



University of  
Central Lancashire  
UCLan

# CO3519

# Artificial Intelligence

Decision support  
Overall utility (or cost)  
Visualization of decision making

Where opportunity creates success

# Module overview

Upon successful completion of this module, a student will be able to:

- 1) Explain the theoretical underpinnings of algorithms and techniques specific to artificial intelligence;
- 2) Critically evaluate the principles and algorithms of artificial intelligence;
- 3) Analyse and evaluate the theoretical foundations of artificial intelligence and computing;
- 4) Implement artificial intelligence algorithms.

**optimization**

**agents and  
decisions**

**game  
theory**

**modelling**

**knowledge  
representation**

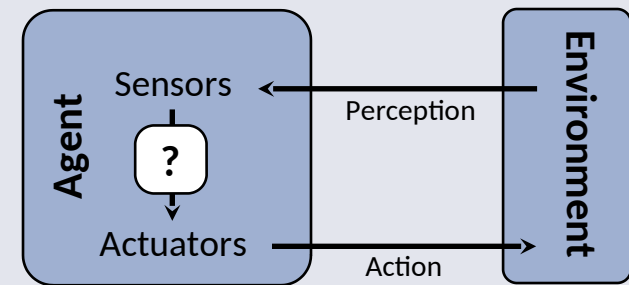
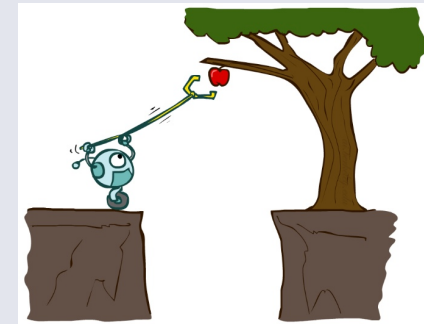
**reasoning  
and learning**

**uncertainty  
quantification**

# Agents and decisions

On the field of **agents and decisions**, we will:

- Review common definitions of agency and knowledge-based intelligent agents;
- Discuss the use of AI in assisting human decision making;
- Consider philosophical issues pertaining to the field, such as explainable AI and epistemic opacity.



**agents and  
decisions**

**game  
theory**

**modelling**

**knowledge  
representation**

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# Decision support

# Example decision-support scenario

## 1.2.3. Cost functions with more than two parameters

The `multivar` notebook defines a cost function for a hypothetical industrial operation; at planning and design stage, you have direct control over the following parameters:

- The investment  $i$ , done a single time, in units of £.
- The amount of goods  $p$  to be produced, in units of £/year.
- The depreciation period  $d$  (how long it is meant to operate), in units of years.

In the investment-decision example from `multivar`, we specified three parameters  $i$ ,  $p$ , and  $d$ . However, in the underlying model, the amount of goods  $p$  that can be produced *without external manufacturers* is given by a function  $p = g(i)$  of the value  $i$ . This might be **simplified to a two-parameter problem**.

# Example decision-support scenario

## 1.2.3. Cost functions with more than two parameters

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```
total investment      i = GBP 100000
production volume    p = GBP 1000000 per year
depreciation period  d = 7 years

