# Artificial Intelligence 

CS3AI18/ CSMAI19<br>Lecture - 5/10: Learning, Markov Decision Processes, and Decision Network

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## Learning objectives

- By the end of this week, you will be able to
- Learn Bayesian Classifier
- Markov Chain and Markova Decision Process
- Valuer Function and Optima Policy Design
- Decision Network
- Apply concept of Bayesian classify to two or more objects.


## Content of this week

- Part 1: Basics of Bayesian Theorem
- Part 2: Naïve Bayesian Classifier (NBC)
- Discrete Values Attributes
- Continuous Values Attributes
- Part 3: Markov Decision Process (MDP)
- Markov Chain
- Value Function
- Policy design
- Part 4: Decision Network (DN)
- Part 5: Practical Exercise (NBC)
- Quiz


## Artificial Intelligence

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Lecture - 5/10: Learning (Algorithms)

## Part 1 Bayesian Theorem DR VARUN OJHA <br> Department of Computer Science

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## Probability



## Probability of choosing either 0 or 1

$$
P(\text { either } 0 \text { or } 1)=\frac{1}{2}
$$

## Probability of choosing either 1 and 10

$P($ EVEN number between 1 and 10$)=\frac{5}{10}$

## Training data



[^0]Training data


Example Source: Kubat, M., 2017. An introduction to machine learning (Vol. 2). Cham, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.

## Training data

I LIKE these types of cake


## I DO NOT LIKE these types of cake



## Training data: Positive example

I LIKE these types of cake


|  | Crust |  |  | Filling |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Shape | Size | Shade | Size | Shade | Class |
| Ex1 | Circle | Thick | Grey | Thick | Dark | Pos |
| Ex2 | Circle | Thick | White | Thick | Dark | Pos |
| Ex3 | Triangle | Thick | Dark | Thick | Grey | Pos |
| Ex4 | Circle | Thin | White | Thin | Dark | Pos |
| Ex5 | Square | Thick | Dark | Thin | White | Pos |
| Ex6 | Circle | Thick | White | Thin | Dark | Pos |

## Training data: Negative example

DO NOT LIKE these types of cake


| $\begin{aligned} & \frac{0}{0} \\ & \hline \stackrel{E}{E} \\ & \underset{\sim}{x} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | Crust |  |  | Filling |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Shape | Size | Shade | Size | Shade | Class |
| Ex7 | Circle | Thick | Grey | Thick | White | Neg |
| Ex8 | Square | Thick | White | Thick | Grey | Neg |
| Ex9 | Triangle | Thin | Grey | Thin | Dark | Neg |
| Ex10 | Circle | Thick | Dark | Thin | White | Neg |
| Ex11 | Square | Thick | White | Thick | Dark | Neg |
| Ex12 | Triangle | Thick | White | Thick | Grey | Neg |

[^1]
## Training data: All examples

| \# | Shape | Crust |  | Filling |  | Class |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Size | Shade | Size | Shade |  |
| Ex1 | Circle | Thick | Grey | Thick | Dark | Pos |
| Ex2 | Circle | Thick | White | Thick | Dark | Pos |
| Ex3 | Triangle | Thick | Dark | Thick | Grey | Pos |
| Ex4 | Circle | Thin | White | Thin | Dark | Pos |
| Ex5 | Square | Thick | Dark | Thin | White | Pos |
| Ex6 | Circle | Thick | White | Thin | Dark | Pos |
| Ex7 | Circle | Thick | Grey | Thick | White | Neg |
| Ex8 | Square | Thick | White | Thick | Grey | Neg |
| Ex9 | Triangle | Thin | Grey | Thin | Dark | Neg |
| Ex10 | Circle | Thick | Dark | Thick | White | Neg |
| Ex11 | Square | Thick | White | Thick | Dark | Neg |
| Ex12 | Triangle | Thick | White | Thick | Grey | Neg |

Instance space
$\mid$ Shape $|\times|$ Crust $_{\text {size }}|\times|$ Crust $_{\text {shape }}|\times|$ Fill $_{\text {size }}|\times|$ Fill $_{\text {shade }}$
$3 \times 2 \times 3 \times 2 \times 3$
108

Example Source: Kubat, M., 2017. An introduction to machine learning (Vol. 2). Cham, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.

