

Sampling Techniques for Probabilistic and Deterministic Graphical models

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Overview

1. Probabilistic Reasoning/Graphical models
2. Importance Sampling
3. Markov Chain Monte Carlo: Gibbs Sampling
4. Sampling in presence of Determinism
5. Rao-Blackwellisation
6. AND/OR importance sampling

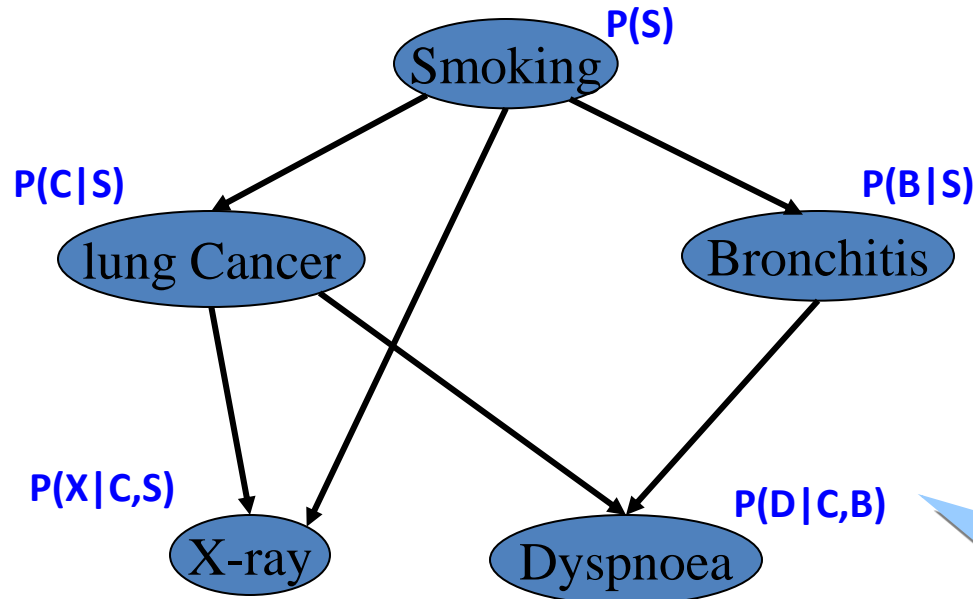
Overview

1. Probabilistic Reasoning/Graphical models
2. Importance Sampling
3. Markov Chain Monte Carlo: Gibbs Sampling
4. Sampling in presence of Determinism
5. Cutset-based Variance Reduction
6. AND/OR importance sampling

Probabilistic Reasoning; Graphical models

- Graphical models:
 - Bayesian network, constraint networks, mixed network
- Queries
- Exact algorithm
 - using inference,
 - search and hybrids
- Graph parameters:
 - tree-width, cycle-cutset, w-cutset

Bayesian Networks (Pearl, 1988)



CPTs : $P(X_i | pa(X_i))$

$$P(X) = \prod_{i=1}^n P(X_i | pa(X_i))$$

CPT:

C	B	P(D C,B)	
0	0	0.1	0.9
0	1	0.7	0.3
1	0	0.8	0.2
1	1	0.9	0.1

$$P(S, C, B, X, D) = P(S) P(C|S) P(B|S) P(X|C,S) P(D|C,B)$$

Belief Updating:

$P(\text{lung cancer}=\text{yes} \mid \text{smoking}=\text{no}, \text{dyspnoea}=\text{yes}) = ?$

Probability of evidence:

$P(\text{smoking}=\text{no}, \text{dyspnoea}=\text{yes}) = ?$

Queries

- **Probability of evidence (or partition function)**

$$P(e) = \sum_{X - \text{var}(e)} \prod_{i=1}^n P(x_i | pa_i) | e \quad Z = \sum_X \prod_i \psi_i(C_i)$$

- **Posterior marginal (beliefs):**

$$P(x_i | e) = \frac{P(x_i, e)}{P(e)} = \frac{\sum_{X - \text{var}(e) - X_i} \prod_{j=1}^n P(x_j | pa_j) | e}{\sum_{X - \text{var}(e)} \prod_{j=1}^n P(x_j | pa_j) | e}$$

- **Most Probable Explanation**

$$\bar{x}^* = \arg \max_{\bar{x}} P(\bar{x}, e)$$

Constraint Networks

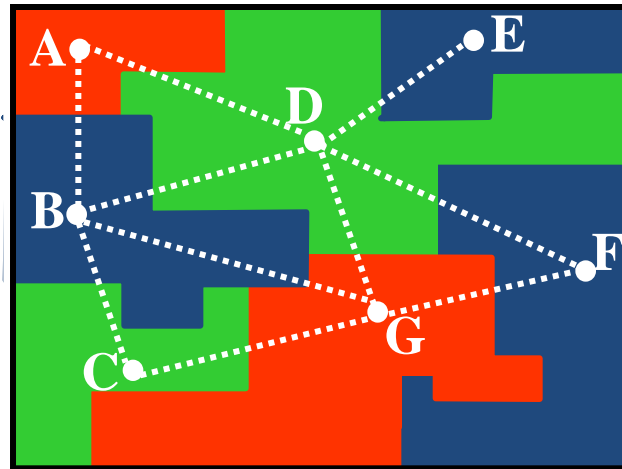
Map coloring

Variables: countries (A B C etc.)

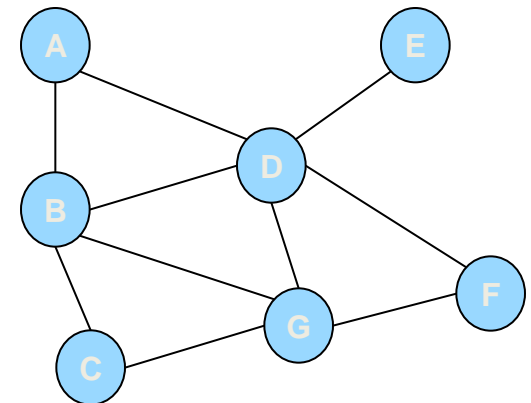
Values: colors (red green blue)

Constraints: **A ≠ B, A ≠ D, D ≠ E**, etc.

A	B
red	green
red	yellow
green	red
green	yellow
yellow	green
yellow	red



Constraint graph

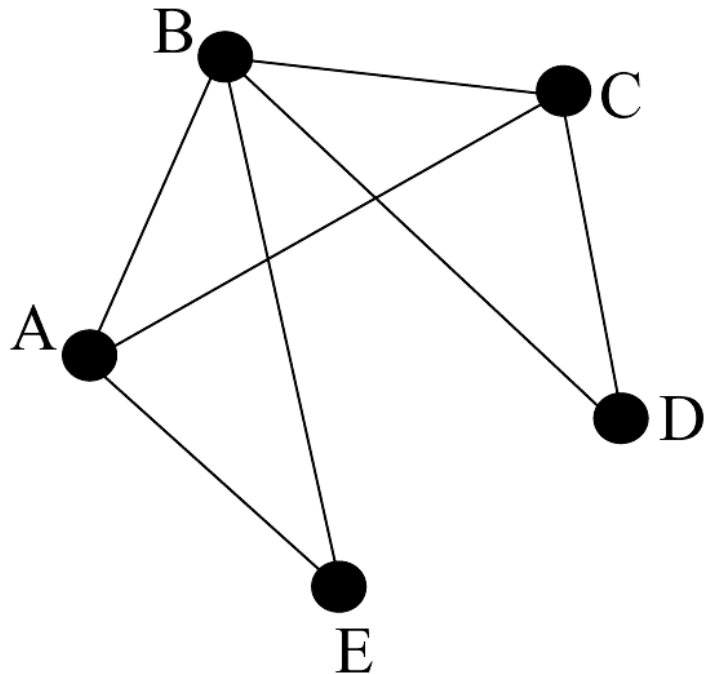


Task: find a solution

Count solutions, find a good one

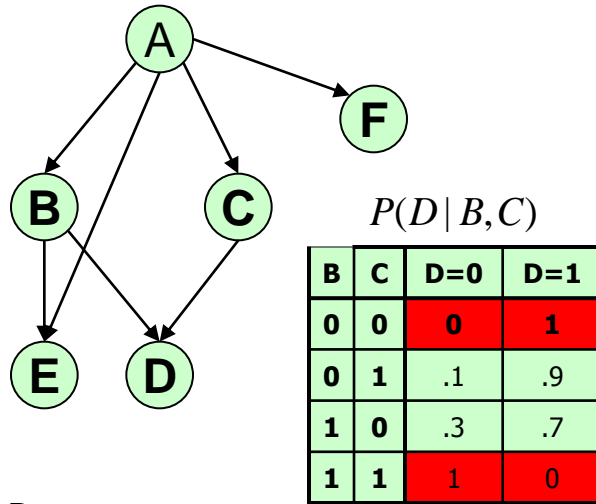
Propositional Satisfiability

$$\varphi = \{(\neg C), (A \vee B \vee C), (\neg A \vee B \vee E), (\neg B \vee C \vee D)\}.$$



Mixed Networks: Mixing Belief and Constraints

Belief or Bayesian Networks



B=

Variables : A, B, C, D, E, F

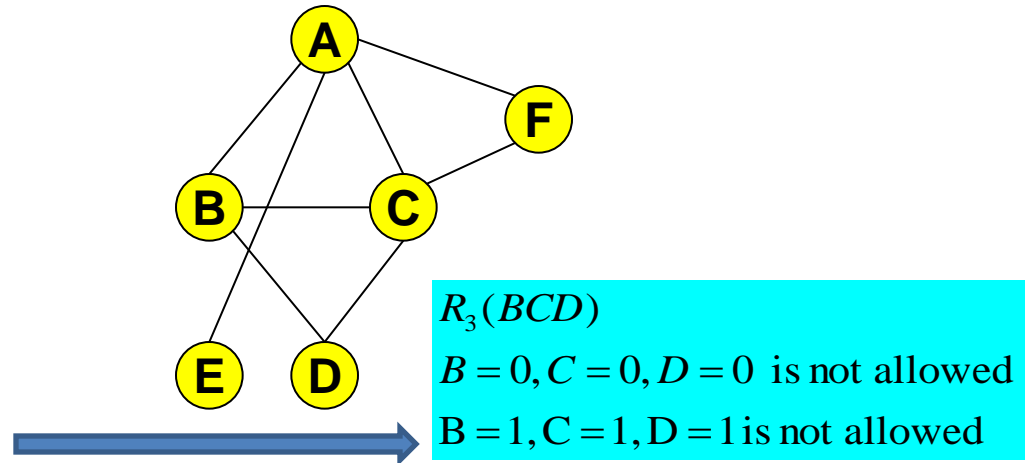
Domains : $D_A = D_B = D_C = D_D = D_E = D_F = \{0,1\}$

CPTS : $P(A), P(B|A), P(C|A), P(D|B,C)$

$P(E|A,B), P(F|A)$

Constraints could be specified externally or may occur as zeros in the Belief network

Constraint Networks



R=

Variables : A, B, C, D, E, F

Domains : $D_A = D_B = D_C = D_D = D_E = D_F = \{0,1\}$

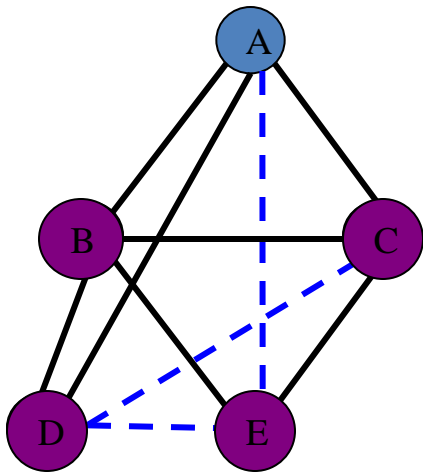
Constraints : $R_1(ABC), R_2(ACF), R_3(BCD), R_4(A,E)$

Expresses the set of solutions : $sol(R)$

$$M = \sum_{x \in sol(R)} P_B(x)$$

Same queries (e.g., weighted counts)

Belief Updating



"Moral" graph

$$P(a|e=0) \propto P(a, e=0) =$$

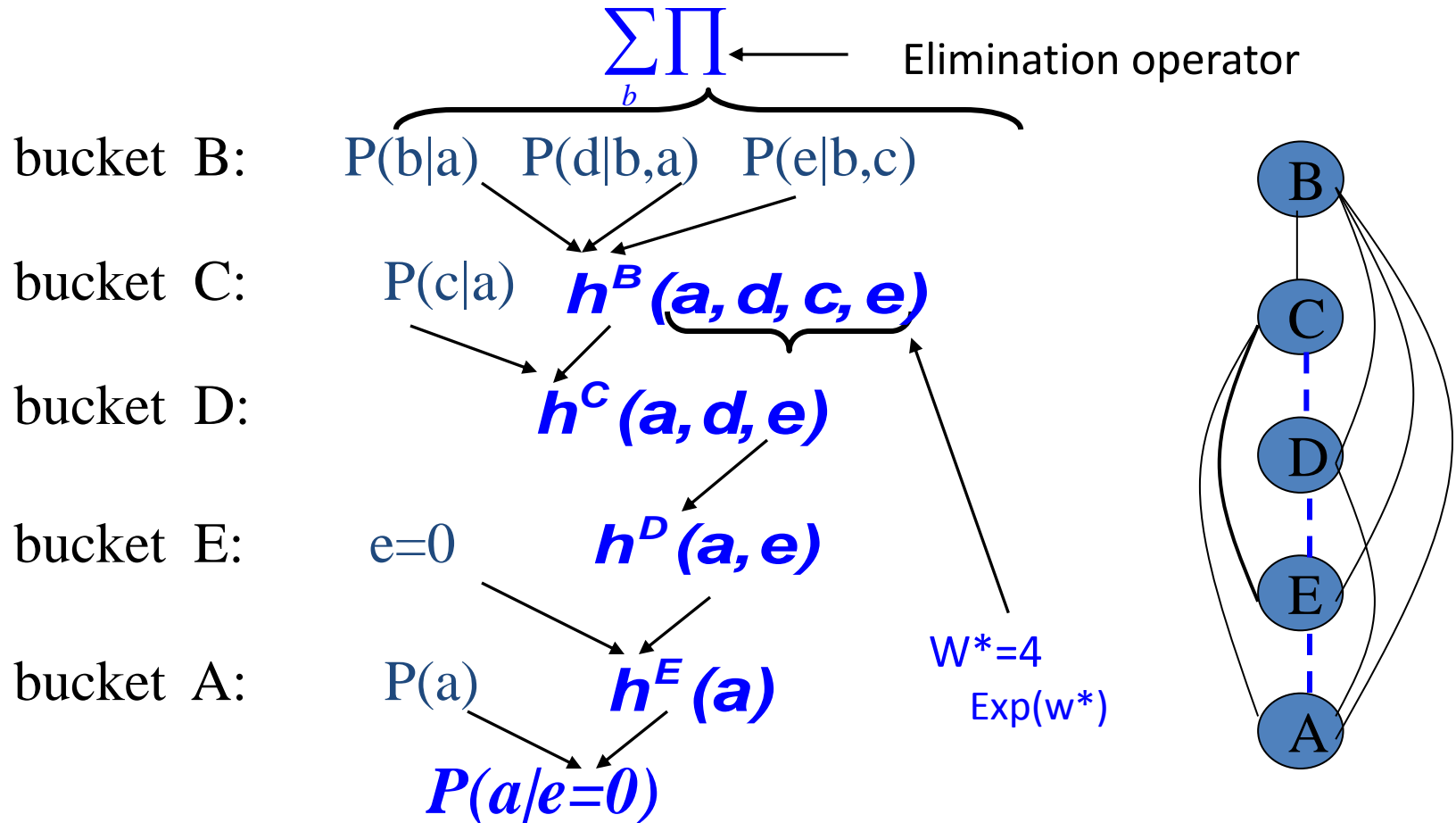
$$\sum_{e=0, d, c, b} P(a) \underbrace{P(b|a)} P(c|a) \underbrace{P(d|b, a) P(e|b, c)} =$$

$$P(a) \sum_{e=0} \sum_d \sum_c P(c|a) \underbrace{\sum_b P(b|a) P(d|b, a) P(e|b, c)}_{h^B(a, d, c, e)}$$

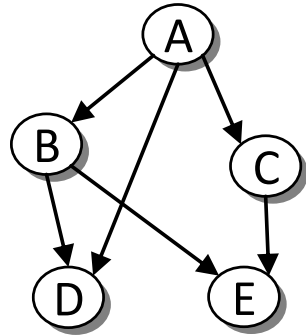
Variable Elimination

Bucket Elimination

Algorithm *elim-bel* (Dechter 1996)



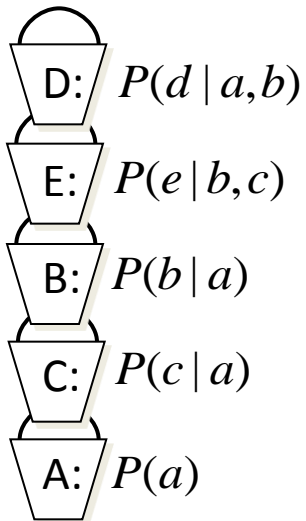
Bucket Elimination



Query: $P(a | e = 0) \propto P(a, e = 0)$ Elimination Order: d,e,b,c

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(a, e = 0) &= \sum_{c,b,e=0,d} P(a)P(b|a)P(c|a)P(d|a,b)P(e|b,c) \\
 &= P(a) \sum_c P(c|a) \sum_b P(b|a) \sum_{e=0} P(e|b,c) \sum_d P(d|a,b)
 \end{aligned}$$

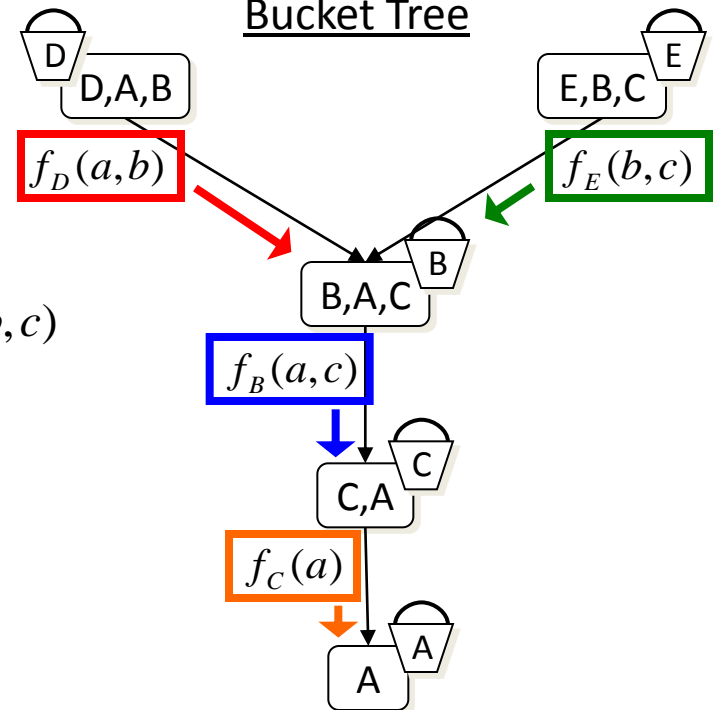
Original Functions



Messages

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_D(a,b) &= \sum_d P(d|a,b) \\
 f_E(b,c) &= P(e=0|b,c) \\
 f_B(a,c) &= \sum_b P(b|a) f_D(a,b) f_E(b,c) \\
 f_C(a) &= \sum_c P(c|a) f_B(a,c) \\
 P(a, e = 0) &= p(A) f_C(a)
 \end{aligned}$$

Bucket Tree

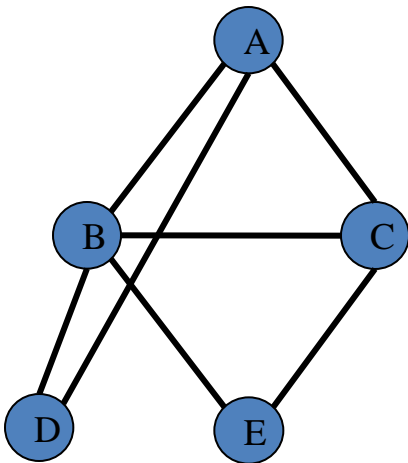


Complexity of Elimination

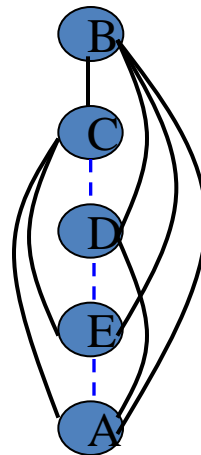
$$O(n \exp(w^*(d)))$$

$w^*(d)$ – the induced width of moral graph along ordering d

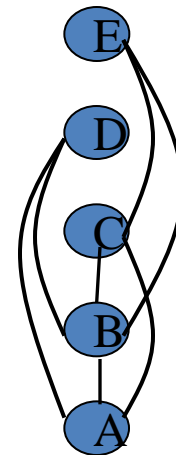
The effect of the ordering:



"Moral" graph

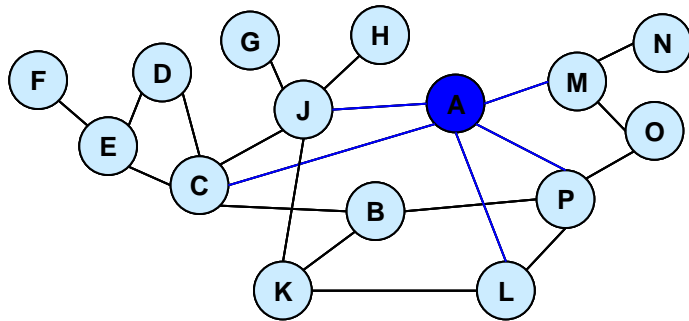


$$w^*(d_1) = 4$$

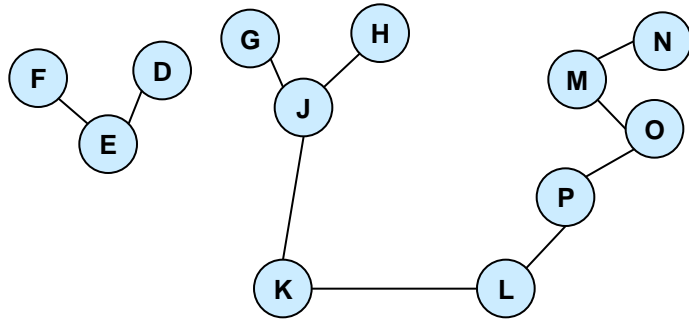
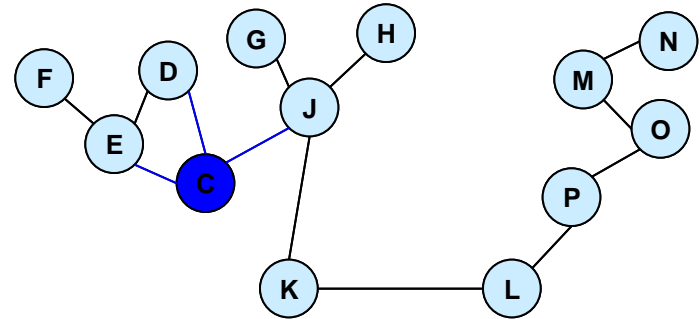
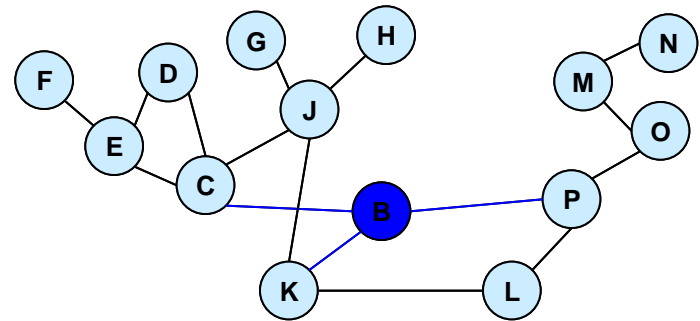
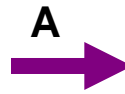


$$w^*(d_2) = 2$$

Cutset-Conditioning



Cycle cutset = {A,B,C}

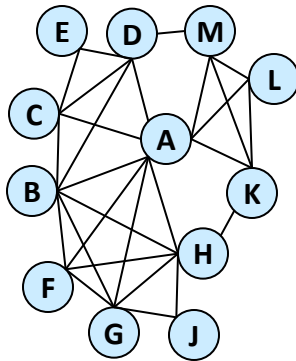


Search Over the Cutset

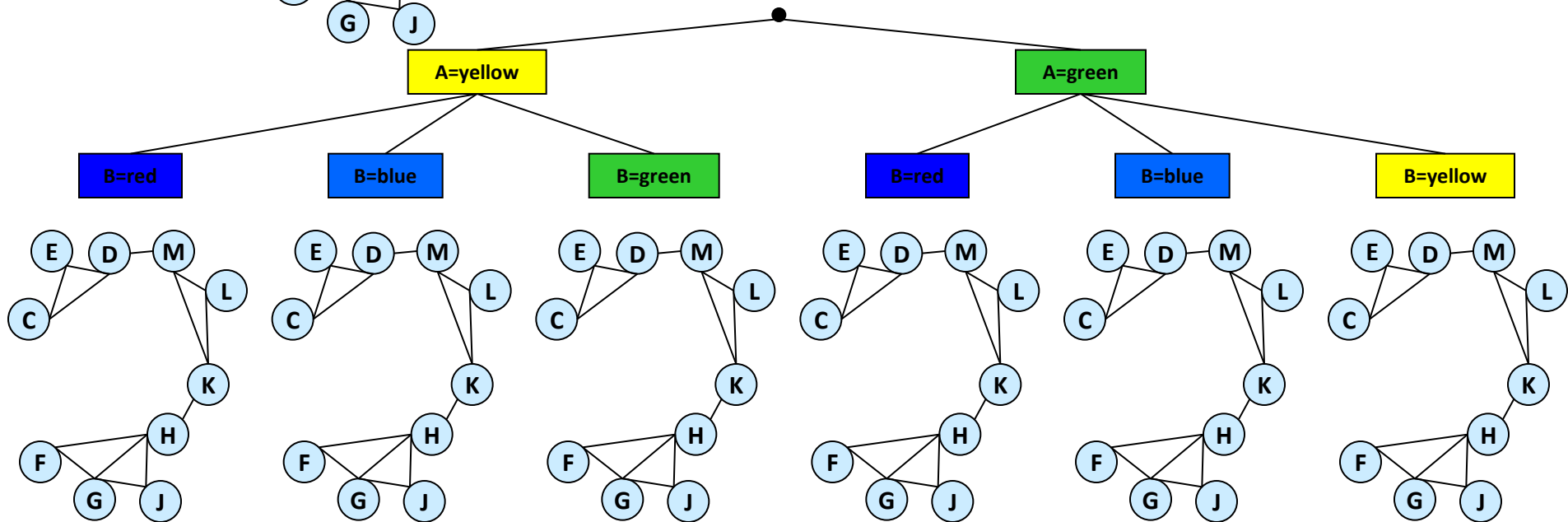
Space: $\exp(w)$: w is a user-controlled parameter

Time: $\exp(w+c(w))$

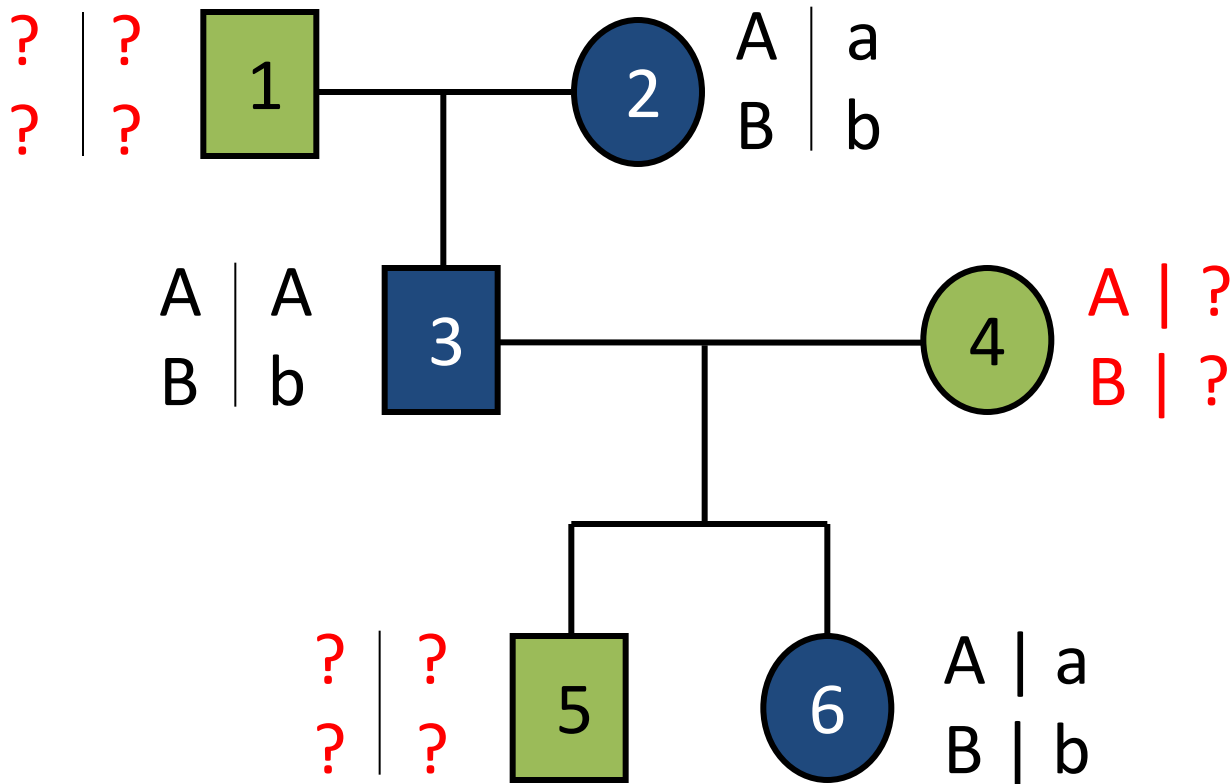
Graph
Coloring
problem



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

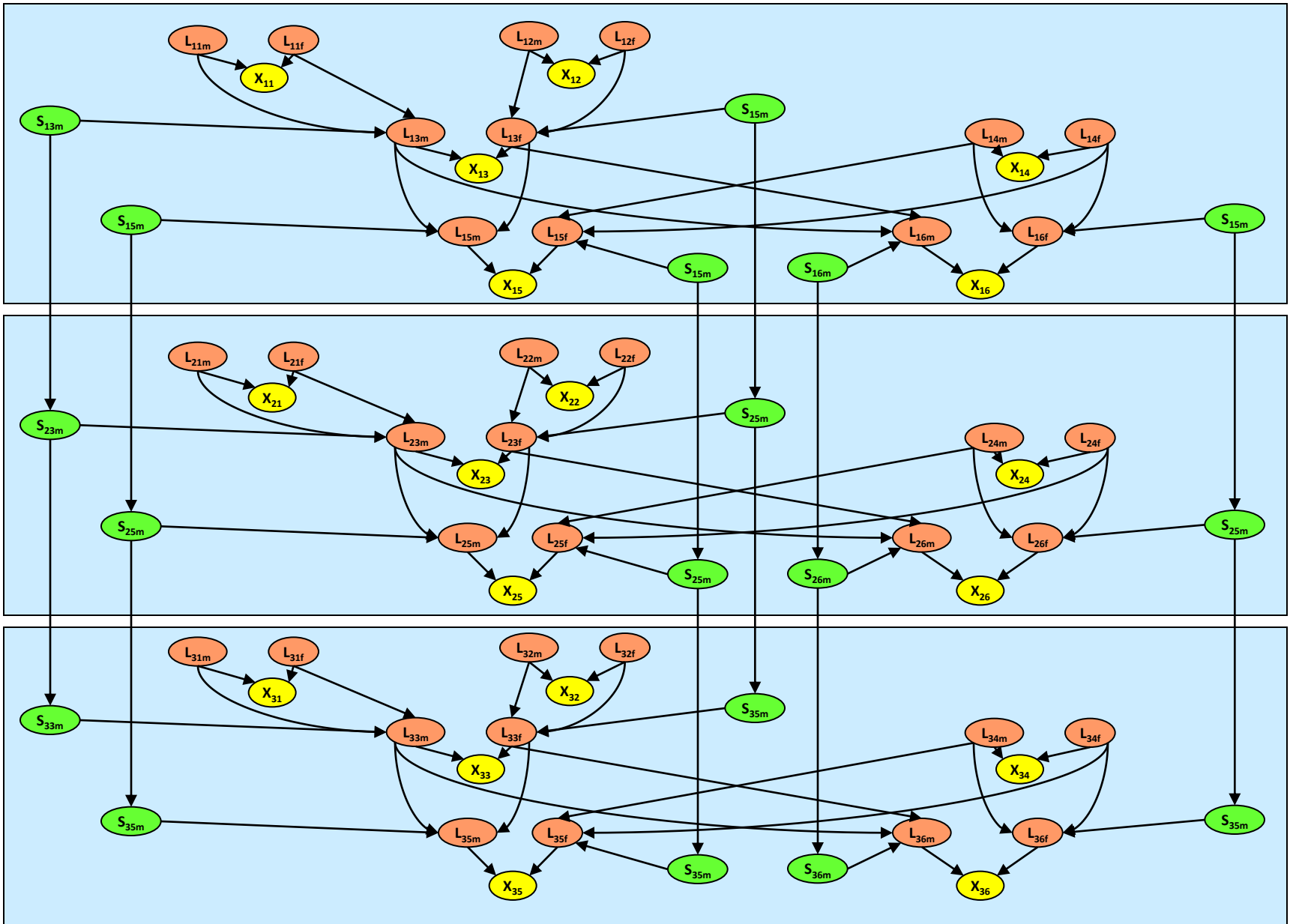


Linkage Analysis



- 6 individuals
- Haplotype: {2, 3}
- Genotype: {6}
- Unknown

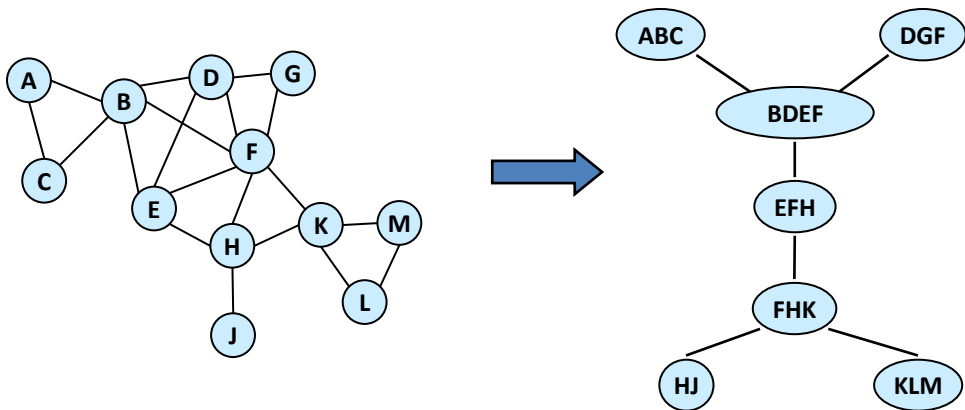
Linkage Analysis: 6 People, 3 Markers



Applications

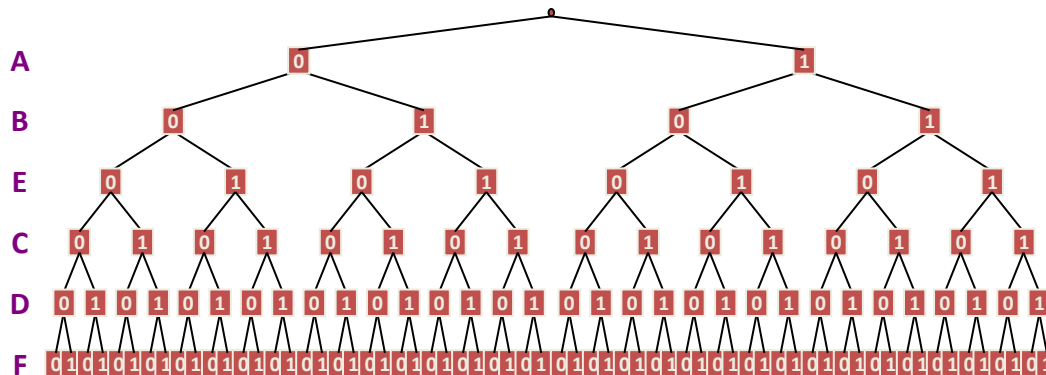
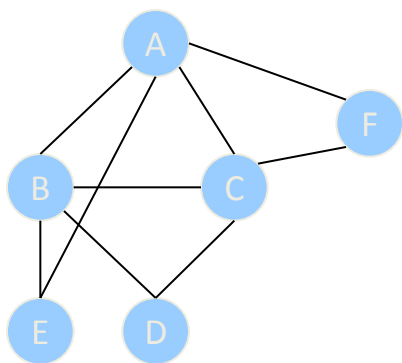
- **Determinism:** More Ubiquitous than you may think!
- **Transportation Planning** (Liao et al. 2004, Gogate et al. 2005)
 - Predicting and Inferring Car Travel Activity of individuals
- **Genetic Linkage Analysis** (Fischelson and Geiger, 2002)
 - associate functionality of genes to their location on chromosomes.
- **Functional/Software Verification** (Bergeron, 2000)
 - Generating random test programs to check validity of hardware
- **First Order Probabilistic models** (Domingos et al. 2006, Milch et al. 2005)
 - Citation matching

Inference vs Conditioning-Search



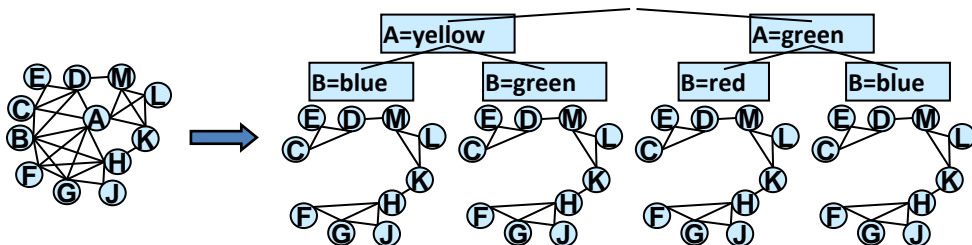
Inference

$\text{Exp}(w^*)$ time/space



Search

$\text{Exp}(n)$ time
 $O(n)$ space



Search+inference:

Space: $\text{exp}(w)$

Time: $\text{exp}(w+c(w))$

Approximation

- Since inference, search and hybrids are too expensive when graph is dense; (high treewidth) then:
- **Bounding inference:**
 - mini-bucket and mini-clustering
 - Belief propagation
- **Bounding search:**
 - **Sampling**
- Goal: an anytime scheme

Approximation

- Since inference, search and hybrids are too expensive when graph is dense; (high treewidth) then:
- **Bounding inference:**
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- Theory of importance sampling
- Likelihood weighting
- State-of-the-art importance sampling techniques

A sample

- Given a set of variables $X=\{X_1,\dots,X_n\}$, a sample, denoted by S^t is an instantiation of all variables:

$$S^t = (x_1^t, x_2^t, \dots, x_n^t)$$

How to draw a sample ?

