# On open problems associated with conditioning in the Dempster-Shafer belief function theory 

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#### Abstract

As in probability theory, graphical and compositional models in the Dempster-Shafer (D-S) belief function theory handle multidimensional belief functions applied to support inference for practical problems. Both types of models represent multidimensional belief functions using their low-dimensional marginals. In the case of graphical models, these marginals are usually conditionals; for compositional models, they are unconditional. Nevertheless, one must introduce some conditioning to compose unconditional belief functions and avoid double-counting knowledge. Thus, conditioning is crucial in processing multidimensional compositional models for belief functions. This paper summarizes some important open problems, the solution of which should enable a trouble-free design of computational processes employing D-S belief functions in AI. For some of them, we discuss possible solutions. The problems considered in this paper are of two types. There are still some gaps that should be filled to get a mathematically consistent uncertainty theory. Other problems concern the computational tractability of procedures arising from the super-exponential growth of the space and time complexity of the designed algorithms.


Keywords: belief functions, conditioning, composition, conditional independence.

## 1 Introduction

By compositional models, we mean multidimensional belief functions constructed from low-dimensional belief functions using some standard composition operator. Such models are much less space-demanding than general belief functions, and the computations with them should be faster and sometimes even better justifiable.

When considering probabilistic compositional models, we mean multidimensional probability distributions composed from their low-dimensional marginals. Similarly, within the framework of D-S belief functions, we consider multidimensional basic probability assignments (BPAs) assembled from a system of low-dimensional (marginal) BPAs. The beneficial effect of their use is apparent. The cardinality of state spaces, for which BPAs are defined, grows super-exponentially with the number of variables. It reflects in the computational complexity of some procedures, even if we have BPAs with few focal elements (BPAs representable by a small number of parameters). Namely, some procedures must go through all states, regardless of the number of focal elements defining the BPAs.

Considering BPAs representable by a "reasonable" number of parameters means we cannot handle all possible belief functions. We can process only the belief functions for which a system of conditional independence relations holds. This is similar to the framework of probability theory. In this paper, we consider the notion of conditional independence relation introduced in [1], though many others were introduced in the literature, as, e.g., [2, 3, 4, The other notion closely connected with all the methods the authors know for efficiently representing multidimensional models is the notion of conditional BPAs. Without conditional BPAs, one could not set up directed graphical belief function models. Without conditioning, we would not be able to define a composition operator, and we would not be able to construct compositional models. Thus, after Section 2 , where the notation and basic notions of D-S belief functions are stated, in Section 3 we present the open problems connected with conditioning. Section 4 presents open problems associated with applying compositional models to inference.

## 2 Belief Function Notation

This paper uses the same notation as in our paper presented at ISIPTA'23 [5]. $X, Y, \ldots$ denote discrete (finite-valued) variables. Lower-case characters $r, s, t$, $\ldots$ denote the sets of variables. $\Omega_{X}, \Omega_{Y}, \ldots$ denote the state spaces of the corresponding variables. For a set of variables $r$, the corresponding state space is a Cartesian product $\Omega_{r}=X_{X \in r} \Omega_{X} .2^{\Omega_{r}}$ will denote the set of all subsets of $\Omega_{r}$.

A basic probability assignment (BPA) for $r$ is a mapping $m: 2^{\Omega_{r}} \rightarrow[0,1]$, such that $\sum_{\mathrm{a} \subset \Omega_{r}} m(\mathrm{a})=1$ and $m(\emptyset)=0$. We often call it a joint BPA to highlight that it is defined for a group of variables $r$. We say that a $\subseteq \Omega_{r}$ is a focal element of $m$ if $m(\mathrm{a})>0$. A BPA with only one focal element is called deterministic. $\iota_{r}$ denotes the deterministic BPA for $r$, the focal element of which is the entire state space: $\iota_{r}\left(\Omega_{r}\right)=1$. Since $\iota_{r}$ represents total ignorance, it is called vacuous. BPA $m$ is said to be Bayesian if all its focal elements are singletons: $(m(a)>0 \Rightarrow|a|=1)$.

A BPA $m$ for $r$ can also be specified by a corresponding plausibility function, belief function (BEL), and commonality function (CF) [6]. These functions are also mappings $2^{\Omega_{r}} \rightarrow[0,1]$. The latter two can be derived from BPA $m$ as follows:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \operatorname{Bel}_{m}(\mathrm{a})=\sum_{\mathrm{b} \subseteq \Omega_{r}: \mathrm{b} \subseteq \mathrm{a}} m(\mathrm{~b}),  \tag{1}\\
& Q_{m}(\mathrm{a})=\sum_{\mathrm{b} \subseteq \Omega_{r}: \mathrm{b} \supseteq \mathrm{a}} m(\mathrm{~b}) . \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

These representations are equivalent; we can uniquely compute the others when one of them is given:

$$
\begin{align*}
& m(\mathrm{a})=\sum_{\mathrm{b} \subseteq \mathrm{a}}(-1)^{|\mathrm{a} \backslash \mathrm{~b}|} \operatorname{Bel}_{m}(\mathrm{~b}),  \tag{3}\\
& m(\mathrm{a})=\sum_{\mathrm{b} \subseteq \Omega_{r}: \mathrm{b} \supseteq \mathrm{a}}(-1)^{|\mathrm{b} \backslash \mathrm{a}|} Q_{m}(\mathrm{~b}) . \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