## Bayes Theorem

$$
P(H \mid E)=\frac{P(E \mid H) P(H)}{P(E)}
$$



Thomas Bayes
(1701-1761)

## Probability picking a "pos" example randomly?

$$
P(\text { pos })=\frac{N_{\text {pos examples }}}{N_{\text {all examples }}}=\frac{6}{12}=0.5
$$

# The Prior Probability: probability of picking a "pos" example randomly? 

$$
P(\text { pos })=\frac{N_{\text {pos examples }}}{N_{\text {all examples }}}=\frac{6}{12}=0.5
$$

## The Conditional Probability:

 The probability of picking a "pos" from all "thick filling" example randomly?$$
P(\text { pos } \mid \text { thick })=\frac{N_{\text {pos } \mid \text { thick }}}{N_{\text {thick }}}=\frac{3}{8}=0.375
$$

# The Conditional Probability: The probability of picking a "thick filling" from all "pos" example randomly? 

$$
P(\text { thick } \mid \text { pos })=\frac{N_{\text {thick } \mid \text { pos }}}{N_{\text {pos }}}=\frac{3}{6}=0.5
$$

## The Joint Probability:

 The probability of picking a "pos" and "thick filling" example randomly?$$
\begin{aligned}
P(\text { pos }, \text { thick }) & =P(\text { pos } \mid \text { thick }) \cdot P(\text { thick }) \\
& =\frac{3}{8} \cdot \frac{8}{12}=\frac{3}{12}
\end{aligned}
$$

## The Joint Probability:

 The probability of picking a "thick filling" and "pos" example randomly?$P($ thick, pos $)=P($ thick $\mid$ pos $) \cdot P($ pos $)$

$$
=\frac{3}{6} \cdot \frac{6}{12}=\frac{3}{12}
$$

## The Joint Probability: Two important things

## $P($ pos, thick $) \leq P($ pos $\mid$ thick $)$

Joint probability of two events will always be $\leq$ their conditional probability

$$
P(\text { pos }, \text { thick })=P(\text { thick }, \text { pos })
$$

## The Posterior Probability:

$$
P(\text { pos } \mid \text { thick })=\frac{P(\text { thick } \mid \text { pos }) P(\text { pos })}{P(\text { thick })}
$$

## The Posterior Probability:

## Bayes Theorem

$$
P(\text { pos } \mid \text { thick })=\frac{P(\text { thick } \mid \text { pos }) P(\text { pos })}{P(\text { thick })}
$$

## Bayes Theorem

likelihood
prior

$$
P(H \mid E)=\frac{P(E \mid H) P(H)}{P(E)}
$$

Where $H$ and $E$ are events
$P(H \mid E)$ is a conditional probability, the likelihood of $H$ given $E$ is true. $P(E \mid H)$ is a conditional probability, the likelihood of $E$ given $H$ is true. $P(H)$ and $P(E)$ are probabilities of observing $H$ and $E$

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## Part 2

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## Training data: All examples

| $\#$ |  | Crust |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  |  | Filling |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Ex1 | Circle | Thick | Grey |  | Thick | Dark | Pos |
| Ex2 | Circle | Thick | White |  | Thick | Dark | Pos |  |
| Ex3 | Triangle | Thick | Dark |  | Thick | Grey | Pos |  |
| Ex4 | Circle | Thin | White |  | Thin | Dark | Pos |  |
| Ex5 | Square | Thick | Dark |  | Thin | White | Pos |  |
| Ex6 | Circle | Thick | White |  | Thin | Dark | Pos |  |
| Ex7 | Circle | Thick | Grey |  | Thick | White | Neg |  |
| Ex8 | Square | Thick | White |  | Thick | Grey | Neg |  |
| Ex9 | Triangle | Thin | Grey |  | Thin | Dark | Neg |  |
| Ex10 | Circle | Thick | Dark |  | Thick | White | Neg |  |
| Ex11 | Square | Thick | White |  | Thick | Dark | Neg |  |
| Ex12 | Triangle | Thick | White |  | Thick | Grey | Neg |  |

