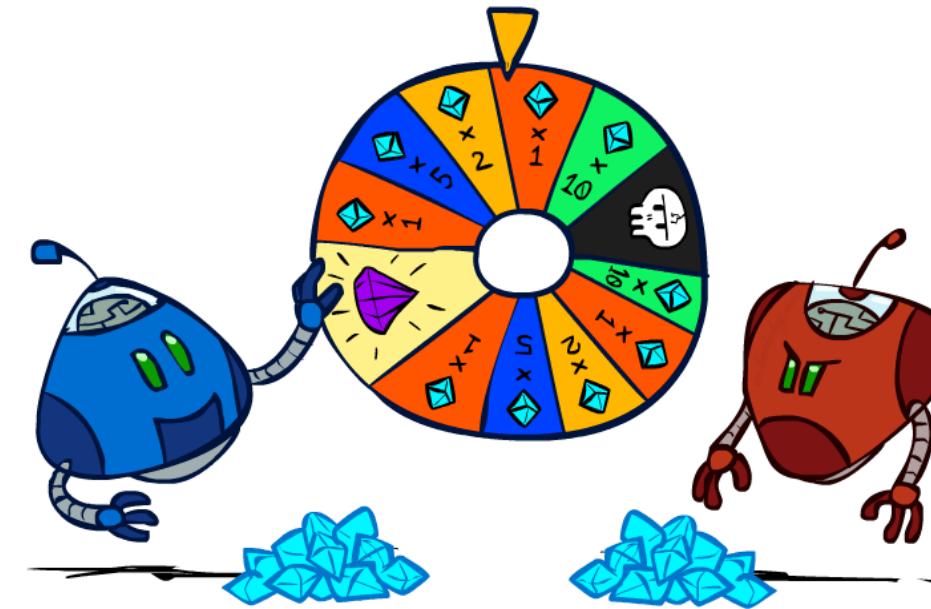


Artificial Intelligence



Adversarial Search with Uncertainty

CS 444 – Spring 2021

Dr. Kevin Molloy

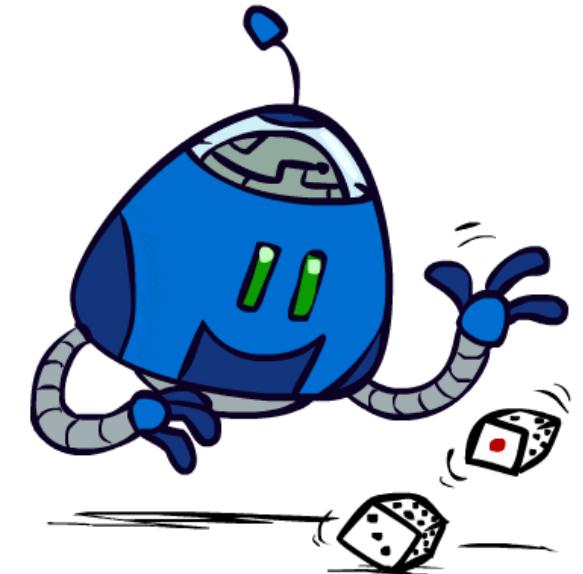
Department of Computer Science

James Madison University

Much of this lecture is taken from
Dan Klein and Pieter Abbeel AI class at UC Berkeley

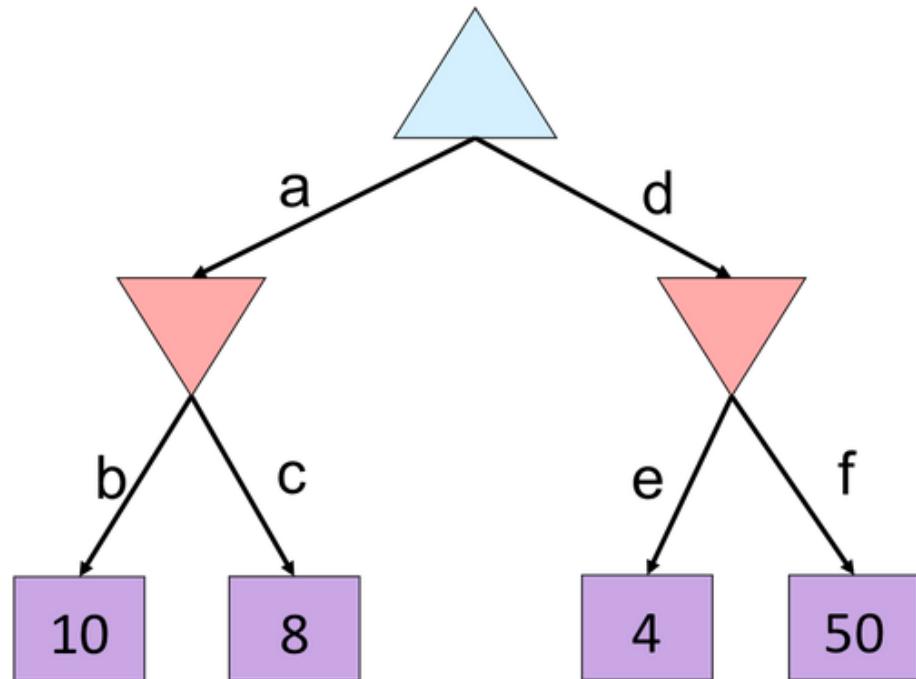
Today

Expand search to address games with uncertain outcomes.



