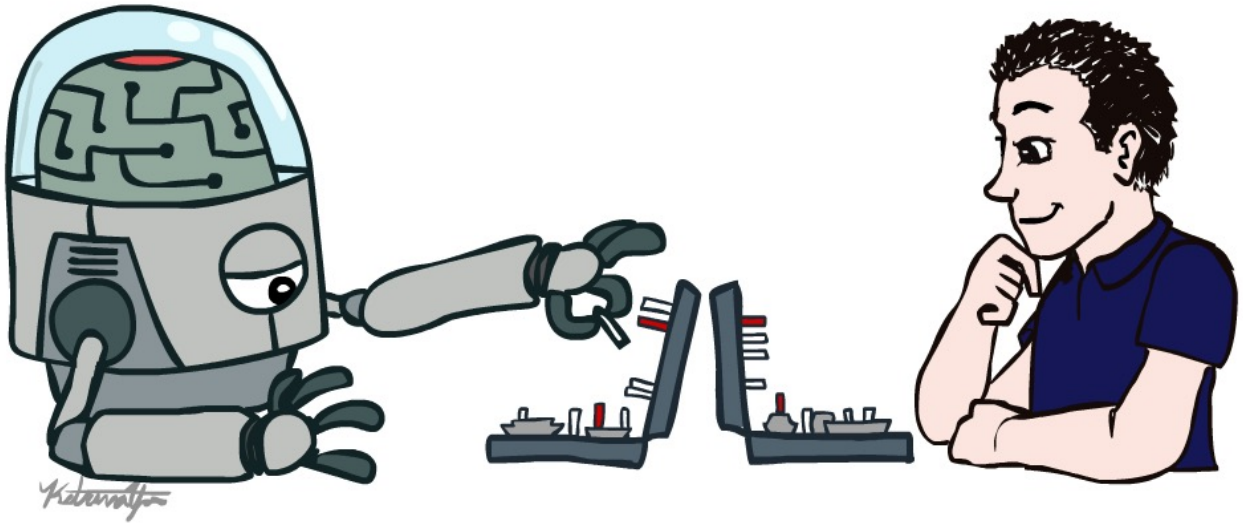
CS 188: Artificial Intelligence

Review



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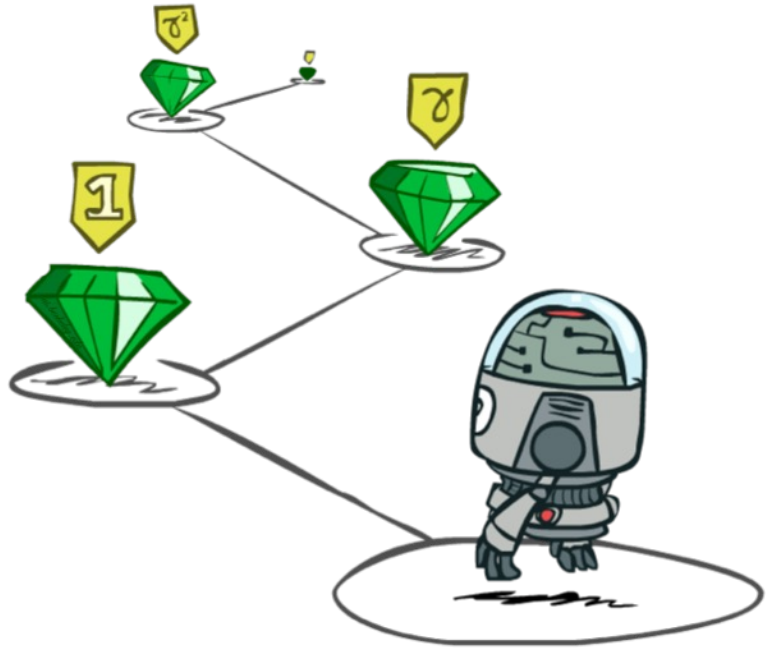
(Slides adapted from Pieter Abbeel, Dan Klein, Anca Dragan, Stuart Russell and Dawn Song)

Course Topics

- Part I: Search and Planning
  - Basic Search Algorithms
  - CSPs
  - Adversarial Search (Games)
  - Uncertain Search (MDPs)
- Part II: Reasoning with Uncertainty
  - Bayes Nets
  - Markov Models
  - Decision theory
- Part III: Learning
  - Machine Learning
  - Reinforcement Learning

A Rational Agent…

- **Maximizes** expected utility
- **Maximizes** sums of rewards



- **Minimizes** expected *loss*
- **Minimizes** sums of *costs*

- *Loss* is just negative utility, and *costs* are just negative rewards

Agent design

The environment type largely determines the agent design

Partially observable => agent requires ***memory*** (internal state)

Stochastic => agent may have to prepare for ***contingencies***

Multi-agent => agent may need to behave ***randomly***

Static => agent has time to compute a rational decision

Continuous time => continuously operating ***controller***

Unknown physics => need for ***exploration***

Unknown perf. measure => observe/interact with ***human principal***

Environment types

	Crossword	Backgammon	Diagnosis	Taxi
Fully or partially observable	Fully	Fully	Partially	Partially
Single-agent or multiagent	Single	Multi	Single	Multi
Deterministic or stochastic	Deterministic	Stochastic	Stochastic	Stochastic
Static or dynamic	Static	Static	Dynamic	Dynamic
Discrete or continuous	Discrete	Discrete	Continuous	Continuous
Known physics?	Yes	Yes	No	No

Preferences

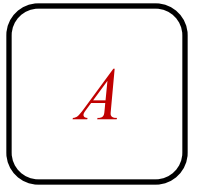
- An agent must have preferences among:
  - Prizes: A, B, etc.
  - Lotteries: situations with uncertain prizes

$$L = [p, A;\ \ (1-p), B]$$

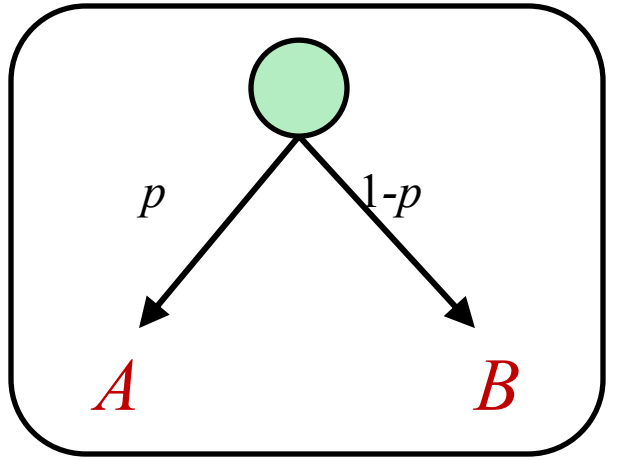
- Notation:
  - Preference: $A \succ B$
  - Indifference: $A \sim B$

- Maximum expected utility (MEU) principle:
  - Choose the action that maximizes expected utility

A Prize

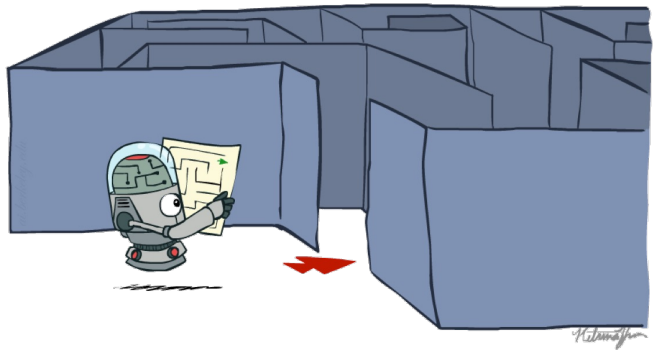


A Lottery

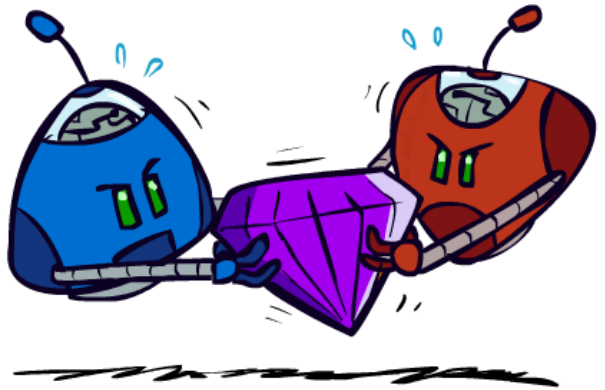


Problem Types

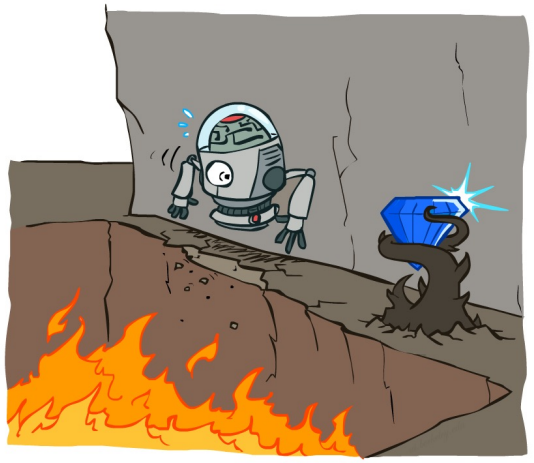
Search Problems



Deterministic Games



MDPs



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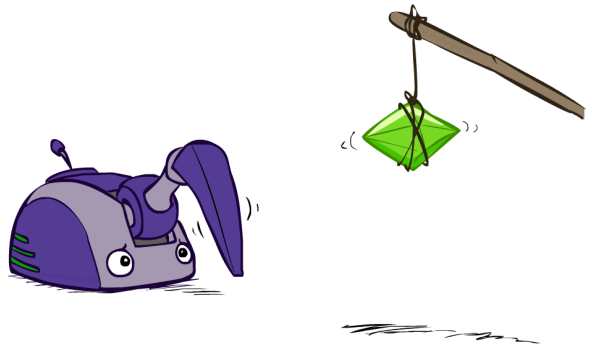
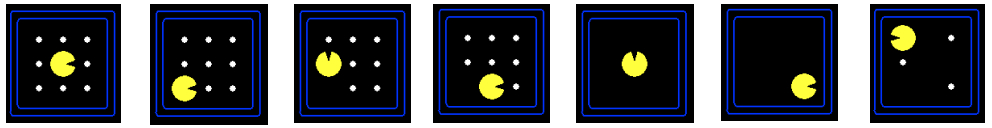
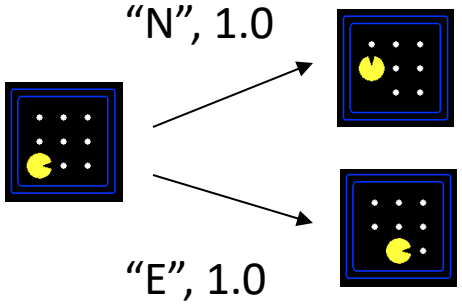


Search Problems

- A search problem consists of:
  - A state space



  - A successor function (with actions, costs)

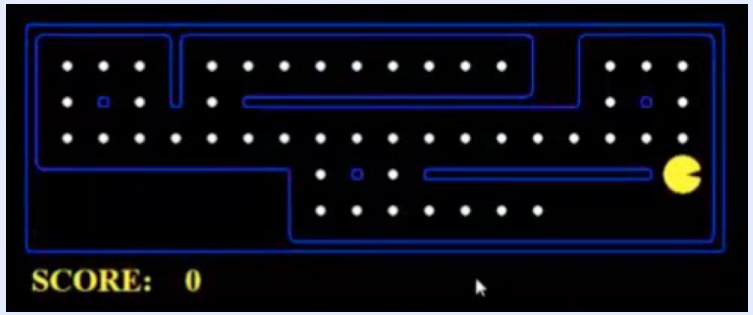


  - A start state and a goal test

- A solution is a sequence of actions (a plan) which transforms the start state to a goal state

What's in a State Space?

The world state includes every last detail of the environment



A search state keeps only the details needed for planning (abstraction)

- Problem: Pathing
  - States: (x,y) location
  - Actions: NSEW
  - Successor: update location only
  - Goal test: is (x,y)=END

- Problem: Eat-All-Dots
  - States: {(x,y), dot booleans}
  - Actions: NSEW
  - Successor: update location and possibly a dot boolean
  - Goal test: dots all false

State Space Sizes?

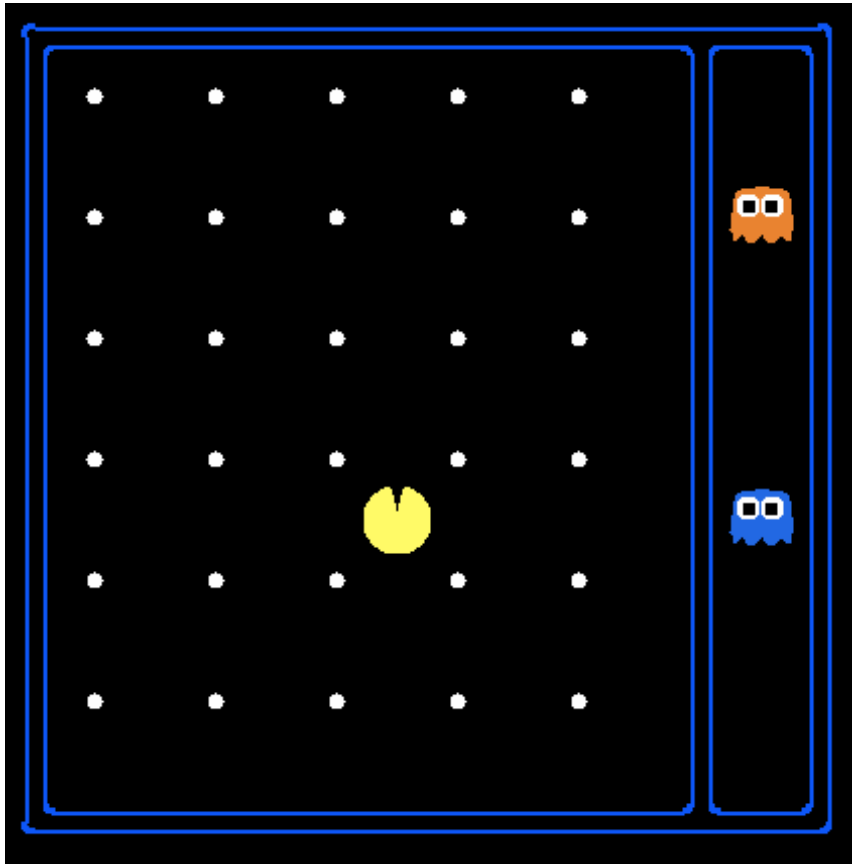
- World state:
  - Agent positions: 120
  - Food count: 30
  - Ghost positions: 12
  - Agent facing: NSEW

- How many
  - World states?

    $120x(2^{30})x(12^2)x4$
  - States for pathing?

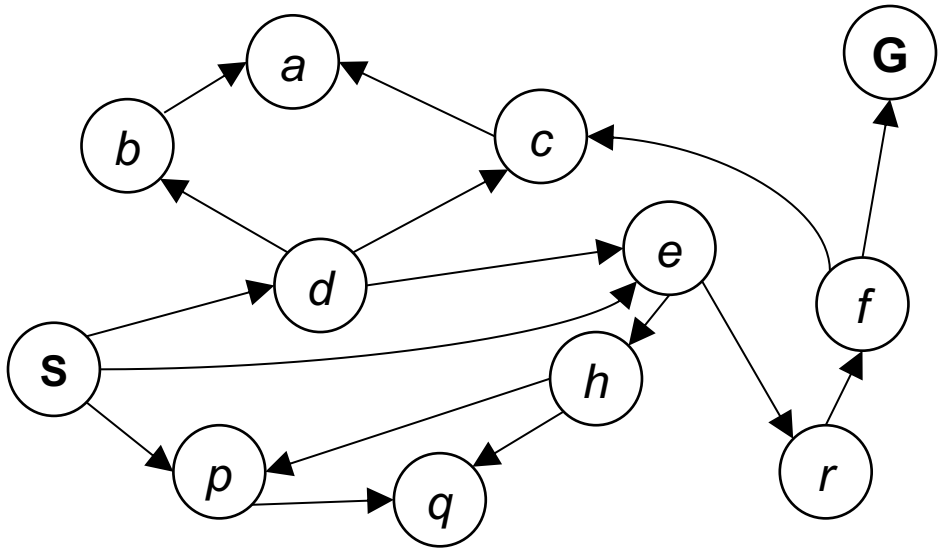
    120
  - States for eat-all-dots?

    $120x(2^{30})$



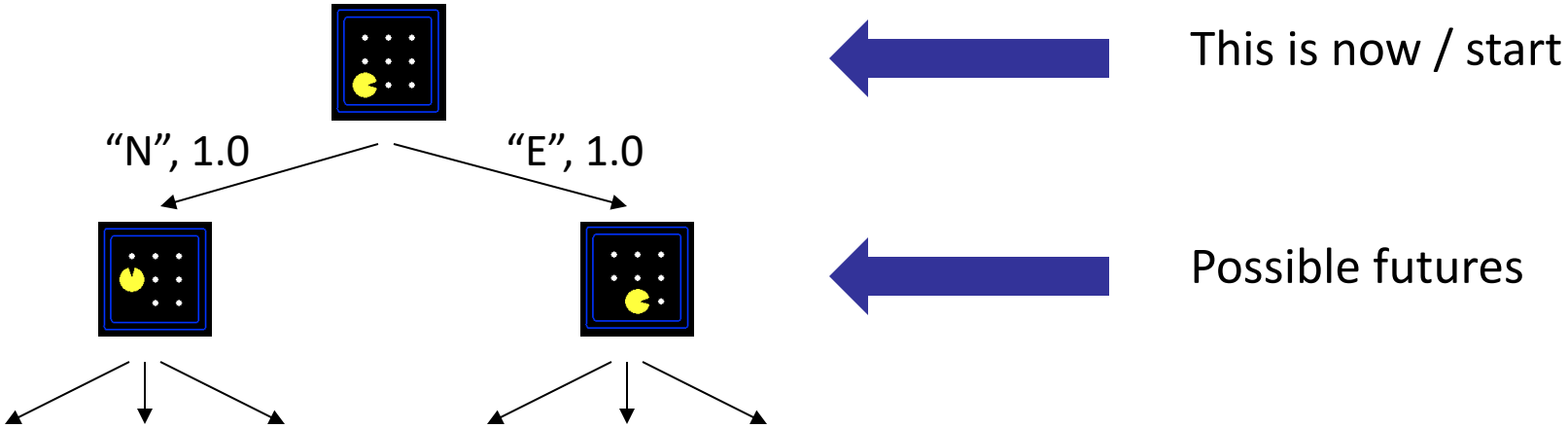
State Space Graphs

- State space graph: A mathematical representation of a search problem
  - Nodes are (abstracted) world configurations
  - Arcs represent successors (action results)
  - The goal test is a set of goal nodes (maybe only one)
- In a state space graph, each state occurs only once!



Tiny state space graph for a tiny search problem

Search Trees



- A search tree:
  - A "what if" tree of plans and their outcomes
  - The start state is the root node
  - Children correspond to successors
  - Nodes show states, but correspond to PLANS that achieve those states

Tree Search

```
function TREE-SEARCH( problem, strategy) returns a solution, or failure
    initialize the search tree using the initial state of problem
    loop do
        if there are no candidates for expansion then return failure
        choose a leaf node for expansion according to strategy
        if the node contains a goal state then return the corresponding solution
        else expand the node and add the resulting nodes to the search tree
    end
```

- Important ideas:
  - Fringe
  - Expansion
  - Exploration strategy
- Main question: which fringe nodes to explore?

The One Queue

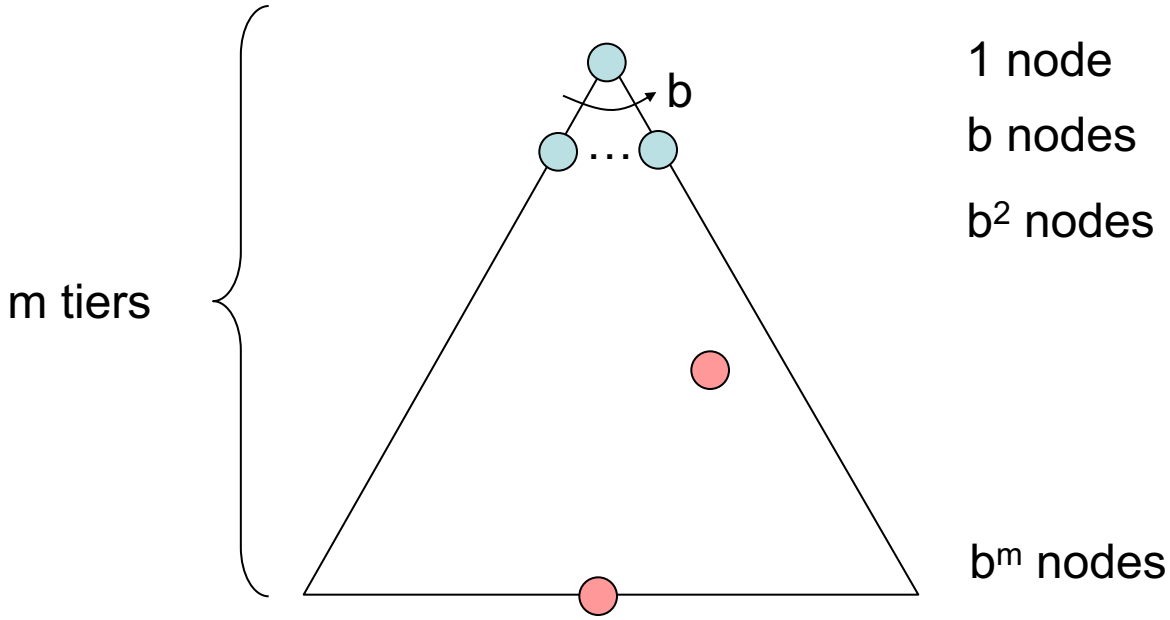
- Many search algorithms are the same except for fringe strategies
  - Depth-First Search: expand the deepest node first
  - Breadth-First Search: expand the shallowest node first
  - Uniform Cost Search: expand the cheapest node first
  - Greedy Search: expand the node with lowest heuristic value first
  - A* Search: expand the node with lowest sum of path cost and heuristic value

Search Algorithm Properties

- Complete: Guaranteed to find a solution if one exists?
- Optimal: Guaranteed to find the least cost path?
- Time complexity?
- Space complexity?