Based on the requirement of non-negativity and normality of BPAs, and on Eq. (4), it follows that function $Q: 2_{r}^{\Omega} \rightarrow[0,1]$ is a CF for $r$ iff

$$
\begin{align*}
& Q(\emptyset)=1,  \tag{5}\\
& \sum_{\mathrm{b} \subseteq \Omega_{r}: \mathrm{b} \supseteq \mathrm{a}}(-1)^{|\mathrm{b} \backslash \mathrm{a}|} Q(\mathrm{~b}) \geq 0, \quad \text { for all } \mathrm{a} \subseteq \Omega_{r}, \text { and }  \tag{6}\\
& \sum_{\emptyset \neq \mathrm{a} \subseteq \Omega_{r}}(-1)^{|\mathrm{a}|+1} Q(\mathrm{a})=1 . \tag{7}
\end{align*}
$$

It follows from Eq. (2) that a CF is non-increasing in the sense that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{a} \subseteq \mathrm{~b} \Longrightarrow Q(\mathrm{a}) \geq Q(\mathrm{~b}) . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Consider a BPA $m$ for $r$, and suppose $s \subset r$. A marginal of $m$ for $s$ is denoted $m^{\downarrow s}$ (defined in Eq. (9)). A similar notation is used for projections. For $a \in \Omega_{r}, a^{\downarrow s}$ denote the element of $\Omega_{s}$ that is obtained from $a$ by omitting the values of variables from $r \backslash s$. Similarly, for subset $\mathrm{b} \subseteq \Omega_{r}$, its projection $\mathrm{b}^{\downarrow s}=\left\{a^{\downarrow s}: a \in \mathrm{~b}\right\}$. The projection of sets enables us to define a join of two sets. Consider two arbitrary sets $r$ and $s$ of variables (they may be disjoint or overlapping, or one may be a subset of the other), and a $\subseteq \Omega_{r}, \mathrm{~b} \subseteq \Omega_{s}$. Their join is defined as:

$$
\mathrm{a} \bowtie \mathrm{~b}=\left\{c \in \Omega_{r \cup s}: c^{\downarrow r} \in \mathrm{a} \quad \& \quad c^{\downarrow s} \in \mathrm{~b}\right\} .
$$

Notice that if $r$ and $s$ are disjoint, then $\mathrm{a} \bowtie \mathrm{b}=\mathrm{a} \times \mathrm{b}$, if $r=s$, then $\mathrm{a} \bowtie \mathrm{b}=\mathrm{a} \cap \mathrm{b}$, and, in general, for $\mathrm{c} \subseteq \Omega_{r \cup s}, \mathrm{c}$ is a subset of $\mathrm{c}^{\downarrow r} \bowtie \mathrm{c}^{\downarrow s}$, which may be a proper one.

For BPA $m$ for $r$ and $s \subseteq r$, the marginal BPA $m^{\downarrow s}$ for $s$ is defined as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
m^{\downarrow s}(\mathrm{~b})=\sum_{\mathrm{a} \subseteq \Omega_{r}: \mathrm{a} \downarrow s=\mathrm{b}} m(\mathrm{a}) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $\mathrm{b} \subseteq \Omega_{s}$.
An important operator of the Dempster-Shafer (D-S) theory is Dempster's combination rule, which combines distinct belief functions. Consider two BPAs $m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$ for $r$ and $s$, respectively,
and assume they are distinct (independent). Dempster's combination rule is defined for each $\mathrm{c} \subseteq \Omega_{r \cup s}$ as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(m_{1} \oplus m_{2}\right)(\mathrm{c})=\frac{1}{K} \sum_{\mathrm{a} \subseteq \Omega_{r}, \mathrm{~b} \subseteq \Omega_{s}: \mathrm{a} \bowtie \mathrm{~b}=\mathrm{c}} m_{1}(\mathrm{a}) \cdot m_{2}(\mathrm{~b}), \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the normalization constant

$$
\begin{equation*}
K=\sum_{\mathrm{a} \subseteq \Omega_{r}, \mathrm{~b} \subseteq \Omega_{s}: \mathrm{a} \bowtie \mathrm{~b} \neq \emptyset} m_{1}(\mathrm{a}) \cdot m_{2}(\mathrm{~b}) . \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

$(1-K)$ can be interpreted as the amount of conflict between $m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$. If $(1-K)=1$, we say that BPAs $m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$ are in total conflict, and their Dempster's combination is undefined. The assumption of distinct BPAs is fundamental because Dempster's combination is not idempotent ${ }^{1}$.

It is known that Dempster's combination is commutative and associative [6]. Another important property of Dempster's combination rule relates to the marginalization of joint BPAs. This property, called local computation in [8], says that for $m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$ defined for $r$ and $s$, respectively,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(m_{1} \oplus m_{2}\right)^{\downarrow t}=m_{1}^{\downarrow t} \oplus m_{2}, \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

if $s \subseteq t \subseteq r \cup s$.
When introducing conditioning for belief functions, Shafer, in his seminal book [6], starts by describing how Dempster's rule of combination makes describing the assimilation of new evidence possible. More than its role for "updating" the evidence, we emphasize in this paper its power to describe knowledge in a form appropriate for belief-function directed graphical models, which generalize probabilistic graphical models called Bayesian networks. This topic is described in the next section.

## 3 Removal Operator and Conditioning

Belief-function directed graphical models use low-dimensional conditional belief functions (conditionals) as basic building blocks of multidimensional BPAs. Compositional models defined in the next section are composed of (unconditional) low-dimensional BPAs. However, to avoid doublecounting of knowledge, we have to compute conditionals from some of them. Therefore, in both these ways of the efficient representation of multidimensional BPAs, we need conditional BPAs.

Consider two BPAs, $m_{1}$ for $r$ and $m_{2}$ for $s$. Assume they are marginals of some BPA $m$, defined for variables $r \cup s$. This means that if $r$ and $s$ are not disjoint, one cannot expect $m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$ to be distinct. Still, for compositional models, we need to combine them. One cannot use Dempster's rule of combination unless double-counting is prevented. For this reason, we introduce an operator that is an inverse to Dempster's rule of combination.

