# Utility Theory [RN2] Sect 16.1-16.3 [RN3] Sect 16.1-16.3

CS 486/686
University of Waterloo
Lecture 9: May 29, 2017

#### Outline

- Decision making
  - Utility Theory
  - Decision Trees
- Chapter 16 in R&N
  - Note: Some of the material we are covering today is not in the textbook

## Decision Making under Uncertainty

- I give a planning problem to a robot: I want coffee
  - but coffee maker is broken: robot reports "No plan!"
- If I want more robust behavior if I want robot to know what to do when my primary goal can't be satisfied - I should provide it with some indication of my preferences over alternatives
  - e.g., coffee better than tea, tea better than water, water better than nothing, etc.

## Decision Making under Uncertainty

- But it's more complex:
  - it could wait 45 minutes for coffee maker to be fixed
  - what's better: tea now? coffee in 45 minutes?
  - could express preferences for <beverage, time> pairs

#### Preferences

- A preference ordering ≥ is a ranking of all possible states of affairs (worlds) S
  - these could be outcomes of actions, truth assignments, states in a search problem, etc.
  - $s \ge t$ : means that state s is at least as good as t
  - s > t: means that state s is strictly preferred to t
  - s ~ t: means that the agent is *indifferent* between states s and t

#### Preferences

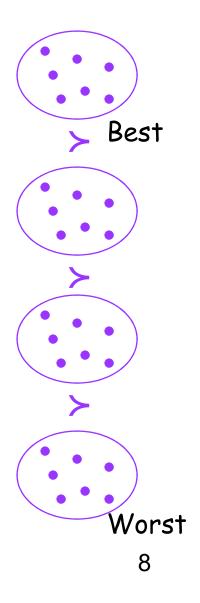
- If an agent's actions are deterministic then we know what states will occur
- If an agent's actions are not deterministic then we represent this by lotteries
  - Probability distribution over outcomes
  - Lottery L=[ $p_1,s_1;p_2,s_2;...;p_n,s_n$ ]
  - $s_1$  occurs with prob  $p_1$ ,  $s_2$  occurs with prob  $p_2$ ,...

#### Axioms

- · Orderability: Given 2 states A and B
  - $(A > B) \vee (B > A) \vee (A \sim B)$
- Transitivity: Given 3 states, A, B, and C
  - $(A > B) \land (B > C) \Rightarrow (A > C)$
- · Continuity:
  - $A \succ B \succ C \Rightarrow \exists p [p,A;1-p,C] \sim B$
- Substitutability:
  - $A \sim B \rightarrow [p,A;1-p,C] \sim [p,B;1-p,C]$
- Monotonicity:
  - $A > B \Rightarrow (p \ge q \Leftrightarrow [p,A;1-p,B] \ge [q,A;1-q,B])$
- Decomposibility:
  - $[p,A;1-p,[q,B;1-q,C]] \sim [p,A;(1-p)q,B;(1-p)(1-q),C]$

## Why Impose These Conditions?

- Structure of preference ordering imposes certain "rationality requirements" (it is a weak ordering)
- E.g., why transitivity?
  - Suppose you (strictly) prefer coffee to tea, tea to OJ, OJ to coffee
  - If you prefer X to Y, you'll trade me
     Y plus \$1 for X
  - I can construct a "money pump" and extract arbitrary amounts of money from you



## Decision Problems: Certainty

- A decision problem under certainty is:
  - a set of decisions D
    - · e.g., paths in search graph, plans, actions, etc.
  - a set of outcomes or states S
    - e.g., states you could reach by executing a plan
  - an outcome function  $f: D \rightarrow S$ 
    - · the outcome of any decision
  - a preference ordering ≥ over S
- A solution to a decision problem is any  $d^* \in D$  such that  $f(d^*) \ge f(d)$  for all  $d \in D$

### Decision Making under Uncertainty



- Suppose actions don't have deterministic outcomes
  - e.g., when robot pours coffee, it spills 20% of time, making a mess
  - preferences: c, ~mess > ~c,~mess > ~c, mess
- What should robot do?
  - decision getcoffee leads to a good outcome and a bad outcome with some probability
  - decision donothing leads to a medium outcome for sure
- Should robot be optimistic? pessimistic?
- · Really odds of success should influence decision
  - but how?

