# Decision Networks [RN2] Sections 16.5, 16.6 [RN3] Sections 16.5, 16.6

CS 486/686
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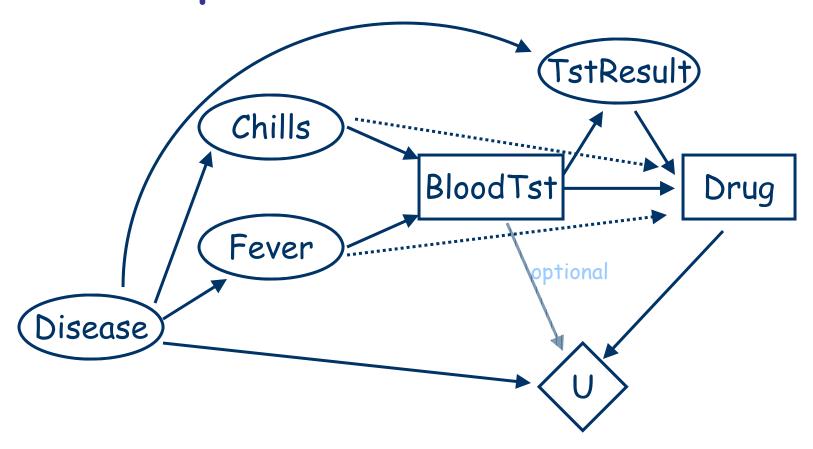
#### Outline

- Decision Networks
  - Aka Influence diagrams
- Value of information

#### Decision Networks

- Decision networks (also known as influence diagrams) provide a way of representing sequential decision problems
  - basic idea: represent the variables in the problem as you would in a BN
  - add decision variables variables that you "control"
  - add utility variables how good different states are

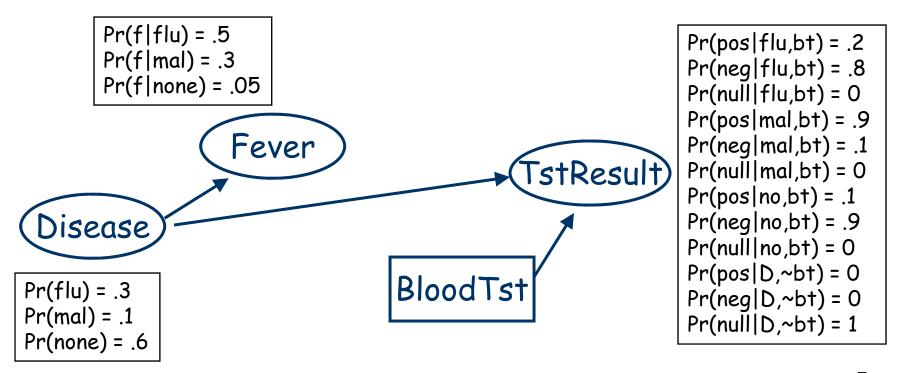
#### Sample Decision Network



#### Decision Networks: Chance Nodes

#### · Chance nodes

- random variables, denoted by circles
- as in a BN, probabilistic dependence on parents



#### Decision Networks: Decision Nodes

#### Decision nodes

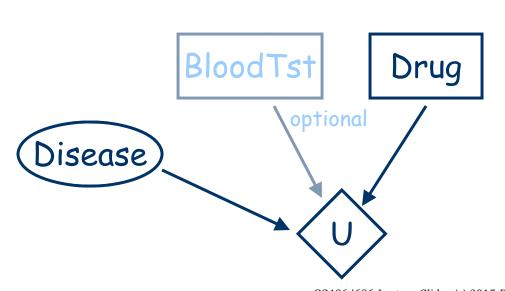
- variables set by decision maker, denoted by squares
- parents reflect *information available* at time decision is to be made
- Example: the actual values of Ch and Fev will be observed before the decision to take test must be made
  - agent can make different decisions for each instantiation of parents (i.e., policies)