Univariate distribution

- Example: Given random variable X having domain $\{0, 1\}$ and a distribution $P(X) = (0.3, 0.7)$.
- Task: Generate samples of X from P .
- How?
 - draw random number $r \in [0, 1]$
 - If $(r < 0.3)$ then set $X=0$
 - Else set $X=1$

How to draw a sample?

Multi-variate distribution

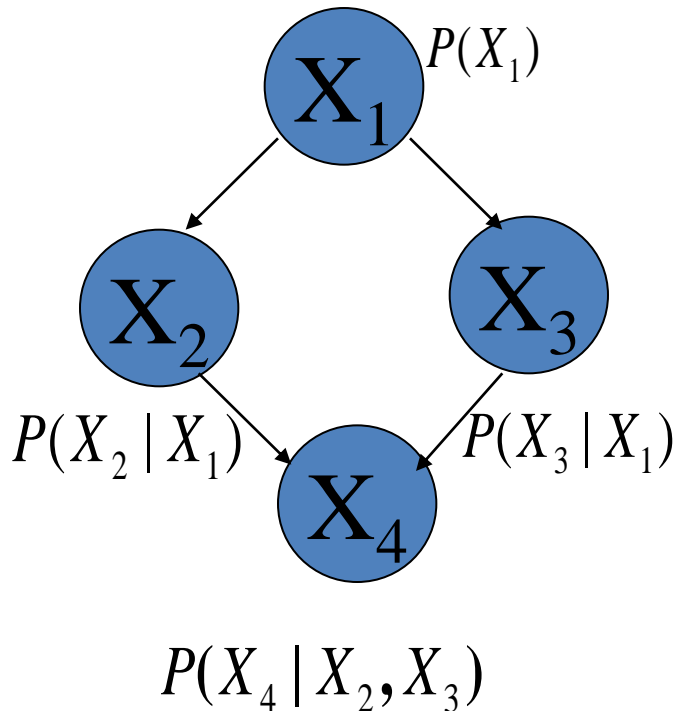
- Let $X = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$ be a set of variables
- Express the distribution in product form

$$P(X) = P(X_1) \times P(X_2 | X_1) \times \dots \times P(X_n | X_1, \dots, X_{n-1})$$

- Sample variables one by one from left to right, along the ordering dictated by the product form.
- Bayesian network literature: Logic sampling

Logic sampling (example)

$$P(X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4) = P(X_1) \times P(X_2 | X_1) \times P(X_3 | X_1) \times P(X_4 | X_2, X_3)$$



No Evidence

// generate sample k

1. Sample x_1 from $P(x_1)$

2. Sample x_2 from $P(x_2 | X_1 = x_1)$

3. Sample x_3 from $P(x_3 | X_1 = x_1)$

4. Sample x_4 from $P(x_4 | X_2 = x_2, X_3 = x_3)$

Expected value and Variance

Expected value: Given a probability distribution $P(X)$ and a function $g(X)$ defined over a set of variables $X = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$, the expected value of g w.r.t. P is

$$E_P[g(x)] = \sum_x g(x)P(x)$$

Variance: The variance of g w.r.t. P is:

$$\text{Var}_P[g(x)] = \sum_x [g(x) - E_P[g(x)]]^2 P(x)$$

Monte Carlo Estimate

- **Estimator:**

- An estimator is a function of the samples.
- It produces an estimate of the unknown parameter of the sampling *distribution*.

Given i.i.d. samples S^1, S^2, \dots, S^T drawn from P , the Monte carlo estimate of $E_P[g(x)]$ is given by :

$$\hat{g} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T g(S^t)$$

Example: Monte Carlo estimate

- Given:
 - A distribution $P(X) = (0.3, 0.7)$.
 - $g(X) = 40$ if X equals 0
= 50 if X equals 1.
- Estimate $E_p[g(x)] = (40 \times 0.3 + 50 \times 0.7) = 47$.
- Generate k samples from P : 0,1,1,1,0,1,1,0,1,0

$$\hat{g} = \frac{40 \times \# \text{ samples}(X = 0) + 50 \times \# \text{ samples}(X = 1)}{\# \text{ samples}}$$
$$= \frac{40 \times 4 + 50 \times 6}{10} = 46$$

Outline

- Definitions and Background on Statistics
- **Theory of importance sampling**
- Likelihood weighting
- State-of-the-art importance sampling techniques

Importance sampling: Main idea

- Transform the probabilistic inference problem into the problem of computing the expected value of a random variable w.r.t. to a distribution Q .
- Generate random samples from Q .
- Estimate the expected value from the generated samples.

Importance sampling for $P(e)$

Let $Z = X \setminus E$,

Let $Q(Z)$ be a (proposal) distribution, satisfying

$$P(z, e) > 0 \Rightarrow Q(z) > 0$$

Then, we can rewrite $P(e)$ as :

$$P(e) = \sum_z P(z, e) = \sum_z P(z, e) \frac{Q(z)}{Q(z)} = E_Q \left[\frac{P(z, e)}{Q(z)} \right] = E_Q[w(z)]$$

Monte Carlo estimate :

$$\hat{P}(e) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T w(z^t), \text{ where } z^t \leftarrow Q(Z)$$

Properties of IS estimate of $P(e)$

- **Convergence:** by law of large numbers

$$\hat{P}(e) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{i=1}^T w(z^i) \xrightarrow{a.s.} P(e) \text{ for } T \rightarrow \infty$$

- **Unbiased.**

$$E_Q[\hat{P}(e)] = P(e)$$

- **Variance:**

$$\text{Var}_Q[\hat{P}(e)] = \text{Var}_Q\left[\frac{1}{T} \sum_{i=1}^T w(z^i)\right] = \frac{\text{Var}_Q[w(z)]}{T}$$

Properties of IS estimate of $P(e)$

- Mean Squared Error of the estimator

$$MSE_Q[\hat{P}(e)] = E_Q \left[\left(\hat{P}(e) - P(e) \right)^2 \right]$$

$$= \left(P(e) - E_Q[\hat{P}(e)] \right)^2 + Var_Q[\hat{P}(e)]$$

$$= Var_Q[\hat{P}(e)]$$

$$= \frac{Var_Q[w(x)]}{T}$$

This quantity enclosed in the brackets is zero because the expected value of the estimator equals the expected value of $g(x)$

Estimating $P(X_i | e)$

Let $\delta_{x_i}(z)$ be a dirac - delta function, which is 1 if z contains x_i and 0 otherwise.

$$P(x_i | e) = \frac{P(x_i, e)}{P(e)} = \frac{\sum_z \delta_{x_i}(z) P(z, e)}{\sum_z P(z, e)} = \frac{E_Q \left[\frac{\delta_{x_i}(z) P(z, e)}{Q(z)} \right]}{E_Q \left[\frac{P(z, e)}{Q(z)} \right]}$$

Idea : Estimate numerator and denominator by IS.

$$\text{Ratio estimate : } \bar{P}(x_i | e) = \frac{\hat{P}(x_i, e)}{\hat{P}(e)} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^T \delta_{x_i}(z^k) w(z^k, e)}{\sum_{k=1}^T w(z^k, e)}$$

Estimate is biased: $E[\bar{P}(x_i | e)] \neq P(x_i | e)$

Properties of the IS estimator for $P(X_i | e)$

- Convergence: By Weak law of large numbers

$$\bar{P}(x_i | e) \rightarrow P(x_i | e) \text{ as } T \rightarrow \infty$$

- Asymptotically unbiased

$$\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} E_P[\bar{P}(x_i | e)] = P(x_i | e)$$

- Variance

- Harder to analyze

- Liu suggests a measure called “Effective sample size”

Effective Sample size

$$P(x_i | e) = \sum_z g_{x_i}(z) P(z | e)$$

Given samples from $P(z | e)$, we can estimate $P(x_i | e)$ using :

$$\hat{P}(x_i | e) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{j=1}^T g_{x_i}(z^j) \quad \longrightarrow \quad \text{Ideal estimator}$$

$$\text{Define : } ESS(Q, T) = \frac{T}{1 + \text{var}_Q[w(z)]} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \text{Measures how much the estimator deviates from the ideal one.}$$

$$\frac{\text{Var}_P[\hat{P}(x_i | e)]}{\text{Var}_Q[\bar{P}(x_i | e)]} \approx \frac{T}{ESS(Q, T)}$$

Thus T samples from P are worth $ESS(Q, T)$ samples from Q .

Therefore, the variance of the weights must be as small as possible.

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- Theory of importance sampling
- **Likelihood weighting**
- State-of-the-art importance sampling techniques

Likelihood Weighting: Proposal Distribution

$$Q(X \setminus E) = \prod_{X_i \in X \setminus E} P(X_i \mid pa_i, e)$$

Example :

Given a Bayesian network : $P(X_1, X_2, X_3) = P(X_1) \times P(X_2 \mid X_1) \times P(X_3 \mid X_1, X_2)$ and Evidence $X_2 = x_2$.

$$Q(X_1, X_3) = P(X_1) \times P(X_3 \mid X_1, X_2 = x_2)$$

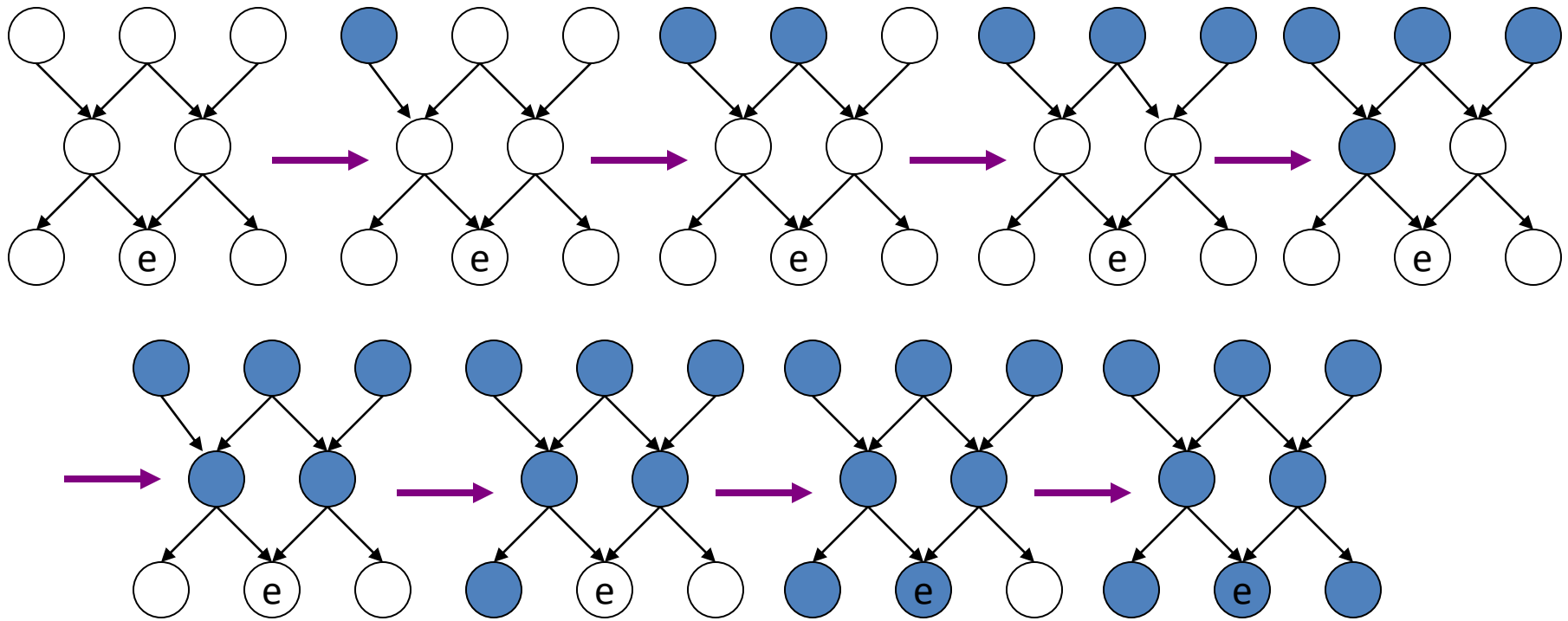
Weights :

Given a sample : $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$

$$\begin{aligned} w &= \frac{P(x, e)}{Q(x)} = \frac{\prod_{X_i \in X \setminus E} P(x_i \mid pa_i, e) \times \prod_{E_j \in E} P(e_j \mid pa_j)}{\prod_{X_i \in X \setminus E} P(x_i \mid pa_i, e)} \\ &= \prod_{E_j \in E} P(e_j \mid pa_j) \end{aligned}$$

Likelihood Weighting: Sampling

Sample in topological order over X !



Clamp evidence, Sample $x_i \leftarrow P(X_i | pa_i)$, $P(X_i | pa_i)$ is a look-up in CPT!

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Proposal selection

- One should try to select a proposal that is as close as possible to the posterior distribution.

$$\text{Var}_Q[\hat{P}(e)] = \frac{\text{Var}_Q[w(z)]}{T} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{z \in Z} \left(\frac{P(z, e)}{Q(z)} - P(e) \right)^2 Q(z)$$

$$\frac{P(z, e)}{Q(z)} - P(e) = 0, \text{ to have a zero - variance estimator}$$

$$\therefore \frac{P(z, e)}{P(e)} = Q(z)$$

$$\therefore Q(z) = P(z | e)$$

Proposal Distributions used in Literature

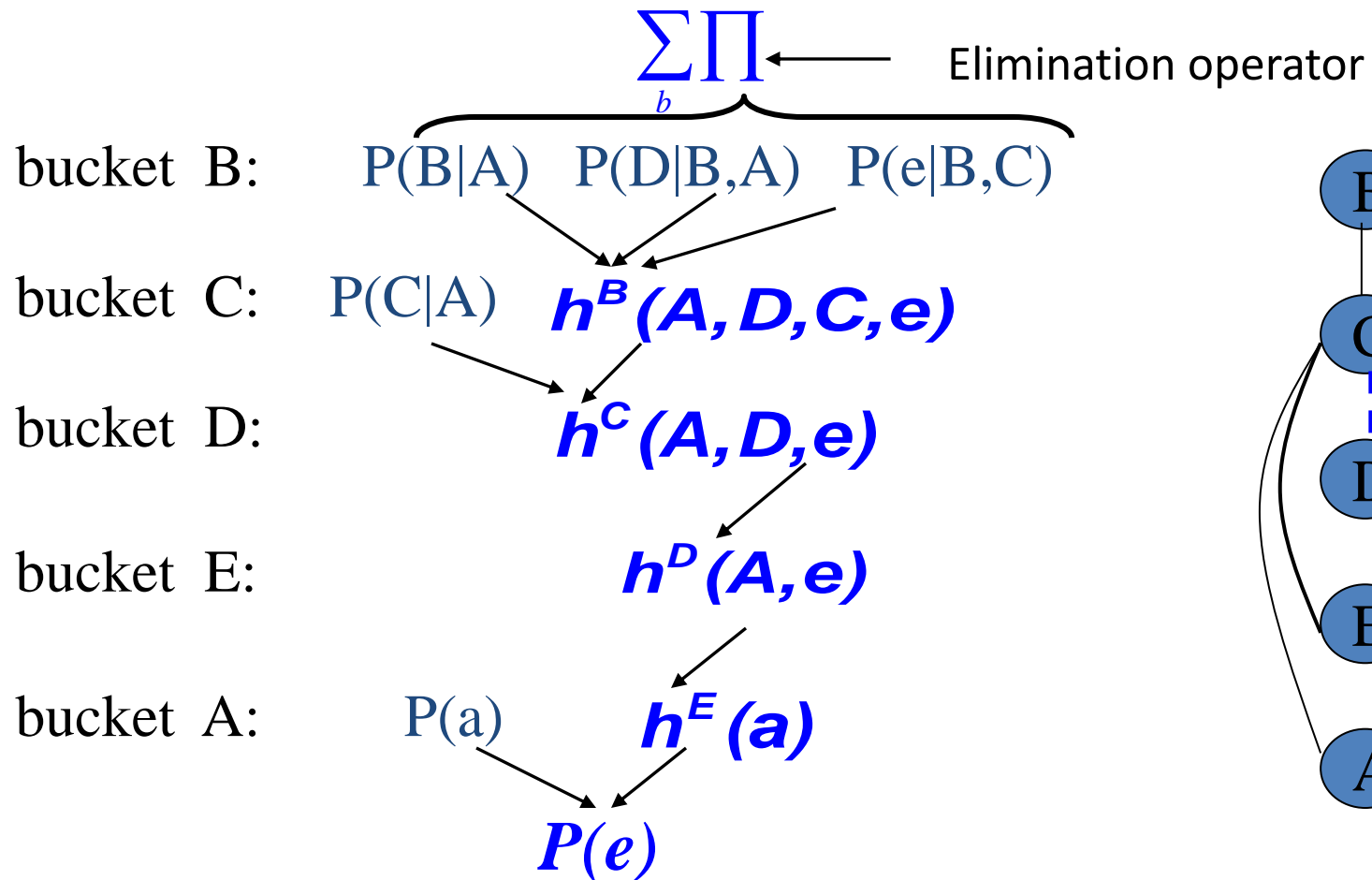
- AIS-BN (Adaptive proposal)
 - Cheng and Druzdzel, 2000
- Iterative Belief Propagation
 - Changhe and Druzdzel, 2003
- Iterative Join Graph Propagation (IJGP) and variable ordering
 - Gogate and Dechter, 2005

Perfect sampling using Bucket Elimination

- Algorithm:
 - Run Bucket elimination on the problem along an ordering $o=(X_N, \dots, X_1)$.
 - Sample along the reverse ordering: (X_1, \dots, X_N)
 - At each variable X_i , recover the probability $P(X_i | x_1, \dots, x_{i-1})$ by referring to the bucket.

Bucket elimination (BE)

Algorithm *elim-bel* (Dechter 1996)



Sampling from the output of BE

(Dechter 2002)

Set $A = a, D = d, C = c$ in the bucket

Sample : $B = b \leftarrow Q(C | a, e, d) \propto P(B | a)P(d | B, a)P(e | b, c)$

bucket B: $P(B|A) P(D|B,A) P(e|B,C)$

bucket C: $P(C|A) \mathbf{h^B(A, D, C, e)}$ Set $A = a, D = d$ in the bucket
Sample : $C = c \leftarrow Q(C | a, e, d) \propto h^B(a, d, C, e)$

bucket D: $\mathbf{h^C(A, D, e)}$ Set $A = a$ in the bucket
Sample : $D = d \leftarrow Q(D | a, e) \propto h^C(a, D, e)$

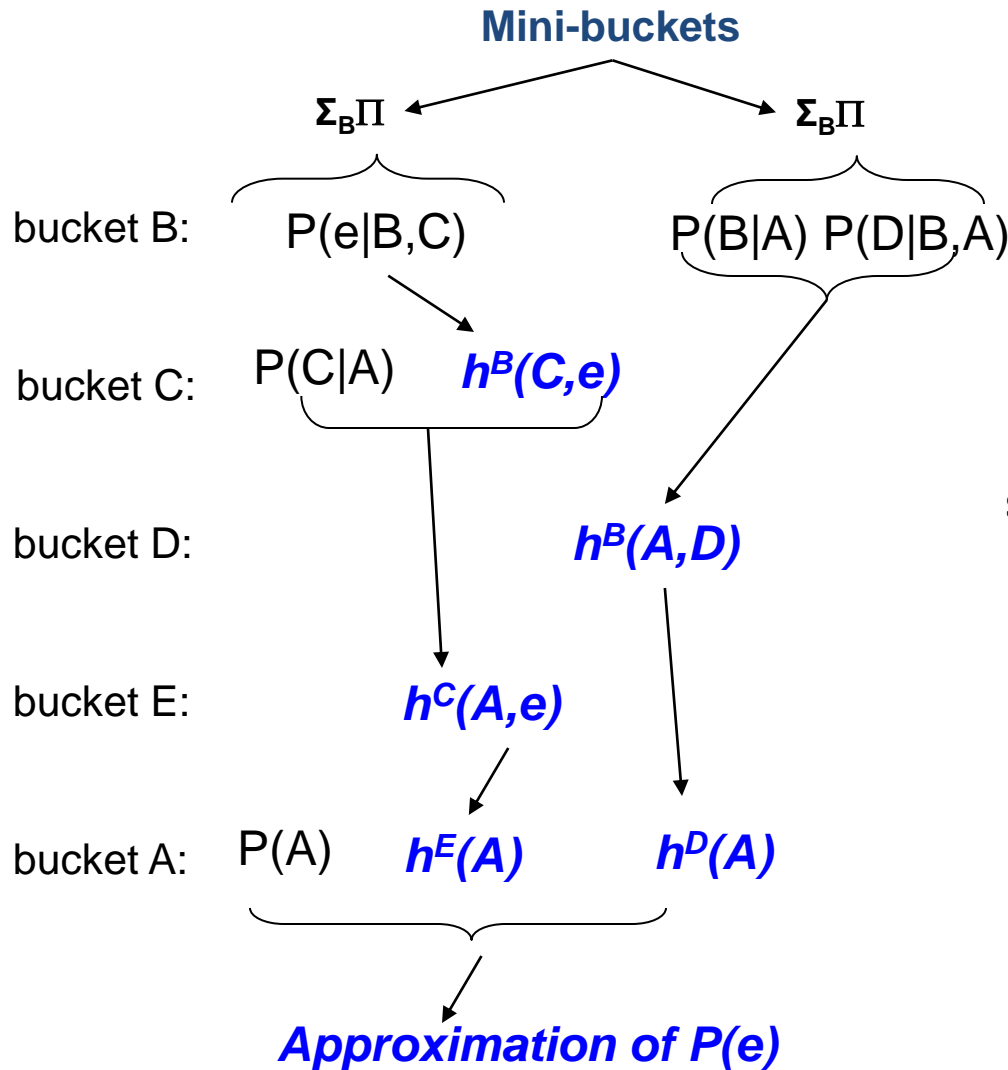
bucket E: $\mathbf{h^D(A, e)}$ Evidence bucket : ignore

bucket A: $P(A) \mathbf{h^E(A)}$ $\mathbf{Q(A) \propto P(A) \times h^E(A)}$
Sample : $\mathbf{A = a \leftarrow Q(A)}$

Mini-buckets: “local inference”

- Computation in a bucket is time and space exponential in the number of variables involved
- Therefore, partition functions in a bucket into “mini-buckets” on smaller number of variables
- Can control the size of each “mini-bucket”, yielding polynomial complexity.

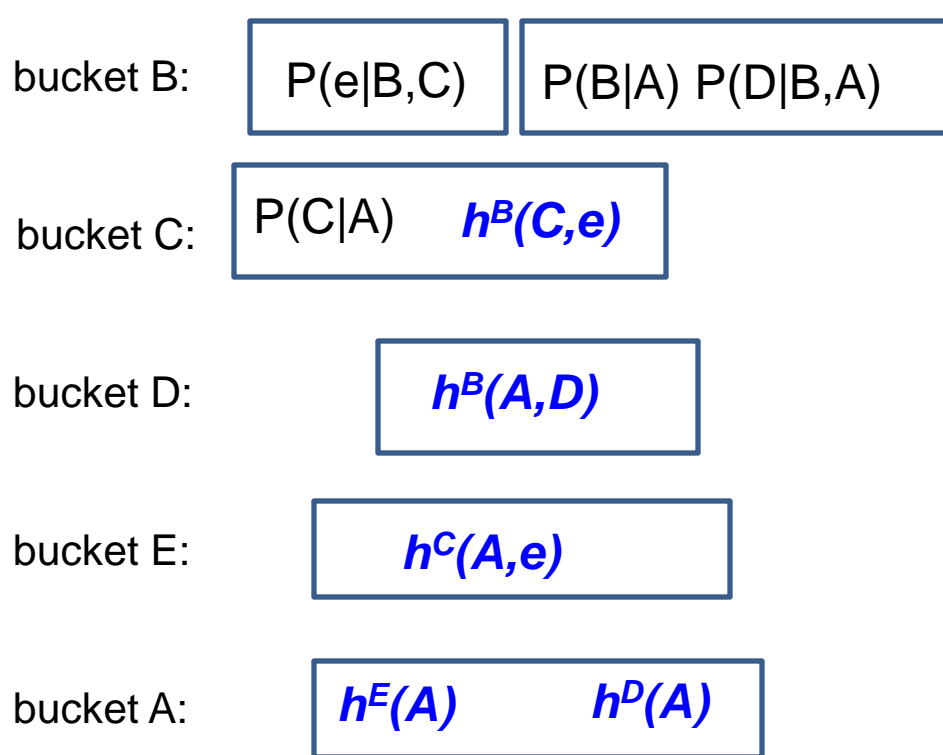
Mini-Bucket Elimination



Space and Time constraints:
 Maximum scope size of the new
 function generated should be
 bounded by 2

BE generates a function having scope
 size 3. So it cannot be used.

Sampling from the output of MBE



Sampling is same as in BE-sampling except that now we construct Q from a randomly selected “mini-bucket”

IJGP-Sampling

(Gogate and Dechter, 2005)

- Iterative Join Graph Propagation (IJGP)
 - A Generalized Belief Propagation scheme (Yedidia et al., 2002)
- IJGP yields better approximations of $P(X|E)$ than MBE
 - (Dechter, Kask and Mateescu, 2002)
- Output of IJGP is same as mini-bucket “clusters”
- **Currently the best performing IS scheme!**

Adaptive Importance Sampling

Initial Proposal = $Q^1(Z) = Q(Z_1) \times Q(Z_2 | pa(Z_2)) \times \dots \times Q(Z_n | pa(Z_n))$

$$\hat{P}(E = e) = 0$$

For $i = 1$ to k do

Generate samples z^1, \dots, z^N from Q^k

$$\hat{P}(E = e) = \hat{P}(E = e) + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N w_k(z^j)$$

$$\text{Update } Q^{k+1} = Q^k + \eta(k)[Q^k - Q']$$

End

$$\text{Return } \frac{\hat{P}(E = e)}{k}$$

Adaptive Importance Sampling

- General case
- Given k proposal distributions
- Take N samples out of each distribution
- Approximate $P(e)$

$$\hat{P}(e) = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^k [\textit{Avg} - \textit{weight} - \textit{jth} - \textit{proposal}]$$

Estimating $Q'(z)$

$$Q'(Z) = Q'(Z_1) \times Q'(Z_2 | pa(Z_2)) \times \dots \times Q'(Z_n | pa(Z_n))$$

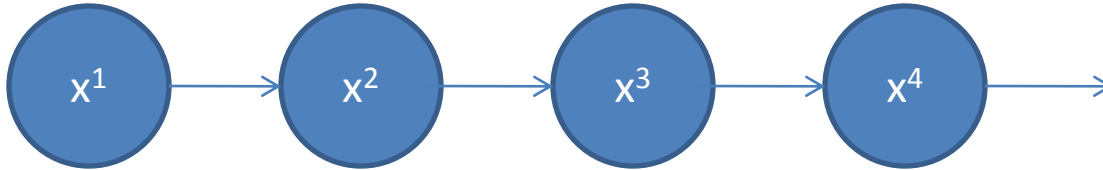
where each $Q'(Z_i | Z_1, \dots, Z_{i-1})$

is estimated by importance sampling

Overview

1. Probabilistic Reasoning/Graphical models
2. Importance Sampling
3. **Markov Chain Monte Carlo: Gibbs Sampling**
4. Sampling in presence of Determinism
5. Rao-Blackwellisation
6. AND/OR importance sampling

Markov Chain



- A **Markov chain** is a discrete random process with the property that the next state depends only on the current state (**Markov Property**):

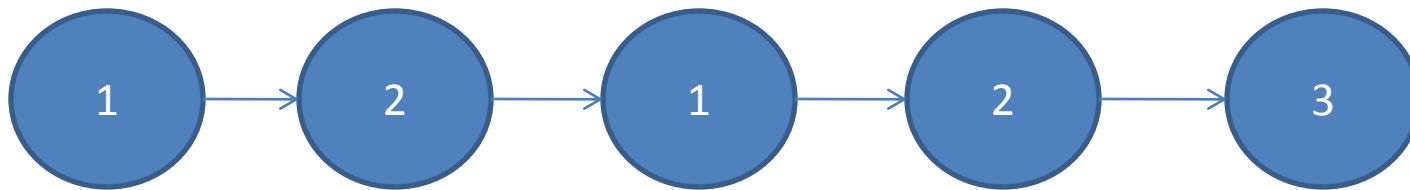
$$P(x^t \mid x^1, x^2, \dots, x^{t-1}) = P(x^t \mid x^{t-1})$$

- If $P(X^t \mid x^{t-1})$ does not depend on t (**time homogeneous**) and state space is finite, then it is often expressed as a **transition function** (aka

transition matrix) $\sum_x P(X = x) = 1$

Example: Drunkard's Walk

- a random walk on the number line where, at each step, the position may change by +1 or -1 with equal probability



$$D(X) = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$$

	$P(n-1)$	$P(n+1)$
n	0.5	0.5



transition matrix $P(X)$

Example: Weather Model



$$D(X) = \{rainy, sunny\}$$

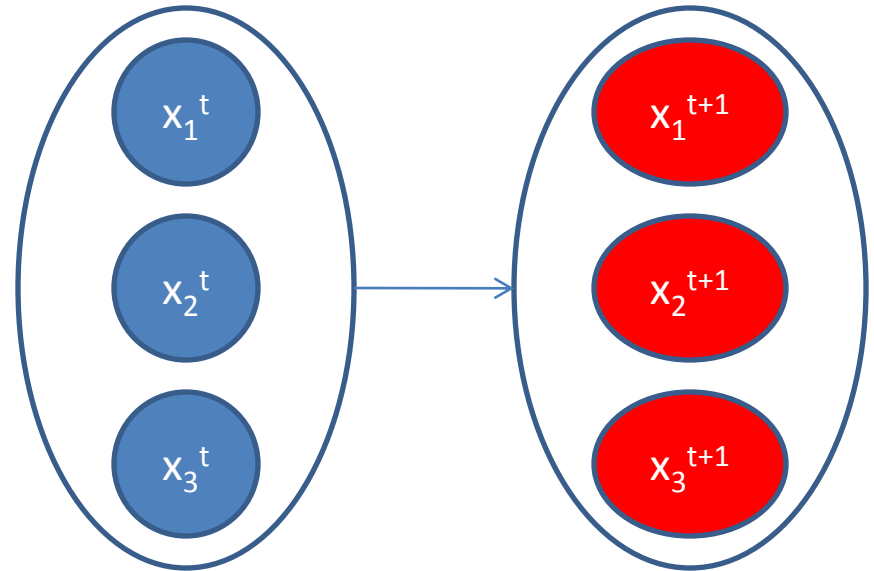
	$P(rainy)$	$P(sunny)$
<i>rainy</i>	0.9	0.1
<i>sunny</i>	0.5	0.5

↓
transition matrix $P(X)$

Multi-Variable System

$$X = \{X_1, X_2, X_3\}, D(X_i) = \textit{discrete, finite}$$

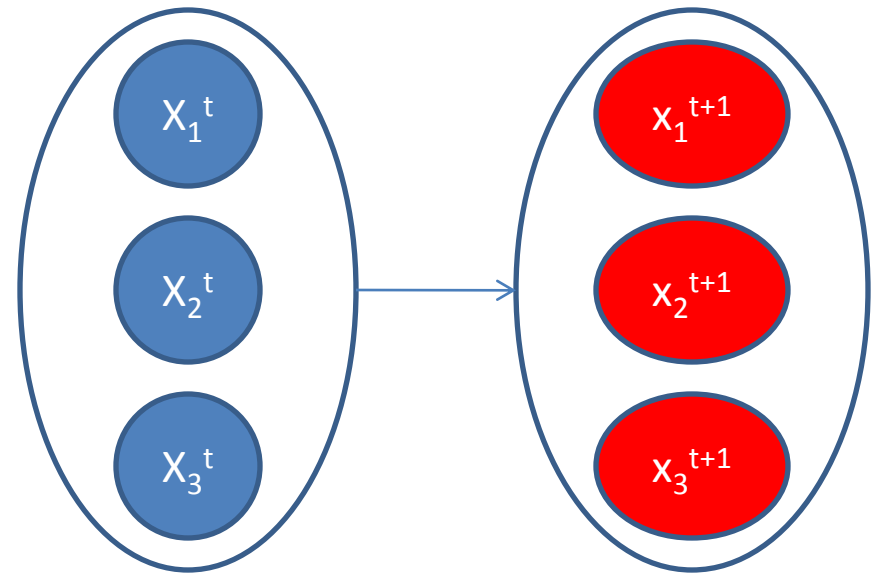
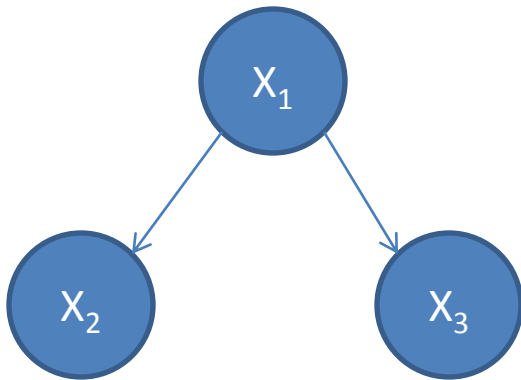
- state is an assignment of values to all the variables



$$x^t = \{x_1^t, x_2^t, \dots, x_n^t\}$$

Bayesian Network System

- Bayesian Network is a representation of the joint probability distribution over 2 or more variables



$$X = \{X_1, X_2, X_3\}$$

$$x^t = \{x_1^t, x_2^t, x_3^t\}$$

Stationary Distribution Existence

- If the Markov chain is time-homogeneous, then the vector $\pi(X)$ is a *stationary* distribution (aka *invariant* or *equilibrium* distribution, aka “fixed point”), if its entries sum up to 1 and satisfy:

$$\pi(x_i) = \sum_{x_j \in D(X)} \pi(x_j) P(x_i | x_j)$$

- Finite state space Markov chain has a unique stationary distribution if and only if:
 - The chain is irreducible
 - All of its states are positive recurrent

Irreducible

- A state χ is *irreducible* if under the transition rule one has nonzero probability of moving from χ to any other state and then coming back in a finite number of steps
- If one state is irreducible, then all the states must be irreducible

(Liu, Ch. 12, pp. 249, Def. 12.1.1)

Recurrent

- A state χ is *recurrent* if the chain returns to χ with probability 1
 - Let $M(\chi)$ be the expected number of steps to return to state χ
 - State χ is *positive recurrent* if $M(\chi)$ is finite
- The recurrent states in a finite state chain are positive recurrent .

