

Decision Networks (Influence Diagrams)

CS 486/686: Introduction to Artificial Intelligence

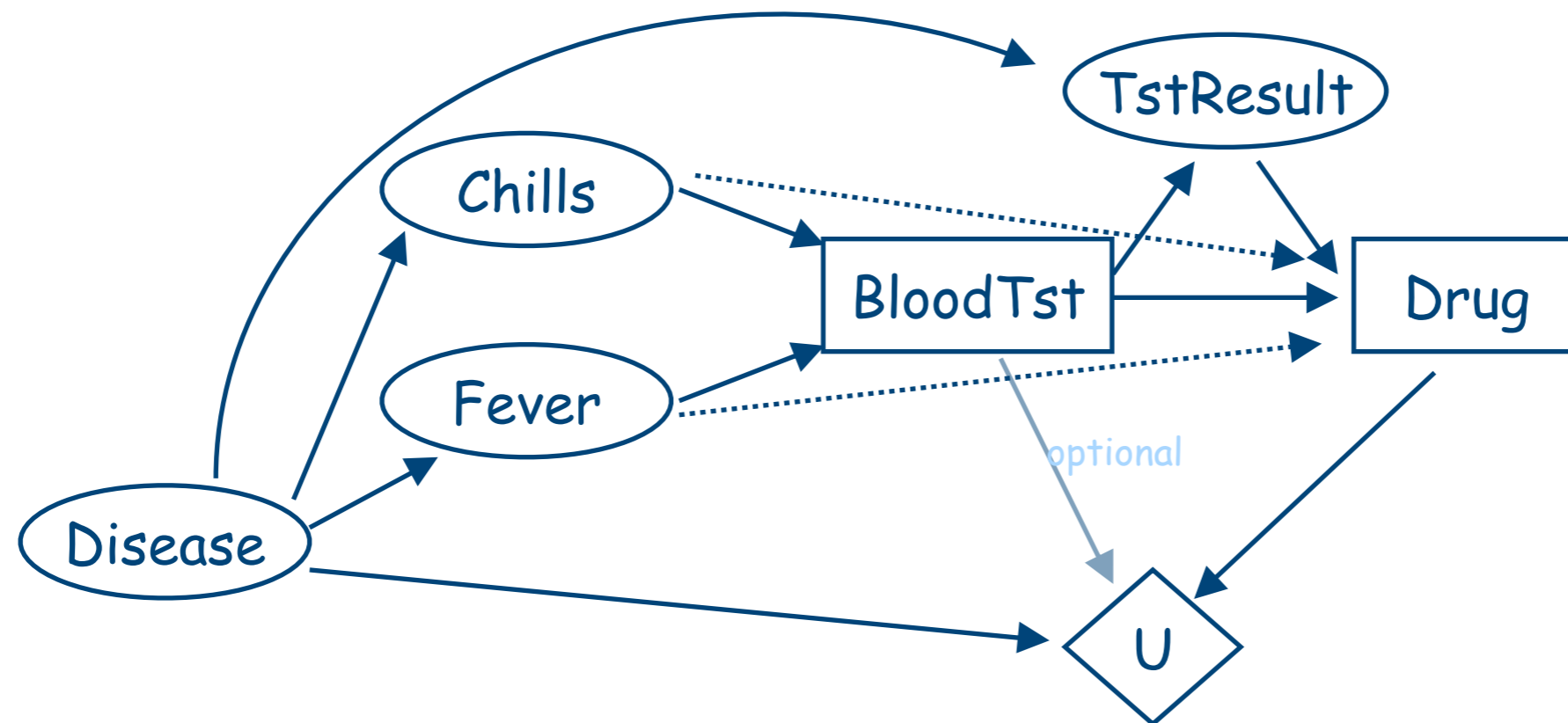
Outline

- Decision Networks
- Computing Policies
- Value of Information

Introduction

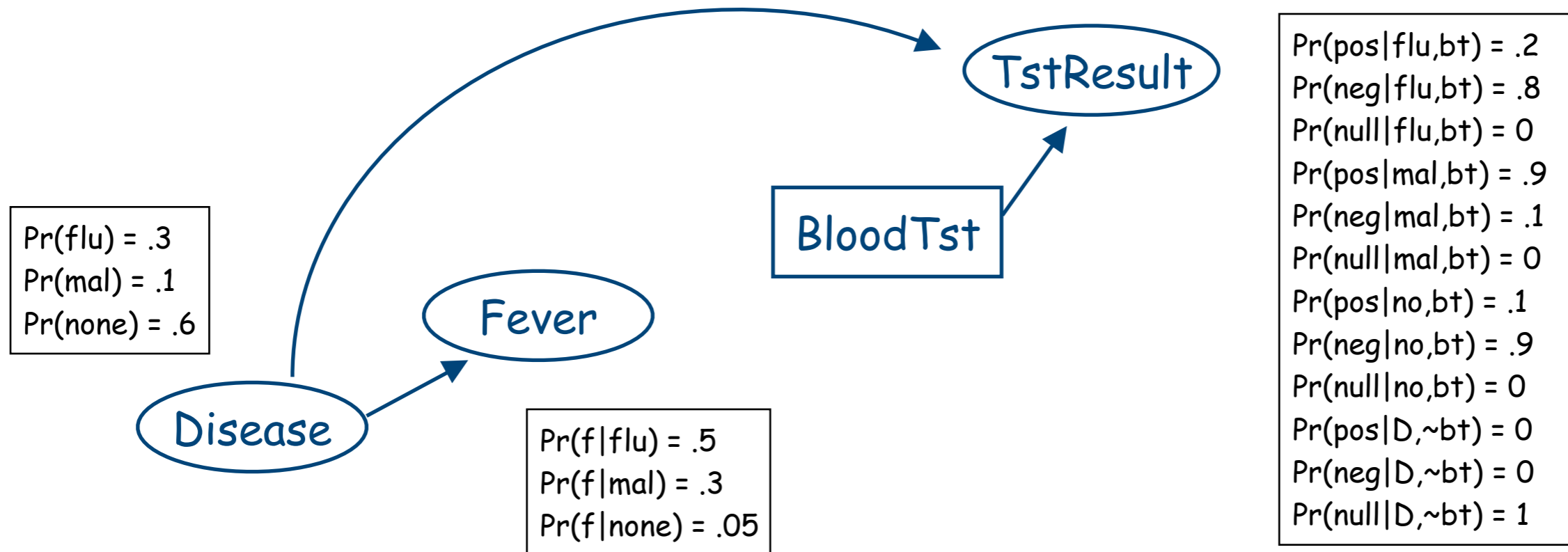
- Decision networks (aka influence diagrams) provide a representation for sequential decision making
- Basic idea
 - Random variables like in Bayes Nets