Alpha Beta Quiz

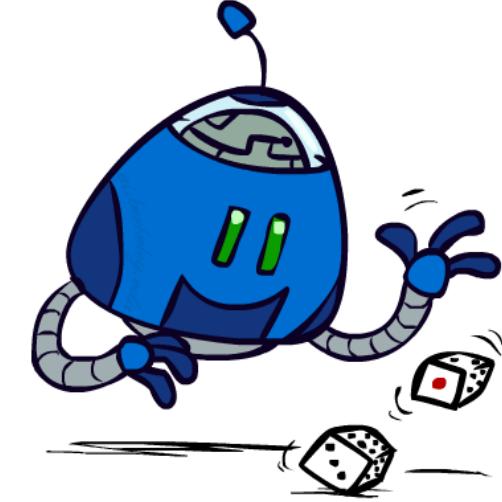
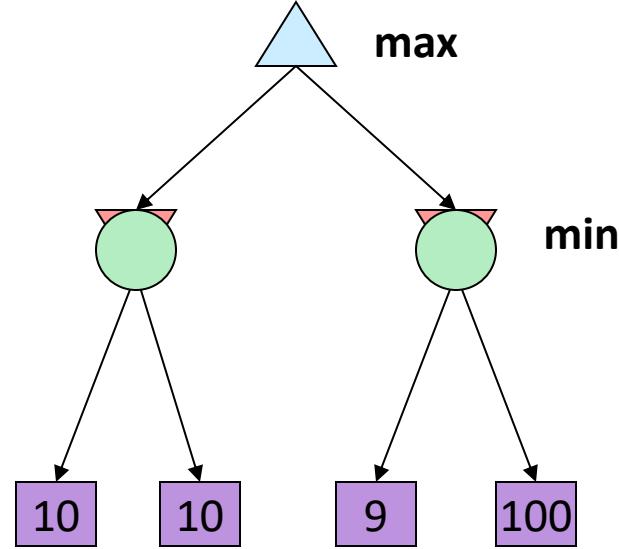
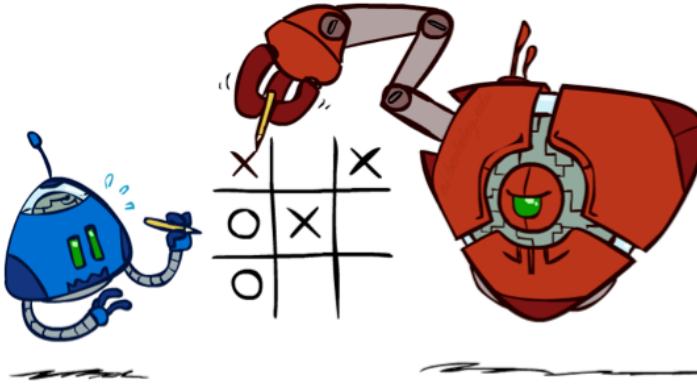
```
alpha= -np.inf  
beta = np.inf  
best_action = None  
for a in game.actions(state):  
    v = min_value(game.result(state, a), alpha, beta)  
    if v > alpha:  
        alpha = v  
        best_action = a  
return best_action
```



```
def max_value(state, alpha, beta):  
    if game.terminal_test(state):  
        return game.utility(state, player)  
    v = -np.inf  
    for a in game.actions(state):  
        v = max(v, min_value(game.result(state, a), alpha, beta))  
        if v >= beta:  
            return v  
        alpha = max(alpha, v)  
    return v
```

```
def min_value(state, alpha, beta):  
    if game.terminal_test(state):  
        return game.utility(state, player)  
    v = np.inf  
    for a in game.actions(state):  
        v = min(v, max_value(game.result(state, a), alpha, beta))  
        if v <= alpha:  
            return v  
        beta = min(beta, v)  
    return v
```

