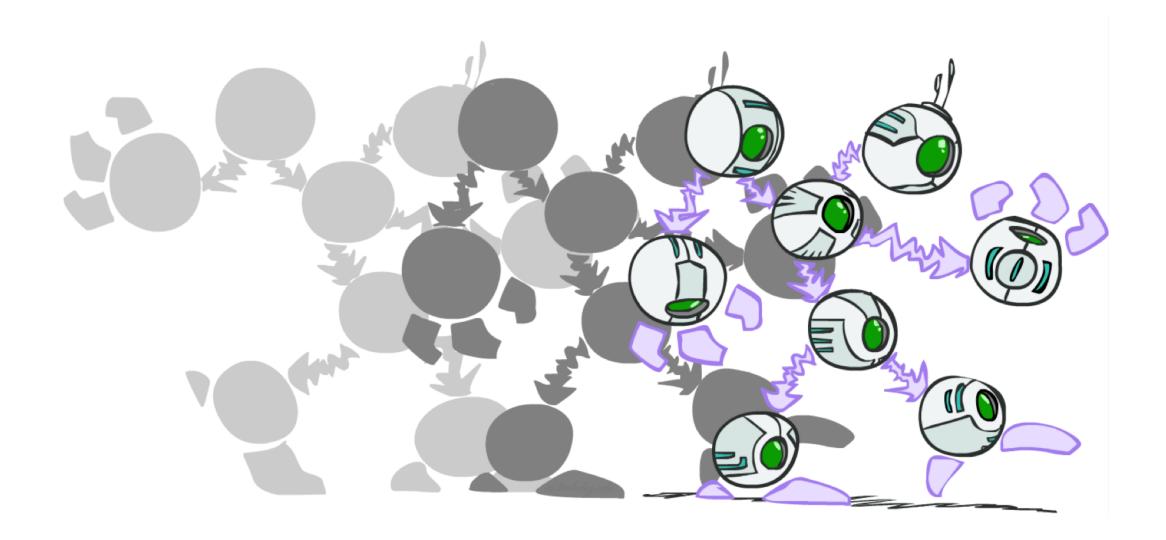
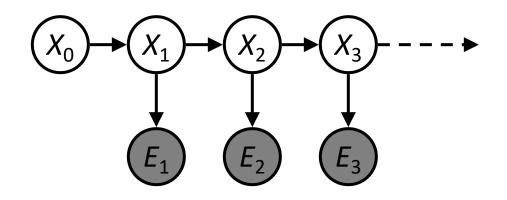
Dynamic Bayes Nets



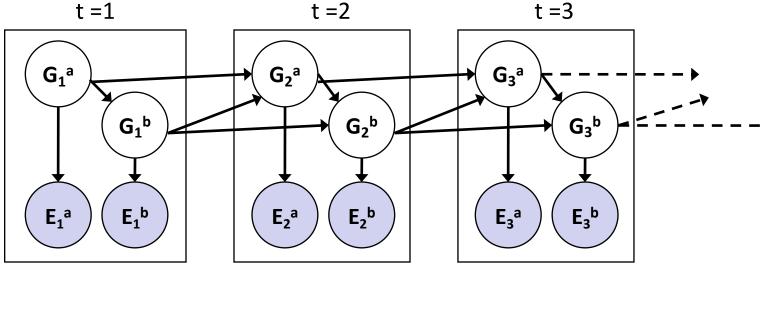
Hidden Markov Models

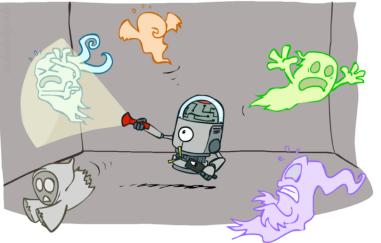


- Sensor models are the same at all times
- Current evidence is independent of everything else given the current state
- Filtering: calculate the distribution $f_{1:t} = P(X_t | e_{1:t})$.
- Forward Algorithm: Predict (Time Elapse), Update, Normalize.
- Forward Algorithm: $P(X_{t+1} | e_{1:t+1}) = \alpha P(e_{t+1} | X_{t+1}) \sum_{x_t} P(x_t | e_{1:t}) P(X_{t+1} | x_t)$
- Equivalently: $\mathbf{f}_{1:t+1} = \alpha O_{t+1} T^T \mathbf{f}_{1:t}$
- Most likely explanation: arg max_{x1:t} P(x1:t | e1:t)

Dynamic Bayes Nets (DBNs)

- We want to track multiple variables over time, using multiple sources of evidence
- Idea: Repeat a fixed Bayes net structure at each time
- Variables at time t can have parents at time t-1