 - Decision variables that you “control”
 - Utility variables which state how good certain states are

Example Decision Network



Chance Nodes

- Random variables (denoted by circles)
- Like as in a BN, probabilistic dependence on parents



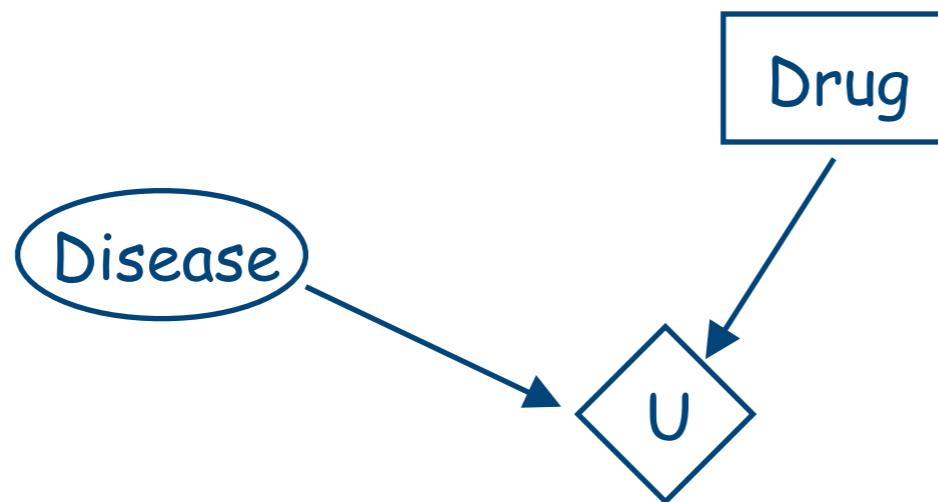
Decision Nodes

- Variables the decision maker sets (denoted by squares)
- Parents reflect information available at time of decision



