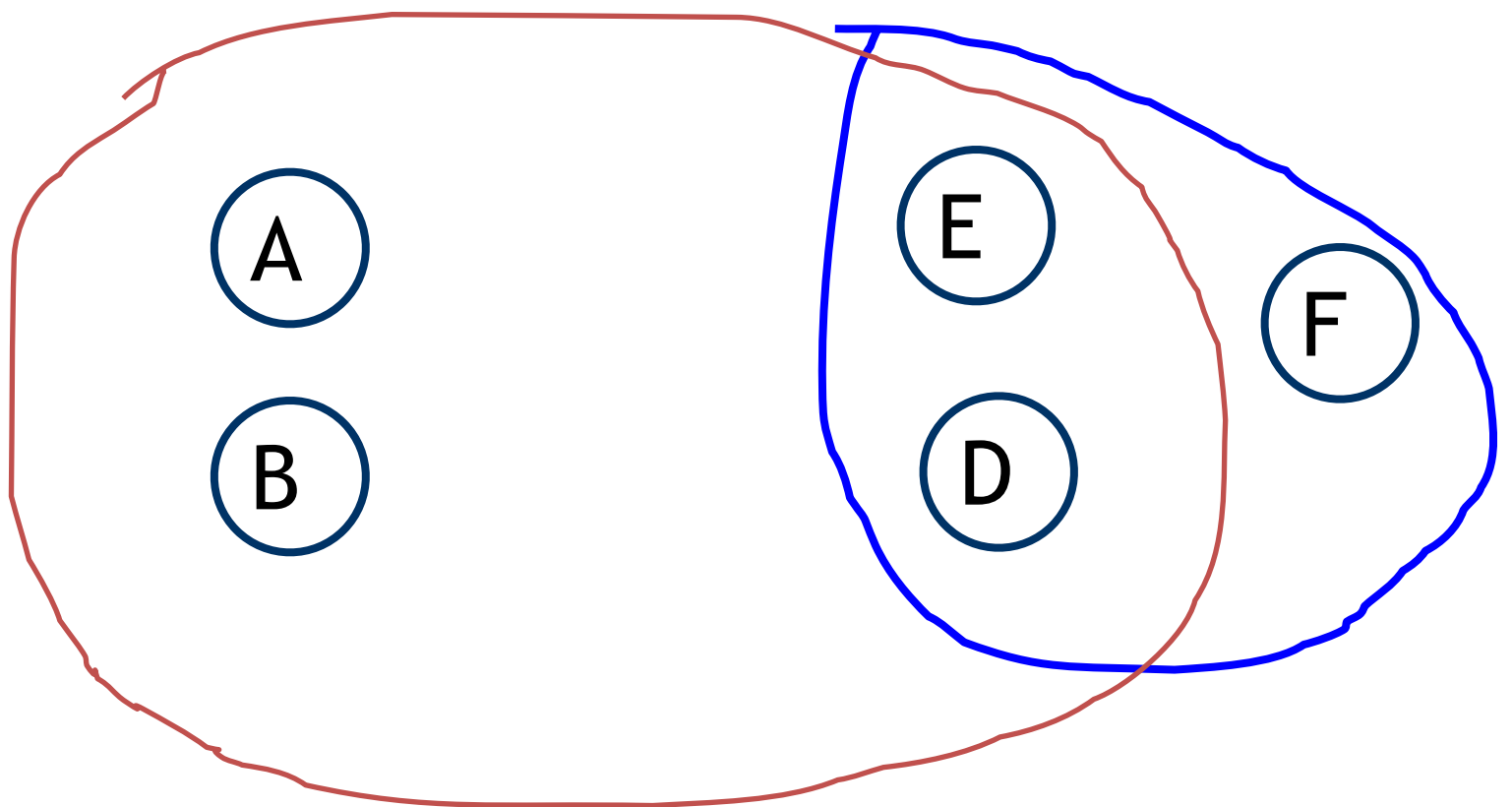
- A hyperedge is a set of vertices (i.e., potentially more than one)