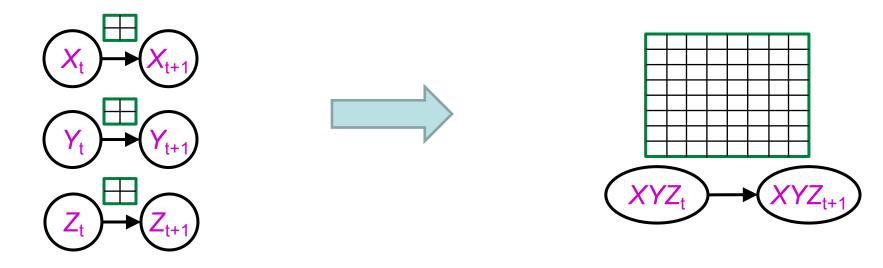






DBNs and HMMs

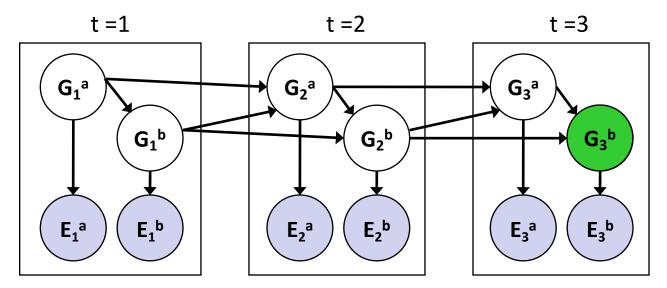
- Every HMM is a single-variable DBN
- Every discrete DBN is an HMM
 - HMM state is Cartesian product of DBN state variables



- Sparse dependencies => exponentially fewer parameters in DBN
 - E.g., 20 state variables, 3 parents each;
 DBN has 20 x 2³ = 160 parameters, HMM has 2²⁰ x 2²⁰ =~ 10¹² parameters

Exact Inference in DBNs

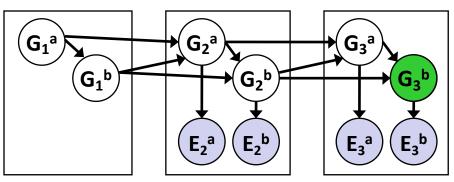
- Variable elimination applies to dynamic Bayes nets
- Offline: "unroll" the network for T time steps, then eliminate variables to find P(X_T | e_{1:T})

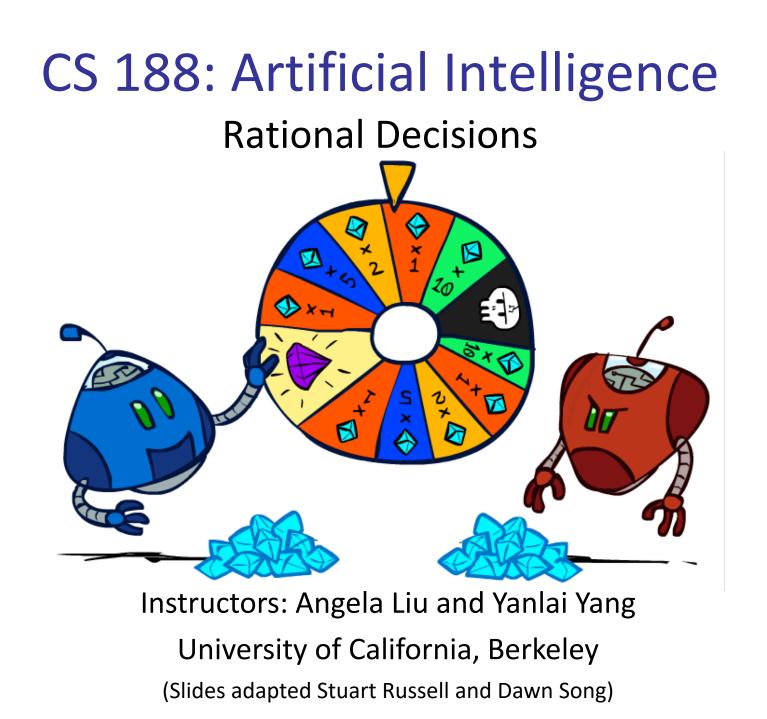


- Online: eliminate all variables from the previous time step; store factors for current time only
- Problem: largest factor contains all variables for current time (plus a few more)

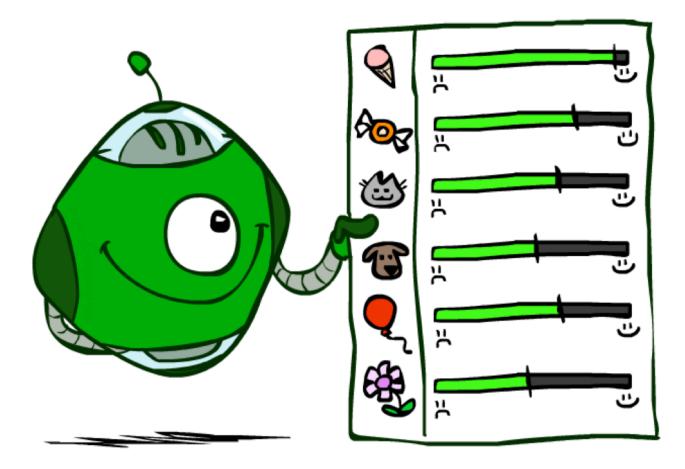
DBN Particle Filters

- A particle is a complete sample for a time step
- Initialize: Generate prior samples for the t=1 Bayes net
 - Example particle: **G**₁^a = (3,3) **G**₁^b = (5,3)
- Elapse time: Sample a successor for each particle
 - Example successor: $G_2^a = (2,3) G_2^b = (6,3)$
- Observe: Weight each <u>entire</u> sample by the likelihood of the evidence conditioned on the sample
 - Likelihood: P(E₂^a | G₂^a) * P(E₂^b | G₂^b)
- **Resample:** Select prior samples (tuples of values) in proportion to their likelihood