#### Decision Networks: Value Node

#### · Value node

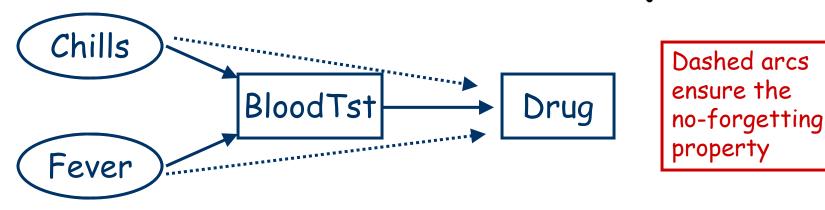
- specifies utility of a state, denoted by a diamond
- utility depends only on state of parents of value node
- generally: only one value node in a decision network
- · Utility depends only on disease and drug



U(fludrug, flu) = 20 U(fludrug, mal) = -300 U(fludrug, none) = -5 U(maldrug, flu) = -30 U(maldrug, mal) = 10 U(maldrug, none) = -20 U(no drug, flu) = -10 U(no drug, mal) = -285 U(no drug, none) = 30

#### Decision Networks: Assumptions

- Decision nodes are totally ordered
  - decision variables  $D_1$ ,  $D_2$ , ...,  $D_n$
  - decisions are made in sequence
  - e.g., BloodTst (yes,no) decided before Drug (fd,md,no)
- No-forgetting property
  - any information available when decision  $D_i$  is made is available when decision  $D_j$  is made (for i < j)
  - thus all parents of  $D_i$  are parents of  $D_j$



#### Policies

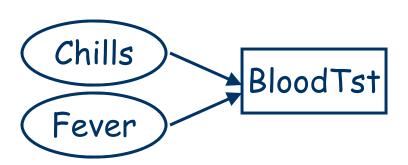
- Let  $Par(D_i)$  be the parents of decision node  $D_i$ 
  - $Dom(Par(D_i))$  is the set of assignments to parents
- A policy  $\delta$  is a set of mappings  $\delta_i$ , one for each decision node  $D_i$ 
  - $δ_i : Dom(Par(D_i)) → Dom(D_i)$
  - $\delta_i$  associates a decision with each parent asst for  $D_i$
- · For example, a policy for BT might be:

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

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

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

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



## Value of a Policy

- Value of policy  $\delta$  is the expected utility given that decisions are executed according to  $\delta$
- Given asst  $\mathbf{x}$  to the set  $\mathbf{X}$  of all chance variables, let  $\delta(\mathbf{x})$  denote the asst to decision variables dictated by  $\delta$ 
  - e.g., asst to  $D_1$  determined by it's parents' asst in x
  - e.g., asst to  $D_2$  determined by it's parents' asst in  ${m x}$  along with whatever was assigned to  $D_1$
  - etc.
- Value of  $\delta$ :

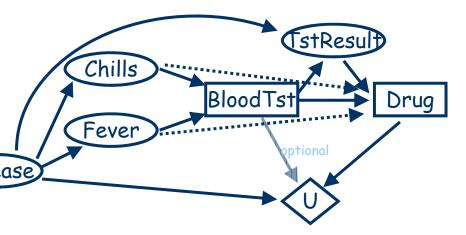
$$EU(\delta) = \Sigma_X P(X, \delta(X)) U(X, \delta(X))$$

## Optimal Policies

- An optimal policy is a policy  $\delta^*$  such that  $EU(\delta^*) \ge EU(\delta)$  for all policies  $\delta$
- We can use the dynamic programming principle yet again to avoid enumerating all policies
- We can also use the structure of the decision network to use variable elimination to aid in the computation

# Computing the Best Policy

- We can work backwards as follows
- First compute optimal policy for Drug (last dec'n)
  - 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
  - eg:  $\delta_D(c,f,bt,pos) = md$  Disease