Stationary Distribution Convergence

- Consider infinite Markov chain:

$$P^{(n)} = P(x^n | x^0) = P^0 P^n$$

- If the chain is both *irreducible* and *aperiodic*, then:

$$\pi = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P^{(n)}$$

- Initial state is not important in the limit
“The most useful feature of a “good” Markov chain is its fast forgetfulness of its past...”

(Liu, Ch. 12.1)

Aperiodic

- Define $d(i) = \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \text{it is possible to go from } i \text{ to } i \text{ in } n \text{ steps}\}$. Here, g.c.d. means the greatest common divisor of the integers in the set. If $d(i)=1$ for $\forall i$, then chain is *aperiodic*
- *Positive recurrent, aperiodic* states are *ergodic*

Markov Chain Monte Carlo

- How do we estimate $P(X)$, e.g., $P(X|e)$?
- Generate samples that form Markov Chain with stationary distribution $\pi=P(X|e)$
- Estimate π from samples (observed states):
visited states x^0, \dots, x^n can be viewed as “samples”
from distribution π

$$\bar{\pi}(x) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \delta(x, x^t)$$

$$\pi = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \bar{\pi}(x)$$

MCMC Summary

- Convergence is guaranteed in the limit
- Initial state is not important, but... typically, we throw away first K samples - “**burn-in**”
- Samples are dependent, not i.i.d.
- Convergence (*mixing rate*) may be slow
- The stronger correlation between states, the slower convergence!

Gibbs Sampling (Geman&Geman,1984)

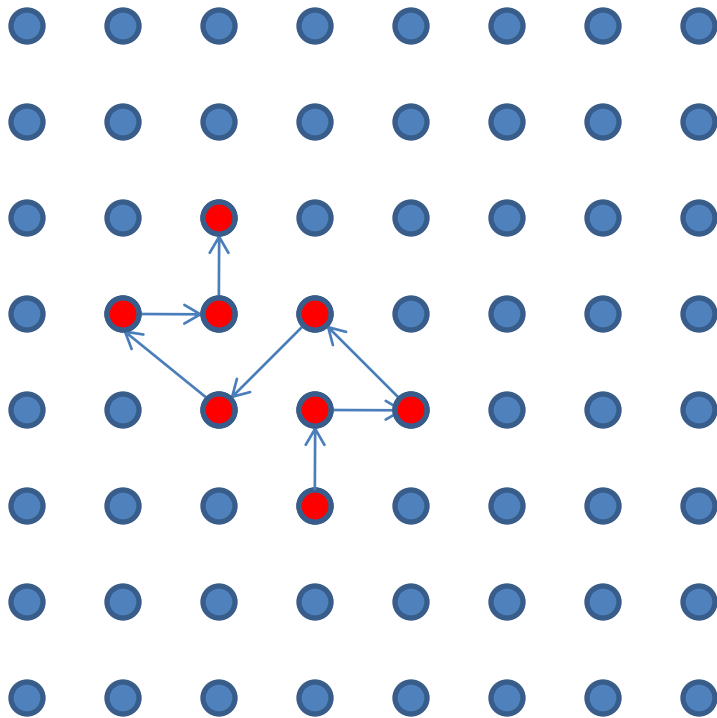
- **Gibbs sampler** is an algorithm to generate a sequence of samples from the **joint probability distribution** of two or more random variables
- Sample new variable value one variable at a time from the variable's conditional distribution:

$$P(X_i) = P(X_i | x_1^t, \dots, x_{i-1}^t, x_{i+1}^t, \dots, x_n^t) = P(X_i | x^t \setminus x_i)$$

- Samples form a Markov chain with stationary distribution $P(X/e)$

Gibbs Sampling: Illustration

The process of Gibbs sampling can be understood as a *random walk* in the space of all instantiations of $X=x$ (remember drunkard's walk):



In one step we can reach instantiations that differ from current one by value assignment to at most one variable (assume randomized choice of variables X_i).

Ordered Gibbs Sampler

Generate sample x^{t+1} from x^t :

Process
All
Variables
In Some
Order



$$X_1 = x_1^{t+1} \leftarrow P(X_1 | x_2^t, x_3^t, \dots, x_N^t, e)$$

$$X_2 = x_2^{t+1} \leftarrow P(X_2 | x_1^{t+1}, x_3^t, \dots, x_N^t, e)$$

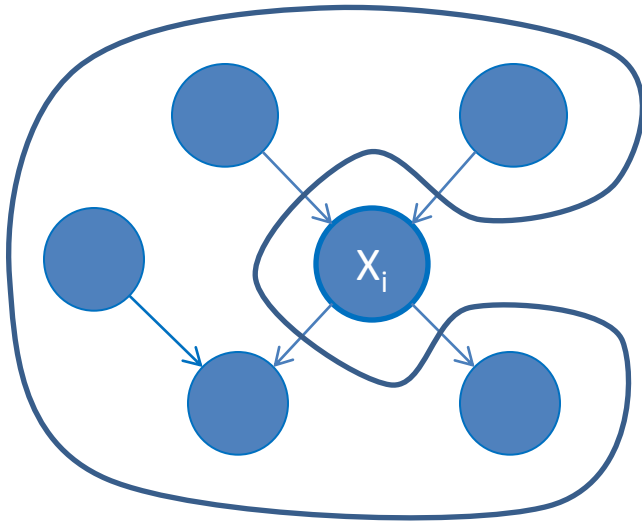
...

$$X_N = x_N^{t+1} \leftarrow P(X_N | x_1^{t+1}, x_2^{t+1}, \dots, x_{N-1}^{t+1}, e)$$

In short, for $i=1$ to N :

$$X_i = x_i^{t+1} \leftarrow \text{sampled from } P(X_i | x^t \setminus x_i, e)$$

Transition Probabilities in BN



Given *Markov blanket* (parents, children, and their parents), X_i is independent of all other nodes

Markov blanket:

$$\text{markov}(X_i) = pa_i \cup ch_i \cup \left(\bigcup_{X_j \in ch_j} pa_j \right)$$

$$P(X_i | x^t \setminus x_i) = P(X_i | \text{markov}_i^t):$$

$$P(x_i | x^t \setminus x_i) \propto P(x_i | pa_i) \prod_{X_j \in ch_i} P(x_j | pa_j)$$

Computation is linear in the size of Markov blanket!

Ordered Gibbs Sampling Algorithm (Pearl, 1988)

Input: $X, E=e$

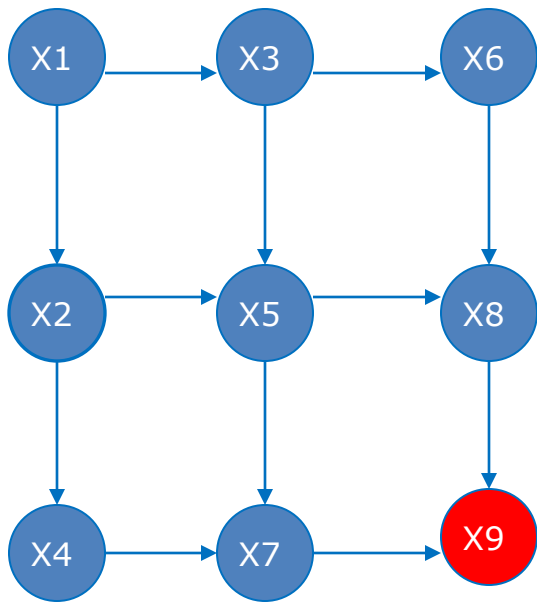
Output: T samples $\{x^t\}$

Fix evidence $E=e$, initialize x^0 at random

1. For $t = 1$ to T (compute samples)
2. For $i = 1$ to N (loop through variables)
3. $x_i^{t+1} \leftarrow P(X_i \mid \text{markov}_i^t)$
4. End For
5. End For

Gibbs Sampling Example - BN

$$X = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_9\}, E = \{X_9\}$$



$$X_1 = \mathbf{x}_1^0$$

$$X_6 = \mathbf{x}_6^0$$

$$X_2 = \mathbf{x}_2^0$$

$$X_7 = \mathbf{x}_7^0$$

$$X_3 = \mathbf{x}_3^0$$

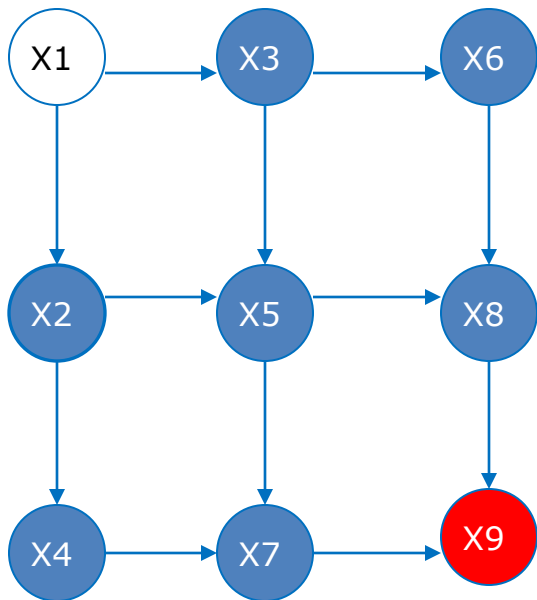
$$X_8 = \mathbf{x}_8^0$$

$$X_4 = \mathbf{x}_4^0$$

$$X_5 = \mathbf{x}_5^0$$

Gibbs Sampling Example - BN

$$X = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_9\}, E = \{X_9\}$$



$$x_1^1 \leftarrow P(X_1 \mid x_2^0, \dots, x_8^0, x_9)$$

$$x_2^1 \leftarrow P(X_2 \mid x_1^1, \dots, x_8^0, x_9)$$

...

Answering Queries $P(x_i | e) = ?$

- **Method 1:** count # of samples where $X_i = x_i$ (*histogram estimator*):

$$\bar{P}(X_i = x_i) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \delta(x_i, x^t)$$

Dirac delta f-n

- **Method 2:** average probability (*mixture estimator*):

$$\bar{P}(X_i = x_i) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T P(X_i = x_i | \text{markov}_i^t)$$

- Mixture estimator converges faster (consider estimates for the unobserved values of X_i ; prove via Rao-Blackwell theorem)

Rao-Blackwell Theorem

Rao-Blackwell Theorem: Let random variable set X be composed of two groups of variables, R and L . Then, for the joint distribution $\pi(R,L)$ and function g , the following result applies

$$\text{Var}[E\{g(R) | L\}] \leq \text{Var}[g(R)]$$

for a function of interest g , e.g., the mean or covariance (*Casella&Robert,1996, Liu et. al. 1995*).

- theorem makes a weak promise, but works well in practice!
- improvement depends the choice of R and L

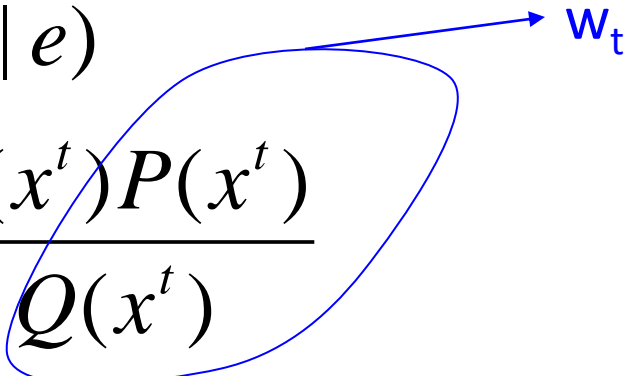
Importance vs. Gibbs

Gibbs: $x^t \leftarrow \hat{P}(X | e)$

$$\hat{P}(X | e) \xrightarrow{T \rightarrow \infty} P(X | e)$$

$$\hat{g}(X) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T g(x^t)$$

Importance: $X^t \leftarrow Q(X | e)$

$$\bar{g} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \frac{g(x^t) P(x^t)}{Q(x^t)}$$


Gibbs Sampling: Convergence

- Sample from $\bar{P}(X|e) \rightarrow P(X|e)$
- Converges iff chain is irreducible and ergodic
- Intuition - must be able to explore all states:
 - if X_i and X_j are strongly correlated, $X_i=0 \leftrightarrow X_j=0$, then, **we cannot explore states with $X_i=1$ and $X_j=1$**
- All conditions are satisfied when all probabilities are positive
- Convergence rate can be characterized by the second eigen-value of transition matrix

Gibbs: Speeding Convergence

Reduce dependence between samples
(autocorrelation)

- Skip samples
- Randomize Variable Sampling Order
- Employ blocking (grouping)
- Multiple chains

Reduce variance (cover in the next section)

Blocking Gibbs Sampler

- Sample several variables **together, as a block**
- **Example:** Given three variables X, Y, Z , with domains of size 2, group Y and Z together to form a variable $W = \{Y, Z\}$ with domain size 4. Then, given sample (x^t, y^t, z^t) , compute next sample:

$$x^{t+1} \leftarrow P(X \mid y^t, z^t) = P(w^t)$$

$$(y^{t+1}, z^{t+1}) = w^{t+1} \leftarrow P(Y, Z \mid x^{t+1})$$

- + Can improve convergence greatly when two variables are strongly correlated!
- Domain of the block variable grows exponentially with the #variables in a block!

Gibbs: Multiple Chains

- Generate M chains of size K
- Each chain produces independent estimate P_m :

$$\bar{P}_m(x_i | e) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{t=1}^K P(x_i | x^t \setminus x_i)$$

- Estimate $P(x_i | e)$ as average of $P_m(x_i | e)$:

$$\hat{P}(\bullet) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^M P_m(\bullet)$$

Treat P_m as independent random variables.

Gibbs Sampling Summary

- Markov Chain Monte Carlo method

(Gelfand and Smith, 1990, Smith and Roberts, 1993, Tierney, 1994)

- Samples are **dependent**, form Markov Chain
- Sample from $\bar{P}(X | e)$ which **converges** to $\bar{P}(X | e)$
- Guaranteed to converge when all $P > 0$
- Methods to improve convergence:
 - Blocking
 - Rao-Blackwellised

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Outline

- Rejection problem
- Backtrack-free distribution
 - Constructing it in practice
- SampleSearch
 - Construct the backtrack-free distribution on the fly.
- Approximate estimators
- Experiments

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Rejection problem

$$\hat{P}(e) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{P(z^i, e)}{Q(z^i)}$$

- Importance sampling requirement
 - $P(z, e) > 0 \rightarrow Q(z) > 0$
- When $P(z, e) = 0$ but $Q(z) > 0$, the weight of the sample is zero and it is rejected.
- The probability of generating a rejected sample should be very small.
 - Otherwise the estimate will be zero.

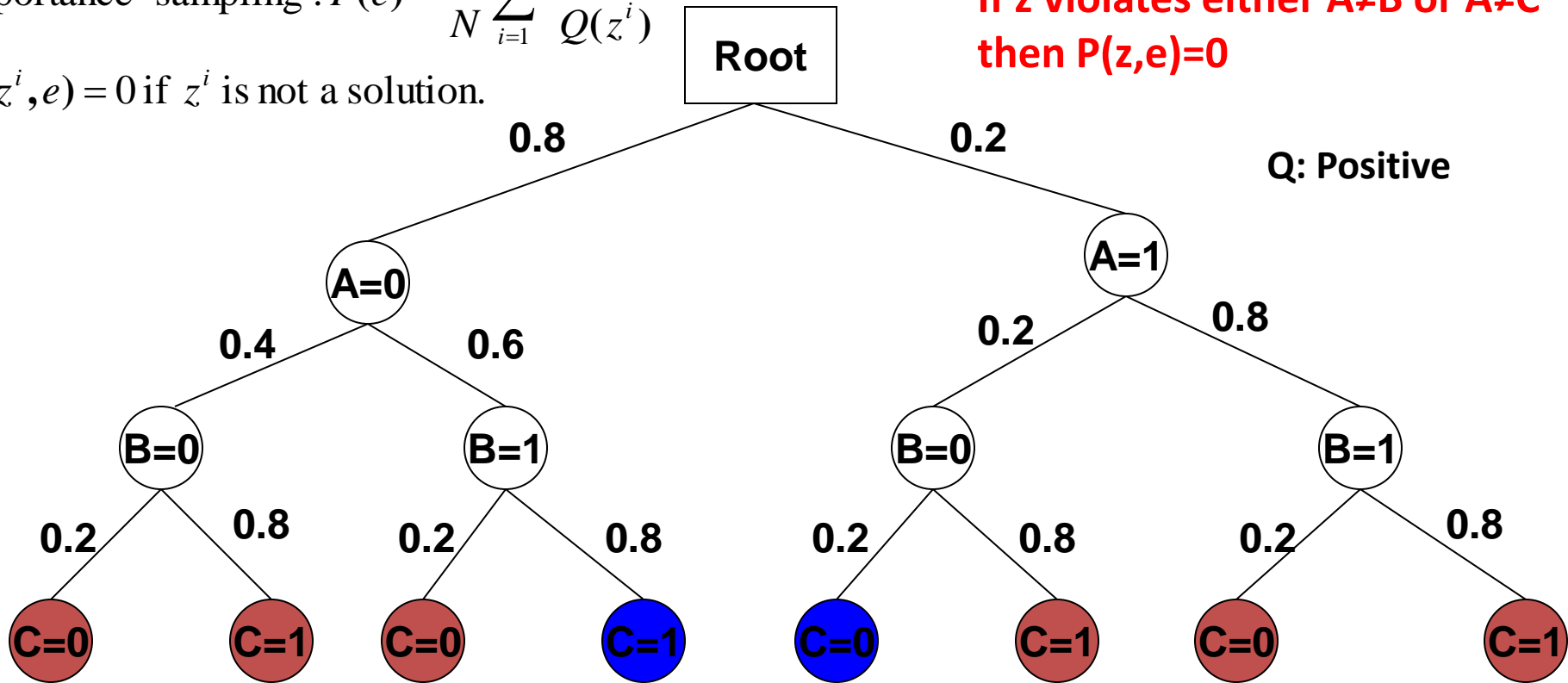
Rejection Problem

Constraints: $A \neq B$ $A \neq C$

If z violates either $A \neq B$ or $A \neq C$
then $P(z, e) = 0$

Importance sampling: $\hat{P}(e) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{P(z^i, e)}{Q(z^i)}$

$P(z^i, e) = 0$ if z^i is not a solution.



All Blue leaves correspond to solutions i.e. $g(x) > 0$

All Red leaves correspond to non-solutions i.e. $g(x) = 0$

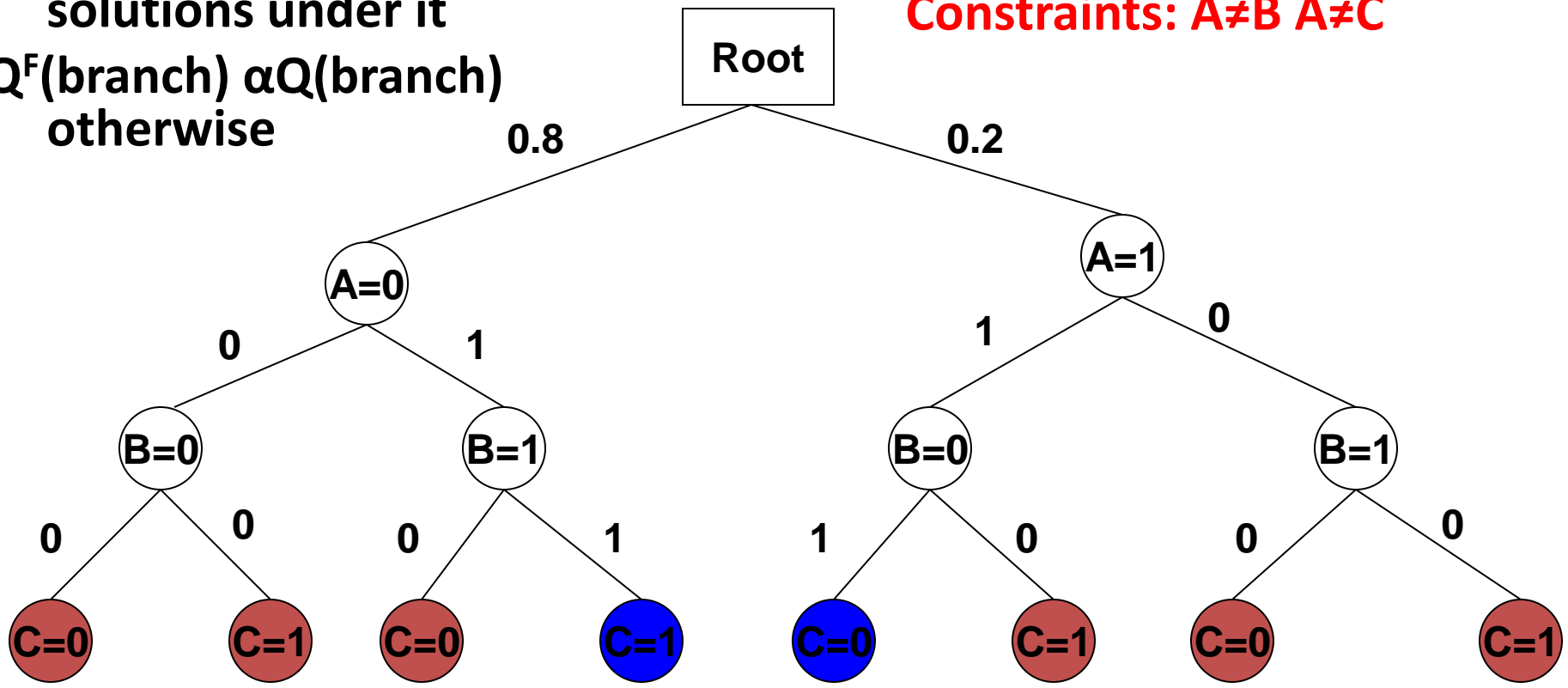
Outline

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Backtrack-free distribution: A rejection-free distribution

$Q^F(\text{branch})=0$ if no solutions under it
 $Q^F(\text{branch}) \propto Q(\text{branch})$ otherwise

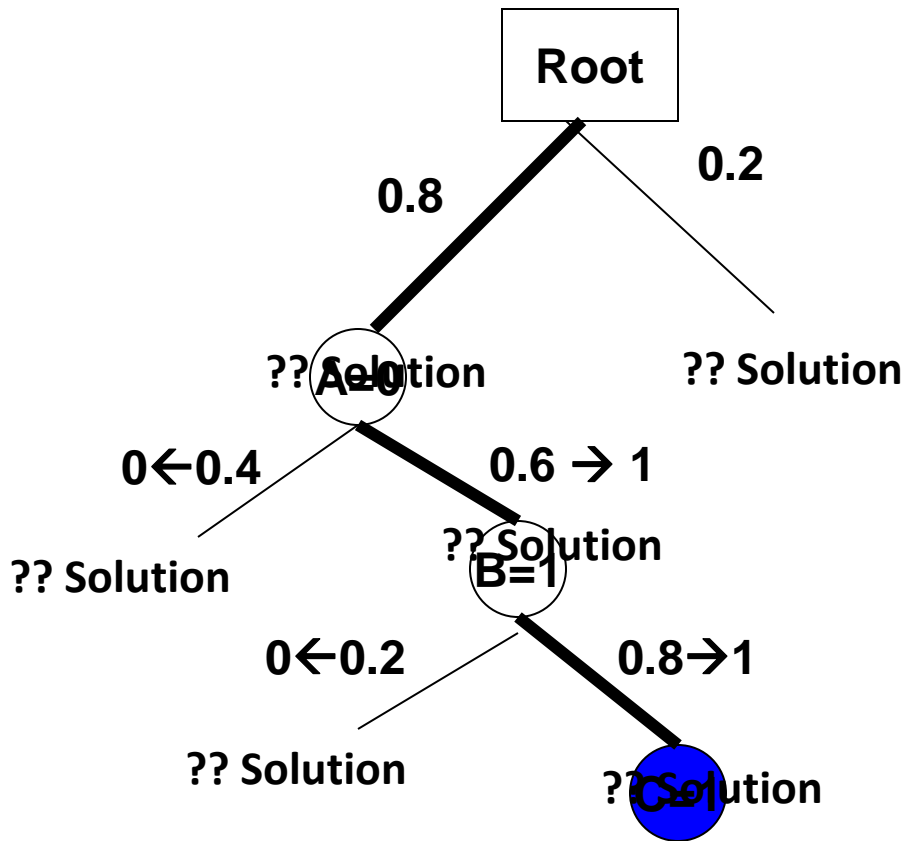
Constraints: $A \neq B$ $A \neq C$



All Blue leaves correspond to solutions i.e. $g(x) > 0$
All Red leaves correspond to non-solutions i.e. $g(x) = 0$

Generating samples from Q^F

Constraints: $A \neq B$ $A \neq C$



$Q^F(\text{branch})=0$ if no solutions under it

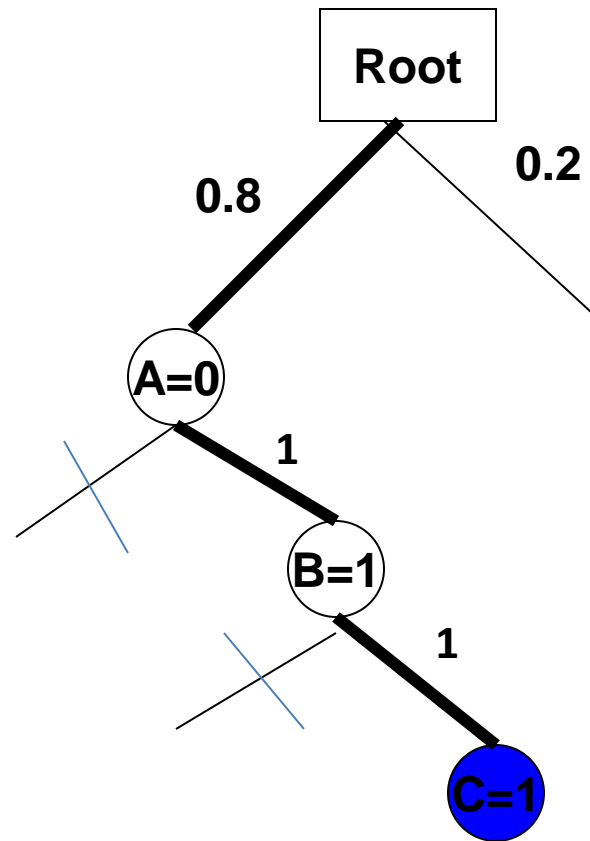
$Q^F(\text{branch}) \propto Q(\text{branch})$ otherwise

- Invoke an oracle at each branch.
 - Oracle returns True if there is a solution under a branch
 - False, otherwise

Generating samples from Q^F

Constraints: $A \neq B$ $A \neq C$

- Oracles
 - Adaptive consistency as pre-processing step
 - Constant time table look-up
 - Exponential in the treewidth of the constraint portion.
 - A complete CSP solver
 - Need to run it at each assignment.