Utilities



Maximum Expected Utility

Principle of maximum expected utility:

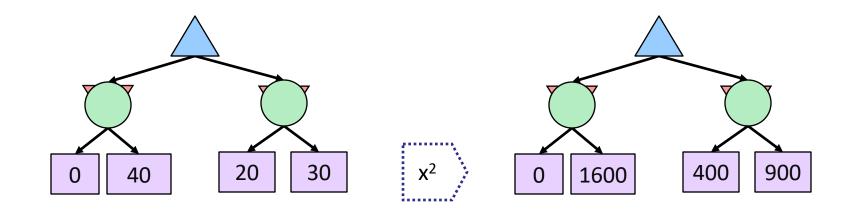
 A rational agent should choose the action that maximizes its expected utility, given its knowledge

Questions:

- Where do utilities come from?
- How do we know such utilities even exist?
- How do we know that averaging even makes sense?
- What if our behavior (preferences) can't be described by utilities?



The need for numbers



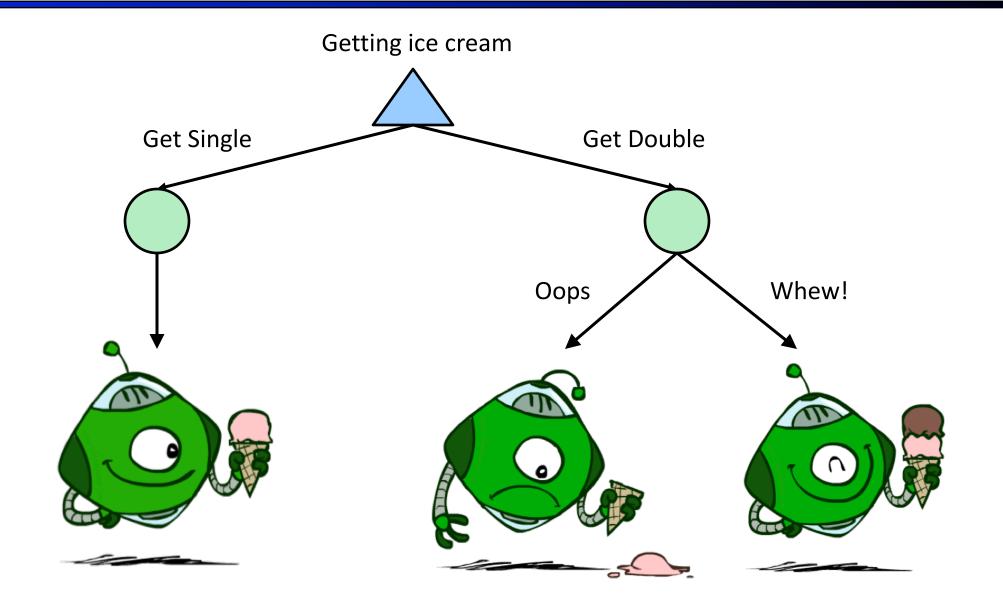
- For worst-case minimax reasoning, terminal value scale doesn't matter
 - We just want better states to have higher evaluations (get the ordering right)
 - The optimal decision is invariant under any *monotonic transformation*
- For average-case expectimax reasoning, we need *magnitudes* to be meaningful

Utilities

- Utilities are functions from outcomes (states of the world) to real numbers that describe an agent's preferences
- Where do utilities come from?
 - In a game, may be simple (+1/-1)
 - Utilities summarize the agent's goals
 - Theorem: any "rational" preferences can be summarized as a utility function
- We hard-wire utilities and let behaviors emerge
 - Why don't we let agents pick utilities?
 - Why don't we prescribe behaviors?



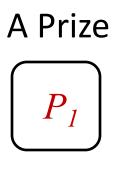
Utilities: Uncertain Outcomes



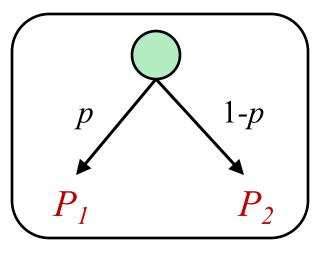
Preferences

- An agent must have preferences among:
 - Prizes: *P*₁, *P*₂, etc.
 - Lotteries: situations with uncertain prizes $L = [p, P_1; (1-p), P_2]$
- Notation:
 - Preference: A > B
 - Indifference: $A \sim B$