#### Utilities

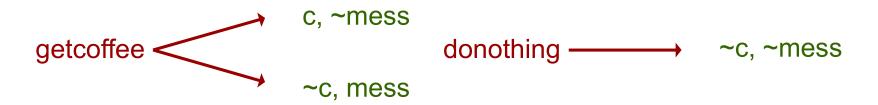
- Rather than just ranking outcomes, we must quantify our degree of preference
  - e.g., how much more important is c than ~mess
- A utility function U:S  $\to \mathbb{R}$  associates a real-valued utility with each outcome.
  - U(s) measures your degree of preference for s
- Note: U induces a preference ordering  $\geq_U$  over S defined as:  $s \geq_U t$  iff  $U(s) \geq U(t)$ 
  - obviously ≽∪ will be reflexive, transitive, connected

# Expected Utility

- Under conditions of uncertainty, each decision d induces a distribution Pr<sub>d</sub> over possible outcomes
  - $Pr_d(s)$  is probability of outcome s under decision d
- The expected utility of decision d is defined

$$EU(d) = \sum_{s \in S} \Pr_d(s)U(s)$$

# Expected Utility



When robot pours coffee, it spills 20% of time, making a mess

If 
$$U(c,\sim ms) = 10$$
,  $U(\sim c,\sim ms) = 5$ ,  $U(\sim c,ms) = 0$ ,  
then  $EU(getcoffee) = (0.8)(10)+(0.2)(0)=8$   
and  $EU(donothing) = 5$ 

If 
$$U(c,\sim ms) = 10$$
,  $U(\sim c,\sim ms) = 9$ ,  $U(\sim c,ms) = 0$ ,  
then  $EU(getcoffee) = (0.8)(10)+(0.2)(0)=8$   
and  $EU(donothing) = 9$ 

# The MEU Principle

 The principle of maximum expected utility (MEU) states that the optimal decision under conditions of uncertainty is that with the greatest expected utility.

- In our example
  - if my utility function is the first one, my robot should get coffee
  - if your utility function is the second one, your robot should do nothing

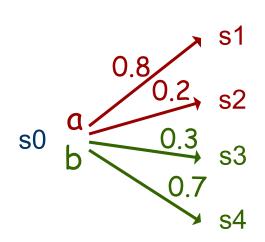
## Decision Problems: Uncertainty

- A decision problem under uncertainty is:
  - a set of decisions D
  - a set of outcomes or states S
  - an outcome function  $Pr: D \rightarrow \Delta(S)$ 
    - $\Delta(S)$  is the set of distributions over S (e.g.,  $Pr_d$ )
  - a utility function U over S
- A solution to a decision problem under uncertainty is any d\*∈ D such that EU(d\*) > EU(d) for all d∈D
- Again, for single-shot problems, this is trivial

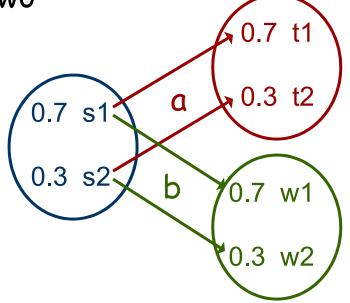
# Expected Utility: Notes

- · Note that this viewpoint accounts for both:
  - uncertainty in action outcomes
  - uncertainty in state of knowledge

- any combination of the two



Stochastic actions



Uncertain knowledge

# Expected Utility: Notes

- · Why MEU? Where do utilities come from?
  - underlying foundations of utility theory tightly couple utility with action/choice
  - a utility function can be determined by asking someone about their preferences for actions in specific scenarios (or "lotteries" over outcomes)
- Utility functions needn't be unique
  - if I multiply U by a positive constant, all decisions have same relative utility
  - if I add a constant to U, same thing
  - U is unique up to positive affine transformation

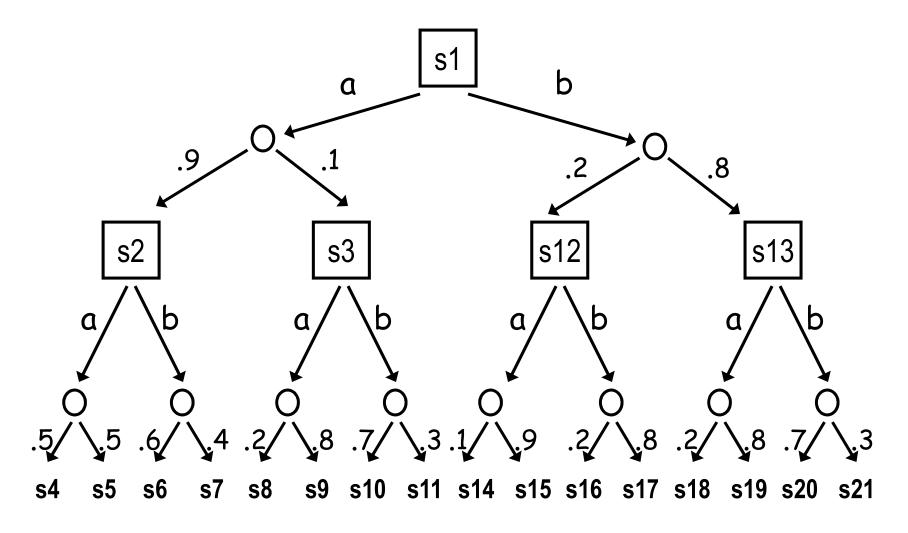
## So What are the Complications?