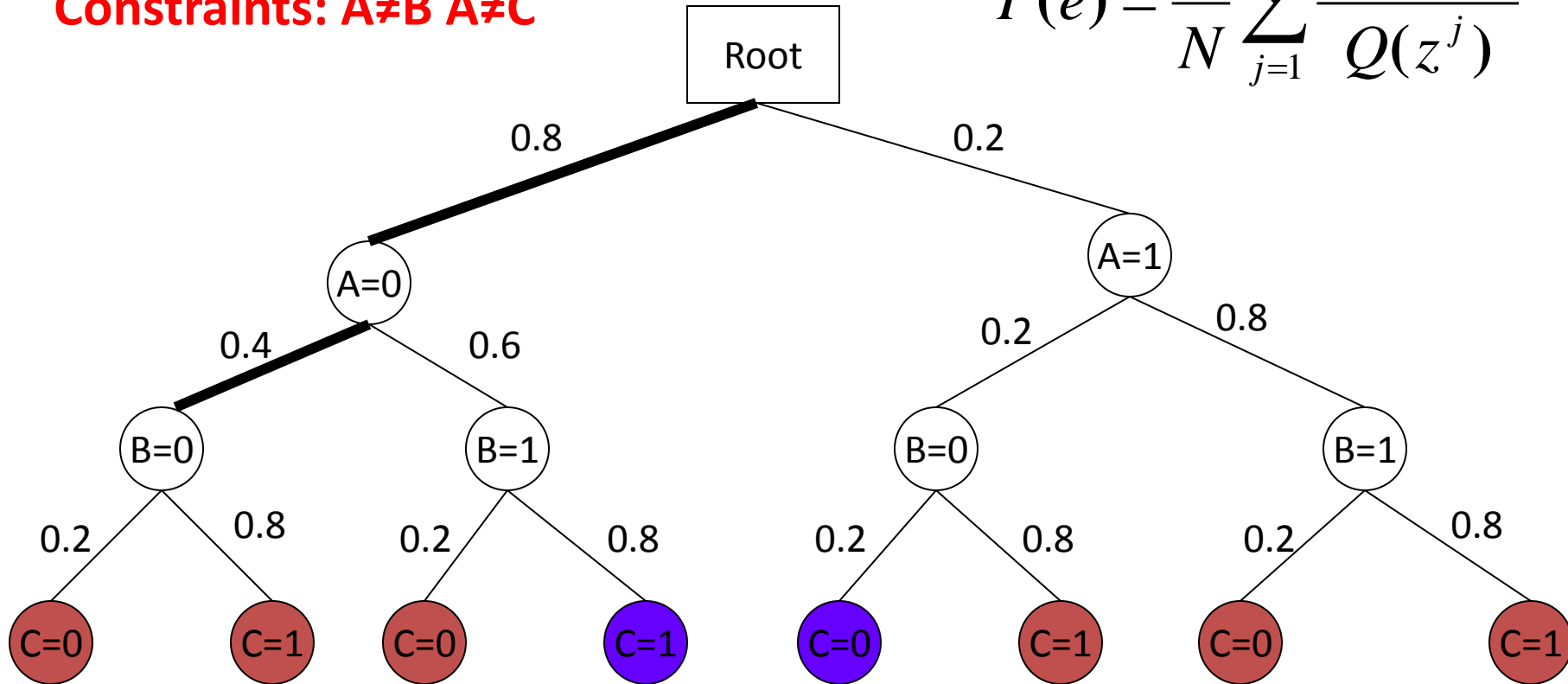
Outline

- Rejection problem
- Backtrack-free distribution
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- **SampleSearch**
 - **Construct the backtrack-free distribution on the fly.**
- Approximate estimators
- Experiments

Algorithm SampleSearch

Constraints: $A \neq B$ $A \neq C$

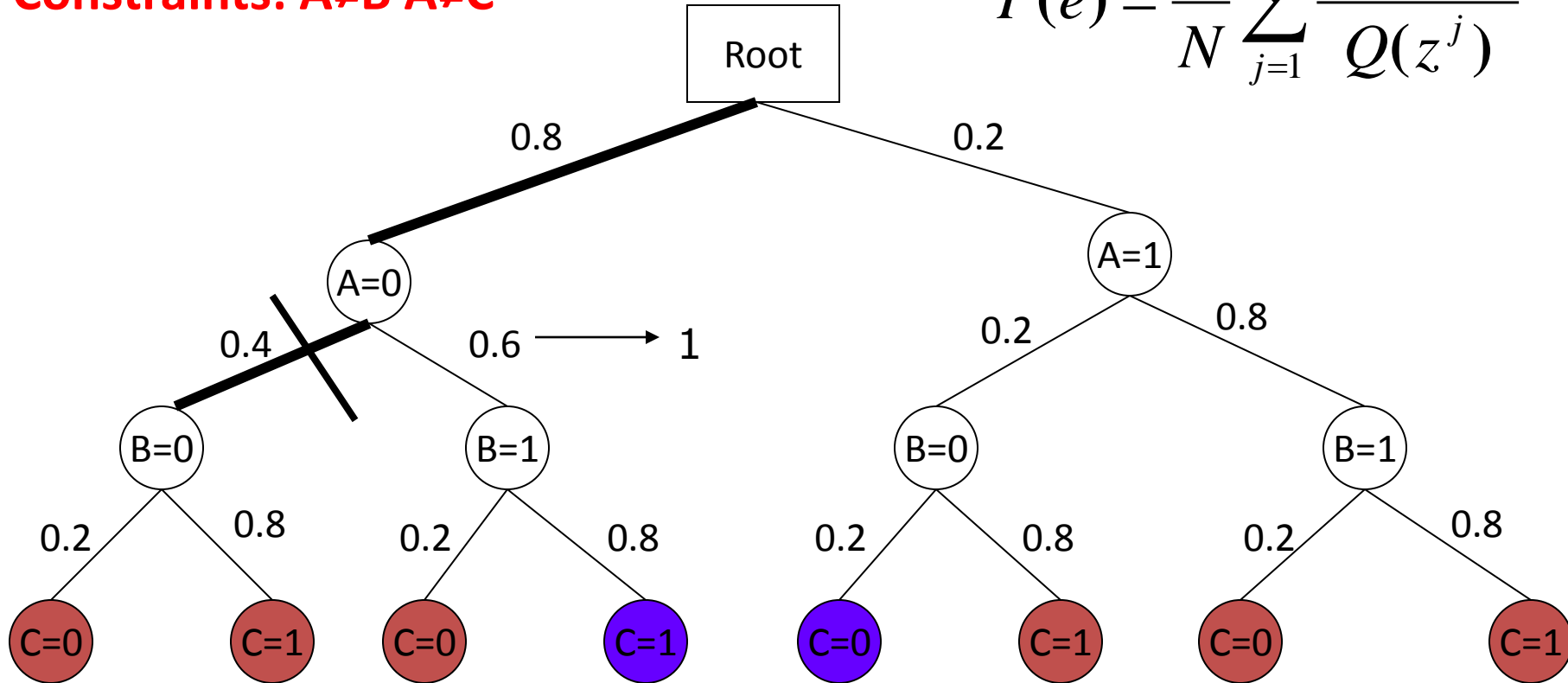
$$\hat{P}(e) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{P(z^j, e)}{Q(z^j)}$$



Algorithm SampleSearch

Constraints: $A \neq B$ $A \neq C$

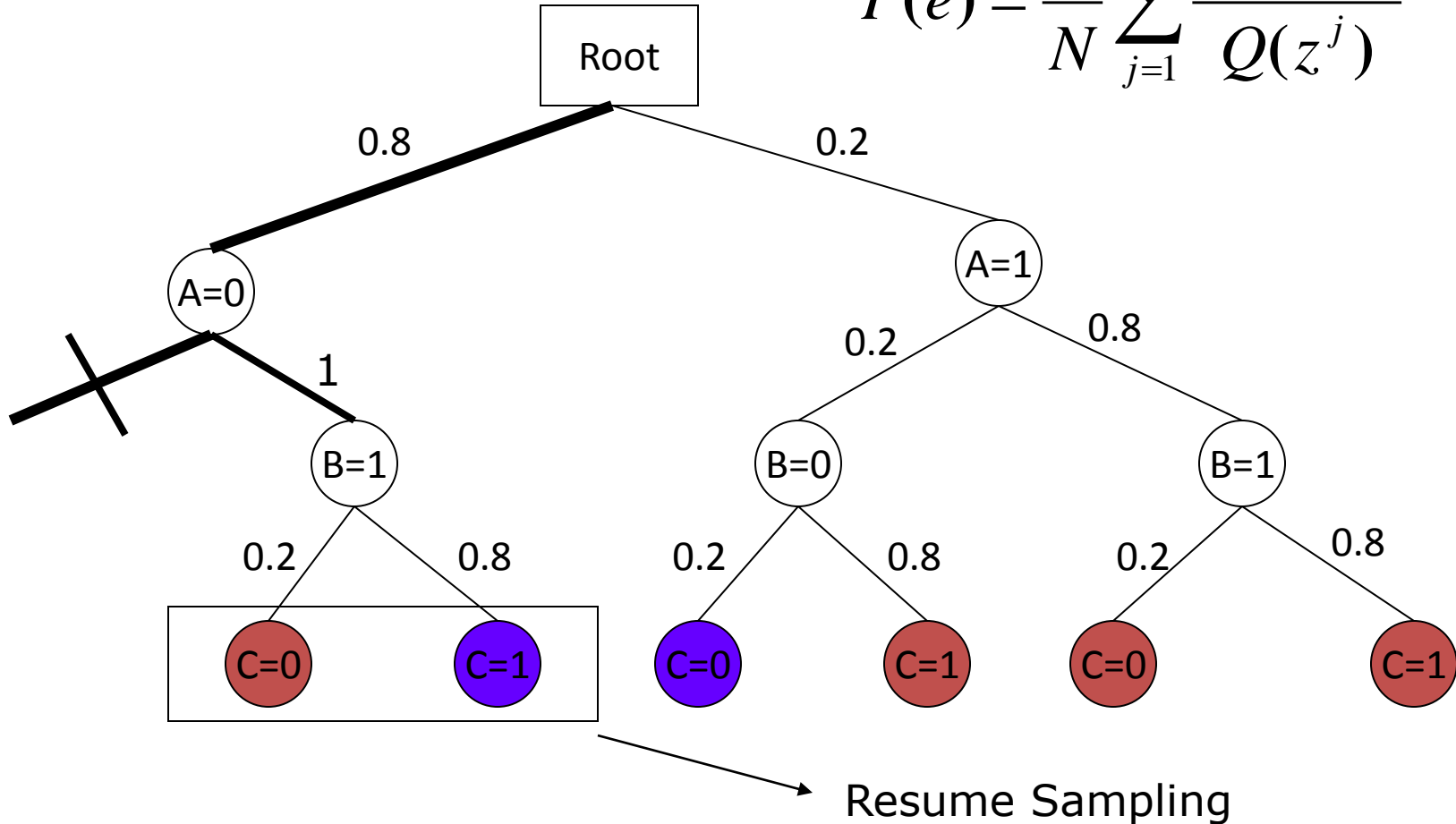
$$\hat{P}(e) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{P(z^j, e)}{Q(z^j)}$$



Algorithm SampleSearch

Constraints: $A \neq B$ $A \neq C$

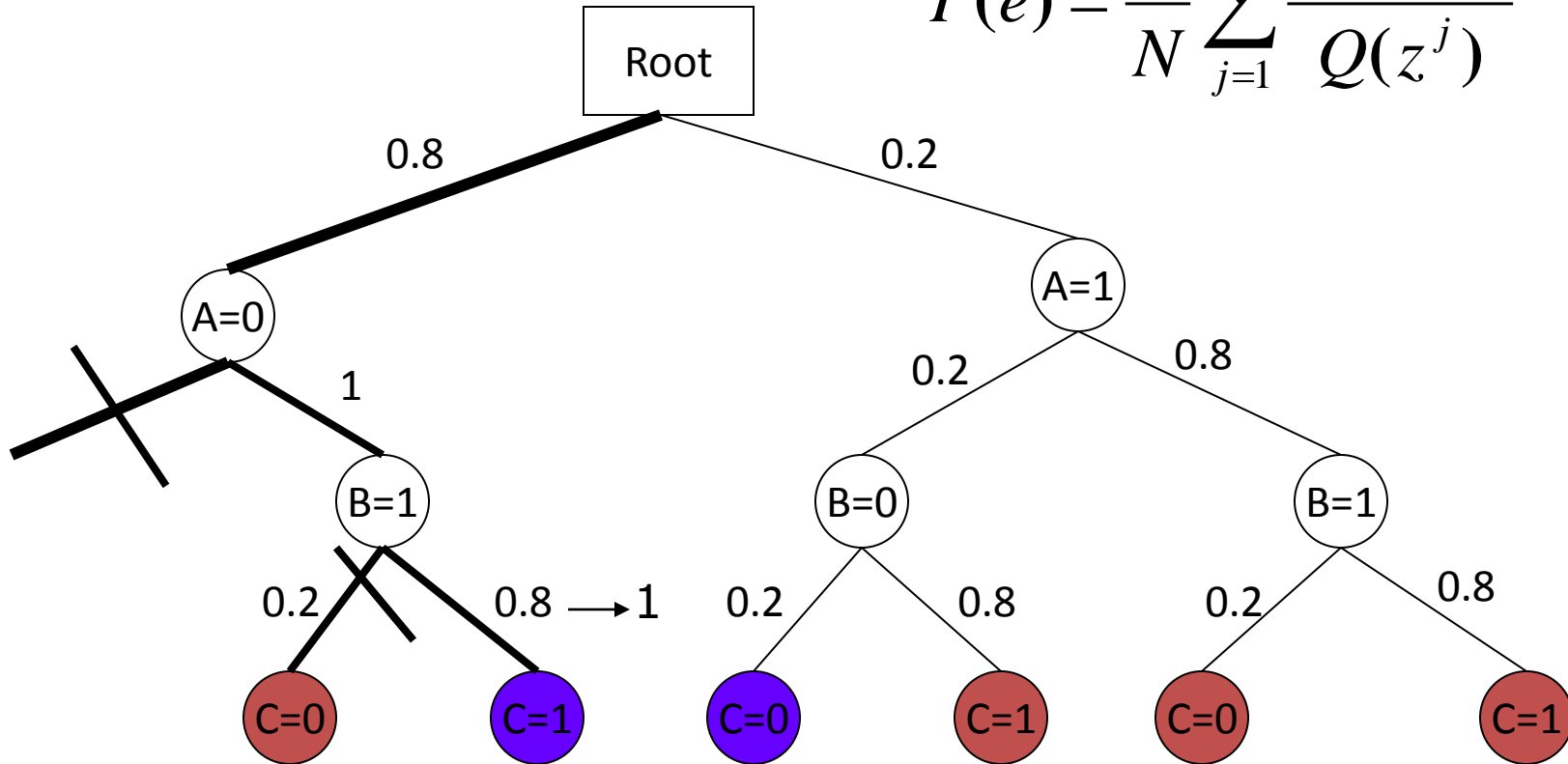
$$\hat{P}(e) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{P(z^j, e)}{Q(z^j)}$$



Algorithm SampleSearch

Constraints: $A \neq B$ $A \neq C$

$$\hat{P}(e) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{P(z^j, e)}{Q(z^j)}$$



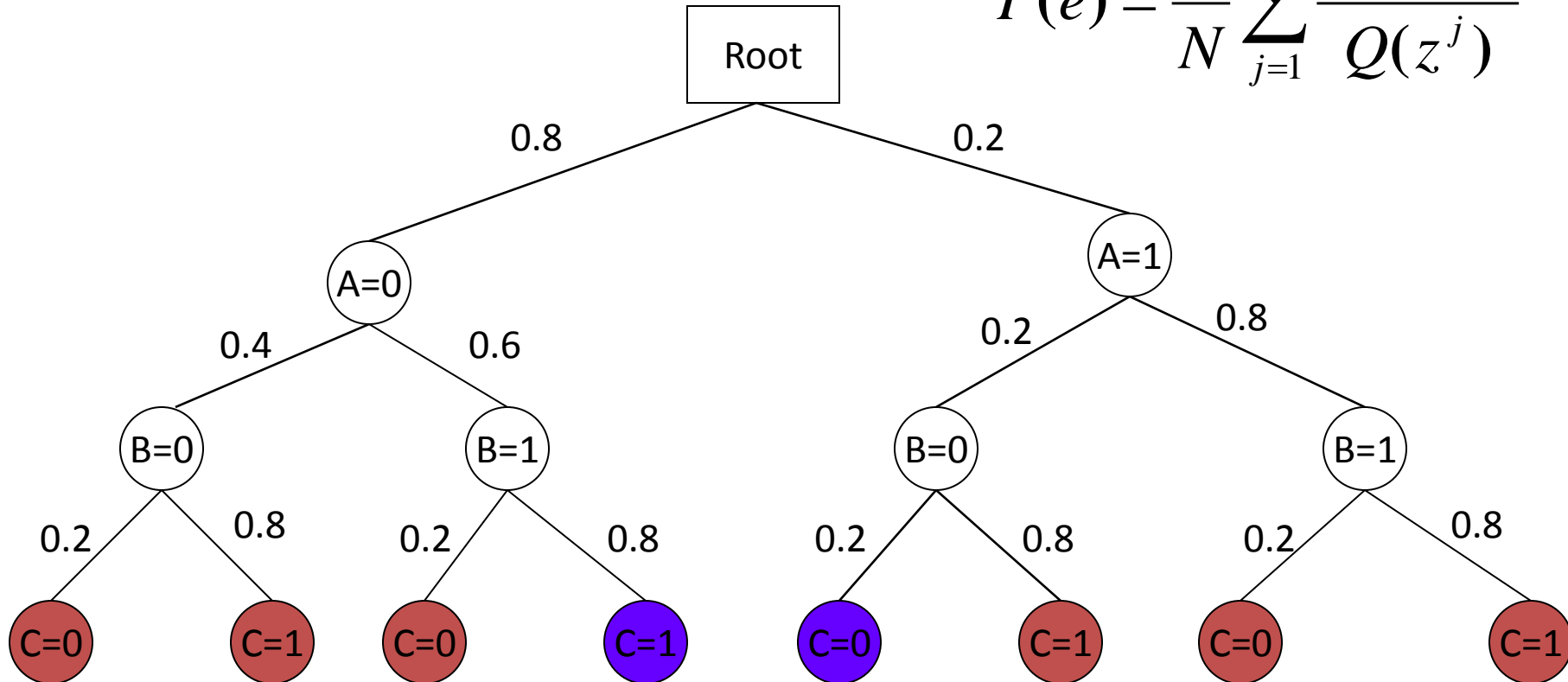
Until $P(\text{sample}, e) > 0$

Constraint Violated

Generate more Samples

Constraints: $A \neq B$ $A \neq C$

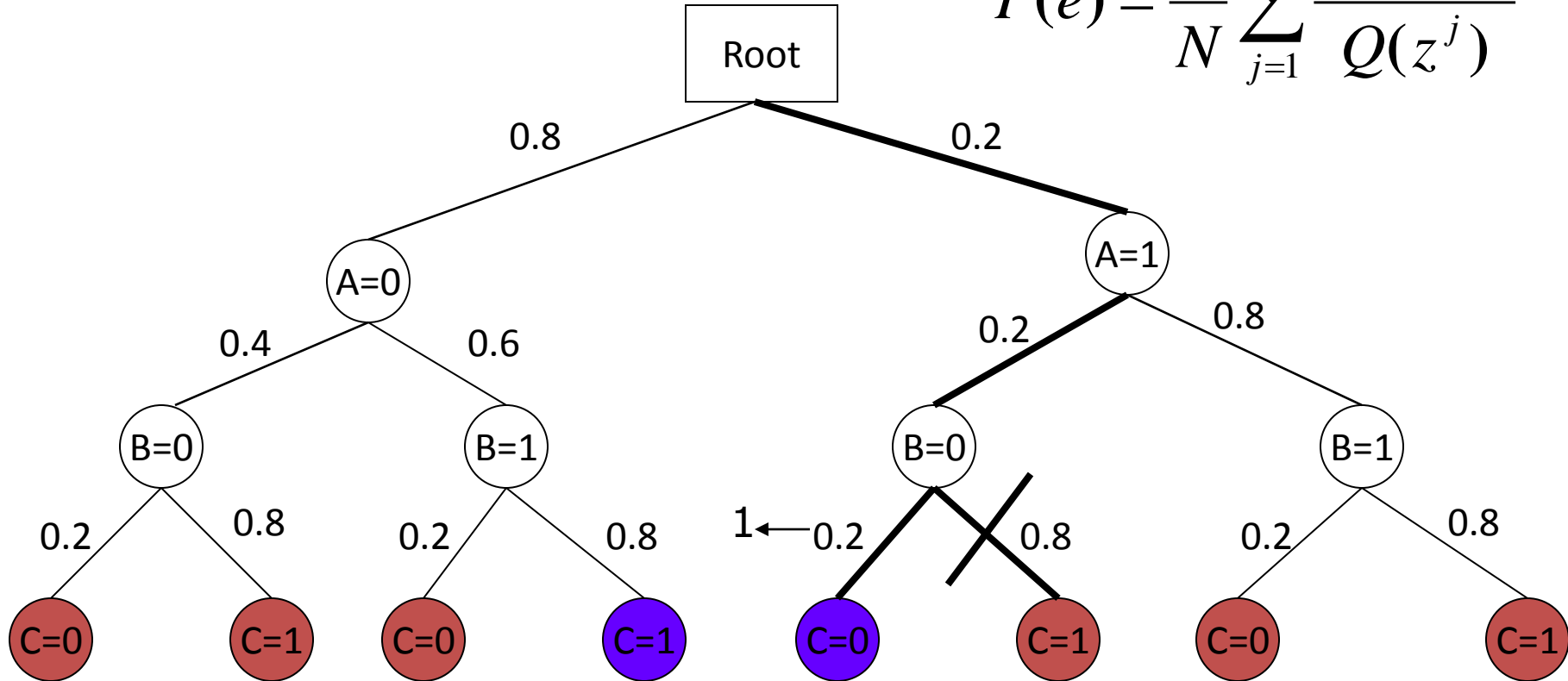
$$\hat{P}(e) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{P(z^j, e)}{Q(z^j)}$$



Generate more Samples

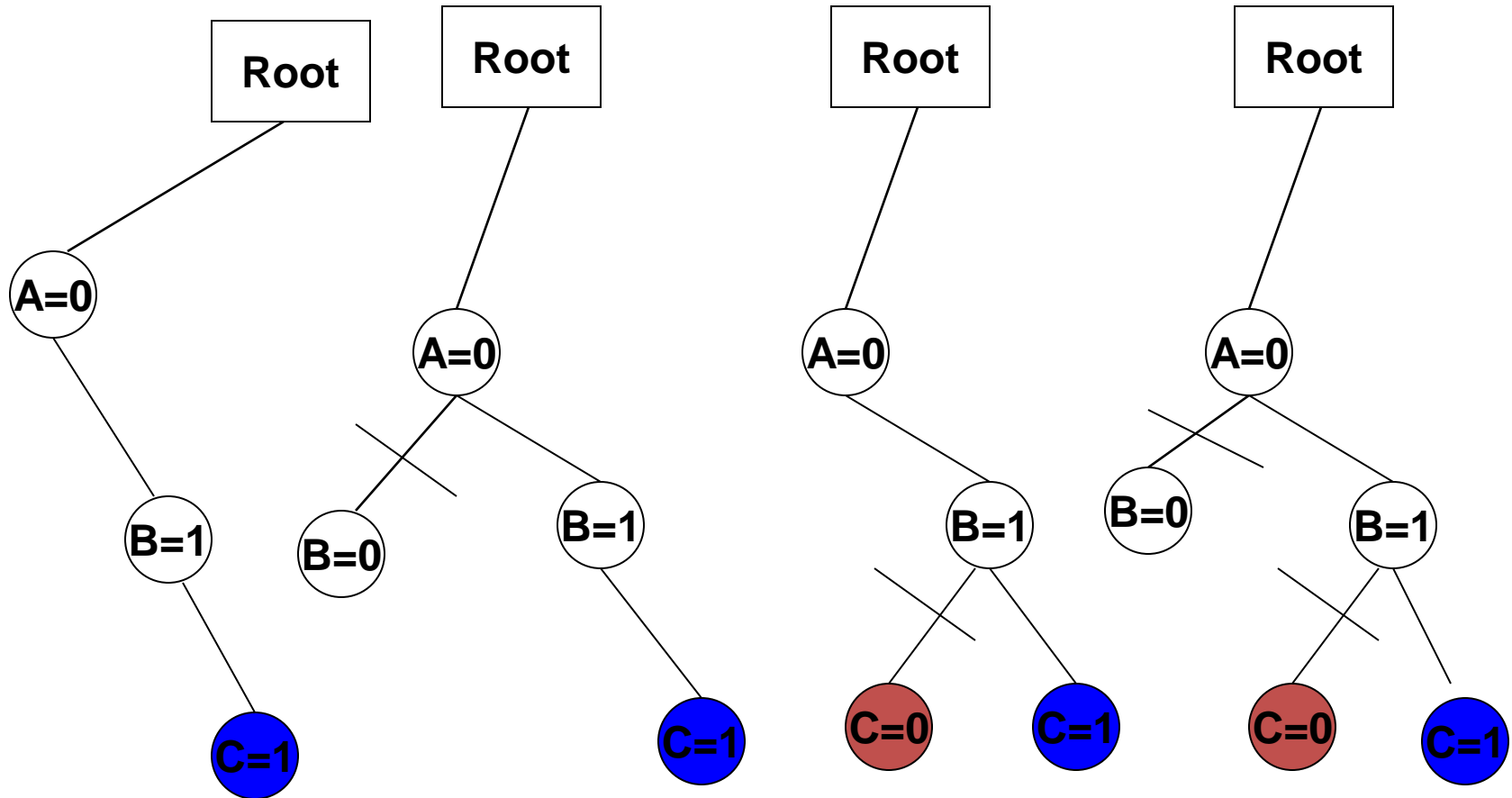
Constraints: $A \neq B$ $A \neq C$

$$\hat{P}(e) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{P(z^j, e)}{Q(z^j)}$$



Traces of SampleSearch

Constraints: $A \neq B$ $A \neq C$



SampleSearch: Sampling Distribution

- Problem: Due to Search, the samples are no longer i.i.d. from Q .

$$\bar{P}(e) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{P(z^j, e)}{Q(z^j)}, \quad E_Q[\bar{P}(e)] \neq P(e)$$

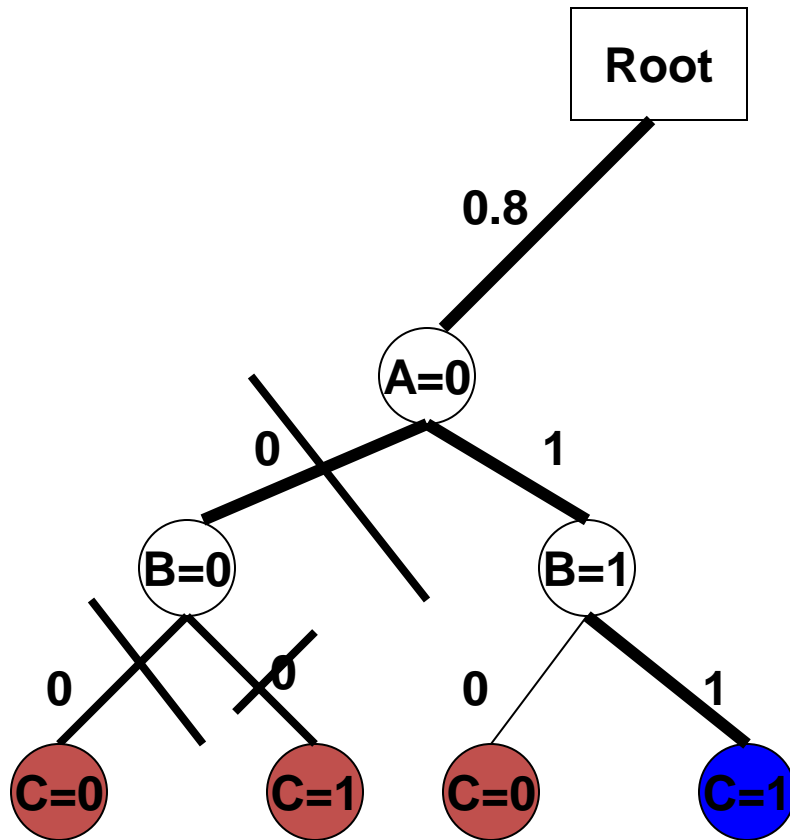
- Thm: SampleSearch generates i.i.d. samples from the **backtrack-free distribution**

$$\hat{P}_F(e) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{P(z^j, e)}{Q^F(z^j)}, \quad E_{Q^F}[\hat{P}_F(e)] = P(e)$$

The Sampling distribution Q^F of SampleSearch

$$\hat{P}(e) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{P(z^j, e)}{Q(z^j)}$$

Constraints: $A \neq B$ $A \neq C$



Backtrack-free distribution

What is probability of generating $A=0$?

$$Q^F(A=0)=0.8$$

Why? SampleSearch is systematic

What is probability of generating $(A=0, B=1)$?

$$Q^F(B=1|A=0)=1$$

Why? SampleSearch is systematic

What is probability of generating $(A=0, B=0)$?

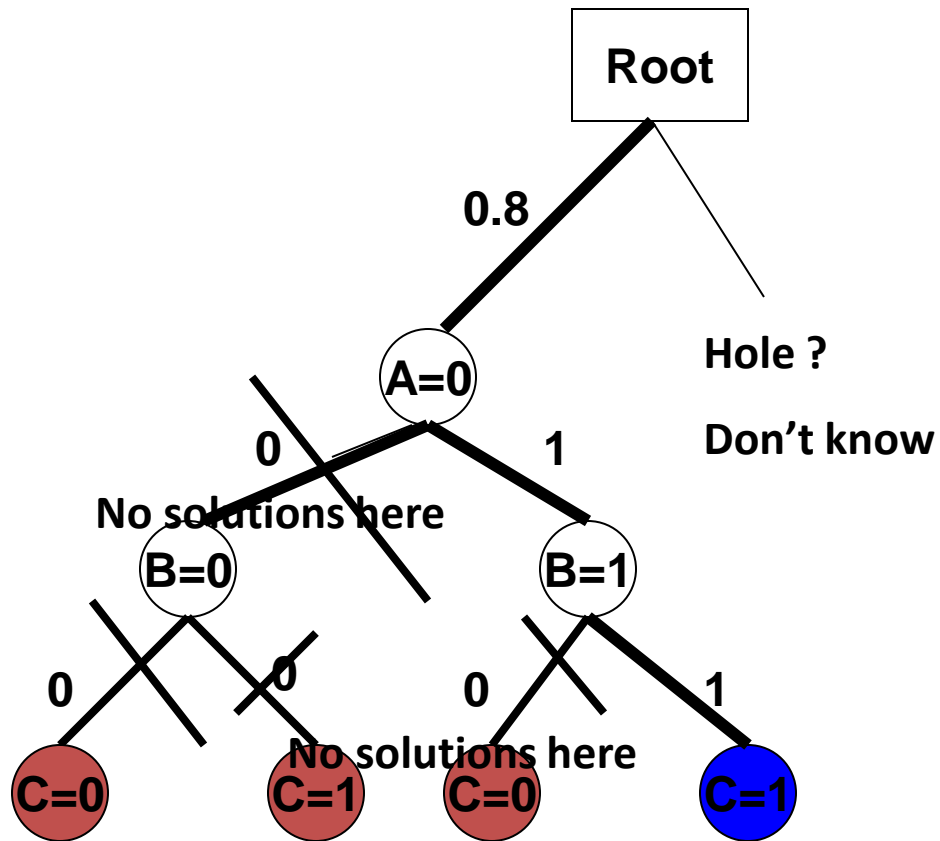
$$\text{Simple: } Q^F(B=0|A=0)=0$$

All samples generated by SampleSearch are solutions

Outline

- Rejection problem
- Backtrack-free distribution
 - Constructing it in practice
- SampleSearch
 - Construct the backtrack-free distribution on the fly.
- **Approximate estimators**
- Experiments

Asymptotic approximations of Q^F



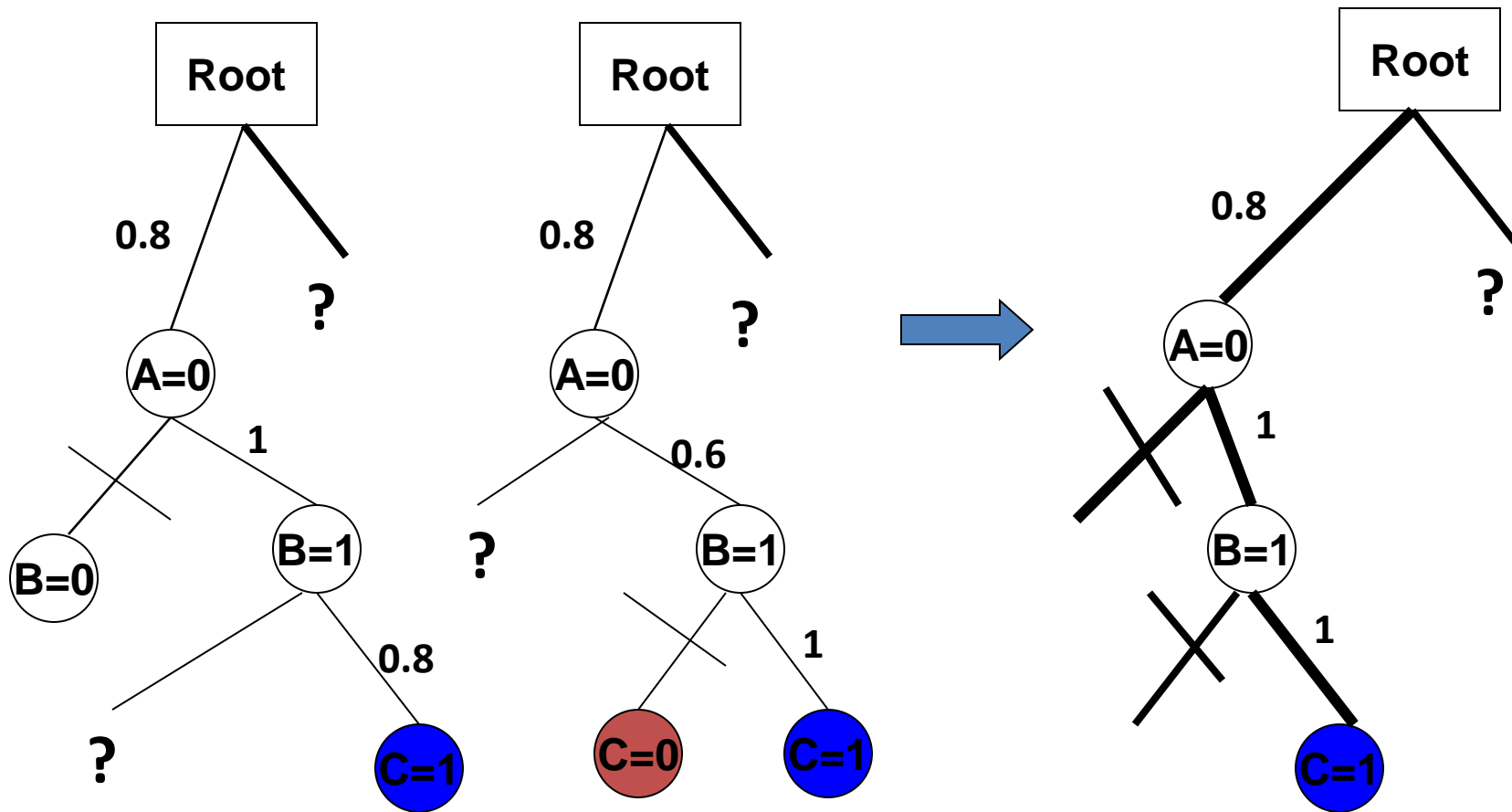
- IF Hole THEN

- $U^F=Q$ (i.e. there is a solution at the other branch)

- $L^F=0$ (i.e. no solution at the other branch)

Approximations: Convergence in the limit

- Store all possible traces



Approximations: Convergence in the limit

- From the combined sample tree, update U and L.

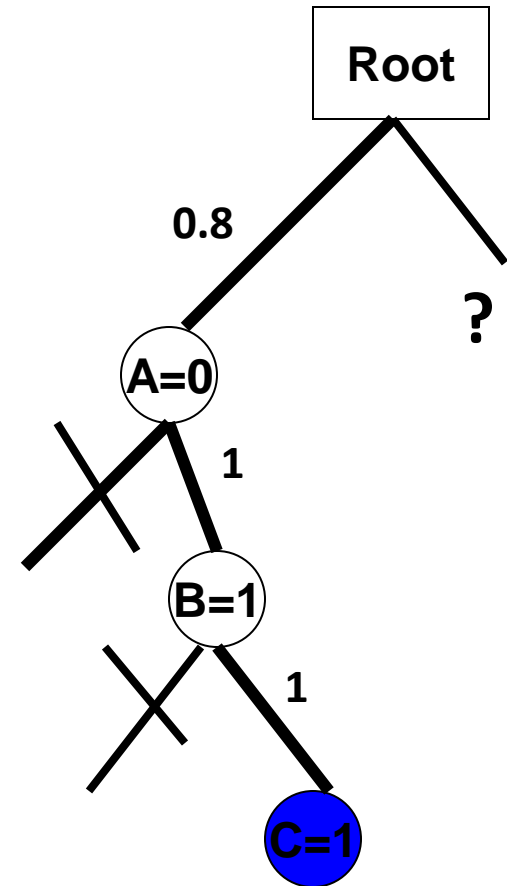
IF Hole THEN $U_N^F = Q$ and $L_N^F = 0$

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} E \left[\frac{P(z, e)}{U_N^F(z)} \right] = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} E \left[\frac{P(z, e)}{L_N^F(z)} \right] = P(e)$$

Asymptotically unbiased

Bounding : $U_N^F(z) \leq Q^F(z) \leq L_N^F(z)$

$$\bar{P}_F^U(e) \geq \hat{P}_F(e) \geq \bar{P}_F^L(e)$$



Upper and Lower Approximations

- Asymptotically unbiased.
- Upper and lower bound on the unbiased sample mean
- Linear time and space overhead
- Bias versus variance tradeoff
 - Bias = difference between the upper and lower approximation.