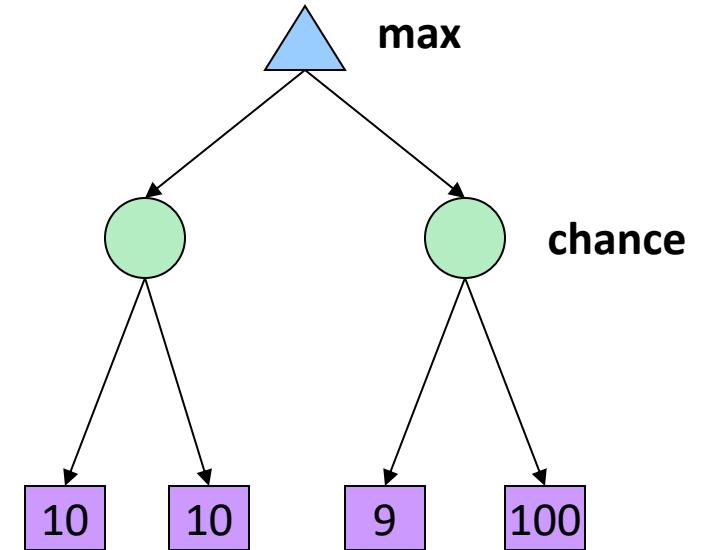
Worst-Case vs. Average Case



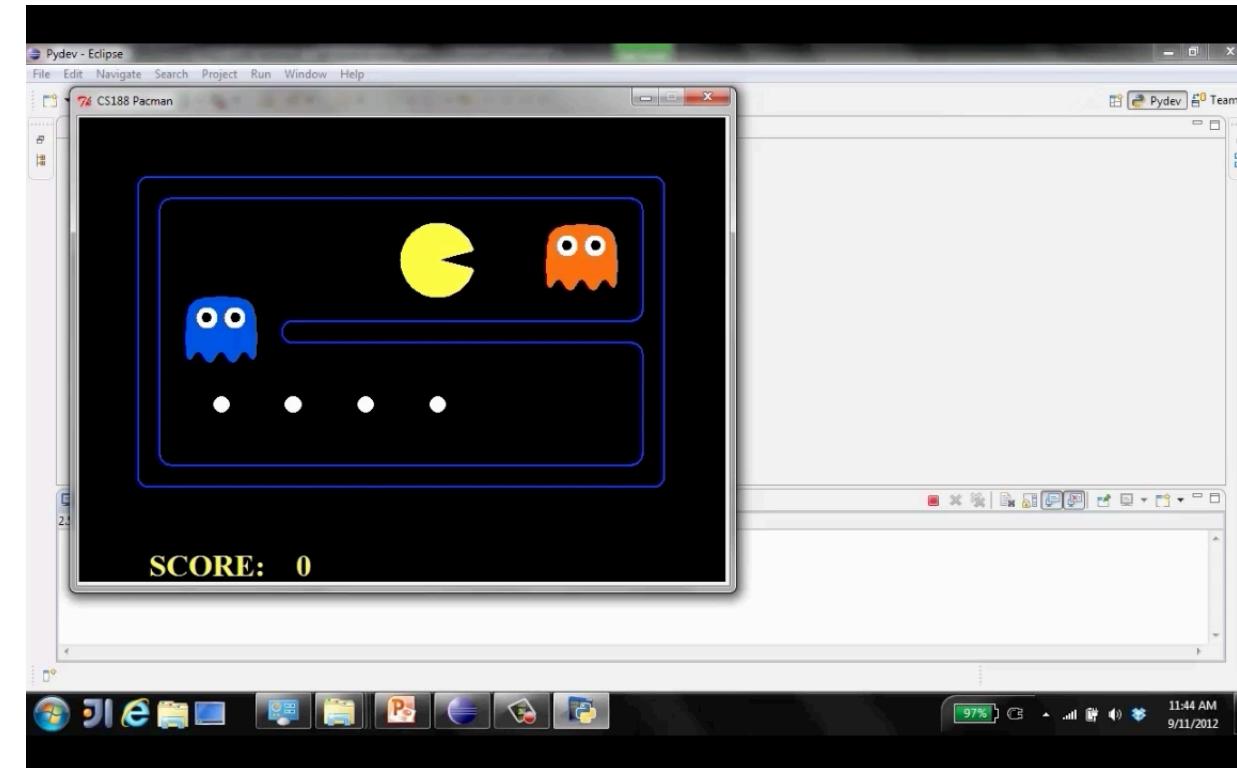
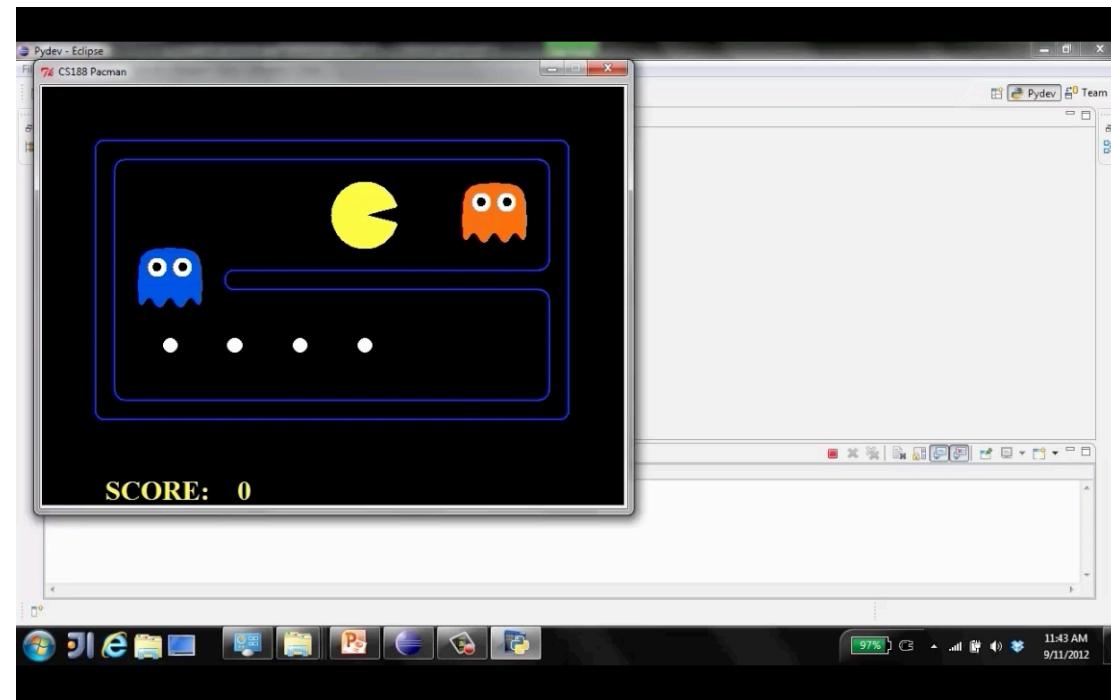
Idea: Uncertain outcomes controlled by chance, not an adversary!