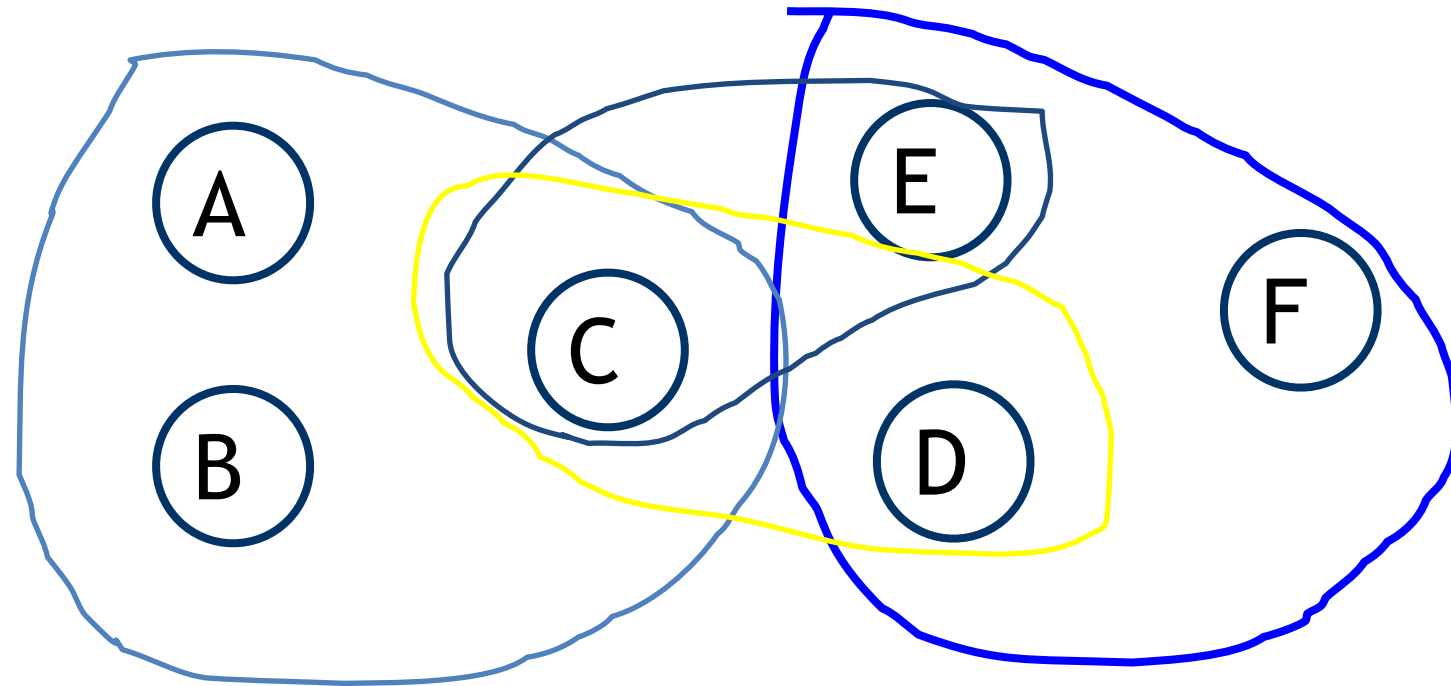
# Hypergraphs and Complexity of VE



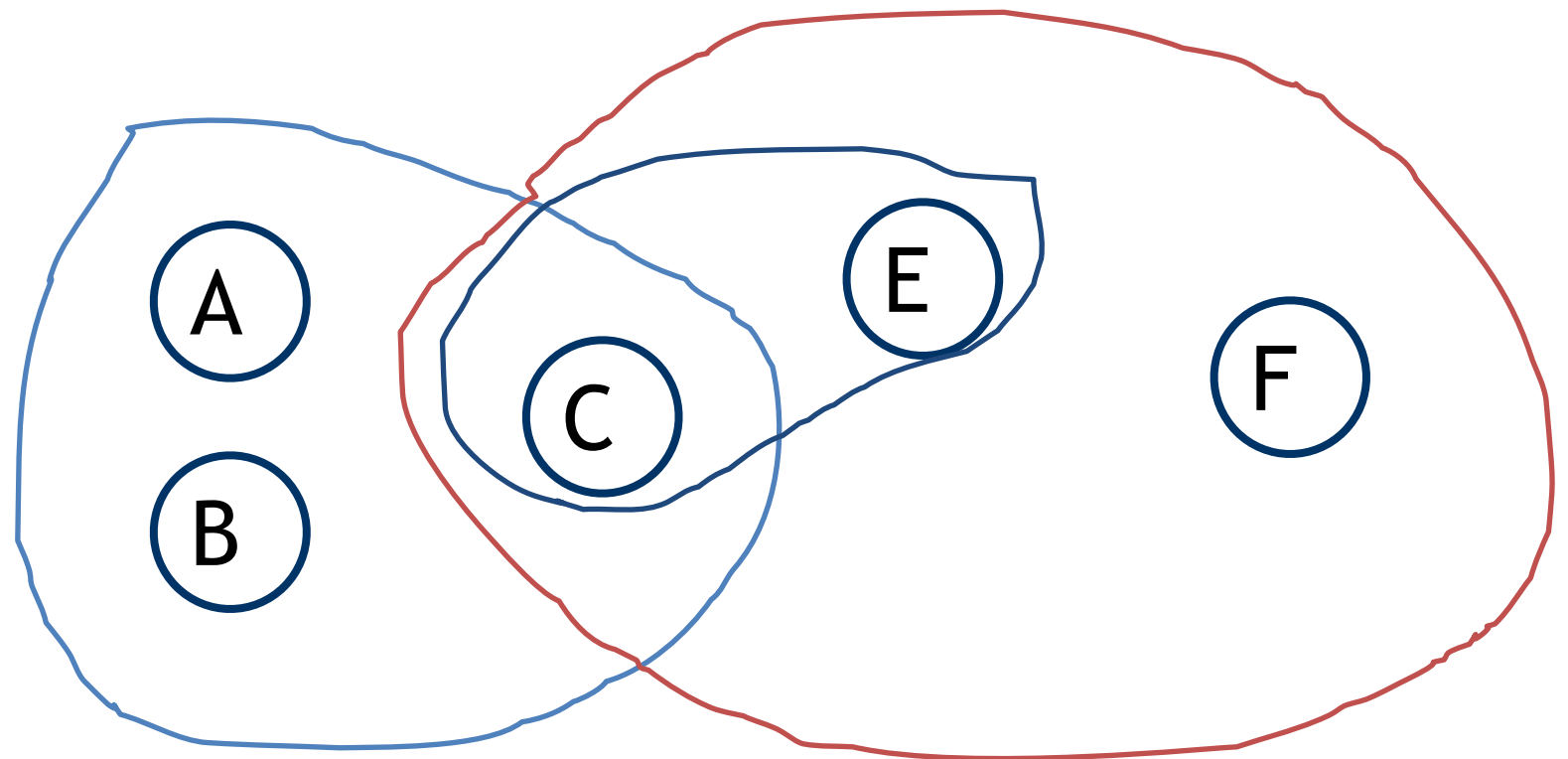
- Eliminate C



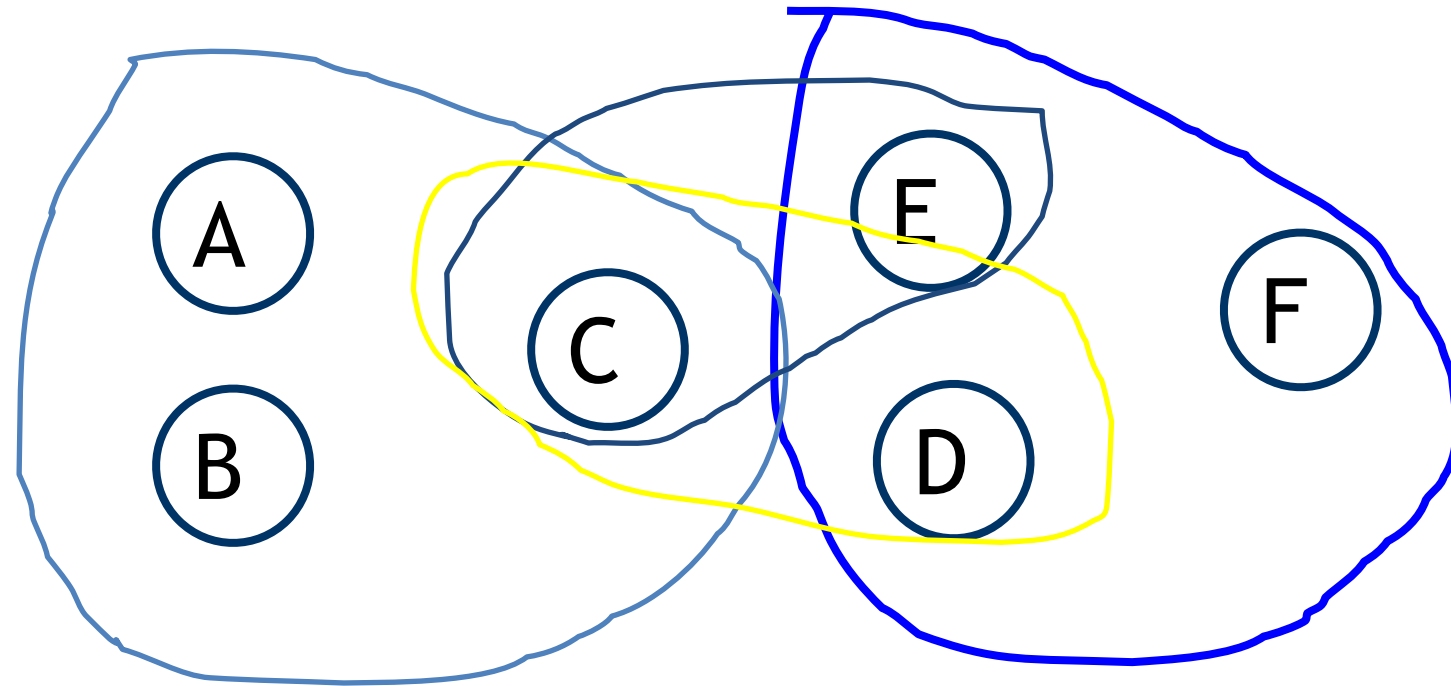
# Hypergraphs and Complexity of VE



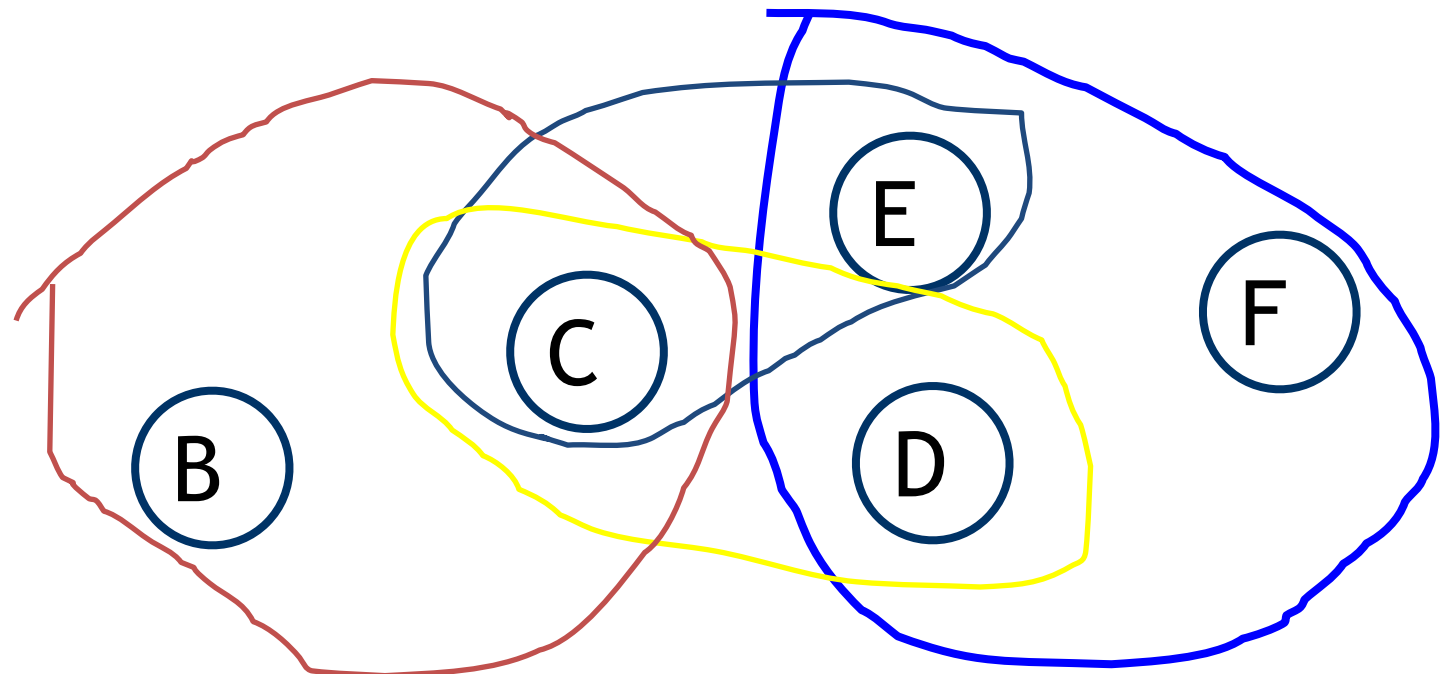
- Eliminate D



# Hypergraphs and Complexity of VE



- Eliminate A



# Elimination Width

- Given an ordering  $\pi$  of the variables and an initial hypergraph  $\mathcal{H}$  eliminating these variables yields a sequence of hypergraphs

$$\mathcal{H} = H_0, H_1, H_2, \dots, H_n$$

where  $H_n$  contains only one vertex (the query variable).