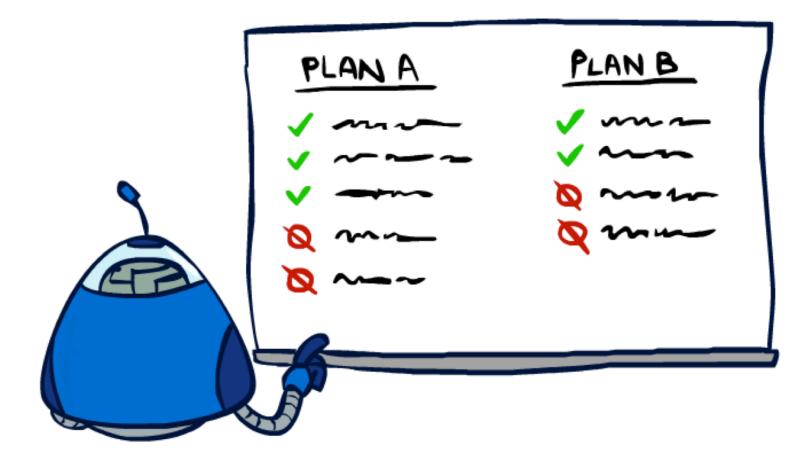








Rationality

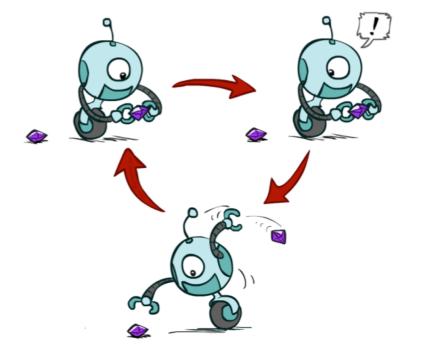


Rational Preferences

• We want some constraints on preferences before we call them rational, such as:

Axiom of Transitivity:
$$(A > B) \land (B > C) \Rightarrow (A > C)$$

- For example: an agent with intransitive preferences can be induced to give away all of its money
 - If B > C, then an agent with C would pay (say) 1 cent to get B
 - If A > B, then an agent with B would pay (say) 1 cent to get A
 - If C > A, then an agent with A would pay (say) 1 cent to get C



Rational Preferences

The Axioms of Rationality

Orderability: $(A > B) \lor (B > A) \lor (A \sim B)$ Transitivity: $(A > B) \land (B > C) \Rightarrow (A > C)$ Continuity: $(A > B > C) \Rightarrow \exists p \ [p, A; \ 1-p, C] \sim B$ Substitutability: $(A \sim B) \Rightarrow [p, A; \ 1-p, C] \sim [p, B; \ 1-p, C]$ Monotonicity: $(A > B) \Rightarrow$ $(p \ge q) \Leftrightarrow [p, A; \ 1-p, B] > [q, A; \ 1-q, B]$



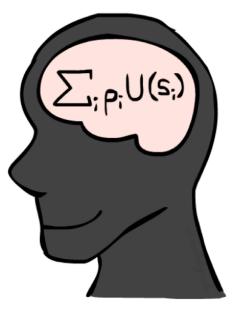
Theorem: Rational preferences imply behavior describable as maximization of expected utility

MEU Principle

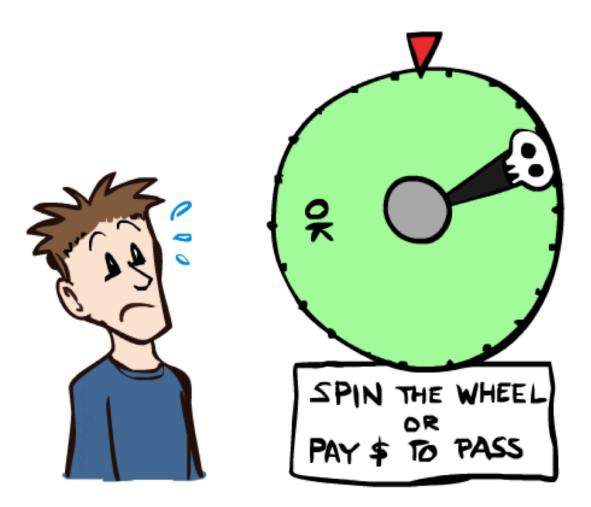
- Theorem [Ramsey, 1931; von Neumann & Morgenstern, 1944]
 - Given any preferences satisfying these constraints, there exists a real-valued function U such that:

 $U(A) > U(B) \iff A > B; U(A) = U(B) \iff A \sim B$ $U([p_1, S_1; ...; p_n, S_n]) = p_1 U(S_1) + ... + p_n U(S_n)$

- I.e. values assigned by *U* preserve preferences of both prizes and lotteries!
- Optimal policy invariant under *positive affine transformation* U' = aU+b, a>0
- Maximum expected utility (MEU) principle:
 - Choose the action that maximizes expected utility
 - Note: rationality does *not* require representing or manipulating utilities and probabilities
 - E.g., a lookup table for perfect tic-tac-toe



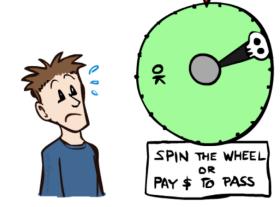
Human Utilities

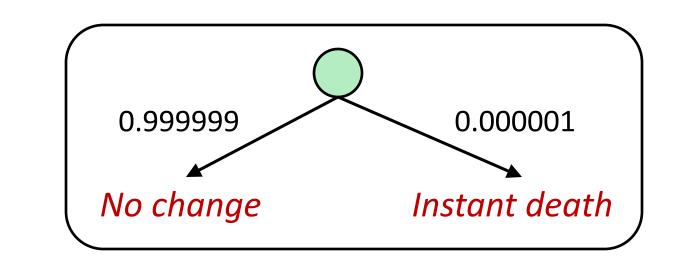


Human Utilities

- Utilities map states to real numbers. Which numbers?
- Standard approach to assessment (elicitation) of human utilities:
 - Compare a prize A to a standard lottery L_p between
 - "best possible prize" u_{T} with probability p
 - "worst possible catastrophe" u_{\perp} with probability 1-p
 - Adjust lottery probability p until indifference: $A \sim L_p$
 - Resulting p is a utility in [0,1]