Expectimax Search

- Why wouldn't we know what the result of an action will be?
 - Explicit randomness: rolling dice
 - Unpredictable opponents: the ghosts respond randomly
 - Actions can fail: when moving a robot, wheels might slip
- Values should now reflect average-case (expectimax) outcomes, not worst-case (minimax) outcomes
- **Expectimax search:** 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
- Later, we'll learn how to formalize the underlying uncertain-result problems as **Markov Decision Processes**



Video of Minimax vs Expectimax



Expectimax Pseudocode

```
def value(state):
```

 if the state is a terminal state: return the state's utility

 if the next agent is MAX: return max-value(state)

 if the next agent is EXP: return exp-value(state)

```
def max-value(state):
```

 initialize $v = -\infty$

 for each successor of state:

$v = \max(v, \text{value}(\text{successor}))$

 return v

```
def exp-value(state):
```

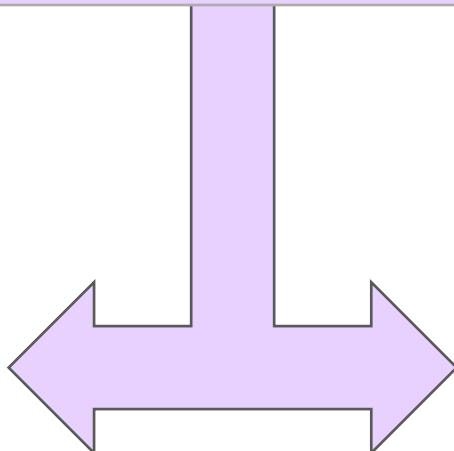
 initialize $v = 0$

 for each successor of state:

$p = \text{probability}(\text{successor})$

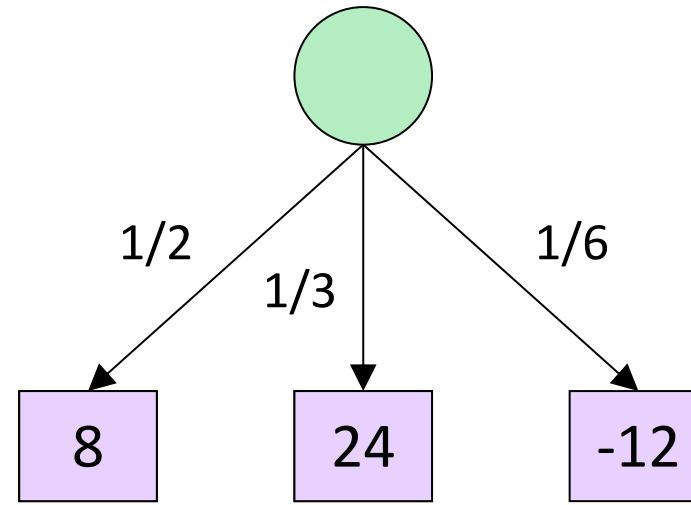
$v += p * \text{value}(\text{successor})$