- The elimination width  $\pi$  is the maximum size (number of variables) of any hyperedge in any of the hypergraphs  $H_0, H_1, \dots, H_n$ .
- The induced width of the previous example was 4 ( $\{A, B, E, D\}$  in  $H_1$  and  $H_2$ ).

# Elimination Width

- If the elimination width of an ordering  $\pi$  is  $k$ , then the complexity of VE using that ordering is  $2^{O(k)}$
- Elimination width  $k$  means that at some stage in the elimination process a factor involving  $k$  variables was generated.
- That factor will require  $2^{O(k)}$  space to store
  - space complexity of VE is  $2^{O(k)}$
- And it will require  $2^{O(k)}$  operations to process (either to compute in the first place, or when it is being processed to eliminate one of its variables).
  - Time complexity of VE is  $2^{O(k)}$
- NOTE, that  $k$  is the elimination width of this **particular ordering**.

# Tree Width

- Given a hypergraph  $\mathcal{H}$  with vertices  $\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$  the **tree width ( $\omega$ )** of  $\mathcal{H}$  is the **MINIMUM** elimination width of any of the  $n!$  different orderings of the  $X_i$  minus 1.
- Thus VE has best case complexity of  $2^{O(\omega)}$  where  $\omega$  is the tree width of the initial Bayes Net.
- In the worst case, the tree width is equal to the number of variables (minus 1)

# Different Orderings = Different Elimination Widths

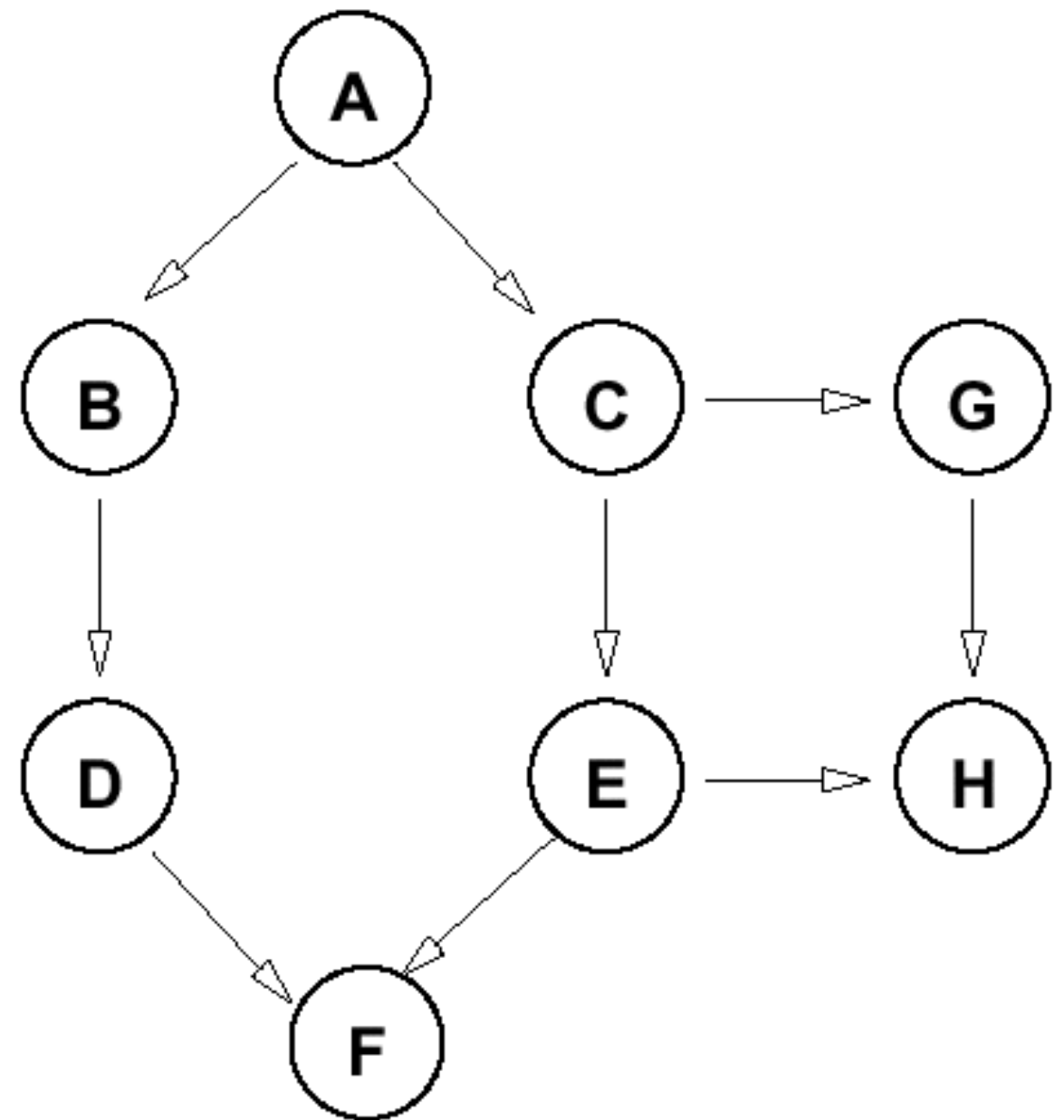
Suppose query variable is D. Consider different orderings for this network

E,C,A,B,G,H,F :

- Bad

A,F,H,G,B,C,E:

- Good





# Tree Width

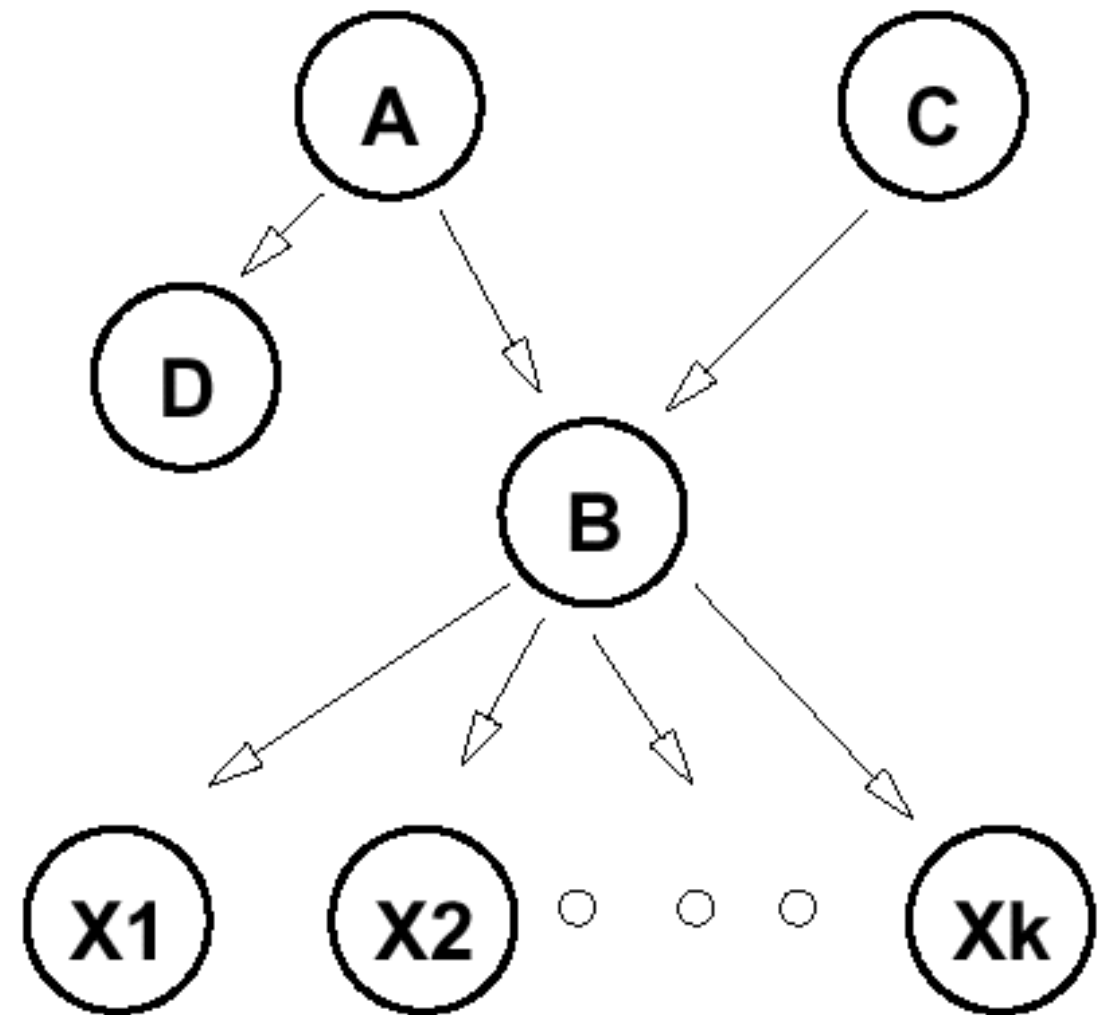
- Exponential in the tree width is the best that VE can do.
  - But, finding an ordering that has elimination width equal to tree width is NP-Hard.
    - so in practice there is no point in trying to speed up VE by finding the best possible elimination ordering.
  - Instead, heuristics are used to find orderings with good (low) elimination widths.
  - In practice, this can be very successful. Elimination widths can often be relatively small, 8-10 even when the network has 1000s of variables.
    - Thus VE can be *much* more efficient than simply summing the probability of all possible events (which is exponential in the number of variables).
    - Sometimes, however, the tree width is equal to the number of variables (minus 1).