Pay \$50

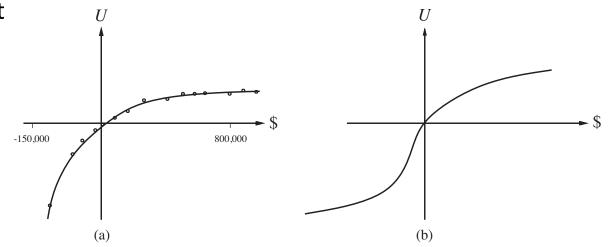


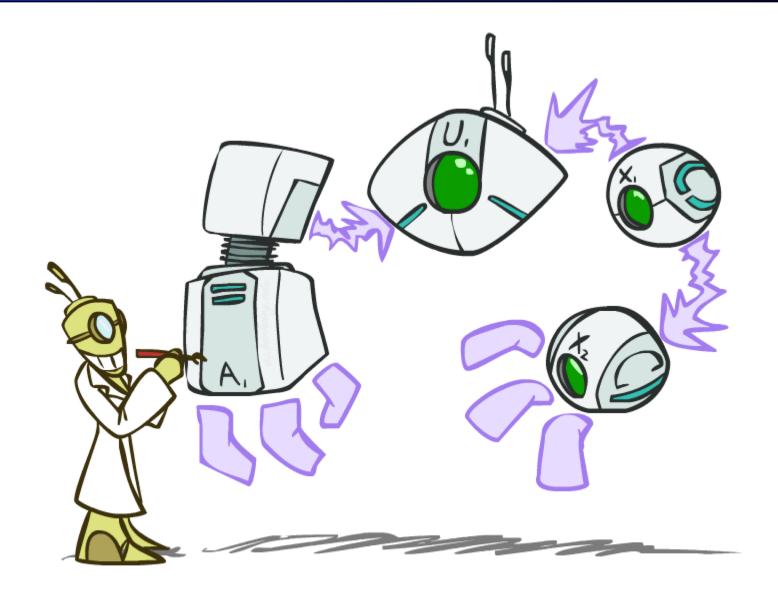


Money

- Money *does not* behave as a utility function, but we can talk about the utility of having money (or being in debt)
- Given a lottery L = [p, \$X; (1-p), \$Y]
 - The *expected monetary value* EMV(L) = pX + (1-p)Y
 - The utility is U(L) = pU(\$X) + (1-p)U(\$Y)
 - Typically, U(L) < U(EMV(L))</p>
 - In this sense, people are risk-averse
 - E.g., how much would you pay for a lottery ticket L=[0.5, \$10,000; 0.5, \$0]?
 - The certainty equivalent of a lottery CE(L) is the cash amount such that CE(L) ~ L
 - The *insurance premium* is EMV(L) CE(L)
 - If people were risk-neutral, this would be zero!



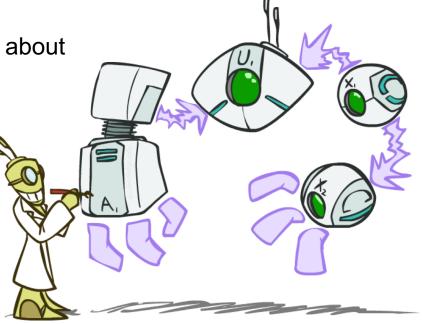


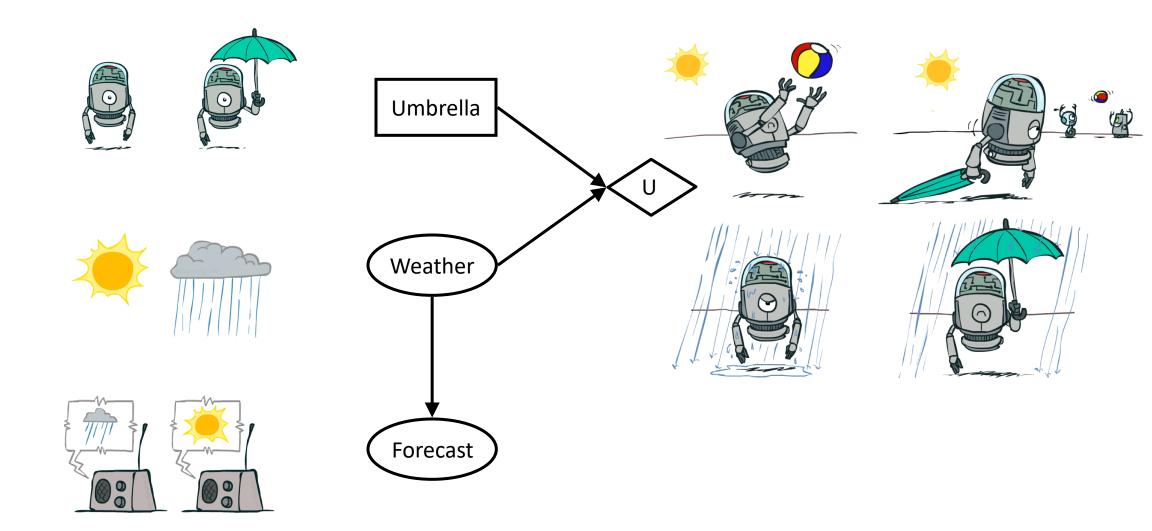


In its most general form, a decision network represents information about

- Its current state
- Its possible actions
- The state that will result from its actions
- The utility of that state