 return v



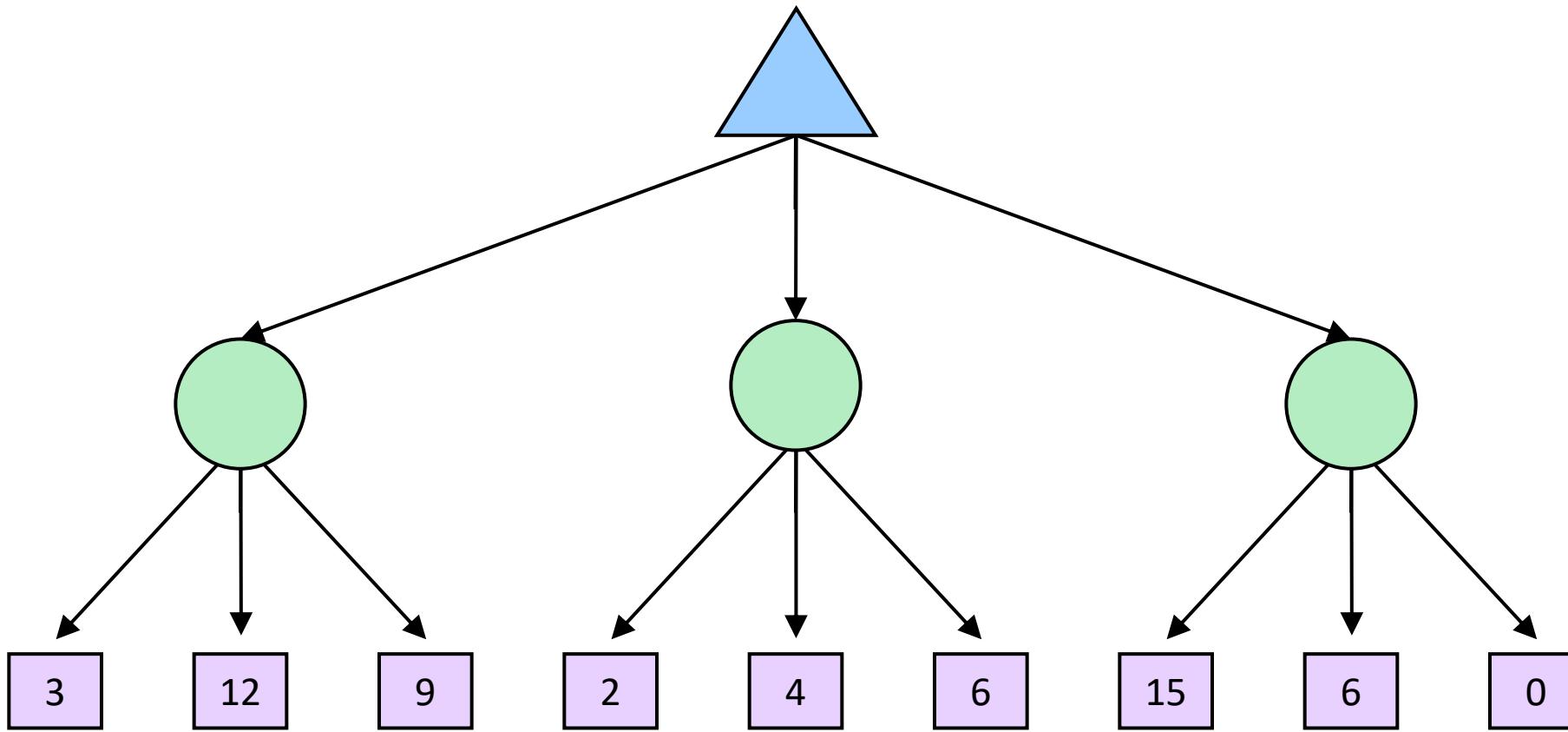
Expectimax Pseudocode

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

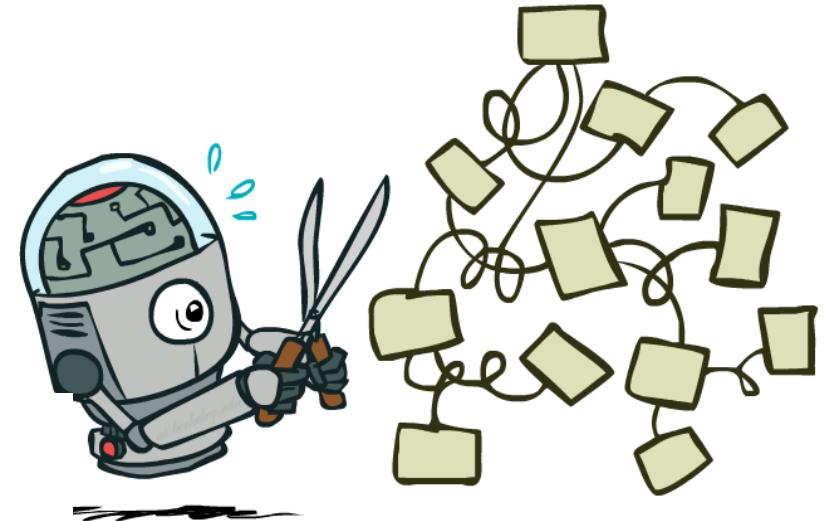
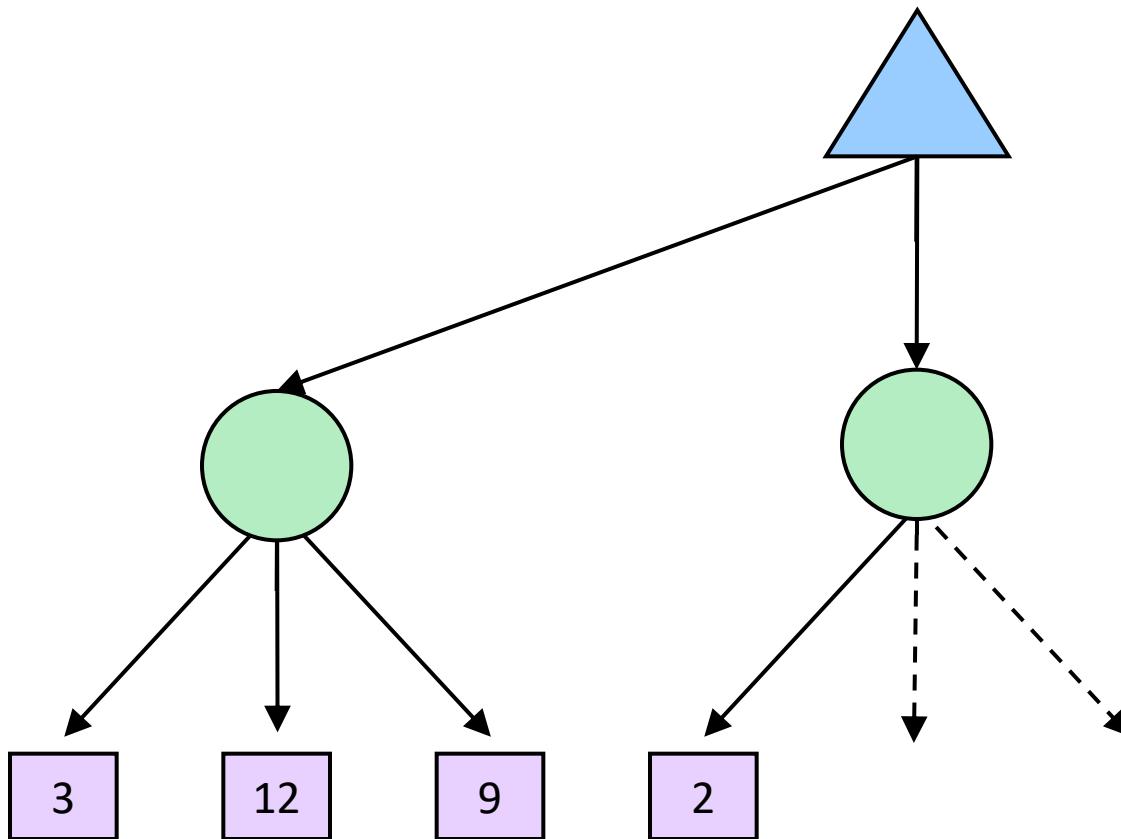