# Finding Good Orderings

- A *polytree* is a singly connected Bayes Net: in particular **there is only one path between any two nodes.**
- A node can have multiple parents, but we have no cycles.
- Good orderings are easy to find for polytrees
  - At each stage eliminate *a singly connected node*.
  - Because we have a polytree we are assured that a singly connected node will exist at each elimination stage.
  - The size of the factors in the tree never increase.

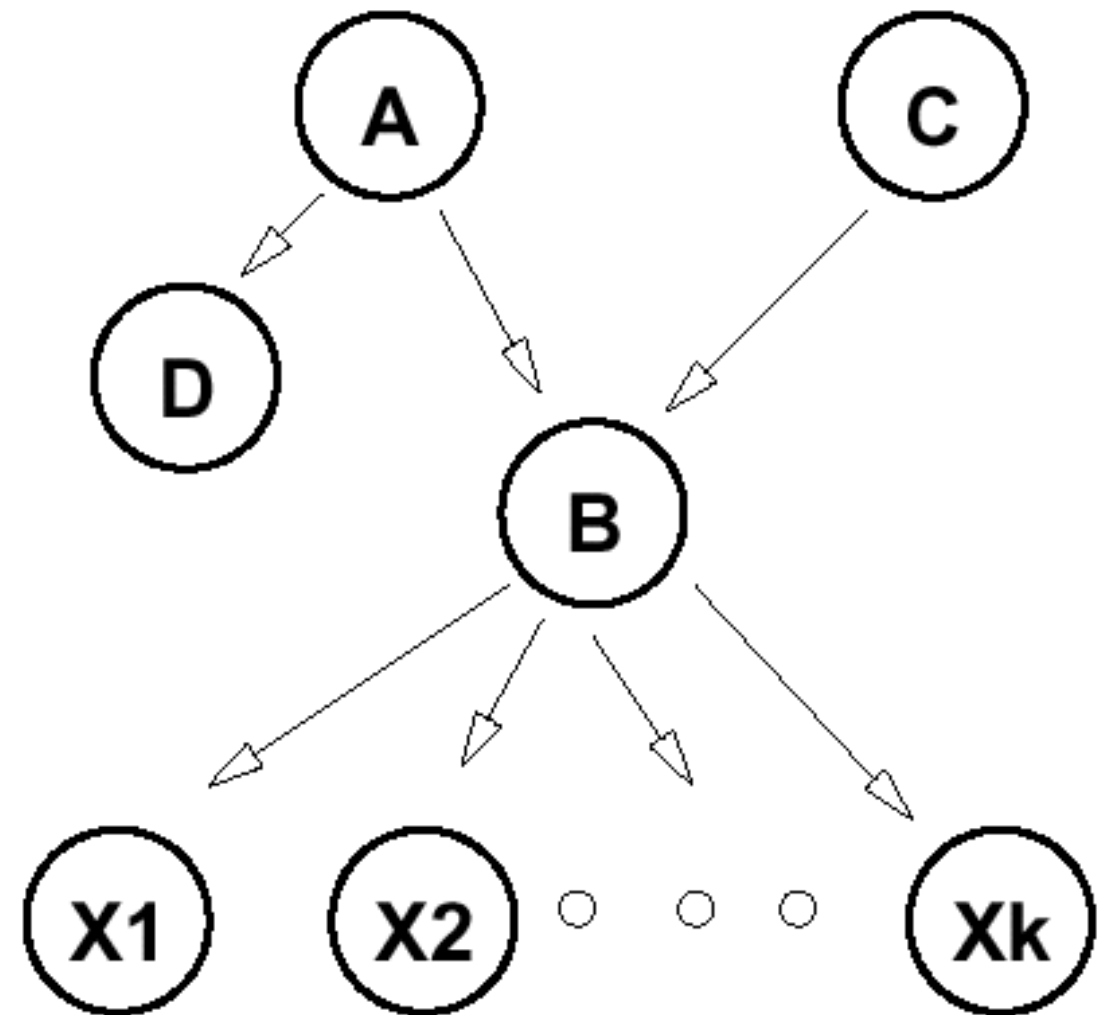
# Elimination Ordering: Polytrees

- Eliminating singly connected nodes allows VE to run in linear time
  - e.g., in this network, eliminate D, A, C,  $X_1, \dots$ ; or eliminate  $X_1, \dots, X_k, D, A, C$ ; or mix it up.
  - result: no factor ever larger than original CPTs
  - eliminating B before these gives factors that include all of A, C,  $X_1, \dots, X_k$ !!!

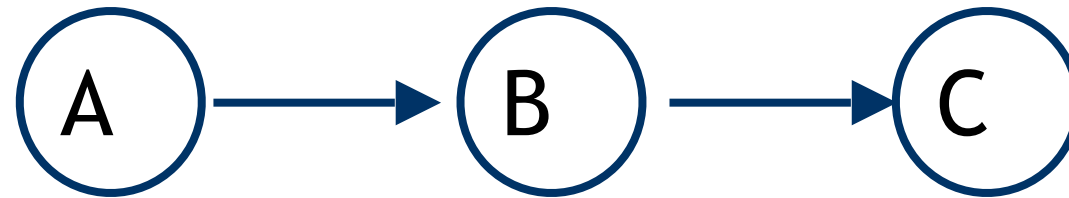


# Min Fill Heuristic

- A fairly effective heuristic is to always **eliminate next the variable that creates the smallest size factor**.
- This is called the **min-fill heuristic**.
  - B creates a factor of size  $k+2$
  - A creates a factor of size 2
  - D creates a factor of size 1
- This heuristic always solves polytrees in linear time.



# Relevance



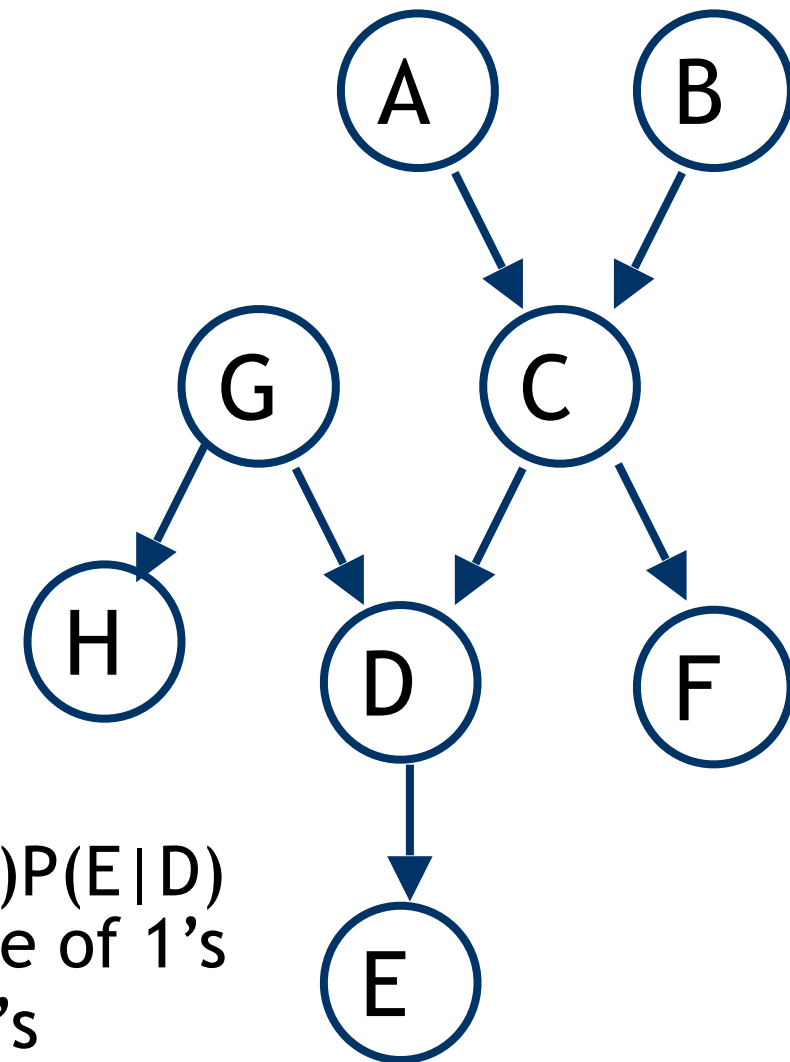
- Certain variables have no impact on the query. For example, in network ABC, computing  $P(A)$  with no evidence requires elimination of B and C.
  - But when you sum out these variables, you compute a trivial factor (that always evaluates to 1); for example:
    - Eliminating C:  $f_4(B) = \sum_C f_3(B, C) = \sum_C P(C | B)$
    - This is 1 for any value of B (e.g.,  $P(c | b) + P(\sim c | b) = 1$ )
- No need to think about B or C for this query