We use the fact that Dempster's combination rule can be expressed in terms of CFs. Let $Q_{m_{1}}$ and $Q_{m_{2}}$ be commonality functions of BPAs $m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$ from Eq. 10]. As shown in [6], the CF $Q_{m_{1} \oplus m_{2}}$ of their Dempster's combination can be computed for each $\emptyset \neq \mathrm{c} \subseteq \Omega_{r \cup s}$ using the product formula:

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q_{m_{1} \oplus m_{2}}(\mathrm{c})=\frac{1}{L} Q_{m_{1}}\left(\mathrm{c}^{\downarrow r}\right) \cdot Q_{m_{2}}\left(\mathrm{c}^{\downarrow s}\right) \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the normalization constant

$$
\begin{equation*}
L=\sum_{\emptyset \neq \mathrm{c} \subseteq \Omega_{r \cup s}}(-1)^{|\mathrm{c}|+1} Q_{m_{1}}\left(\mathrm{c}^{\downarrow r}\right) \cdot Q_{m_{2}}\left(\mathrm{c}^{\downarrow s}\right) \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

equals the normalization constant $K$ from Eq. (11).
Eq. (13) enables us to define the inverse of Dempster's combination rule called removal in [1] (in 9], it is called the decombination operator). Consider BPA $m$ for $r \supseteq s$. By removing $m^{\downarrow s}$ from $m$, we understand the computation of a BPA $\bar{m}$ for $r$, for which $\bar{m} \oplus m^{\downarrow s}=m$. Since the combination is defined as the pointwise multiplication of CFs followed by normalization, the removal can be defined as the pointwise division of CFs followed by normalization. It means that for the corresponding CF $Q_{m}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(Q_{m} \ominus Q_{m \downarrow s}\right)(\mathrm{a})=L^{-1} Q_{m}(\mathrm{a}) / Q_{m \downarrow s}\left(\mathrm{a}^{\downarrow s}\right) \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

[^0]should hold for all nonempty a $\subseteq \Omega_{r}$. In this case, the normalization constant $L$ equals
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
L=\sum_{\emptyset \neq \mathrm{a} \subseteq \Omega_{r}}(-1)^{|\mathrm{a}|+1} Q_{m}(\mathrm{a}) / Q_{m^{\downarrow s}}\left(\mathrm{a}^{\downarrow s}\right) . \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

Notice that we want to define the removal only when we remove a marginal $Q_{m \downarrow s}$ from $Q_{m}$. Thus, if $Q_{m^{\downarrow}}\left(\mathrm{a}^{\downarrow s}\right)=0$, then also $Q_{m}(\mathrm{a})=0$. So, Eq. 15 does not uniquely specify the value of $\left(Q_{m} \ominus Q_{m \downarrow s}\right)(\mathrm{a})$ for those a, for which in Eq. 15$)$ we get indefinite expression 0/0. In such situations, we have to assign the value not to violate Eq. (8) expressing the fact that CF ( $Q_{m} \ominus Q_{m \downarrow s}$ ) should be non-increasing function. It may happen that even this requirement does not specify the value for some states uniquely ${ }^{2}$ In this case, we assign the maximum possible value. The above considerations summarize in the following formal definition.

Definition 1 Let $m$ be a BPA for $r$, $Q_{m}$ denote the corresponding $C F$, and $s \subset r$. Denote by $R$ an auxiliary function $R: 2^{\Omega_{r}} \rightarrow[0,1]$

$$
R(a)= \begin{cases}Q_{m}(a) / Q_{m \downarrow s}\left(a^{\downarrow s}\right) & \text { if } Q_{m \downarrow s}\left(a^{\downarrow s}\right)>0,  \tag{17}\\ \min \left\{Q_{m}(b) / Q_{m \downarrow s}\left(b^{\downarrow s}\right): a \supseteq b \subseteq \Omega_{r}\right\} \cup\{1\} & \text { otherwise },\end{cases}
$$

and by $Q$ its normalized version $Q=R / L$ (where $L=\sum_{\emptyset \neq a \subseteq \Omega_{r}}(-1)^{|a|+1} R(a)$ ), which is generally a pseudo-CF. If $Q^{\downarrow s}$ is vacuous, then we call CF $Q$ conditional $C F$ and denote it $Q_{m} \ominus Q_{m}^{\downarrow s}=Q$. If $Q^{\downarrow s}$ is not vacuous, then $Q_{m} \ominus Q_{m}^{\downarrow s}$ is undefined.

Remark Despite the fact that we define the removal operator and the conditional for CFs, in what follows, we also use them for BPAs. Thus, $m^{r \mid s}=m \ominus m^{\downarrow s}$ denotes the BPA corresponding to CF $Q_{m} \ominus Q_{m \downarrow s}$. It means that $m \ominus m^{\downarrow s}$ can be computed from $Q_{m} \ominus Q_{m \downarrow s}$ using Eq. (4). Notice that it can also be computed in another way. Applying Eq. (4) directly to function $R$, i.e.. computing the function

$$
h(\mathrm{a})=\sum_{\mathrm{b} \subseteq \Omega_{r}: \mathrm{b} \supseteq \mathrm{a}}(-1)^{|\mathrm{b} \backslash \mathrm{a}|} R(\mathrm{~b})
$$

for all a $\subseteq \Omega_{r}$, we obviously get a function $h: 2^{\Omega_{r}} \rightarrow[0,1]$ which, after a possible normalization, equals $m \ominus m^{\downarrow s}=h(\mathrm{a}) / L$.