$$v = (1/2)(8) + (1/3)(24) + (1/6)(-12) = 10$$

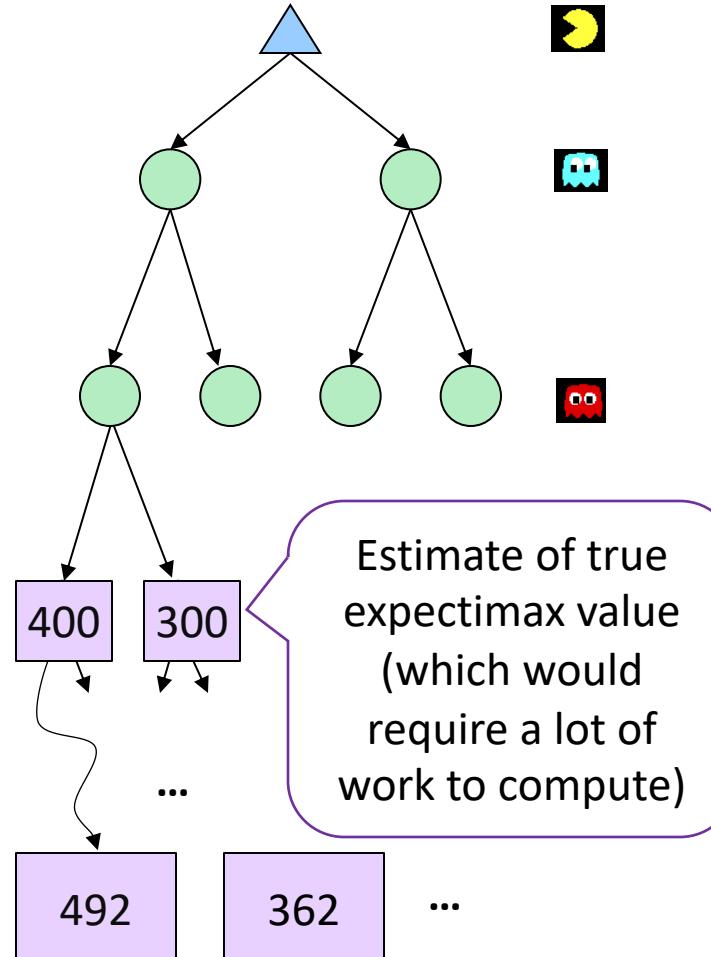
Expectimax Example



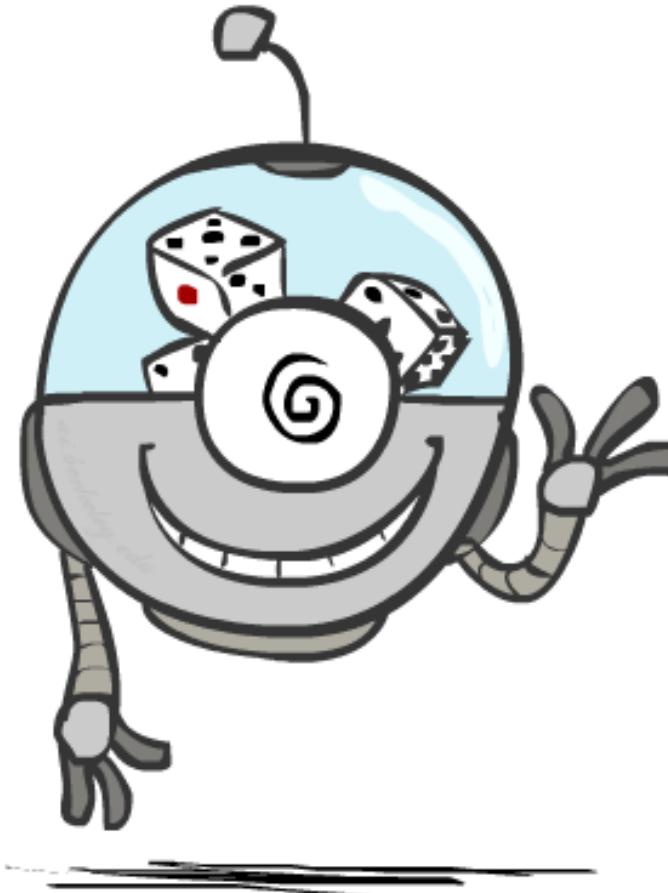
Expectimax Pruning?