## The Posterior Probability:

The posterior probability of a class given input data

$$
P(\text { class } \mid \text { data })=\frac{P(\text { data } \mid \text { class }) P(\text { class })}{P(\text { data })}
$$

## The Posterior Probability:

The posterior probability of a class $c_{j}$ given an input vector $\mathbf{x}$

$$
P\left(c_{j} \mid \mathbf{x}\right)=\frac{P\left(\mathbf{x} \mid c_{j}\right) P\left(c_{j}\right)}{P(\mathbf{x})}
$$

Where $\mathbf{x}=\left\langle\boldsymbol{x}_{1}, \boldsymbol{x}_{2}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{n}}\right\rangle$ is a data and $c_{j}=f(\mathbf{x})$, class label, e.g., $c_{1}=p o s$ and $c_{2}=n e g$

## The Posterior Probability:

The posterior probability of a class $c_{j}$ given an input vector $\mathbf{x}$

$$
P\left(c_{j} \mid \mathbf{x}\right)=P\left(\mathbf{x} \mid c_{j}\right) P\left(c_{j}\right)
$$

Where $\mathbf{x}=\left\langle\boldsymbol{x}_{1}, \boldsymbol{x}_{2}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{n}}\right\rangle$ is a data and $c_{i}=f(\mathbf{x})$, class label

Since $P(\mathbf{x})$ being same for all classes in question, we will label data with class which maximises the numerator $P\left(\mathbf{x} \mid c_{j}\right) P\left(c_{j}\right)$

## The Prior Probability $P\left(c_{j}\right)$ is easy!

$$
P\left(c_{j}\right)=\frac{N_{\text {examples of class labled } c_{j}}}{N_{\text {all examples }}}
$$

## The Prior Probability $P\left(\mathbf{x} \mid c_{j}\right)$ is hard!

$$
P\left(\mathbf{x} \mid c_{j}\right)=\frac{N_{\text {examples represent vector } \mathbf{x} \text { where class is } c_{j}}}{N_{\text {all examples labled as class } c_{j}}}
$$

## The Prior Probability $P\left(\mathbf{x} \mid c_{j}\right)$ is hard!

Instance space can be huge!
What if the vector $\mathbf{x}$ does not belong to the training set?

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P\left(\mathbf{x} \mid c_{j}\right)=\frac{N_{\text {examples represent vector } \mathbf{x} \text { where class is } c_{j}}}{N_{\text {all examples labled as class } c_{j}}} \\
& \mathbf{X}=\mid \text { Triangle Thick Grey Thin Grey } \mid
\end{aligned}
$$

## The Prior Probability $P\left(\mathbf{x} \mid c_{j}\right)$ is hard!

Instance - space can be huge!
What if the vector $\mathbf{x}$ does not belong to the training set?

$$
P\left(\mathbf{x} \mid c_{j}\right)=0
$$

Bayes formula will give 0

## Hope! Try individual attributes

## Assumption! Mutually independent attributes

$$
P\left(\mathbf{x} \mid c_{j}\right)=\prod_{i=1}^{n} P\left(x_{i} \mid c_{j}\right)
$$

Where $\mathbf{x}=\left\langle\boldsymbol{x}_{1}, \boldsymbol{x}_{2}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{n}}\right\rangle$ is a data and $c_{j}=f(\mathbf{x})$, class label

## The Posterior Probability:

The posterior probability of a class given input data vector

$$
P\left(c_{j} \mid \mathbf{x}\right)=P\left(c_{j}\right) \cdot \prod_{i=1}^{n} P\left(x_{i} \mid c_{j}\right)
$$

Since $P(\mathbf{x})$ being same for all classes in question, we will label data with class which maximises the numerator $P\left(\mathbf{x} \mid c_{j}\right) P\left(c_{j}\right)$.