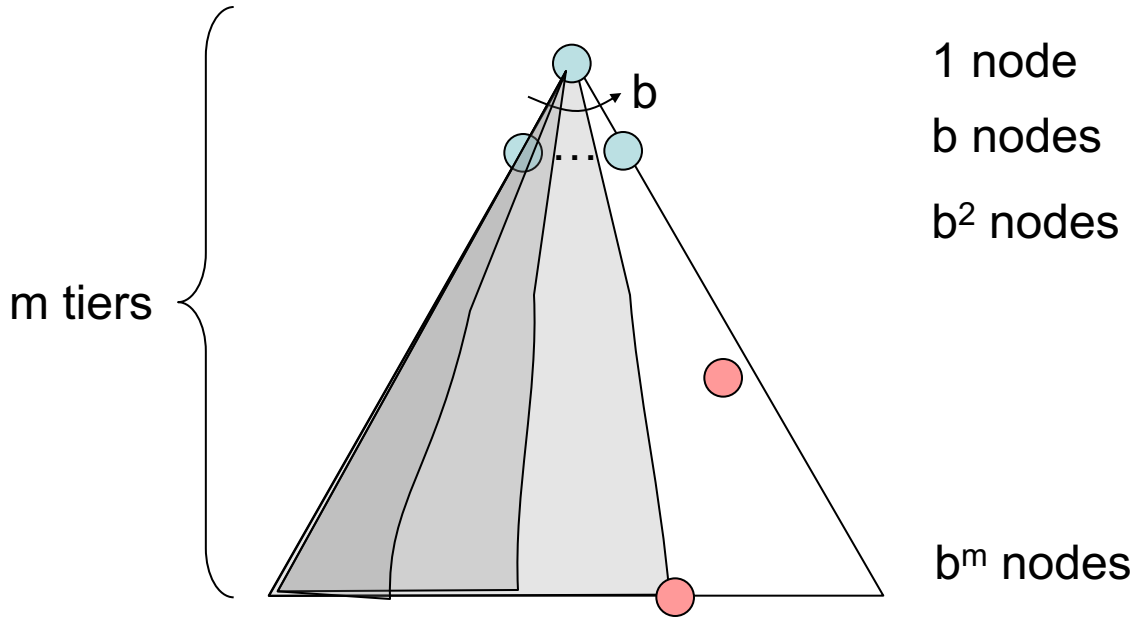
- Cartoon of search tree:
  - b is the branching factor
  - m is the maximum depth
  - d is depth of shallowest solution

- Number of nodes in entire tree?
  - $1 + b + b^2 + \ldots. b^m = O(b^m)$



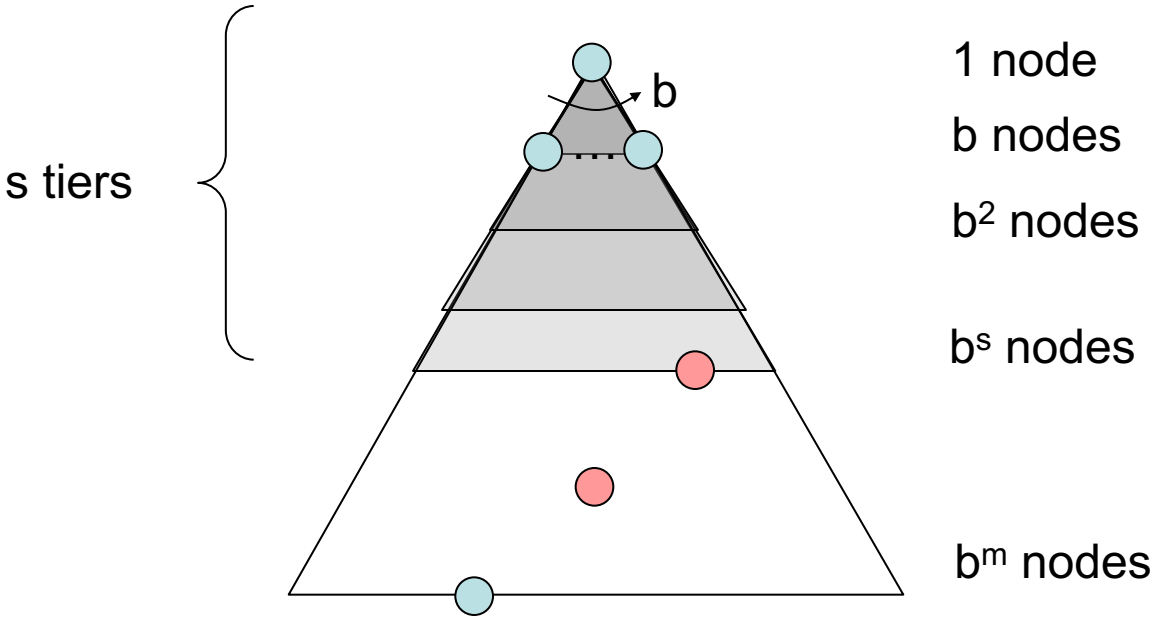
Depth-First Search (DFS) Properties

- What nodes DFS expand?
  - Some left prefix of the tree.
  - Could process the whole tree!
  - If m is finite, takes time $O(b^m)$
- How much space does the fringe take?
  - Only has siblings on path to root, so O(bm)
- Is it complete?
  - m could be infinite, so only if we prevent cycles (more later)
- Is it optimal?
  - No, it finds the "leftmost" solution, regardless of depth or cost



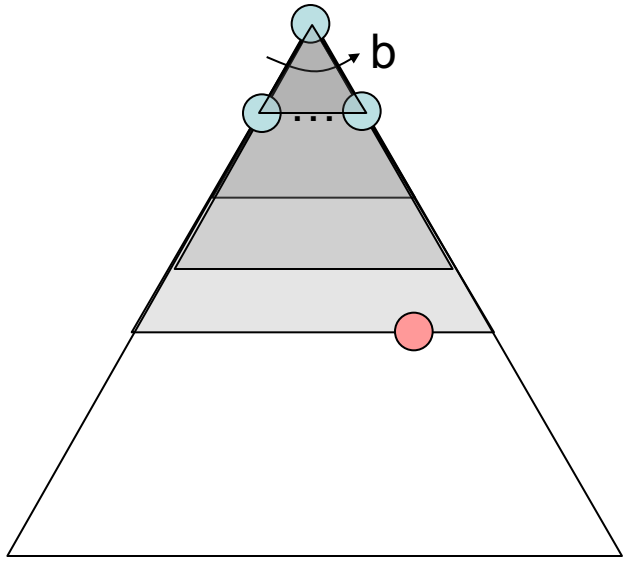
Breadth-First Search (BFS) Properties

- What nodes does BFS expand?
  - Processes all nodes above shallowest solution
  - Let depth of shallowest solution be s
  - Search takes time $O(b^s)$
- How much space does the fringe take?
  - Has roughly the last tier, so $O(b^s)$
- Is it complete?
  - s must be finite if a solution exists, so yes!
- Is it optimal?
  - Only if costs are all 1 (more on costs later)



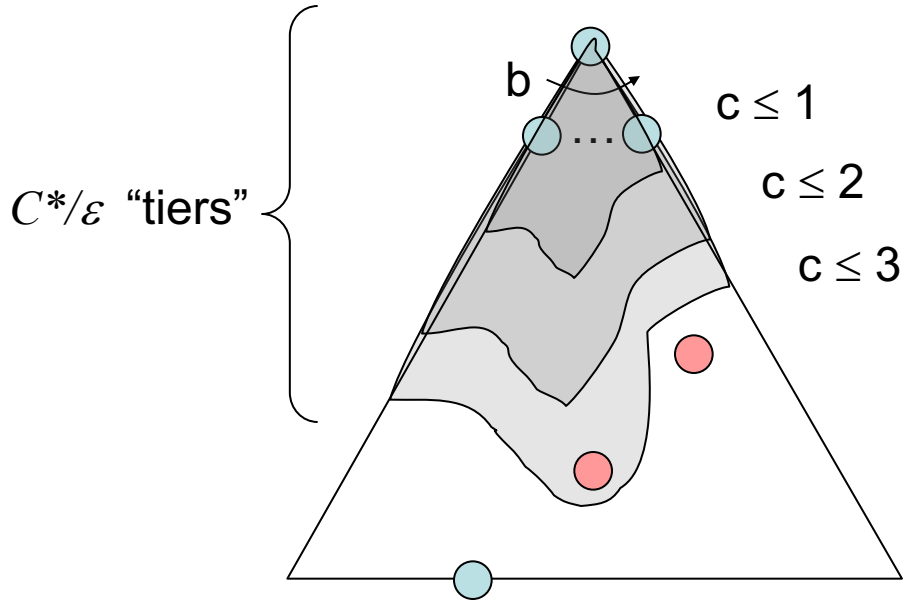
Iterative Deepening

- Idea: get DFS's space advantage with BFS's time / shallow-solution advantages
  - Run a DFS with depth limit 1. If no solution…
  - Run a DFS with depth limit 2. If no solution…
  - Run a DFS with depth limit 3. …..
- Isn't that wastefully redundant?
  - Generally most work happens in the lowest level searched, so not so bad!



Uniform Cost Search (UCS) Properties

- What nodes does UCS expand?
  - Processes all nodes with cost less than cheapest solution!
  - If that solution costs C^* and arcs cost at least ε, then the "effective depth" is roughly C^*/ε
  - Takes time $O(b^{C^*/\varepsilon})$ (exponential in effective depth)



- How much space does the fringe take?
  - Has roughly the last tier, so $O(b^{C^*/\varepsilon})$
- Is it complete?
  - Assuming best solution has a finite cost and minimum arc cost is positive, yes!
- Is it optimal?
  - Yes!

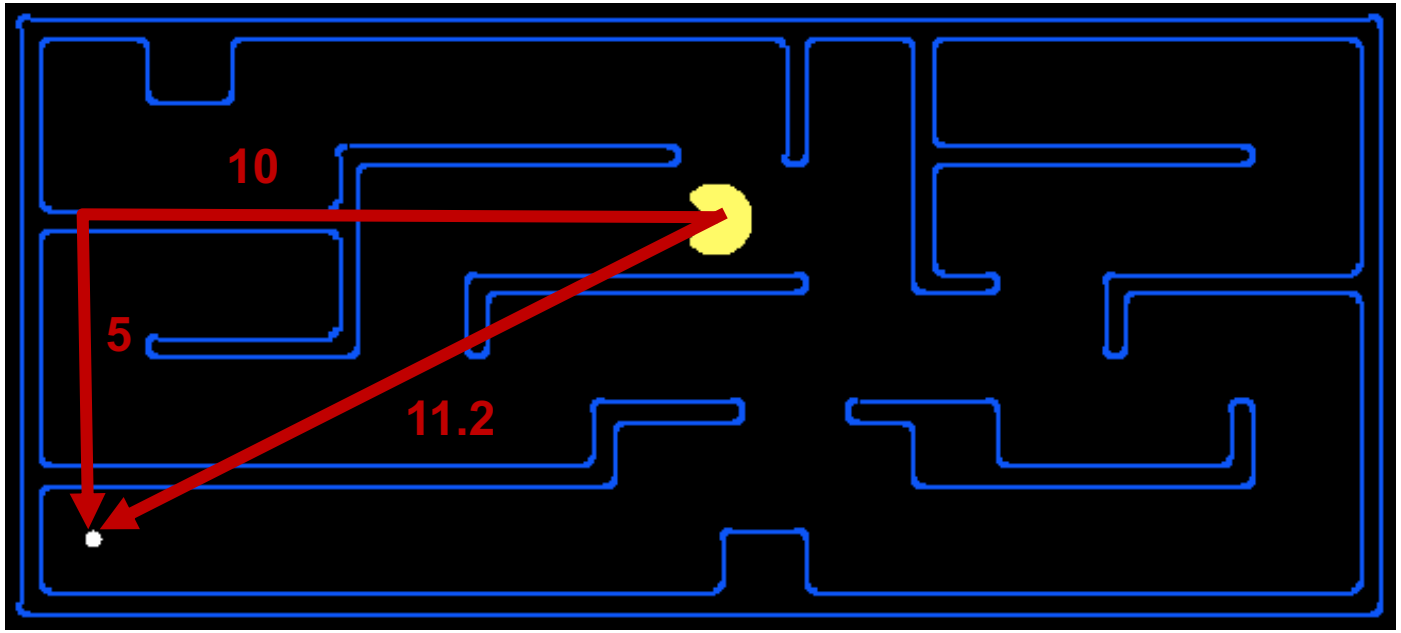
Search Algorithms

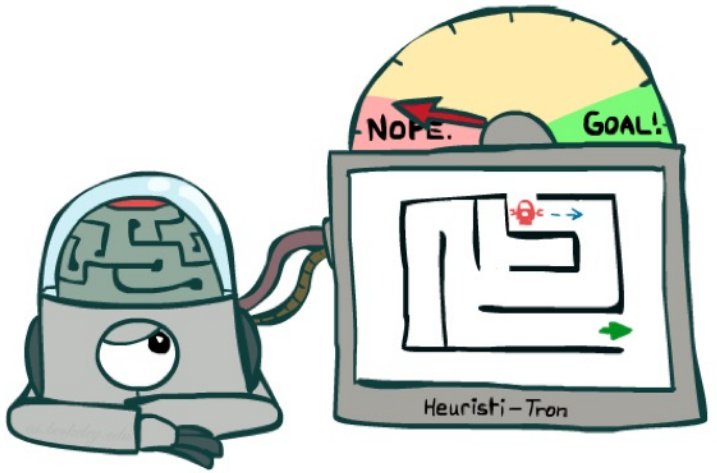
	DFS	BFS	Iterative Deepen	UCS
Complete?	No	Yes *	Yes *	Yes * **
Optimal?	No	Yes ***	Yes ***	Yes
Time	O(b^m)	O(b^d)	O(b^d)	$O(b^{1+C^*/\varepsilon})$
Space	O(bm)	O(b^d)	O(bd)	$O(b^{1+C^*/\varepsilon})$

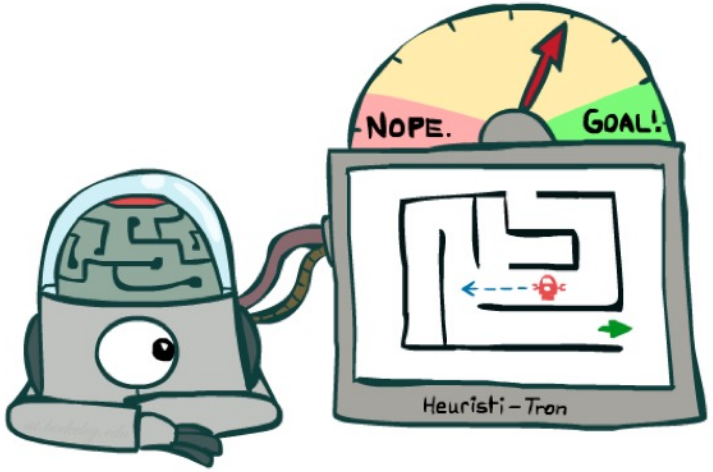
- *: if b is finite, and state space either has a solution or is finite
- **: if all costs are $\geq \varepsilon > 0$.
- ***: if all costs are identical.

Search Heuristics

- A heuristic is:
  - A function that *estimates* how close a state is to a goal
  - Designed for a particular search problem
  - Examples: Manhattan distance, Euclidean distance for pathing

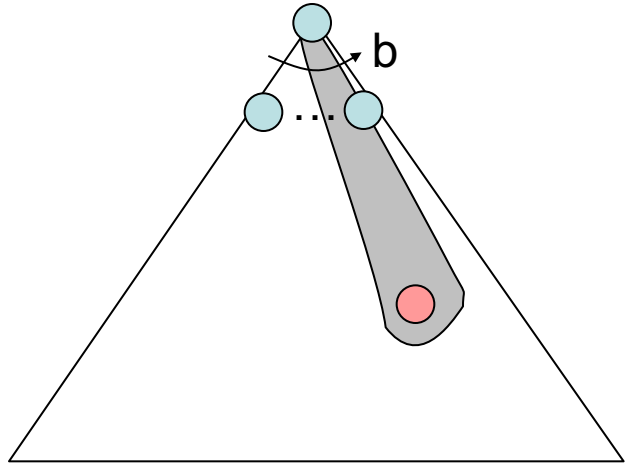




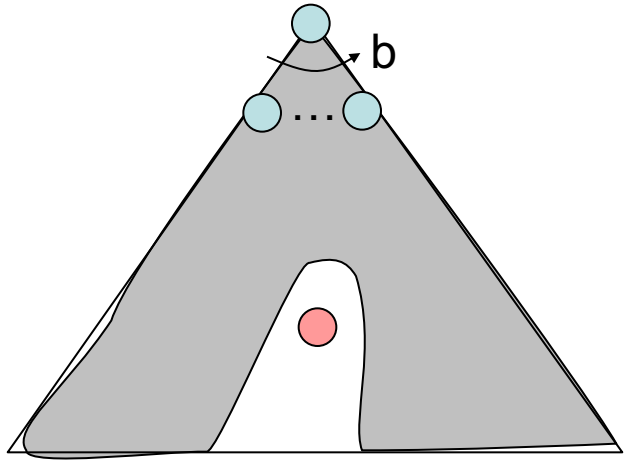


Greedy Search

- Strategy: expand a node that you think is closest to a goal state
  - Heuristic: estimate of distance to nearest goal for each state



- A common case:
  - Best-first takes you straight to the (wrong) goal



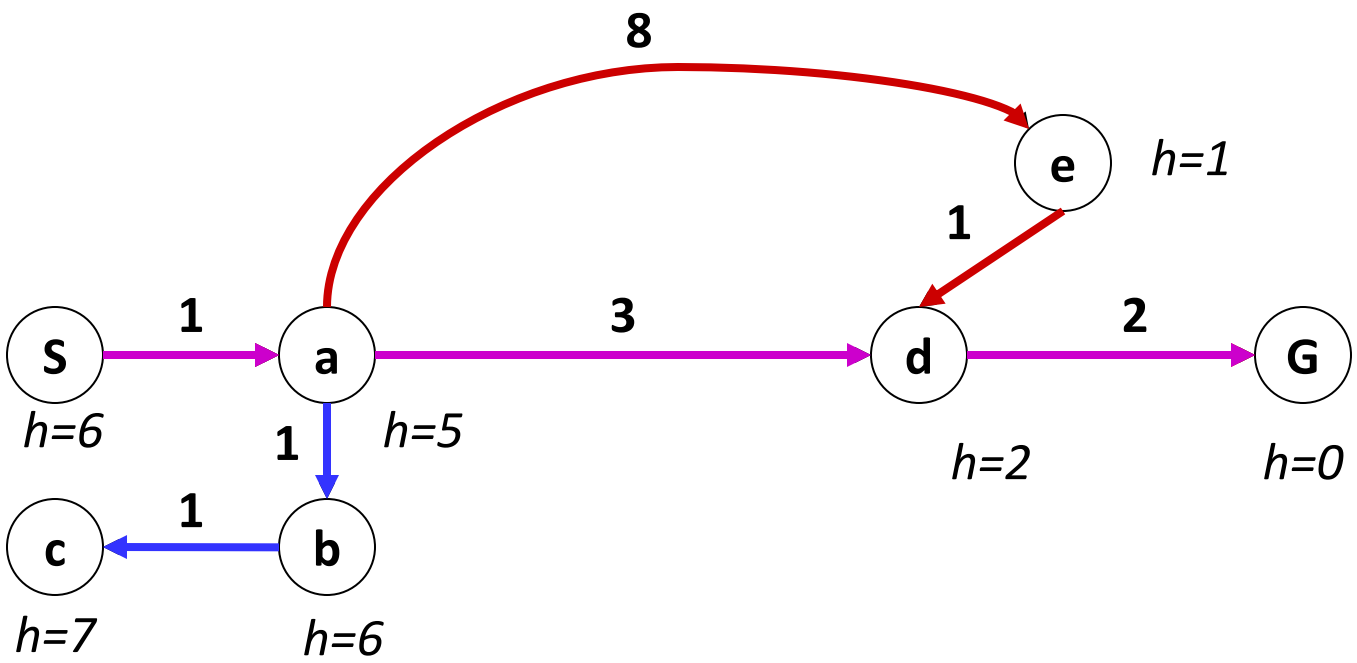
- Worst-case: like a badly-guided DFS

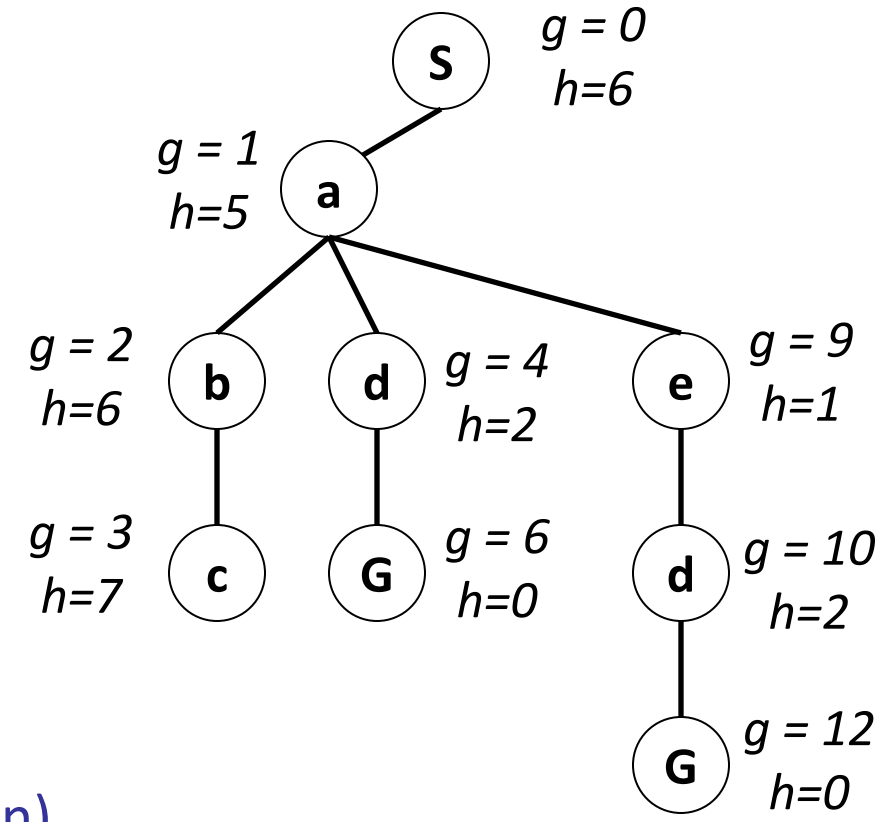
Graph Search

- Idea: never expand a state twice
- How to implement:
  - Tree search + set of expanded states (“closed set”)
  - Expand the search tree node-by-node, but…
  - Before expanding a node, check to make sure its state has never been expanded before
  - If not new, skip it, if new add to closed set
- Important: store the closed set as a set, not a list

Combining UCS and Greedy

- Uniform-cost orders by path cost, or *backward cost* g(n)
- Greedy orders by goal proximity, or *forward cost* h(n)



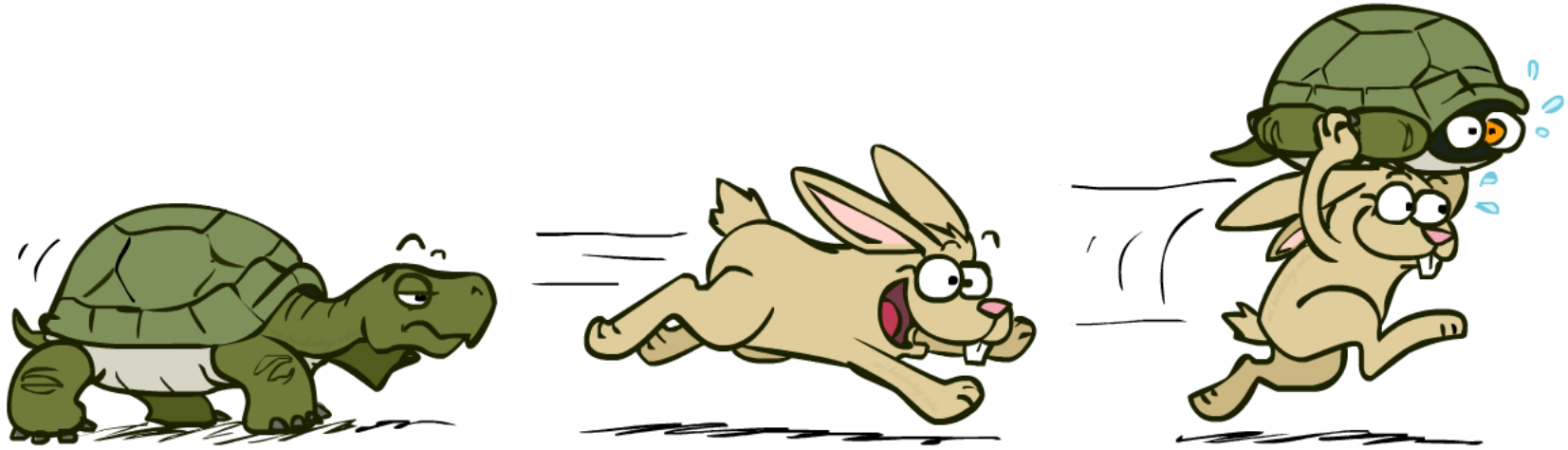


- A* Search orders by the sum: f(n) = g(n) + h(n)

Example: Teg Grenager

A*

- A* uses both backward costs and (estimates of) forward costs
- A* tree search is optimal with an admissible heuristic
- A* graph search is optimal with a consistent heuristic



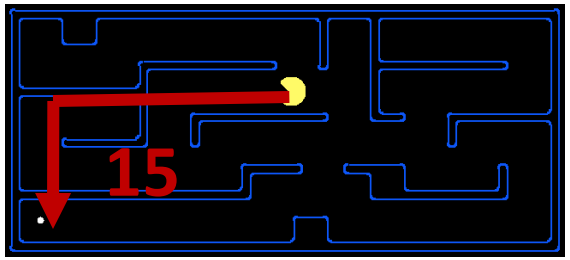
Admissible Heuristics

- A heuristic h is *admissible* (optimistic) if:

$$0 \leq h(n) \leq h^*(n)$$

where $h^*(n)$ is the true cost to a nearest goal

- Examples:



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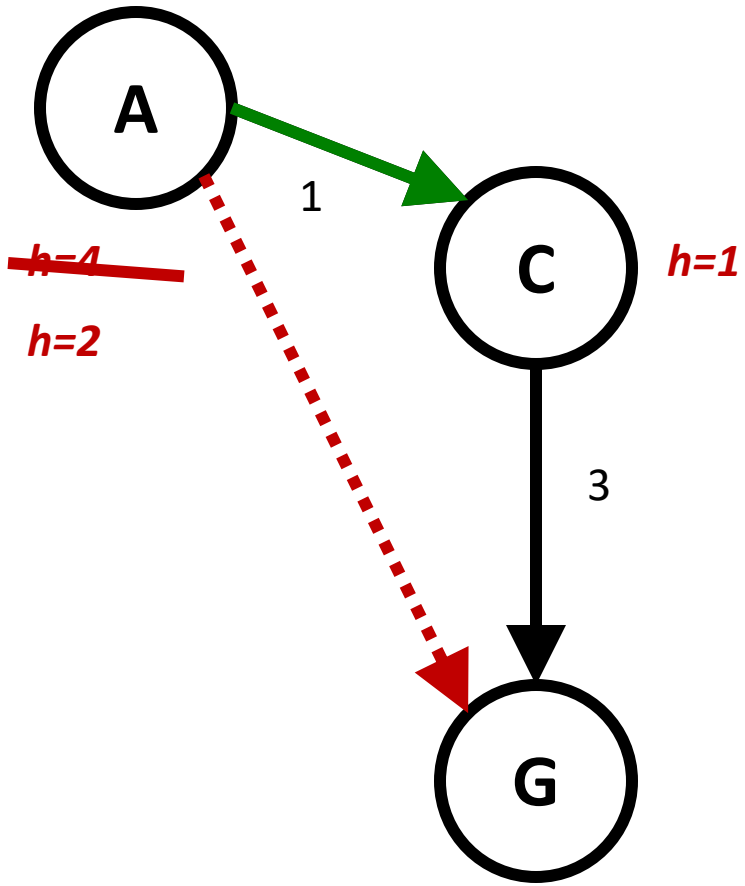
- Coming up with admissible heuristics is most of what's involved in using A* in practice.