Improving Naive SampleSearch

- Better Search Strategy
 - Can use any state-of-the-art CSP/SAT solver e.g. minisat (Een and Sorrenson 2006)
 - All theorems and result hold
- Better Importance Function
 - Use output of generalized belief propagation to compute the initial importance function Q (Gogate and Dechter, 2005)

Experiments

- **Tasks**
 - Weighted Counting
 - Marginals
- **Benchmarks**
 - Satisfiability problems (counting solutions)
 - Linkage networks
 - Relational instances (First order probabilistic networks)
 - Grid networks
 - Logistics planning instances
- **Algorithms**
 - SampleSearch/UB, SampleSearch/LB
 - SampleCount (Gomes et al. 2007, SAT)
 - ApproxCount (Wei and Selman, 2007, SAT)
 - RELSAT (Bayardo and Peshoueshk, 2000, SAT)
 - Edge Deletion Belief Propagation (Choi and Darwiche, 2006)
 - Iterative Join Graph Propagation (Dechter et al., 2002)
 - Variable Elimination and Conditioning (VEC)
 - EPIS (Changhe and Druzdzel, 2006)

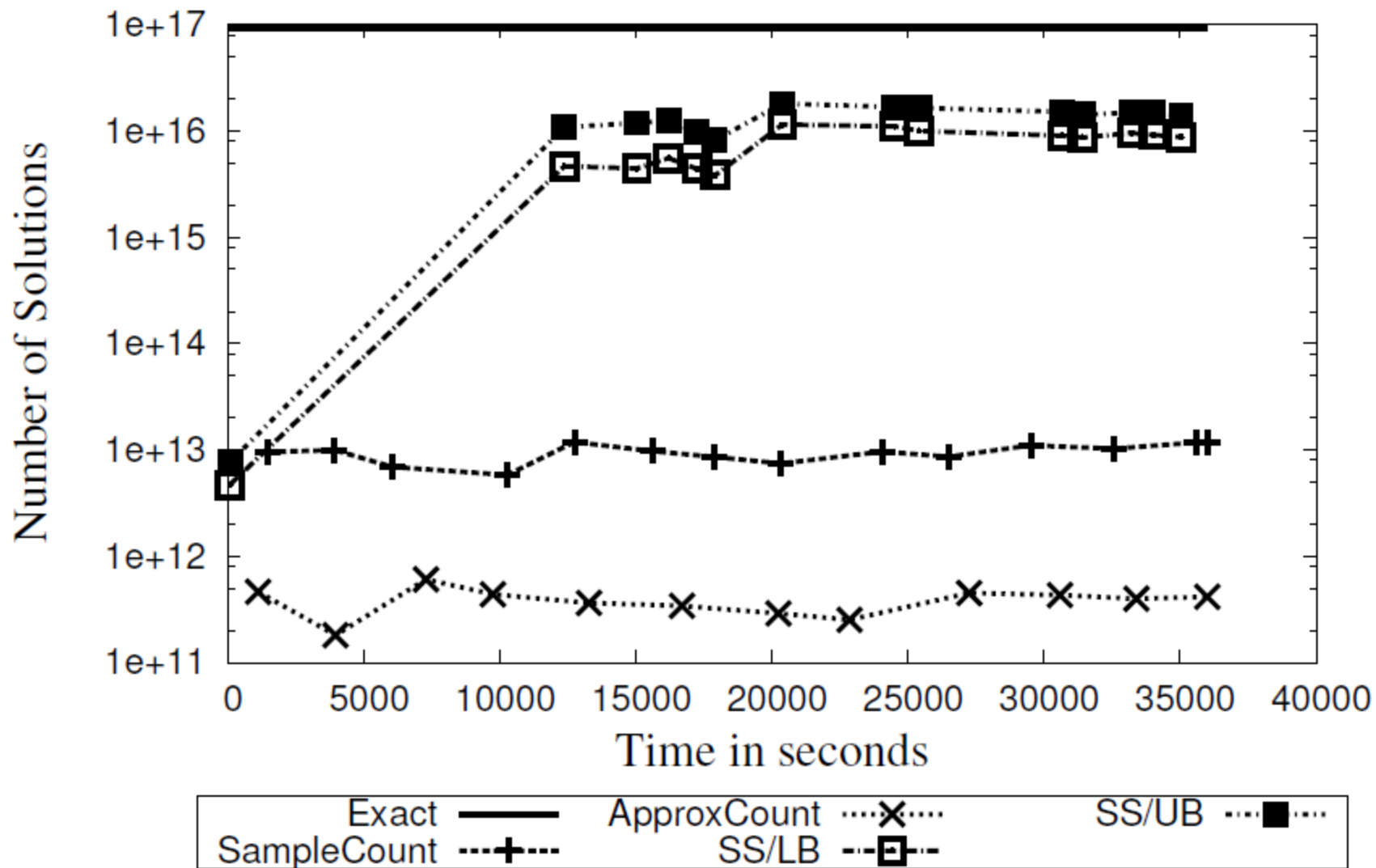
Results: Solution Counts

Langford instances

Problem	$\langle n, k, c, w \rangle$	Exact	Sample Count	Approx Count	REL SAT	SS /LB	SS /UB
lang12	$\langle 576, 2, 13584, 383 \rangle$	2.16E+5	1.93E+05	2.95E+04	2.16E+05	2.16E+05	2.16E+05
lang16	$\langle 1024, 2, 32320, 639 \rangle$	6.53E+08	5.97E+08	8.22E+06	6.28E+06	6.51E+08	6.99E+08
lang19	$\langle 1444, 2, 54226, 927 \rangle$	5.13E+11	9.73E+10	6.87E+08	8.52E+05	6.38E+11	7.31E+11
lang20	$\langle 1600, 2, 63280, 1023 \rangle$	5.27E+12	1.13E+11	3.99E+09	8.55E+04	2.83E+12	3.45E+12
lang23	$\langle 2116, 2, 96370, 1407 \rangle$	7.60E+15	7.53E+14	3.70E+12	X	4.17E+15	4.19E+15
lang24	$\langle 2304, 2, 109536, 1535 \rangle$	9.37E+16	1.17E+13	4.15E+11	X	8.74E+15	1.40E+16
lang27	$\langle 2916, 2, 156114, 1919 \rangle$		4.38E+16	1.32E+14	X	2.41E+19	2.65E+19

Time Bound: 10 hrs

Solution Counts vs Time for lang24.cnf



Results: Probability of Evidence Linkage instances (UAI 2006 evaluation)

Problem	$\langle n, k, e, w \rangle$	Exact	VEC	EDBP	SS/LB	SS/UB
BN_69	$\langle 777, 7, 78, 47 \rangle$	5.28E-054	1.93E-61	2.39E-57	3.00E-55	3.00E-55
BN_70	$\langle 2315, 5, 159, 87 \rangle$	2.00E-71	7.99E-82	6.00E-79	1.21E-73	1.21E-73
BN_71	$\langle 1740, 6, 202, 70 \rangle$	5.12E-111	7.05E-115	1.01E-114	1.28E-111	1.28E-111
BN_72	$\langle 2155, 6, 252, 86 \rangle$	4.21E-150	1.32E-153	9.21E-155	4.73E-150	4.73E-150
BN_73	$\langle 2140, 5, 216, 101 \rangle$	2.26E-113	6.00E-127	2.24E-118	2.00E-115	2.00E-115
BN_74	$\langle 749, 6, 66, 45 \rangle$	3.75E-45	3.30E-48	5.84E-48	2.13E-46	2.13E-46
BN_75	$\langle 1820, 5, 155, 92 \rangle$	5.88E-91	5.83E-97	3.10E-96	2.19E-91	2.19E-91
BN_76	$\langle 2155, 7, 169, 64 \rangle$	4.93E-110	1.00E-126	3.86E-114	1.95E-111	1.95E-111

Time Bound: 3 hrs

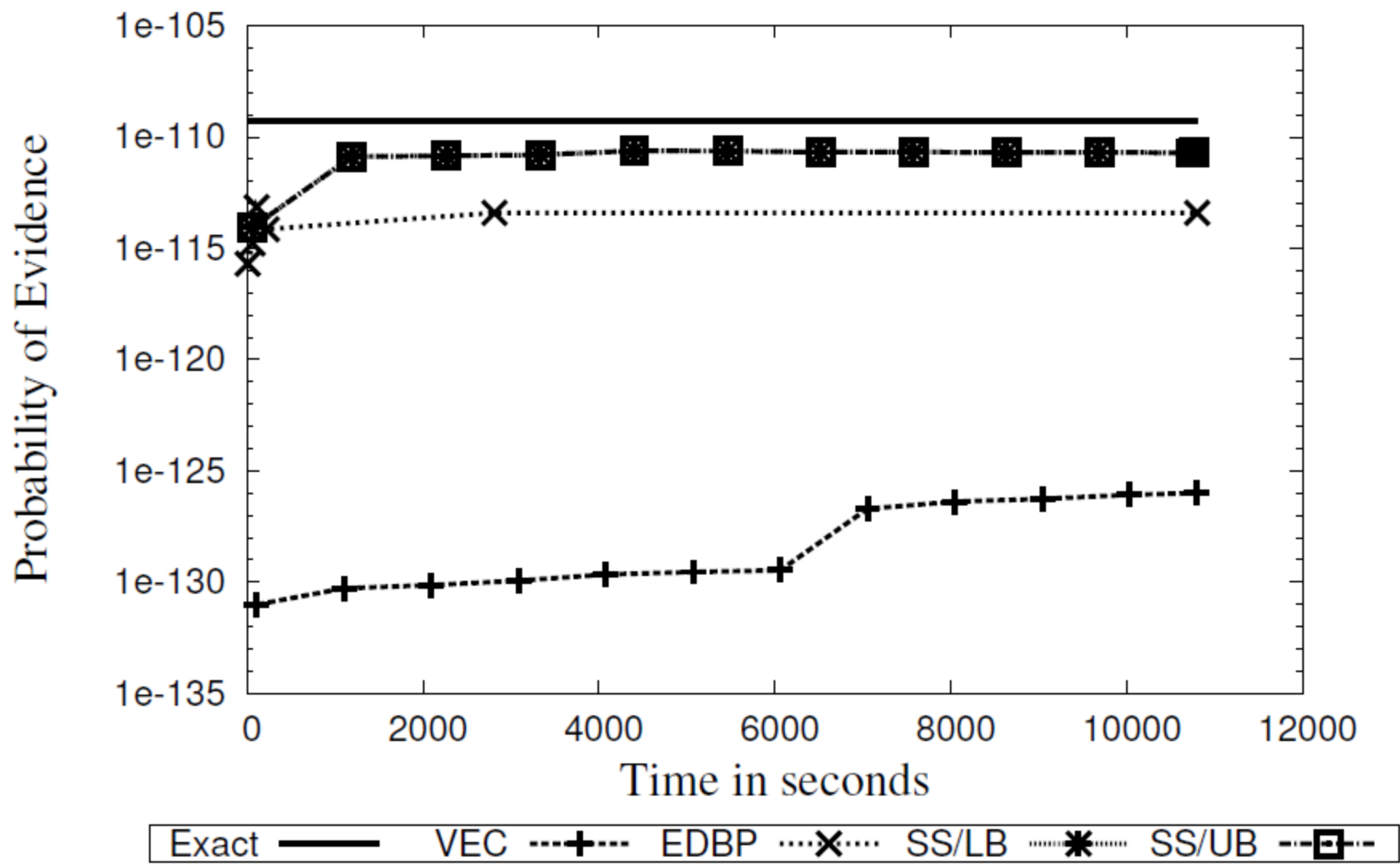
Results: Probability of Evidence

Linkage instances (UAI 2008 evaluation)

Problem	$\langle n, k, e, w \rangle$	Exact	SS/LB	SS/UB	VEC	EDBP
pedigree18	$\langle 1184, 1, 0, 26 \rangle$	7.18E-79	7.39E-79	7.39E-79	7.18E-79*	7.18E-79*
pedigree1	$\langle 334, 2, 0, 20 \rangle$	7.81E-15	7.81E-15	7.81E-15	7.81E-15	7.81E-15*
pedigree20	$\langle 437, 2, 0, 25 \rangle$	2.34E-30	2.31E-30	2.31E-30	2.34E-30*	6.19E-31
pedigree23	$\langle 402, 1, 0, 26 \rangle$	2.78E-39	2.76E-39	2.76E-39	2.78E-39*	1.52E-39
pedigree25	$\langle 1289, 1, 0, 38 \rangle$	1.69E-116	1.69E-116	1.69E-116	1.69E-116*	1.69E-116*
pedigree30	$\langle 1289, 1, 0, 27 \rangle$	1.84E-84	1.90E-84	1.90E-84	1.85E-84*	1.85E-84*
pedigree37	$\langle 1032, 1, 0, 25 \rangle$	2.63E-117	1.18E-117	1.18E-117	2.63E-117*	5.69E-124
pedigree38	$\langle 724, 1, 0, 18 \rangle$	5.64E-55	3.80E-55	3.80E-55	5.65E-55*	8.41E-56
pedigree39	$\langle 1272, 1, 0, 29 \rangle$	6.32E-103	6.29E-103	6.29E-103	6.32E-103*	6.32E-103*
pedigree42	$\langle 448, 2, 0, 23 \rangle$	1.73E-31	1.73E-31	1.73E-31	1.73E-31*	8.91E-32
pedigree19	$\langle 793, 2, 0, 23 \rangle$		6.76E-60	6.76E-60	1.597E-60	3.35E-60
pedigree31	$\langle 1183, 2, 0, 45 \rangle$		2.08E-70	2.08E-70	1.67E-76	1.34E-70
pedigree34	$\langle 1160, 1, 0, 59 \rangle$		3.84E-65	3.84E-65	2.58E-76	4.30E-65
pedigree13	$\langle 1077, 1, 0, 51 \rangle$		7.03E-32	7.03E-32	2.17E-37	6.53E-32
pedigree40	$\langle 1030, 2, 0, 49 \rangle$		1.25E-88	1.25E-88	2.45E-91	7.02E-17
pedigree41	$\langle 1062, 2, 0, 52 \rangle$		4.36E-77	4.36E-77	4.33E-81	1.09E-10
pedigree44	$\langle 811, 1, 0, 29 \rangle$		3.39E-64	3.39E-64	2.23E-64	7.69E-66
pedigree51	$\langle 1152, 1, 0, 51 \rangle$		2.47E-74	2.47E-74	5.56E-85	6.16E-76
pedigree7	$\langle 1068, 1, 0, 56 \rangle$		1.33E-65	1.33E-65	1.66E-72	2.93E-66
pedigree9	$\langle 1118, 2, 0, 41 \rangle$		2.93E-79	2.93E-79	8.00E-82	3.13E-89

Time Bound: 3 hrs

Probability of Evidence vs Time for BN_76, num-vars= 2155



Results on Marginals

- Evaluation Criteria

Exact : $P(x_i)$ *Approximate* : $A(x_i)$

$$\text{Hellinger distance} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x_i \in D_i} \left(\sqrt{P(x_i)} - \sqrt{A(x_i)} \right)^2}{n}$$

- Always bounded between 0 and 1
- Lower Bounds the KL distance
- When probabilities close to zero are present KL distance may tend to infinity.

Results: Posterior Marginals

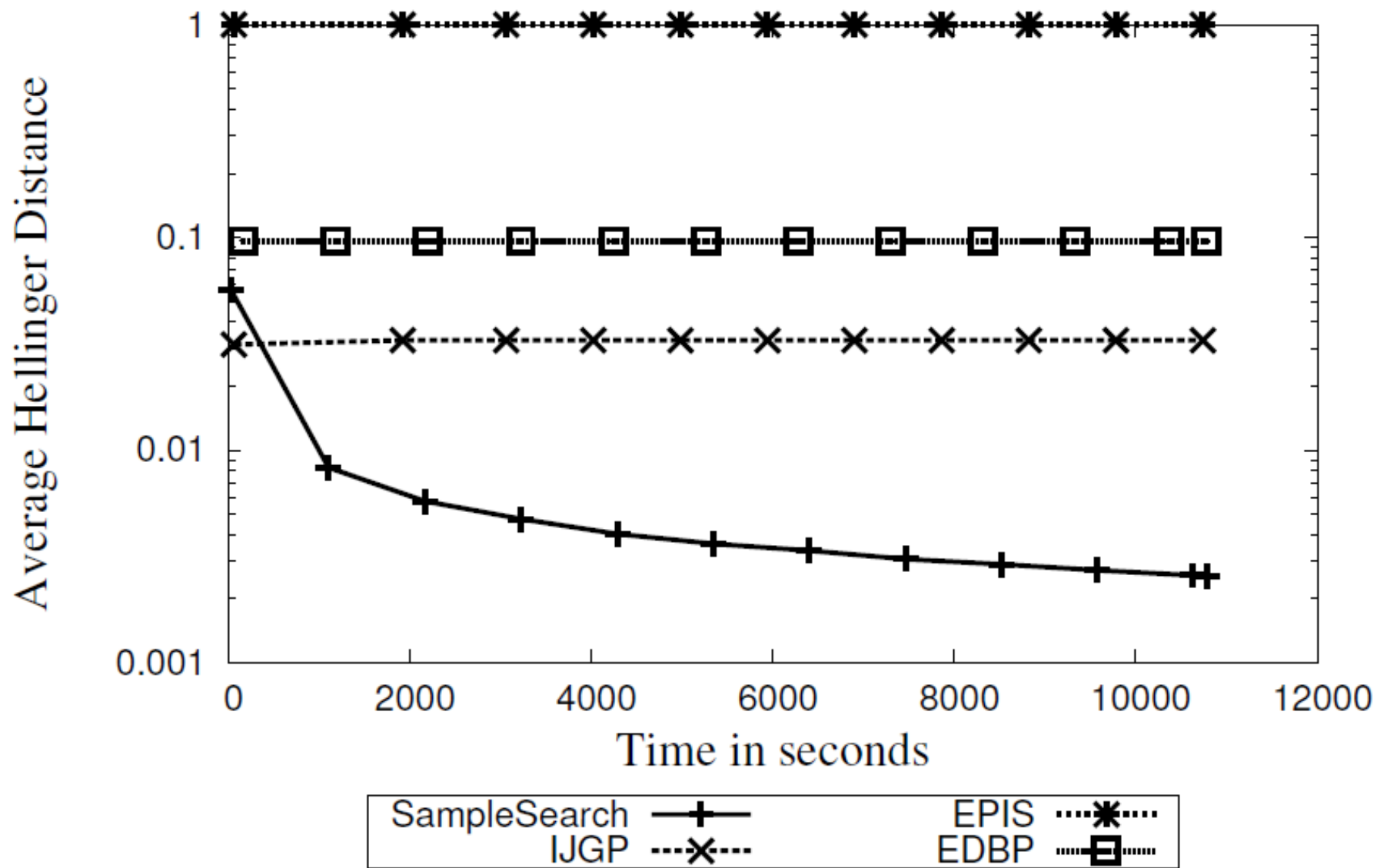
Linkage instances (UAI 2006 evaluation)

Problem	$\langle n, K, e, w \rangle$	SampleSearch	IJGP	EPIS	EDBP
BN_69	$\langle 777, 7, 78, 47 \rangle$	9.4E-04	3.2E-02	1	8.0E-02
BN_70	$\langle 2315, 5, 159, 87 \rangle$	2.6E-03	3.3E-02	1	9.6E-02
BN_71	$\langle 1740, 6, 202, 70 \rangle$	5.6E-03	1.9E-02	1	2.5E-02
BN_72	$\langle 2155, 6, 252, 86 \rangle$	3.6E-03	7.2E-03	1	1.3E-02
BN_73	$\langle 2140, 5, 216, 101 \rangle$	2.1E-02	2.8E-02	1	6.1E-02
BN_74	$\langle 749, 6, 66, 45 \rangle$	6.9E-04	4.3E-06	1	4.3E-02
BN_75	$\langle 1820, 5, 155, 92 \rangle$	8.0E-03	6.2E-02	1	9.3E-02
BN_76	$\langle 2155, 7, 169, 64 \rangle$	1.8E-02	2.6E-02	1	2.7E-02

Time Bound: 3 hrs

Distance measure: Hellinger distance

Approximation Error vs Time for BN_70, num-vars= 2315



Summary: SampleSearch

- Manages rejection problem while sampling
 - Systematic backtracking search
- Sampling Distribution of SampleSearch is the backtrack-free distribution Q^F
 - Expensive to compute
- Approximation of Q^F based on storing all traces that yields an asymptotically unbiased estimator
 - Linear time and space overhead
 - Bound the sample mean from above and below
- Empirically, when a substantial number of zero probabilities are present, SampleSearch based schemes dominate their pure sampling counter-parts and Generalized Belief Propagation.

Overview

1. Probabilistic Reasoning/Graphical models
2. Importance Sampling
3. Markov Chain Monte Carlo: Gibbs Sampling
4. Sampling in presence of Determinism
- 5. Rao-Blackwellisation**
6. AND/OR importance sampling

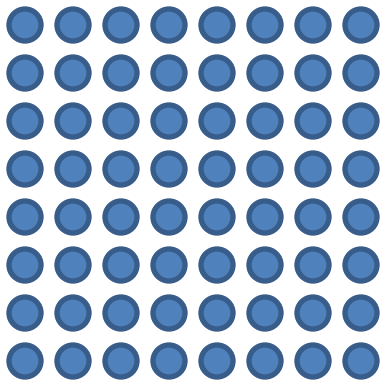
Sampling: Performance

- Gibbs sampling
 - Reduce dependence between samples
- Importance sampling
 - Reduce variance
- Achieve both by **sampling a subset of variables** and integrating out the rest (reduce dimensionality), aka **Rao-Blackwellisation**
- Exploit graph structure to manage the extra cost

Smaller Subset State-Space

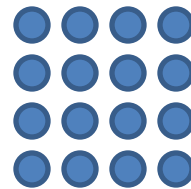
- Smaller state-space is easier to cover

$$X = \{X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4\}$$



$$D(X) = 64$$

$$X = \{X_1, X_2\}$$

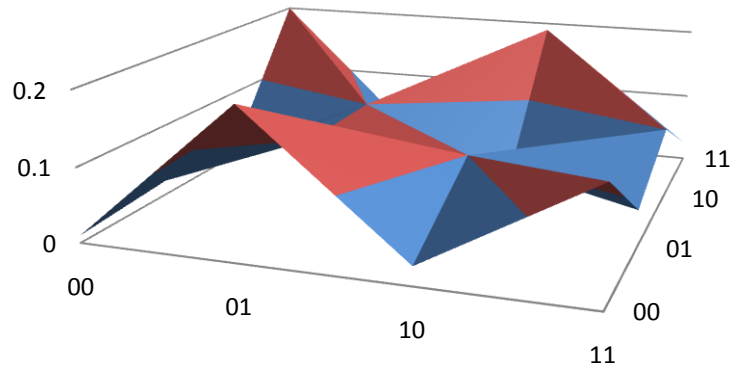


$$D(X) = 16$$

Smoother Distribution

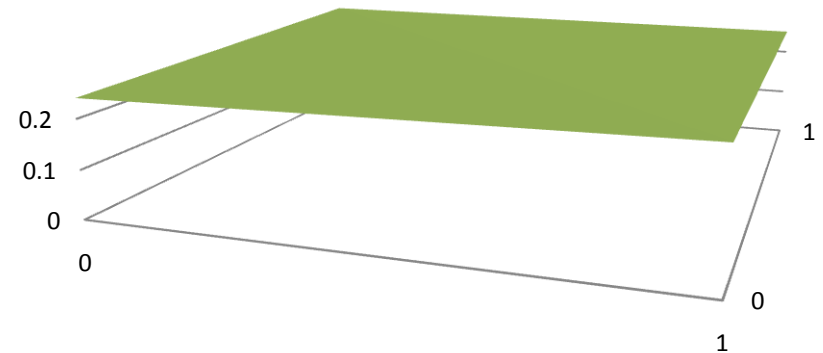
$P(X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4)$

■ 0-0.1 ■ 0.1-0.2 ■ 0.2-0.26



$P(X_1, X_2)$

■ 0-0.1 ■ 0.1-0.2 ■ 0.2-0.26



Speeding Up Convergence

- Mean Squared Error of the estimator:

$$MSE_Q[\bar{P}] = BIAS^2 + Var_Q[\bar{P}]$$

- In case of unbiased estimator, BIAS=0

$$MSE_Q[\hat{P}] = Var_Q[\hat{P}] = \left(E_Q[\hat{P}]^2 - E_Q[P]^2 \right)$$

- Reduce variance \Rightarrow speed up convergence !

Rao-Blackwellisation

$$X = R \cup L$$

$$\hat{g}(x) = \frac{1}{T} \{h(x^1) + \dots + h(x^T)\}$$

$$\tilde{g}(x) = \frac{1}{T} \{E[h(x) | l^1] + \dots + E[h(x) | l^T]\}$$

$$\text{Var}\{g(x)\} = \text{Var}\{E[g(x) | l]\} + E\{\text{var}[g(x) | l]\}$$

$$\text{Var}\{g(x)\} \geq \text{Var}\{E[g(x) | l]\}$$

$$\text{Var}\{\hat{g}(x)\} = \frac{\text{Var}\{h(x)\}}{T} \geq \frac{\text{Var}\{E[h(x) | l]\}}{T} = \text{Var}\{\tilde{g}(x)\}$$

Liu, Ch.2.3

Rao-Blackwellisation

“Carry out analytical computation as much as possible” - Liu

- $X=R \cup L$

- Importance Sampling:

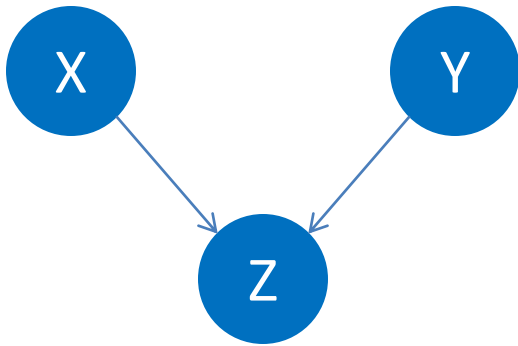
$$\text{Var}_Q \left\{ \frac{P(R, L)}{Q(R, L)} \right\} \geq \text{Var}_Q \left\{ \frac{P(R)}{Q(R)} \right\}$$

Liu, Ch.2.5.5

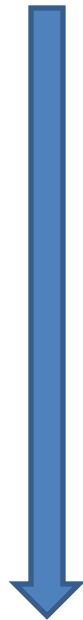
- Gibbs Sampling:

- autocovariances are lower (less correlation between samples)
- if X_i and X_j are strongly correlated, $X_i=0 \leftrightarrow X_j=0$, only include one of them into a sampling set

Blocking Gibbs Sampler vs. Collapsed



Faster
Convergence



- Standard Gibbs:

$$P(x | y, z), P(y | x, z), P(z | x, y) \quad (1)$$

- Blocking:

$$P(x | y, z), P(y, z | x) \quad (2)$$

- Collapsed:

$$P(x | y), P(y | x) \quad (3)$$

Collapsed Gibbs Sampling

Generating Samples

Generate sample c^{t+1} from c^t :

$$C_1 = c_1^{t+1} \leftarrow P(c_1 | c_2^t, c_3^t, \dots, c_K^t, e)$$

$$C_2 = c_2^{t+1} \leftarrow P(c_2 | c_1^{t+1}, c_3^t, \dots, c_K^t, e)$$

...

$$C_K = c_K^{t+1} \leftarrow P(c_K | c_1^{t+1}, c_2^{t+1}, \dots, c_{K-1}^{t+1}, e)$$

In short, for $i=1$ to K :

$$C_i = c_i^{t+1} \leftarrow \text{sampled from } P(c_i | c^t \setminus c_i, e)$$

Collapsed Gibbs Sampler

Input: $C \subset X, E=e$

Output: T samples $\{c^t\}$

Fix evidence $E=e$, initialize c^0 at random

1. For $t = 1$ to T (compute samples)
2. For $i = 1$ to N (loop through variables)
3. $c_i^{t+1} \leftarrow P(C_i / c^t \setminus c_i)$
4. *End For*
5. *End For*

Calculation Time

- Computing $P(c_i / c^t \setminus c_j, e)$ is more expensive (requires inference)
- Trading #samples for smaller variance:
 - generate more samples with higher covariance
 - generate fewer samples with lower covariance
- Must control the time spent computing sampling probabilities in order to be time-effective!

Exploiting Graph Properties

Recall... computation time is *exponential in the adjusted induced width* of a graph

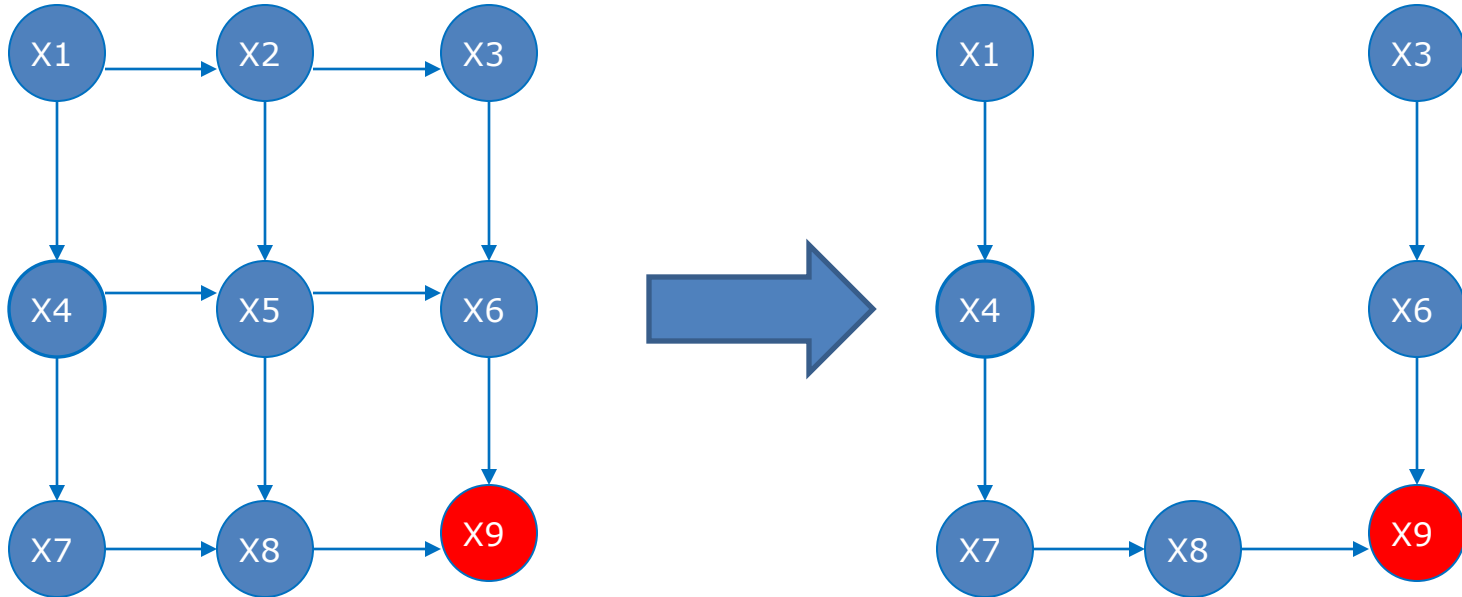
- **w -cutset** is a subset of variable s.t. when they are observed, induced width of the graph is w
- when sampled variables form a **w -cutset**, inference is $\exp(w)$ (e.g., using *Bucket Tree Elimination*)
- **cycle-cutset** is a special case of w -cutset

Sampling w -cutset \Rightarrow **w -cutset sampling!**

What If C=Cycle-Cutset ?

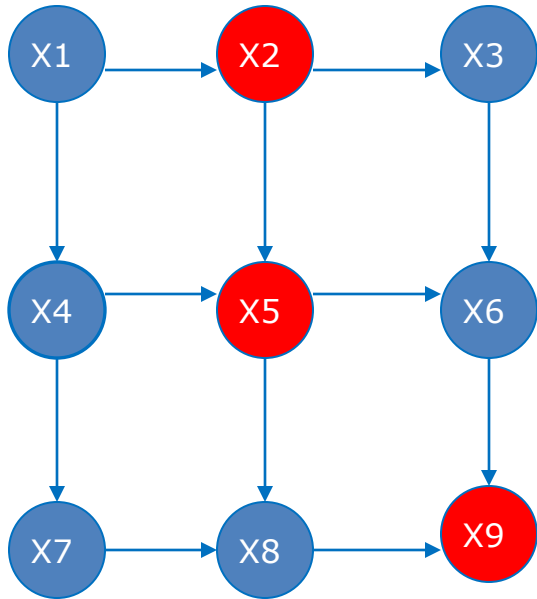
$$c^0 = \{x_2, x_5\}, E = \{X_9\}$$

$P(x_2, x_5, x_9)$ – can compute using Bucket Elimination



$P(x_2, x_5, x_9)$ – computation complexity is $O(N)$

Computing Transition Probabilities



Compute joint probabilities:

$$BE : P(x_2 = 0, x_3, x_9)$$

$$BE : P(x_2 = 1, x_3, x_9)$$

Normalize:

$$\alpha = P(x_2 = 0, x_3, x_9) + P(x_2 = 1, x_3, x_9)$$

$$P(x_2 = 0 | x_3) = \alpha P(x_2 = 0, x_3, x_9)$$

$$P(x_2 = 1 | x_3) = \alpha P(x_2 = 1, x_3, x_9)$$

Cutset Sampling-Answering Queries

- Query: $\forall c_i \in C, P(c_i | e) = ?$ same as Gibbs:

$$\hat{P}(c_i/e) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T P(c_i | c^t \setminus c_i, e)$$

computed while generating sample t
using bucket tree elimination

- Query: $\forall x_i \in X \setminus C, P(x_i | e) = ?$

$$\bar{P}(x_i/e) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T P(x_i | c^t, e)$$

compute after generating sample t
using bucket tree elimination

Cutset Sampling vs. Cutset Conditioning

- Cutset Conditioning

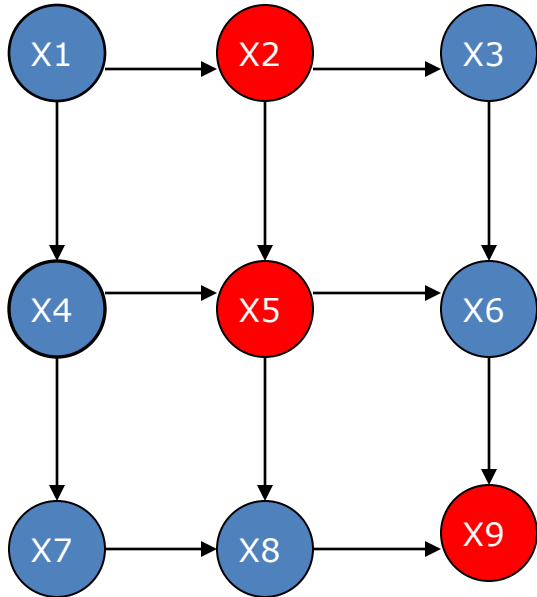
$$P(x_i/e) = \sum_{c \in D(C)} P(x_i | c, e) \times P(c | e)$$

- Cutset Sampling

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{P}(x_i/e) &= \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T P(x_i | c^t, e) \\ &= \sum_{c \in D(C)} P(x_i | c, e) \times \frac{\text{count}(c)}{T} \\ &= \sum_{c \in D(C)} P(x_i | c, e) \times \bar{P}(c | e) \end{aligned}$$

Cutset Sampling Example

Estimating $P(x_2 | e)$ for sampling node X_2 :



$$x_2^1 \leftarrow P(x_2 / x_5^0, x_9) \quad \text{Sample 1}$$

...

$$x_2^2 \leftarrow P(x_2 / x_5^1, x_9) \quad \text{Sample 2}$$

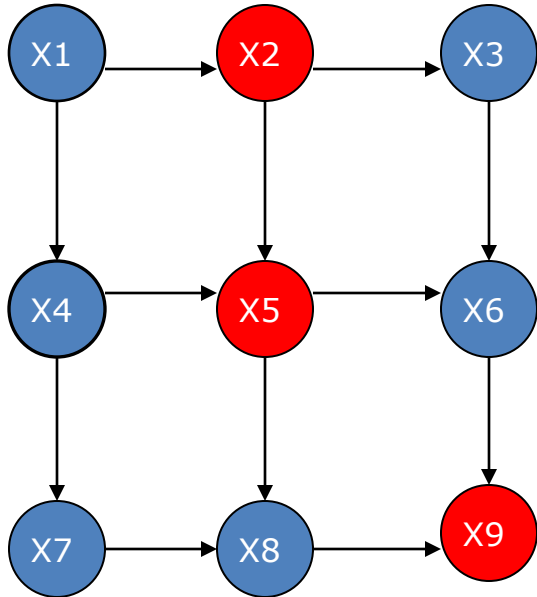
...

$$x_2^3 \leftarrow P(x_2 / x_5^2, x_9) \quad \text{Sample 3}$$

$$\bar{P}(x_2 | x_9) = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} P(x_2 / x_5^0, x_9) \\ + P(x_2 / x_5^1, x_9) \\ + P(x_2 / x_5^2, x_9) \end{bmatrix}$$