Value Nodes

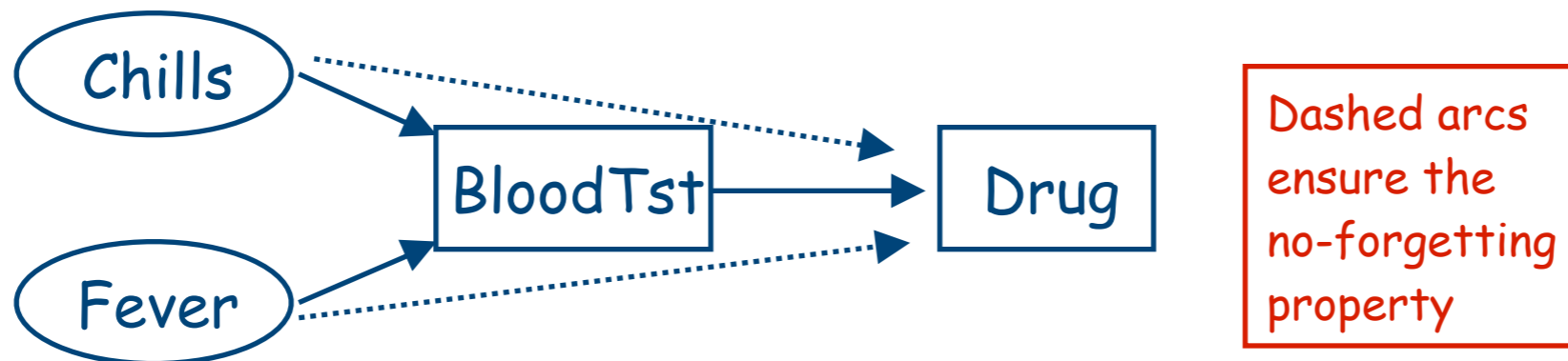
- Specifies the utility of a state (denoted by a diamond)
- Utility depends only on state of parents
- Generally, only one value node in a network



$U(\text{fludrug}, \text{flu}) = 20$
$U(\text{fludrug}, \text{mal}) = -300$
$U(\text{fludrug}, \text{none}) = -5$
$U(\text{maldrug}, \text{flu}) = -30$
$U(\text{maldrug}, \text{mal}) = 10$
$U(\text{maldrug}, \text{none}) = -20$
$U(\text{no drug}, \text{flu}) = -10$
$U(\text{no drug}, \text{mal}) = -285$
$U(\text{no drug}, \text{none}) = 30$

Assumptions

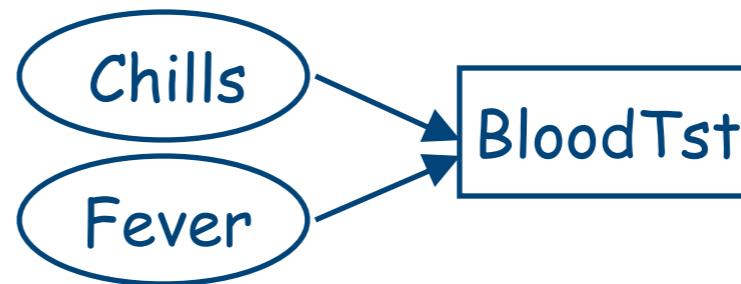
- Decision nodes are totally ordered
 - Given decision variables D_1, \dots, D_n , decisions are made in sequence
- No forgetting property
 - Any information available for decision D_i remains available for decision D_j where $j > i$
 - All parents of D_i are also parents for D_j



Policies

- Let $\text{Par}(D_i)$ be the parents of decision node D_i
 - $\text{Dom}(\text{Par}(D_i))$ is the set of assignments to $\text{Par}(D_i)$
- A policy δ is a set of mappings δ_i , one for each decision node D_i
 - $\delta_i(D_i)$ associates a decision for each parent assignment
 - $\delta_i: \text{Dom}(\text{Par}(D_i)) \rightarrow \text{Dom}(D_i)$

$\delta_{BT}(c, f) = bt$
 $\delta_{BT}(c, \sim f) = \sim bt$
 $\delta_{BT}(\sim c, f) = bt$
 $\delta_{BT}(\sim c, \sim f) = \sim bt$



Value of a Policy

- The value of a policy δ is the expected utility given that decision nodes are executed according to δ
- Given assignment \mathbf{x} to random variables \mathbf{X} , let $\delta(\mathbf{x})$ be the assignment to decision variables dictated by δ
 - Value of δ