# Computing the Best Policy

- Next compute policy for BT given policy  $\delta_D(C,F,BT,TR)$  just determined for Drug
  - since  $\delta_D(C,F,BT,TR)$  is fixed, we can treat Drug as a normal random variable with deterministic probabilities
  - i.e., for any instantiation of parents, value of Drug is fixed by policy  $\delta_{\rm D}$
  - this means we can solve for optimal policy for BT just as before
  - only uninstantiated vars are random vars (once we fix its parents)

## Computing the Best Policy

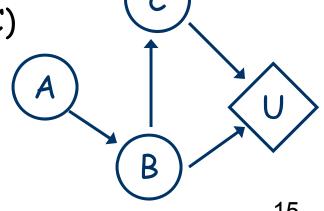
- How do we compute these expected values?
  - suppose we have asst <c,f,bt,pos> to parents of Drug
  - we want to compute EU of deciding to set Drug = md
  - we can run variable elimination!
- Treat C,F,BT,TR,Dr as evidence
  - this reduces factors (e.g., U restricted to bt,md: depends on Dis)
  - eliminate remaining variables (e.g., only Disease left)
  - left with factor:  $EU(md|c,f,bt,pos) = \Sigma_{Dis} P(Dis|c,f,bt,pos,md) U(Dis,bt,md)$
- We now know EU of doing
   Dr=md when c,f,bt,pos true
- Can do same for fd,no to decide which is best

# Computing Expected Utilities

- The preceding slide illustrates a general phenomenon
  - computing expected utilities with BNs is quite easy
  - utility nodes are just factors that can be dealt with using variable elimination

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

· Just eliminate variables in the usual way



# Optimizing Policies: Key Points

- If a decision node D has no decisions that follow it, we can find its policy by instantiating each of its parents and computing the expected utility of each decision for each parent instantiation
  - no-forgetting means that all other decisions are instantiated (they must be parents)
  - its easy to compute the expected utility using VE
  - the number of computations is quite large: we run expected utility calculations (VE) for each parent instantiation together with each possible decision D might allow
  - policy: choose max decision for each parent instant'n

# Optimizing Policies: Key Points

- When a decision D node is optimized, it can be treated as a random variable
  - for each instantiation of its parents we now know what value the decision should take
  - just treat policy as a new CPT: for a given parent instantiation x, D gets  $\delta(x)$  with probability 1 (all other decisions get probability zero)
- If we optimize from last decision to first, at each point we can optimize a specific decision by (a bunch of) simple VE calculations
  - it's successor decisions (optimized) are just normal nodes in the BNs (with CPTs)