We emphasize that it may happen that $m \ominus m^{\downarrow s}$ has negative masses - then, it is not a BPA and we call it a pseudo-BPA. We call $m \ominus m^{\downarrow s}$ a conditional BPA for $r \backslash s$ given $s$. We do it only when $\left(m \ominus m^{\downarrow s}\right)^{\downarrow s}$ is vacuous, which is generally the necessary condition for conditionals [10].

Example 1 Consider variables $X$ and $Y$ with $\Omega_{X}=\{x, \bar{x}\}, \Omega_{Y}=\{y, \bar{y}\}$. Consider BPA $m_{X, Y}$ for $\{X, Y\}$ with two focal elements: $m_{X, Y}(\{(x, y)\})=0.9$ and $m_{X, Y}(\{(x, y),(x, \bar{y}),(\bar{x}, \bar{y})\})=0.1$. Its marginal BPA $\left(m_{X, Y}\right)^{\downarrow X}=m_{X}$ has also two focal elements: $m_{X}(\{x\})=0.9, m_{X}(\{x, \bar{x}\})=0.1$. The computation of $Q_{m_{X, Y}} \ominus Q_{m_{X}}$ is shown in Table 1. To save room in the heading of the table, we slightly modified the notation: $m_{X}$ denotes $m_{X, Y}^{\downarrow X}$, and $m_{X}^{\uparrow\{X, Y\}}$ denotes $m_{X} \oplus \iota_{Y}$. Notice also that $Q_{m_{X, Y}} \ominus Q_{m_{X}}=Q_{m_{X, Y}} / Q_{m_{X}}=Q_{m_{X, Y}} / Q_{m_{X}^{\uparrow\{X, Y\}}}$. The last column in the table is the pseudo-BPA corresponding to $Q_{m_{X, Y}} \ominus Q_{m_{X}}$ computed using Eq. (4).

## Simple Facts about the Removal Operator

Suppose $m$ is a BPA defined for $r$, and $s \subset r$.

1. $m \ominus m$ is always defined, $m \ominus m$ is vacuous.
2. If $\left(m \ominus m^{\downarrow s}\right)$ is defined, then $m^{\downarrow s} \oplus\left(m \ominus m^{\downarrow s}\right)=m$.
3. If $\left(m \ominus m^{\downarrow s}\right)^{\downarrow s}$ is a (non-negative) BPA, then for any focal element a of $\left(m \ominus m^{\downarrow s}\right)$, $a^{\downarrow s}=\Omega_{s}$.
4. For a deterministic $m, m^{\downarrow s} \oplus\left(m^{\downarrow r \backslash s} \oplus \iota_{s}\right)=m$.
[^1]Table 1: The computation of $m_{X, Y} \ominus m_{X}$ in Example 1. Empty cell values equal 0.

| $2^{\Omega_{X, Y}}$ | ${ }^{m}{ }_{X, Y}$ | $m_{X}^{\uparrow\{X, Y\}}$ | $Q_{m_{X, Y}}$ | $a_{m^{\uparrow\{X, Y\}}}$ | $Q_{m_{X, Y} / Q_{m^{\prime}}{ }^{\dagger\{X, Y\}}}$ | ${ }^{m} X, Y$ ө ${ }^{m} X$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\emptyset$ |  |  | 1 | 1 | 1 |  |
| \{(x,y) \} | 0.9 |  | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0.9 |
| $\{(x, \bar{y})\}$ |  |  | 0.1 | 1 | 0.1 |  |
| $\{(\bar{x}, y)\}$ |  |  |  | 0.1 |  |  |
| $\{(\bar{x}, \bar{y})\}$ |  |  | 0.1 | 0.1 | 1 |  |
| $\{(x, y),(x, \bar{y})\}$ |  | 0.9 | 0.1 | 1 | 0.1 | -0.9 |
| $\{(x, y),(\bar{x}, y)\}$ |  |  |  | 0.1 |  |  |
| $\{(x, y),(\bar{x}, \bar{y})\}$ |  |  | 0.1 | 0.1 | 1 |  |
| $\{(x, \bar{y}),(\bar{x}, y)\}$ |  |  |  | 0.1 |  |  |
| $\{(x, \bar{y}),(\bar{x}, \bar{y})\}$ |  |  | 0.1 | 0.1 | 1 |  |
| $\{(\bar{x}, y),(\bar{x}, \bar{y})\}$ |  |  |  | 0.1 |  |  |
| $\{(x, y),(x, \bar{y}),(\bar{x}, y)\}$ |  |  |  | 0.1 |  |  |
| $\{(x, y),(x, \bar{y}),(\bar{x}, \bar{y})\}$ | 0.1 |  | 0.1 | 0.1 | 1 | 1 |
| $\{(x, y),(\bar{x}, y),(\bar{x}, \bar{y})\}$ |  |  |  | 0.1 |  |  |
| $\{(x, \bar{y}),(\bar{x}, y),(\bar{x}, \bar{y})\}$ |  |  |  | 0.1 |  |  |
| $\Omega_{X, Y}$ |  | 0.1 |  | 0.1 |  |  |

5. For a deterministic $m$ with a focal element a, the conditional $\left(m \ominus m^{\downarrow s}\right)$ is a deterministic BPA with a focal element ${ }^{\downarrow}{ }^{\downarrow} \backslash s \times \Omega_{s}$.

Proofs: Let $Q_{m}$ be CF corresponding to BPA $m$.
Ad. 1. For any a $\subseteq \Omega_{r}$, for which $Q_{m}(\mathrm{a})>0, R(\mathrm{a})=1$, and therefore $R(\mathrm{a})=1$ for all a $\subseteq \Omega_{r}$, which equals the normalized CF for vacuous BFA.