Idea: Consistency



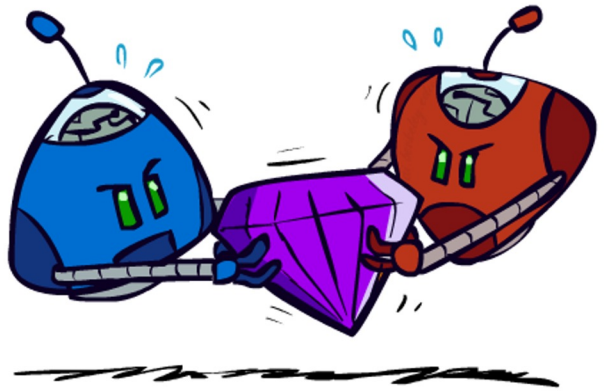
- Main idea: estimated heuristic costs ≤ actual costs
  - Admissibility: heuristic cost ≤ actual cost to goal

    h(A) ≤ actual cost from A to G
  - Consistency: heuristic "arc" cost ≤ actual cost for each arc

    h(A) – h(C) ≤ cost(A to C)
- Consequences of consistency:
  - The f value along a path never decreases

    h(A) ≤ cost(A to C) + h(C)
  - A* graph search is optimal

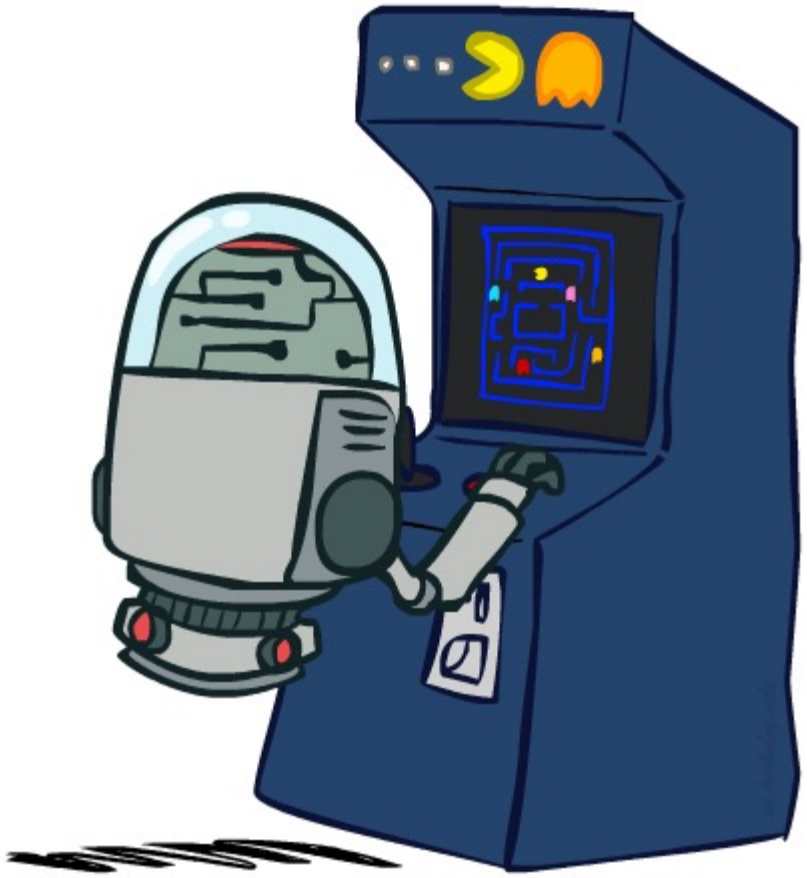
Games



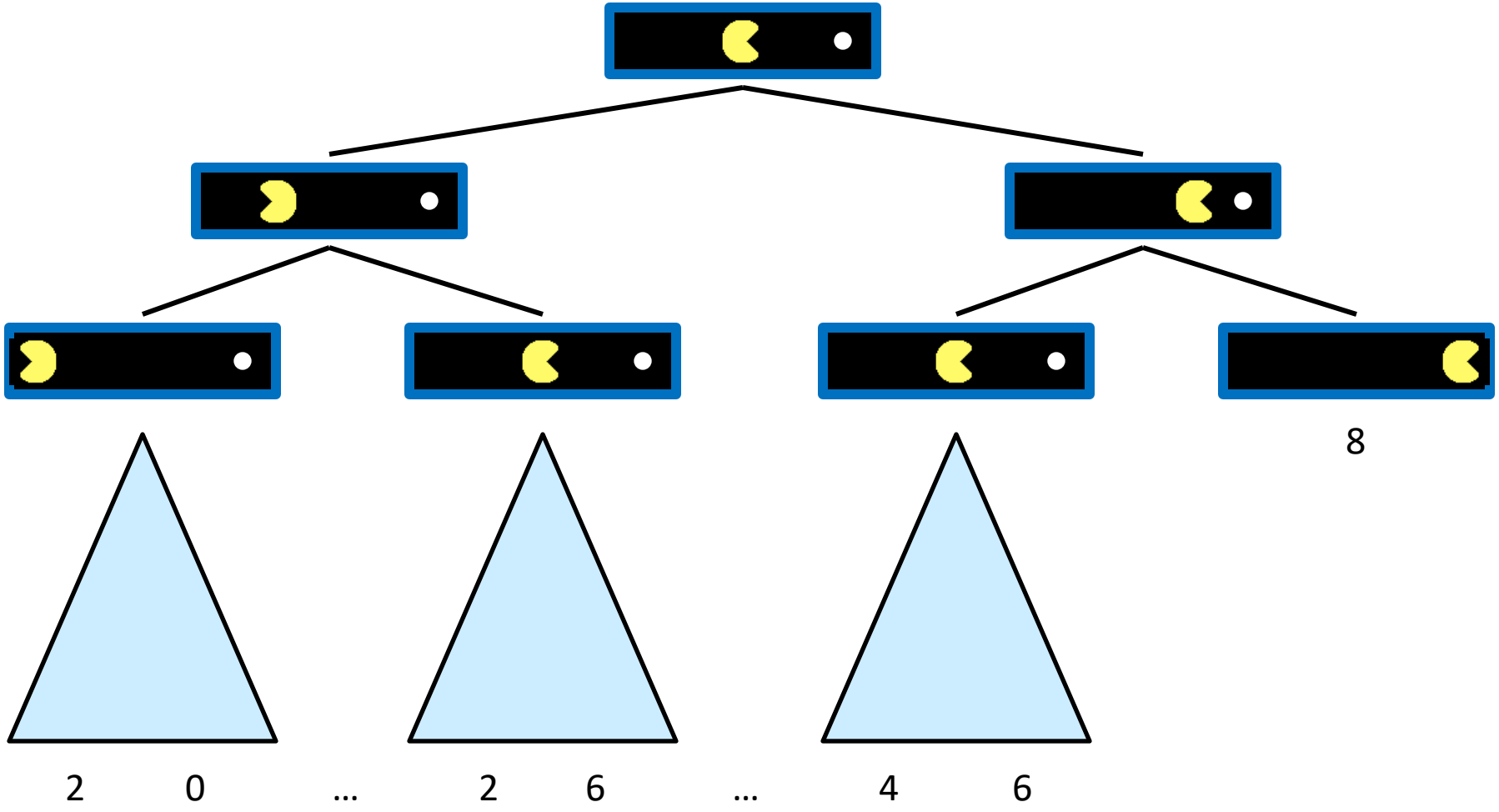
Deterministic Games

- Many possible formalizations, one is:
  - States: S (start at s_0)
  - Players: P={1...N} (usually take turns)
  - Actions: A (may depend on player / state)
  - Transition Function: SxA $\rightarrow$ S
  - Terminal Test: S $\rightarrow$ {t,f}
  - Terminal Utilities: SxP $\rightarrow$ R

- Solution for a player is a policy: S $\rightarrow$ A



Single-Agent Trees

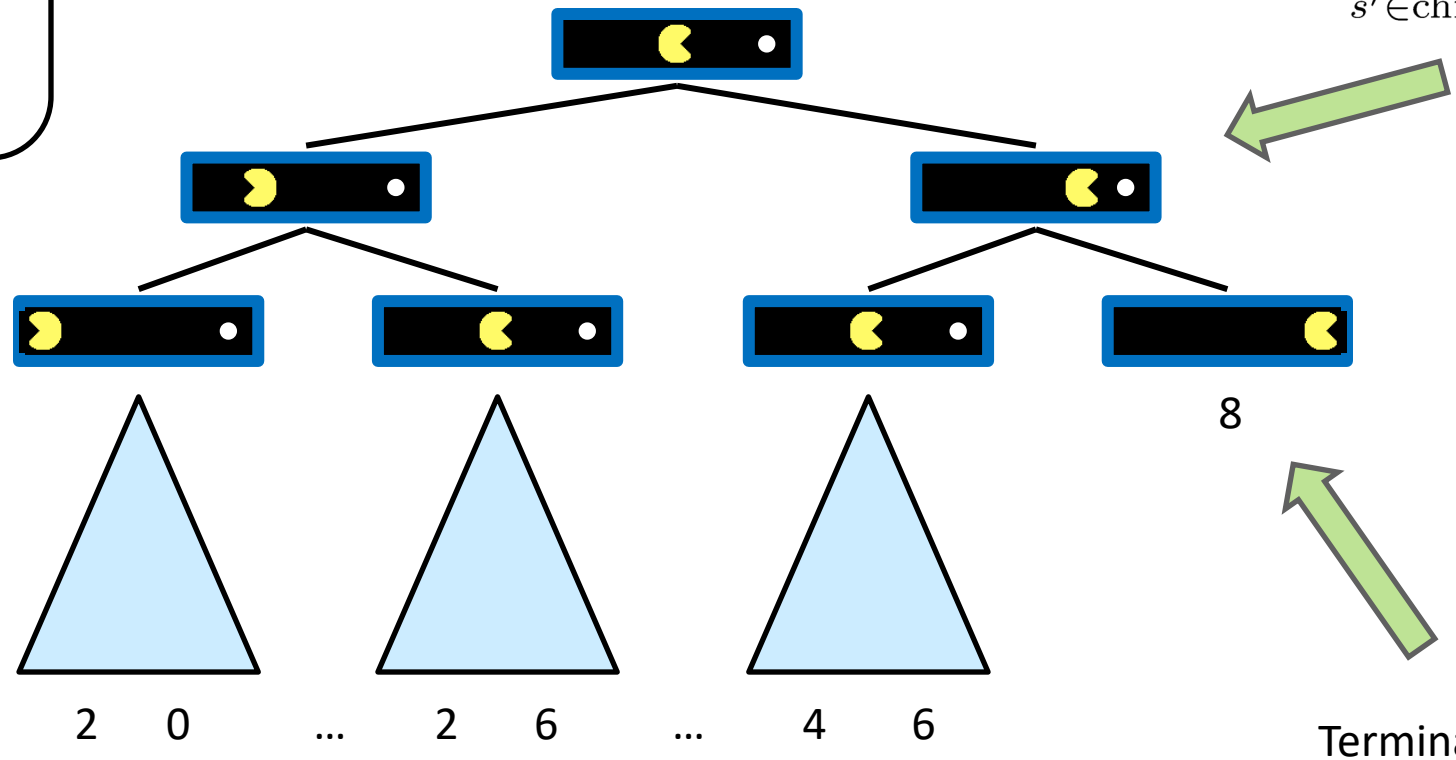


Value of a State

Value of a state: The best achievable outcome (utility) from that state

Non-Terminal States:

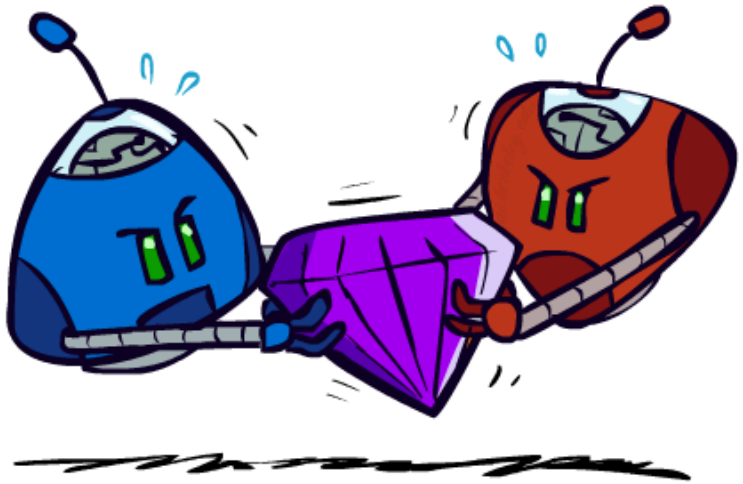
$$V(s) = \max_{s' \in \text{children}(s)} V(s')$$



Terminal States:

$$V(s) = \text{known}$$

Zero-Sum Games



- Zero-Sum Games
  - Agents have opposite utilities (values on outcomes)
  - Let us think of a single value that one maximizes and the other minimizes
  - Adversarial, pure competition

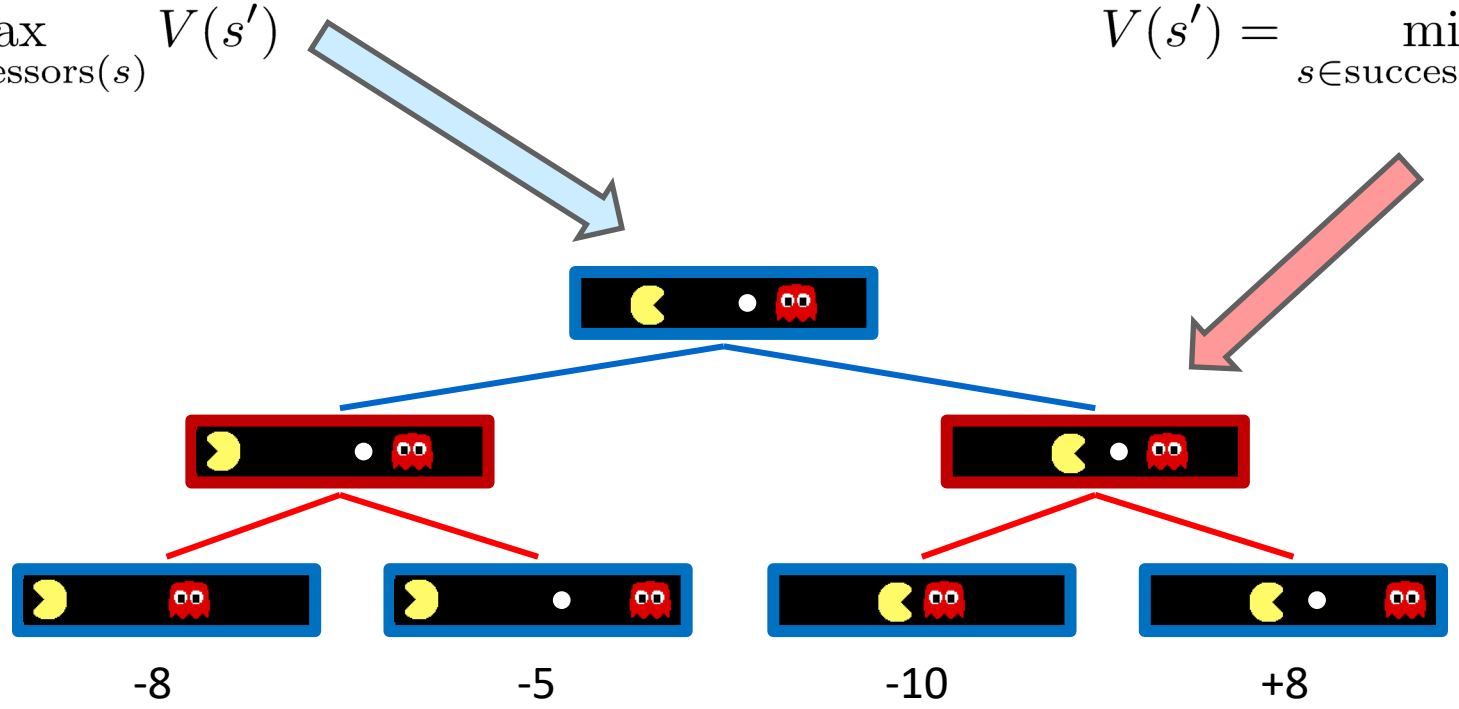
Minimax Values

States Under Agent's Control:

$$V(s) = \max_{s' \in \text{successors}(s)} V(s')$$

States Under Opponent's Control:

$$V(s') = \min_{s \in \text{successors}(s')} V(s)$$

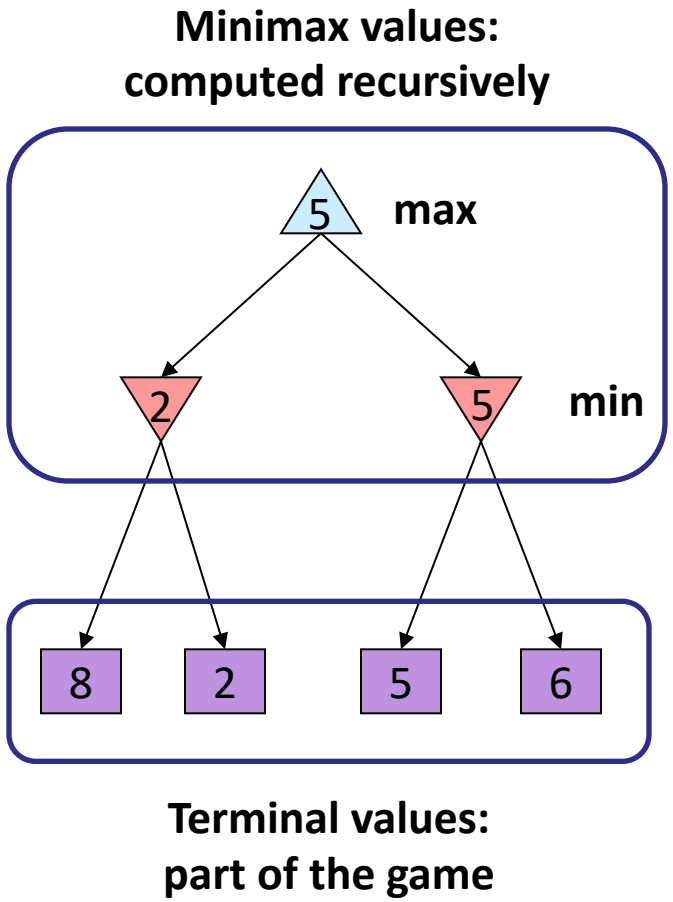


Terminal States:

$$V(s) = \text{known}$$

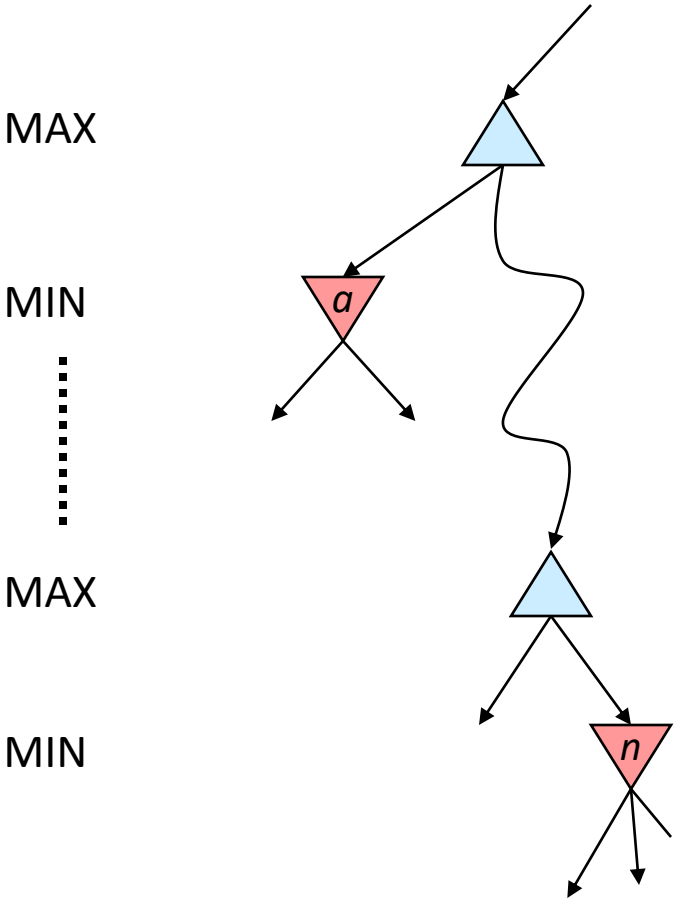
Adversarial Search (Minimax)