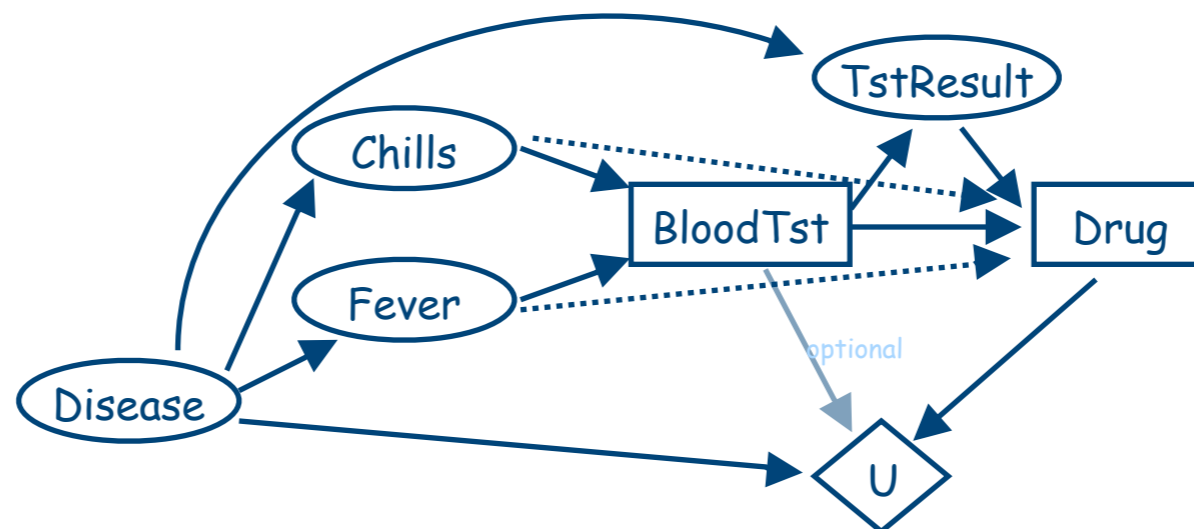
$$EU(\delta) = \sum_{\mathbf{x}} P(\mathbf{x}, \delta(\mathbf{x})) U(\mathbf{x}, \delta(\mathbf{x}))$$

Optimal Policy

- An optimal policy δ^* is such that $EU(\delta^*) \geq EU(\delta)$ for all δ
- We can use dynamic programming to avoid enumerating all possible policies
- We can also use the BN structure and Variable Elimination to aid the computation

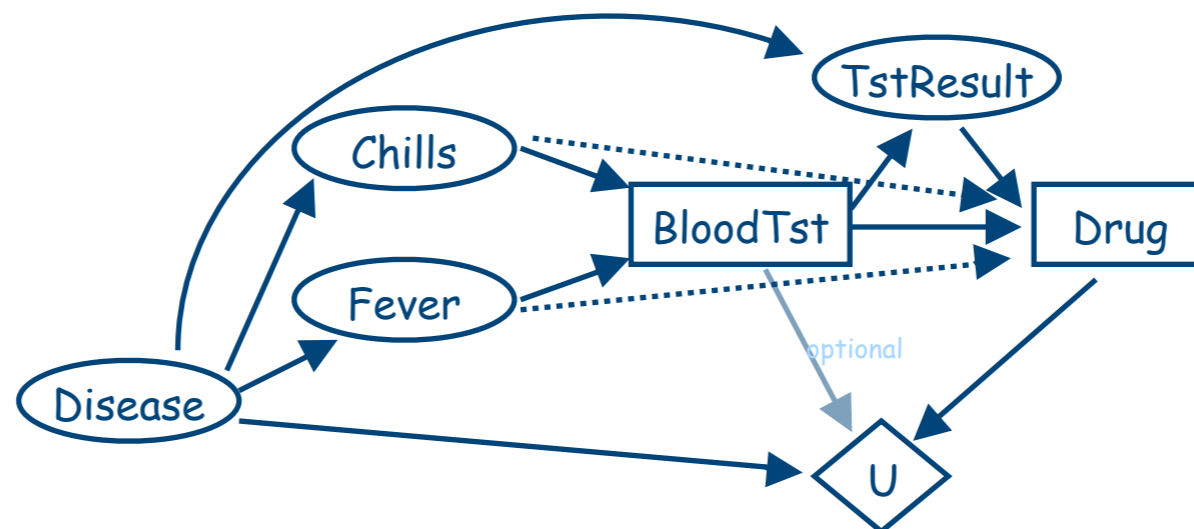
Computing the Optimal Policy

- Work backwards as follows
 - Compute optimal policy for Drug
 - For each asst to parents (C,F,BT,TR) and for each decision value (D = md,fd,none), **compute the expected value** of choosing that value of D
 - Set policy choice for each value of parents to be the value of D that has max value