Ad. 2. For $\emptyset \neq \mathrm{a} \subseteq \Omega_{r}$ such that $Q_{m}(\mathrm{a})>0$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(Q_{m}^{\downarrow s} \oplus\left(Q_{m} \ominus Q_{m \downarrow s}\right)\right)(\mathrm{a}) & =\frac{1}{K}\left(Q_{m}^{\downarrow s} \cdot\left(Q_{m} \ominus Q_{m \downarrow s}\right)\right)(\mathrm{a}) \\
& =\frac{1}{K}\left(Q_{m}^{\downarrow s} \cdot\left(\frac{1}{L} \cdot \frac{Q_{m}}{Q_{m \downarrow s}}\right)\right)(\mathrm{a})=\frac{1}{K \cdot L} Q_{m}(\mathrm{a}) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since if $Q_{m}(\mathrm{a})=0$, then also $\left(Q_{m}^{\downarrow s} \oplus\left(Q_{m} \ominus Q_{m \downarrow s}\right)\right)(\mathrm{a})=0$, the product of normalization constants $K \cdot L$ must equal 1 because both $Q_{m}$ and $\left(Q_{m}^{\downarrow s} \oplus\left(Q_{m} \ominus Q_{m \downarrow s}\right)\right)$ are normalized CFs.

Ad. 3. If there were a focal element a $\subsetneq \Omega_{r}$ of $\left(m \ominus m^{\downarrow s}\right)$, then $a^{\downarrow s}$ would be a focal element of $\left(m \ominus m^{\downarrow s}\right)^{\downarrow s}$, which contradicts to $\left(m \ominus m^{\downarrow s}\right)^{\downarrow s}=\iota_{s}$.
Ad. 4. Consider a deterministic BPA $m$ with a focal element c , and $\mathrm{a} \subseteq \Omega_{s}, \mathrm{~b} \subseteq \Omega_{r}$. Then

$$
m^{\downarrow s}(\mathrm{a}) \cdot\left(m^{\downarrow r \backslash s} \oplus \iota_{s}\right)(\mathrm{b})=1
$$

only if $\mathrm{a}=\mathrm{c}^{\downarrow s}$ and $\mathrm{b}^{\downarrow r \backslash s}=\mathrm{c}^{\downarrow r \backslash s}$, or, equivalently, if $\mathrm{a} \bowtie \mathrm{b}=\mathrm{c}$. Otherwise, this product equals 0 . Therefore, due to Eq. 10, $m^{\downarrow s} \oplus\left(m^{\downarrow r \backslash s} \oplus \iota_{s}\right)$ is a deterministic BPA with focal element c.

Ad. 5. CF $Q_{m}$ for a deterministic BPA $m$ with a focal element c is

$$
Q_{m}(\mathrm{a})= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } \mathrm{a} \subseteq \mathrm{c}  \tag{18}\\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

and therefore

$$
Q_{m}(\mathrm{a}) / Q_{m \downarrow s}\left(\mathrm{a}^{\downarrow s}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
1 & \text { if } \mathrm{a} \subseteq \mathrm{c}, \\
0 & \text { if } \mathrm{a}^{\downarrow s} \subseteq \mathrm{c}^{\downarrow s} \quad \& \quad \mathrm{a} \nsubseteq \mathrm{c}, \\
0 / 0 & \text { otherwise } .
\end{array}\right.
$$

Using Eq. (17), we get that function $R$ (and therefore also $Q_{m} \ominus Q_{m \downarrow s}$ ) equals 0 for a $\subseteq \Omega_{r}$, for which $\mathrm{a}^{\downarrow s} \subseteq \mathrm{c}^{\downarrow s}$, and simultaneously a $\nsubseteq \mathrm{c}$, which occurs when $\mathrm{a}^{\downarrow r \backslash s} \nsubseteq \mathrm{c}^{\downarrow r \backslash s}$. Otherwise, it equals 1 regardless whether $Q_{m} / Q_{m \downarrow s}$ is equal 1 or it is the indefinite expression $0 / 0$. Thus, $R$ equals CF of the deterministic BPA with focal element $c^{\downarrow r \backslash s}$.

## Open Problems

- Does $\left(m \ominus m^{\downarrow s}\right)^{\downarrow s}=\iota_{s}$ hold for all BPAs $m$ ?

We conjecture that in Definition 1, the assumption that $Q^{\downarrow s}$ is vacuous is unnecessary, that it holds for all BPAs $m$. If not, for which BPAs this equality holds?

- Is it possible to compute conditionals without transforming BF into the corresponding CF?
In computations, we represent knowledge using BPAs as the list of focal elements, the number of which is usually very small. However, when we convert a BPA to a corresponding CF, the CF is usually non-zero for all subsets of the state space. If we want to compute the conditional using Definition 1, then we have to assess the values of the function $R$ for all states. For example, in Table 1, even though $m_{X}^{\uparrow\{X, Y\}}$ has only two focal elements, the corresponding CF in column five is non-zero for all subsets of $\Omega_{X, Y}$. This is true because $m_{X}\left(\Omega_{X}\right)=0.1>0$. So, computations of a conditional using Definition 1 are of high computational complexity and can only be computed for three or four-dimensional BPAs.
As shown in Simple Facts above, the conditional for a deterministic BPA can be easily obtained. Does a more general class of BPAs exist for which one can compute conditionals directly without enumerating the corresponding CFs?
- Is it possible to characterize BPAs $m$, which can be factored as Dempster's combination of its marginal and the corresponding conditional BPA?
In probability theory, a joint distribution $P_{X, Y}$ can always be factored into marginal $P_{X}=$ $\left(P_{X, Y}\right)^{\downarrow X}$ and a conditional $P_{Y \mid X}$ such that $P_{X, Y}=P_{X} \cdot P_{Y \mid X}$. This is not always true for belief functions. Because of the great computational complexity of the respective algorithms, it would be useful to recognize when such a factorization does not exist. In [11, we proved that $Q_{m_{X, Y}} \ominus Q_{m_{X}}$ is a CF if and only if there exists a BPA $\hat{m}$ for $\{X, Y\}$ such that $m_{X, Y}=m_{X} \oplus \hat{m}$, and $\hat{m}^{\downarrow X}$ is the vacuous BPA for $X$. Nevertheless, the question remains about recognizing whether such $\hat{m}$ exists.
- Computational problems.

