Artificial Intelligence CSE 4617

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Uncertain Outcomes



Recap: Probabilities

- Random variable → Event whose outcome is unknown
- Probability distribution → Assignment of weights to outcomes
- Example: Traffic on freeway
 - Random variable: T = whether there's traffic
 - Outcome: $T \in \{\text{none, light, heavy}\}$
 - Distribution: P(T = none) = 0.25, P(T = light) = 0.50, P(T = heavy) = 0.25
- Some laws of probability (more later):
 - Non-negative
 - Sum of probabilities over all possible outcomes: 1
- As we get more evidence, probabilities may change:
 - P(T = heavy) = 0.25, P(T = heavy|H = 8 a.m.) = 0.60



0.25



0.50



0.25

Recap: Expectations

- Expected value of a function of random variable
- Average, weighted by the probability distribution over outcomes



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Example: How long to get to the airport?

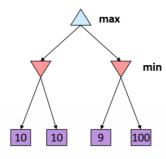
 Time:
 20 min
 30 min
 60 min

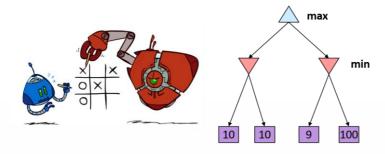
 Probability:
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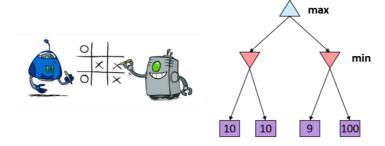


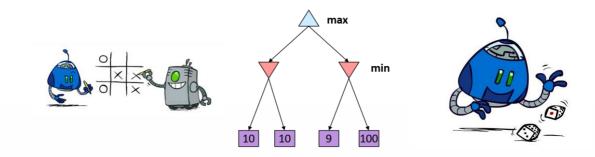




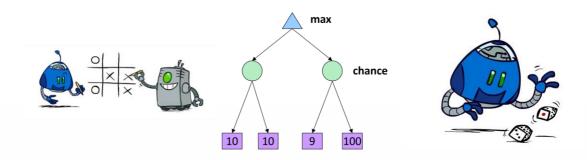






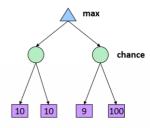


Idea: Uncertain outcomes controlled by chance, not an adversary!

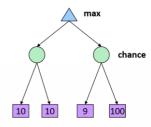


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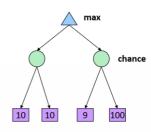
Why wouldn't we know what the result of an action will be?



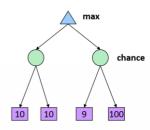
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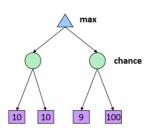
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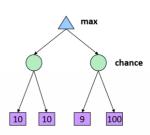
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- Values should now reflect average-case (expectimax) outcomes, not worst-case (minimax) outcome
- Compute the average score under optimal play
 - Max nodes as in minimax search
 - Chance nodes are like min nodes but the outcome is uncertain
 - Calculate their expected utilities
 i.e. take weighted average (expectation) of children



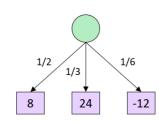
Expectimax Pseudocode

def value(state):

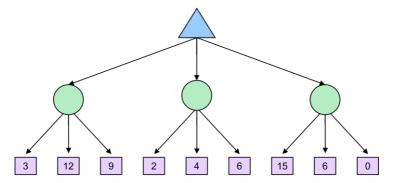
return v

Expectimax Pseudocode

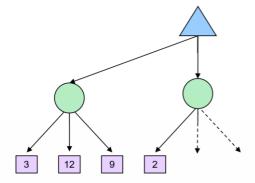
```
def exp-value(state):
initialize v = 0
for each successor of state:
p = probability(successor)
v += p \times value(successor)
return v
```



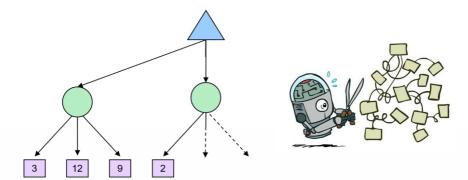
Expectimax Quiz



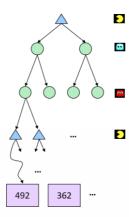
Expectimax Pruning?



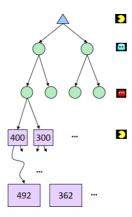
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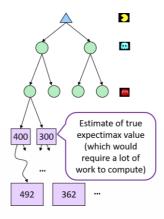
Depth-Limited Expectimax



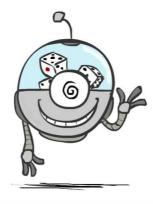
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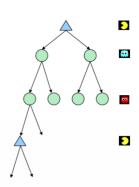


Probabilities



What Probabilities to Use?