## Naïve Bayes Classifier (NBC):

## Maximum a Posteriori (MAP)

$$
\hat{y}=\underset{c_{j} \in\{1,2, \ldots, k\}}{\operatorname{argmax}} P\left(c_{j}\right) \cdot \prod_{i=1}^{n} P\left(x_{i} \mid c_{j}\right)
$$

## Naïve Bayes Classifier (NBC):

Maximum a Posteriori (MAP) using log likelihood

$$
\hat{y}=\underset{c_{j} \in\{1,2, \ldots, k\}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \log \left(P\left(c_{j}\right)\right) \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left(P\left(x_{i} \mid c_{j}\right)\right)
$$

## Naïve Bayes Classifier:

Assuming a uniform prior $P\left(c_{j}\right)$ over the hypothesis space, MAP reduces to Maximum Likelihood learning:

$$
\hat{y}=\underset{c_{j} \in\{1,2, \ldots, k\}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \prod_{i=1}^{n} P\left(x_{i} \mid c_{j}\right)
$$

## Maximum Likelihood learning :

Assuming a uniform prior $P\left(c_{j}\right)$ over the hypothesis space, MAP reduces to Maximum Likelihood learning:

$$
\hat{y}=\underset{c_{j} \in\{1,2, \ldots, k\}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \prod_{i=1}^{n} P\left(x_{i} \mid c_{j}\right)
$$

# Bayesian Classifier Continuous domain 

## Does NBC also work for continuous attributes?

If we try to find frequency of mutually independent attribute $x_{i}$ which is a real number and not discrete, the Prior Probability $\boldsymbol{P}\left(\mathbf{x} \mid c_{j}\right)$ is super hard to find in a continuous domain.

Instance-space is too vast!

## Binning of Continues Variables




## Probability Density Function (pdf)

## Gaussian function



## Probability Density Function (pdf)

## Gaussian function


$x$

## The Posterior Probability:

The posterior probability of a class given input (continuous) variable $x$

$$
P\left(c_{j} \mid x_{i}\right)=\frac{p_{c_{j}}\left(x_{i}\right) \cdot P\left(c_{j}\right)}{p_{c_{j}}\left(x_{i}\right)}
$$

$p(x)$ is a probability density function over variable $x$ and $c_{j}=f(x)$ is a class label

## Naïve Bayes Classifier:

Assuming a uniform prior $P\left(c_{j}\right)$ over the hypothesis space, MAP reduces to Maximum Likelihood learning:

$$
\widehat{y}=\underset{c_{j} \in\{1,2, \ldots, k\}}{\operatorname{argmax}} \prod_{i=1}^{n} p_{c_{j}}\left(x_{i} \mid c_{j}\right)
$$

## Combining Gaussian function (pdfs)

$$
p_{c_{j}}\left(x_{i}\right)=\frac{1}{m \sqrt{2 \pi \sigma^{2}}} \sum_{k=1}^{m} e^{-\frac{\left(x_{i}-x_{k}\right)^{2}}{2 \sigma^{2}}}
$$

$m$ being total number of examples in a training set labelled as $c_{j}$

## Example Table

|  |  | Attributes |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Set | Examples | A | B | C | Class |
|  | Ex1 | 3.2 | 2.1 | 2.1 | Pos |
|  | Ex2 | 5.2 | 6.1 | 7.5 | Pos |
|  | Ex3 | 8.5 | 1.3 | 0.5 | Pos |
| Training | Ex4 | 2.3 | 5.4 | 2.45 | Neg |
|  | Ex5 | 6.2 | 3.1 | 4.4 | Neg |
|  | Ex6 | 1.3 | 6.0 | 3.35 | Neg |
| Test | Ex7 | 9.0 | 3.6 | 3.3 | Pos / Neg? |