- Outcome space is large
  - like all of our problems, states spaces can be huge
  - don't want to spell out distributions like Prd explicitly
  - Soln: Bayes nets (or related: influence diagrams)
- Decision space is large
  - usually our decisions are not one-shot actions
  - rather they involve sequential choices (like plans)
  - if we treat each plan as a distinct decision, decision space is too large to handle directly
  - Soln: use dynamic programming methods to construct optimal plans (actually generalizations of plans, called policies... like in game trees)

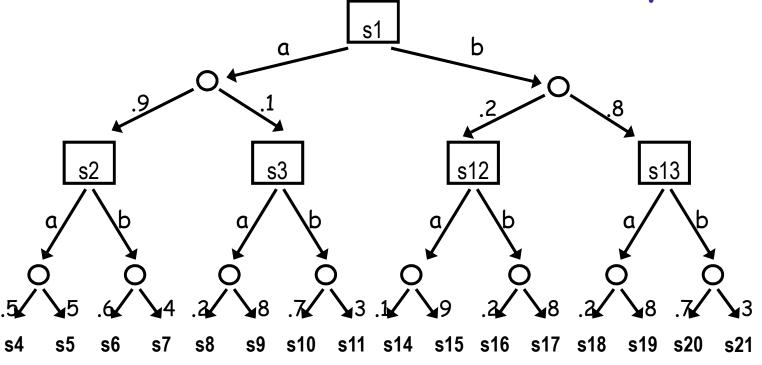
# A Simple Example

- Suppose we have two actions: a, b
- · We have time to execute two actions in sequence
- This means we can do either:
  - [a,a], [a,b], [b,a], [b,b]
- Actions are stochastic: action a induces distribution  $Pr_a(s_i \mid s_j)$  over states
  - e.g.,  $Pr_a(s_2 \mid s_1) = .9$  means prob. of moving to state  $s_2$  when a is performed at  $s_1$  is .9
  - similar distribution for action b
- · How good is a particular sequence of actions?

#### Distributions for Action Sequences



Distributions for Action Sequences

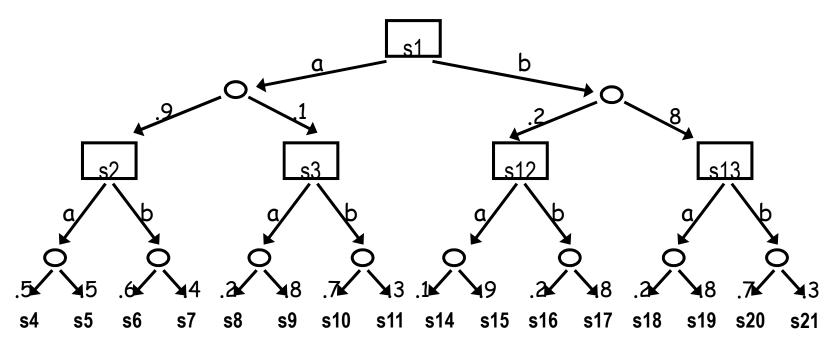


- Sequence [a,a] gives distribution over "final states"
  - Pr(s4) = .45, Pr(s5) = .45, Pr(s8) = .02, Pr(s9) = .08
- Similarly:
  - [a,b]: Pr(s6) = .54, Pr(s7) = .36, Pr(s10) = .07, Pr(s11) = .03
  - and similar distributions for sequences [b,a] and [b,b]

## How Good is a Sequence?

- We associate utilities with the "final" outcomes
  - how good is it to end up at s4, s5, s6, ...
  - note: we could assign utilities to the intermediate states s2, s3, s12, and s13 also. We ignore this for now. Technically, think of utility u(s4) as utility of entire trajectory or sequence of states we pass through.
- Now we have:
  - EU(aa) = .45u(s4) + .45u(s5) + .02u(s8) + .08u(s9)
  - EU(ab) = .54u(s6) + .36u(s7) + .07u(s10) + .03u(s11)
  - etc...