- Minimax search:
  - A state-space search tree
  - Players alternate turns
  - Compute each node's minimax value: the best achievable utility against a rational (optimal) adversary



Alpha-Beta Pruning

- General configuration (MIN version, MAX is symmetric)
  - We're computing the MIN-VALUE at some node *n*
  - We're looping over *n*'s children
  - *n*'s estimate of the childrens' min is dropping
  - Who cares about *n*'s value? MAX
  - Let *a* be the best value that MAX can get at any choice point along the current path from the root
  - If *n* becomes worse than *a*, MAX will avoid it, so we can stop considering *n*'s other children (it's already bad enough that it won't be played)



- This pruning has no effect on minimax value computed for the root, but values of intermediate nodes might be wrong

Alpha-Beta Implementation

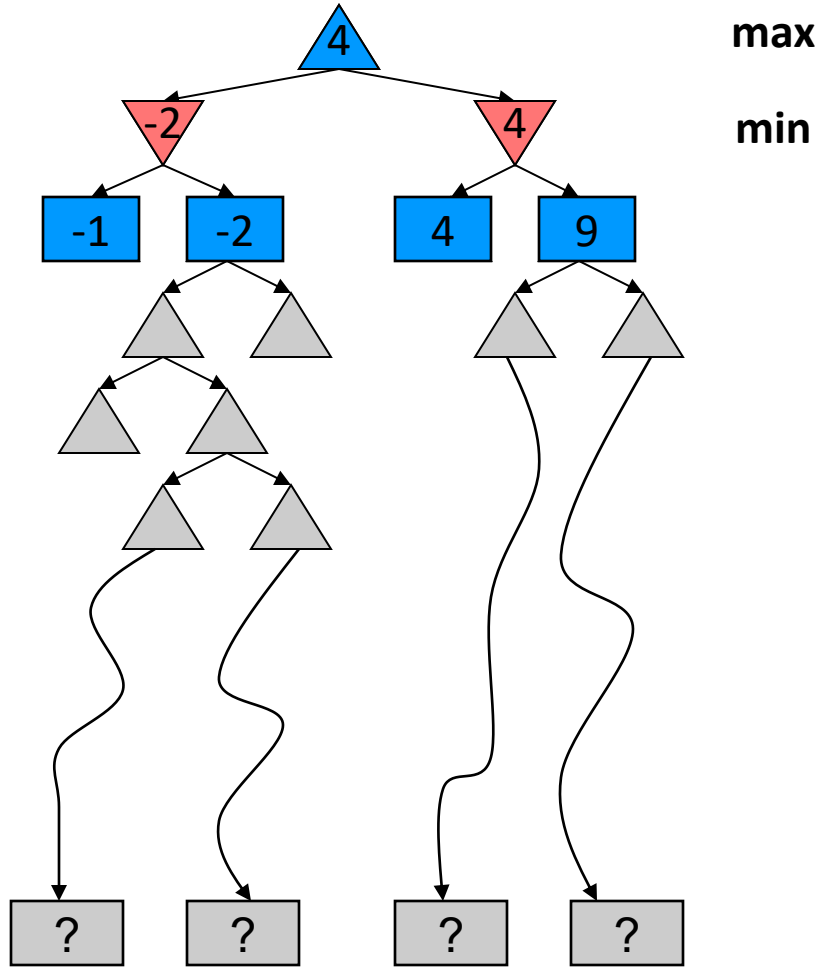
α: MAX's best option on path to root
β: MIN's best option on path to root

```
def max-value(state, α, β):
    initialize v = -∞
    for each successor of state:
        v = max(v, value(successor, α, β))
        if v ≥ β return v
        α = max(α, v)
    return v
```

```
def min-value(state, α, β):
    initialize v = +∞
    for each successor of state:
        v = min(v, value(successor, α, β))
        if v ≤ α return v
        β = min(β, v)
    return v
```

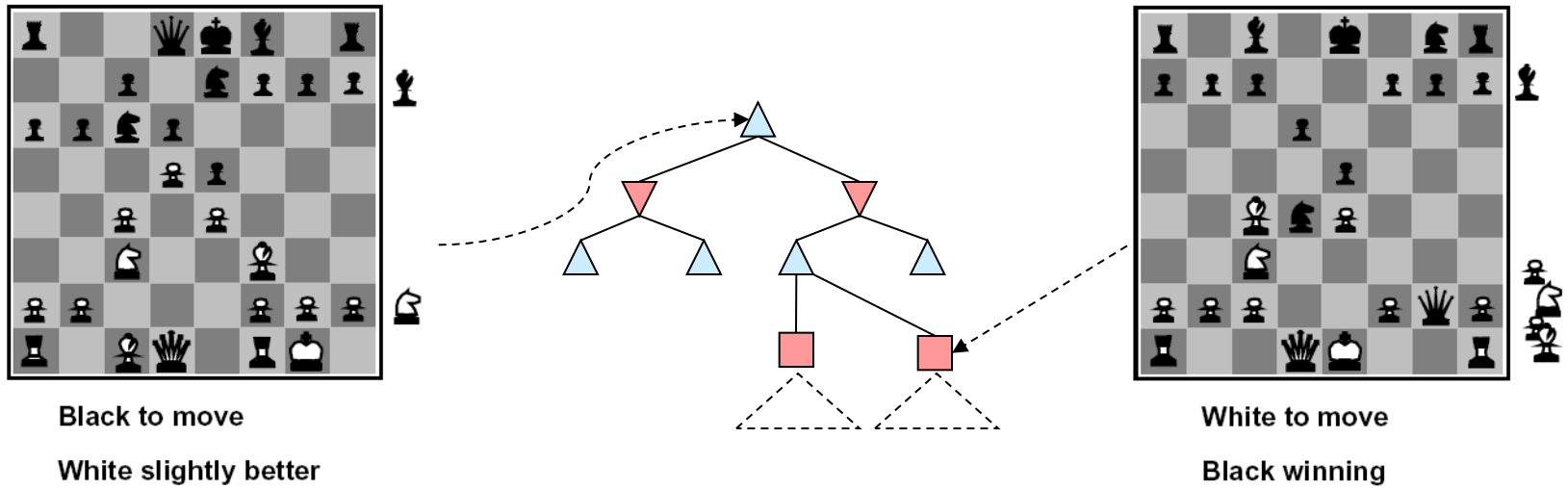
Depth-limited search

- Problem: In realistic games, cannot search to leaves!
- Solution: Depth-limited search
  - Instead, search only to a limited depth in the tree
  - Replace terminal utilities with an evaluation function for non-terminal positions
- Depth limit can be adjusted based on computation time budget
- Guarantee of optimal play is gone



Evaluation Functions

- Evaluation functions score non-terminals in depth-limited search



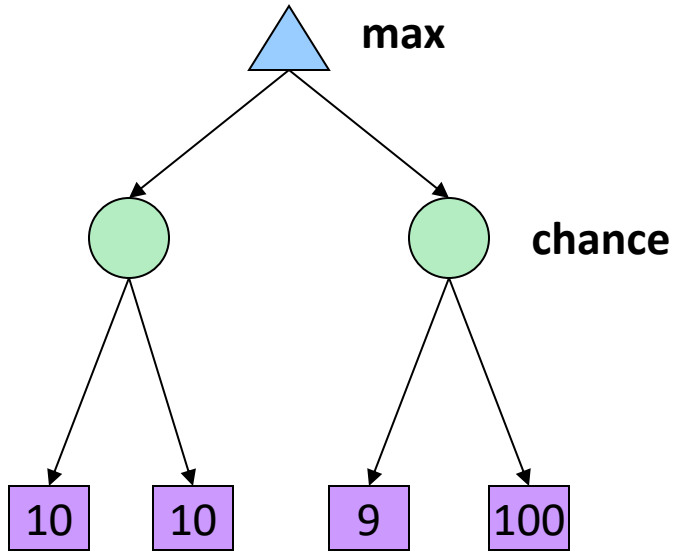
- Ideal function: returns the actual minimax value of the position
- In practice: typically weighted linear sum of features:

$$Eval(s) = w_1 f_1(s) + w_2 f_2(s) + \ldots + w_n f_n(s)$$

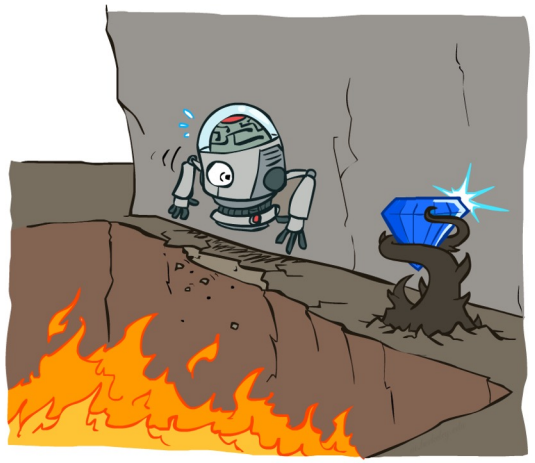
- e.g. $f_1(s)$ = (num white queens – num black queens), etc.

Expectimax Search

- Chance nodes: Uncertain outcomes controlled by chance, not an adversary!
- Expectimax search: compute the average score under optimal play
- Pruning in Expectimax?

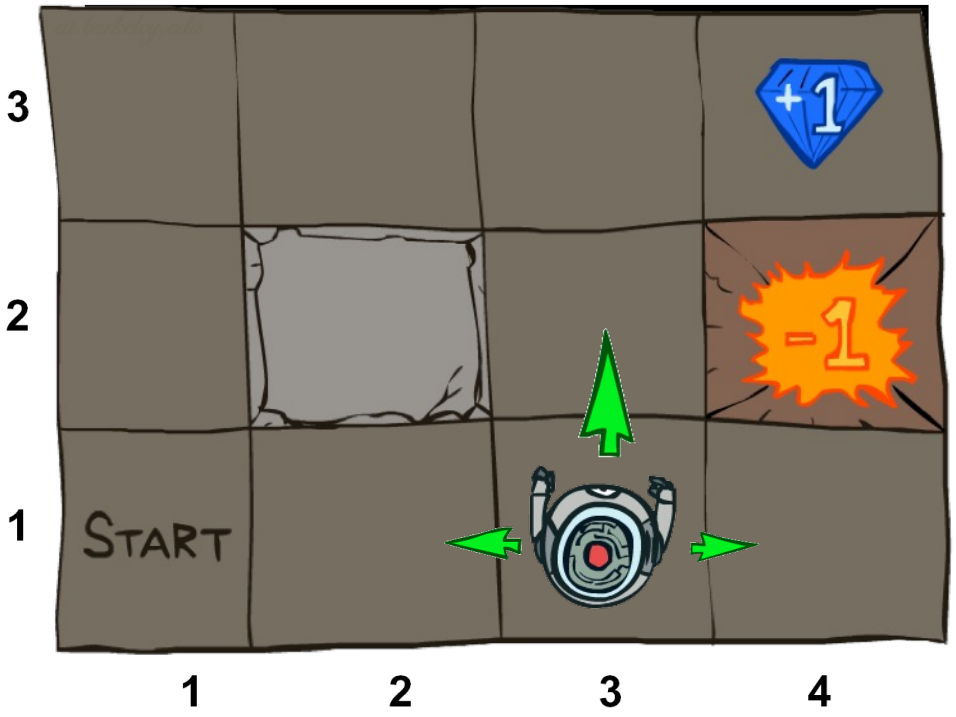


Markov Decision Processes



Markov Decision Processes

- An MDP is defined by:
  - A set of states $s \in S$
  - A set of actions $a \in A$
  - A transition function $T(s, a, s')$
    - Probability that a from s leads to s', i.e., $P(s' | s, a)$
    - Also called the model or the dynamics
  - A reward function $R(s, a, s')$
    - Sometimes just R(s) or R(s')
  - A start state
  - Maybe a terminal state

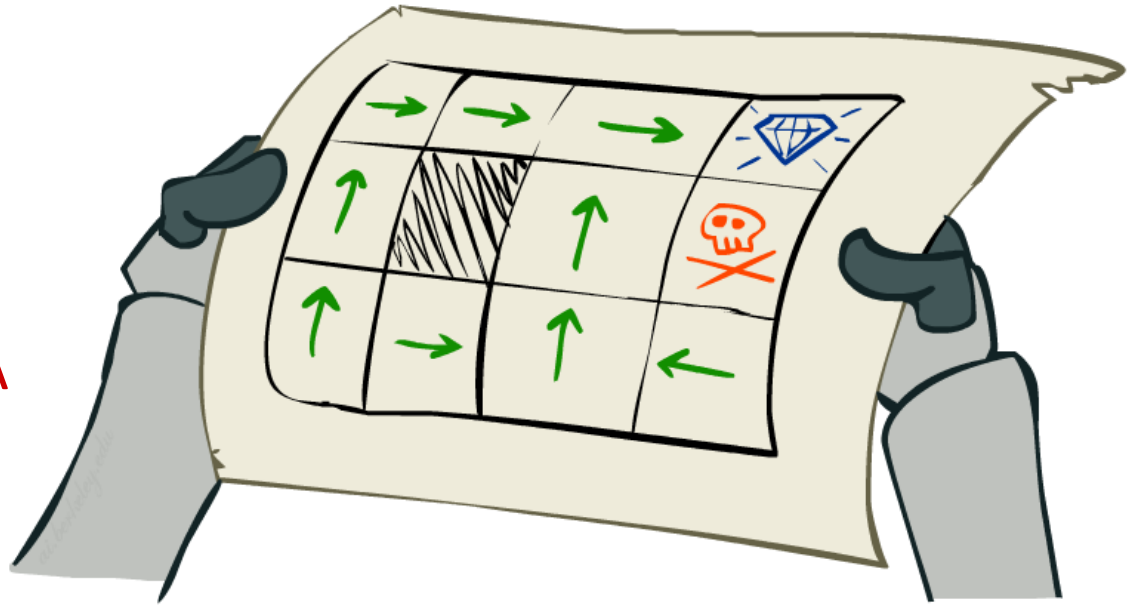


- MDPs are non-deterministic search problems
  - One way to solve them is with expectimax search
  - But there are more efficient algorithms, too

Policies

- In deterministic single-agent search problems, we wanted an optimal plan, or sequence of actions, from start to a goal

- For MDPs, we want an optimal policy $\pi^*: S \rightarrow A$
  - A policy π gives an action for each state
  - An optimal policy is one that maximizes expected utility if followed
  - An explicit policy defines a reflex agent



Optimal policy when R(s, a, s') = -0.03 for all non-terminals s

Optimal Quantities

- The value (utility) of a state s:

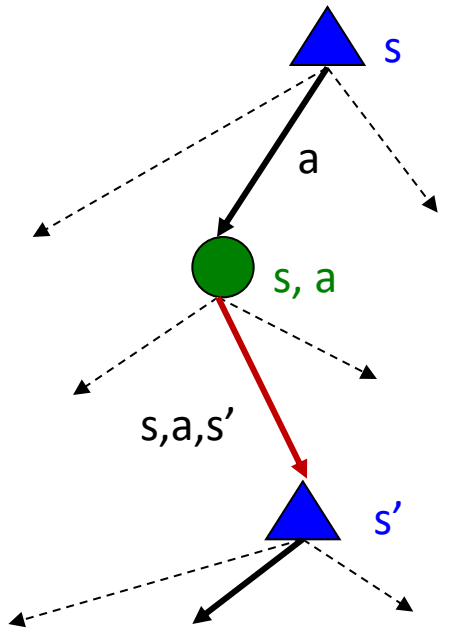
  $V^*(s)$ = expected utility starting in s and acting optimally

- The value (utility) of a q-state (s,a):

  $Q^*(s,a)$ = expected utility starting out having taken action a from state s and (thereafter) acting optimally

- The optimal policy:

  $\pi^*(s)$ = optimal action from state s



s is a *state*

(s, a) is a *q-state*

(s,a,s') is a *transition*

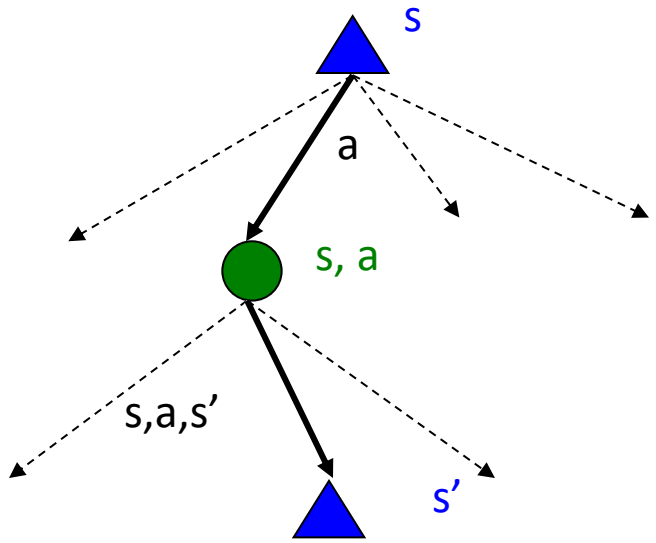
The Bellman Equations

- Definition of "optimal utility" via expectimax recurrence gives a simple one-step lookahead relationship amongst optimal utility values

$$V^*(s) = \max_a Q^*(s,a)$$

$$Q^*(s,a) = \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma V^*(s') \right]$$

$$V^*(s) = \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma V^*(s') \right]$$



- These are the Bellman equations, and they characterize optimal values in a way we'll use over and over

Summary: MDP Algorithms

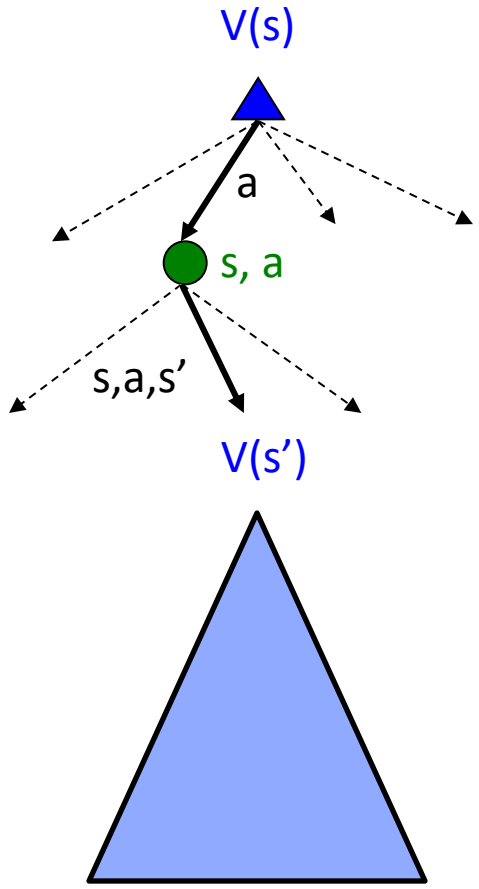
- So you want to….
  - Compute optimal values: use value iteration or Q-value iteration or policy iteration
  - Compute values for a particular policy: use policy evaluation
  - Turn your values into a policy: use policy extraction (one-step lookahead)

- These all look the same!
  - They basically are – they are all variations of Bellman updates
  - They all use one-step lookahead expectimax fragments
  - They differ only in whether we plug in a fixed policy or max over actions

Value Iteration

- Bellman equations characterize the optimal values:

$$V^*(s) = \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma V^*(s') \right]$$



- Value iteration computes them:

$$V_{k+1}(s) \leftarrow \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma V_k(s') \right]$$

- V_k are also interpretable as time-limited values

Q-Value Iteration

- Value iteration: find successive (depth-limited) values
  - Start with $V_0(s) = 0$, which we know is right
  - Given V_k, calculate the depth k+1 values for all states:

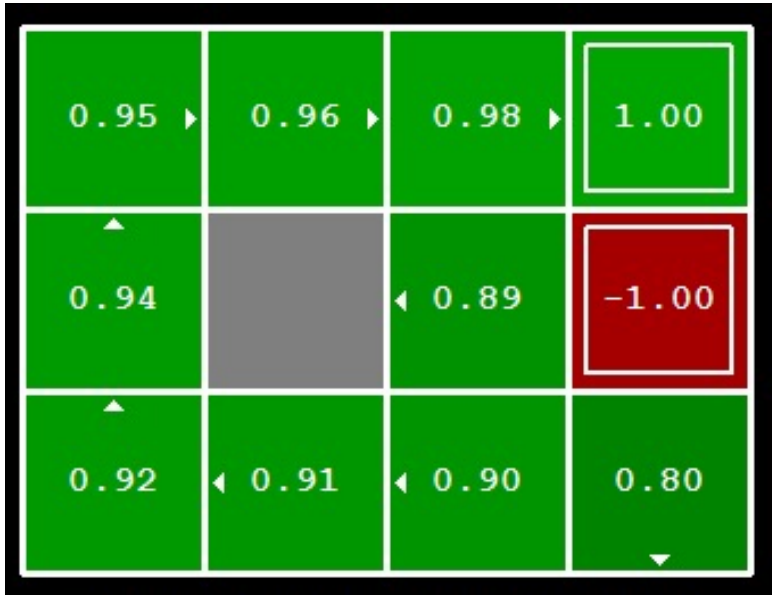
$$V_{k+1}(s) \leftarrow \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma V_k(s') \right]$$

- But Q-values are more useful, so compute them instead
  - Start with $Q_0(s,a) = 0$, which we know is right
  - Given Q_k, calculate the depth k+1 q-values for all q-states:

$$Q_{k+1}(s,a) \leftarrow \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma \max_{a'} Q_k(s',a') \right]$$

Computing Actions from Values

- Let's imagine we have the optimal values V*(s)
- How should we act?
  - It's not obvious!
- We need to do a mini-expectimax (one step)



$$\pi^*(s) = \arg\max_a \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s')[R(s,a,s') + \gamma V^*(s')]$$

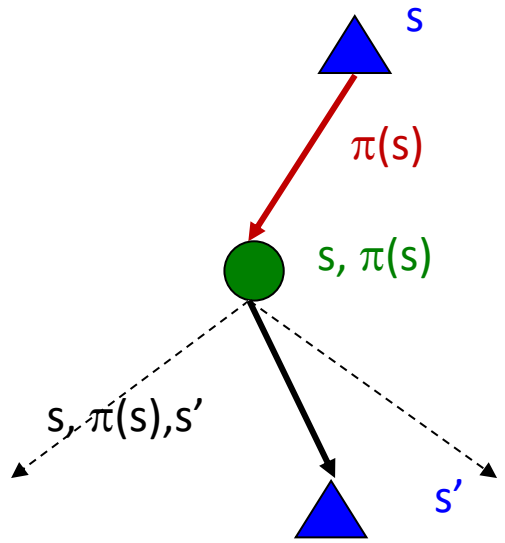
- This is called policy extraction, since it gets the policy implied by the values

Policy Evaluation

- How do we calculate the V's for a fixed policy π?
- Idea 1: Turn recursive Bellman equations into updates (like value iteration)

$$V_0^\pi(s) = 0$$

$$V_{k+1}^\pi(s) \leftarrow \sum_{s'} T(s, \pi(s), s')[R(s, \pi(s), s') + \gamma V_k^\pi(s')]$$



- Efficiency: $O(S^2)$ per iteration
- Idea 2: Without the maxes, the Bellman equations are just a linear system

Policy Iteration

- Alternative approach for optimal policy:
  - Step 1: Policy evaluation: calculate utilities for some fixed policy (not optimal utilities!) until convergence
  - Step 2: Policy improvement: update policy using one-step look-ahead with resulting converged (but not optimal!) utilities as future values
  - Repeat steps until policy converges