As mentioned, when transforming a commonality function to a corresponding BPA, we usually deal with an enormous number of sets. For each of them, we have to find its supersets. The transformation itself (Eq. (4)) is a Möbius transform - i.e., repeated addition and subtraction of many, usually very small numbers. This process often leads to rounding errors. As a rule, it does not happen in the inverse transformation (Eq. (22) because we handle BPAs with only a few focal elements. So the question is whether there is a class of CFs for which a suitable representation in computer memory would resolve these issues.

## 4 Compositional Models

Consider two BPAs, $m_{1}$ for $r$ and $m_{2}$ for $s$. Assume they are marginals of some BPA $m$, defined for variables $r \cup s$. Naturally, there is no way how to reconstruct $m$ from its marginals $m_{1}, m_{2}$. However, if we accept the assumption that there is a relation of conditional independence between the considered variables, there may be a unique BPA with the given marginals. In the considered case, it would be the assumption that variables $r \backslash s$ and variables $s \backslash r$ are conditionally independent given variables $r \cap s$. First, we define the notion of conditional independence for BPAs from [1].

Definition 2 Consider three disjoint sets of variables $r, s, t$, and a BPA m defined for variables containing $r \cup s \cup t$. Assume $r$ and $s$ are nonempty. We say $r$ and $s$ are conditionally independent given $t$, with respect to $m$, written as $r \Perp_{m} s \mid t$, if there exist BPAs $m_{1}$ for $r \cup t$ and $m_{2}$ for $s \cup t$ such that $m^{\downarrow r \cup s \cup t}=m_{1} \oplus m_{2}$.

In the above definition, if $t$ is empty, $r$ and $s$ are said to be unconditionally independent, and the joint BPA $m^{\downarrow r \cup s}$ is equal to Dempster's combination of its marginals. If $t \neq \emptyset$, then one cannot combine the marginal for $r \cup t$ with the marginal for $s \cup t$ because the marginal for variables $t$ would be counted twice - recall that Dempster's combination rule is not idempotent. To avoid double-counting this marginal, one has to use the composition instead of Dempster's rule of combination. For the reasons explained later, we call it a d-composition. It is derived from Dempster's combination rule in [12 and defined as follows.

Definition 3 Consider BPAs $m_{1}$ for $r$ and $m_{2}$ for $s$. Their d-composition $m_{1} \triangleright_{d} m_{2}$ is defined as

$$
m_{1} \triangleright_{d} m_{2}=m_{1} \oplus\left(m_{2} \ominus m_{2}^{\downarrow r \cap s}\right),
$$

if the right-hand side of this equality is a BPA. Otherwise $m_{1} \triangleright_{d} m_{2}$ is undefined.
Notice that this paper excludes the possibility of composing BPAs that would yield a pseudoBPA (with negative values). Nevertheless, we admit situations when the expression ( $m_{2} \ominus m_{2}^{\downarrow r \cap s}$ ) defining the composition is not a conditional BPA when it is only a pseudo-BPA.

Example 1 (continued) Dempster's combination of one-dimensional BPA $m_{X}$ with two focal elements $m_{X}(\{x\})=0.9, m_{X}(\{x, \bar{x}\})=0.1$, and pseudo-BPA $\left(m_{X, Y} \ominus m_{X, Y}^{\downarrow X}\right)$ from the last column of Table 1 yields BPA $m_{X, Y}$ from the first column of Table 1, i.e., for the (pseudo-)BPAs

$$
m_{X} \oplus\left(m_{X, Y} \ominus m_{X, Y}^{\downarrow X}\right)=m_{X, Y} .
$$

Similarly, the reader can show that Dempster's combination of pseudo-BPA ( $m_{X, Y} \ominus m_{X, Y}^{\downarrow X}$ ) with any positive one-dimensional Bayesian BPA $m_{X}$ results in a BPA. Nevertheless, considering other one-dimensional BPAs $m_{X}$, their Dempster's combination with pseudo-BPA ( $m_{X, Y} \ominus m_{X, Y}^{\downarrow X}$ ) may yield pseudo-BPAs. For example, $\iota_{X} \oplus\left(m_{X, Y} \ominus m_{X, Y}^{\downarrow X}\right)=\left(m_{X, Y} \ominus m_{X, Y}^{\downarrow X}\right)$.

In [13], another composition operator for belief functions was introduced. This operator is called the f -composition operator in this paper.

Definition 4 Consider BPAs $m_{1}$ for $r$ and $m_{2}$ for $s$. Their $f$-composition is a $B P A m_{1} \triangleright_{f} m_{2}$ defined for each nonempty $c \subseteq \Omega_{r \cup s}$ by one of the following expressions:
(i) if $m_{2}^{\downarrow r \cap s}\left(c^{\downarrow r \cap s}\right)>0$ and $c=c^{\downarrow r} \bowtie c^{\downarrow s}$, then $\left(m_{1} \triangleright_{f} m_{2}\right)(c)=\frac{m_{1}\left(c^{\downarrow r}\right) \cdot m_{2}\left(d^{\downarrow s}\right)}{m_{2}^{\downarrow r \cap s}\left(c^{\downarrow r \cap s}\right)}$;
(ii) if $m_{2}^{\downarrow r \cap s}\left(c^{\downarrow r \cap s}\right)=0$ and $c=c^{r} \times \Omega_{s \backslash r}$, then $\left(m_{1} \triangleright_{f} m_{2}\right)(c)=m_{1}\left(c^{\downarrow r}\right)$;
(iii) in all other cases, $\left(m_{1} \triangleright_{f} m_{2}\right)(c)=0$.