## Why Sequences might be bad



- Suppose we do a first; we could reach s2 or s3:
  - At s2, assume: EU(a) = .5u(s4) + .5u(s5) > EU(b) = .6u(s6) + .4u(s7)
  - At s3: EU(a) = .2u(s8) + .8u(s9) < EU(b) = .7u(s10) + .3u(s11)
- After doing a first, we want to do a next if we reach s2, but we want to do b second if we reach s3

#### Policies

- This suggests that we want to consider policies, not sequences of actions (plans)
- We have eight policies for this decision tree:

```
[a; if s2 a, if s3 a] [b; if s12 a, if s13 a]
[a; if s2 a, if s3 b] [b; if s12 a, if s13 b]
[a; if s2 b, if s3 a] [b; if s12 b, if s13 a]
[a; if s2 b, if s3 b] [b; if s12 b, if s13 b]
```

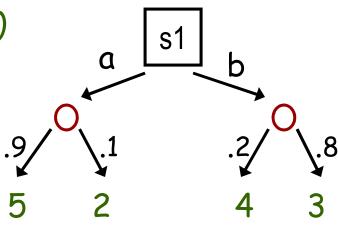
- Contrast this with four "plans"
  - [a; a], [a; b], [b; a], [b; b]
  - note: we can only *gain* by allowing decision maker to use policies

# Evaluating Policies

- Number of plans (sequences) of length k
  - exponential in k:  $|A|^k$  if A is our action set
- Number of policies is even much larger
  - if we have n=|A| actions and m=|O| outcomes per action, then we have  $(nm)^k$  policies
- Fortunately, dynamic programming can be used
  - e.g., suppose EU(a) > EU(b) at s2
  - never consider a policy that does anything else at s2
- How to do this?
  - back values up the tree

#### Decision Trees

- · Squares denote choice nodes
  - these denote action choices by decision maker (decision nodes)
- · Circles denote chance nodes
  - these denote uncertainty regarding action effects
  - "nature" will choose the child with specified probability
- Terminal nodes labeled with utilities
  - denote utility of "trajectory"
     (branch) to decision maker



# Evaluating Decision Trees

- Back values up the tree
  - U(t) is defined for all terminals (part of input)
  - U(n) = expectation  $\{U(c) : c \text{ a child of } n\}$  if n is a chance node
  - $U(n) = \max \{U(c) : c \text{ a child of } n\} \text{ if } n \text{ is a choice node}$
- At any choice node (state), the decision maker chooses action that leads to highest utility child

# Evaluating a Decision Tree

• 
$$U(n3) = .9*5 + .1*2$$

• 
$$U(n4) = .8*3 + .2*4$$

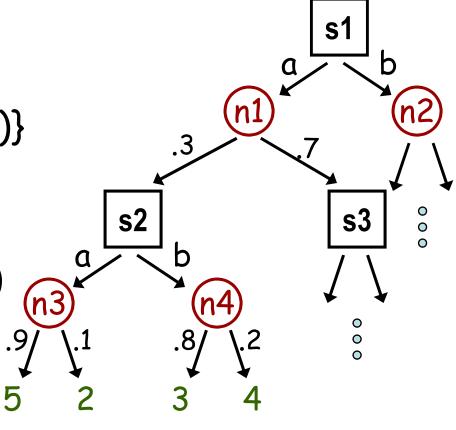
• 
$$U(s2) = max\{U(n3), U(n4)\}$$

decision a or b(whichever is max)

• 
$$U(n1) = .3U(s2) + .7U(s3)$$

• 
$$U(s1) = max\{U(n1), U(n2)\}$$

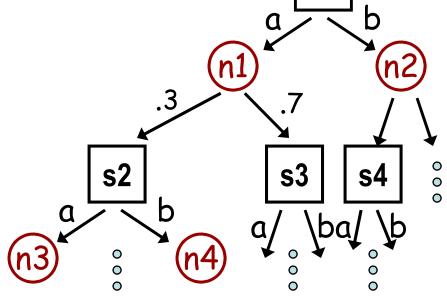
- decision: max of a, b



## Decision Tree Policies

 Note that we don't just compute values, but policies for the tree

 A policy assigns a decision to each choice node in tree



- Some policies can't be distinguished in terms of there expected values
  - e.g., if policy chooses a at node s1, choice at s4 doesn't matter because it won't be reached
  - Two policies are *implementationally indistinguishable* if they disagree only at unreachable decision nodes
    - reachability is determined by policy themselves

## Computational Issues

- Savings compared to explicit policy evaluation is substantial
- Evaluate only  $O((nm)^d)$  nodes in tree of depth d
  - total computational cost is thus  $O((nm)^d)$
- Note that there are (nm)<sup>d</sup> policies and
  - evaluating a single policy explicitly requires substantial computation:  $O(m^d)$
  - total computation for explicitly evaluating each policy would be  $O(n^d m^{2d})$ !!!
- Tremendous value to dynamic programming solution

## Computational Issues

- · Tree size: grows exponentially with depth
- Possible solution:
  - heuristic search procedures (like A\*)
- Full observability: we must know the initial state and outcome of each action
- Possible solutions:
  - handcrafted decision trees for certain initial state uncertainty
  - more general policies based on observations

#### Other Issues

- Specification: suppose each state is an assignment to variables; then representing action probability distributions is complex (and branching factor could be immense)
- · Possible solutions:
  - represent distribution using Bayes nets
  - solve problems using decision networks (or influence diagrams)