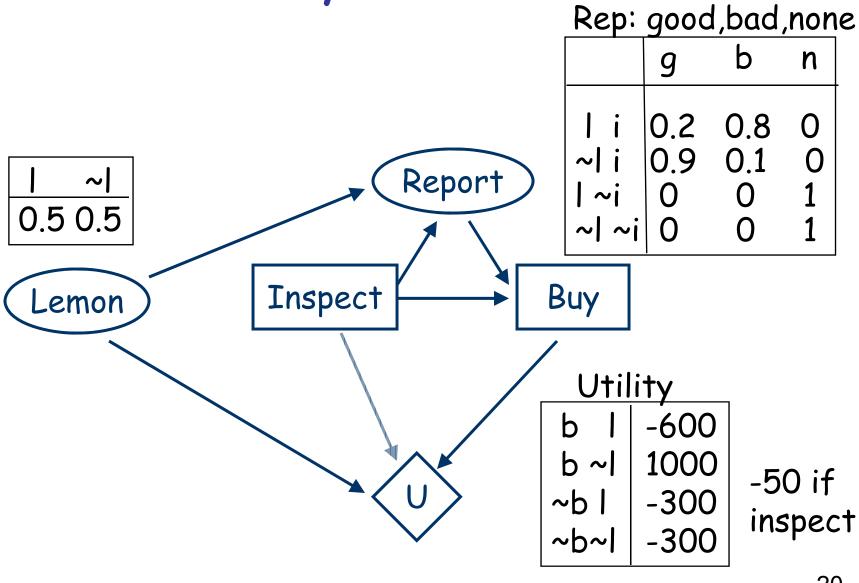
#### Decision Network Notes

- Decision networks commonly used by decision analysts to help structure decision problems
- Much work put into computationally effective techniques to solve these
  - common trick: replace the decision nodes with random variables at outset and solve a plain Bayes net (a subtle but useful transformation)
- Complexity much greater than BN inference
  - we need to solve a number of BN inference problems
  - one BN problem for each setting of decision node parents and decision node value

## A Decision Net Example

- Setting: you want to buy a used car, but there's
  a good chance it is a "lemon" (i.e., prone to
  breakdown). Before deciding to buy it, you can
  take it to a mechanic for inspection. S/he will
  give you a report on the car, labeling it either
  "good" or "bad". A good report is positively
  correlated with the car being sound, while a bad
  report is positively correlated with the car
  being a lemon.
- The report costs \$50 however. So you could risk it, and buy the car without the report.
- Owning a sound car is better than having no car, which is better than owning a lemon.