Depth-Limited Expectimax



Probabilities



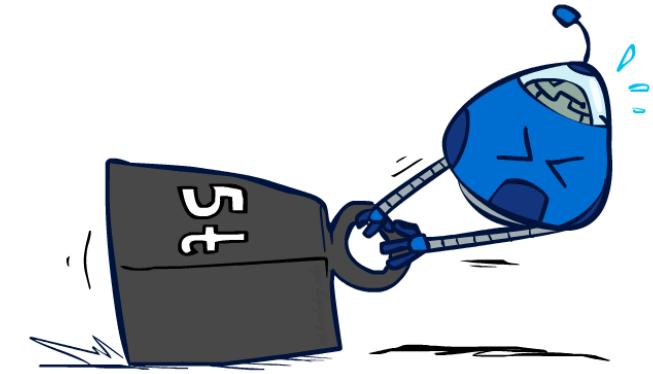
Probability Review

- A **random variable** represents an event whose outcome is unknown
- A **probability distribution** is an assignment of weights to outcomes
- Example: Traffic on freeway
 - Random variable: T = whether there's traffic
 - Outcomes: $T \in \{\text{none}, \text{light}, \text{heavy}\}$
 - Distribution: $P(T=\text{none}) = 0.25$, $P(T=\text{light}) = 0.50$, $P(T=\text{heavy}) = 0.25$
- Some laws of probability (more later):
 - Probabilities are always non-negative
 - Probabilities over all possible outcomes sum to one
- As we get more evidence, probabilities may change:
 - $P(T=\text{heavy}) = 0.25$, $P(T=\text{heavy} \mid \text{Hour}=8\text{am}) = 0.60$
 - We'll talk about methods for reasoning and updating probabilities later

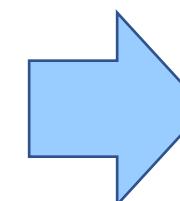


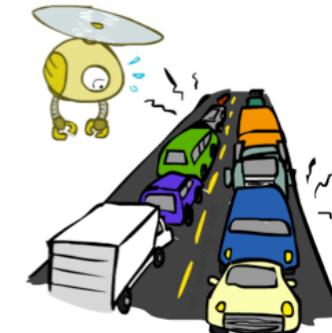
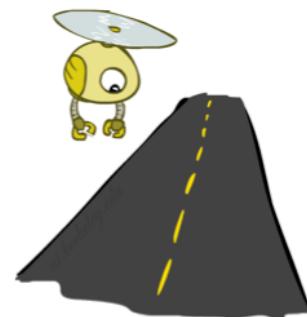
Expectations Review

- The expected value of a function of a random variable is the average, weighted by the probability distribution over outcomes
- Example: How long to get to the airport?



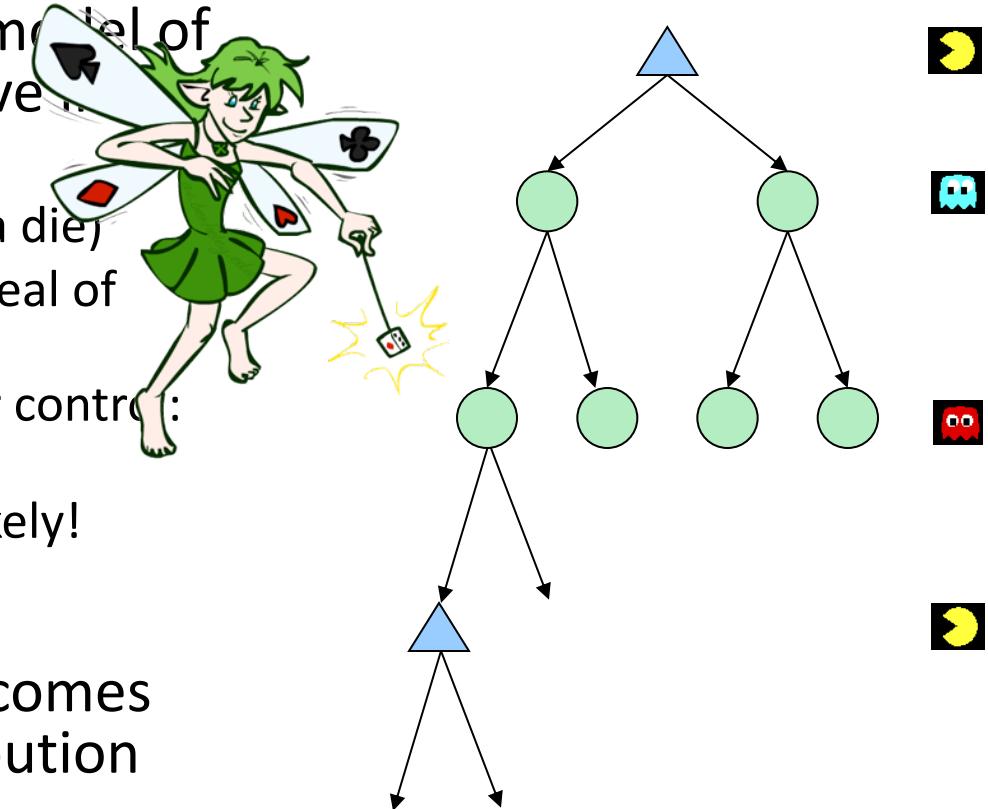
Time:	20 min	x	+	30 min	x	+	60 min	x	35 min
Probability:	0.25			0.50			0.25		





What Probabilities to Use?