- This is policy iteration
  - It's still optimal!
  - The policy often converges long before the values

Policy Iteration

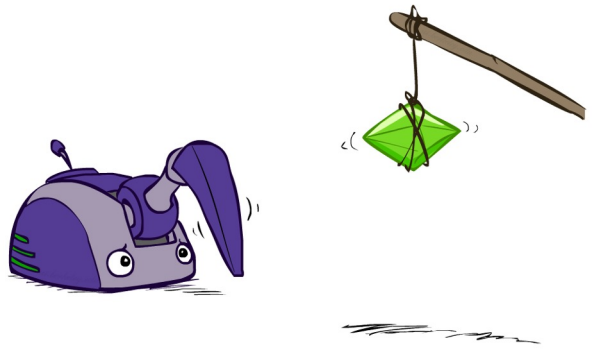
- Evaluation: For fixed current policy π, find values with policy evaluation:
  - Iterate until values converge:

$$V_{k+1}^{\pi_i}(s) \leftarrow \sum_{s'} T(s, \pi_i(s), s') \left[R(s, \pi_i(s), s') + \gamma V_k^{\pi_i}(s') \right]$$

- Improvement: For fixed values, get a better policy using policy extraction
  - One-step look-ahead:

$$\pi_{i+1}(s) = \arg\max_a \sum_{s'} T(s, a, s') \left[R(s, a, s') + \gamma V^{\pi_i}(s') \right]$$

Reinforcement Learning



Reinforcement Learning

- We still assume an MDP:
  - A set of states $s \in S$
  - A set of actions (per state) A
  - A model T(s,a,s')
  - A reward function R(s,a,s')
- Still looking for a policy $\pi(s)$

- New twist: don't know T or R, so must try out actions

- Big idea: Compute all averages over T using sample outcomes

Model-Based Learning

- Model-Based Idea:
  - Learn an approximate model based on experiences
  - Solve for values as if the learned model were correct

- Step 1: Learn empirical MDP model
  - Count outcomes s’ for each s, a
  - Normalize to give an estimate of $\hat{T}(s, a, s')$
  - Discover each $\hat{R}(s, a, s')$ when we experience (s, a, s’)

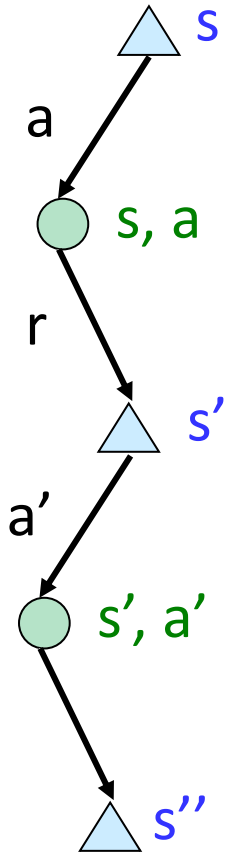
- Step 2: Solve the learned MDP
  - For example, use value iteration, as before

Model-Free Learning

- Model-free learning
  - Experience world through episodes

$$(s, a, r, s', a', r', s'', a'', r'', s'''' \ldots)$$

  - Update estimates each transition (s, a, r, s')
  - Over time, updates will mimic Bellman updates

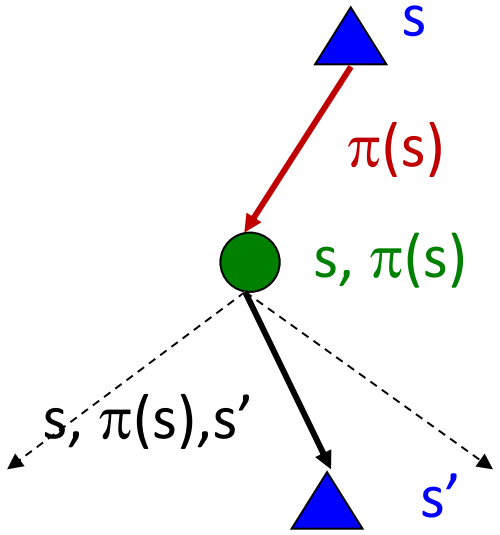


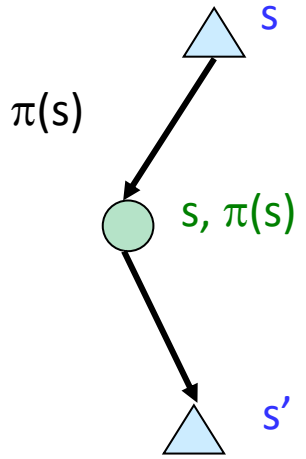
Temporal Difference Learning

Sample of V(s): $sample = R(s, \pi(s), s') + \gamma V^{\pi}(s')$

Update to V(s): $V^{\pi}(s) \leftarrow (1 - \alpha)V^{\pi}(s) + (\alpha)sample$

Same update: $V^{\pi}(s) \leftarrow V^{\pi}(s) + \alpha(sample - V^{\pi}(s))$





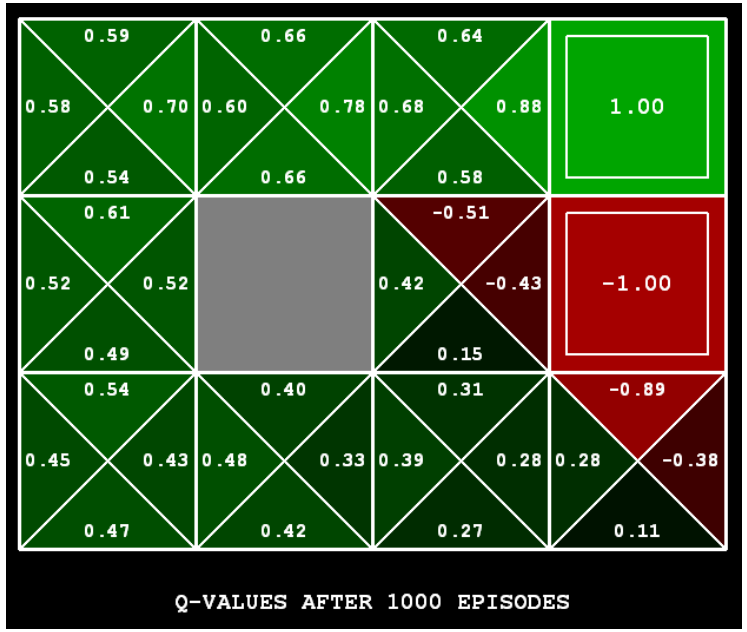
Q-Learning

- Learn Q(s,a) values as you go
  - Receive a sample (s,a,s',r)
  - Consider your old estimate: $Q(s,a)$
  - Consider your new sample estimate:

$$sample = R(s,a,s') + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s',a')$$

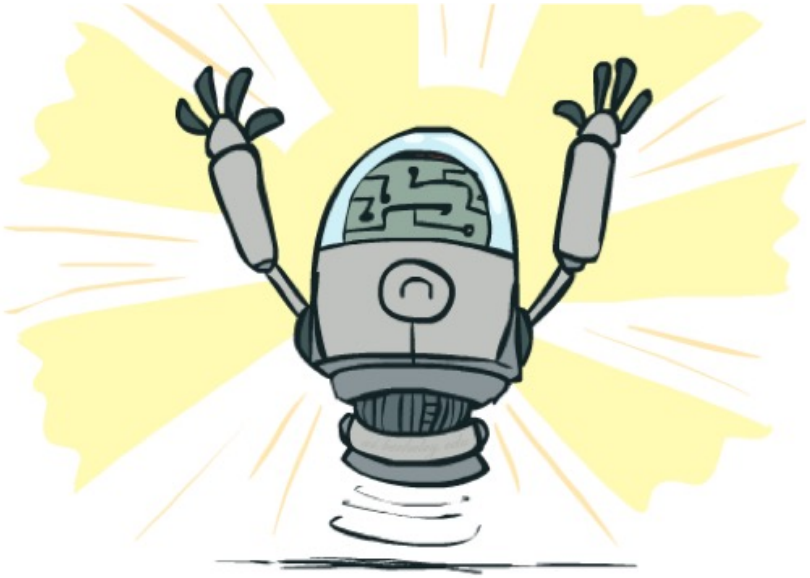
  - Incorporate the new estimate into a running average:

$$Q(s,a) \leftarrow (1-\alpha)Q(s,a) + (\alpha)\,[sample]$$



Q-Learning Properties

- Amazing result: Q-learning converges to optimal policy -- even if you're acting sub-optimally!
- This is called off-policy learning
- Caveats:
  - You have to explore enough
  - You have to eventually make the learning rate small enough
  - … but not decrease it too quickly
  - Basically, in the limit, it doesn't matter how you select actions (!)



Exploration vs. Exploitation

- Several schemes for forcing exploration
  - Simplest: random actions (ε-greedy)
    - Every time step, flip a coin
    - With (small) probability ε, act randomly
    - With (large) probability 1-ε, act on current policy
  - Another approach: exploration functions
    - Takes a value estimate u and a visit count n, and returns an optimistic utility, e.g. $f(u, n) = u + k/n$

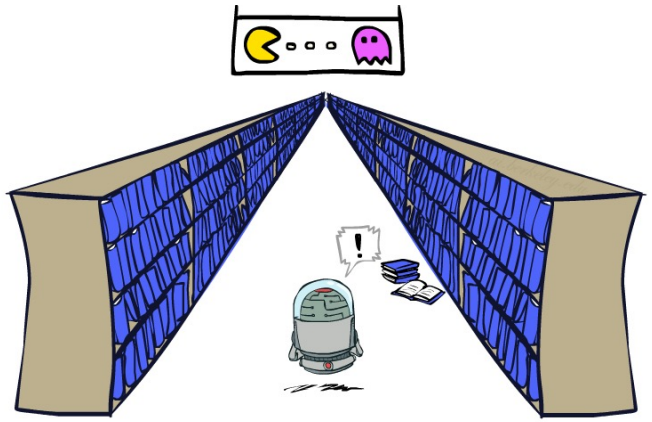
Regular Q-Update: $Q(s,a) \leftarrow_\alpha R(s,a,s') + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s',a')$

Modified Q-Update: $Q(s,a) \leftarrow_\alpha R(s,a,s') + \gamma \max_{a'} f(Q(s',a'), N(s',a'))$

Feature-Based Value Functions

- Basic Q-Learning keeps a table of all q-values
- In realistic situations, we cannot possibly learn about every single state!
- Instead, we want to generalize to new, similar situations
- Solution: describe a state using a vector of features

$$Q(s,a) = w_1 f_1(s,a) + w_2 f_2(s,a) + \ldots + w_n f_n(s,a)$$



- Advantage: our experience is summed up in a few powerful numbers
- Disadvantage: states may share features but be very different in value!

Approximate Q-Learning

$$Q(s,a) = w_1 f_1(s,a) + w_2 f_2(s,a) + \ldots + w_n f_n(s,a)$$

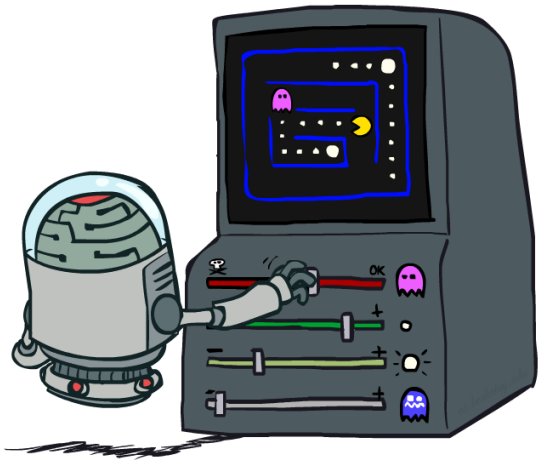
- Q-learning with linear Q-functions:

$$\text{transition} = (s, a, r, s')$$

$$\text{difference} = \left[r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a')\right] - Q(s,a)$$

$$Q(s,a) \leftarrow Q(s,a) + \alpha\,[\text{difference}] \qquad \text{Exact Q's}$$

$$w_i \leftarrow w_i + \alpha\,[\text{difference}]\, f_i(s,a) \qquad \text{Approximate Q's}$$



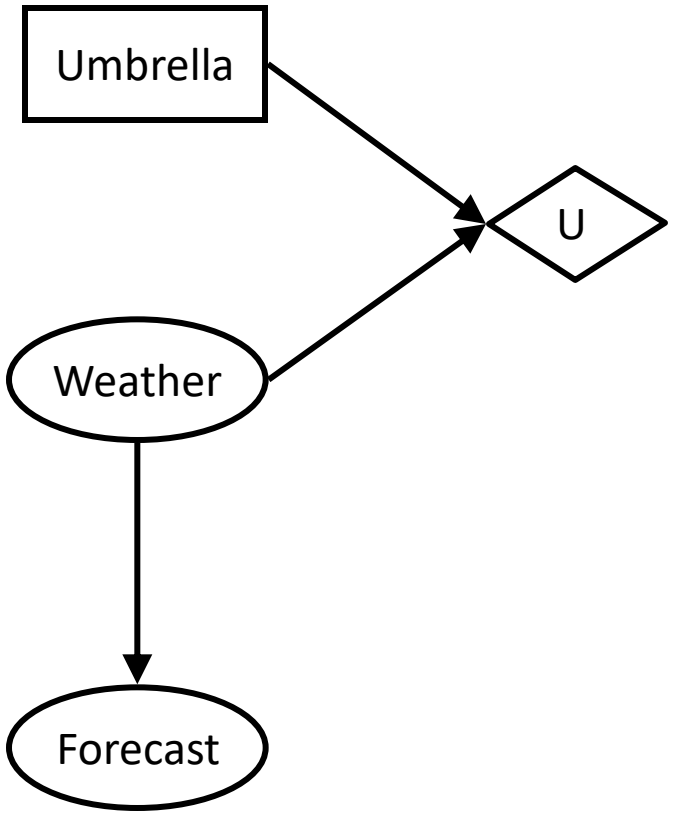
- Intuitive interpretation:
  - Adjust weights of active features
  - E.g., if something unexpectedly bad happens, blame the features that were on: disprefer all states with that state's features
- Formal justification: online least squares

Probability

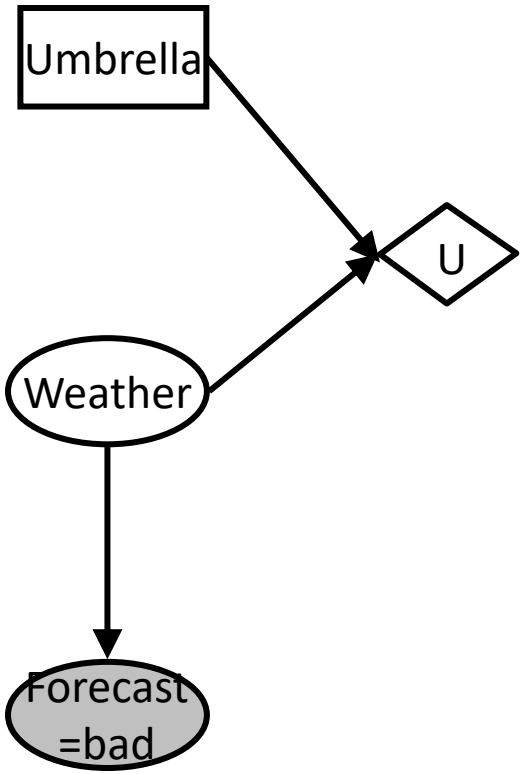
- Basic laws: $0 \leq P(\omega) \leq 1$, $\sum_{\omega \in \Omega} P(\omega) = 1$, $P(A) = \sum_{\omega \in A} P(\omega)$
- Summing out/marginalization: $P(X=x) = \sum_y P(X=x, Y=y)$
- Conditional probability: $P(X|Y) = P(X,Y)/P(Y)$
- Chain rule: $P(X_1,..,X_n) = \prod_i P(X_i \mid X_1,..,X_{i-1})$
- Bayes Rule: $P(X|Y) = P(Y|X)P(X)/P(Y) = P(Y|X)P(X) / \sum_x P(X=x, Y)$
- Independence: $P(X,Y) = P(X)\,P(Y)$ or $P(X|Y) = P(X)$ or $P(Y|X) = P(Y)$
- Conditional Independence: $P(X|Y,Z) = P(X|Z)$ or $P(X,Y|Z) = P(X|Z)\,P(Y|\,Z)$

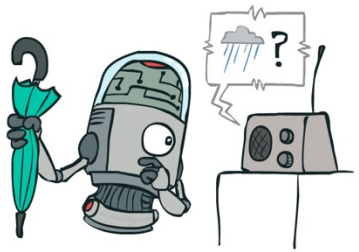
Decision Networks

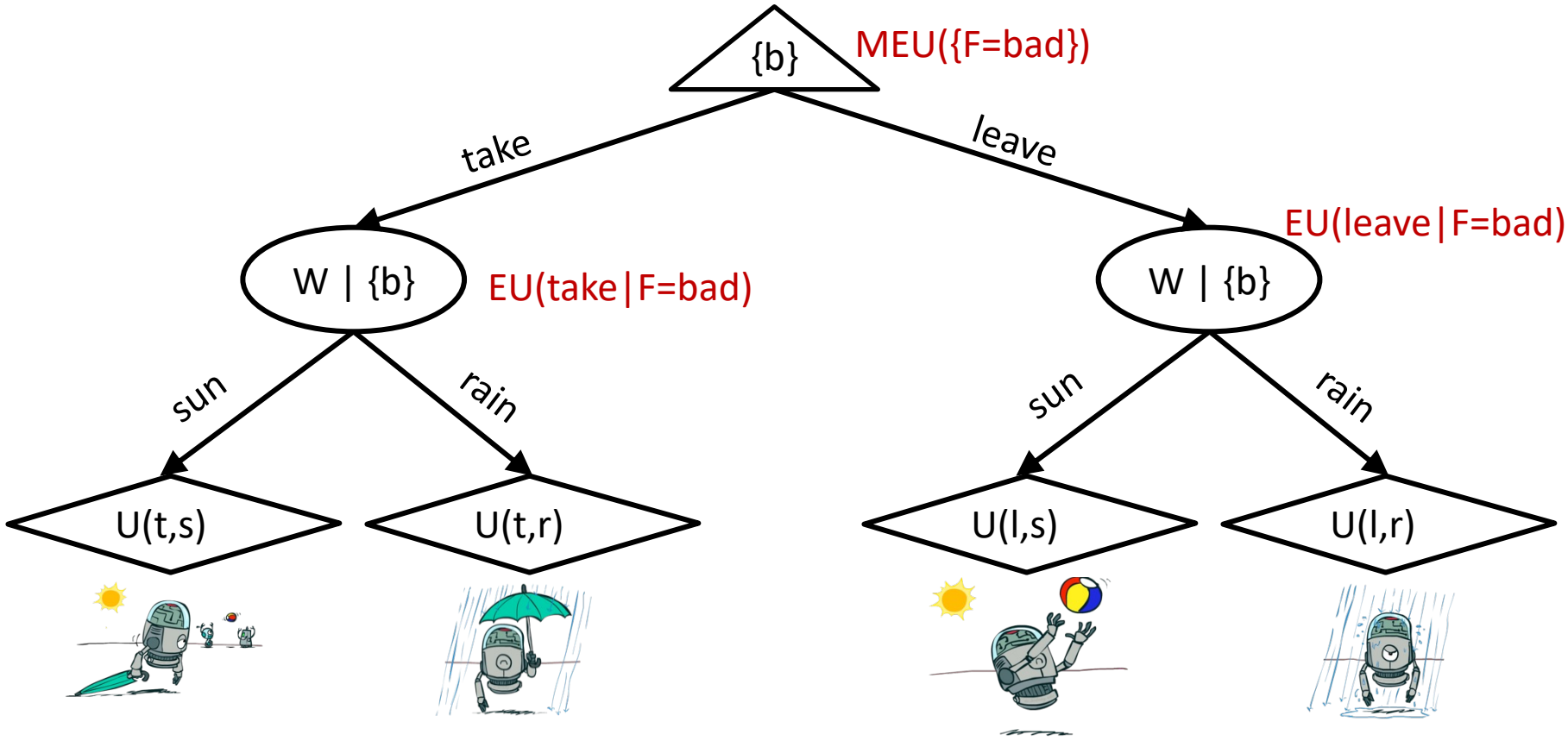
- **MEU: choose the action which maximizes the expected utility given the evidence**
- Can directly operationalize this with decision networks
  - Bayes nets with nodes for utility and actions
  - Lets us calculate the expected utility for each action
- New node types:
  - Chance nodes (just like BNs)
  - Actions (rectangles, cannot have parents, act as observed evidence)
  - Utility node (diamond, depends on action and chance nodes)



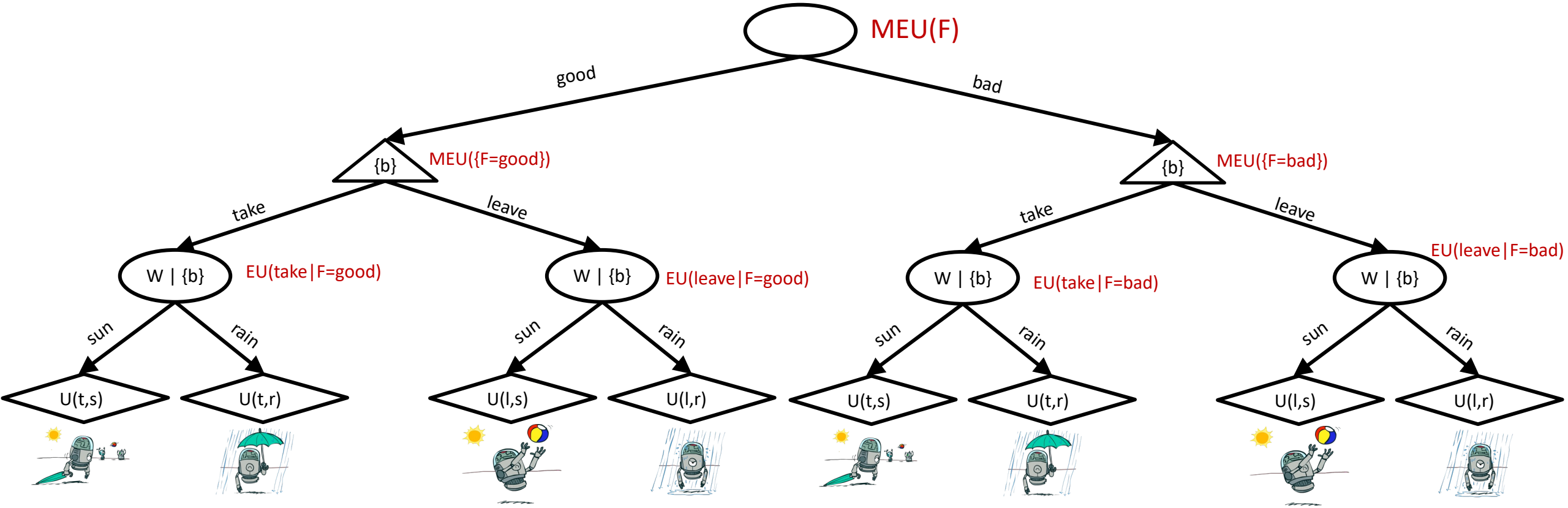
Decisions as Outcome Trees







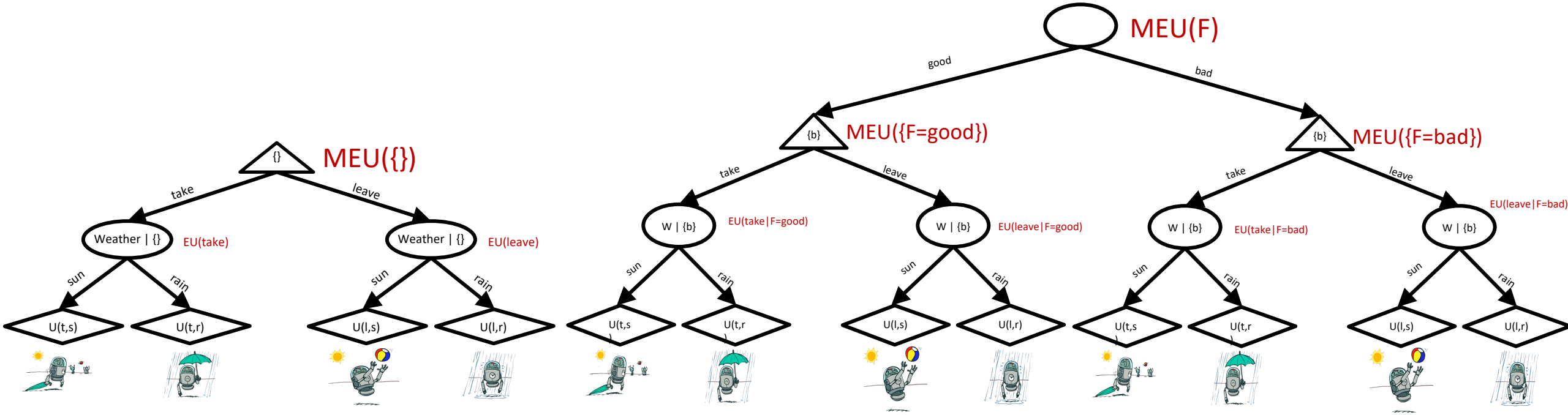
Decisions as Outcome Trees



Decisions as Outcome Trees

$$VPI(F) = VPI(F|\{\}) = MEU(F) - MEU(\{\})$$

It is rational to observe F when VPI(F) > cost of observing F



$$\text{VPI}(E'|e) = \left(\sum_{e'} P(e'|e)\text{MEU}(e, e')\right) - \text{MEU}(e)$$