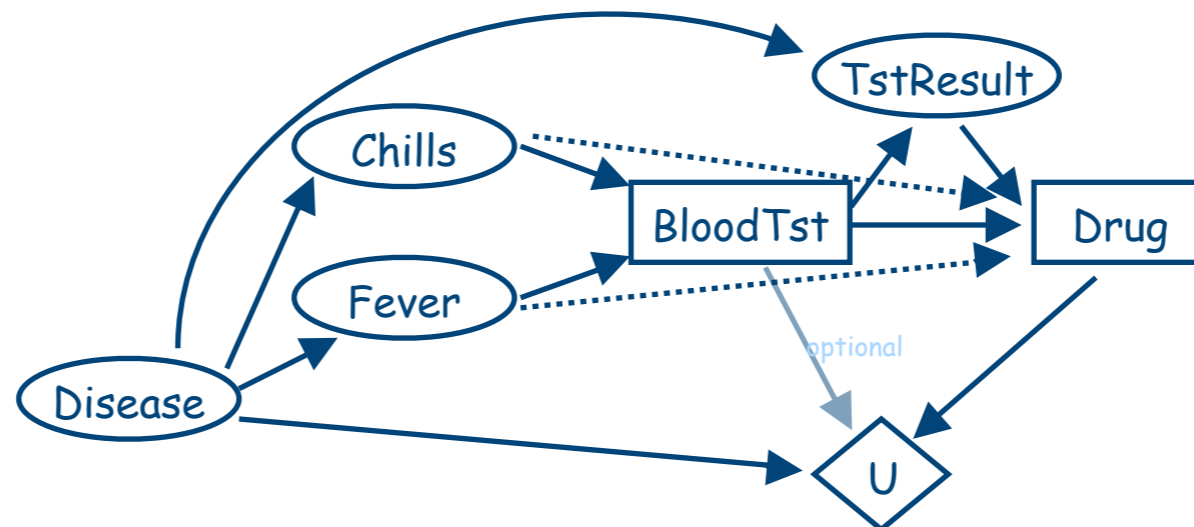
Computing the Optimal Policy

- Next compute policy for BT, given policy $\delta_D(C,F,BT,TR)$ just computed
 - Since δ_D is fixed, we treat D as a random variable with deterministic probabilities
 - Solve for BT just like you did for D