An important difference between this definition and the definition of d-composition is visible at first sight. The reader can see that one and only one expression applies for each c $\subseteq \Omega_{r \cup s}$. Therefore, f-composition is defined for any couple of belief functions. This is its indisputable advantage. A disadvantage is that from the viewpoint of D-S theory, there is no connection to Dempster's rule of combination. The f-composition does not guarantee an expected conditional independence relation among the variables.

However, what is important, both the composition operators introduced in Definitions 3 and 4 satisfy the following properties (properties 1. - 4. are sometimes considered axioms for composition). For proofs, see [13] and [12], where also other properties are studied, including property 5. which also holds for Dempster's combination rule.

Proposition 1 For both composition operators (d-composition and f-composition) the following statements hold. Assume that BPAs $m_{r}, m_{s}$, and $m_{t}$ are for $r, s$, and $t$, respectively, and that all the d-compositions are defined. Then,

1. (Domain): $m_{r} \triangleright m_{s}$ is a BPA for variables $r \cup s$.
2. (Composition preserves first marginal): $\left(m_{r} \triangleright m_{s}\right)^{\downarrow r}=m_{r}$.
3. (Commutativity under consistency): If $m_{r}$ and $m_{s}$ are consistent, i.e., $m_{r}^{\downarrow r \cap s}=m_{s}^{\downarrow r \cap s}$, then $m_{r} \triangleright m_{s}=m_{s} \triangleright m_{r}$.
4. (Associativity under special condition): If $r \supseteq(s \cap t)$, or, $s \supseteq(r \cap t)$ then, $\left(m_{r} \triangleright m_{s}\right) \triangleright m_{t}=$ $m_{r} \triangleright\left(m_{s} \triangleright m_{t}\right)$.
5. (Local computation): If $(r \cap s) \subseteq t \subseteq(r \cup s)$, then $\left(m_{r} \triangleright m_{s}\right)^{\downarrow t}=m_{r}^{\downarrow r \cap t} \triangleright m_{s}^{\downarrow s \cap t}$.

Unlike Dempster's rule, which can be applied only to a couple of distinct BPAs, the composition operators are typically used to compose two non-distinct marginals with a non-empty intersection, to assemble two pieces of evidence with some common knowledge. The composition operator is defined to avoid double counting of evidence from the two composed pieces of evidence. Thus, composition and Dempster's combination are designed for different purposes and possess different properties. While Dempster's rule is always commutative and associative, the composition operator meets these properties only in particular situations (see properties 3. and 4. from Proposition 11). On the other hand, Dempster's rule does not preserve the first marginal; it is not idempotent.

Consider BPAs $m_{1}$ for $r$ and $m_{2}$ for $s$ such that $m_{2} \ominus m_{2}^{\downarrow r \cap s}$ is a BPA. In connection with Definition 3, we will identify situations when conditional BPA $m_{2} \ominus m_{2}^{\downarrow r \cap s}$ is, in a way, "adapted" to BPA $m_{1}$. We say that $m_{2} \ominus m_{2}^{\downarrow r \cap s}$ is tight with respect to $m_{1}$ if for all couples of focal elements a and b ( a is a focal element of $m_{1}$, and b is a focal element of $m_{2} \ominus m_{2}^{\downarrow r \cap s}$ ) the following condition holds:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { for } \forall b \in \mathrm{~b}, \exists a \in \mathrm{a}, \text { such that }\{a\} \bowtie\{b\} \neq \emptyset \text {. } \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Expression (ii) in Definition 4 applies to states for which the composed BPAs are, in a way, incompatible; the second argument does not bear the information on how to divide the mass assigned to a focal element of the first argument. Therefore, Expression (ii) assigns the respective value of a mass function to the least specific focal element. The acceptance of this idea makes the f-composition of any couple of BPAs possible. Notice that if the conditional of $m_{Y, Z}$ is tight with respect to $m_{X, Y}$, then Expression (ii) does not find its use.

## Facts about the operators of composition (proved in [11)

Suppose $m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$ are BPAs defined for $r$ and $s$, respectively.

1. If $m_{2} \ominus m_{2}^{\downarrow r \cap s}$ is a non-negative BPA, then BPA $m_{2} \ominus m_{2}^{\downarrow r \cap s}$ is tight with respect to $m_{1}$ if and only if $m_{1} \triangleright_{f} m_{2}=m_{1} \triangleright_{d} m_{2}$.
2. If $m_{1} \triangleright_{d} m_{2}$ is defined, then $B e l_{m_{1} \triangleright_{f} m_{2}} \leq B e l_{m_{1} \triangleright_{d} m_{2}}$.

Example 2 In this example, we present a pair of BPAs, for which the $f$-composition and $d$ composition differ. Notice that $m_{Y, Z}$ from Table 2 is a conditional, because $m_{Y, Z}^{\downarrow Y}$ is vacuous, and thus $m_{Y, Z} \ominus\left(m_{Y, Z}\right)^{\downarrow Y}=m_{Y, Z}$. Notice also that $m_{Y, Z}$ is not tight with respect to $m_{X, Y}$. Their compositions $m_{X, Y} \triangleright_{d} m_{Y, Z}$ and $m_{X, Y} \triangleright_{f} m_{Y, Z}$ (see Table 2) differ only in the fact that the $d$-composition assigns mass 0.70 to $\{(\bar{x} \bar{y} z),(x \bar{y} z)\}$. In contrast, the $f$-composition assigns this mass to $\{(\bar{x} \bar{y} \bar{z}),(\bar{x} \bar{y} z),(x \bar{y} \bar{z}),(x \bar{y} z)\}$ by Expression (ii). Thus, as more precisely expressed in the assertion above, the result of the $f$-composition is less specific than that of the $d$-composition. By the loss of specificity, we have to pay for the ability to combine any couple of BPAs. In other words, when we want to compose two BPAs whose d-composition is undefined, we can do it using f-composition, but we have to reconcile to a partial loss of information.