## Naïve Bayes Classifier: Homework

For the given training example (Table in Slide \#44), computer the following
If $p_{\mathrm{pos}}\left(A_{e x_{7}}\right)=\frac{1}{3 \sqrt{2 \pi}}\left[e^{-0.5\left(A_{e x_{7}}-A_{e x_{1}}\right)}+e^{-0.5\left(A_{e x_{7}}-A_{e x_{2}}\right)}+e^{-0.5\left(A_{e x_{7}}-A_{e x_{3}}\right)}\right]$
compute $p_{\text {pos }}\left(\mathbf{x}_{7}\right)=p_{\text {pos }}\left(A_{e x_{7}}\right) \cdot p_{\text {pos }}\left(B_{e x_{7}}\right) \cdot p_{\text {pos }}\left(C_{e x_{7}}\right)$
If $p_{\text {neg }}\left(A_{e x_{7}}\right)=\frac{1}{3 \sqrt{2 \pi}}\left[e^{-0.5\left(A_{e x_{7}}-A_{e x_{4}}\right)}+e^{-0.5\left(A_{e x_{7}}-A_{e x_{5}}\right)}+e^{-0.5\left(A_{e x_{7}}-A_{e x_{6}}\right)}\right]$
compute $p_{\text {neg }}\left(\mathbf{x}_{7}\right)=p_{\text {neg }}\left(A_{\text {ex }}\right) \cdot p_{\text {neg }}\left(B_{\text {ex }}\right) \cdot p_{\text {neg }}\left(C_{e x_{7}}\right)$
determine the output class by computing $\hat{y}=\operatorname{argmax}\left(p_{\text {pos }}\left(\mathbf{x}_{7}\right), p_{\text {neg }}\left(\mathbf{x}_{7}\right)\right)$

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Lecture - 5/10: MDP

## Part 3 <br> Markov Decision Process

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## Markov Process/ Markov Chain

A sequence of random states $S_{1}, S_{2}, \cdots S_{t}$ with the Markov property, i.e., future state $S_{t+1}$ depends only on current state $S_{t}$, where $S_{t}$ capture all relevant information for $S_{t+1}$ from past sequence $S_{t-1}, S_{t-2}, \cdots S_{0}$.


Source Demo: http://setosa.io/ev/markov-chains/

## Markov Process/ Markov Chain



Markov Chain State Space


Transition Probability Matrix (State Transition Matrix)

## Markov Decision Process

- Markov decision processes (MDPs) are an extension of Markov Chains with the addition of rewards for each action.
- Conversely, if only one action exists for each state (e.g. "wait") and all rewards are the same (e.g. "zero"), a Markov decision process reduces to a Markov Chain.


## Markov Decision Processes

- A Markov decision process (MDP) is a discrete time stochastic control process.
- It provides a mathematical framework for modelling decision making in situations where outcomes are partly random and partly under the control of a decision maker.
- MDPs are useful for studying optimization problems solved via dynamic programming and reinforcement learning.


## Markov Decision Process: Definition

- A Markov Decision Process is a 4-tuple ( $S, A, P_{a}, R_{a}, \gamma$ ), where
- $S=\left\{s_{1}, s_{2}, \ldots\right\}$ is a finite set of states.
- $A=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots\right\}$ is a finite set of actions (alternatively, $\boldsymbol{A}_{\boldsymbol{s}}$ is the finite set of actions available from state $S$ ),
- $P_{a}\left(s, s^{\prime}\right)=\mathbf{P}\left(s_{t+1}=s^{\prime} \mid s_{t}=s, a_{t}=\boldsymbol{a}\right)$ is the probability that action $a$ in state $s$ at time $\boldsymbol{t}$ will lead to state $s^{\prime}$ at time $\boldsymbol{t}+\mathbf{1}$,
- $R_{a}\left(s, s^{\prime}\right)$ is the immediate reward (or expected immediate reward) received after transitioning from state $s$ to state $s^{\prime}$, due to action $a$.
- $\gamma \in[\mathbf{0 , 1}]$ is a discount factor, 0 being insignificant and 1 being significant reward


## MDP: Example

- three states $S_{0}, S_{1}, S_{2}, T$.
- two actions $\boldsymbol{a}_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}$.
- $P_{a}\left(s, s^{\prime}\right)$
- $R_{a}\left(s, s^{\prime}\right)$
- e.g., rewards $\{-1,0$, and +1$\}$ (green arrows).



## MDP: Example

- three states $\boldsymbol{S}_{0}, \boldsymbol{S}_{1}, \boldsymbol{T}$.
- two actions $a_{0}, a_{1}, a_{2}$
- $P_{a}\left(s, s^{\prime}\right)$
- $\boldsymbol{R}_{\boldsymbol{a}}\left(\boldsymbol{s}, s^{\prime}\right)$
e.g., rewards $\{-1,0$, and +1$\}$ (green arrows).