# Relevance

- Can restrict attention to *relevant* variables.  
Given query  $q$ , evidence  $E$ :
  - $q$  itself is relevant
  - if any node  $Z$  is relevant, its parents are relevant
  - if  $e \in E$  is a descendent of a relevant node, then  $E$  is relevant
- We can restrict our attention to the *sub-network comprising only relevant variables* when evaluating a query  $Q$

# Relevance: Examples

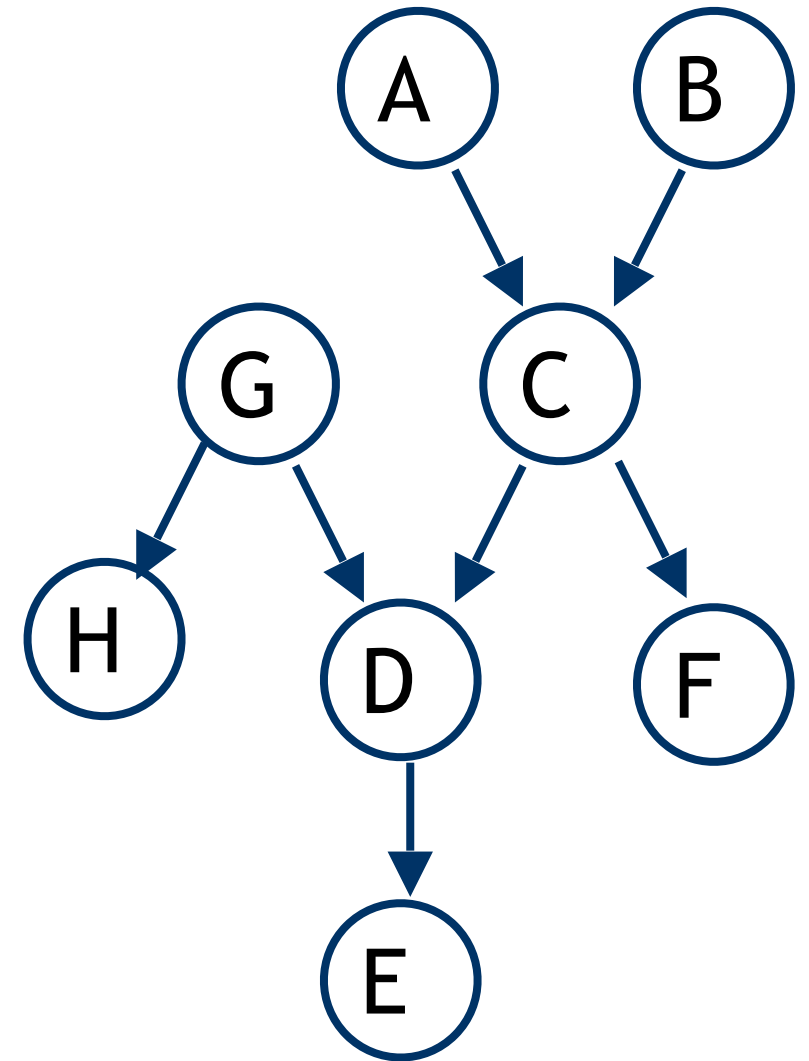
- Query:  $P(F)$ 
  - relevant: F, C, B, A
- Query:  $P(F|E)$ 
  - relevant: F, C, B, A
  - also: E, hence D, G
  - intuitively, we need to compute  $P(C|E)$  to compute  $P(F|E)$*



- Query:  $P(F|H)$ 
  - relevant: F, C, B, A
$$\begin{aligned}
 &P(A)P(B)P(C|A,B)P(F|C)P(G)P(h|G)P(D|G,C)P(E|D) \\
 &= \dots P(G)P(h|G)P(D|G,C) \sum_E P(E|D) = \text{a table of 1's} \\
 &= \dots P(G)P(h|G) \sum_D P(D|G,C) = \text{a table of 1's} \\
 &= [P(A)P(B)P(C|A,B)P(F|C)] [\sum_G P(G)P(h|G)] \\
 &\quad [\sum_G P(G)P(h|G)] \neq 1 \text{ but irrelevant}
 \end{aligned}$$

once we normalize, multiplies each value of F equally

# Relevance: Examples



Query:  $P(F|E,C)$

- algorithm says all variables except H are relevant; but really none except C, F (since C cuts off all influence of others)
- algorithm is overestimating relevant set



# Independence in a Bayes Net

- Another piece of information we can obtain from a Bayes net is the “structure” of relationships in the domain.
- The structure of the BN means: every  $X_i$  is *conditionally independent of all of its non-descendants given its parents*:

$$P(X_i \mid S \cup \text{Par}(X_i)) = P(X_i \mid \text{Par}(X_i))$$

for any subset  $S \subseteq \text{NonDescendants}(X_i)$

# More generally ....

Conditional independencies can be useful in computation, explanation, etc. related to a BN

How do we determine if two variables  $X$ ,  $Y$  are independent given a set of variables  $E$ ?

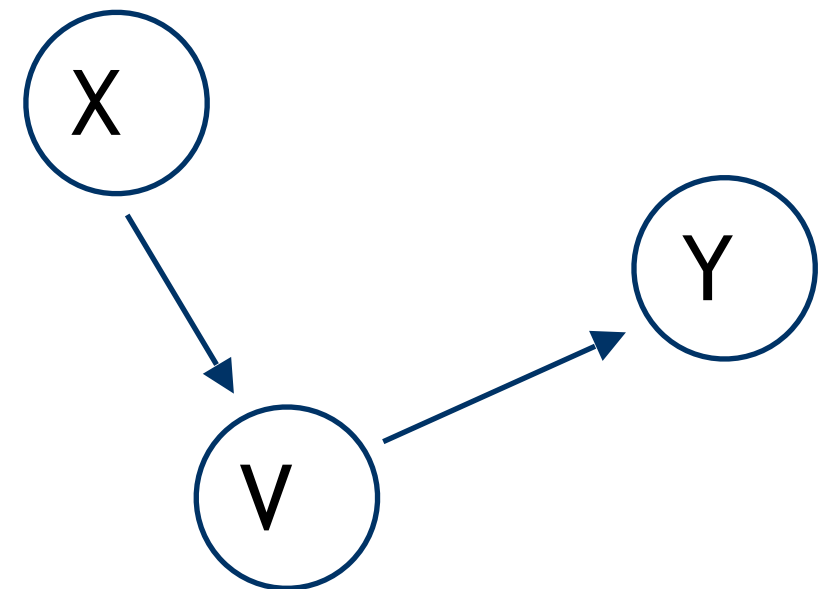
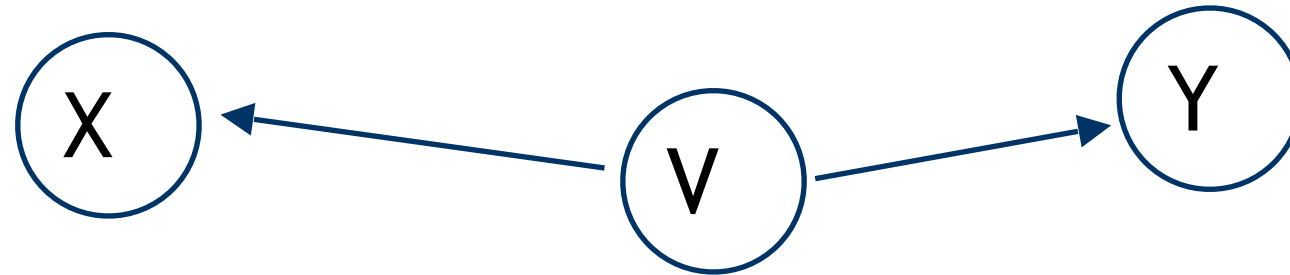
- We can use a (simple) graphical property called **D-separation**

**D-separation:** A set of variables  $E$  **d-separates**  $X$  and  $Y$  if it **blocks** every undirected path in the BN between  $X$  and  $Y$  (we'll define Blocks next.)