operating cost: GBP 102915.03 per year
depreciation:      GBP 14285.71 per year
prod.cost:         GBP 900000.0 per year
sales contrib.:    GBP -1000000.0 per year
==
total deficit:     GBP 17200.74 per year
```

A single-objective cost function was given. However, the evaluation specifies multiple contributions to it.

It may make sense to **distinguish two objectives**: Minimize proper costs, and maximize sales income.

# Example decision-support scenario

In the *pareto-front* Jupyter Notebook, a version of this problem is given that expresses it with **two parameters and two minimization objectives**.

Two parameters ( $m = 2$ ):

- investment  $i = x_0$
- depreciation period  $d = x_1$

Two optimization criteria ( $n = 2$ ):

- expenses  $y_0$
- contribution from sales  $y_1$   
(that is,  $-1 \times$  the income from sales)

The Jupyter Notebook contains code for constructing a Pareto front.

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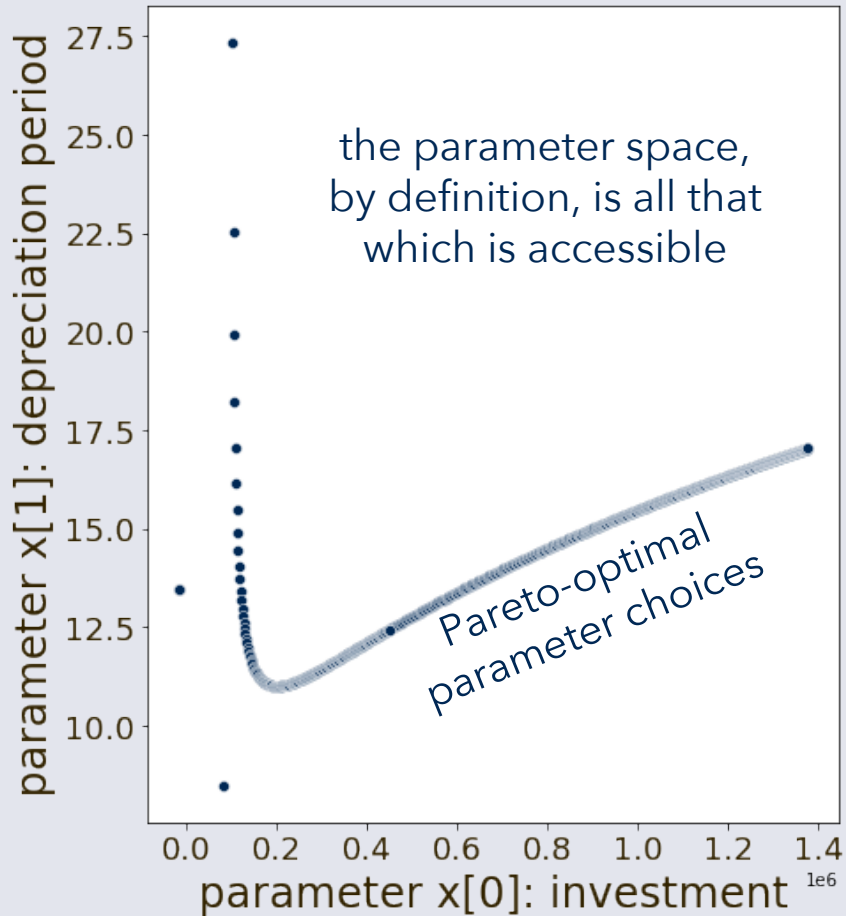
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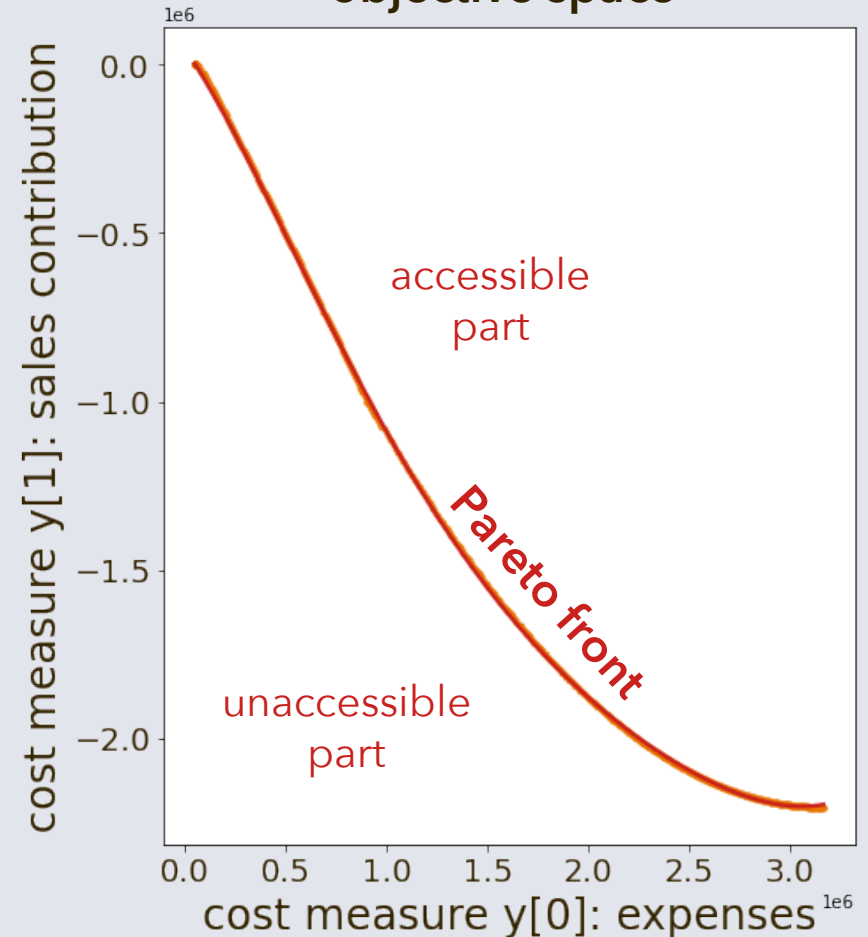
It may make sense to distinguish two objectives: Minimize proper costs, and maximize sales income.

# Example decision-support scenario

parameter space



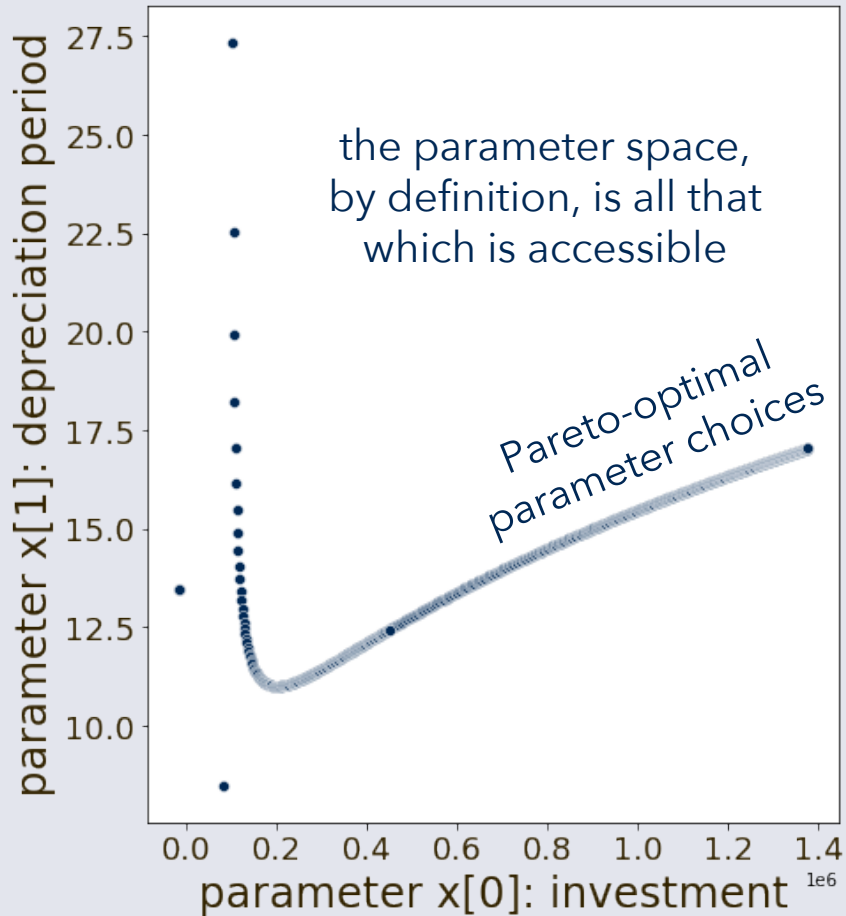
objective space



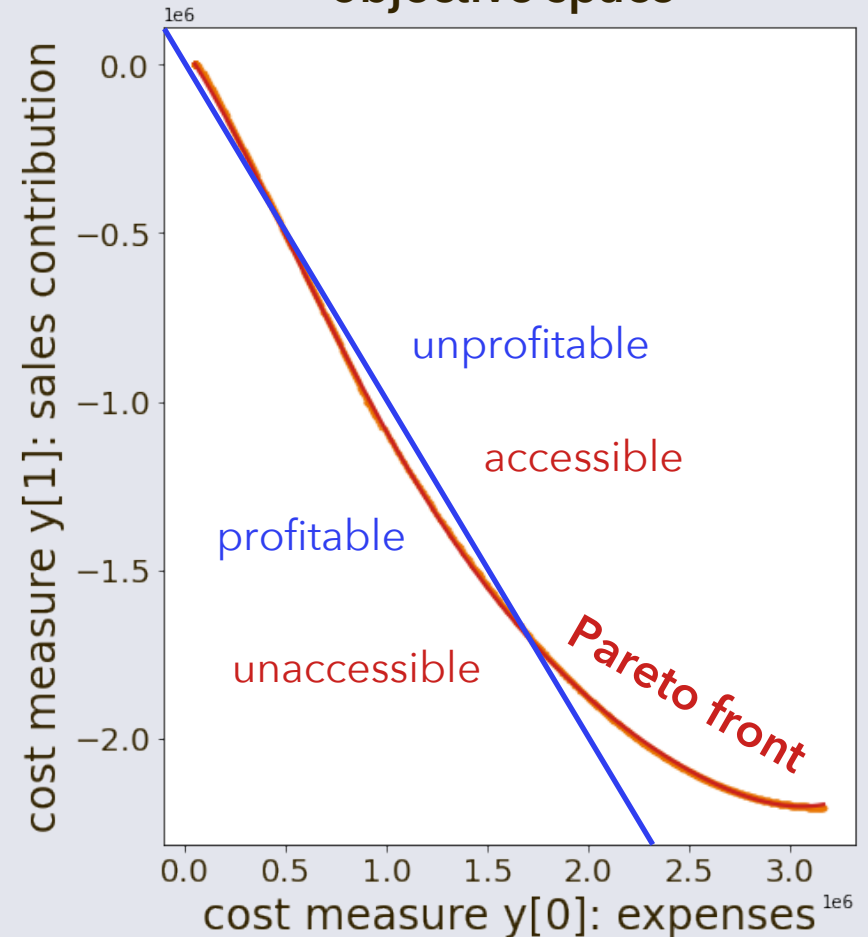


# Example decision-support scenario

parameter space

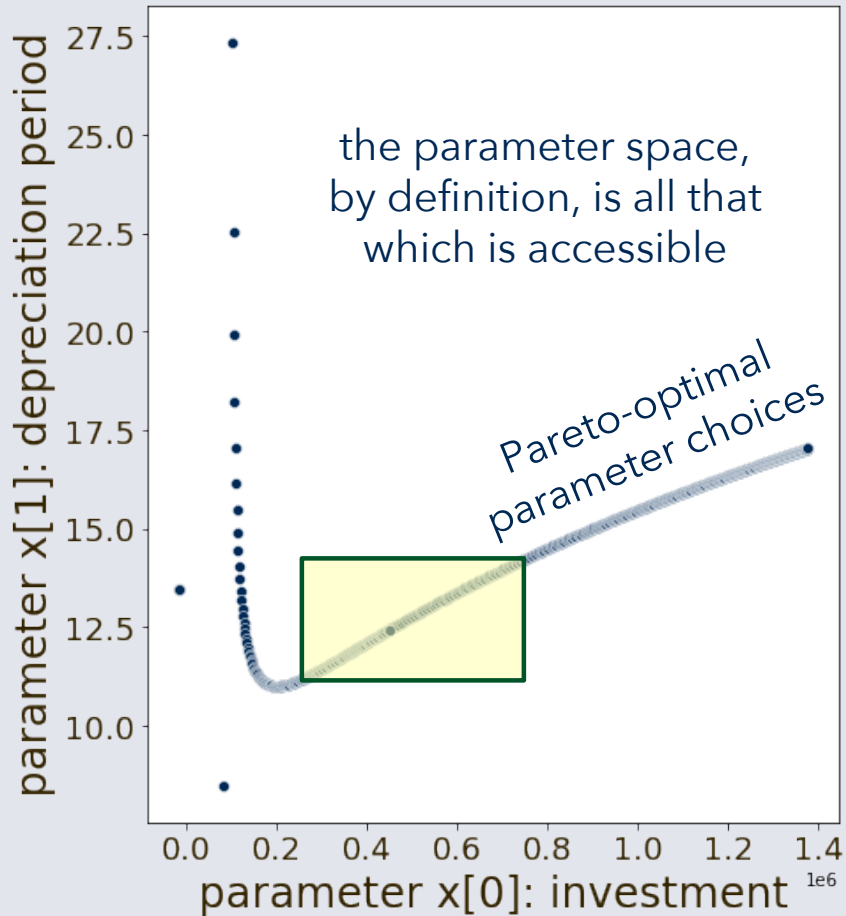


objective space

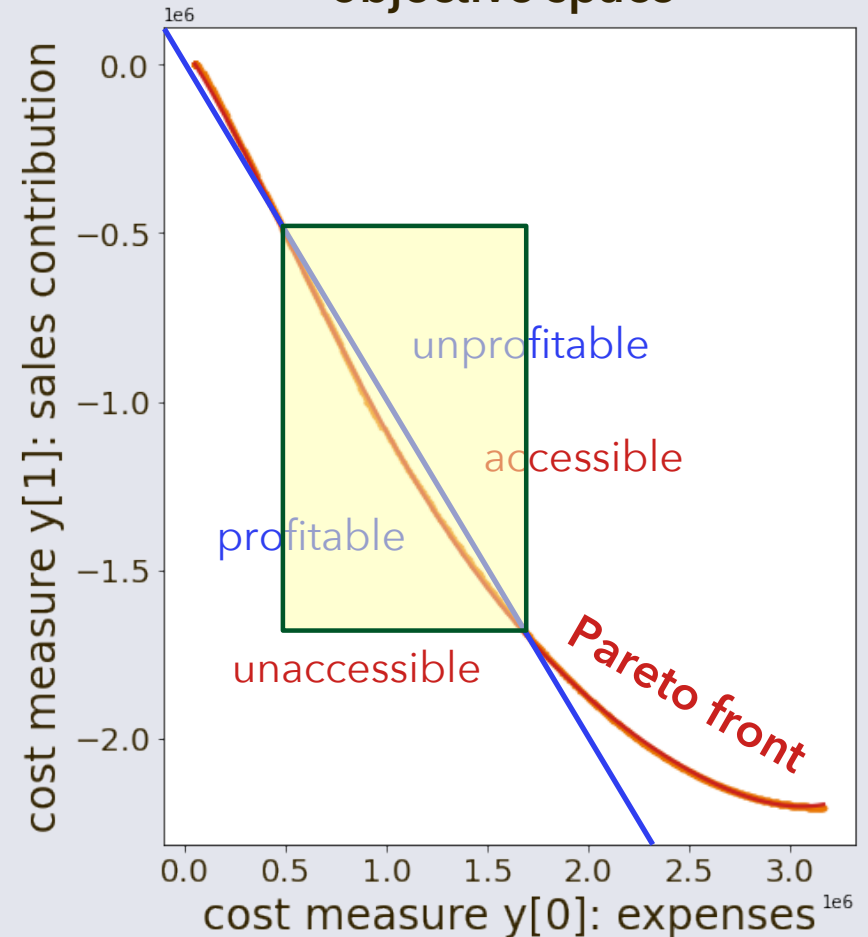


# Example decision-support scenario

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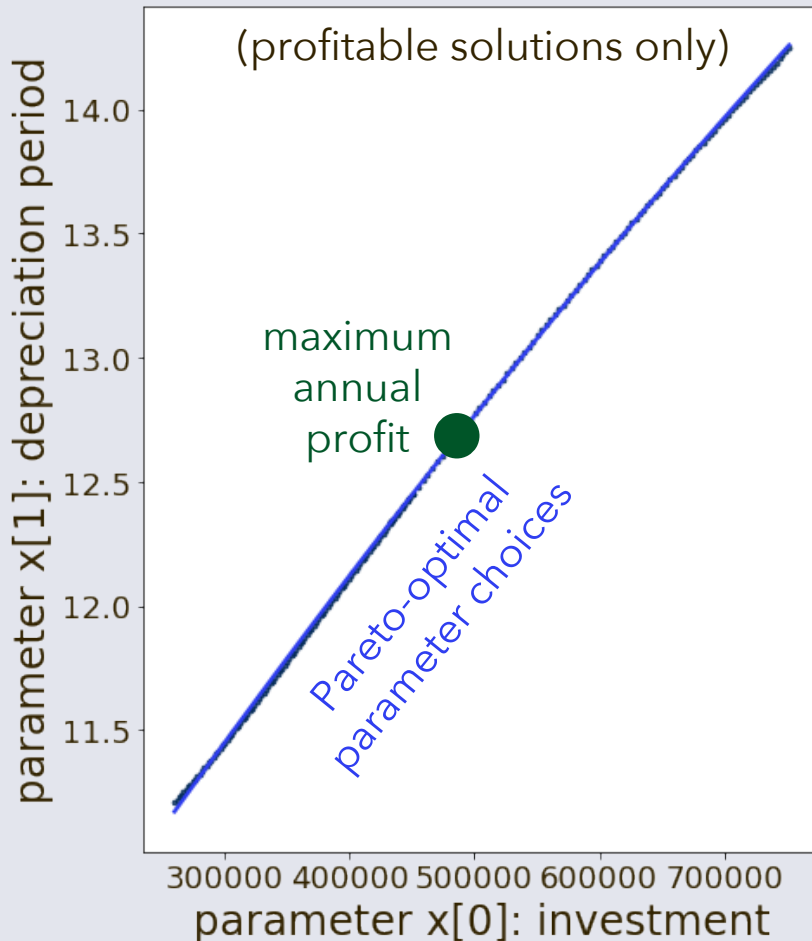