- In expectimax search, we have a probabilistic model of how the opponent (or environment) will behave in any state
 - Model could be a simple uniform distribution (roll a die)
 - Model could be sophisticated and require a great deal of computation
 - We have a chance node for any outcome out of our control: opponent or environment
 - The model might say that adversarial actions are likely!
- For now, assume each chance node magically comes along with probabilities that specify the distribution over its outcomes



Having a probabilistic belief about another agent's action does not mean that the agent is flipping any coins!

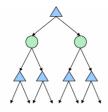
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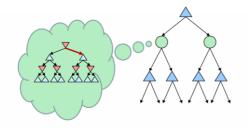
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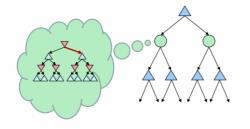
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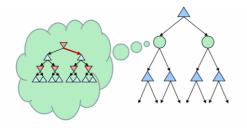
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- To figure out EACH chance node's probabilities, you have to run a simulation of your opponent
- This kind of things gets very slow very quickly
- Even worse if you have to simulate your opponent simulating you...
- ...except for minimax, which has the nice property that it all collapses into one game tree.

Modeling Assumptions



The Dangers of Optimism and Pessimism

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Dangerous Optimism
Assuming chance when the world is adversarial



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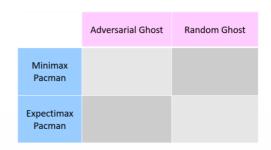


Dangerous Pessimism
Assuming the worst case when it's not likely



Assumptions vs. Reality

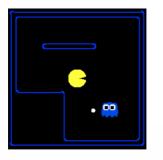




Pacman used depth 4 search with an eval function that avoids trouble Ghost used depth 2 search with an eval function that seeks Pacman

Videos: randGhostExpPac, advGhostMiniPac, miniGhostExpPac, randGhostMiniPac

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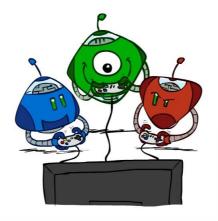
	Adversarial Ghost	Random Ghost
Minimax	Won 5/5	Won 5/5
Pacman	Avg. Score: 483	Avg. Score: 493
Expectimax	Won 1/5	Won 5/5
Pacman	Avg. Score: -303	Avg. Score: 503

Results from playing 5 games

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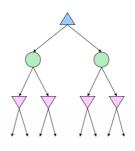
Other Game Types



Mixed Layer Types

- E.g. Backgammon
- Expectiminimax
 - Environment is an extra "random agent" player that moves after each min/max agent
 - Each node computes the appropriate combination of its children











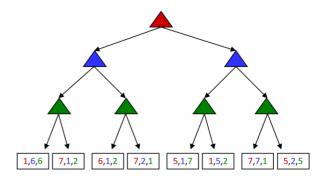
Example: Backgammon

- Dice rolls increase *b*: 21 possible rolls with 2 dice
 - Backgammon ≈ 20 legal moves
 - Depth 2 = $20 \times (21 \times 20)^3 = 1.2 \times 10^9$
- As depth increases, probability of reaching a given search node shrinks
 - Usefulness of search is diminished
 - Limiting depth is less damaging
 - Pruning is trickier...
- Historic AI: TDGammon uses depth-2 search + very good evaluation function + reinforcement learning: world-champion level play
- 1st AI world champion in any game!

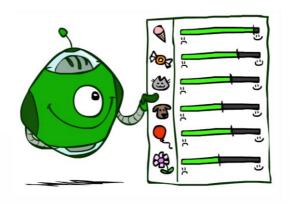


Multi-Agent Utilities

- What if the game is not zero-sum, or has multiple players?
- Generalization of minimax:
 - Terminals have utility tuples
 - Node values are also utility tuples
 - Each player maximizes its own component
 - Can give rise to cooperation and competition dynamically...



Utilities



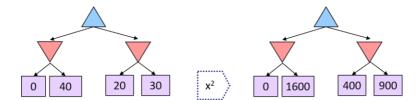
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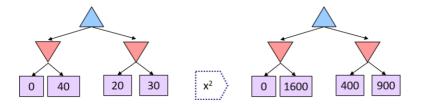
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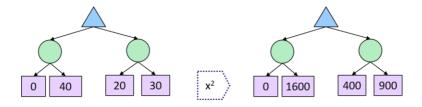
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 - A rational agent should chose the action that maximizes its expected utility, given its knowledge
- Questions:
 - Where do utilities come from?
 - How do we know such utilities even exist?
 - How do we know that averaging even makes sense?
 - What if our behavior (preferences) can't be described by utilities?