$X$  and  $Y$  are conditionally independent given evidence  $E$  if  $E$  **d-separates**  $X$  and  $Y$

- thus BN gives us an easy way to tell if two variables are independent (set  $E = \{\}$ ) or conditionally independent given  $E$ .

# What does it mean to be blocked?



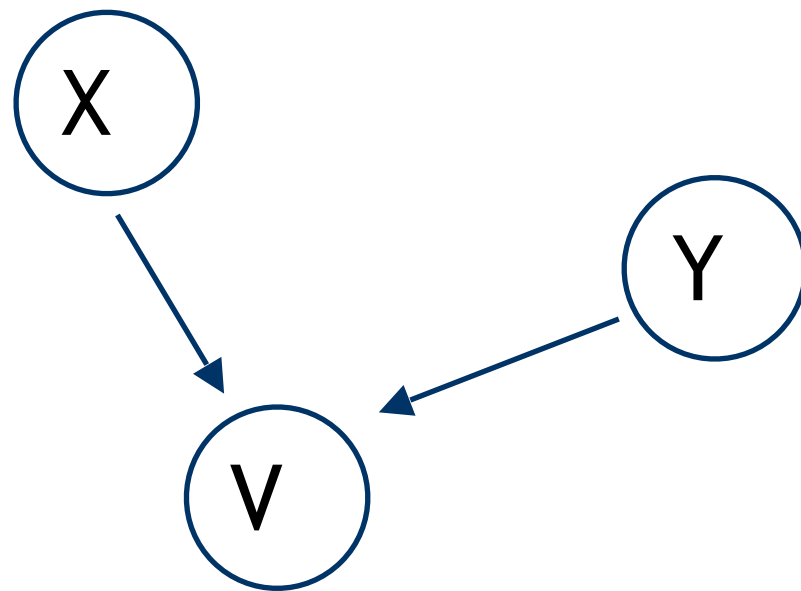
There exists a variable  $V$  on the path such that it **is** in the evidence set  $E$

the arcs putting  $V$  in the path are “tail-to-tail”

Or, there exists a variable  $V$  on the path such that it **is** in the evidence set  $E$

the arcs putting  $V$  in the path are “tail-to-head”

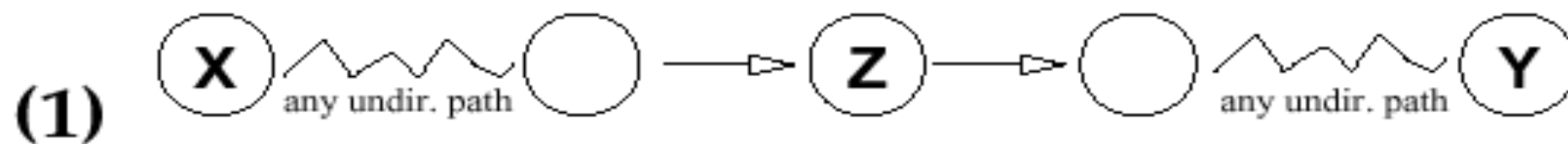
# What does it mean to be blocked?



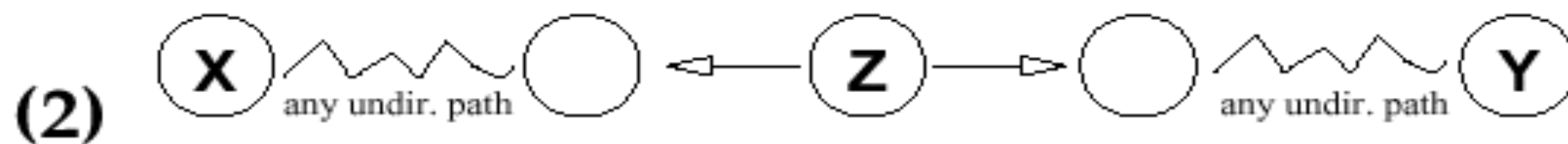
If the variable  $V$  is on the path such that the arcs putting  $V$  on the path are “head-to-head”, the variables are still blocked .... so long as:

$V$  is NOT in the evidence set  $E$   
neither are any of its descendants

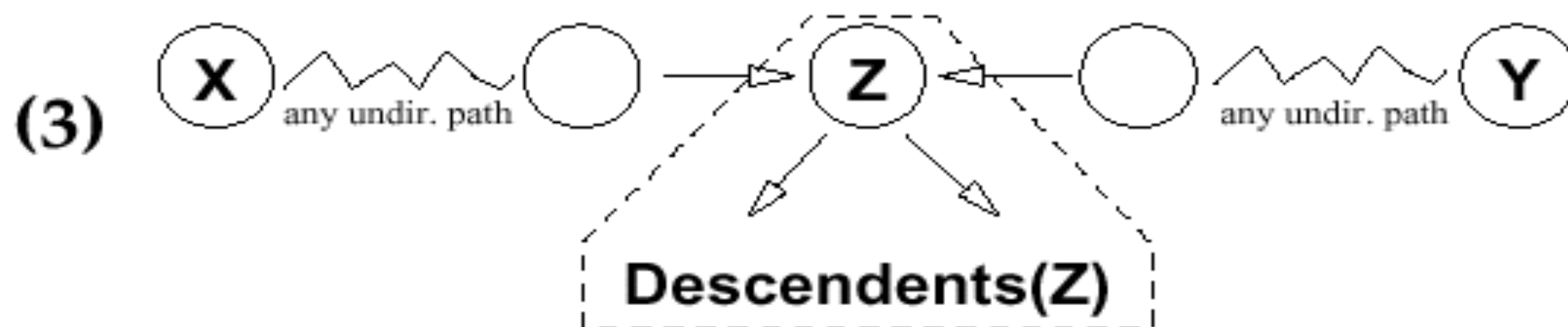
# Blocking: Graphical View



If Z in evidence, the path between X and Y blocked



If Z in evidence, the path between X and Y blocked

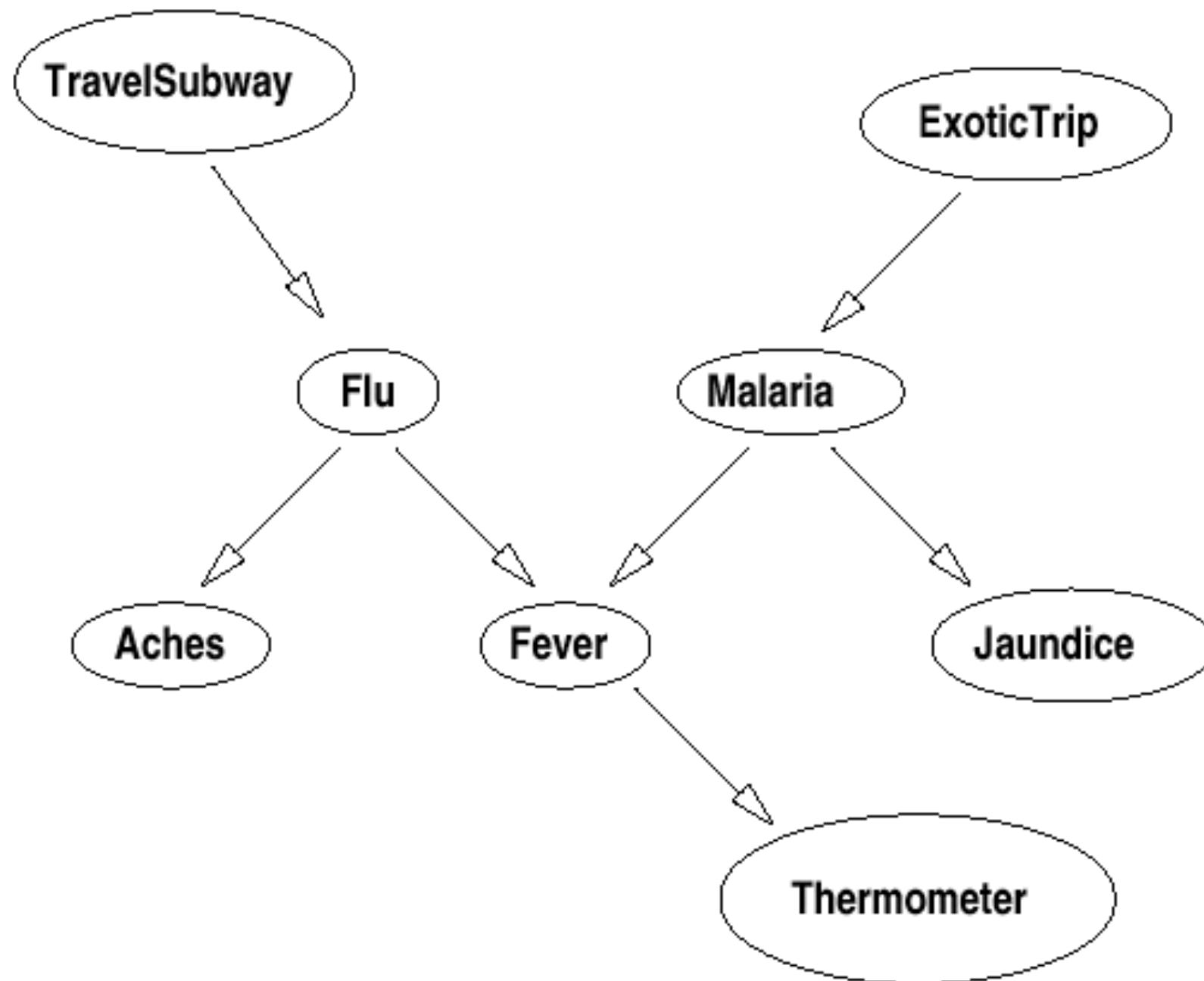


If Z is **not** in evidence and **no** descendent of Z is in evidence, then the path between X and Y is blocked