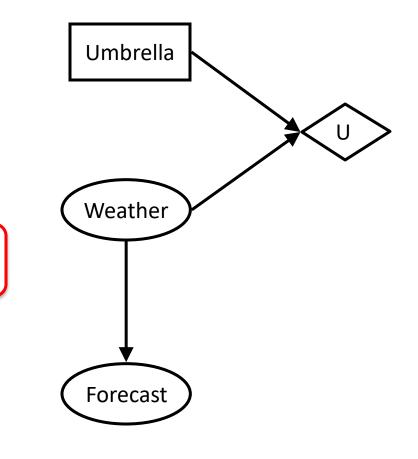
Decision network = Bayes net + Actions + Utilities



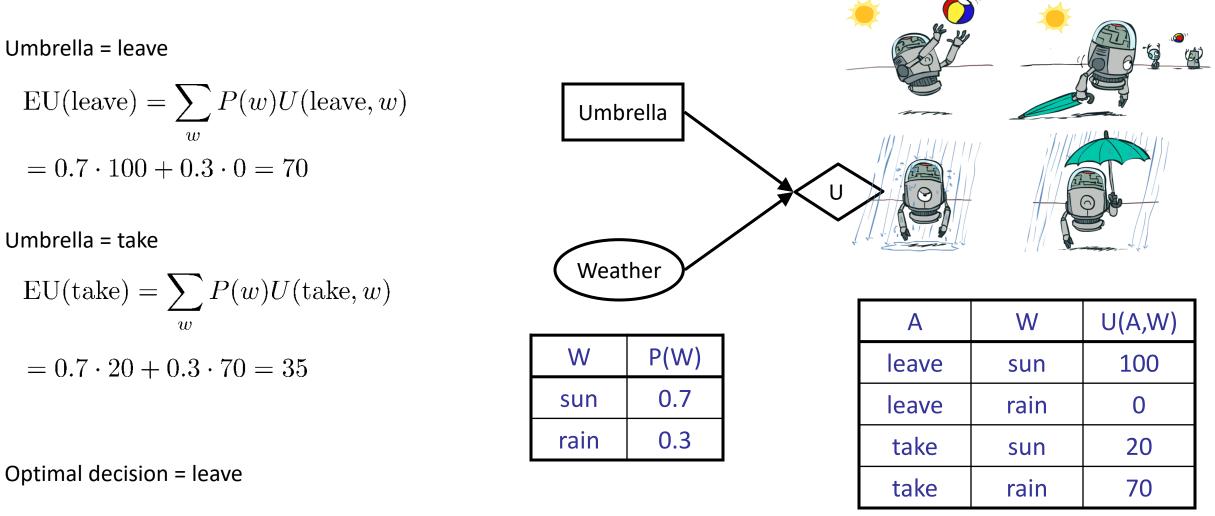


Bayes net inference!

- Decision network = Bayes net + Actions + Utilities
 - Chance nodes (just like BNs)
 - Action nodes (rectangles, cannot have parents, will have value fixed by algorithm)
- Utility nodes (diamond, depends on action and chance nodes)
- Decision algorithm:
 - Fix evidence *e*
 - For each possible action *a*
 - Fix action node to *a*
 - Compute posterior P(W|e,a) for parents W of U
 - Compute expected utility $\sum_{w} P(w | e, a) U(a, w)$
 - Return action with highest expected utility