objective space

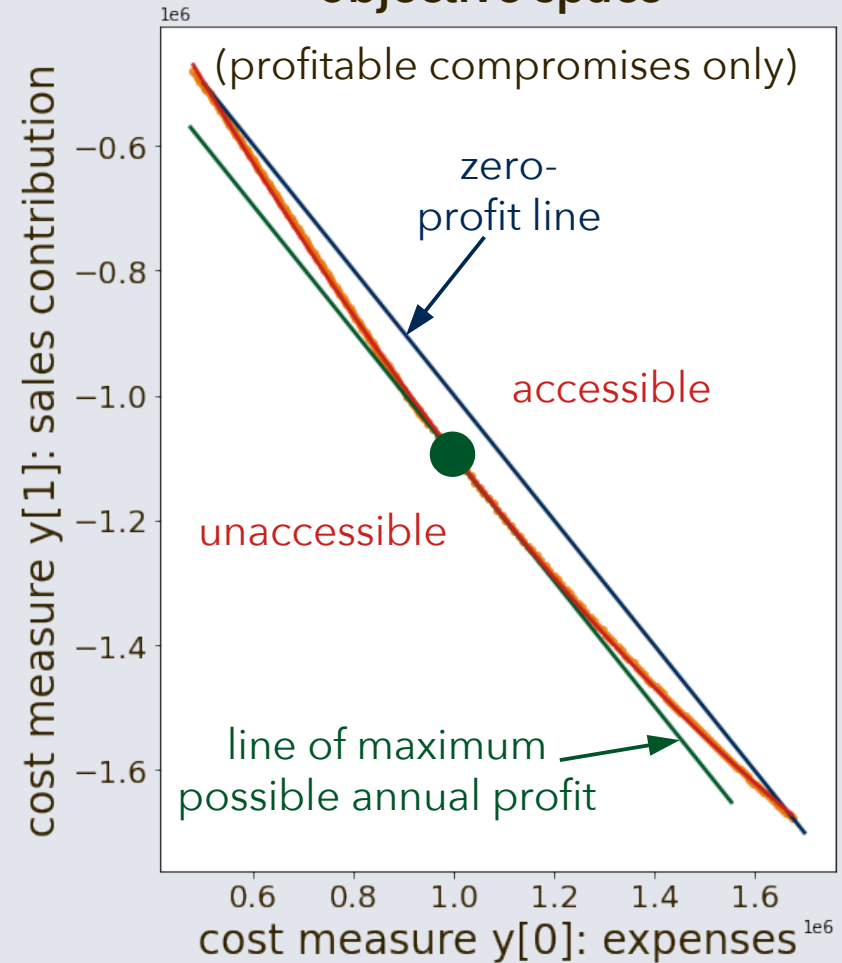


# Example decision-support scenario

## parameter space



## objective space



# Decision support systems

Example: European guidelines on **business decision support systems (BDSS)** for manufacturing relying on AI infrastructures based on materials modelling:<sup>1</sup>

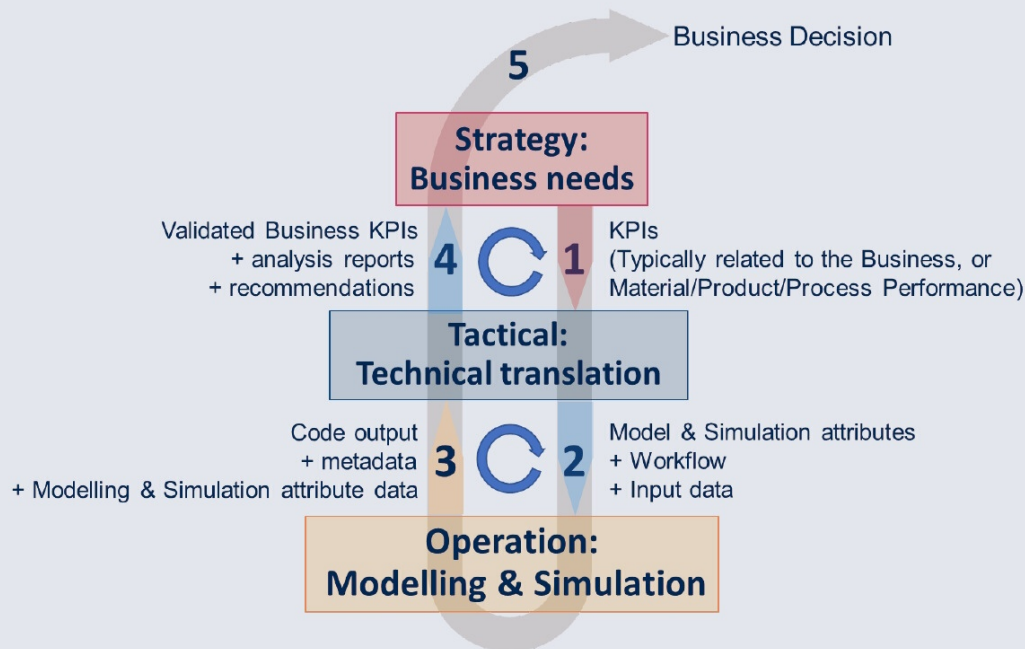


Figure 4: BDSS generic workflow between level of business entities or stakeholders

<sup>1</sup>D. Dykeman et al., *Guideline for Business Decision Support Systems (BDSS) for Materials Modelling*, EMMC ASBL, 2020.

# Reality-to-model “translation” in decision support

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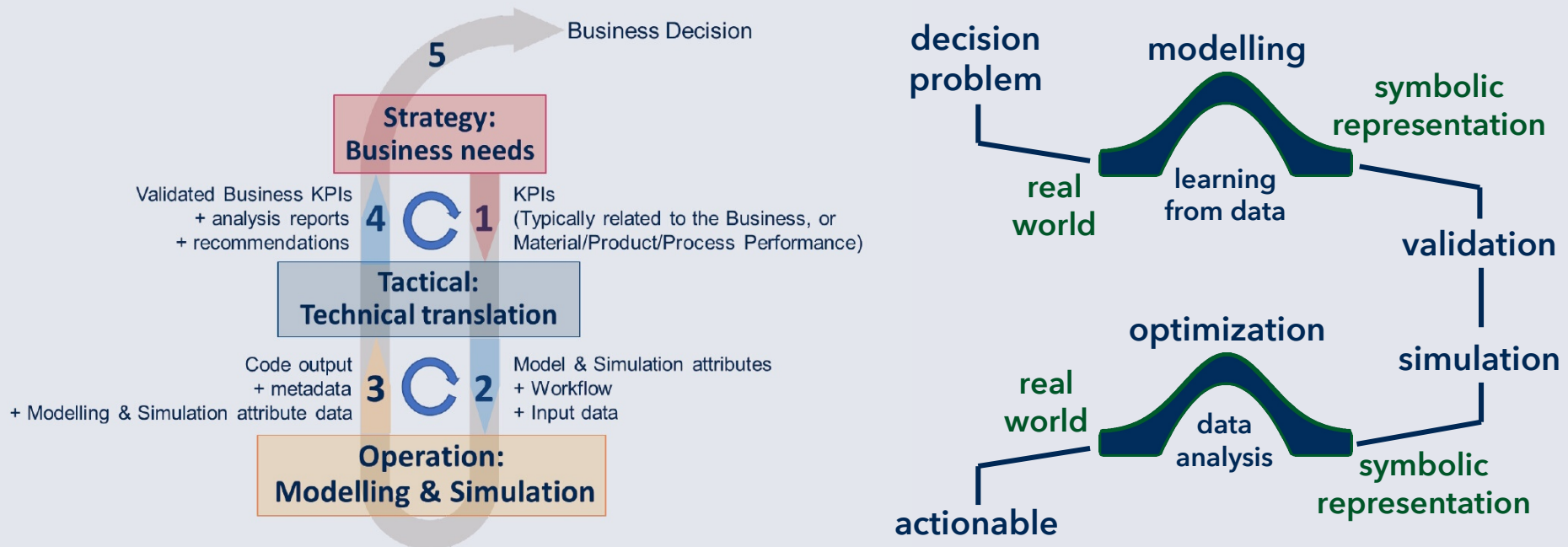


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<sup>1</sup>D. Dykeman et al., *Guideline for Business Decision Support Systems (BDSS) for Materials Modelling*, EMMC ASBL, **2020**. <sup>2</sup>P. Klein et al., *Translation in Materials Modelling: Process and Progress*, **2021**.

# Overall utility (or cost)

# Overall utility or cost measure

When to reduce optimization criteria to a single utility or cost measure:

- 1) If multiple criteria are **not found to be in a genuine conflict** with each other, or the cases where they would come into conflict are not so relevant and can be neglected: Combine them, or select one of them.

*Example: Be a friend of A, and also of B; also, A and B are good friends.*

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In such a case, strategies may include:

- Neglecting all criteria with the exception of one, e.g.,  $f(\mathbf{x}) = y_1$ , where  $\mathbf{y} = [y_0, y_1]$ ; since  **$y_0$  and  $y_1$  are correlated**,  $y_0$  is accounted for by  $y_1$ .
- Combining the two criteria, e.g., by a **linear combination** such as  $f(\mathbf{x}) = 0.4 y_0 + 0.6 y_1$ , such that  $y_0$  would contribute 40% and  $y_1$  60%.



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*Example: Be a friend of A, and also of B; also, A and B are good friends.*

- 2) At the **moment of decision making**, there can only be one criterion.

*Example: Be friends with A, and with B; but A and B hate each other.*

At some point, the decision between A and B needs to be made.

Select a combination of the criteria based on your priorities, or analyse the Pareto front as a whole to find a solution that is particularly resilient.

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*Example: Be friends with A, and with B; but A and B hate each other.*  
At some point, the decision between A and B needs to be made.

- 3) If you are a follower of **utilitarianism** in the British tradition, giving a measure for the “maximum overall good” a moral interpretation.

# Linear combinations of optimization criteria

In a **linear combination**, multiple objectives  $y_0, y_1, \dots, y_{n-1}$  are fused to construct a single objective

$$y = c_0 y_0 + c_1 y_1 + \dots + c_{n-1} y_{n-1},$$

where  $c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{n-1}$  are constant coefficients.

- For  $y = 0.3 y_0 + 0.4 y_1 + 0.3 y_2$ , the objective  $y_1$  contributes 40% to the overall cost or utility function; the other criteria each contribute 30%.