# D-separation implies conditional independence

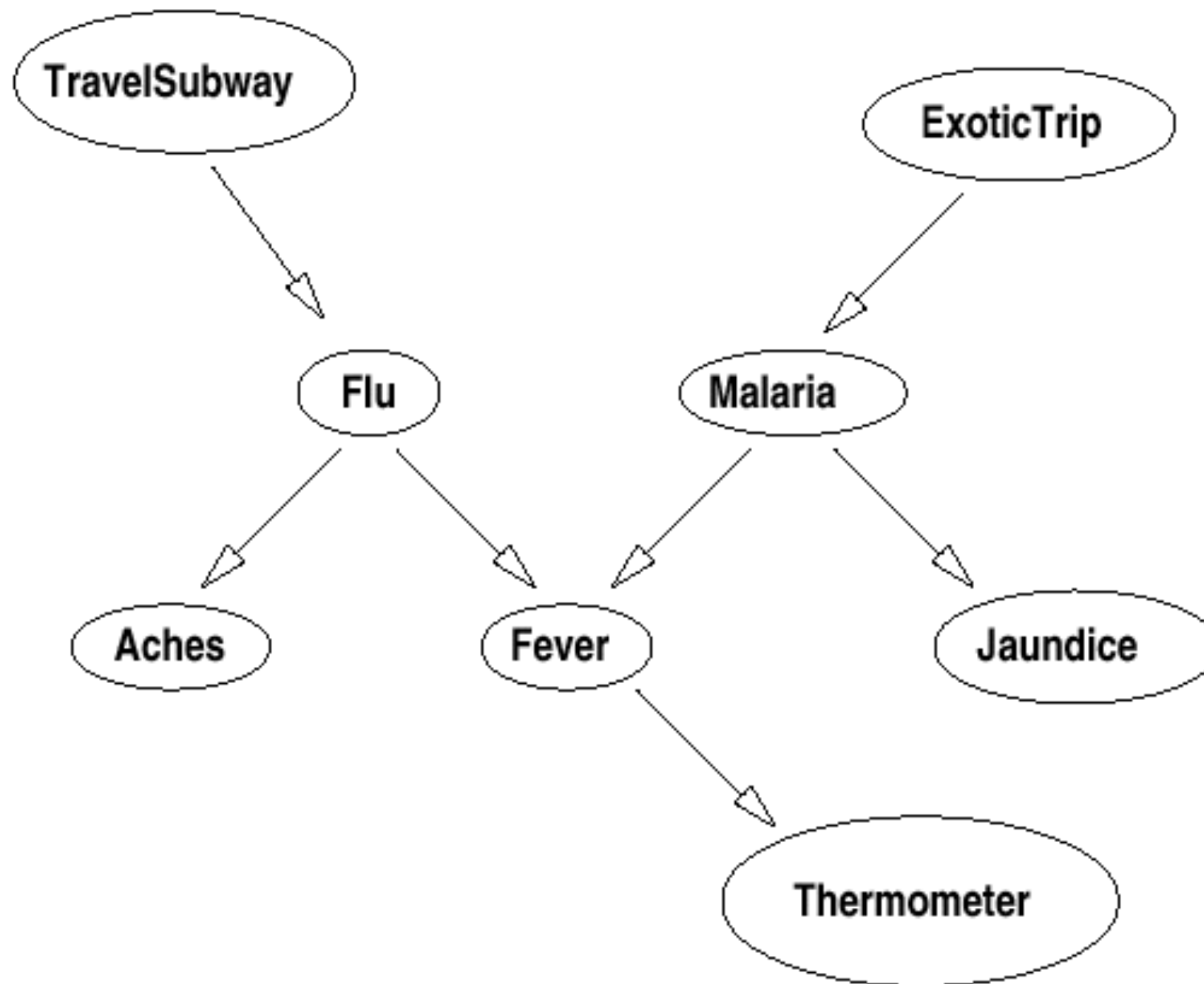
Theorem [Verma & Pearl, 1998]: If a set of evidence variables  $E$  d-separates  $X$  and  $Z$  in a Bayesian network's graph, then  $X$  is independent of  $Z$  given  $E$ .

# D-Separation: Intuitions



Subway and Therm are dependent; but are independent given Flu (since Flu blocks the only path)

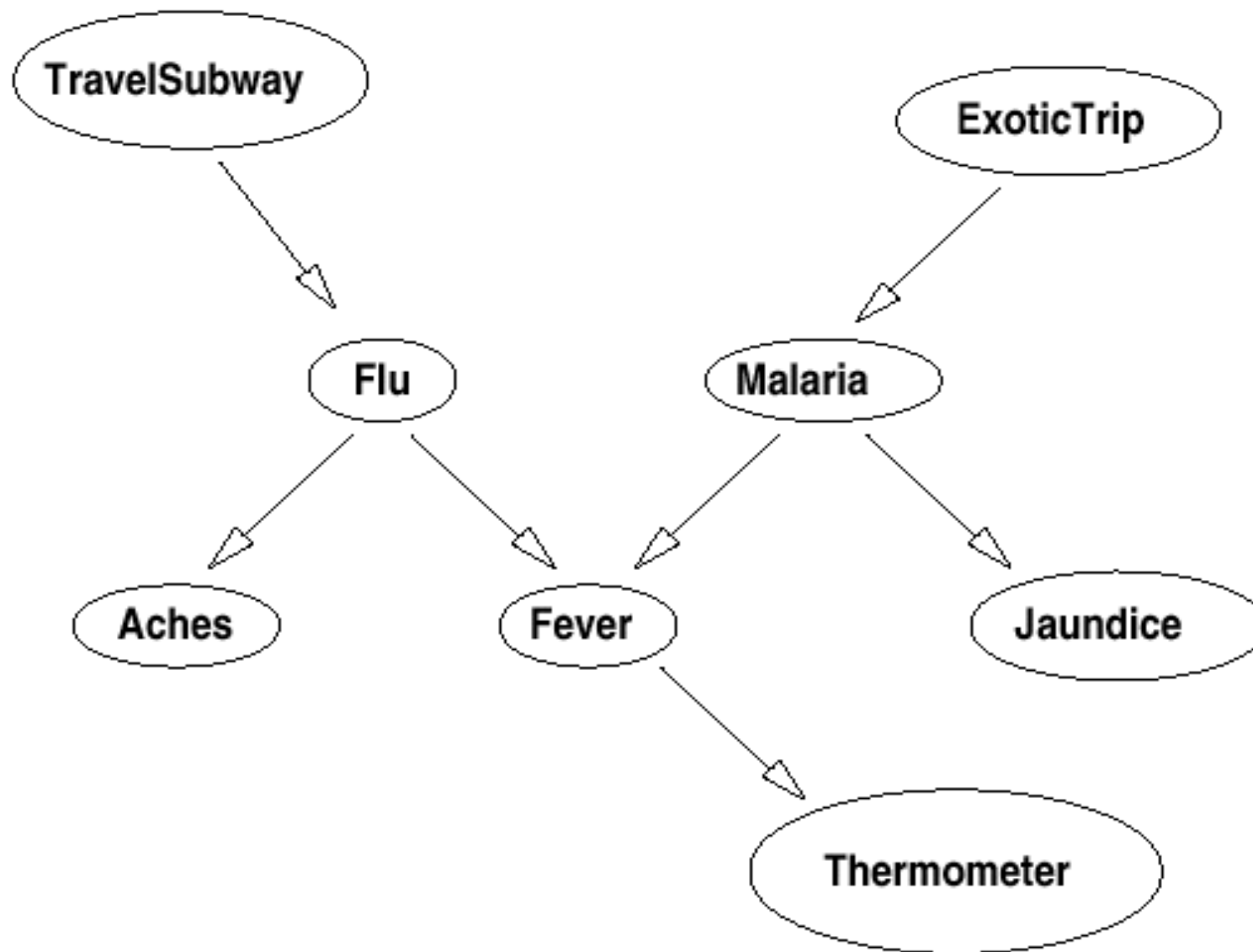
# D-Separation: Intuitions



Aches and Fever are dependent; but are independent given Flu (since Flu blocks the only path). Similarly for Aches and Therm (dependent, but indep. given Flu).