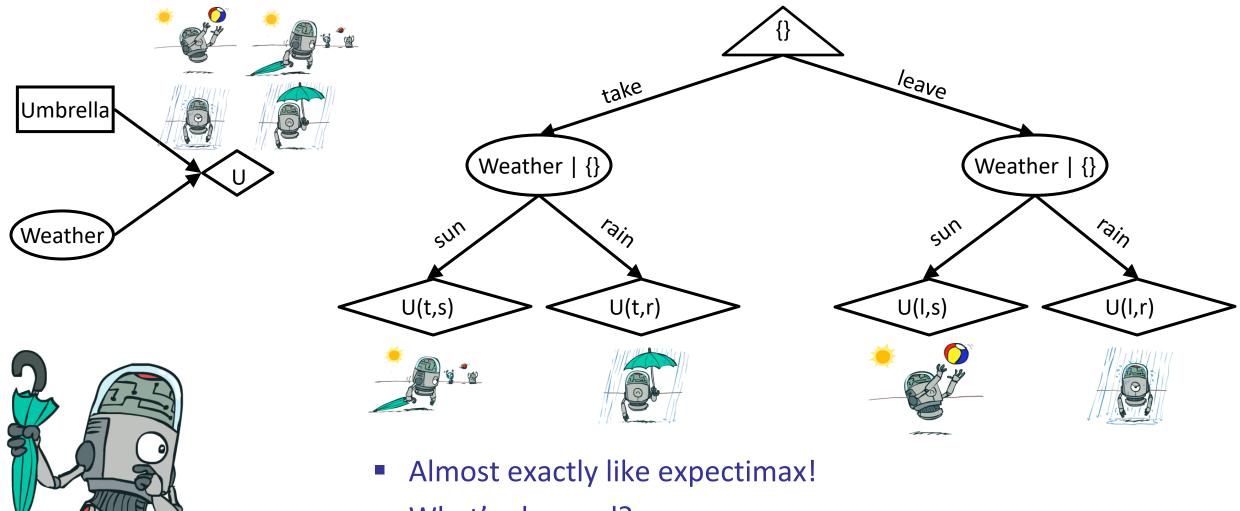


Maximum Expected Utility



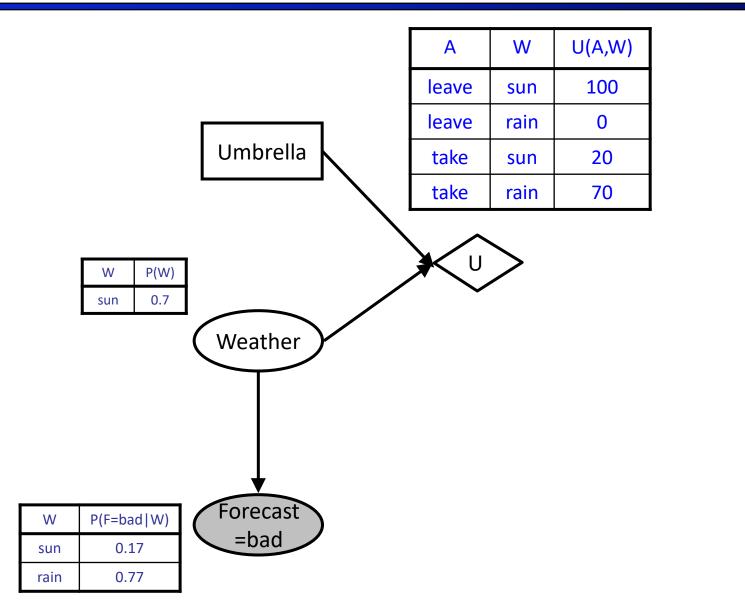
$$MEU(\phi) = \max_{a} EU(a) = 70$$

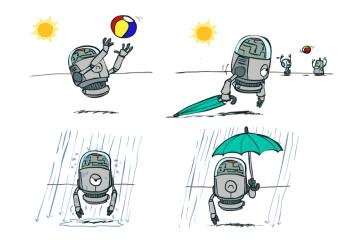
Decisions as Outcome Trees

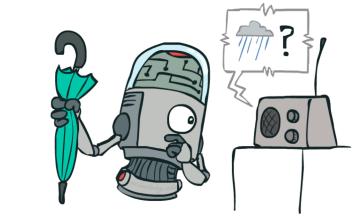


What's changed?

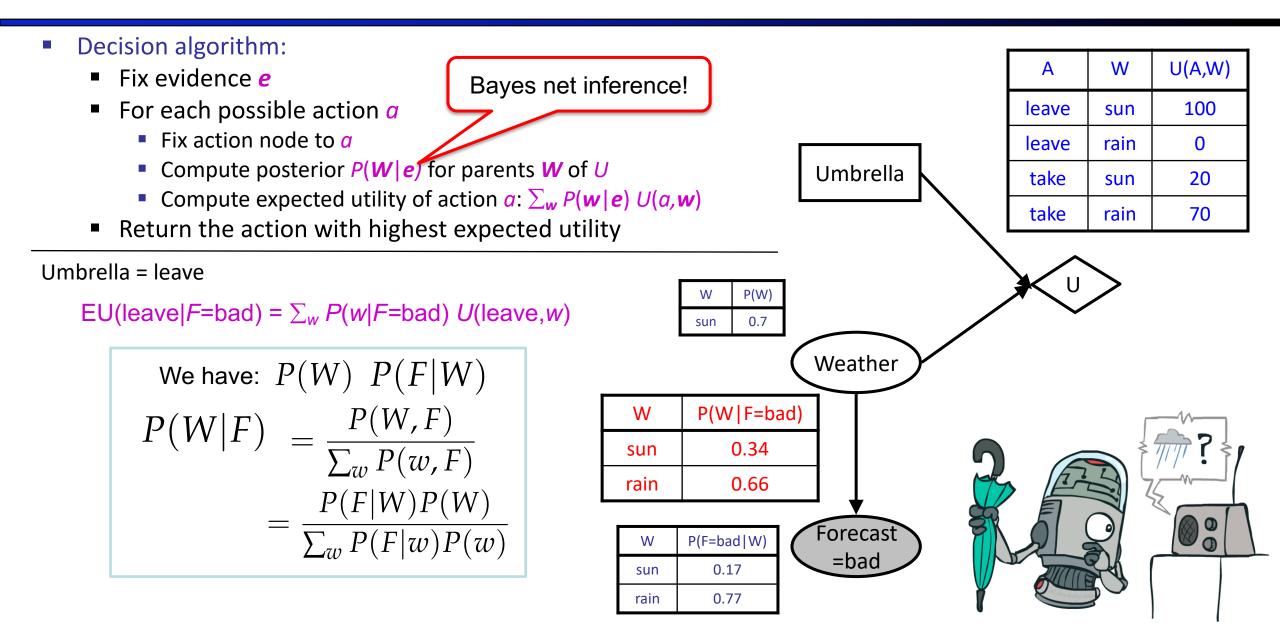
Example: Take an umbrella?