## Policy $\pi$

- Optimal "policy" design for the decision maker is the core problem of MDPs.
- A policy denoted as $\pi$ is its recommended action $a$ for state $s$, i.e., what to do next when at state $s$.

$$
\pi(a \mid s)=P[A=a \mid S=s]
$$

- It is the of distribution over actions given states. It fully defines the behaviour of an agent. This means a MDP depends on current state not all the history.
- If a decision maker has a complete policy $\pi$ it will know what to do next.


## State Value Function $v_{\pi}(s)$

State Function $v_{\pi}(s)$ is the expected return (reward) value accumulated at a state $s$ and following policy $\pi$.

$$
\begin{gathered}
v_{\pi}(s)=\mathbb{E}_{\pi}\left[G_{t} \mid S=s\right] \\
v_{\pi}(s)=\sum_{a \in A} \pi(a \mid s)\left(R_{s}+\gamma \sum_{s^{\prime} \in S} P\left(s^{\prime}, s\right) v_{\pi}\left(s^{\prime}\right)\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

This is Bellman Expectation State-Value Equation. Where reward intermediate $R$ and state value $s$.

State-value function tells us how good is it to be in state $s$ by following policy $\boldsymbol{\pi}$.

## Action Value Function $q_{\pi}(s, a)$

Action Function $q_{\pi}(s, a)$ is the expected return (reward) value accumulated at a state $s$ and following policy $\pi$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
q_{\pi}(s, a) & =\mathbb{E}_{\pi}\left[G_{t} \mid S=s, A=a\right] \\
& =R_{s}^{a}+\gamma \sum_{s^{\prime} \in S} P^{a}\left(s^{\prime}, s\right) v_{\pi}\left(s^{\prime}\right) \\
& =R_{s}^{a}+\gamma \sum_{s^{\prime} \in S} P^{a}\left(s^{\prime}, s\right) \sum_{a^{\prime} \in A} \pi\left(a^{\prime} \mid s^{\prime}\right) q_{\pi}\left(s^{\prime}, a^{\prime}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

This Bellman Action-Value Equation function tells us how good is it to take an action at state $s$ by following policy $\pi$.

This give us an idea how good it is to take an action $a$ at state $s$.

## $\pi$ : Policy Design

- Policy design for the decision maker is the core problem of MDPs.
- A policy denoted as $\pi$ and $\pi(s)$ for its recommended action for state $s$, i.e., what to do next when at state $s$.
- If a decision maker has a complete policy $\pi$ it will know what to do next when on state $s$. In that case, Markov Decision process will behave like a Markov Chain since $P\left(s_{t+1}=s^{\prime} \mid s_{t}=s, a_{t}=a\right)$ will reduce to $\boldsymbol{P}\left(s_{t+1}=\boldsymbol{s}^{\prime} \mid \boldsymbol{s}_{\boldsymbol{t}}=\boldsymbol{s}\right)$ because determinacy of $\pi(s)$.


## $\pi^{*}$ : Optimal Policy Design

Optimal Policy $\pi^{*}$ is the one that gives the highest expected utility. That is a policy $\pi$ that will maximise some cumulative function of the random rewards $\boldsymbol{R}_{\boldsymbol{a}}$, typically, the expected discounted sum over a potentially infinite horizon:

$$
U=\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{t} R_{a_{t}}\left(s_{t}, s_{t+1}\right)
$$

where $\boldsymbol{\gamma} \in[\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{1}]$ is a discount factor, 0 being insignificant and 1 being significant reward, and $\boldsymbol{a}_{\boldsymbol{t}}=\pi\left(s_{t}\right)$

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Lecture - 5/10: DN

## Part 4 Decision Network

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## Decision Network (Influence Diagrams)

- 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 (e.g., metrics, objective function, measurements).


## Decision Network: Example

## Random Variables (denoted by circles).

Variables the decision maker sets (denoted by squares).


## Decision Network: Chance Node

## Random Variable (denoted by circles).

Each nodes have probabilistic dependence on parent nodes


## Decision Network: Decision Node

Variables the decision maker sets (denoted by squares).