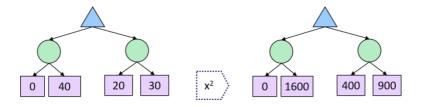




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- For average-case expectimax reasoning, we need *magnitudes* to be meaningful

Utilities (Revisited)

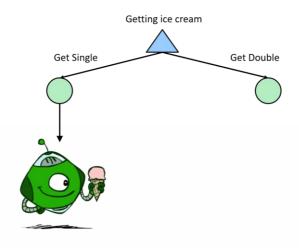
- Utilities are functions from outcomes (states of the world) to real numbers that describe an agent's preferences
- Where do utilities come from?
 - In a game, may be simple (+1/-1)
 - Utilities summarize the agent's goals
 - Theorem: any "rational" preferences can be summarized as a utility function

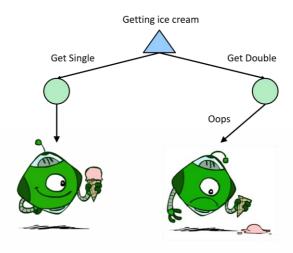


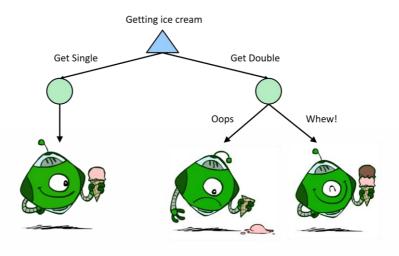










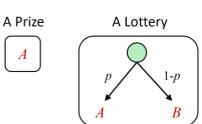


Preferences

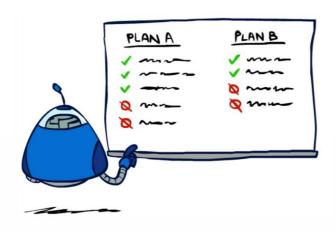
- An agent must have preferences among:
 - Prizes: *A*, *B*, etc.
 - Lotteries: Situations with uncertain prizes

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

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



Rationality



Rational Preferences

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

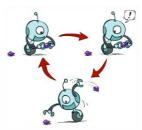
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Axiom of Transitivity:
$$(A > B) \land (B > C) \Rightarrow (A > C)$$

- 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



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 $A > B \Rightarrow (p \ge q \Leftrightarrow [p,A;1-p,B] \ge [q,A;1-q,B])$



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:

$$U(A) \ge U(B) \Leftrightarrow A \ge B$$

 $U([p_1, S_1; \dots; p_n, S_n]) = \sum_i p_i U(S_i)$

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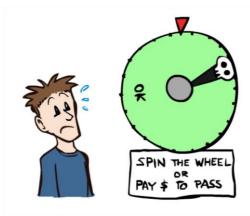
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- Choose the action that maximizes expected utility
- Note: an agent can be entirely rational (consistent with MEU) without ever representing or manipulating utilities and probabilities
- E.g., a lookup table for perfect tic-tac-toe, a reflex vacuum cleaner



Human Utilities



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$$U'(x) = k_1 U(x) + k_2 \text{ where } k_1 > 0$$



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- Note: behavior is invariant under positive linear transformation
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- With deterministic prizes only (no lottery choices), only ordinal utility can be determined, i.e., total order on prizes



Utilities map states to real numbers



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- Standard approach to assessment (elicitation) of human utilities:
 - Compare a prize A to a standard lottery L_p between
 - best possible prize" u_+ with probability p
 - "worst possible catastrophe" u_- with probability 1 p
 - Adjust lottery probability p until indifference: $A \sim L_p$
 - Resulting p is a utility in [0,1]



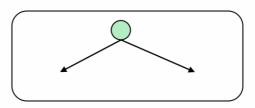
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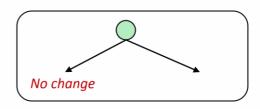




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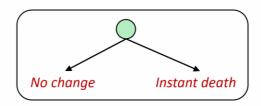




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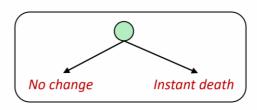




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- Given a lottery L = [p, \$X; (1 p), \$Y]
 - The expected monetary value EMV (L) is p × X + (1 - p) × Y
 - $U(L) = p \times U(\$X) + (1 p) \times U(\$Y)$
 - Typically, U(L) < EMV(L)



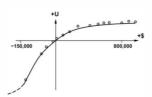
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- People are risk-averse
- When deep in debt, people are risk-prone



- 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) is
 p × X + (1 p) × Y
 - $U(L) = p \times U(\$X) + (1 p) \times U(\$Y)$
 - Typically, U(L) < U(EMV(L))
- People are risk-averse
- When deep in debt, people are risk-prone





Suggested Reading

Russell & Norvig: Chapter 5.2-5.5, 16.1-16.3