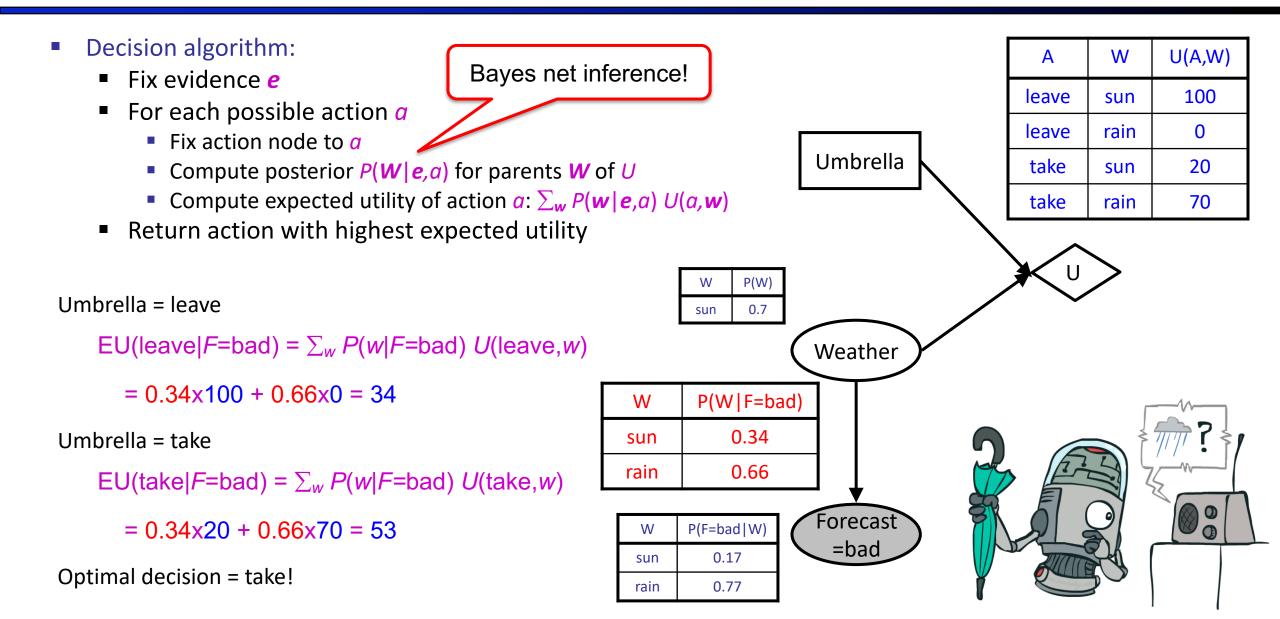




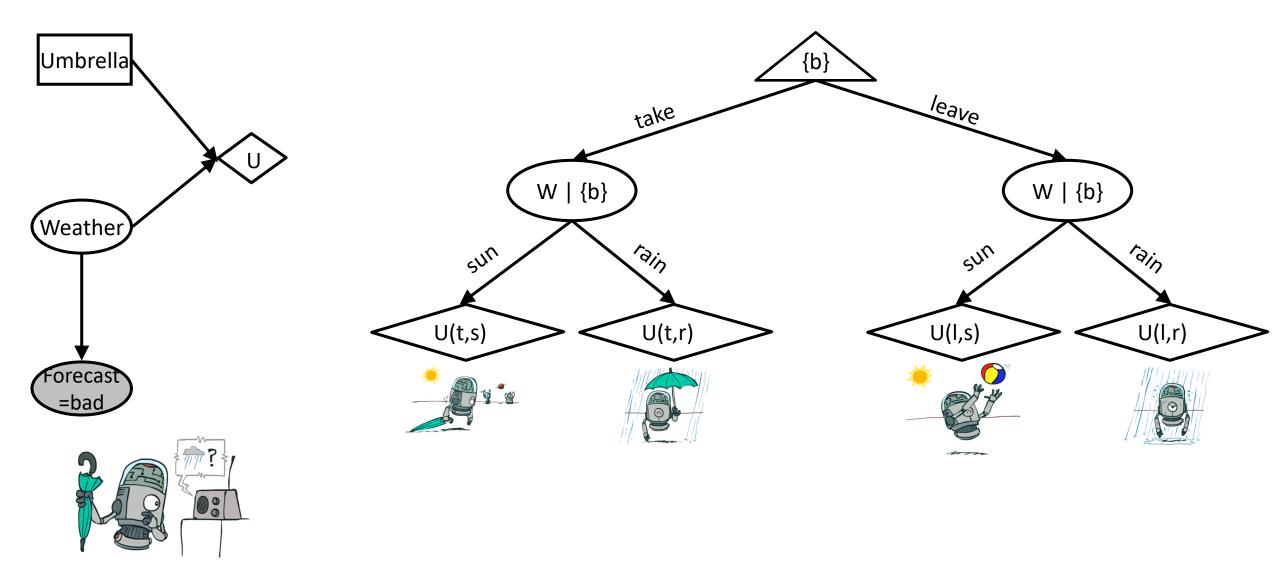
Example: Take an umbrella?



Example: Take an umbrella?



Decisions as Outcome Trees



Decision network with utilities on outcome states