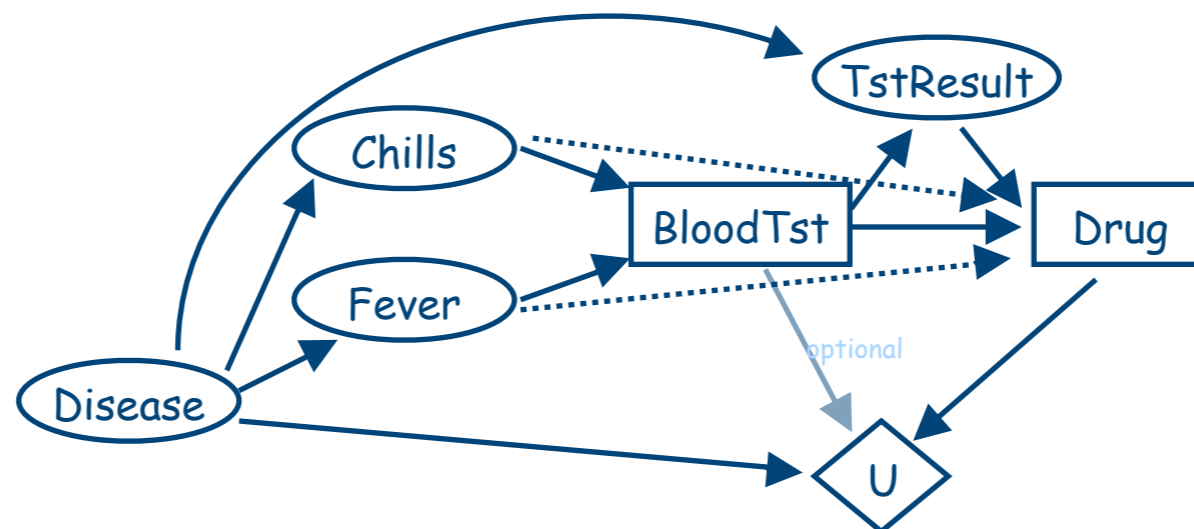
Computing the Optimal Policy

- How do we compute these expected values?
 - Suppose we have asst $\langle c, f, bt, pos \rangle$ to parents of *Drug*
 - We want to compute EU of deciding to set *Drug* = *md*
 - We can run variable elimination!



Computing the Optimal Policy

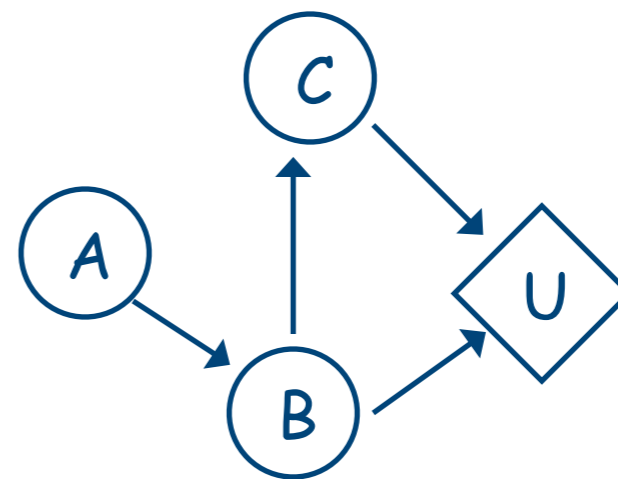
- Treat C, F, BT, Tr, Dr as evidence
 - This reduces the factors
 - Eliminate remaining variables (Dis)
 - Left with factor $U() = \sum_{Dis} P(Dis | c, f, bt, pos, md) U(Dis, md, bt)$
- We now know EU of doing $Dr = md$ when c, f, bt, pos



Computing Expected Utilities

- Computing expected utilities with BNs is straightforward
- Utility nodes are just factors that can be dealt with using variable elimination

$$\begin{aligned} EU &= \sum_{A,B,C} P(A,B,C) U(B,C) \\ &= \sum_{A,B,C} P(C|B) P(B|A) P(A) U(B,C) \end{aligned}$$



Optimizing Policies: Key Points

- If decision node D has no decisions that follow it, we can find its policy by instantiating its parents and computing the expected utility for each decision given parents
 - No-forgetting means that all other decision are instantiated
 - Easy to compute the expected utility using VE
 - Number of computations is large
 - We run expected utility calculations for each parent instantiation and each decision instantiation
 - Policy: Max decision for each parent instantiation

Optimizing Policies: Key points

- When node D is optimized, can be treated as a random variable
- If we optimize from the last decision to the first, at each point we can optimize a single decision by simple VE
 - Why? Its successor decisions are simply random variables in the BN