- Multiplying the coefficients *all* by the same value has no effect on the optimization outcome; only the ratio between them is relevant.

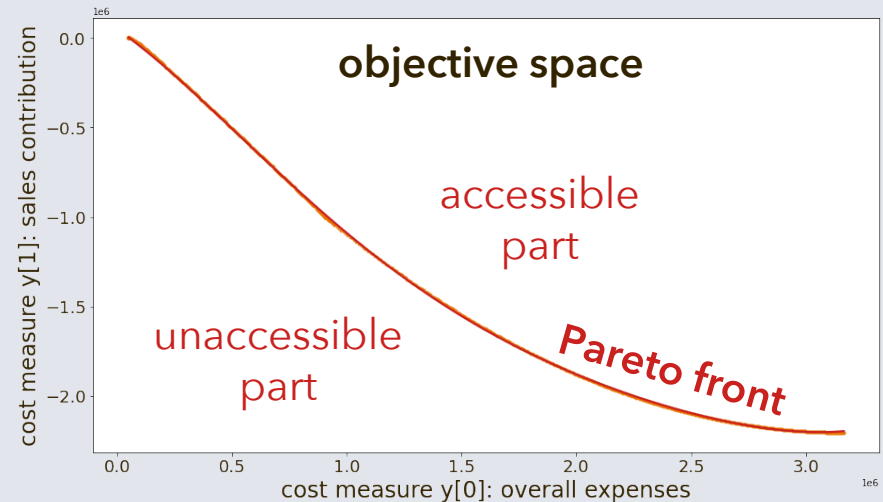
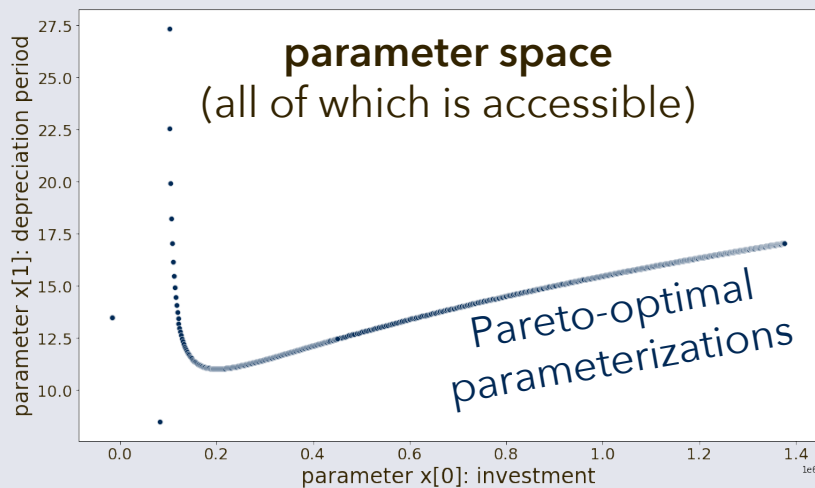
With  $y = 3 y_0 + 4 y_1 + 3 y_2$ , the contribution of  $y_1$  is still 40%, etc.

# Linear combinations of optimization criteria

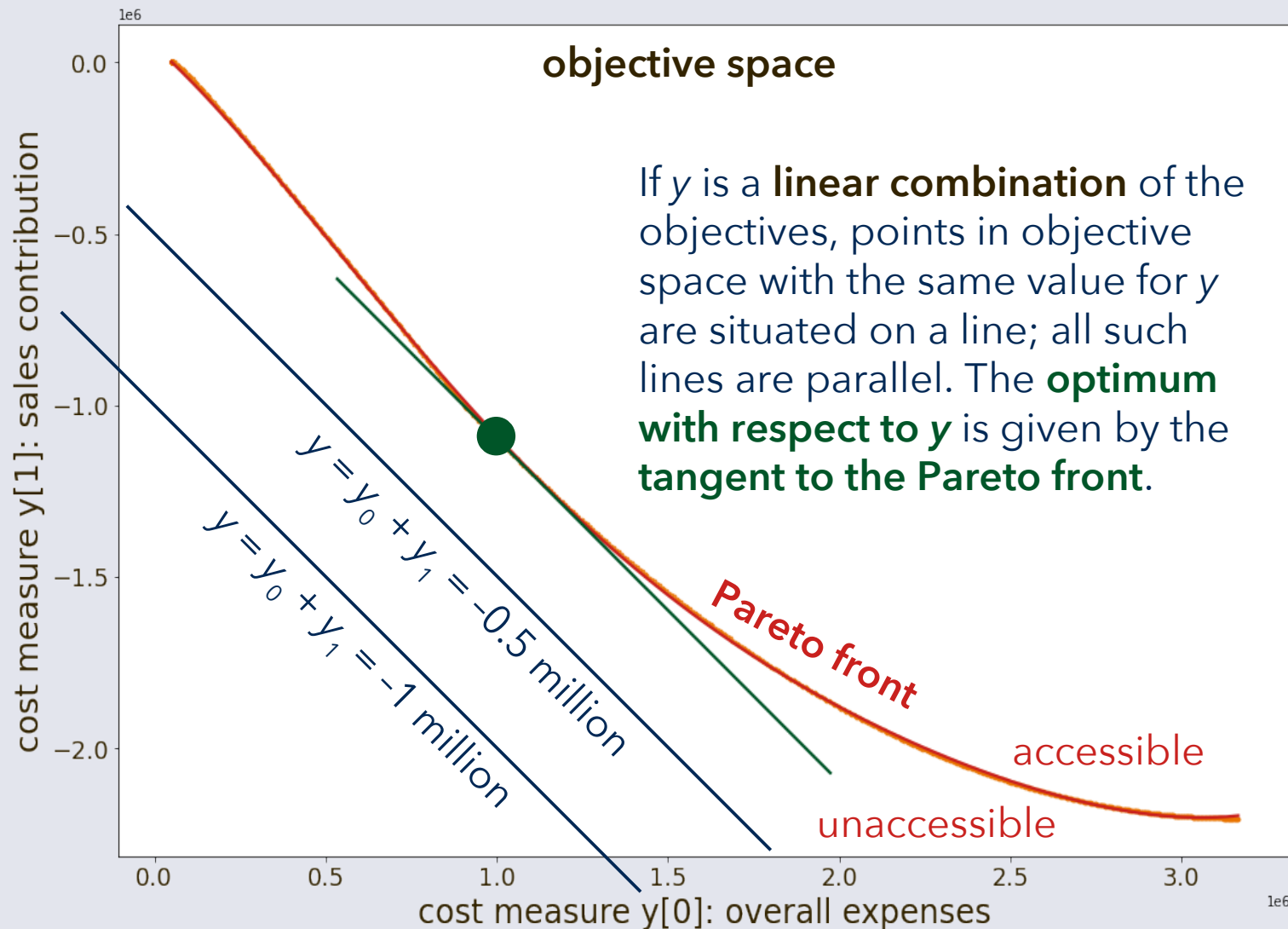
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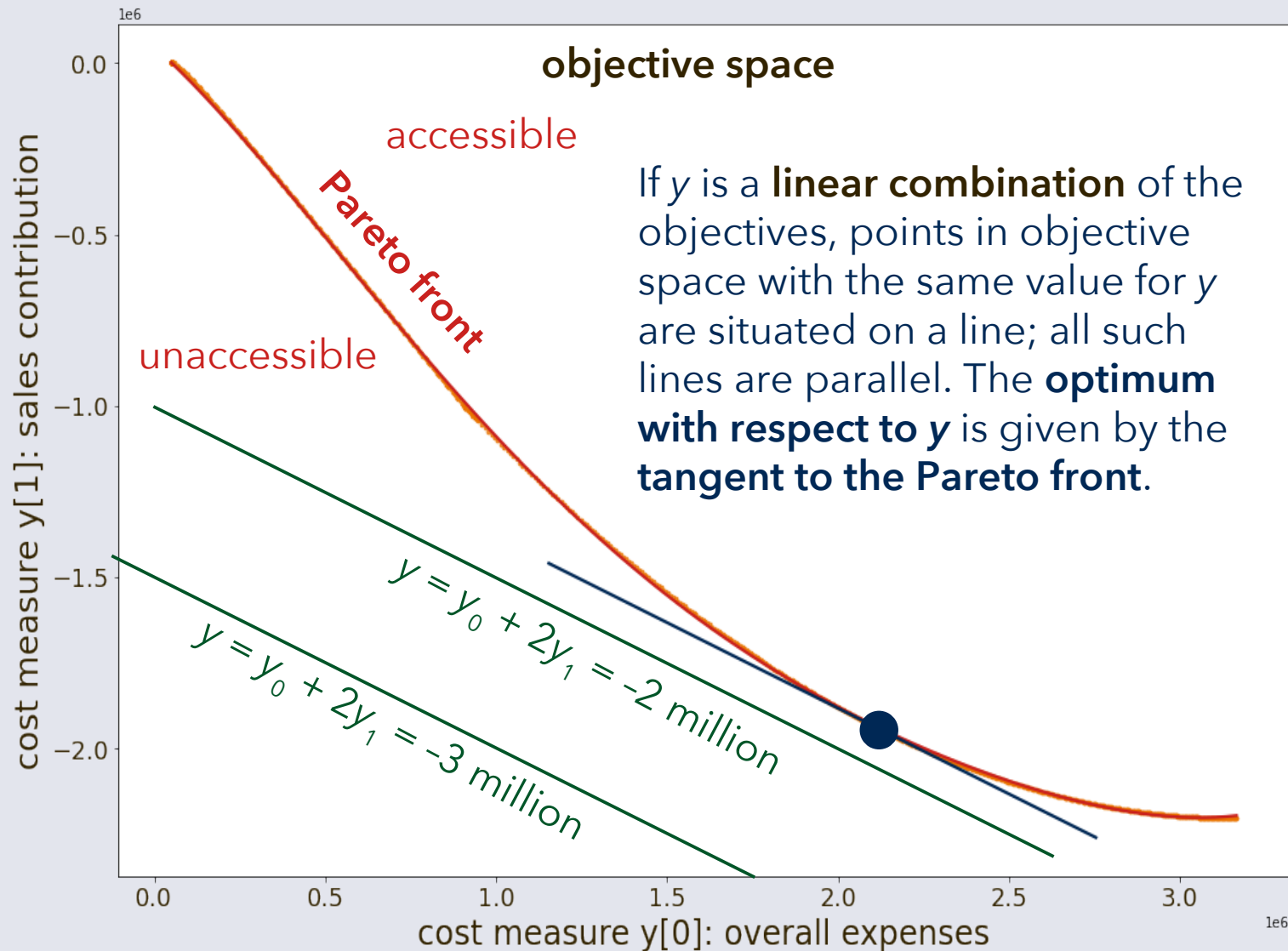
where  $c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{n-1}$  are constant coefficients. Points in objective space with the same value for  $y$  are then all situated on a line; all these lines are parallel.



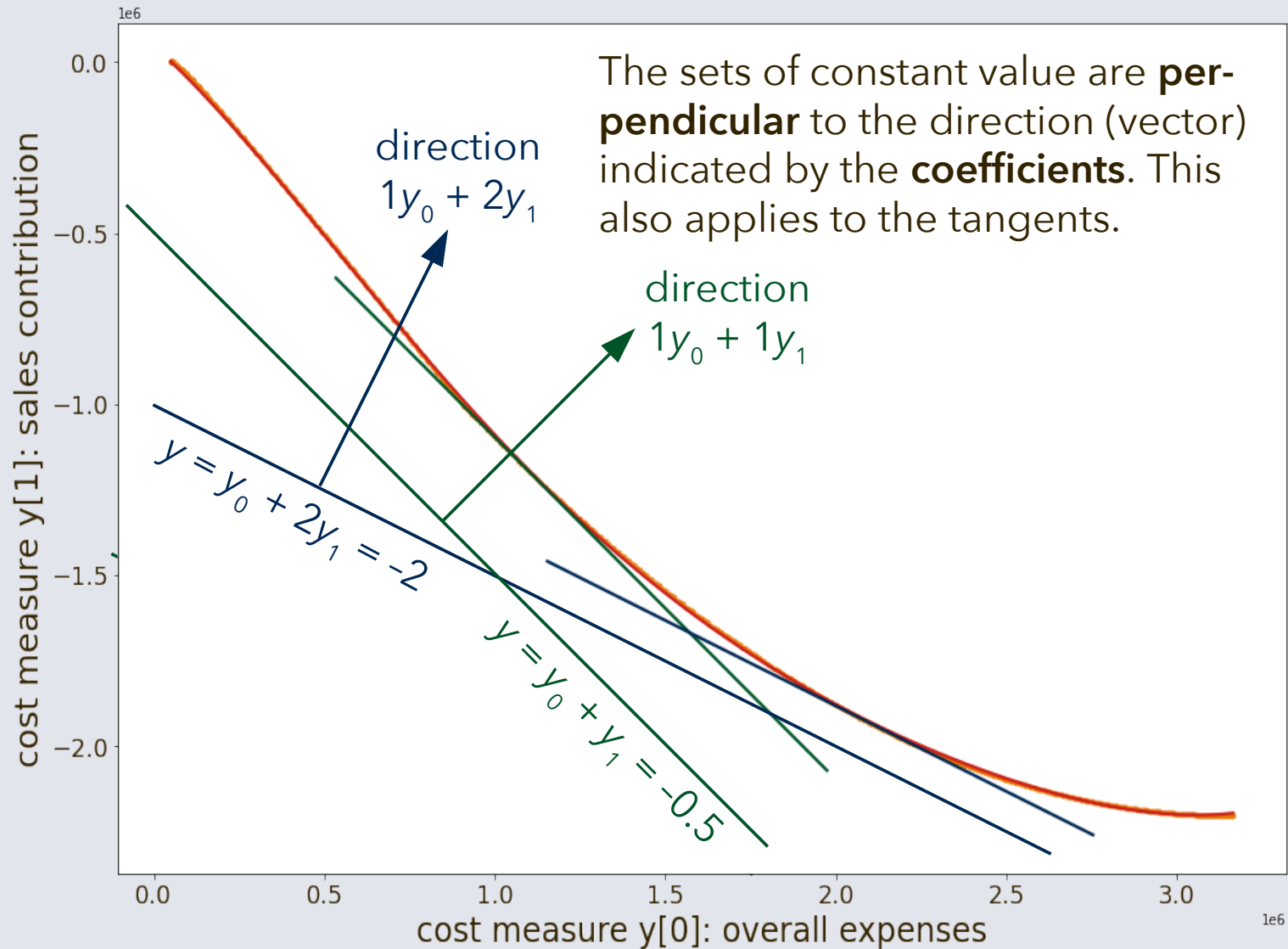
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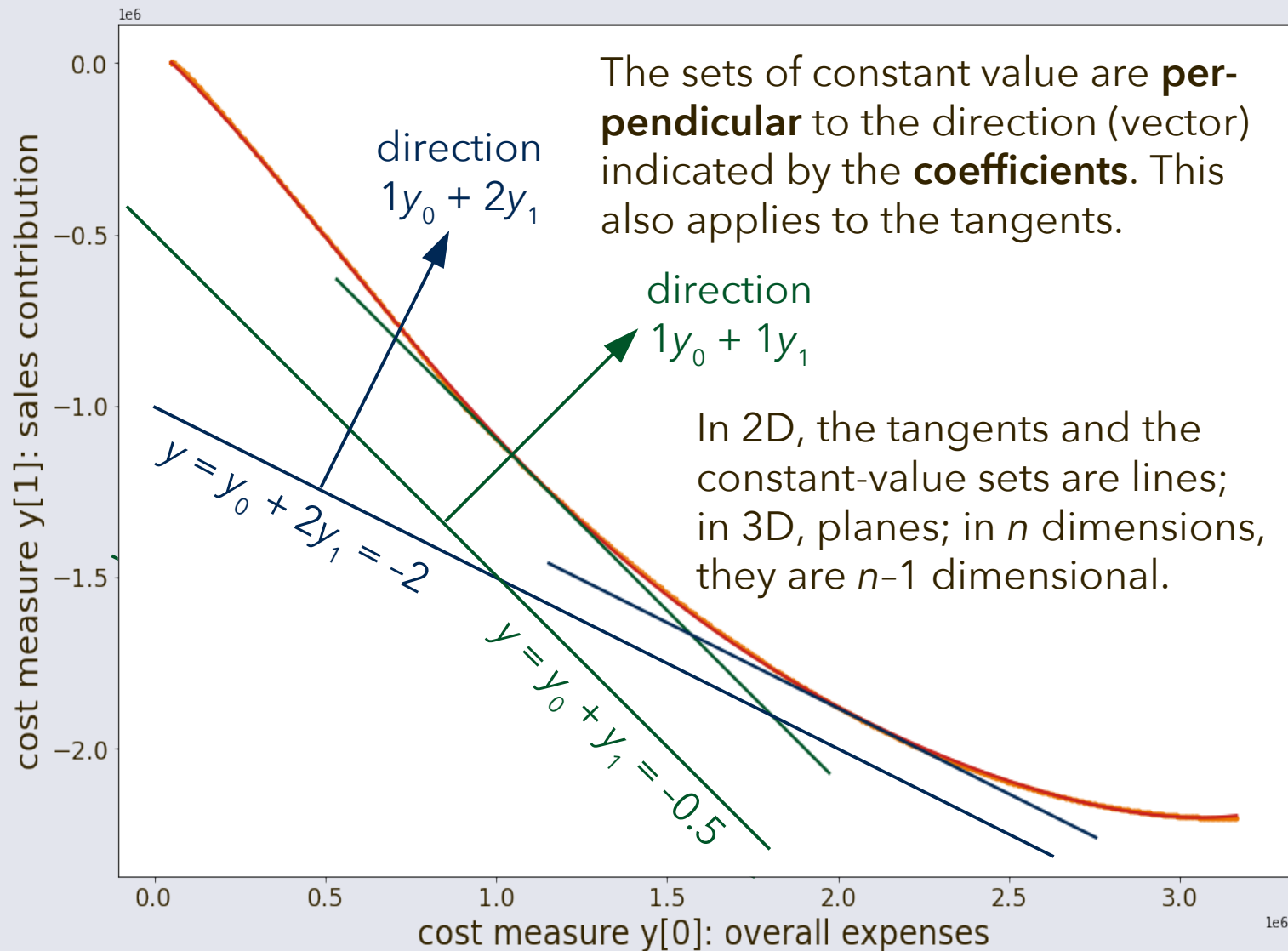
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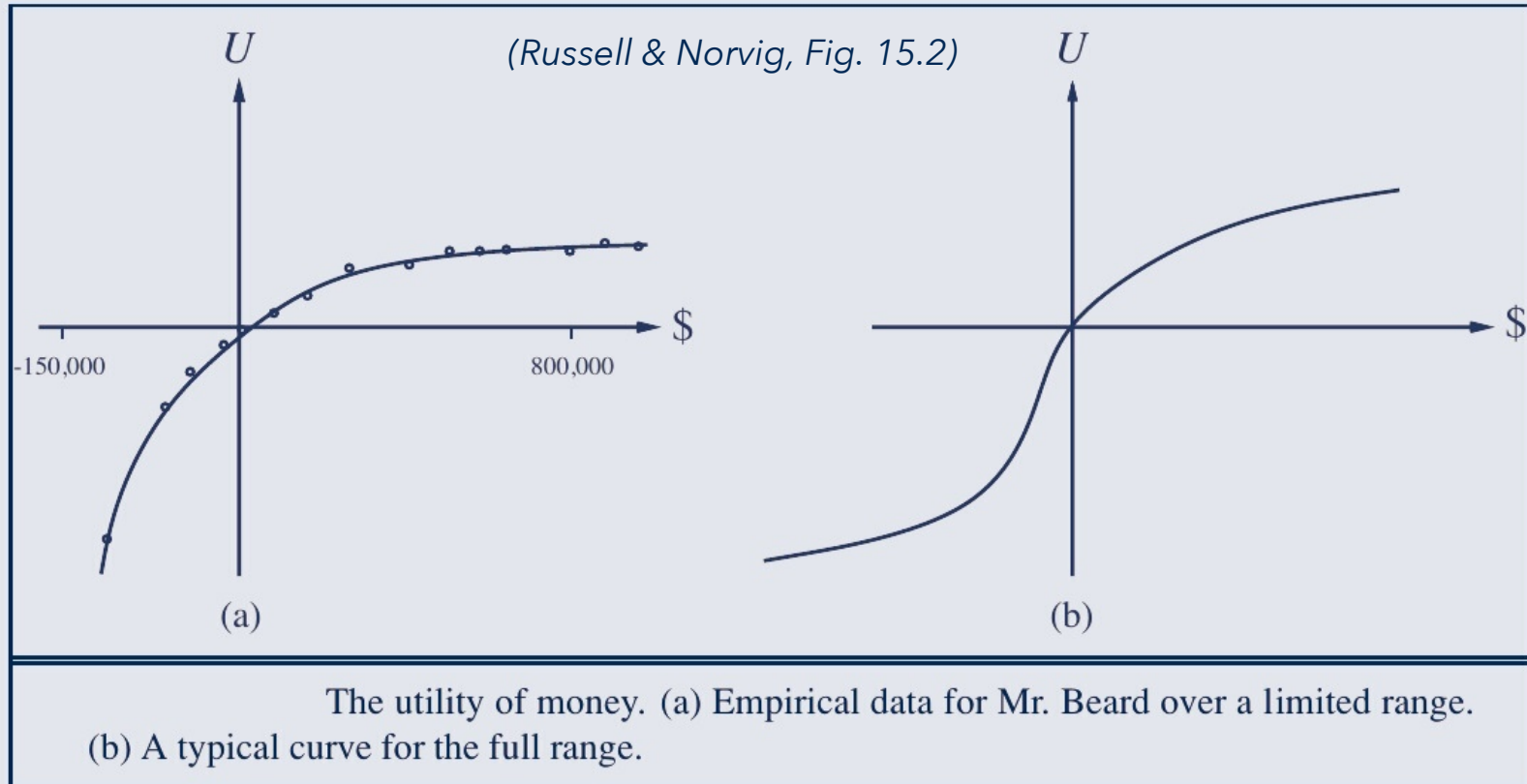


# Linear combinations of optimization criteria





# Nonlinear contributions to utility

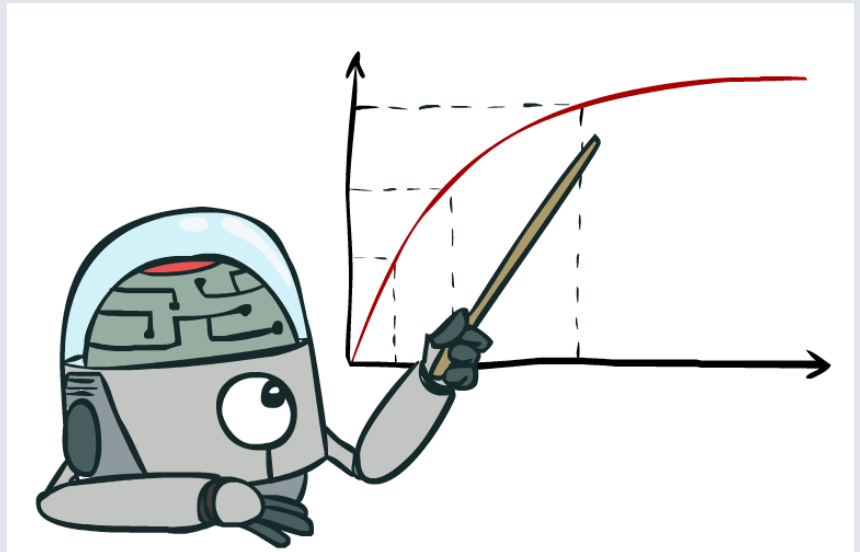


To a billionaire, £10,000 may not even be worth the effort of scheduling an appointment; another objective such as tranquility may be more valuable ...

# Prerequisites for decision making by optimization

At decision-making stage, if numerical methods are to be applied at all, the problem needs to have been reduced to **single-objective optimization**.

Moreover, the **cost function** (or utility function) **needs to be known**, and any unknown quantities occurring in it must have been eliminated.



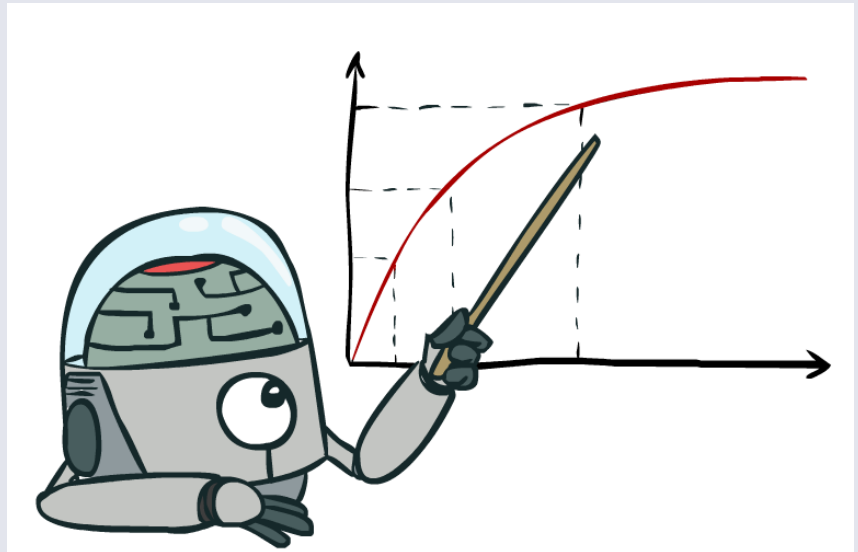