Cutset Sampling Example

Estimating $P(x_3 | e)$ for non-sampled node X_3 :



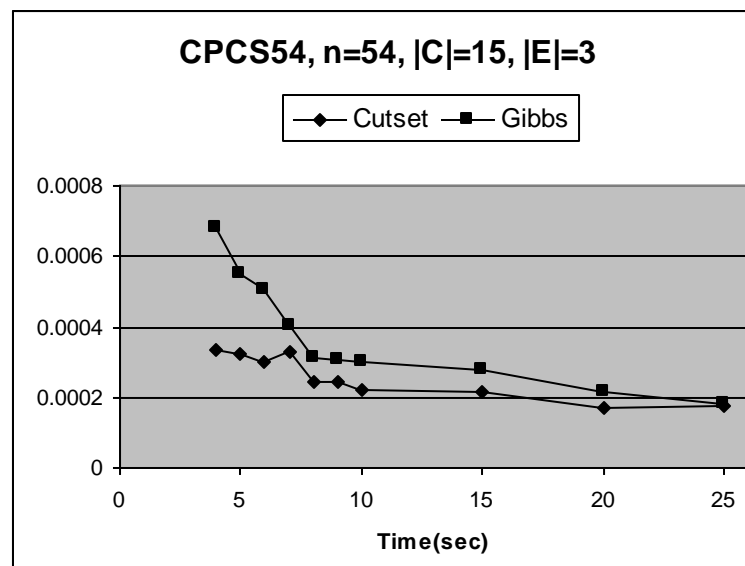
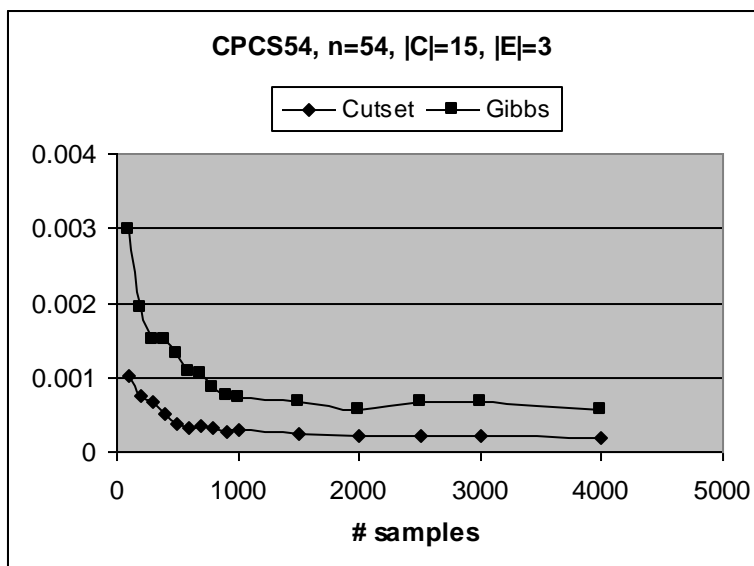
$$c^1 = \{x_2^1, x_5^1\} \Rightarrow P(x_3 | x_2^1, x_5^1, x_9)$$

$$c^2 = \{x_2^2, x_5^2\} \Rightarrow P(x_3 | x_2^2, x_5^2, x_9)$$

$$c^3 = \{x_2^3, x_5^3\} \Rightarrow P(x_3 | x_2^3, x_5^3, x_9)$$

$$P(x_3 | x_9) = \frac{1}{3} \left[\begin{array}{l} P(x_3 | x_2^1, x_5^1, x_9) \\ + P(x_3 | x_2^2, x_5^2, x_9) \\ + P(x_3 | x_2^3, x_5^3, x_9) \end{array} \right]$$

CPCS54 Test Results

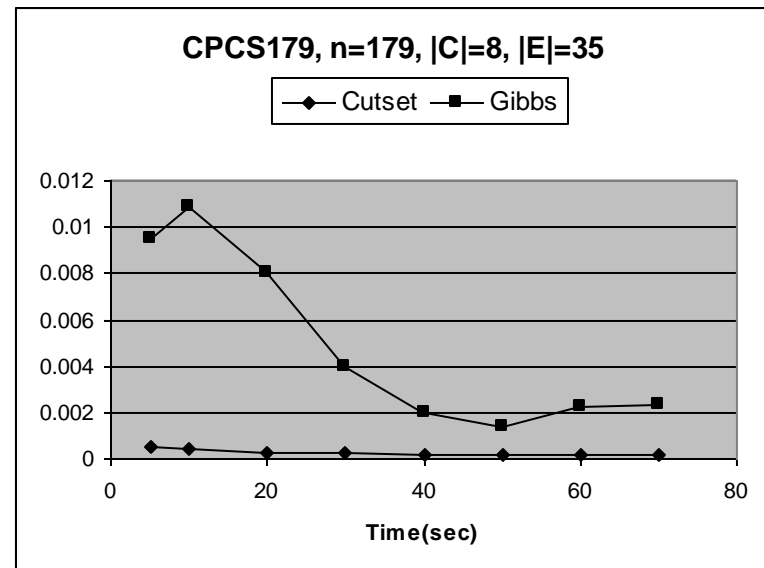
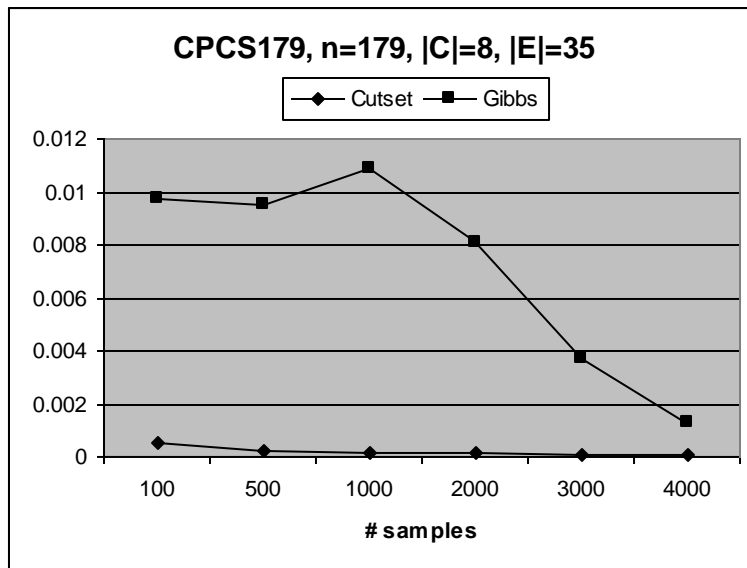


MSE vs. #samples (left) and time (right)

Ergodic, $|X|=54$, $D(X_i)=2$, $|C|=15$, $|E|=3$

Exact Time = 30 sec using Cutset Conditioning

CPCS179 Test Results



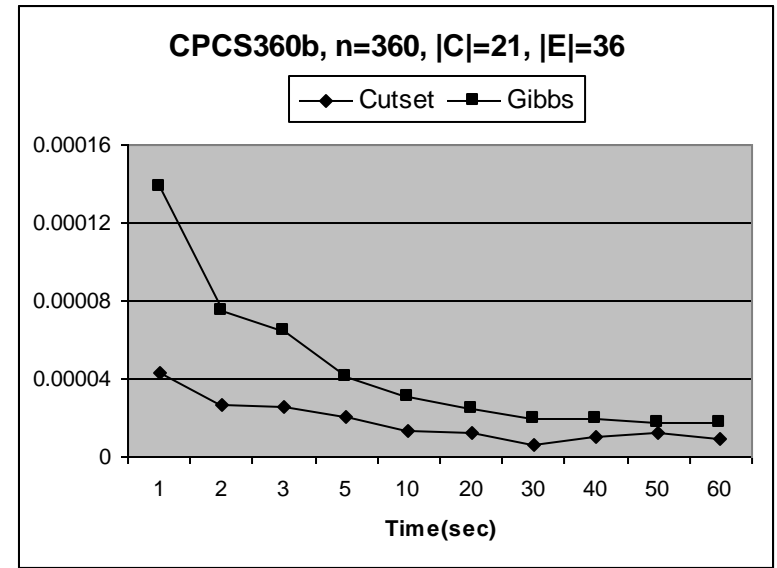
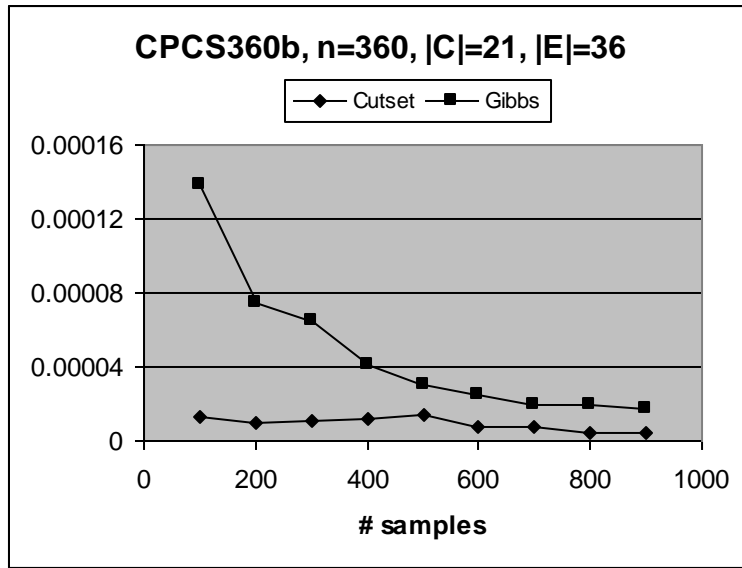
MSE vs. #samples (left) and time (right)

Non-Ergodic (1 deterministic CPT entry)

$|X| = 179$, $|C| = 8$, $2 \leq D(X_i) \leq 4$, $|E| = 35$

Exact Time = 122 sec using Cutset Conditioning

CPCS360b Test Results



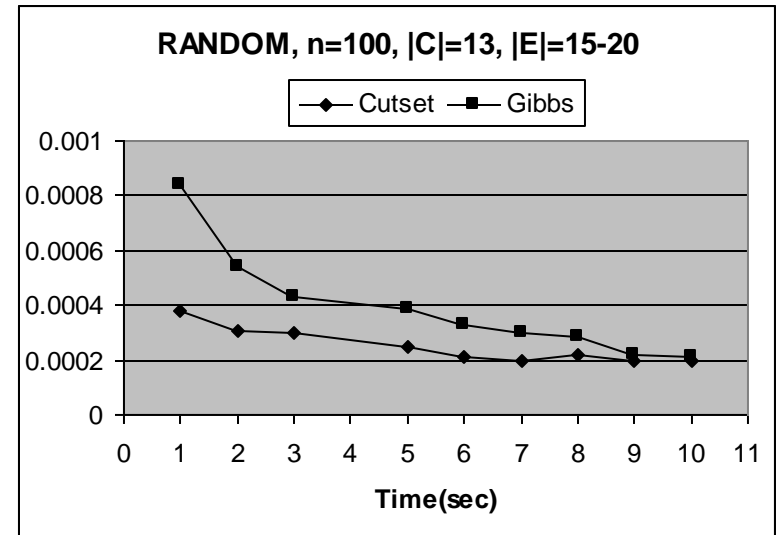
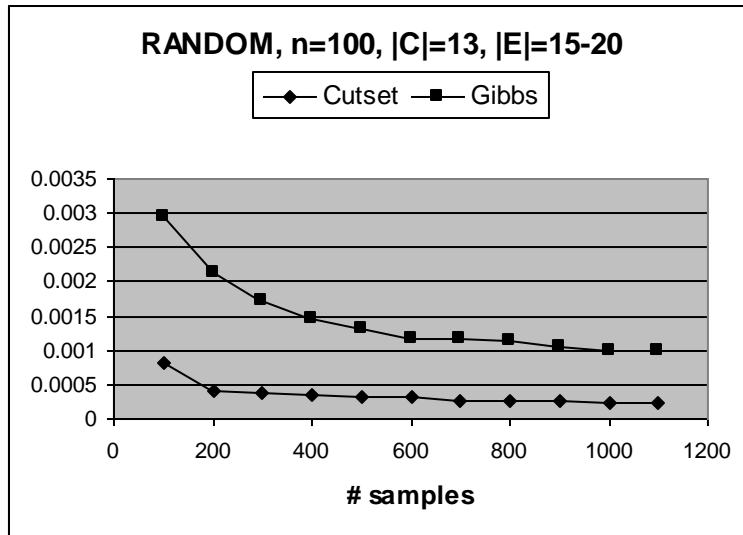
MSE vs. #samples (left) and time (right)

Ergodic, $|X| = 360$, $D(X_i)=2$, $|C| = 21$, $|E| = 36$

Exact Time > 60 min using Cutset Conditioning

Exact Values obtained via Bucket Elimination

Random Networks



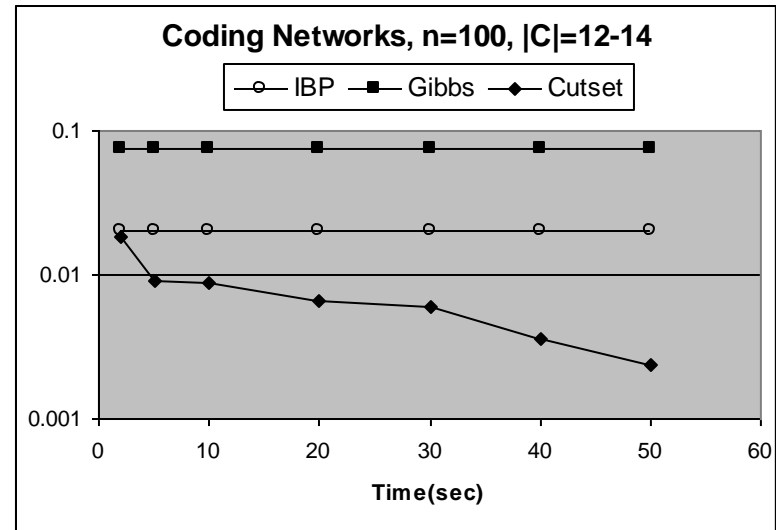
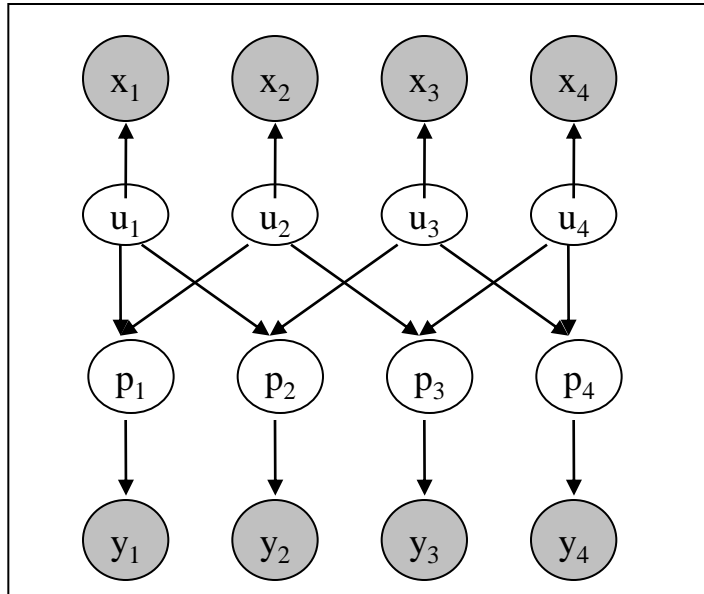
MSE vs. #samples (left) and time (right)

$|X| = 100$, $D(X_i) = 2$, $|C| = 13$, $|E| = 15-20$

Exact Time = 30 sec using Cutset Conditioning

Coding Networks

Cutset Transforms Non-Ergodic Chain to Ergodic



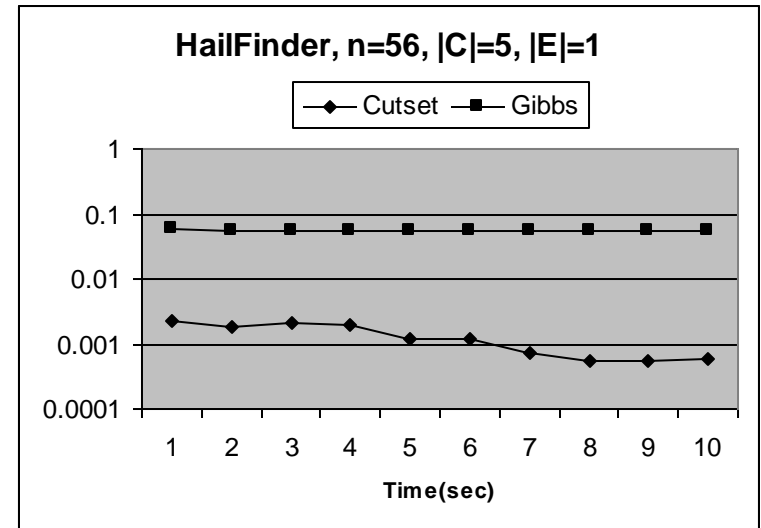
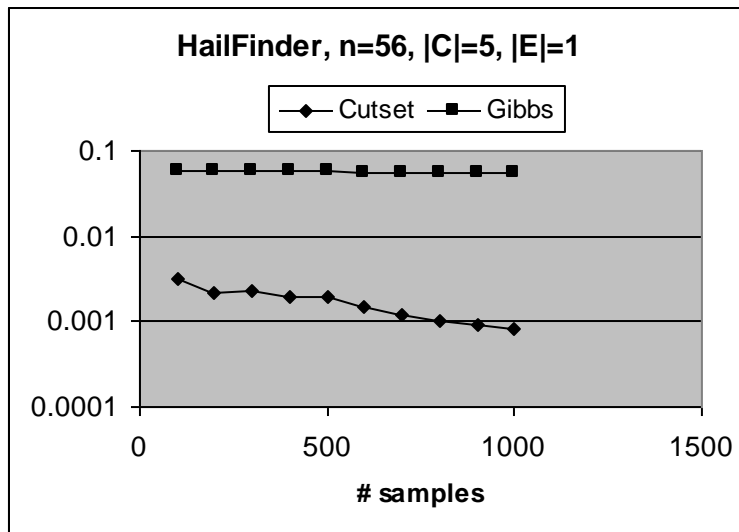
MSE vs. time (right)

Non-Ergodic, $|X| = 100$, $D(X_i)=2$, $|C| = 13-16$, $|E| = 50$

Sample Ergodic Subspace $U = \{U_1, U_2, \dots, U_k\}$

Exact Time = 50 sec using Cutset Conditioning

Non-Ergodic Hailfinder

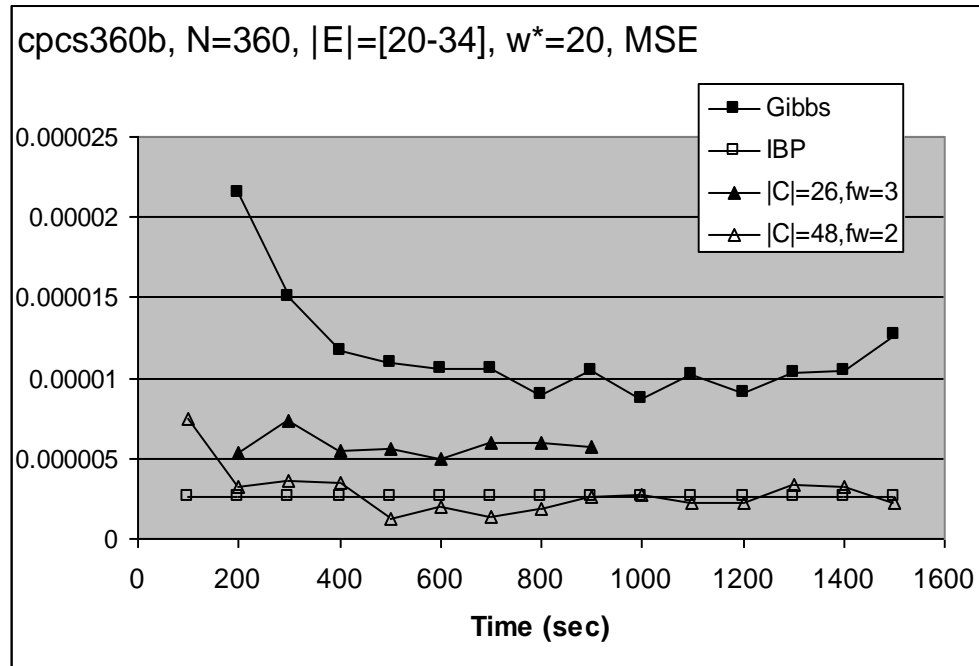


MSE vs. #samples (left) and time (right)

Non-Ergodic, $|X| = 56$, $|C| = 5$, $2 \leq D(X_i) \leq 11$, $|E| = 0$

Exact Time = 2 sec using Loop-Cutset Conditioning

CPCS360b - MSE



MSE vs. Time

Ergodic, $|X| = 360$, $|C| = 26$, $D(X_i)=2$

Exact Time = 50 min using BTE

Cutset Importance Sampling

(Gogate & Dechter, 2005) and (Bidyuk & Dechter, 2006)

- Apply Importance Sampling over cutset C

$$\hat{P}(e) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \frac{P(c^t, e)}{Q(c^t)} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T w^t$$

where $P(c^t, e)$ is computed using Bucket Elimination

$$\bar{P}(c_i | e) = \alpha \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \delta(c_i, c^t) w^t$$

$$\bar{P}(x_i | e) = \alpha \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T P(x_i | c^t, e) w^t$$

Likelihood Cutset Weighting (LCS)

- $Z = \text{Topological Order}\{C, E\}$
- Generating sample $t+1$:

For $Z_i \in Z$ do :

If $Z_i \in E$

$$z_i^{t+1} = z_i, z_i \in e$$

Else

$$z_i^{t+1} \leftarrow P(Z_i \mid z_1^{t+1}, \dots, z_{i-1}^{t+1})$$

End If

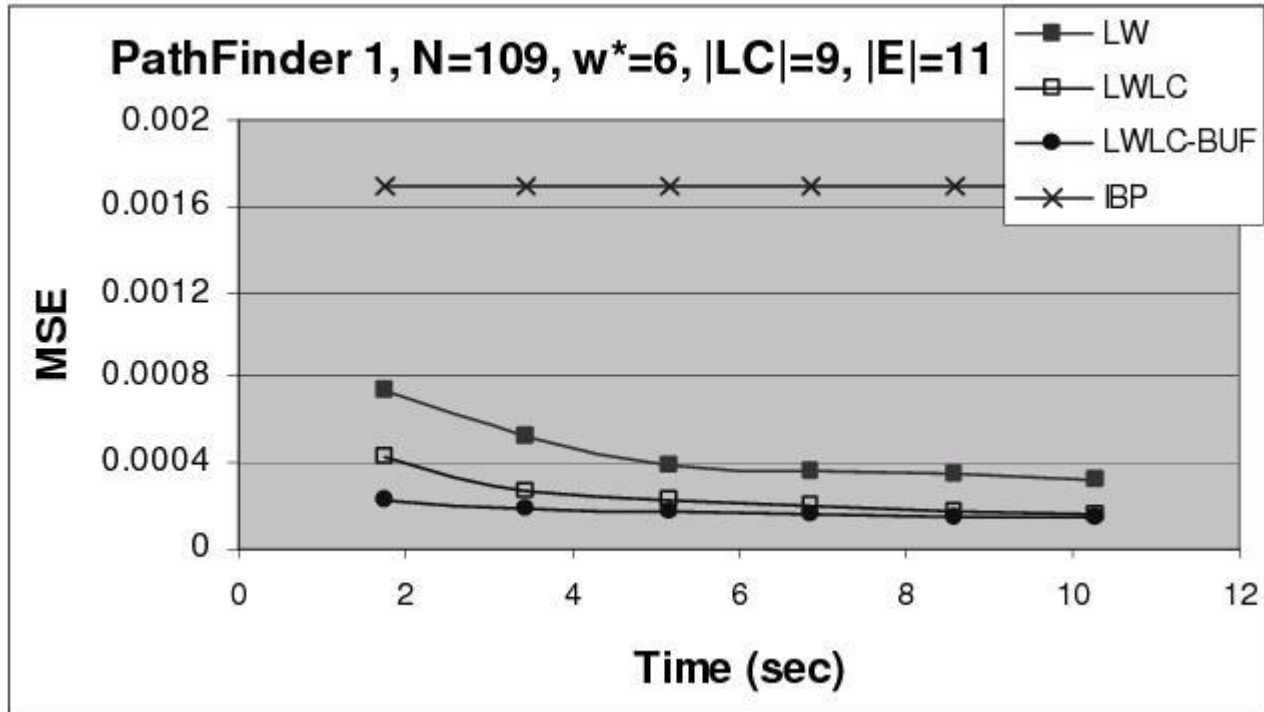
End For

• computed while generating sample t using bucket tree elimination

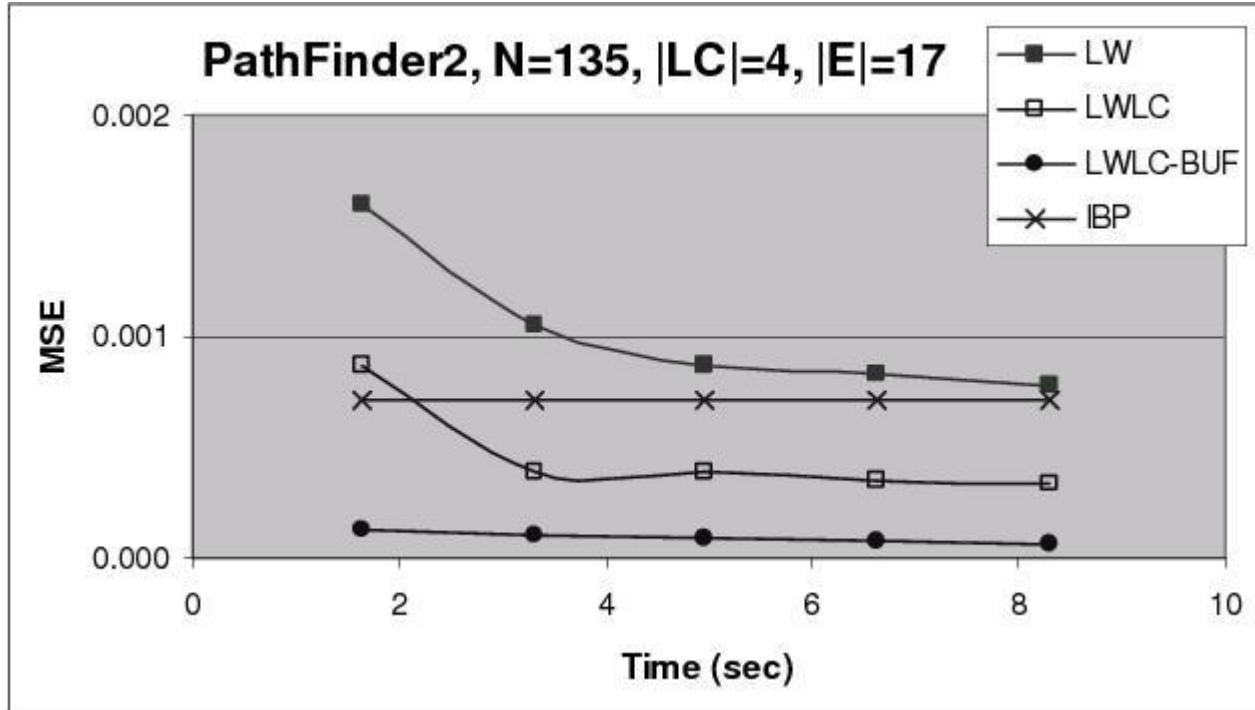
• can be memoized for some number of instances K (based on memory available)

$$\text{KL}[P(C|e), Q(C)] \leq \text{KL}[P(X|e), Q(X)]$$

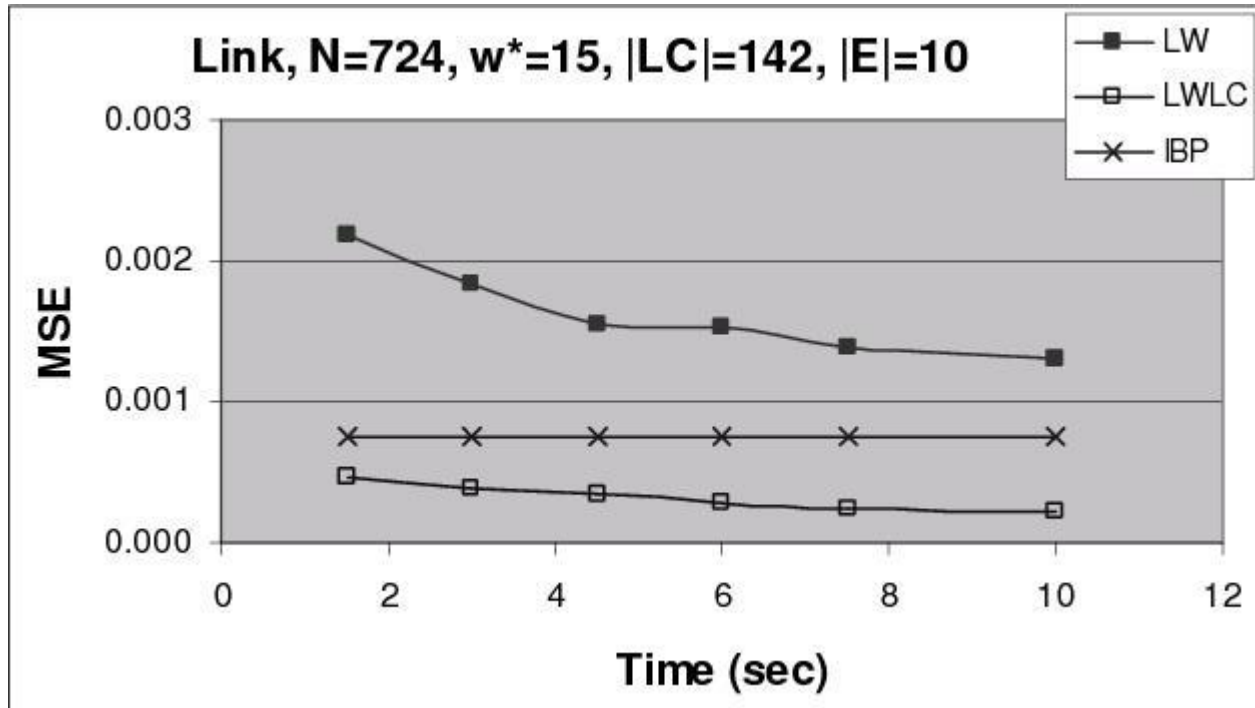
Pathfinder 1



Pathfinder 2



Link



Summary

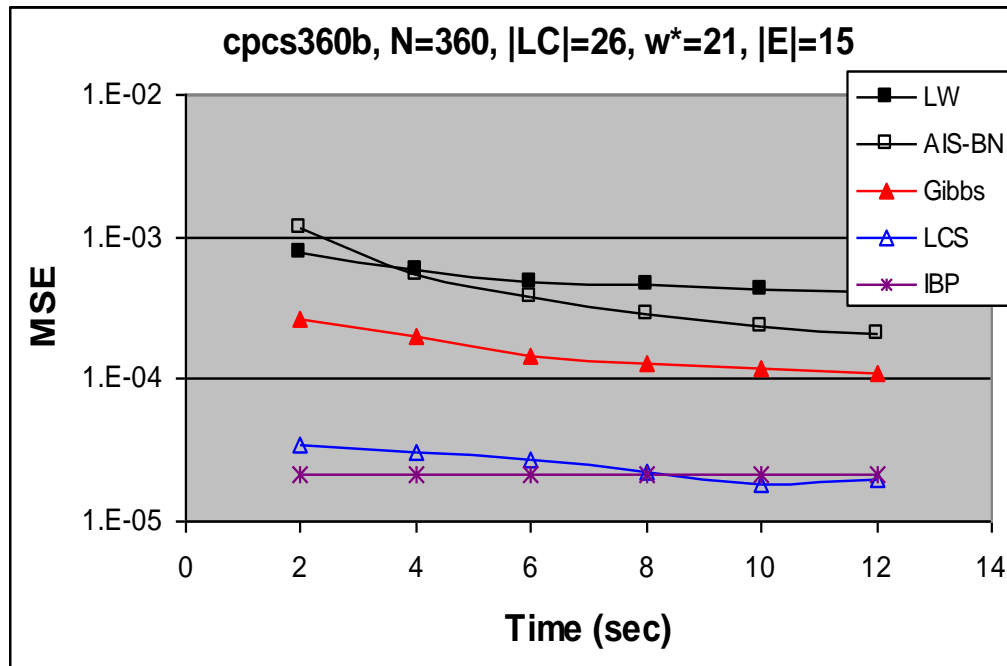
Importance Sampling

- i.i.d. samples
- Unbiased estimator
- Generates samples fast
- Samples from Q
- Reject samples with zero-weight
- Improves on cutset

Gibbs Sampling

- Dependent samples
- Biased estimator
- Generates samples slower
- Samples from $\bar{P}(X|e)$
- Does not converge in presence of constraints
- Improves on cutset

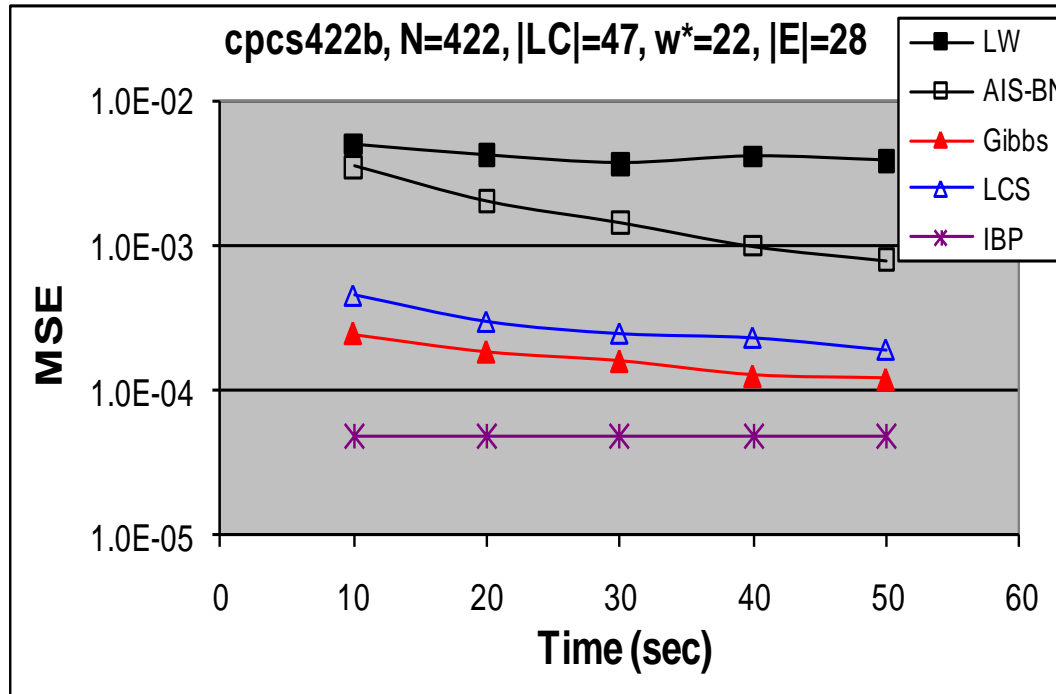
CPCS360b



LW – likelihood weighting

LCS – likelihood weighting on a cutset

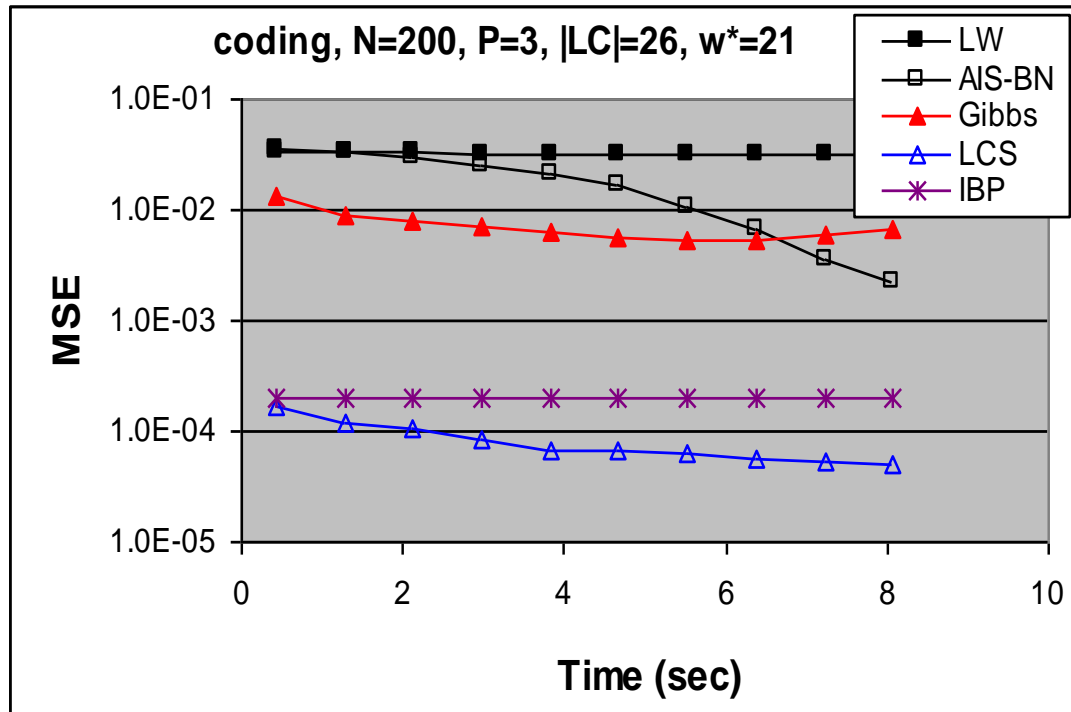
CPCS422b



LW – likelihood weighting

LCS – likelihood weighting on a cutset

Coding Networks



LW – likelihood weighting

LCS – likelihood weighting on a cutset

Overview

1. Probabilistic Reasoning/Graphical models
2. Importance Sampling
3. Markov Chain Monte Carlo: Gibbs Sampling
4. Sampling in presence of Determinism
5. Rao-Blackwellisation
6. **AND/OR importance sampling**

Motivation



Expected value of the number on the face of a die:

$$\frac{1+2+3+4+5+6}{6} = 3.5$$

What is the expected value of the product of the numbers on the face of “k” dice?