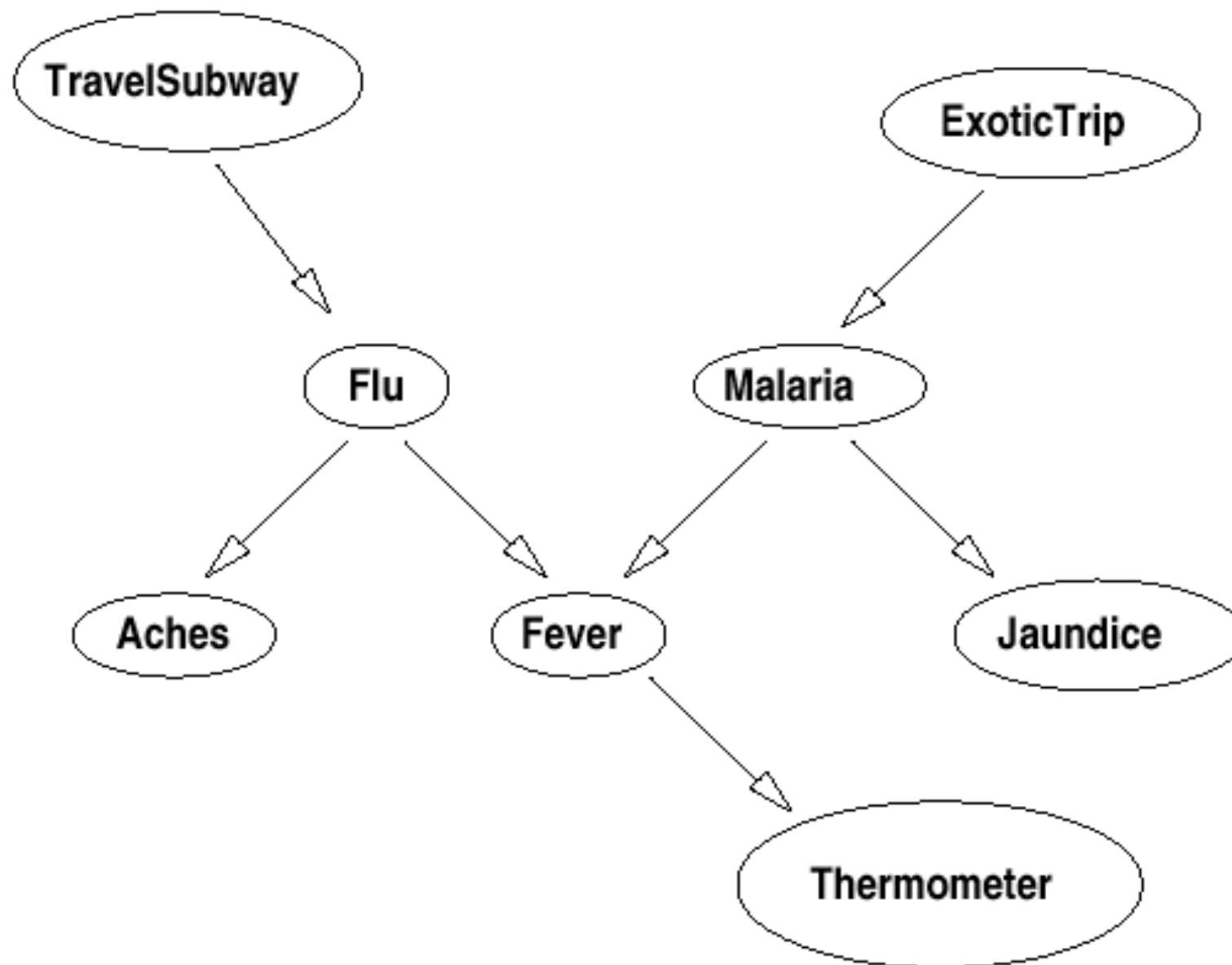
# D-Separation: Intuitions



Flu and Mal are indep.  
(given no evidence):  
Fever blocks the path,  
since it is **not in  
evidence**, nor is its  
descendant Therm.

Flu and Mal are  
dependent given Fever  
(or given Therm):  
nothing blocks path now.

# D-Separation: Intuitions



Subway, ExoticTrip are indep.;

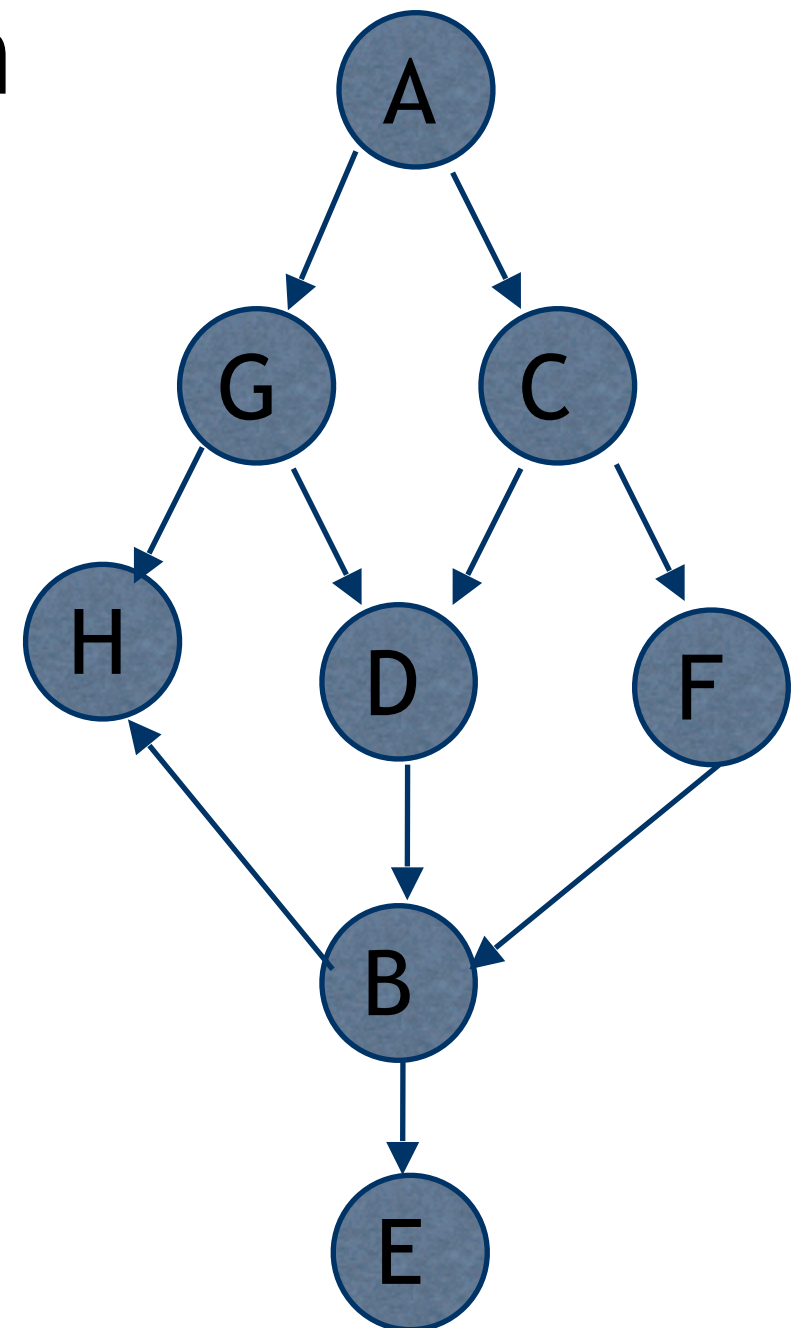
they are dependent given Therm;

they are indep. given Therm and Malaria. This for exactly the same reasons for Flu/Mal above.

## D-Separation Example

In the following network determine if A and E are independent given the evidence.

1. A and E given no evidence?
2. A and E given {C}?
3. A and E given {G,C}?
4. A and E given {G,C,H}?
5. A and E given {G,F}?
6. A and E given {F,D}?
7. A and E given {F,D,H}?
8. A and E given {B}?
9. A and E given {H,B}?
10. A and E given {G,C,D,H,D,F,B}?



## D-Separation Example

In the following network determine if A and E are independent given the evidence.

1. A and E given no evidence? N
2. A and E given {C}? N
3. A and E given {G,C}? Y
4. A and E given {G,C,H}? Y
5. A and E given {G,F}? N
6. A and E given {F,D}? Y
7. A and E given {F,D,H}? N
8. A and E given {B}? Y
9. A and E given {H,B}? Y
10. A and E given {G,C,D,H,D,F,B}? Y