VPI Properties

- Nonnegative

$$\forall E', e : \text{VPI}(E'|e) \geq 0$$

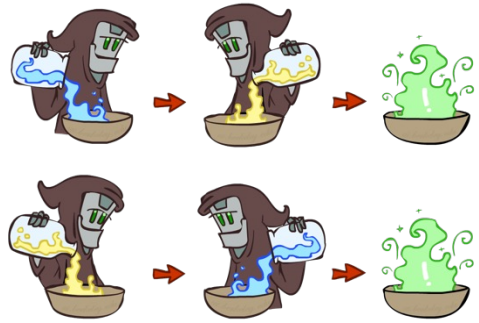
- Non-additive

(think of observing E_j twice)

$$\text{VPI}(E_j, E_k|e) \neq \text{VPI}(E_j|e) + \text{VPI}(E_k|e)$$

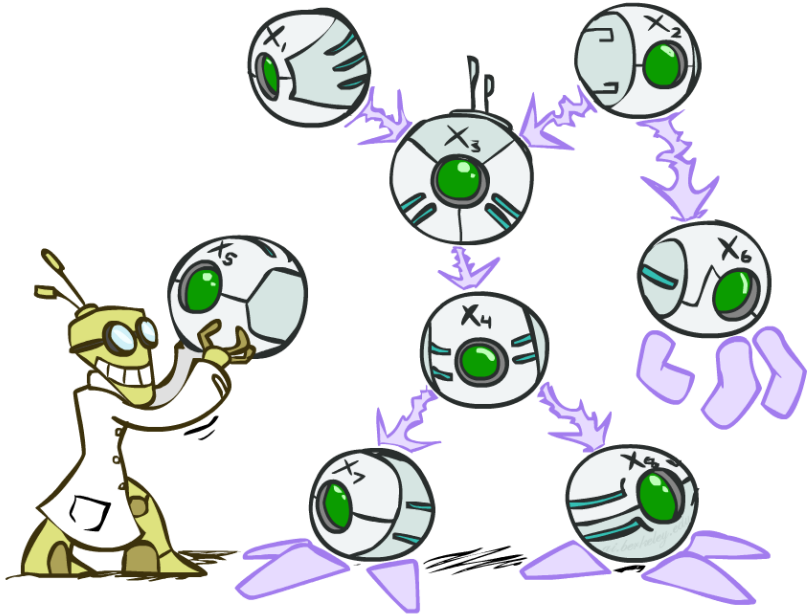
- Order-independent

$$\text{VPI}(E_j, E_k|e) = \text{VPI}(E_j|e) + \text{VPI}(E_k|e, E_j)$$
$$= \text{VPI}(E_k|e) + \text{VPI}(E_j|e, E_k)$$



Bayes Nets: Big Picture

- Bayes nets: a technique for describing complex joint distributions (models) using simple, local distributions (conditional probabilities)
  - We describe how variables locally interact
  - Local interactions chain together to give global, indirect interactions
- Bayes nets topics:
  - Conditional Independences (D-Separation)
  - Exact Inference (Inference by enumeration, variable elimination)
  - Sampling (Prior, Rejection, Likelihood Weighting, Gibbs)



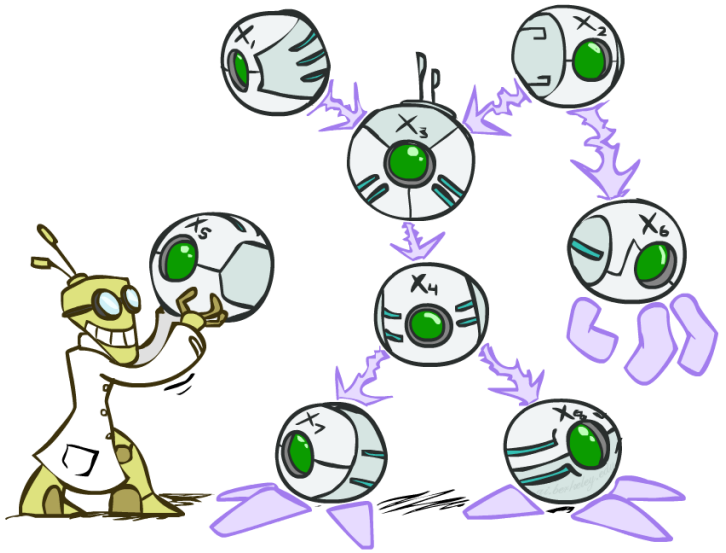
Bayes Net Representation

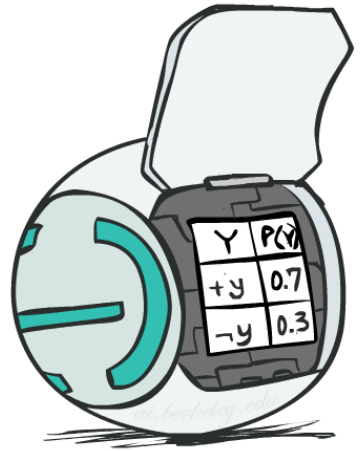
- A directed, acyclic graph, one node per random variable
- A conditional probability table (CPT) for each node
  - A collection of distributions over X, one for each combination of parents' values

$$P(X|a_1 \ldots a_n)$$

- Bayes nets implicitly encode joint distributions
  - As a product of local conditional distributions
  - To see what probability a BN gives to a full assignment, multiply all the relevant conditionals together:

$$P(x_1, x_2, \ldots x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} P(x_i|parents(X_i))$$

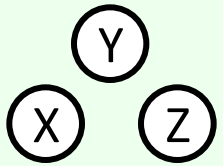


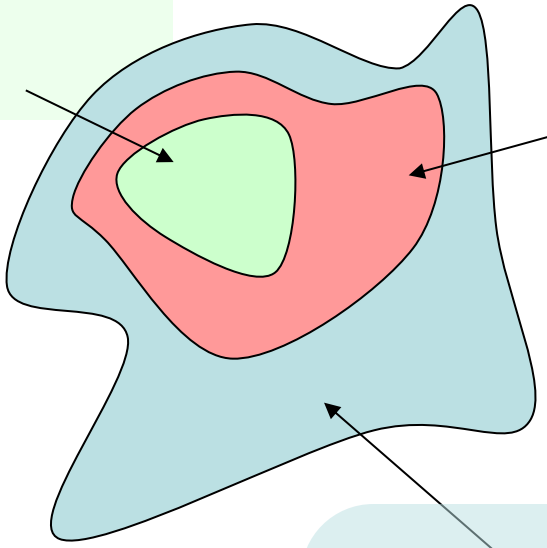


Topology Limits Distributions

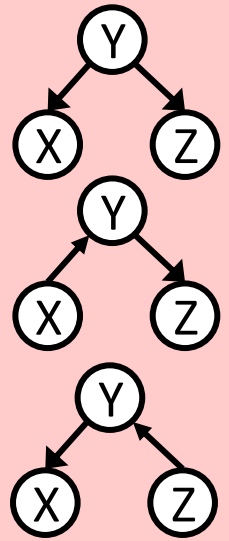
- Given some graph topology G, only certain joint distributions can be encoded
- The graph structure guarantees certain (conditional) independences
- (There might be more independence)
- Adding arcs increases the set of distributions, but has several costs
- Full conditioning can encode any distribution

$\{X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y, X \perp\!\!\!\perp Z, Y \perp\!\!\!\perp Z,$
$X \perp\!\!\!\perp Z \mid Y, X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y \mid Z, Y \perp\!\!\!\perp Z \mid X\}$





$\{X \perp\!\!\!\perp Z \mid Y\}$



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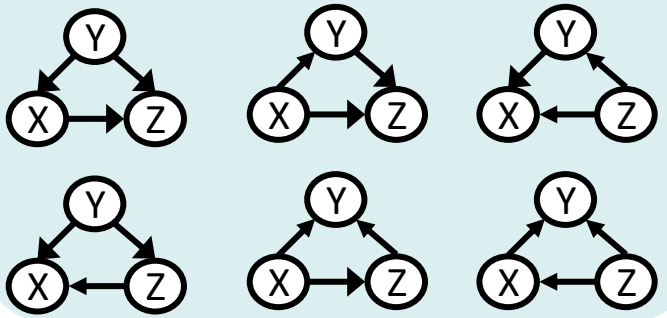


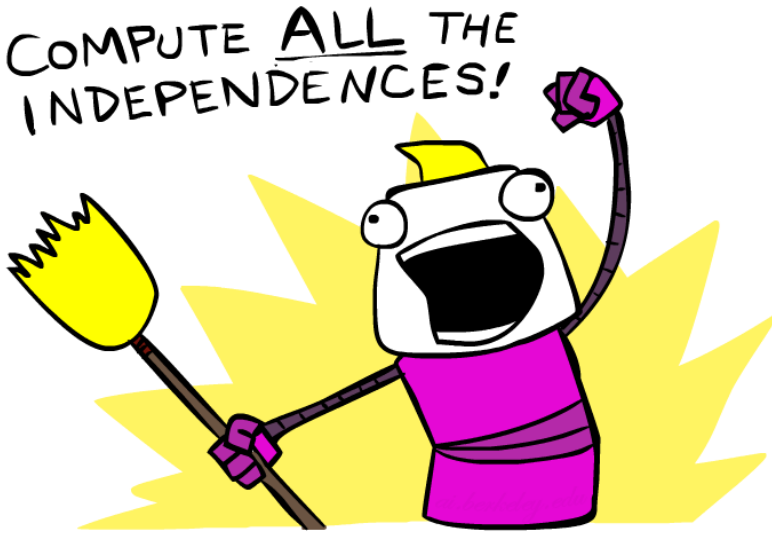
D-Separation

- A condition / algorithm for answering independence queries
- Query: $X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | \{X_{k_1}, ..., X_{k_n}\}$?
- Check all (undirected!) paths between X_i and X_j
  - If one or more active, then independence not guaranteed

$$X_i \not\perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | \{X_{k_1}, ..., X_{k_n}\}$$

  - Otherwise (i.e. if all paths are inactive), then independence is guaranteed

$$X_i \perp\!\!\!\perp X_j | \{X_{k_1}, ..., X_{k_n}\}$$

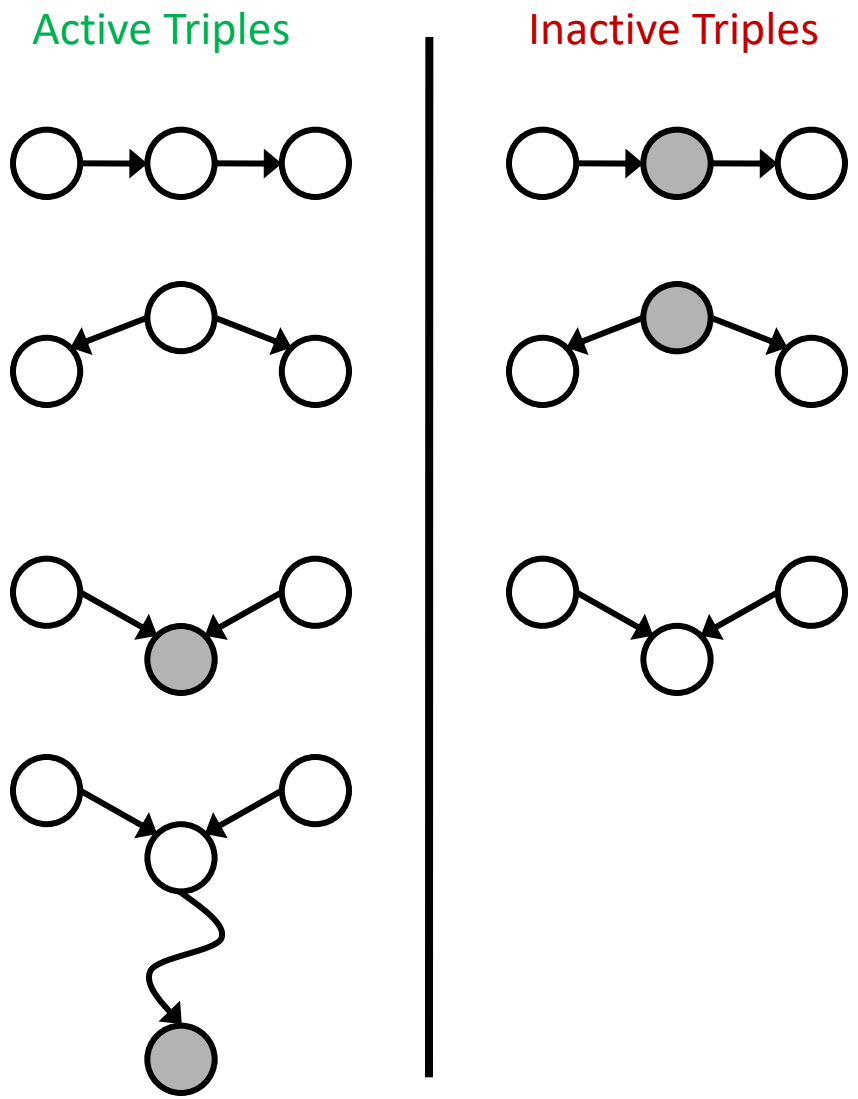


Active / Inactive Paths

- Question: Are X and Y conditionally independent given evidence variables {Z}?
  - Yes, if X and Y "d-separated" by Z
  - Consider all (undirected) paths from X to Y
  - No active paths = independence!

- A path is active if each triple is active:
  - Causal chain A -> B -> C where B is unobserved (either direction)
  - Common cause A <- B -> C where B is unobserved
  - Common effect (aka v-structure)
    A -> B <- C where B *or one of its descendants* is observed

- All it takes to block a path is a single inactive segment



Inference by Enumeration

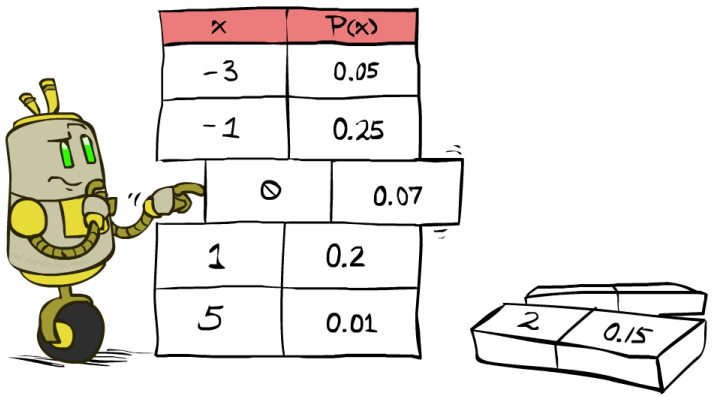
- General case:
  - Evidence variables: $E_1 \dots E_k = e_1 \dots e_k$
  - Query* variable: Q
  - Hidden variables: $H_1 \dots H_r$

  $\left.\begin{matrix} \\ \\ \\ \end{matrix}\right\} X_1, X_2, \dots X_n$ *All variables*

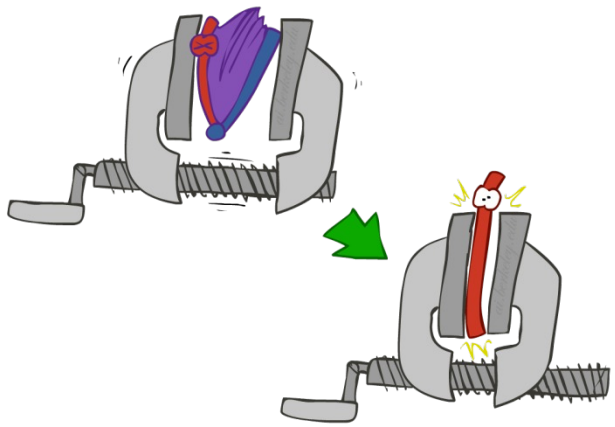
- We want: $P(Q|e_1 \dots e_k)$

** Works fine with multiple query variables, too*

- Step 1: Select the entries consistent with the evidence



- Step 2: Sum out H to get joint of Query and evidence



$$P(Q, e_1 \dots e_k) = \sum_{h_1 \dots h_r} P(\underbrace{Q, h_1 \dots h_r, e_1 \dots e_k}_{X_1, X_2, \dots X_n})$$

- Step 3: Normalize

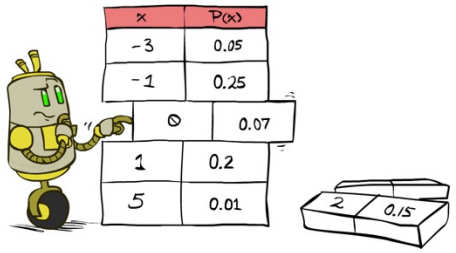
$$\times \frac{1}{Z}$$

$$Z = \sum_q P(Q, e_1 \cdots e_k)$$

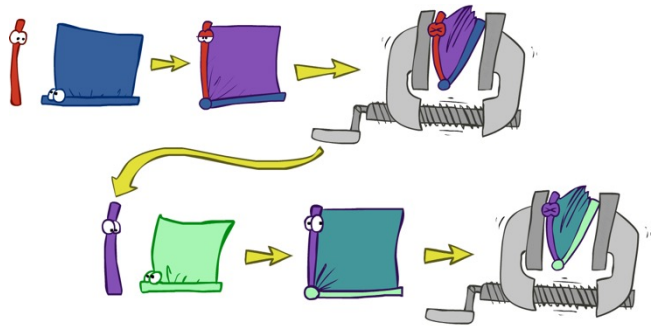
$$P(Q|e_1 \cdots e_k) = \frac{1}{Z} P(Q, e_1 \cdots e_k)$$

Variable Elimination

- Query: $P(Q|E_1 = e_1, \ldots E_k = e_k)$



- Start with initial factors:
  - Local CPTs (but instantiated by evidence)



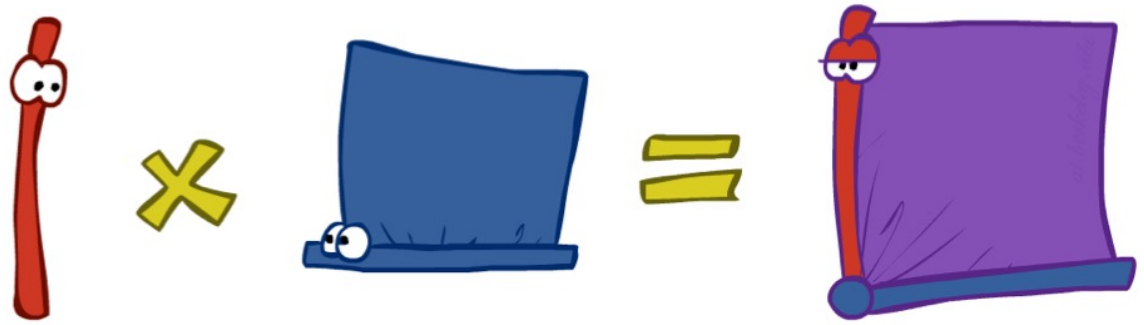
- While there are still hidden variables (not Q or evidence):
  - Pick a hidden variable H
  - Join all factors mentioning H
  - Eliminate (sum out) H

- Join all remaining factors and normalize

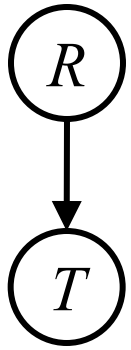
$\times \frac{1}{Z}$

Operation 1: Join Factors

- First basic operation: joining factors
- Combining factors:
  - Just like a database join
  - Get all factors over the joining variable
  - Build a new factor over the union of the variables involved



- Example: Join on R



$$P(R) \times P(T|R) \Rightarrow P(R,T)$$

+r	0.1
-r	0.9

+r	+t	0.8
+r	-t	0.2
-r	+t	0.1
-r	-t	0.9

+r	+t	0.08
+r	-t	0.02
-r	+t	0.09
-r	-t	0.81

- Computation for each entry: pointwise products $\forall r, t: \quad P(r,t) = P(r) \cdot P(t|r)$

Operation 2: Eliminate

- Second basic operation: marginalization
- Take a factor and sum out a variable
  - Shrinks a factor to a smaller one
  - A projection operation
- Example:

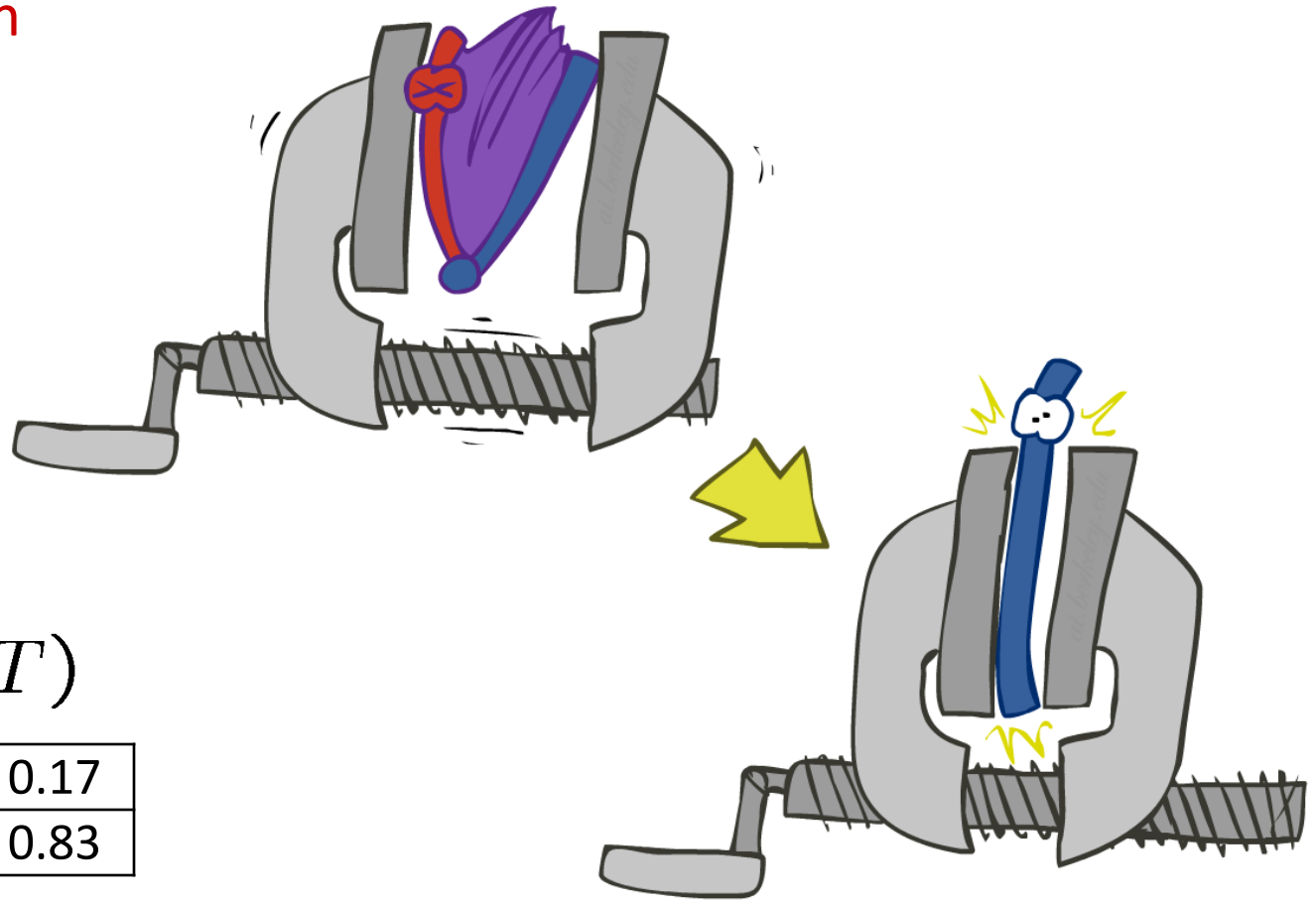
$P(R,T)$

+r	+t	0.08
+r	-t	0.02
-r	+t	0.09
-r	-t	0.81

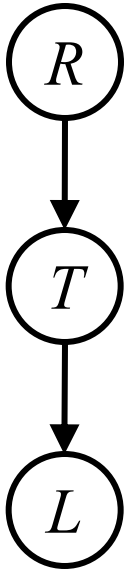
sum R

$P(T)$

+t	0.17
-t	0.83



Inference by Enumeration vs. Variable Elimination



$$P(L) = ?$$

- Inference by Enumeration

$$= \sum_t \sum_r P(L|t)P(r)P(t|r)$$

Join on r

Join on t

Eliminate r

Eliminate t

- Variable Elimination

$$= \sum_t P(L|t) \sum_r P(r)P(t|r)$$

Join on r

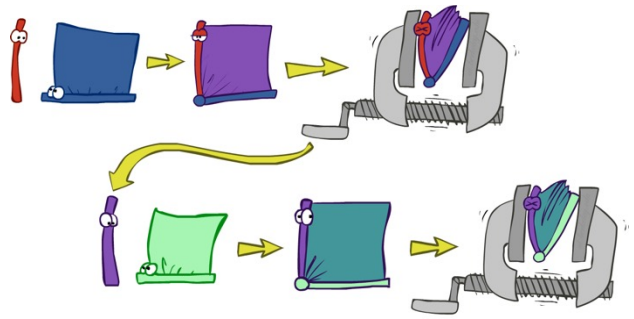
Eliminate r

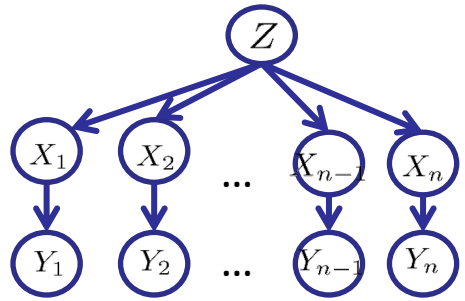
Join on t

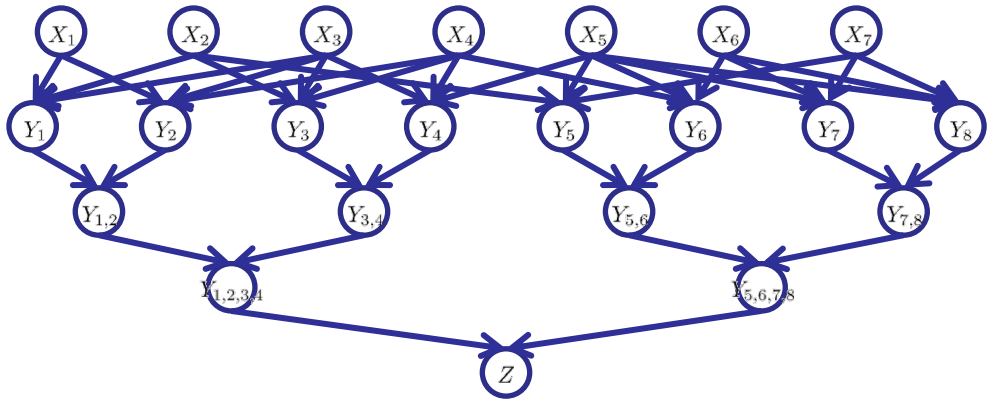
Eliminate t

Variable Elimination

- Interleave joining and marginalizing
- d^k entries computed for a factor over k variables with domain sizes d
- Ordering of elimination of hidden variables can affect size of factors generated
- Worst case: running time exponential in the size of the Bayes' net

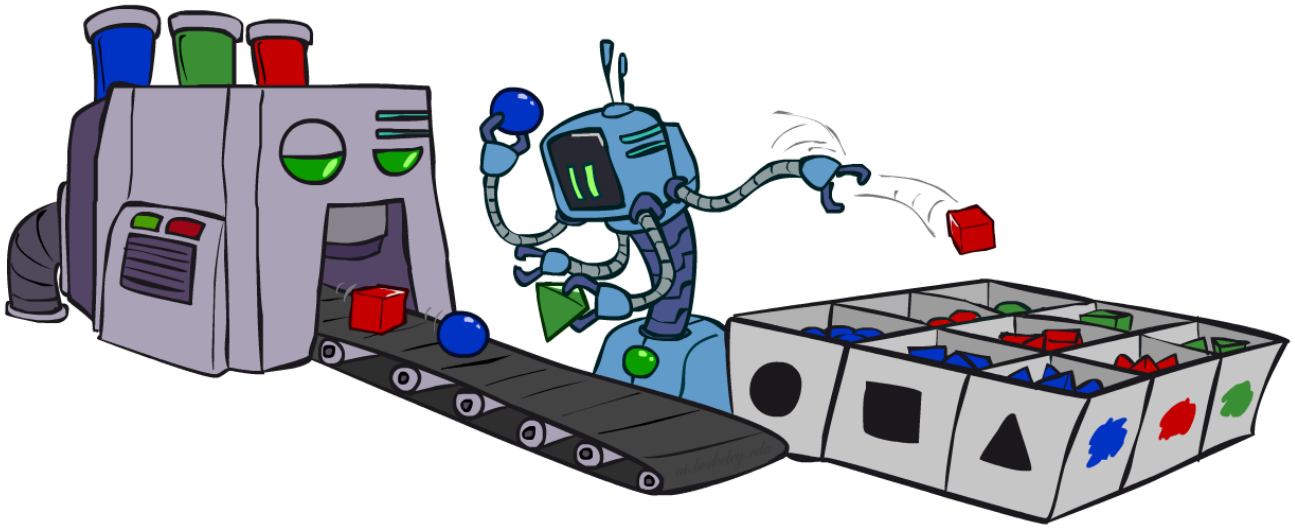






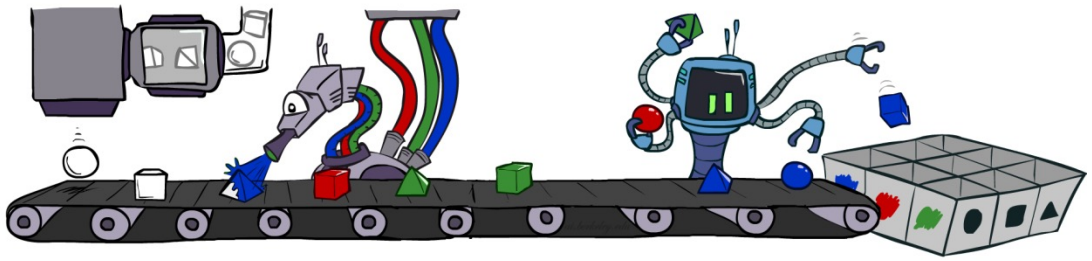
Approximate Inference: Sampling

- Sampling is a lot like repeated simulation
  - Predicting the weather, basketball games, …
- Basic idea
  - Draw N samples from a sampling distribution S
  - Compute an approximate posterior probability
  - Show this converges to the true probability P
- Why sample?
  - Learning: get samples from a distribution you don't know
  - Inference: getting a sample is faster than computing the right answer (e.g. with variable elimination)

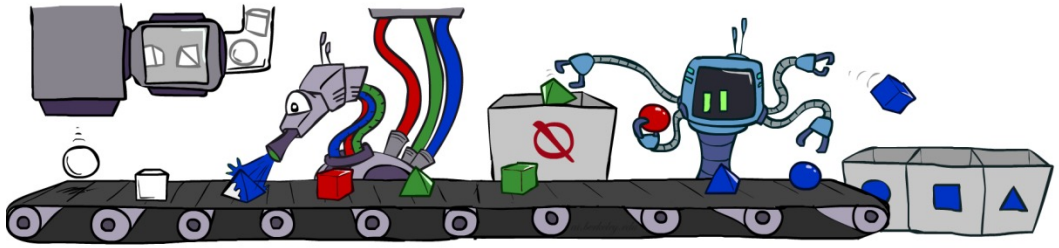


Sampling in Bayes Nets

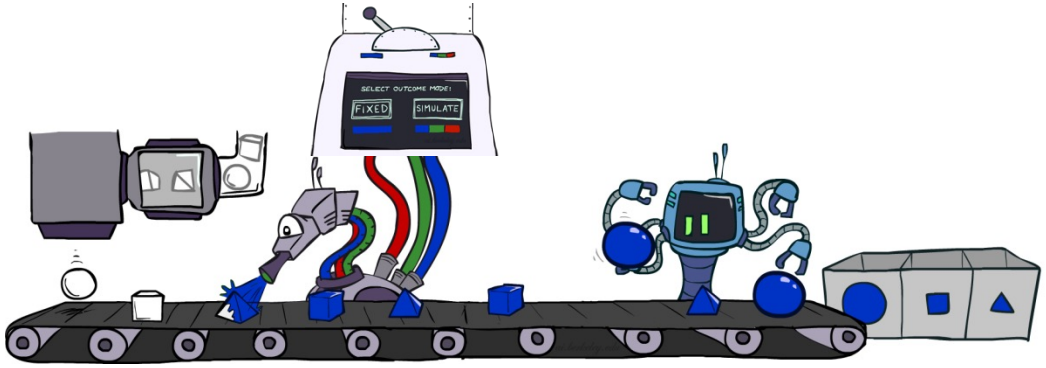
- Prior Sampling P(Q)



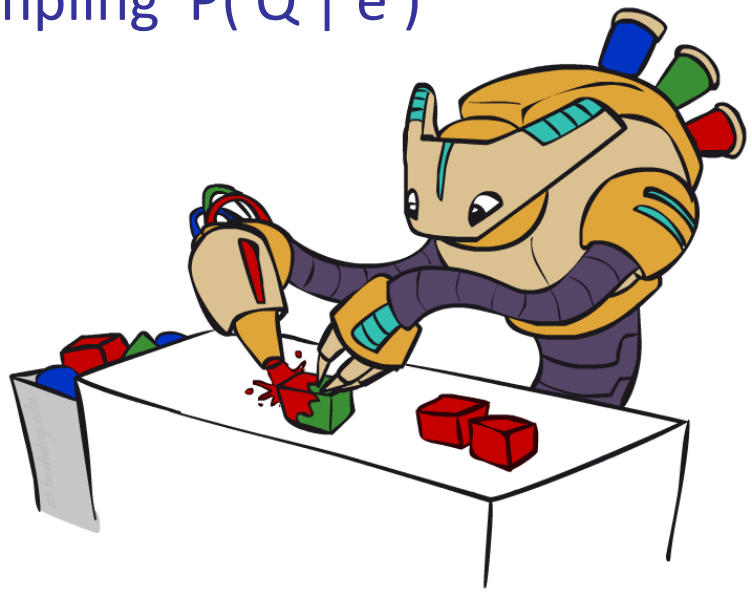
- Rejection Sampling P(Q | e)



- Likelihood Weighting P(Q | e)

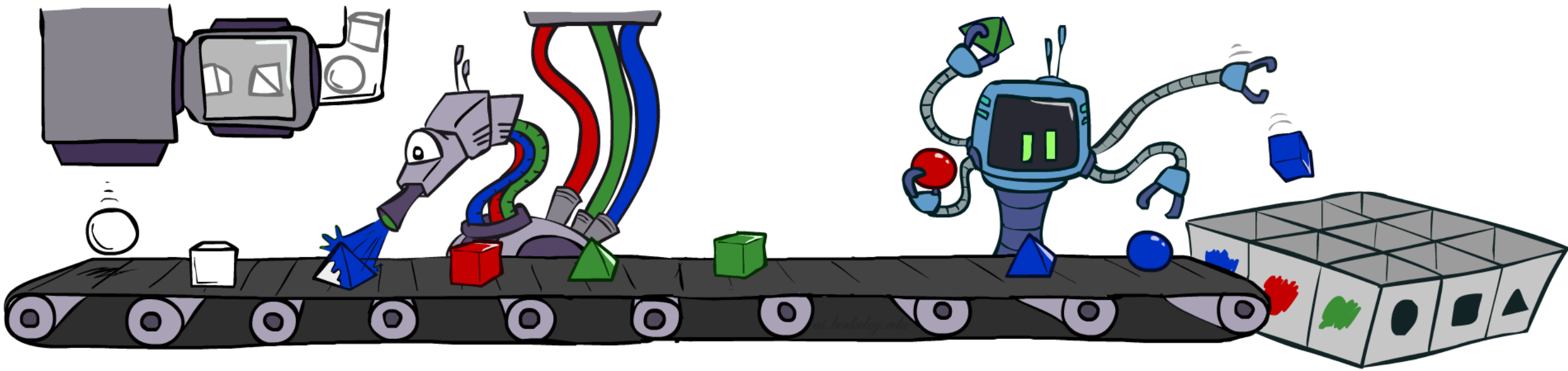


- Gibbs Sampling P(Q | e)



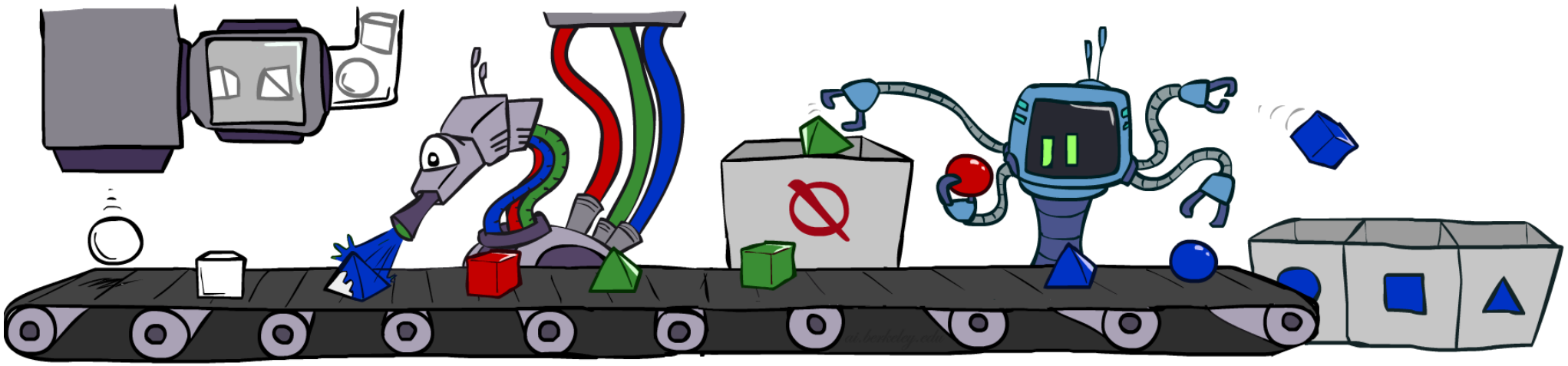
Prior Sampling

- For i = 1, 2, …, n
  - Sample x_i from $P(X_i \mid \text{Parents}(X_i))$
- Return $(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$



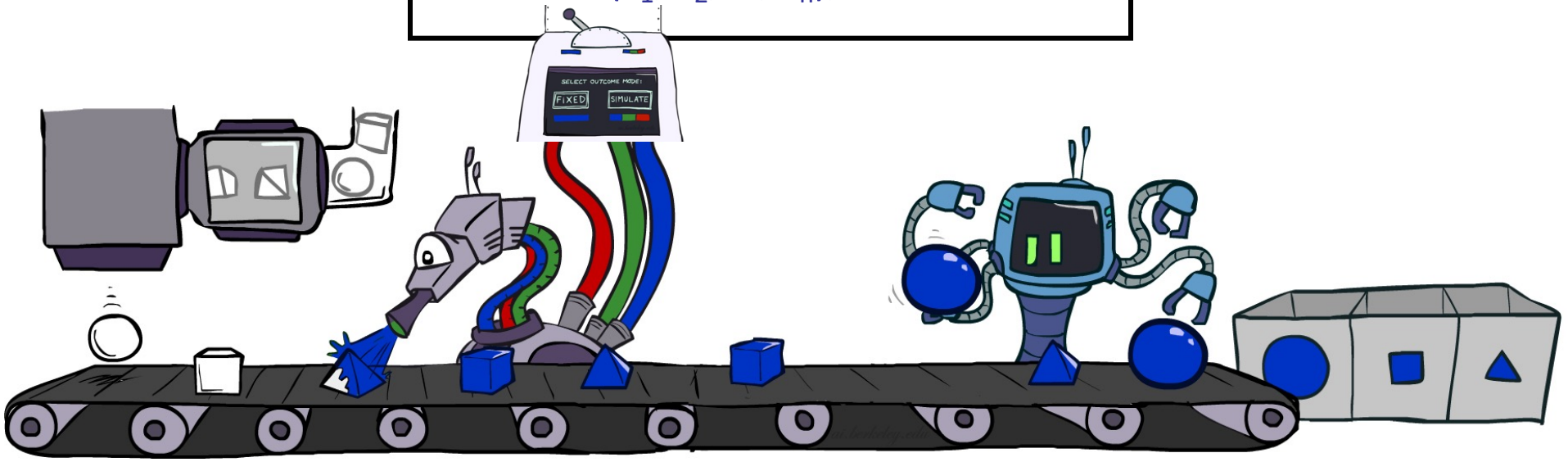
Rejection Sampling

- Input: evidence instantiation
- For i = 1, 2, …, n
  - Sample x_i from $P(X_i \mid \text{Parents}(X_i))$
  - If x_i not consistent with evidence
    - Reject: return – no sample is generated in this cycle
- Return $(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$



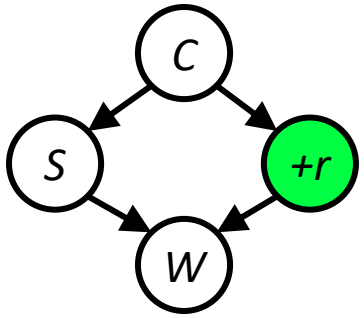
Likelihood Weighting

- Input: evidence instantiation
- w = 1.0
- for i = 1, 2, …, n
  - if X_i is an evidence variable
    - X_i = observation x_i for X_i
    - Set w = w * $P(x_i \mid Parents(X_i))$
  - else
    - Sample x_i from $P(X_i \mid Parents(X_i))$
- return $(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$, w

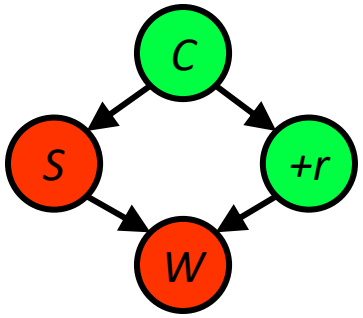


Gibbs Sampling

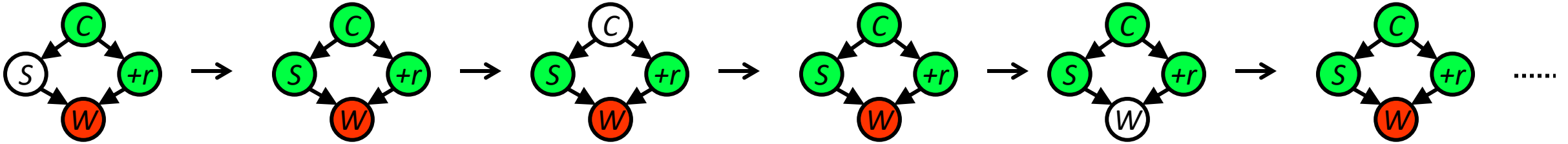
- Step 1: Fix evidence
  - R = +r



- Step 2: Initialize other variables
  - Randomly



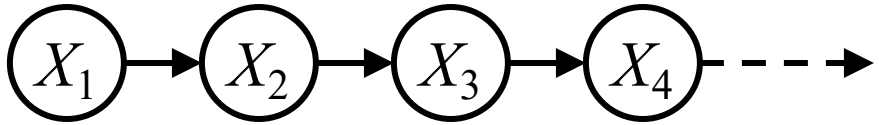
- Steps 3: Repeat
  - Choose a non-evidence variable X
  - Resample X from P(X | all other variables)
    - P(X | all other variables) can be computed efficiently using only the CPTs that involve X



Sample from $P(S|+c,-w,+r)$ Sample from $P(C|+s,-w,+r)$ Sample from $P(W|+s,+c,+r)$

Markov Models

- Value of X at a given time is called the state

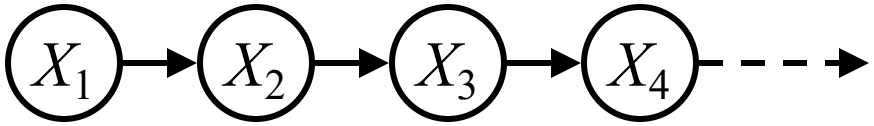


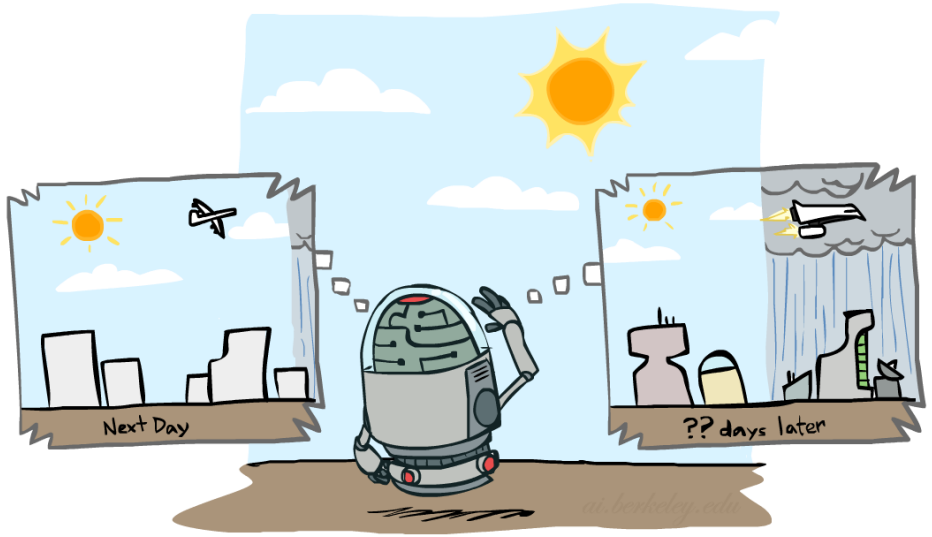
$$P(X_1) \qquad P(X_t|X_{t-1})$$

- Parameters: called transition probabilities or dynamics, specify how the state evolves over time (also, initial state probabilities)
- Stationary assumption: transition probabilities the same at all times
- Markov property: Past and future independent given the present
- Same as MDP transition model, but no choice of action