# Decision making and the unknown

At decision-making stage, if numerical methods are to be applied at all, the problem needs to have been reduced to **single-objective optimization**.

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In reality, however, the outcome of a decision often depends on **unknown quantities** such as the weather, unpredictable social developments, or actions of an competitor; in a game, future moves of the opponent.

**Approach:** Treat the unknown quantities as **random variables**.



# Expected utility (or cost)

The outcome of a decision often depends on **unknown quantities**:

$$\mathbf{y} = f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{r}) = f(x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{m-1}, r_0, r_1, \dots, r_{l-1}), \text{ where the } r_i \text{ are unknown;}$$

These quantities are neither in the decision maker's direct control (*i.e.*, they are not parameters), nor are they influenced indirectly by the decision.

For purposes of decision making and decision support, unknown quantities can be treated as **random variables** whenever not the value itself, but at least a probability distribution  $P(\mathbf{r})$  can be reasonably assumed. Then an **expected utility** function (or expected cost function) is obtained by averaging:

$$\mathbf{y} = f(\mathbf{x}) = \text{expected value } E[f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{r})] = \sum_{\mathbf{r}} P(\mathbf{r})f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{r}).$$

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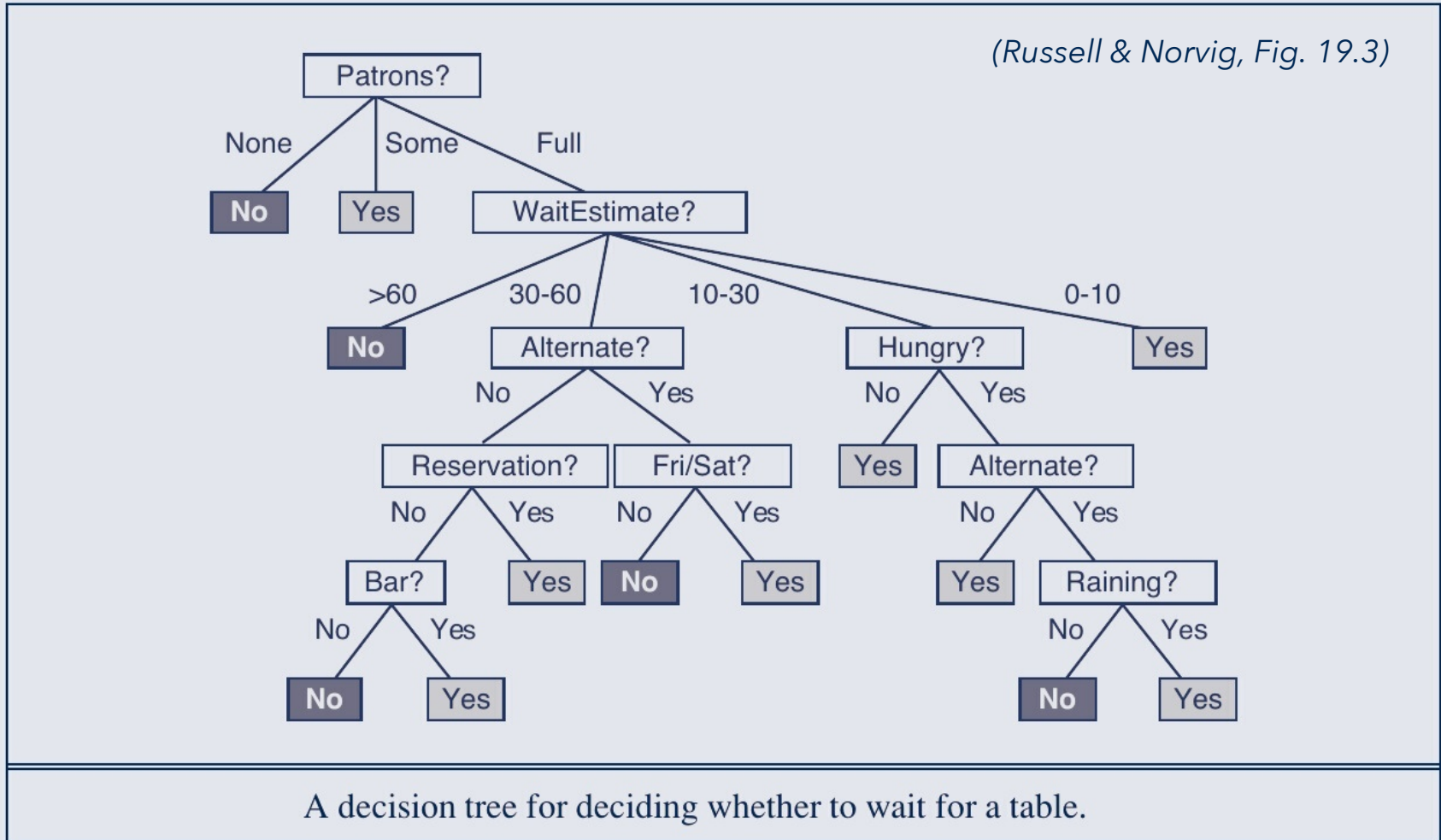