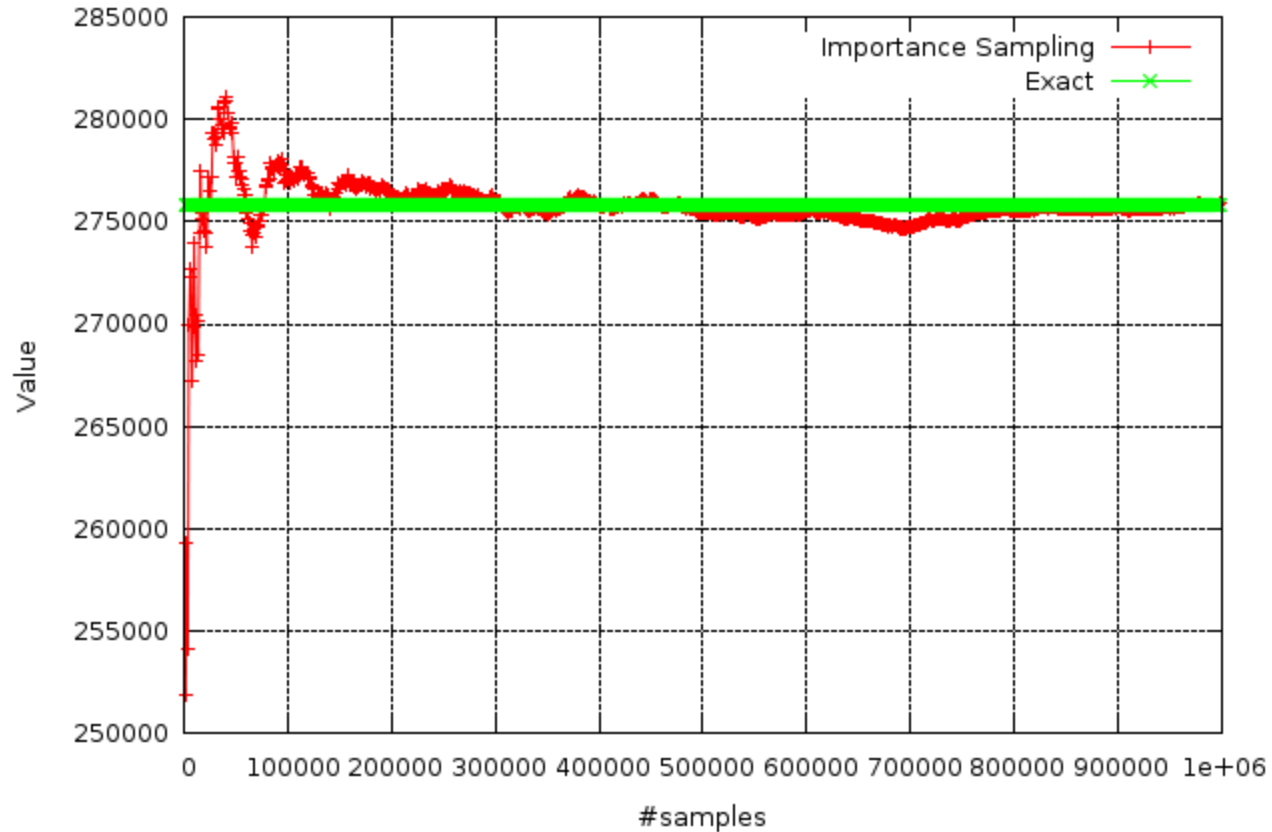
$$(3.5)^k$$

Monte Carlo estimate

- Perform the following experiment N times.
 - Toss all the k dice.
 - Record the product of the numbers on the top face of each die.
- Report the average over the N runs.

$$\hat{Z} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \prod_{j=1}^k (\text{the number on the face of the "j}^{\text{th}} \text{ dice in the } N^{\text{th}} \text{ run})$$

How the sample average converges?



10 dice. Exact Answer is $(3.5)^{10}$

But This is Really Dumb?

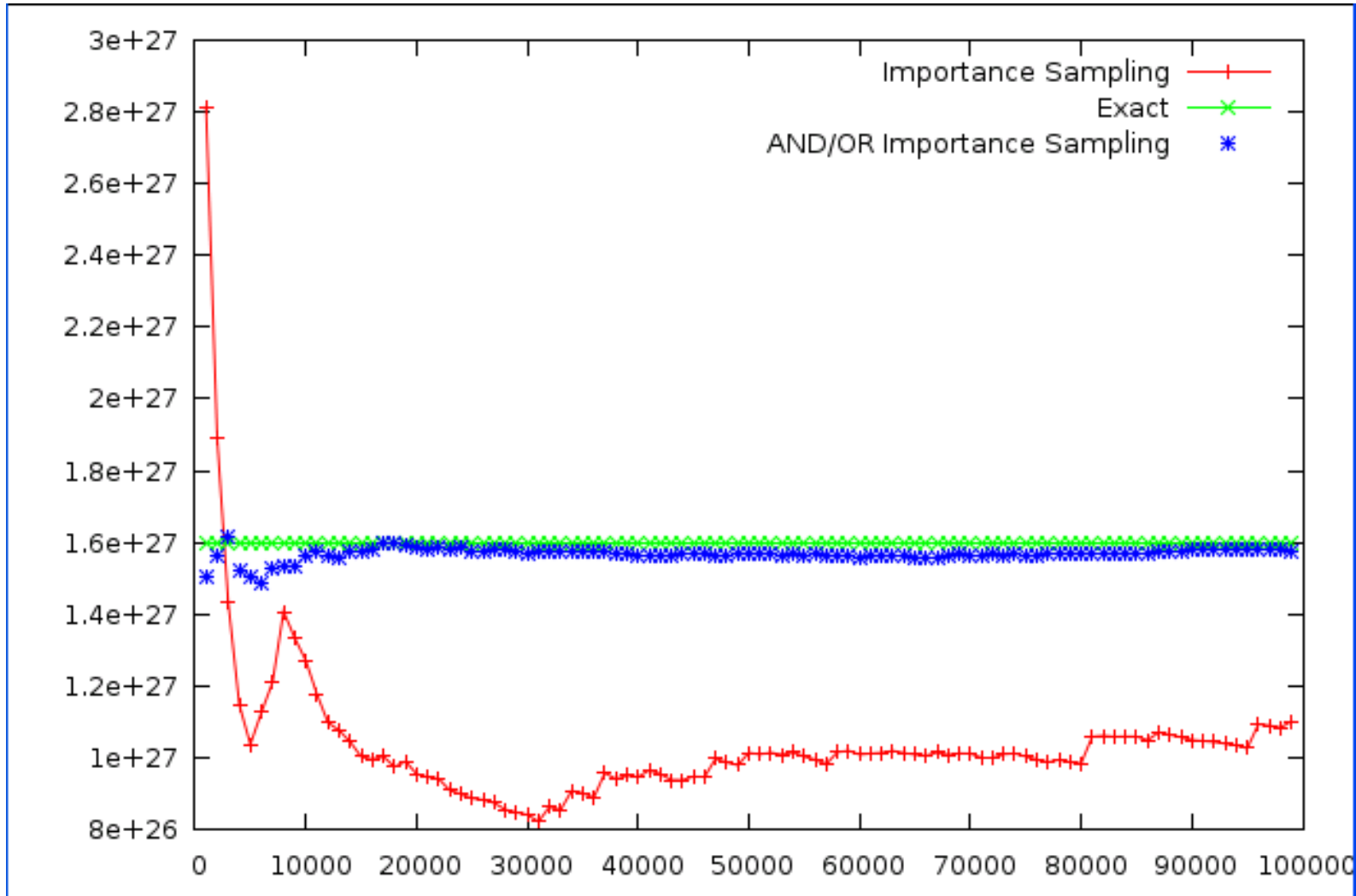
- The dice are independent.
- A better Monte Carlo estimate
 1. Perform the experiment N times
 2. For each dice record the average
 3. Take a **product of the averages**

$$\hat{Z}_{new} = \prod_{j=1}^k \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (\text{the number on the face of the "j"}^{\text{th}} \text{ dice in the } N^{\text{th}} \text{ run})$$

- **Conventional estimate: Averages of products.**

$$\hat{Z} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \prod_{j=1}^k (\text{the number on the face of the "j"}^{\text{th}} \text{ dice in the } N^{\text{th}} \text{ run})$$

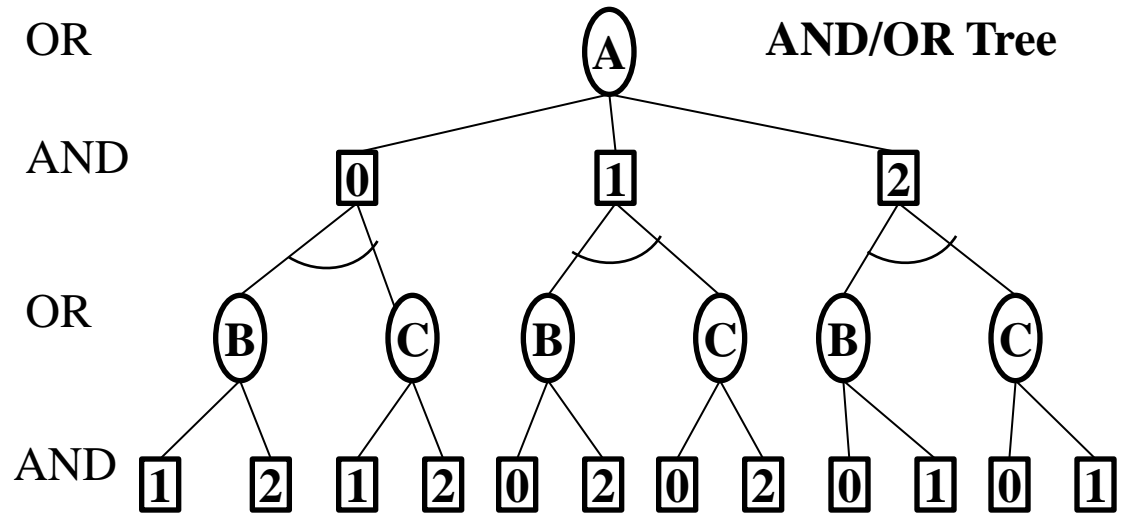
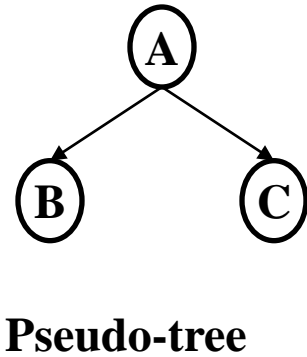
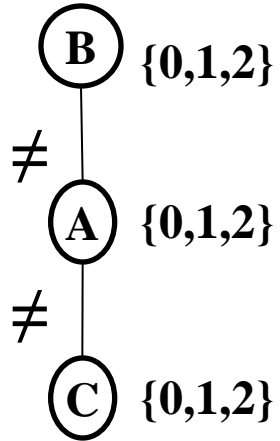
How the sample Average Converges



Moral of the story

- Make use of (conditional) independence to get better results
- Used for exact inference extensively
 - Bucket Elimination (Dechter, 1996)
 - Junction tree (Lauritzen and Spiegelhalter, 1988)
 - Value Elimination (Bacchus et al. 2004)
 - Recursive Conditioning (Darwiche, 2001)
 - BTD (Jegou et al., 2002)
 - AND/OR search (Dechter and Mateescu, 2007)
- How to use it for sampling?
 - AND/OR Importance sampling

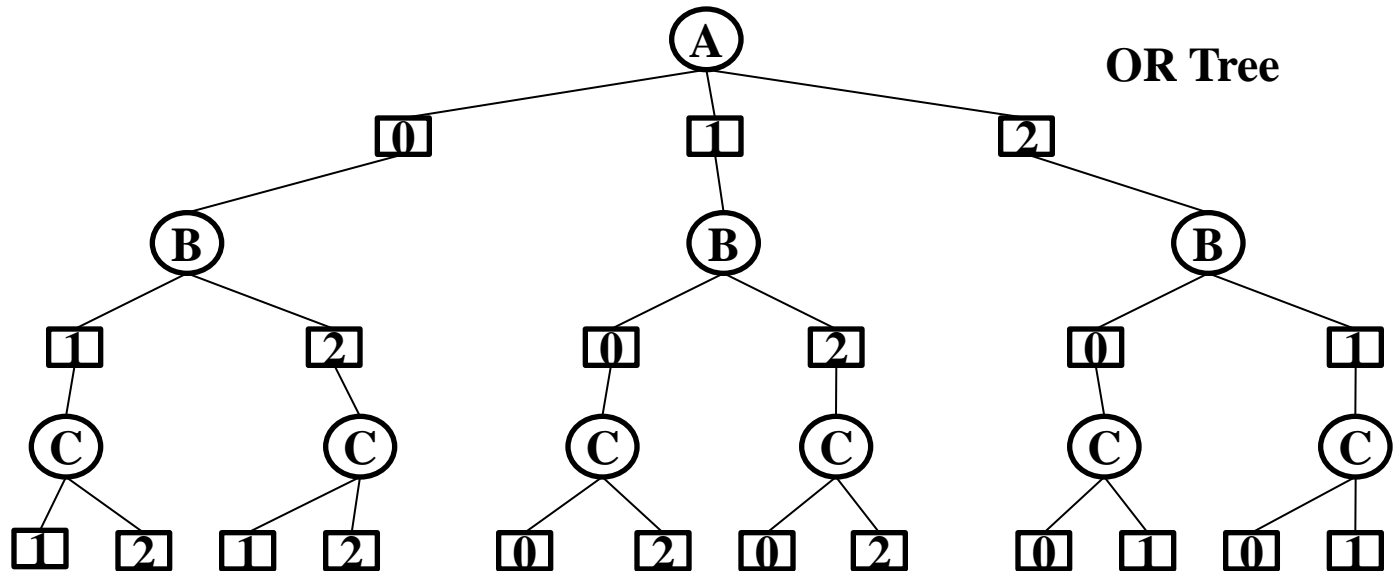
Background: AND/OR search space



Problem

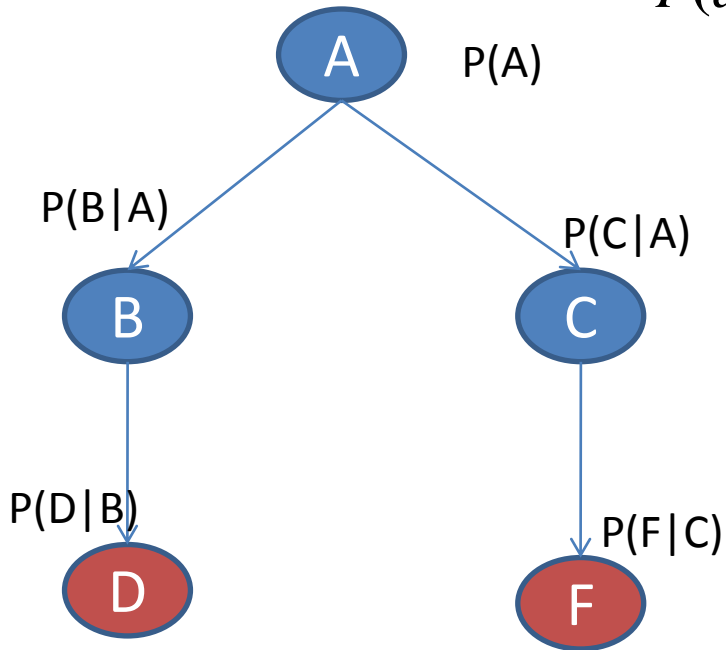


Chain Pseudo-tree



AND/OR sampling: Example

$$P(d, f) = \sum_{a,b,c} P(a)P(c|a)P(b|a)P(d|b)P(f|c)$$



AND/OR Importance Sampling (General Idea)

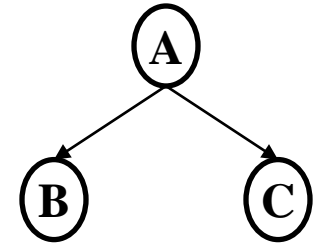
- Decompose Expectation

$$P(d, f) = \sum_{a,b,c} P(a)P(c|a)P(b|a)P(d|b)P(f|c)$$

$$Q(A, B, C) = Q(A)Q(B|A)Q(C|A)$$

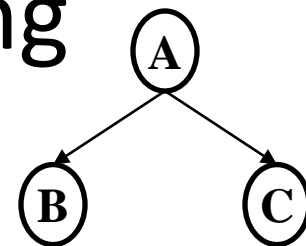
$$P(d, f) = \sum_{a,b,c} \frac{P(a)P(c|a)P(b|a)P(d|b)P(f|c)}{Q(a)Q(b|a)Q(c|a)} Q(a)Q(b|a)Q(c|a)$$

$$= E_Q \left[\frac{P(a)P(c|a)P(b|a)P(d|b)P(f|c)}{Q(a)Q(b|a)Q(c|a)} \right]$$



Pseudo-tree

AND/OR Importance Sampling (General Idea)



Pseudo-tree

- Decompose Expectation

$$P(d, f) = \sum_{a,b,c} \frac{P(a)P(c|a)P(b|a)P(d|b)P(f|c)}{Q(a)Q(b|a)Q(c|a)} Q(a)Q(b|a)Q(c|a)$$

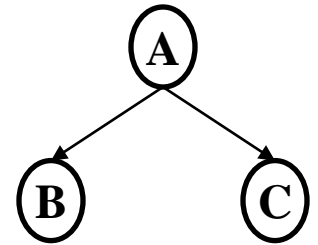
$$P(d, f) = \sum_a \frac{P(a)}{Q(a)} Q(a) \sum_b \frac{P(b|a)P(d|b)}{Q(b|a)} Q(b|a) \sum_c \frac{P(c|a)P(f|c)}{Q(c|a)} Q(c|a)$$

$$P(d, f) = E_Q \left[\frac{P(a)}{Q(a)} E_Q \left[\frac{P(b|a)P(d|b)}{Q(b|a)} \mid a \right] E_Q \left[\frac{P(c|a)P(f|c)}{Q(c|a)} \mid a \right] \right]$$

AND/OR Importance Sampling (General Idea)

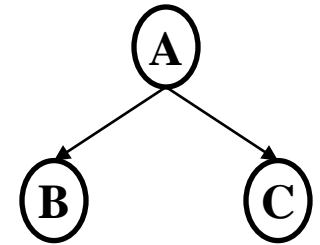
$$P(d, f) = E_Q \left[\frac{P(a)}{Q(a)} E_Q \left[\frac{P(b|a)P(d|b)}{Q(b|a)} \mid a \right] E_Q \left[\frac{P(c|a)P(f|c)}{Q(c|a)} \mid a \right] \right]$$

- Compute all expectations separately
- How?
 - Record all samples
 - For each sample that has $A=a$
 - Estimate the conditional expectations separately using the generated samples
 - Combine the results

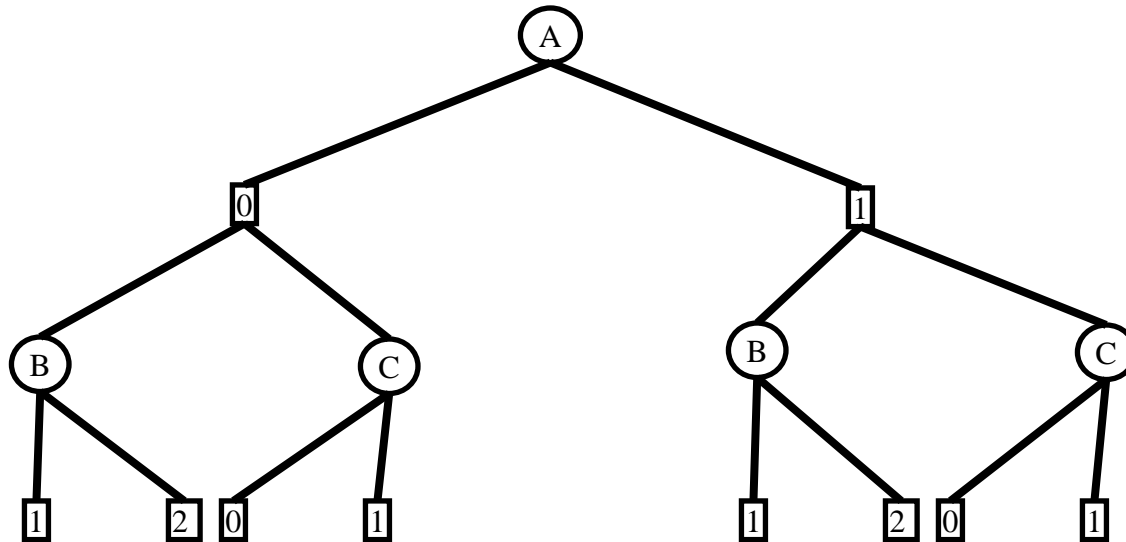


Pseudo-tree

AND/OR Importance Sampling



Pseudo-tree



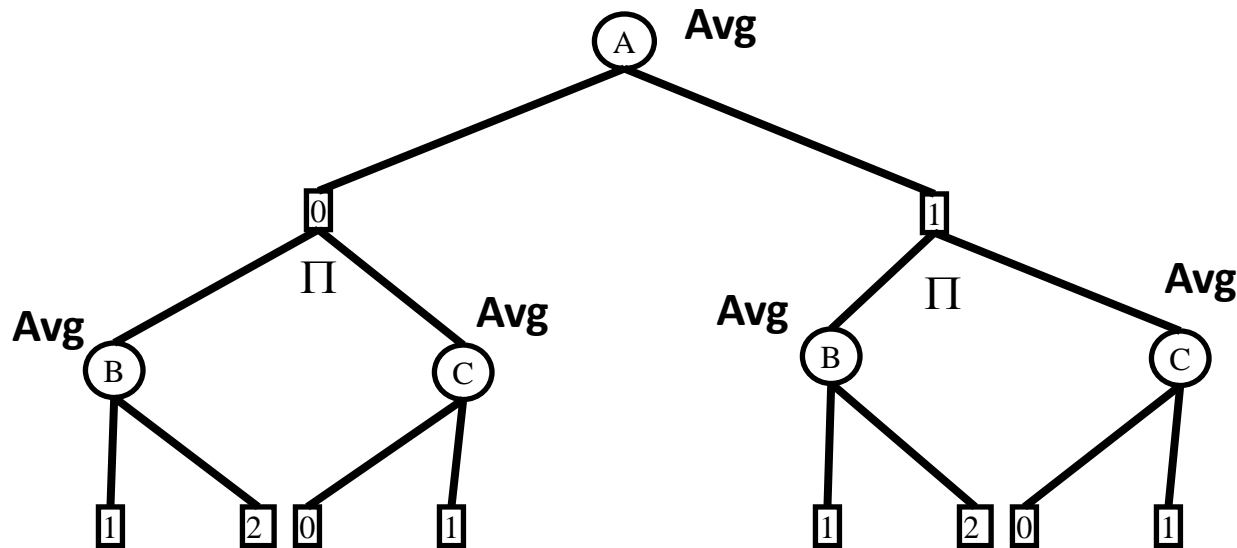
Sample #	A	B	C
1	0	1	0
2	0	2	1
3	1	1	1
4	1	2	0

$$\text{Estimate of } E \left[\frac{P(b | A=0)P(d | b)}{Q(b | A=0)} \mid A=0 \right]$$

= Average Weight of samples of B having $A = 0$

$$= \frac{w(B=1, A=0) + w(B=2, A=0)}{2}$$

AND/OR Importance Sampling



Sample #	Z	X	Y
1	0	1	0
2	0	2	1
3	1	1	1
4	1	2	0

All AND nodes: Separate Components. Take Product

Operator: Product

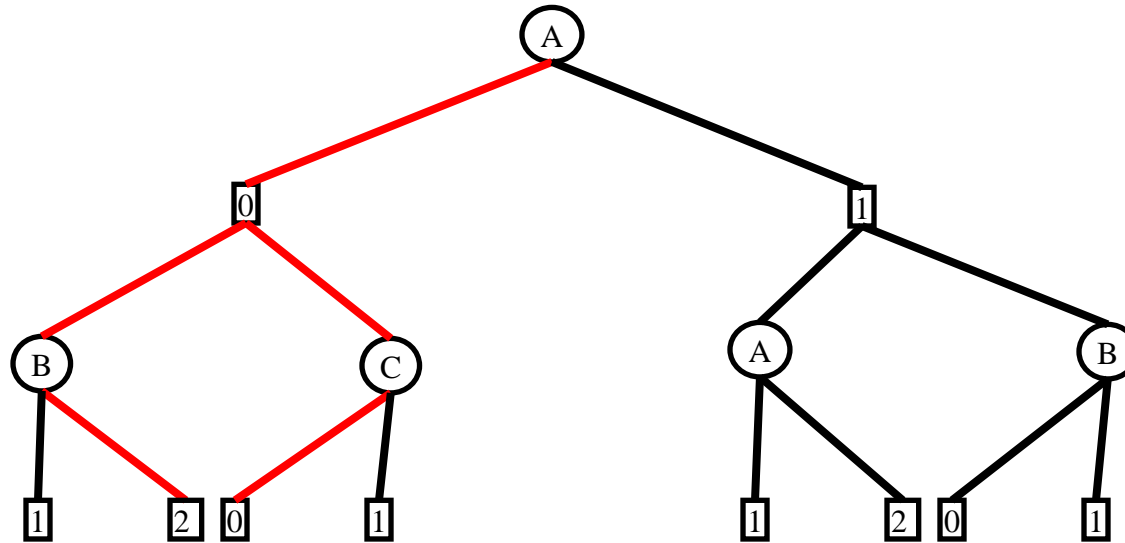
All OR nodes: Conditional Expectations given the assignment above it

Operator: Weighted Average

Algorithm AND/OR Importance Sampling

1. Construct a pseudo-tree.
2. Construct a proposal distribution along the pseudo-tree
3. Generate samples $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N$ from Q along O .
4. Build a AND/OR sample tree for *the samples* $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N$ along the ordering O .
5. **FOR** all leaf nodes i of AND-OR tree *do*
 1. **IF** AND-node $v(i) = 1$ **ELSE** $v(i) = 0$
6. **FOR** every node n from leaves to the root *do*
 1. **IF** AND-node $v(n) = \text{product of children}$
 2. **IF** OR-node $v(n) = \text{Average of children}$
7. **Return** $v(\text{root-node})$

samples in AND/OR vs Conventional



Sample #	A	B	C
1	0	1	0
2	0	2	1
3	1	1	1
4	1	2	0

- 8 Samples in AND/OR space versus 4 samples in importance sampling
- Example: $A=0, B=2, C=0$ is not generated but still considered in the AND/OR space

Why AND/OR Importance Sampling

- AND/OR estimates have smaller variance.
- Variance Reduction
 - Easy to Prove for case of complete independence (Goodman, 1960)

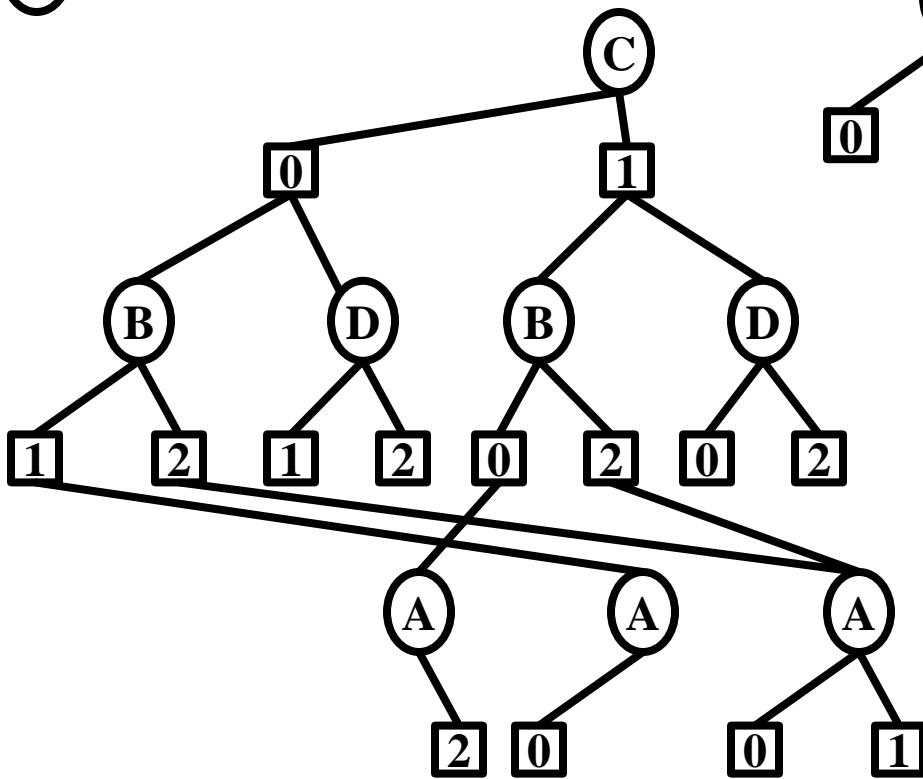
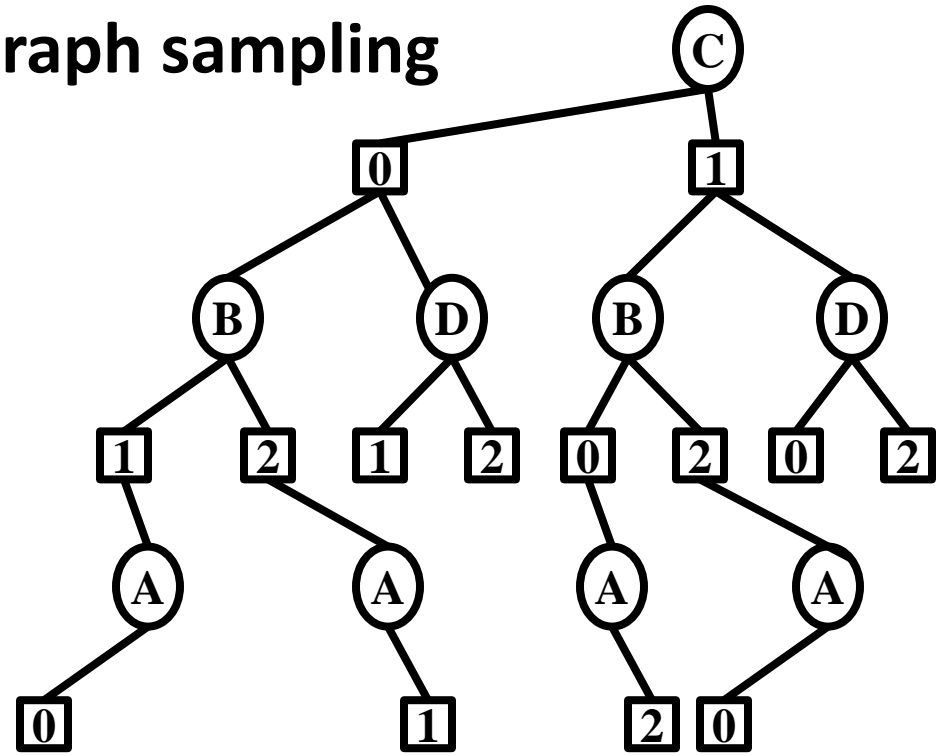
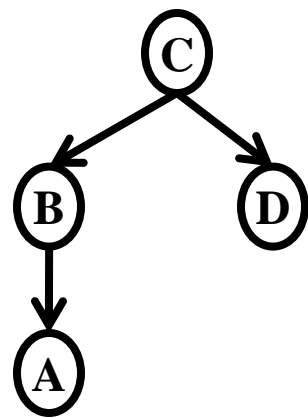
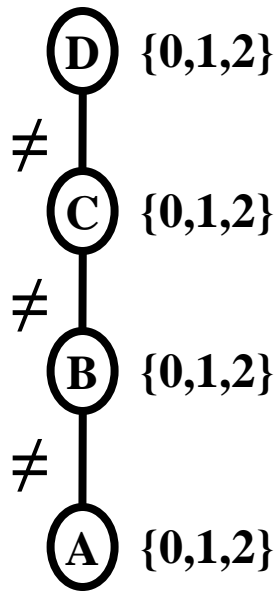
$$V[\bar{xy}] = \frac{V[x]E[y]^2}{N} + \frac{V[y]E[x]^2}{N} + \frac{V[x]V[y]}{N}, \text{ not independent}$$

$$V[\bar{x}\bar{y}] = \frac{V[x]E[y]^2}{N} + \frac{V[y]E[x]^2}{N} + \frac{V[x]V[y]}{N^2}, \text{ independent}$$

Note the squared term.