#### Car Buyer's Network



## Evaluate Last Decision: Buy (1)

- EU(B|I,R) =  $\Sigma_L$  P(L|I,R,B) U(L,I,B)
- I = i, R = g:
  - EU(buy) = P(||i,g,buy) U(|,i,buy) + P(~||i,g,buy) U(~|,i,buy)

```
= .18*-650 + .82*950 = 662
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- EU(~buy) = P(||i,g,~buy) U(|,i,~buy) + P(~||i,g,~buy) U(~|,i,~buy) = -300 50 = -350 (-300 indep. of lemon)
- So optimal  $\delta_{Buy}(i,g) = buy$

## Evaluate Last Decision: Buy (2)

I = i, R = b:

 EU(buy) = P(||i,b,buy) U(|,i,buy) + P(~||i,b,buy) U(~|,i,buy)
 = .89\*-650 + .11\*950 = -474

 EU(~buy) = P(||i,b,~buy) U(|,i,~buy) + P(~||i,b,~buy) U(~|,i,~buy)
 = -300 - 50 = -350 (-300 indep. of lemon)
 So optimal δ<sub>Buy</sub> (i,b) = ~buy

## Evaluate Last Decision: Buy (3)

- I = ~i, R = n
   EU(buy) = P(||~i,n,buy) U(|,~i,buy) + P(~||~i,n,buy) U(~|,~i,buy)
   = .5\*-600 + .5\*1000 = 200
   EU(~buy) = P(||~i,n,~buy) U(|,~i,~buy) + P(~||~i,n,~buy) U(~|,~i,~buy)
   = -300 (-300 indep. of lemon)
  - So optimal  $\delta_{Buy}$  (~i,n) = buy
- · So optimal policy for Buy is:
  - $-\delta_{Buy}(i,g) = buy; \delta_{Buy}(i,b) = \sim buy; \delta_{Buy}(\sim i,n) = buy$
- Note: we don't bother computing policy for (i,~n), (~i, g), or (~i, b), since these occur with probability 0

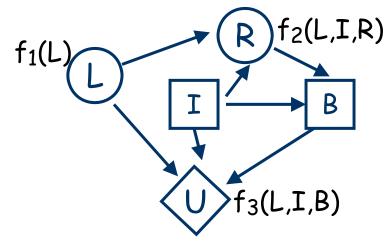
# Using Variable Elimination

Factors: f<sub>1</sub>(L) f<sub>2</sub>(L,I,R) f<sub>3</sub>(L,I,B)

Query: EU(B)?

Evidence: I = i, R = g

Elim. Order: L



Restriction: replace  $f_2(L,I,R)$  by  $f_4(L) = f_2(L,i,g)$  replace  $f_3(L,I,B)$  by  $f_5(L,B) = f_3(L,i,B)$ 

Step 1: Add  $f_6(B) = \sum_{L} f_1(L) f_4(L) f_5(L,B)$ 

Remove:  $f_1(L)$ ,  $f_4(L)$ ,  $f_5(L,B)$ 

Last factor:  $f_6(B)$  is proportional to the expected utility of buy and ~buy. Select action with highest value.

Repeat for EU(B|i,b),  $EU(B|\sim i,n)$ 

# Alternatively

- N.B.: variable elimination for decision networks computes expected utility that are not scaled...
- Can still pick best action, since utility scale is not important (relative magnitude is what matters)
- If we want exact expected utility:
  - Let X = parents(U)
  - EU(dec|evidence) =  $\Sigma_X Pr(X|dec,evidence) U(X)$
  - Compute Pr(X | dec, evidence) by variable elimination
  - Multiply Pr(X | dec, evidence) by U(X)
  - Summout X

#### Evaluate First Decision: Inspect

- EU(I) =  $\Sigma_{L,R}$  P(L,R|i) U(L,i, $\delta_{Buy}$  (I,R))
  - where P(R,L|i) = P(R|L,i)P(L|i)
  - EU(i) = (.1)(-650)+(.4)(-350)+(.45)(950)+(.05)(-350)
  - $EU(\sim i) = P(n,||\sim i) U(|,\sim i,buy) + P(n,\sim ||\sim i) U(\sim |,\sim i,buy)$ = .5\*-600 + .5\*1000 = 200
  - So optimal  $\delta_{Inspect}$  () = inspect

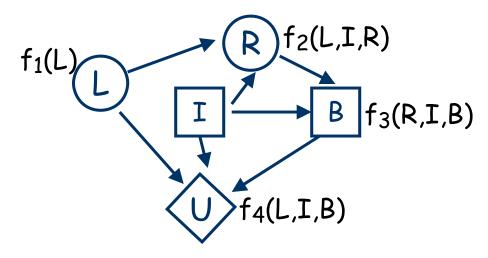
	P(R,L   i)	$\delta_{Buy}$	$U(L, i, \delta_{Buy})$
g,l	0.1	buy	-600 - 50 = -650
b,l	0.4	~buy	-300 - 50 = -350
g,~l	0.45	buy	1000 - 50 = 950
b,~l	0.05	~buy	-300 - 50 = -350

# Using Variable Elimination

Factors: f<sub>1</sub>(L) f<sub>2</sub>(L,I,R) f<sub>3</sub>(R,I,B) f<sub>4</sub>(L,I,B)

Query: EU(I)? Evidence: none

Elim. Order: L, R, B



N.B.  $f3(R,I,B) = \delta_B(R,I)$ 

Step 1: Add  $f_5(R,I,B) = \sum_{L} f_1(L) f_2(L,I,R) f_4(L,I,B)$ 

Remove:  $f_1(L) f_2(L,I,R) f_4(L,I,B)$ 

Step 2: Add  $f_6(I,B) = \sum_R f_3(R,I,B) f_5(R,I,B)$ 

Remove:  $f_3(R,I,B) f_5(R,I,B)$ 

Step 3: Add  $f_7(I) = \sum_B f_6(I,B)$ 

Remove:  $f_6(I,B)$ 

Last factor:  $f_7(I)$  is the expected utility of inspect and ~inspect. Select action with highest expected utility.

#### Value of Information

- So optimal policy is: inspect the car and if the report is good buy, otherwise don't buy
  - EU = 205
  - Notice that the EU of inspecting the car, then buying it iff you get a good report is 205 (i.e., 255 -50 (cost of inspection)) which is greater than 200. So inspection improves EU.
  - Suppose inspection cost is \$60: would it be worth it?
     EU = 255 60 = 195 < EU(~i)</li>
  - The expected value of information associated with inspection is 55 (it improves expected utility by this amount ignoring cost of inspection). How? Gives opportunity to change decision (~buy if bad).
  - You should be willing to pay up to \$55 for the report