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There, the sum of all probabilities must add up to one:  $\sum_{\mathbf{r}} P(\mathbf{r}) = 1$ .

# Visualization of decision making

# Decision trees



# Decision trees with utility nodes<sup>1</sup>

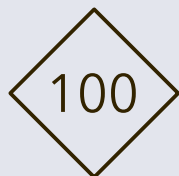
Barber<sup>1</sup> employs a more expressive notation for decision trees, where three kinds of elements can occur in any order from top to bottom:



rectangles represent **decisions (parameters)**



circles or ellipses represent **unknown quantities**



diamonds contain **contributions to utility**

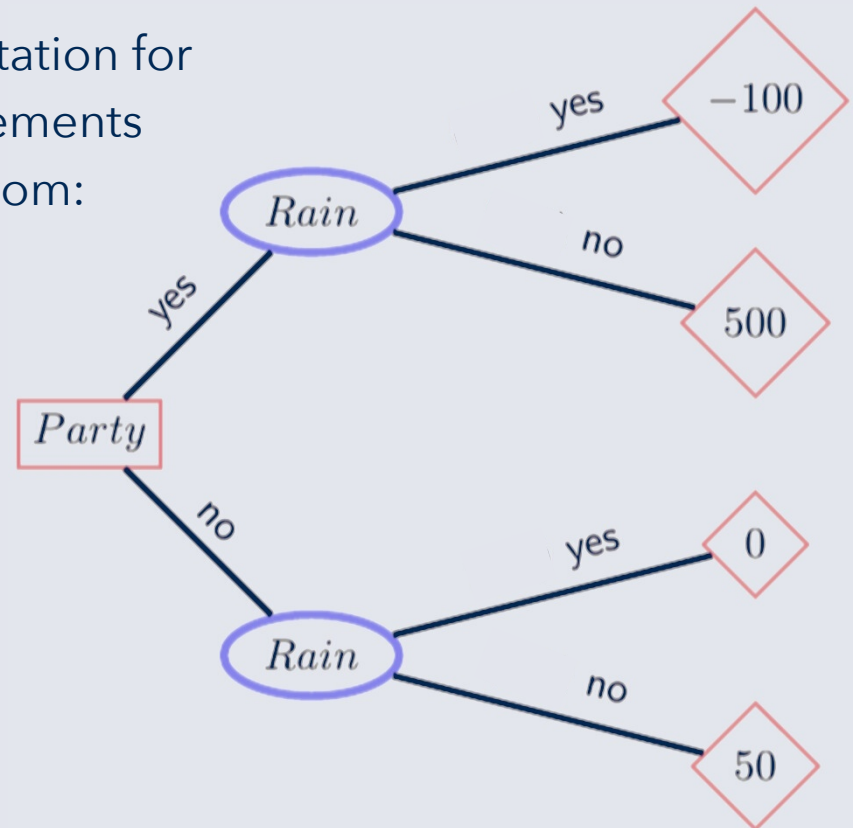


Figure 7.1: A decision tree containing chance nodes (denoted with ovals), decision nodes (denoted with rectangles) and utility nodes (denoted with diamonds).

<sup>1</sup>D. Barber, *Bayesian Reasoning and Machine Learning*, Cambridge Univ. Press, **2012**.



# Decision trees with random variables<sup>1</sup>

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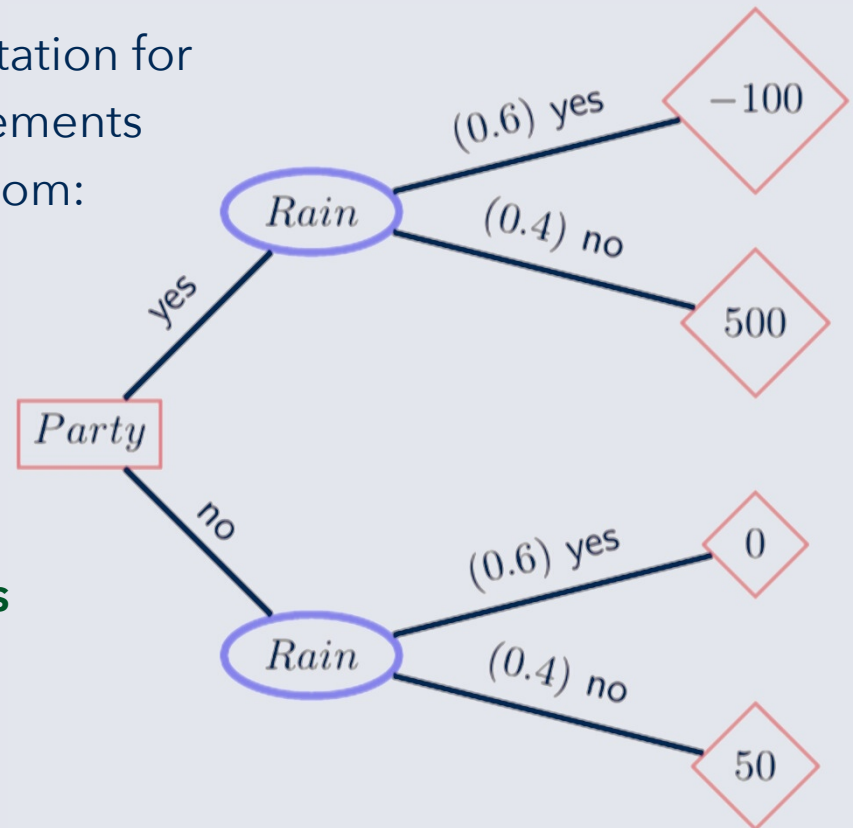


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# Decision trees with random variables<sup>1</sup>

Evaluation of the example decision tree:

If I go to the party, it will rain (60% chance) or not rain (40%); if it rains, utility is -100, otherwise 500. The **expected utility** is:

$$\text{yes} \leftarrow 0.6 \cdot (-100) + 0.4 \cdot 500 = 140.$$

If I do not go, it will rain (60% chance) or not rain (40%); if it rains, utility is 0, otherwise 50. The **expected utility** is:

$$\text{no} \leftarrow 0.6 \cdot 0 + 0.4 \cdot 50 = 20.$$

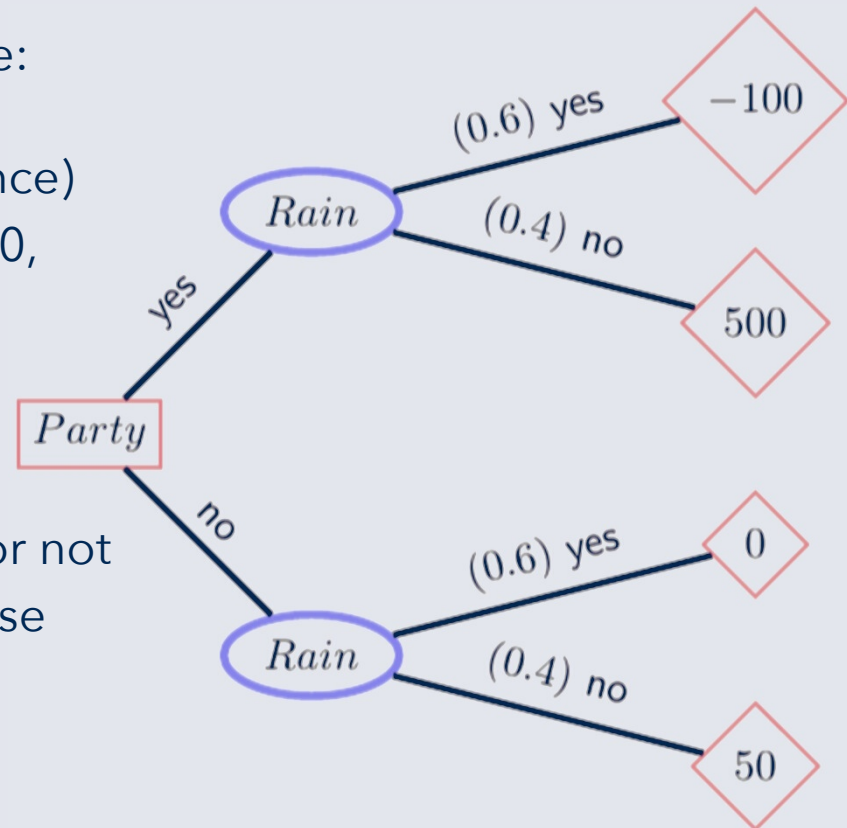