Mini-Forward Algorithm

- Question: What's P(X) at some time t?





$$P(x_1) = \text{known}$$

$$P(x_t) = \sum_{x_{t-1}} P(x_{t-1}, x_t)$$

$$= \sum_{x_{t-1}} P(x_t \mid x_{t-1}) P(x_{t-1})$$

Forward simulation

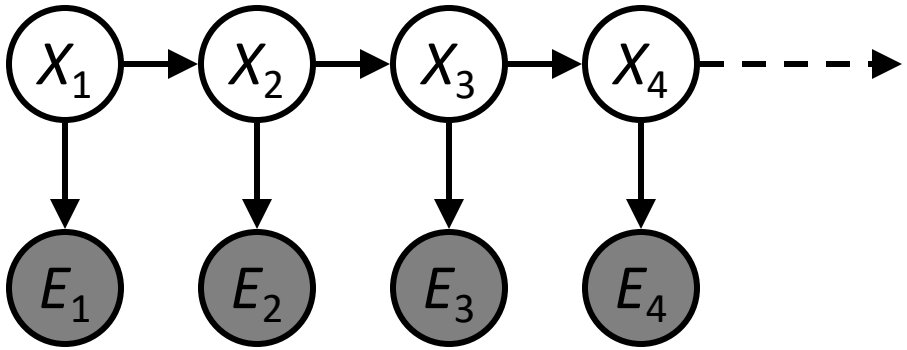
Stationary Distributions

- For most chains:
  - Influence of the initial distribution gets less and less over time.
  - The distribution we end up in is independent of the initial distribution
- Stationary distribution:
  - The distribution we end up with is called the stationary distribution P_∞ of the chain
  - It satisfies

$$P_\infty(X) = P_{\infty+1}(X) = \sum_x P(X|x)P_\infty(x)$$

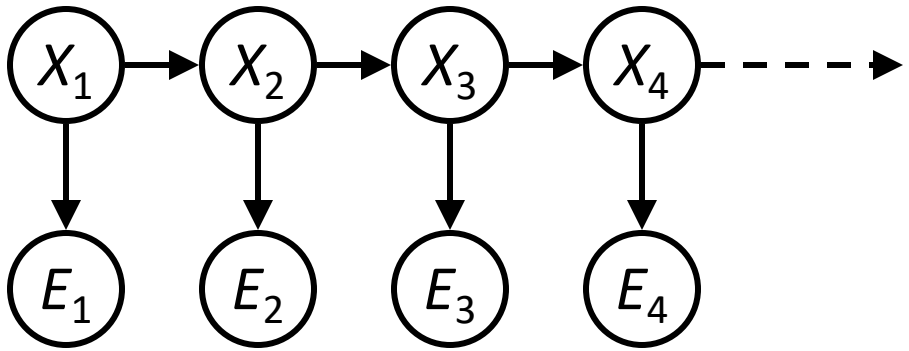
Hidden Markov Models

- Markov chains not so useful for most agents
  - Need observations to update your beliefs
- Hidden Markov models (HMMs)
  - Underlying Markov chain over states X
  - You observe outputs (effects) at each time step



Conditional Independence

- HMMs have two important independence properties:
  - Markov hidden process: future depends on past via the present
  - Current observation independent of all else given current state



- Evidence variables are not guaranteed to be independent
  - They tend to correlated by the hidden state

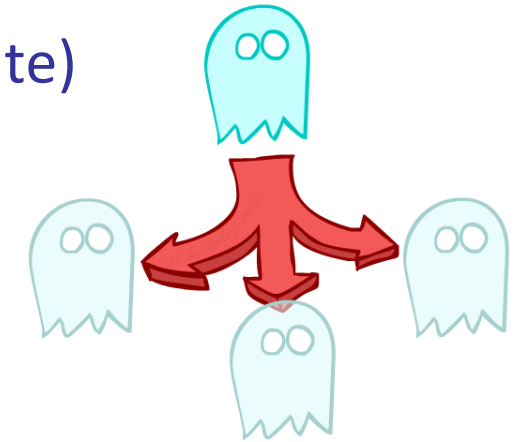
Filtering / Monitoring

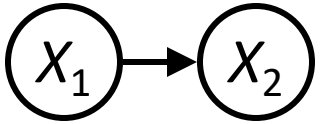
- Filtering, or monitoring, is the task of tracking the distribution $B_t(X) = P_t(X_t \mid e_1, \ldots, e_t)$ (the belief state) over time
- We start with $B_1(X)$ in an initial setting, usually uniform
- As time passes, or we get observations, we update B(X)

Passage of Time

- Assume we have current belief P(X | evidence to date)

$$B(X_t) = P(X_t|e_{1:t})$$





- Then, after one time step passes:

$$P(X_{t+1}|e_{1:t}) = \sum_{x_t} P(X_{t+1}, x_t|e_{1:t})$$
$$= \sum_{x_t} P(X_{t+1}|x_t, e_{1:t})P(x_t|e_{1:t})$$
$$= \sum_{x_t} P(X_{t+1}|x_t)P(x_t|e_{1:t})$$

- Or compactly:

$$B'(X_{t+1}) = \sum_{x_t} P(X'|x_t)B(x_t)$$

- Basic idea: beliefs get "pushed" through the transitions
  - With the "B" notation, we have to be careful about what time step t the belief is about, and what evidence it includes

Observation

- Assume we have current belief P(X | previous evidence):

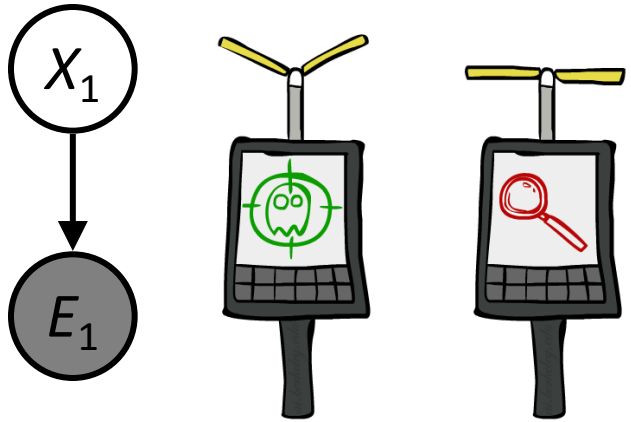
$$B'(X_{t+1}) = P(X_{t+1}|e_{1:t})$$

- Then, after evidence comes in:

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_{t+1}|e_{1:t+1}) &= P(X_{t+1}, e_{t+1}|e_{1:t})/P(e_{t+1}|e_{1:t}) \\ &\propto_{X_{t+1}} P(X_{t+1}, e_{t+1}|e_{1:t}) \\ &= P(e_{t+1}|e_{1:t}, X_{t+1})P(X_{t+1}|e_{1:t}) \\ &= P(e_{t+1}|X_{t+1})P(X_{t+1}|e_{1:t}) \end{aligned}$$

- Or, compactly:

$$B(X_{t+1}) \propto_{X_{t+1}} P(e_{t+1}|X_{t+1})B'(X_{t+1})$$

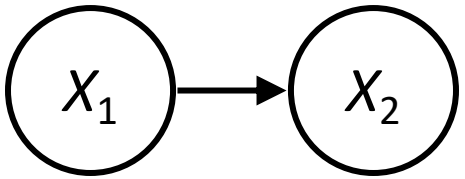


- Basic idea: beliefs "reweighted" by likelihood of evidence
- Unlike passage of time, we have to renormalize

Forward Algorithm

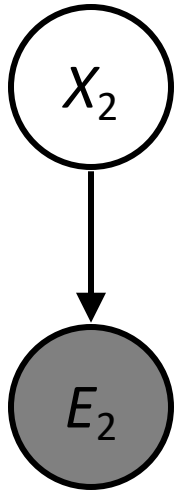
- Every time step, we start with current P(X | evidence)

$$B(X_t) = P(X_t|e_{1:t})$$



- We update for time:

$$B'(X_{t+1}) = \sum_{x_t} P(X'|x_t)B(x_t)$$



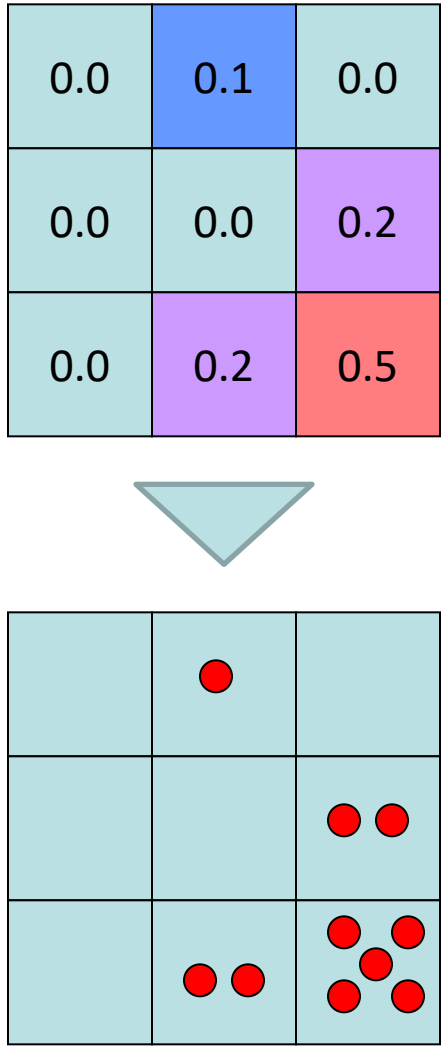
- We update for evidence:

$$B(X_{t+1}) \propto_{X_{t+1}} P(e_{t+1}|X_{t+1})B'(X_{t+1})$$

- Don't forget to normalize at the end!

Approximate Inference in HMMs: Particle Filtering

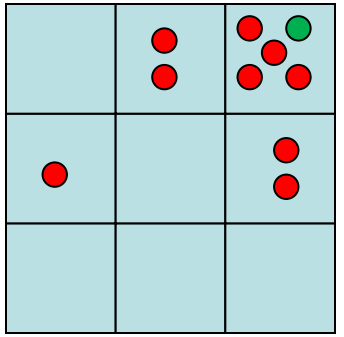
- Filtering: approximate solution
- Sometimes |X| is too big to use exact inference
- Solution: approximate inference
  - Track samples of X, not all values
  - Particle is just new name for sample
  - Time per step is linear in the number of samples
  - But: number needed may be large
  - In memory: list of particles, not states



Representation: Particles

- Our representation of P(X) is now a list of N particles (samples)
  - Generally, N << |X|
  - Storing map from X to counts would defeat the point

- P(x) approximated by number of particles with value x
  - So, many x may have P(x) = 0!
  - More particles, more accuracy



Particles:
(3,3)
(2,3)
(3,3)
(3,2)
(3,3)
(3,2)
(1,2)
(3,3)
(3,3)
(2,3)

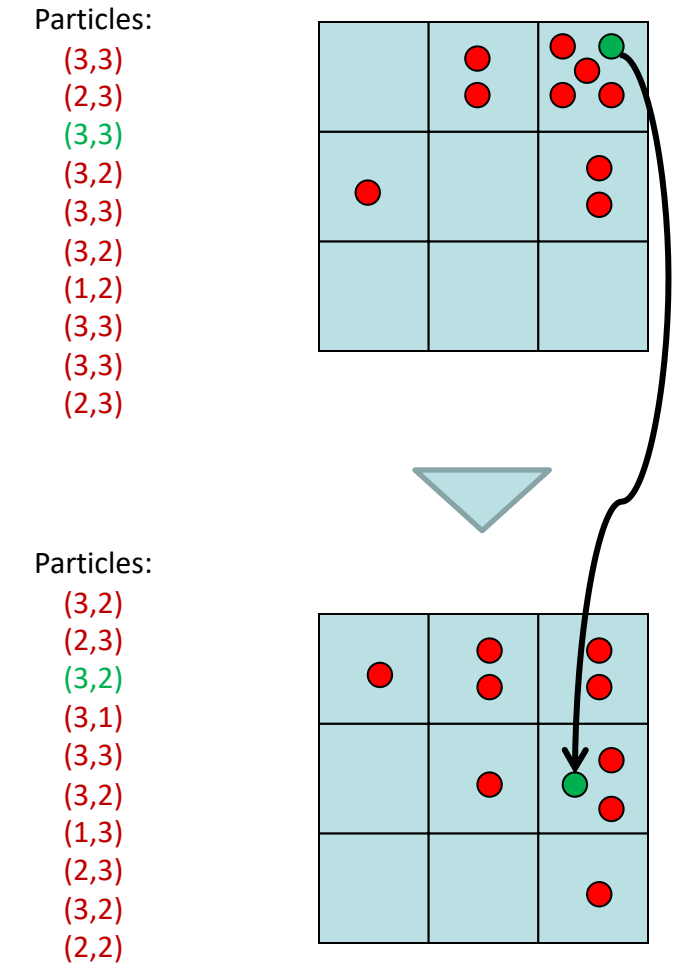
Particle Filtering: Elapse Time

- Each particle is moved by sampling its next position from the transition model

$$x' = \text{sample}(P(X'|x))$$

  - This is like prior sampling – samples' frequencies reflect the transition probabilities

- This captures the passage of time
  - If enough samples, close to exact values before and after (consistent)



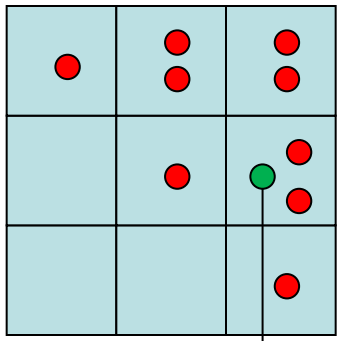
Particle Filtering: Observe

- Slightly trickier:
  - Similar to likelihood weighting, down-weight samples based on the evidence

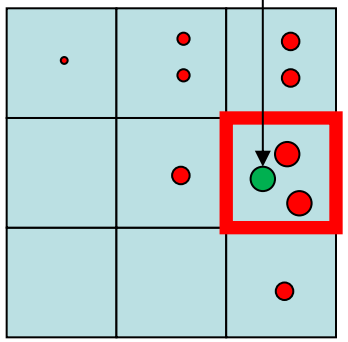
$$w(x) = P(e|x)$$

$$B(X) \propto P(e|X)B'(X)$$

Particles:
(3,2)
(2,3)
(3,2)
(3,1)
(3,3)
(3,2)
(1,3)
(2,3)
(3,2)
(2,2)



Particles:
(3,2) w=.9
(2,3) w=.2
(3,2) w=.9
(3,1) w=.4
(3,3) w=.4
(3,2) w=.9
(1,3) w=.1
(2,3) w=.2
(3,2) w=.9
(2,2) w=.4

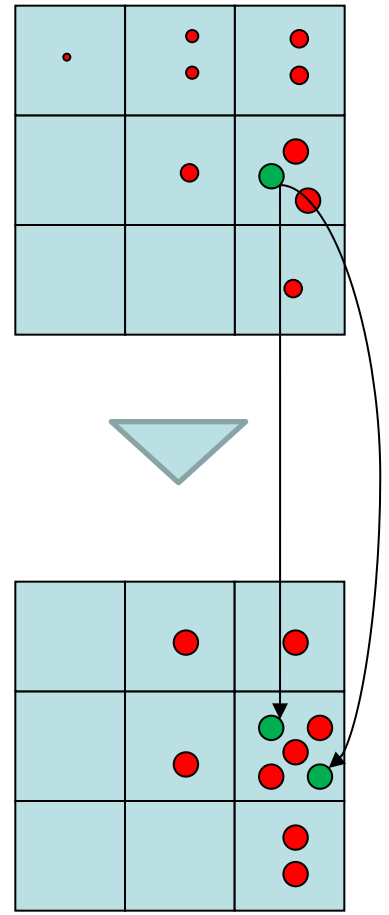


Particle Filtering: Resample

- Rather than tracking weighted samples, we resample (draw with replacement)
- This is equivalent to renormalizing the distribution
- Now the update is complete for this time step, continue with the next one

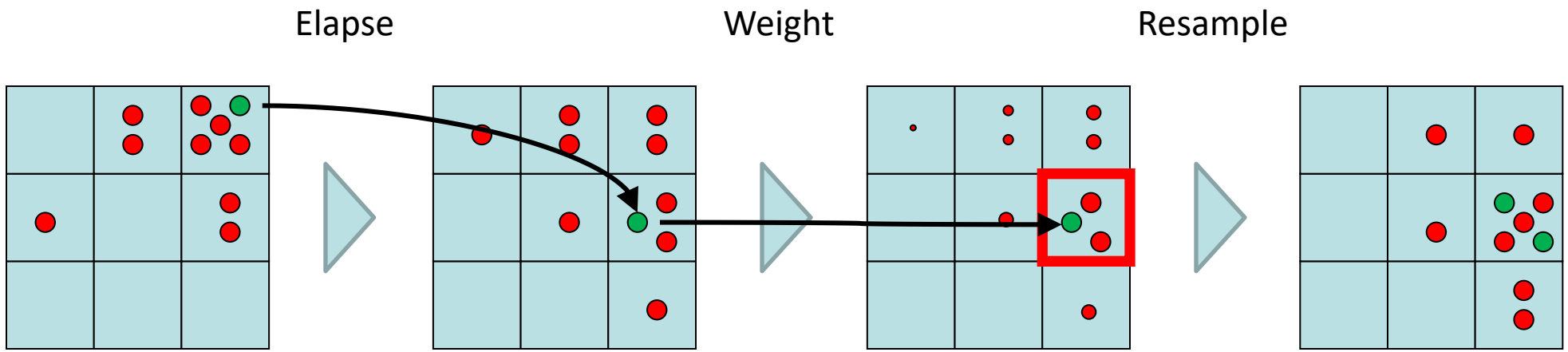
Particles:
(3,2) w=.9
(2,3) w=.2
(3,2) w=.9
(3,1) w=.4
(3,3) w=.4
(3,2) w=.9
(1,3) w=.1
(2,3) w=.2
(3,2) w=.9
(2,2) w=.4

(New) Particles:
(3,2)
(2,2)
(3,2)
(2,3)
(3,3)
(3,2)
(1,3)
(2,3)
(3,2)
(3,2)



Particle Filtering

- Particles: track samples of states rather than an explicit distribution



Particles:
(3,3)
(2,3)
(3,3)
(3,2)
(3,3)
(3,2)
(1,2)
(3,3)
(3,3)
(2,3)

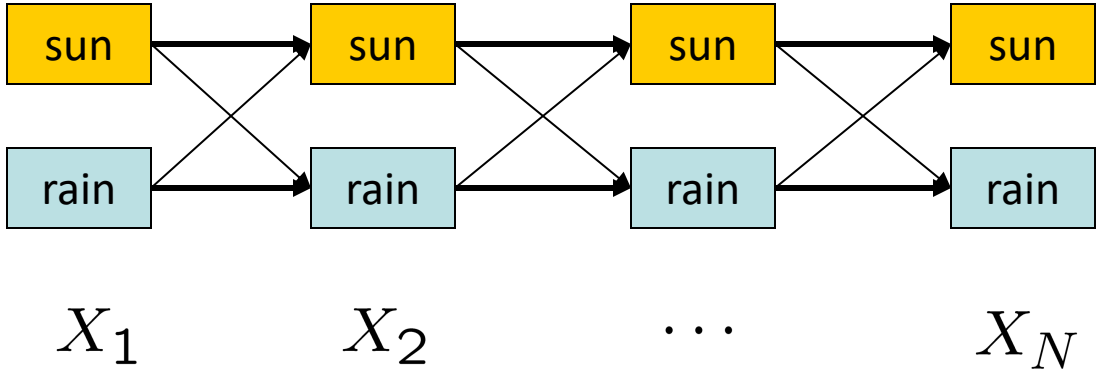
Particles:
(3,2)
(2,3)
(3,2)
(3,1)
(3,3)
(3,2)
(1,3)
(2,3)
(3,2)
(2,2)

Particles:
(3,2) w=.9
(2,3) w=.2
(3,2) w=.9
(3,1) w=.4
(3,3) w=.4
(3,2) w=.9
(1,3) w=.1
(2,3) w=.2
(3,2) w=.9
(2,2) w=.4

(New) Particles:
(3,2)
(2,2)
(3,2)
(2,3)
(3,3)
(3,2)
(1,3)
(2,3)
(3,2)
(3,2)

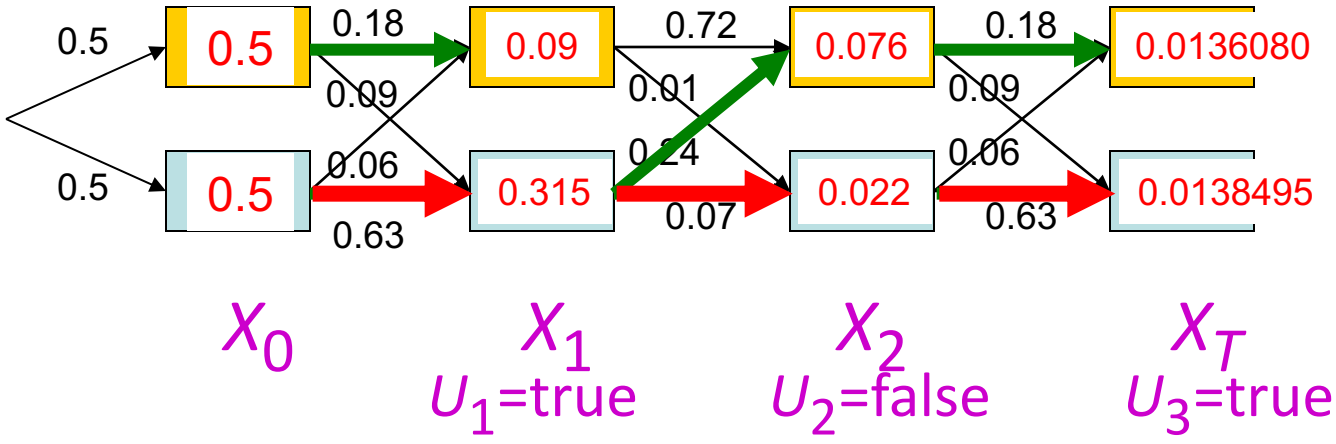
Most Likely Explanation: Viterbi Algorithm

- State trellis: graph of states and transitions over time



- Each arc represents some transition $x_{t-1} \rightarrow x_t$
- Each arc has weight $P(x_t|x_{t-1})P(e_t|x_t)$
- Each path is a sequence of states
- The product of weights on a path is that sequence's probability along with the evidence
- Forward algorithm computes sums of paths, Viterbi computes best paths

Viterbi algorithm contd.



W_{t-1}	$P(W_t \mid W_{t-1})$	
	sun	rain
sun	0.9	0.1
rain	0.3	0.7

W_t	$P(U_t \mid W_t)$	
	true	false
sun	0.2	0.8
rain	0.9	0.1

Time complexity?
$O(|X|^2 T)$

Space complexity?
$O(|X| T)$

Number of paths?
$O(|X|^T)$