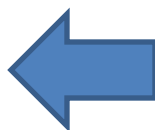
- Complicated to prove for general conditional independence case (See Vibhav Gogate's thesis)!

AND/OR Graph sampling



AND/OR sample tree
8 samples

AND/OR sample graph
12 samples



Combining AND/OR sampling and w-cutset sampling

$$\text{Var}_Q[\hat{P}(e)] = \text{Var}_Q\left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N w(z^i)\right] = \frac{\text{Var}_Q[w(z)]}{N}$$

- Reduce the variance of weights
 - Rao-Blackwellised w-cutset sampling (Bidyuk and Dechter, 2007)
- Increase the number of samples; **kind of**
 - AND/OR Tree and Graph sampling (Gogate and Dechter, 2008)
- Combine the two

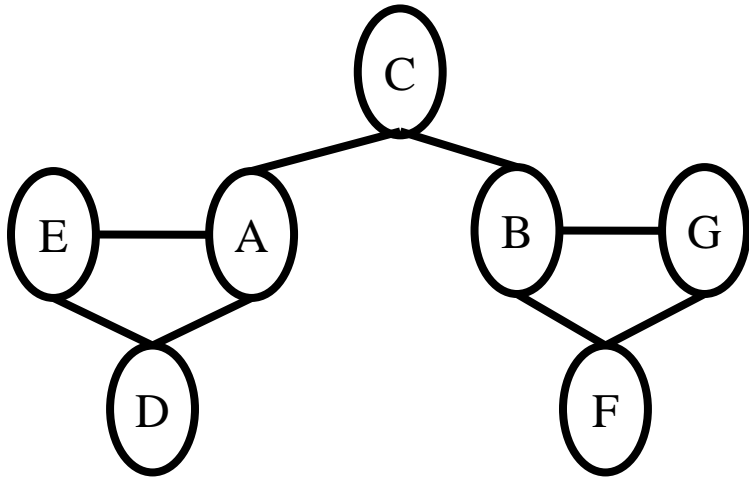
Algorithm AND/OR w-cutset sampling

Given an integer constant w

1. Partition the set of variables into K and R , such that the treewidth of R is bounded by w .
2. **AND/OR sampling on K**
 1. Construct a pseudo-tree of K and compute $Q(K)$ consistent with K
 2. Generate samples from $Q(K)$ and store them on an AND/OR tree
3. **Rao-Blackwellisation (Exact inference) at each leaf**
 1. For each leaf node of the tree compute $Z(R|g)$ where g is the assignment from the leaf to the root.
4. **Value computation:** Recursively from the leaves to the root
 1. At each AND node compute product of values at children
 2. At each OR node compute a weighted average over the values at children
5. Return the value of the root node

AND/OR w-cutset sampling:

Step 1: Partition the set of variables

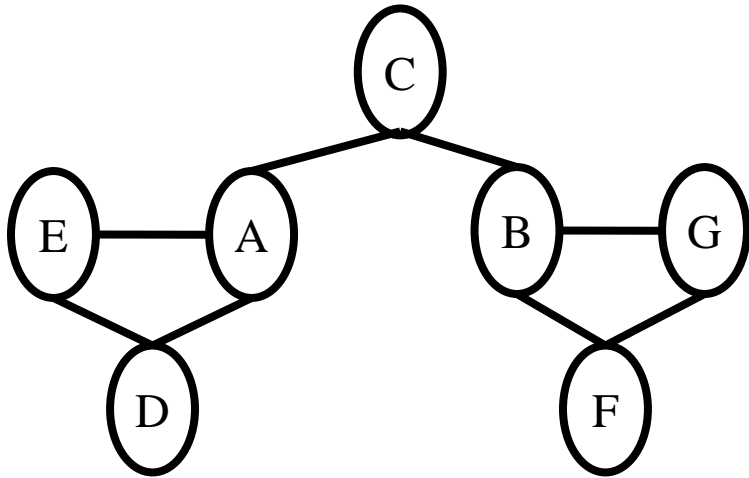


Graphical model

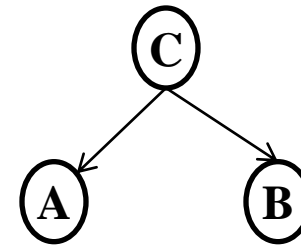
Practical constraint: Can only perform exact inference if the treewidth is bounded by 1.

AND/OR w-cutset sampling:

Step 2: AND/OR sampling over $\{A, B, C\}$



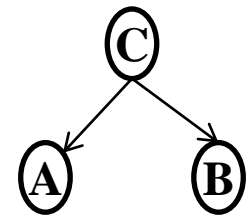
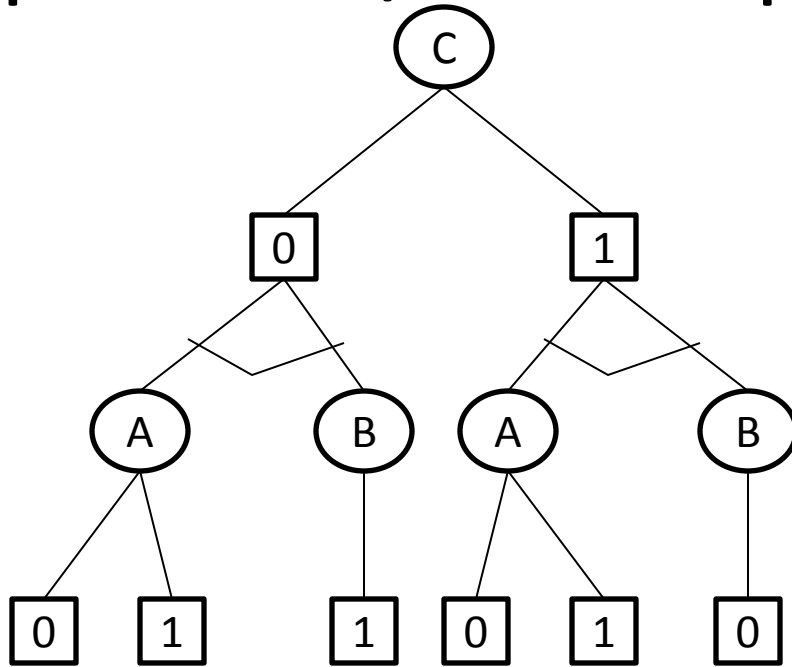
Graphical model



Pseudo-tree

AND/OR w-cutset sampling:

Step 2: AND/OR sampling over $\{A,B,C\}$

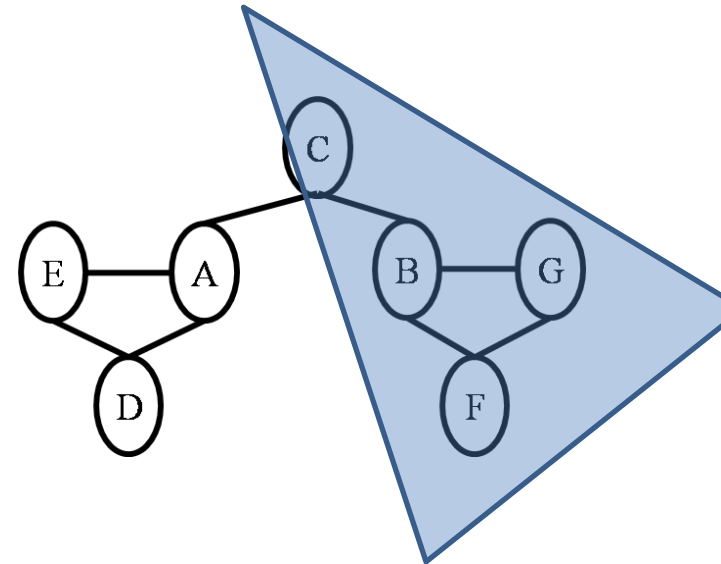
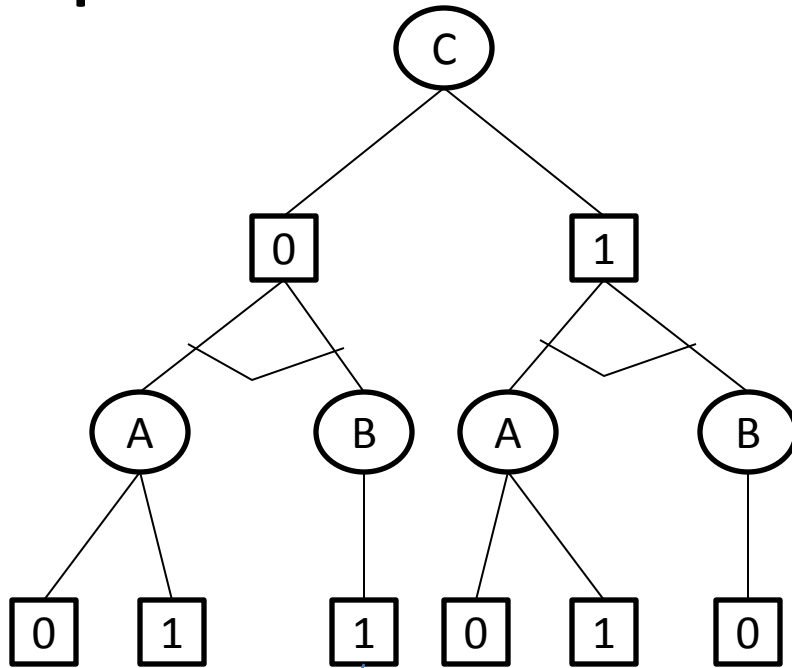


Pseudo-tree

**Samples: $(C=0,A=0,B=1)$, $(C=0,A=1,B=1)$,
 $(C=1,A=0,B=0)$, $(C=1,A=1,B=0)$**

AND/OR w-cutset sampling:

Step 3: Exact inference at each leaf

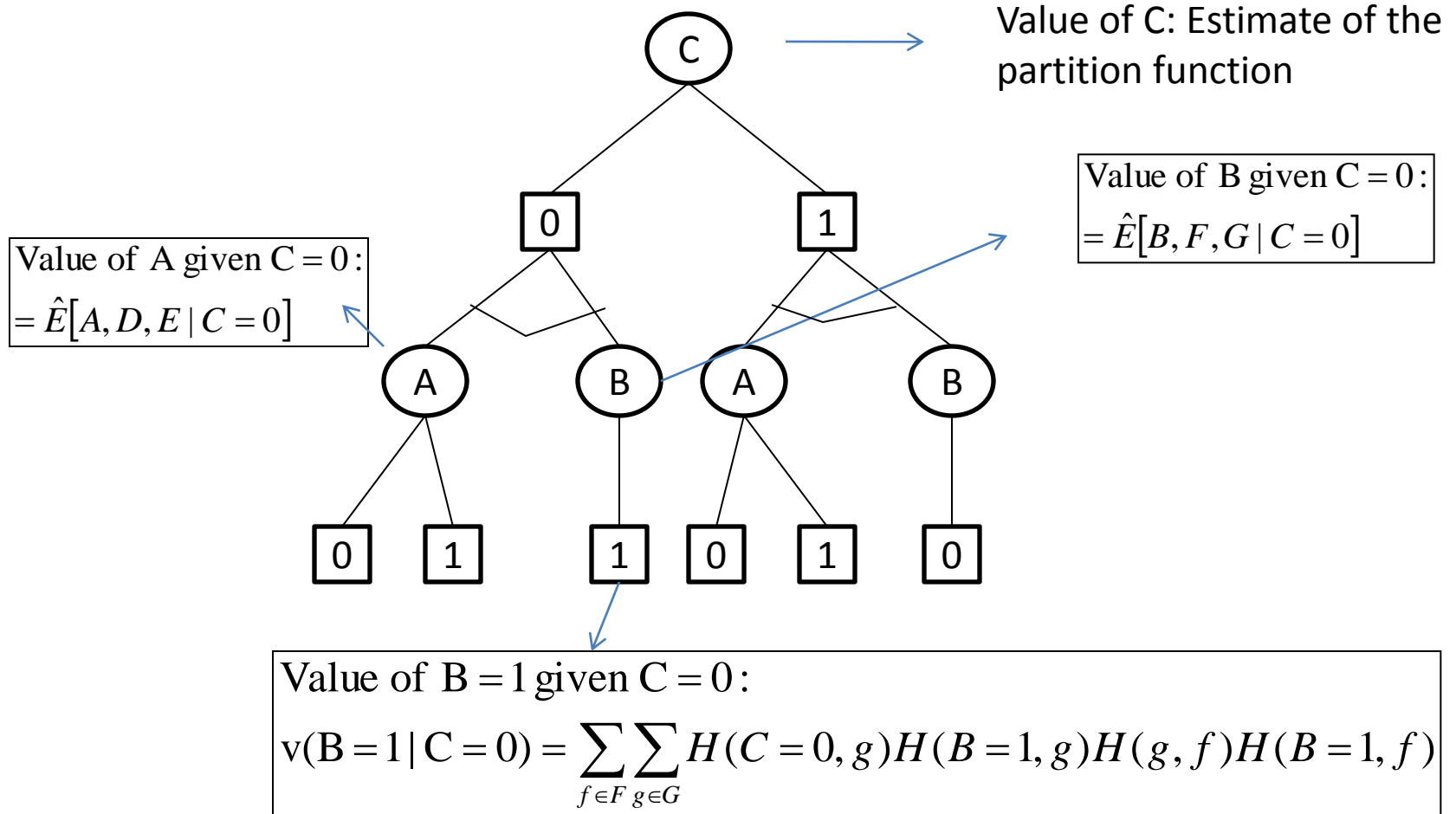


Value of $B = 1 | C = 0$:

$$v(B = 1 | c = 0) = \sum_{f \in F} \sum_{g \in G} H(C = 0, g) H(B = 1, g) H(g, f) H(B = 1, f)$$

AND/OR w-cutset sampling:

Step 4: Value computation



Properties and Improvements

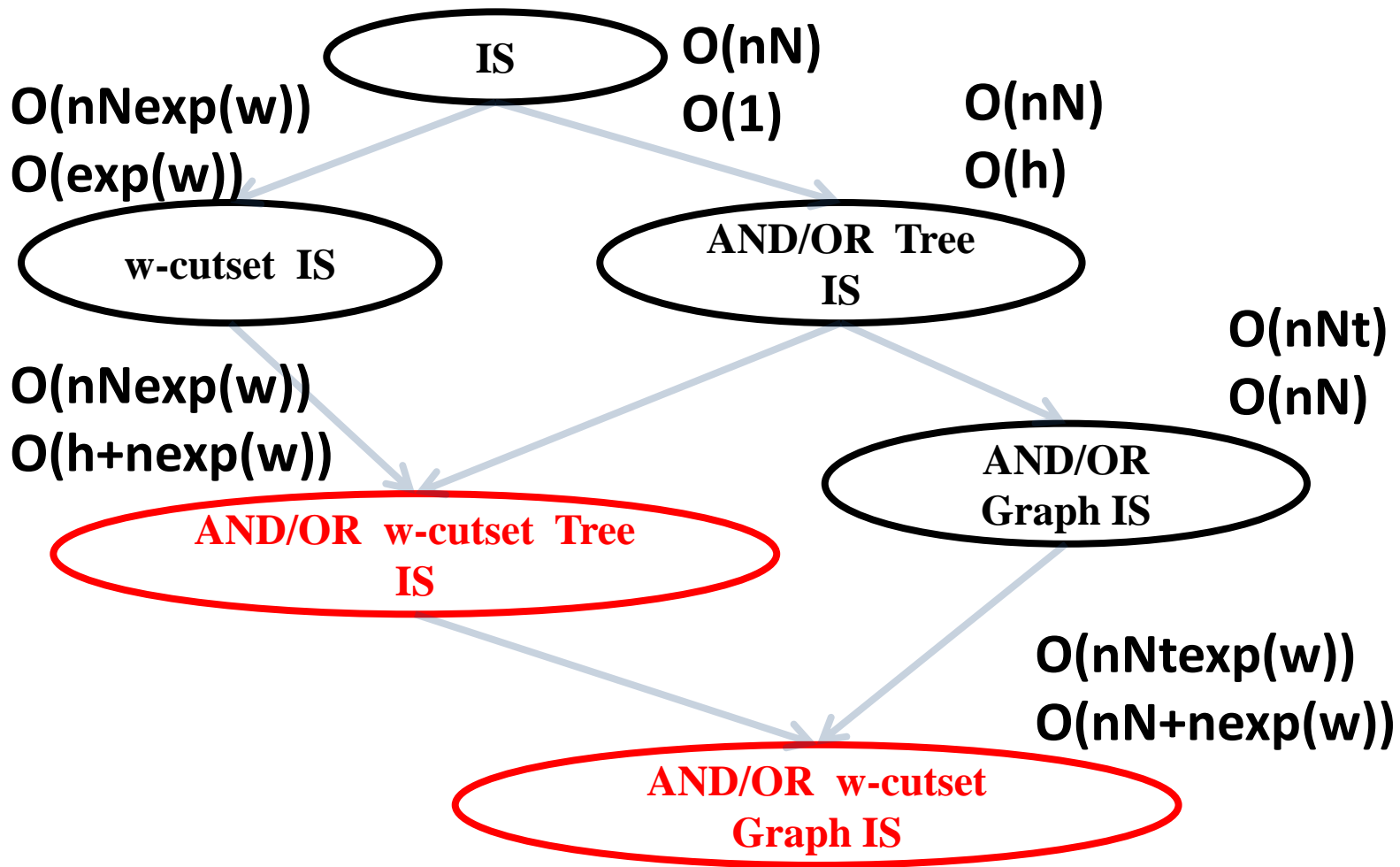
- Basic underlying scheme for sampling remains the same
 - The only thing that changes is what you estimate from the samples
 - Can be combined with any state-of-the-art importance sampling technique
- Graph vs Tree sampling
 - Take full advantage of the conditional independence properties uncovered from the primal graph

AND/OR w-cutset sampling

Advantages and Disadvantages

- Advantages
 - Variance Reduction
 - Relatively fewer calls to the Rao-Blackwellisation step due to efficient caching (Lazy Rao-Blackwellisation)
 - Dynamic Rao-Blackwellisation when context-specific or logical dependencies are present
 - Particularly suitable for Markov logic networks (Richardson and Domingos, 2006).
- Disadvantages
 - Increases time and space complexity and therefore fewer samples may be generated.

Take away Figure: Variance Hierarchy and Complexity



Experiments

- Benchmarks
 - Linkage analysis
 - Graph coloring
- Algorithms
 - OR tree sampling
 - AND/OR tree sampling
 - AND/OR graph sampling
 - w-cutset versions of the three schemes above

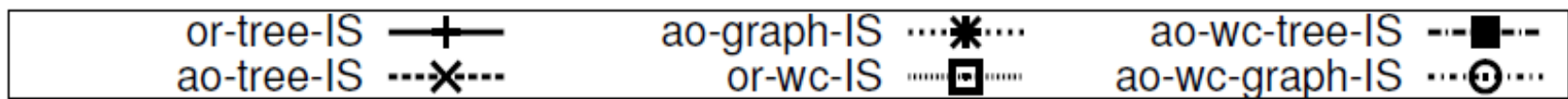
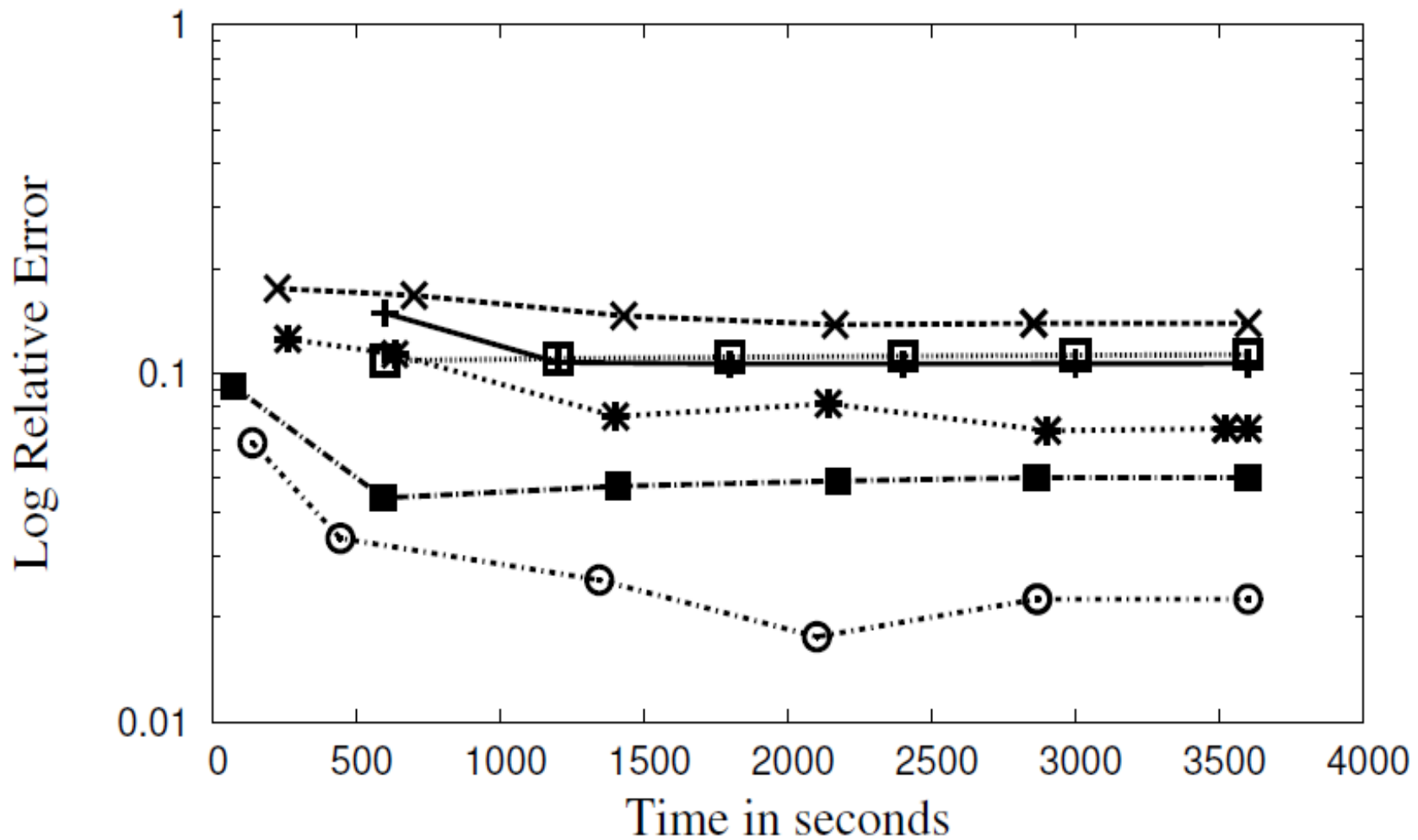
Results: Probability of Evidence

Linkage instances (UAI 2006 evaluation)

Problem	$\langle n, k, E, t^*, c \rangle$	Exact	or- tree-IS Δ	ao- tree-IS Δ	ao- graph-IS Δ	or-wc- tree-IS Δ	ao-wc- tree-IS Δ	ao-wc- graph-IS Δ
BN_69.uai	$\langle 777, 7, 78, 47, 59 \rangle$	5.28E-54	2.26E-02	2.46E-02	2.43E-02	2.42E-02	2.34E-02	4.22E-03
BN_70.uai	$\langle 2315, 5, 159, 87, 98 \rangle$	2.00E-71	6.32E-02	7.25E-02	5.12E-02	8.18E-02	5.36E-02	2.62E-02
BN_71.uai	$\langle 1740, 6, 202, 70, 139 \rangle$	5.12E-111	6.74E-02	5.51E-02	2.35E-02	8.58E-02	9.46E-03	1.21E-02
BN_72.uai	$\langle 2155, 6, 252, 86, 88 \rangle$	4.21E-150	3.19E-02	4.61E-02	2.46E-03	6.12E-02	1.41E-03	2.63E-03
BN_73.uai	$\langle 2140, 5, 216, 101, 149 \rangle$	2.26E-113	1.18E-01	1.12E-01	4.55E-02	1.58E-01	3.54E-02	3.95E-02
BN_74.uai	$\langle 749, 6, 66, 45, 72 \rangle$	3.75E-45	5.34E-02	4.31E-02	2.87E-02	8.08E-02	2.83E-02	2.76E-02
BN_75.uai	$\langle 1820, 5, 155, 92, 131 \rangle$	5.88E-91	4.47E-02	8.15E-02	4.73E-02	7.28E-02	4.20E-02	7.60E-03
BN_76.uai	$\langle 2155, 7, 169, 64, 239 \rangle$	4.93E-110	1.07E-01	1.39E-01	6.95E-02	1.13E-01	5.03E-02	2.26E-02
BN_77.uai	$\langle 1020, 9, 135, 22, 97 \rangle$	6.88E-79	1.06E-01	9.38E-02	8.26E-02	1.24E-01	6.75E-02	3.27E-02

Time Bound: 1hr

Log Relative error Error vs Time for BN_76, num-vars= 2155



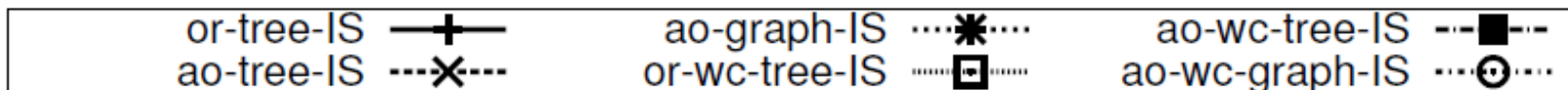
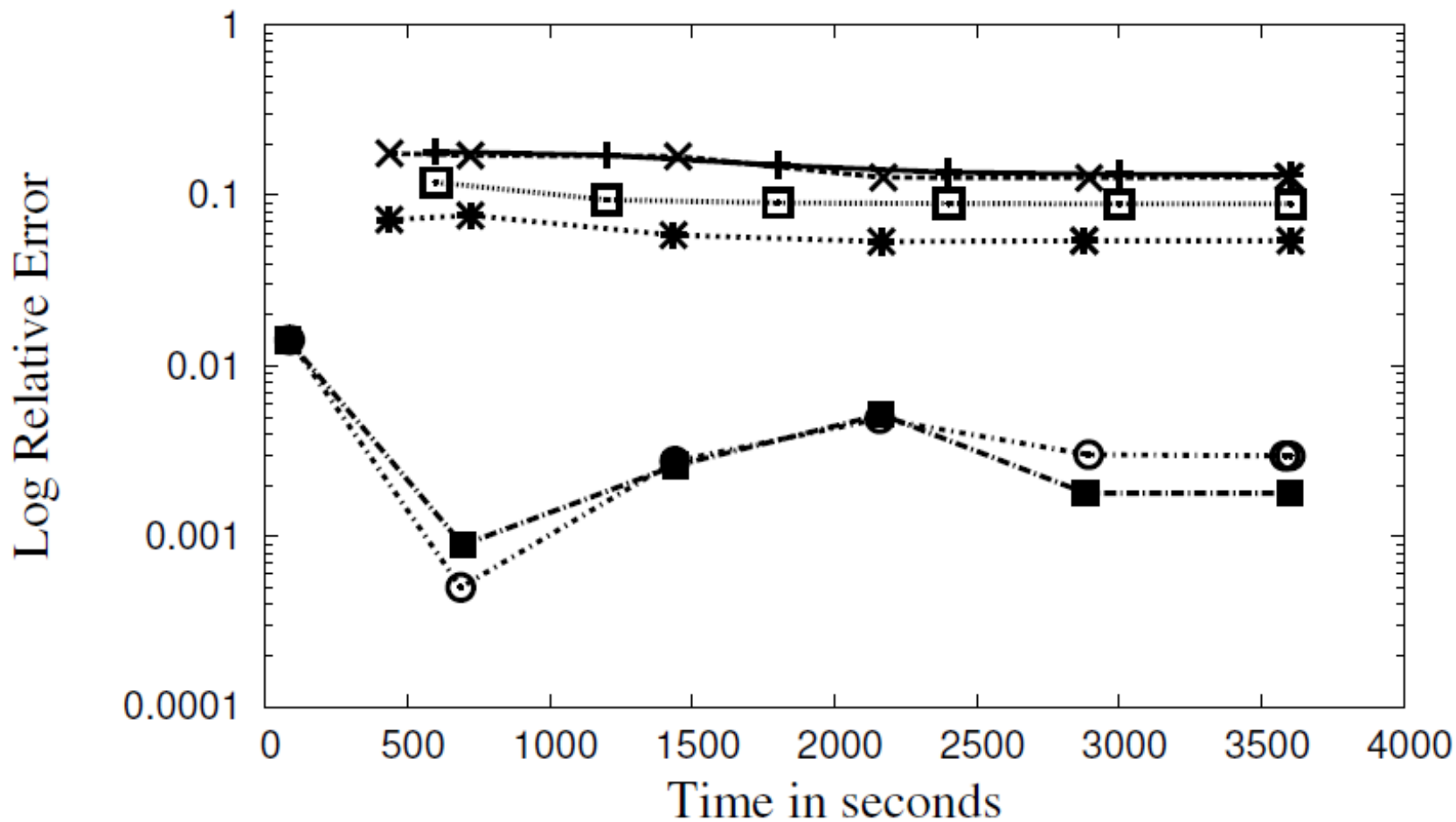
Results: Probability of Evidence

Linkage instances (UAI 2008 evaluation)

Problem	$\langle n, k, E, t^*, w \rangle$	Exact	or- tree-IS Δ	ao- tree-IS Δ	ao- graph-IS Δ	or-wc- tree-IS Δ	ao-wc- tree-IS Δ	ao-wc- graph-IS Δ
pedigree18.uai	$\langle 1184, 1, 0, 26, 72 \rangle$	4.19E-79	3.17E-02	3.44E-02	3.20E-03	4.30E-02	3.49E-04	3.02E-04
pedigree19.uai	$\langle 793, 2, 0, 23, 102 \rangle$	1.59E-60	1.32E-01	1.28E-01	5.41E-02	8.92E-02	1.79E-03	2.97E-03
pedigree1.uai	$\langle 334, 2, 0, 20, 27 \rangle$	7.81E-15	2.18E-03	1.90E-03	1.73E-04	3.15E-05	7.61E-06	1.13E-05
pedigree20.uai	$\langle 437, 2, 0, 25, 33 \rangle$	2.34E-30	1.52E-01	1.56E-01	2.12E-03	6.93E-02	9.17E-04	1.18E-03
pedigree23.uai	$\langle 402, 1, 0, 26, 29 \rangle$	2.00E-40	2.62E-02	2.74E-02	2.90E-02	2.82E-02	2.88E-02	2.88E-02
pedigree37.uai	$\langle 1032, 1, 0, 25, 36 \rangle$	2.63E-117	2.46E-02	3.50E-03	3.24E-03	1.45E-02	3.00E-03	3.01E-03
pedigree38.uai	$\langle 724, 1, 0, 18, 45 \rangle$	5.64E-55	4.08E-02	1.40E-02	1.25E-02	1.69E-02	8.91E-03	8.79E-03
pedigree39.uai	$\langle 1272, 1, 0, 29, 42 \rangle$	6.32E-103	8.67E-02	5.11E-02	1.72E-03	1.89E-02	2.31E-04	2.13E-04
pedigree42.uai	$\langle 448, 2, 0, 23, 50 \rangle$	1.73E-31	4.29E-03	1.94E-03	5.06E-04	1.11E-03	3.53E-05	3.17E-05
pedigree31.uai	$\langle 1183, 2, 0, 45, 118 \rangle$		1.09E-01	1.31E-01	4.15E-02	8.34E-02	0.00E+00	2.93E-04
pedigree34.uai	$\langle 1160, 1, 0, 59, 104 \rangle$		2.12E-01	1.47E-01	8.37E-02	8.09E-02	4.83E-04	0.00E+00
pedigree13.uai	$\langle 1077, 1, 0, 51, 98 \rangle$		3.93E-01	3.93E-01	5.66E-02	9.11E-02	1.51E-04	0.00E+00
pedigree41.uai	$\langle 1062, 2, 0, 52, 95 \rangle$		1.12E-01	5.06E-02	8.23E-04	5.04E-02	0.00E+00	3.15E-04
pedigree44.uai	$\langle 811, 1, 0, 29, 64 \rangle$		3.16E-02	3.08E-02	2.27E-03	1.90E-02	0.00E+00	4.63E-06
pedigree51.uai	$\langle 1152, 1, 0, 51, 106 \rangle$		9.22E-02	6.39E-02	2.26E-02	4.31E-02	9.35E-05	0.00E+00
pedigree7.uai	$\langle 1068, 1, 0, 56, 90 \rangle$		7.86E-02	9.98E-02	2.31E-02	4.61E-02	4.38E-04	0.00E+00
pedigree9.uai	$\langle 1118, 2, 0, 41, 80 \rangle$		3.29E-02	3.19E-02	0.00E+00	8.25E-02	9.74E-03	1.01E-02

Time Bound: 1hr

Log Relative error Error vs Time for pedigree19, num-vars= 793



Results: Solution counting

Graph coloring instance

Problem	$\langle n, k, E, t^*, c \rangle$	Exact	or- tree-IS Δ	ao- tree-IS Δ	ao- graph-IS Δ	or-wc- tree-IS Δ	ao-wc- tree-IS Δ	ao-wc- graph-IS Δ
4-coloring1.uai	$\langle 400, 2, 0, 71, 309 \rangle$		3.82E-03	4.05E-03	4.51E-03	6.00E-03	2.35E-03	0.00E+00
4-coloring2.uai	$\langle 400, 2, 0, 95, 315 \rangle$		1.23E-02	9.54E-03	7.64E-03	3.38E-02	3.63E-02	0.00E+00
4-coloring3.uai	$\langle 800, 2, 0, 144, 617 \rangle$		2.86E-03	4.58E-03	2.32E-03	2.41E-02	2.38E-02	0.00E+00
4-coloring4.uai	$\langle 800, 2, 0, 191, 620 \rangle$		2.13E-02	5.06E-03	2.19E-02	1.79E-02	4.69E-03	0.00E+00
4-coloring5.uai	$\langle 1200, 2, 0, 304, 925 \rangle$		2.98E-02	2.81E-02	5.85E-02	5.70E-02	3.89E-02	0.00E+00
4-coloring6.uai	$\langle 1200, 2, 0, 338, 929 \rangle$		3.43E-02	2.72E-02	2.63E-03	3.17E-03	2.09E-03	0.00E+00

Time Bound: 1hr

Summary: AND/OR Importance sampling

- AND/OR sampling: A general scheme to exploit conditional independence in sampling
- **Theoretical guarantees:** lower sampling error than conventional sampling
- Variance reduction orthogonal to Rao-Blackwellised sampling.
- Better empirical performance than conventional sampling.