Parents reflect the information available at a time of decision making


## Decision Network: Value Node

Value node: Specify the utility of a state. (denoted by diamond).

Utility depends only on state of the parent

Generally, only one value node exists in a network


## Assumptions

- Decision nodes are totally ordered
- Given variables $D_{1}, D_{2}, \ldots, D_{n}$, the decision nodes are made in sequence.
- No forgetting property
- Any information available for a decision $D_{i}$ is available for decision $D_{j}$ for $j>i$
- All parents of decision $D_{i}$ are also the parents of decision $D_{j}$ for $j>i$



## Policy

- Let Parent(Di) be the parents of a decision node $D_{i}$
- Domain(Parent(Di)) is the set of assignments to Parent $\left(D_{i}\right)$,
- e.g., \{cold, ~ cold) and \{fever, $\sim$ fever $\}$
- A policy $\pi$ is a set of mappings $\pi_{i}$, one for each decision node $D_{i}$
- $\pi_{i}(D i)$ associates a decision for each
 parent assignment
- $\pi_{i}: \operatorname{Domain}(\operatorname{Parent}(D i)) \rightarrow \operatorname{Domain}(D i)$


## Value of a Policy

- Given assignment $x$ to random variables $X$, let $\pi(x)$ be the assignment to decision variables denoted by $\pi$.
- Value of $\pi$, i.e., the expected utility, $\boldsymbol{E} \boldsymbol{U}(\boldsymbol{\pi})$, is:

$$
E U(\pi)=\sum_{x} P(x, \pi(x)) U(x, \pi(x))
$$

- Where, $\boldsymbol{P}$ is the probability of the outcome and $\boldsymbol{U}$ is utility function and


## Optimal Policy $\pi^{*}$

## An optimal policy $\boldsymbol{\pi}^{*}$ is given by $\boldsymbol{E} \boldsymbol{U}\left(\boldsymbol{\pi}^{*}\right) \geq \boldsymbol{E} \boldsymbol{U}(\pi)$ for all $\boldsymbol{\pi}$

Maximisation over all other

## Computing Optimal Policy

- Compute backward direction
- Compute optimal policy of the last decision node in a sequence
- E.g., Drugs in this case
- For each parent $\{C, F, B T, T R\}$ and for each decision value $D \in\left\{\right.$ rrug $\left._{\text {flue }}, d r u g_{\text {ache }}, n 0_{\text {drug }}\right\}$, compute the expected utility, EU of choosing a decision value $D$.

- For each Domain(Parent(D)), set a policy choice $\boldsymbol{\pi}_{\boldsymbol{D}}(C, F, B T, T R)$ where the value of $D$ is maximum.


## Computing Optimal Policy

## - Compute backward direction

- Compute optimal policy of the second last decision node in a sequence based on last policy $\boldsymbol{\pi}_{\boldsymbol{D}}(C, F, B T, T R)$
- E.g., Blood Test is just before Drug
- Since $\pi_{D}(C, F, B T, T R)$ is already computed its fixed.
- Treat $\boldsymbol{D}$ as a random variable with a deterministic probability

- Computer policy choice for Blood Test, $B T$, where the value of $B T$ is maximum.


## Computing Expected Utilities

- Computing expected utilities with Bayes Net is straightforward
- Utility nodes are just factors that can be dealt with using variable elimination
- $\boldsymbol{E U}=\sum_{A, B, C} P(A, B, C) \boldsymbol{U}(B, C)$
- $\boldsymbol{E} \boldsymbol{U}=\sum_{A, B, C} P(A) \cdot P(B \mid A) \cdot P(C \mid B) \cdot \boldsymbol{U}(B, C)$



## Artificial Intelligence

CS3AI18/ CSMAI19
Lecture - 5/10: Learning (Algorithms)

## Part 5 <br> Practical Exercise

(available In a separate video)

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[^0]:    Example Source: Kubat, M., 2017. An introduction to machine learning (Vol. 2). Cham, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.

[^1]:    Example Source: Kubat, M., 2017. An introduction to machine learning (Vol. 2). Cham, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.