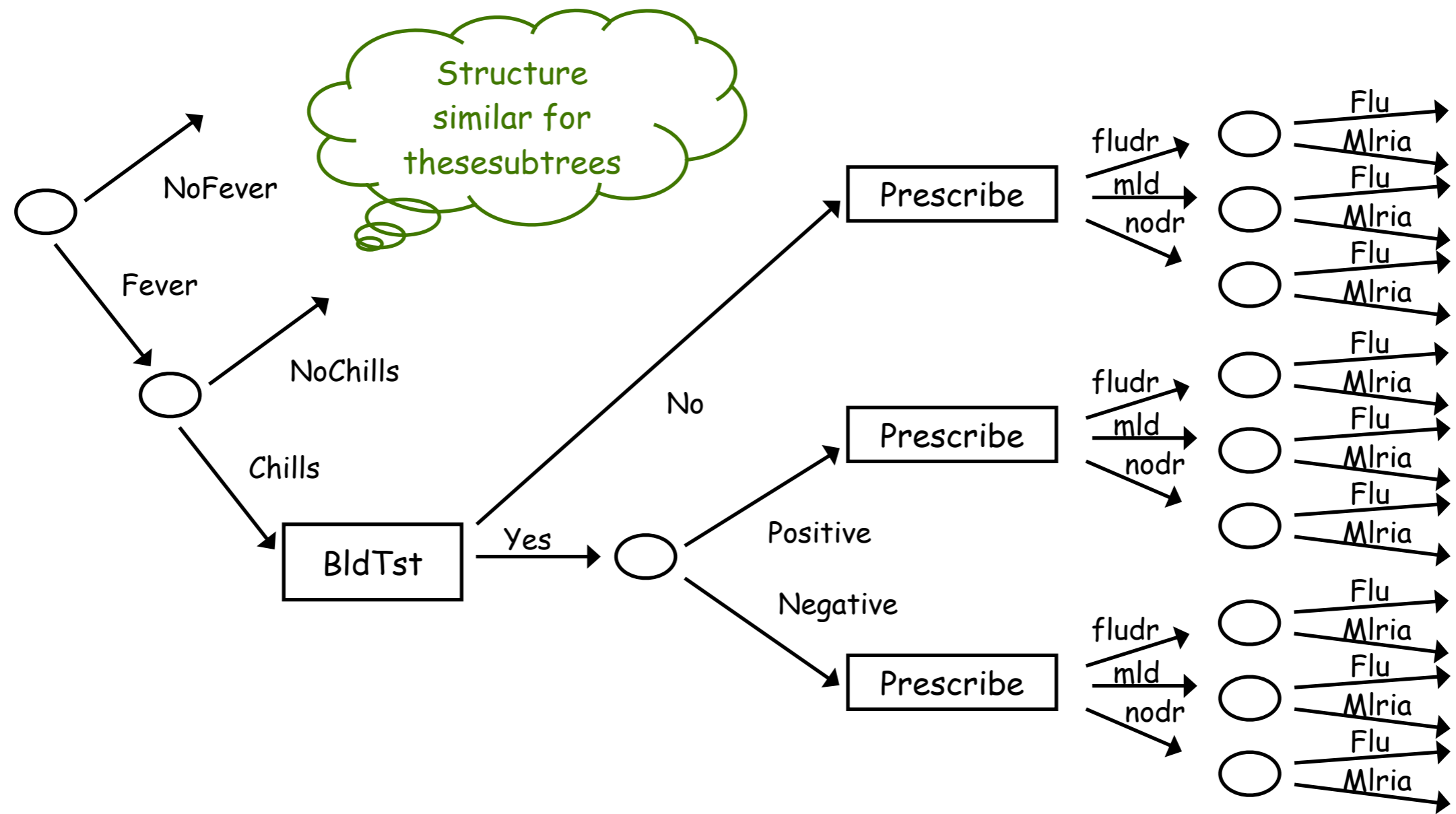
Notes

- Commonly used by decision analysts to help structure decision problems
- Much work put into computationally effective techniques to solve them
 - Common trick: replace decision nodes with random variables at the outset and solve a plain BN
- Complexity is much greater than BN inference

Decision Trees and Decision Networks

- It is possible to build a decision tree from a decision network
 - Order decisions as in the network
 - Ensure that observed chance nodes appear before decisions that use them
 - Label leaves with utilities dictated from utility nodes
 - Assign probabilities to outcomes using conditional probabilities of outcomes given observed variables and decisions on the branch so far