Table 2: An example illustrating the relation between $\triangleright_{d}$ and $\triangleright_{f}$

| $a$ | $m_{X, Y}(a)$ |
| :--- | :---: |
| $\{(\bar{x} \bar{y}),(x \bar{y})\}$ | 0.70 |
| $\{(\bar{x} \bar{y}),(\bar{x} y),(x \bar{y})\}$ | 0.30 |


| $a$ | $m_{Y, Z}(a)$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\{(\bar{y} z),(y \bar{z})\}$ | 0.51 |
| $\{(\bar{y} z),(y z)\}$ | 0.49 |


|  | $\left(m_{X, Y} \triangleright m_{Y, Z}\right)(a)$ |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| $a$ | $\triangleright_{d}$ | $\triangleright_{f}$ |
| $\{(\bar{x} \bar{y} z),(x \bar{y} z)\}$ | 0.70 |  |
| $\{(\bar{x} \bar{y} \bar{z}),(\bar{x} \bar{y} z),(x \bar{y} \bar{z}),(x \bar{y} z)\}$ |  | 0.70 |
| $\{(\bar{x} \bar{y} z),(\bar{x} y \bar{z}),(x \bar{y} z)\}$ | 0.15 | 0.15 |
| $\{(\bar{x} \bar{y} z),(\bar{x} y z),(x \bar{y} z)\}$ | 0.15 | 0.15 |

## Open Problems

- What are the necessary and sufficient conditions for $m_{1} \triangleright_{d} m_{2}=m_{1} \triangleright_{f} m_{2}$ ?

Fact 1 characterize situations when $m_{1} \triangleright_{d} m_{2}=m_{1} \triangleright_{f} m_{2}$ under the assumption that $m_{2} \ominus m_{2}^{\downarrow r \cap s}$ is a non-negative BPA. How is it for situations when $m_{2} \ominus m_{2}^{\downarrow r \cap s}$ is a pseudo-PBA?

- Is it possible to characterize pairs of BPAs $m_{1}$ and $m_{2}$ for which the d-composition yields a non-negative BPA?
Consider BPAs $m_{1}$ for $r$ and $m_{2}$ for $s$. If $m_{2} \ominus m_{2}^{\downarrow r \cap s}$ is a BPA, then $m_{1} \triangleright_{d} m_{2}$ is also a BPA. This is a sufficient condition. But, as shown in Example 1, it is not necessary.
- Given BPA $m$ for $r \supsetneq s$, and its conditional pseudo-BPA $m \ominus m^{\downarrow s}$. What is the class of BPAs $\bar{m}$, for which $\bar{m} \triangleright_{d} m$ is a non-negative BPA.
This is a sub-problem of the problem above. Consider, for example $m_{X, Y}$ from Example 1 . It is not difficult to show that $\bar{m}_{X} \triangleright_{d} m_{X Y}$ is a non-negative BPA for any Bayesian $\bar{m}$ for $\bar{X}$.


## - Computational problems.

Because of the computational problems mentioned in the preceding section, we can currently compute $m_{1} \triangleright_{d} m_{2}$ only when the dimension of $m_{2}$ is not greater than four. For higher dimensions, we have to approximate $m_{1} \triangleright_{d} m_{2}$ by $m_{1} \triangleright_{f} m_{2}$. Are there chances to find the representation of conditionals $m_{2} \ominus m_{2}^{\downarrow r \cap s}$ in computer memory so that the computation of $m_{1} \triangleright_{d} m_{2}$ would be tractable for higher dimensions?

## 5 Summary

Both graphical and compositional models for belief functions are based on the idea that a multidimensional model is constructed from low-dimensional belief functions, introducing conditional independence relations among the variables. Both models must employ conditional belief functions to avoid double-counting of knowledge. In this paper, we study the possibility of obtaining conditional BPAs by applying the removal operator, an operator that is inverse to Dempster's combination operator. It is associated with two types of problems, some of which remain open. Theoretical problems arise from the fact that, in some situations, the removal operator is undefined. Also, what causes even more severe problems, the result may go beyond the classical belief function theory because the corresponding BPAs may have negative masses. The other problem is connected with the super-exponential computational complexity of the removal operator. Namely, we only know one way to implement the removal operator based on the transformation of BPAs into commonality functions, which becomes intractable if the dimension of the domains of the BPAs exceeds four.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ An operator $\oplus$ is said to be idempotent if $m \oplus m=m$ for all $m$. Nevertheless, $m \oplus m=m$ holds only for some BPAs, e.g., BPAs with several disjoint focal elements, which are all assigned the same value. The idea of distinct belief functions corresponds to no double-counting of non-idempotent knowledge. See a detailed discussion of this notion in (7).

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ The reader can easily show it occurs for BPAs, for which Dempster's rule is idempotent $(m \oplus m=m)$, which holds for BPAs, the focal element of which are disjoint and all of them are assigned the same value. The examples are deterministic BPAs and uniform Bayesian BPA. In this case, $m \oplus m=m$, as well as $m \oplus \iota_{m}=m$. Naturally, we do not expect $m \ominus m=m$. We prefer that $m \ominus m=\iota_{m}$ holds for all $m$,