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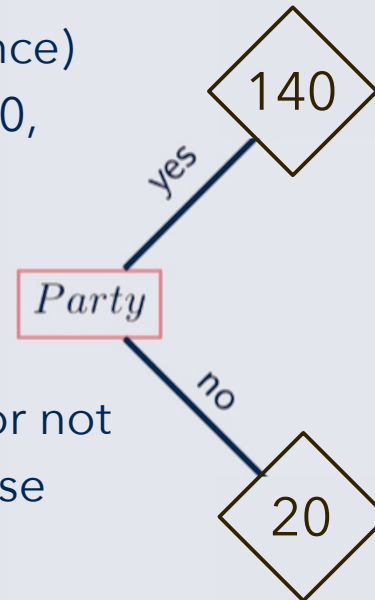
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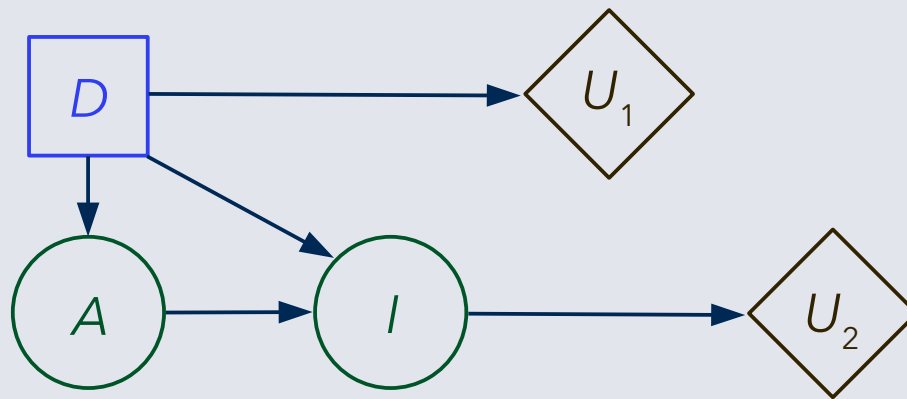
$$\text{no} \leftarrow 0.6 \cdot 0 + 0.4 \cdot 50 = 20.$$

Since utility must be maximized, I should go.

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# Influence diagrams

**Influence diagrams** (also: decision networks) visualize how different quantities are connected to each other in a decision-making process.



*(Example based on Barber, Fig. 7.6)*

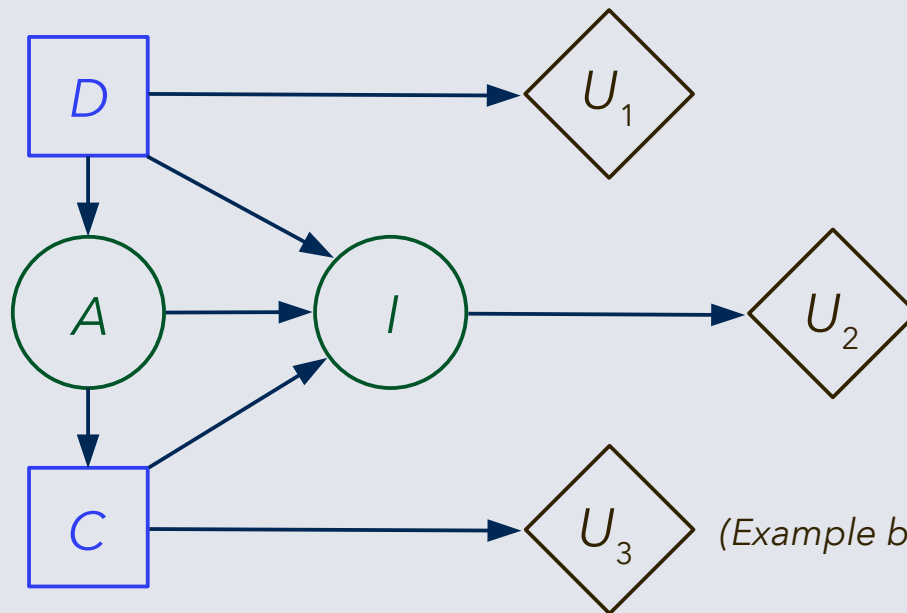
*D: Should I work on a doctorate?*

*A: Academic recognition measure  
I: Life income*

*U<sub>1</sub>, U<sub>2</sub>: Contributions to utility.*

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$D$ : Should I work on a doctorate?  
 $C$ : Should I found a consultancy?

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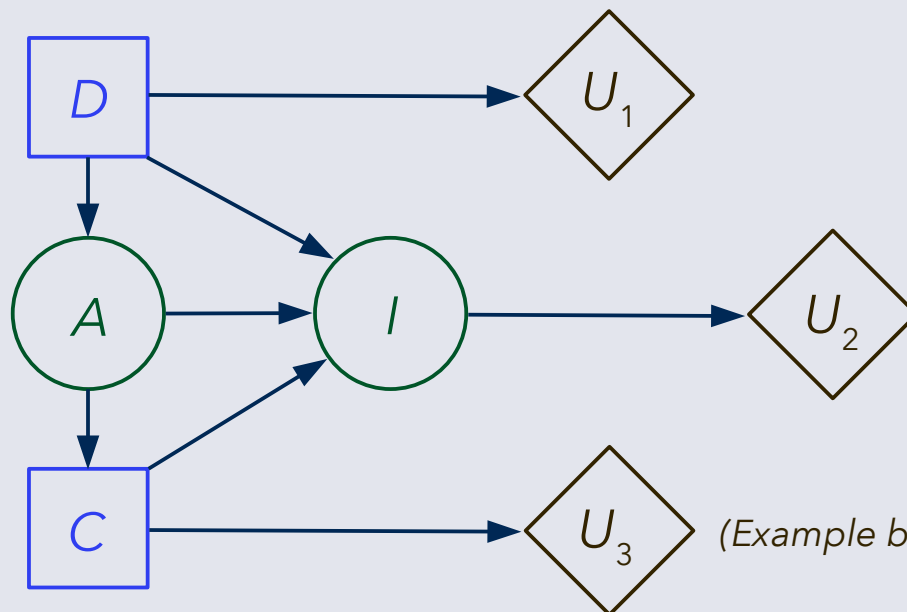
$U_1, U_2, U_3$ : Contributions to utility.

(Example based on Barber, Fig. 7.6)

Decision trees are only applicable to qualitative (discrete) decision making, such as yes/no choices. Influence diagrams are more general: They are also suitable for **quantitative decision making** based on continuous optimization.

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(Example based on Barber, Fig. 7.6)

**Observation:** Whereas a decision tree alone is enough to make a decision, **an influence diagram visualizes a process** by which quantities are evaluated. For the diagram to represent a valid process, it **must not contain any cycles**.



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