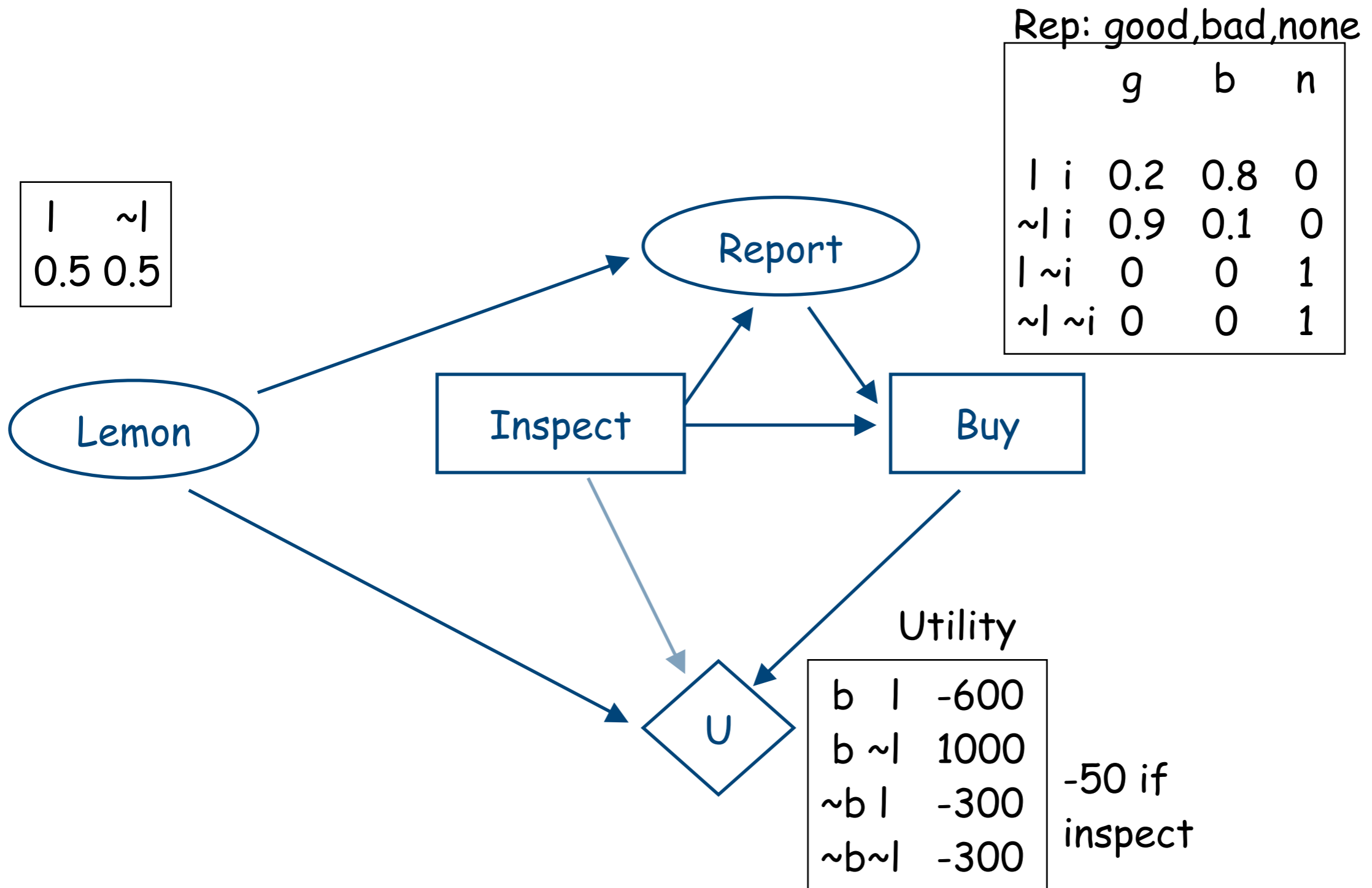
Decision Tree for Medical Network



Example: Decision Network

- You want to buy a used car, but there is some chance it is a “lemon” (i.e. it breaks down often). Before deciding to buy it, you can take it to a mechanic for an inspection. S/he will give you a report, labelling the car as either “good” or “bad”. A good report is positively correlated with the car not being a lemon while a bad report is positively correlated with the car being a lemon
- The report costs \$50. You could risk it and buy the car with no report.
- Owning a good car is better than no car, which is better than owning a lemon.

Example



Value of Information

- Claim: Optimal policy is “Inspect car, buy if the report is good” (EU=205)
 - Note that the EU of inspecting the car and buying if you get a good report is 255 minus the cost of the inspection (50)
- At what point would you no longer be interested in doing the inspection?
 - Find $V(I)$ such that $255 - V(I) \leq EU(\sim i) = 200$
- The **expected value of information** associated with the inspection is \$55
 - You should be willing to pay up to \$55 for the inspection

Value of Information

- Information has value
 - To the extent it is likely to cause a change of plan
 - To the extent that the new plan will be significantly better than the old plan
- The value of information is non-negative
 - This is true for any decision-theoretic agent

Summary

- Definition of a Decision Network
- Definition of an Optimal Policy
- Computing Optimal Policies
- Relationship between DN and DT
- Value of Information