- In expectimax search, we have a probabilistic model of how the opponent (or environment) will behave in 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

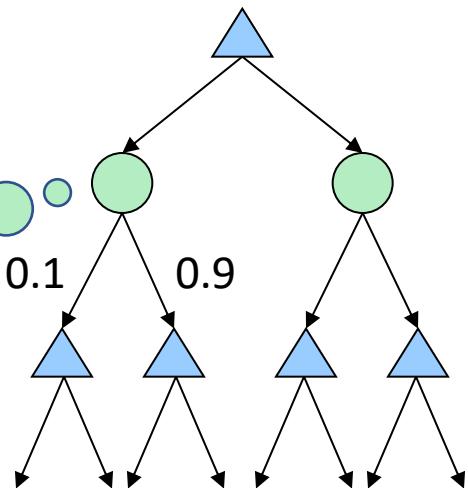
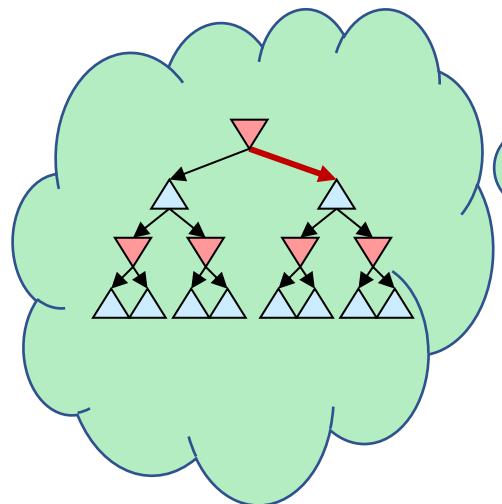


Having a probabilistic belief about another agent's action does not mean that the agent is flipping any coins!

Figure from Berkley AI

Quiz: Informed Probabilities

- Let's say you know that your opponent is actually running a depth 2 minimax, using the result 80% of the time, and moving randomly otherwise
- Question: What tree search should you use?



- Answer: Expectimax!

- To figure out EACH chance node's probabilities, you have to run a simulation of your opponent
- This kind of thing 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

The Dangers of Optimism and Pessimism

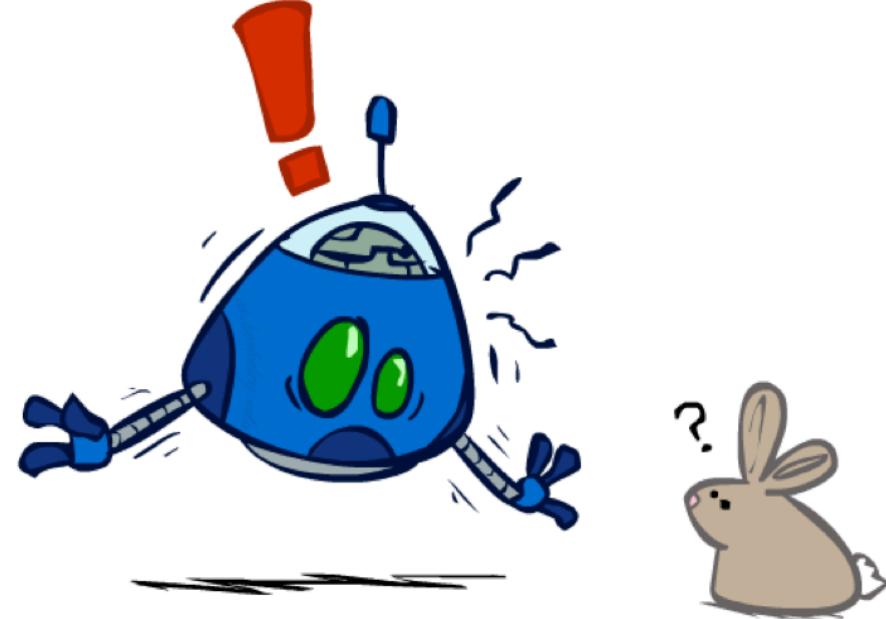
Dangerous Optimism

Assuming chance when the world is adversarial

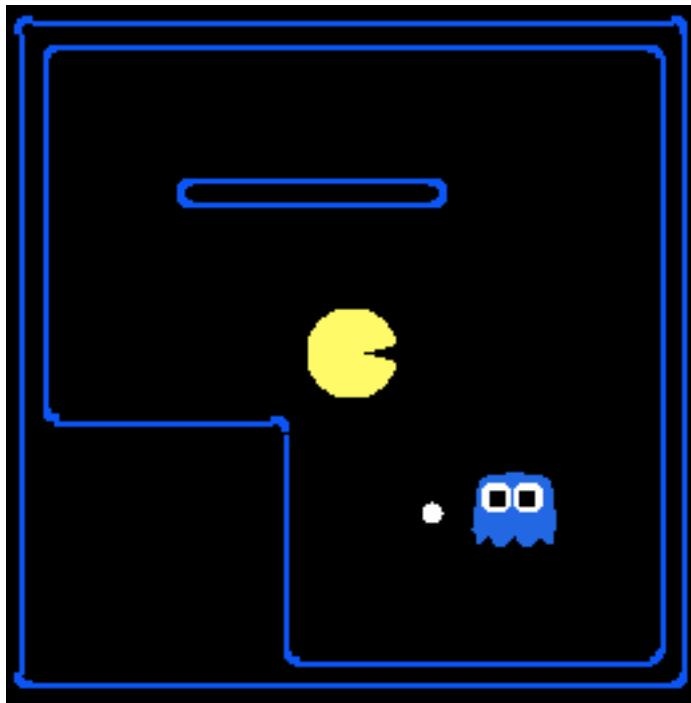


Dangerous Pessimism

Assuming the worst case when it's not likely



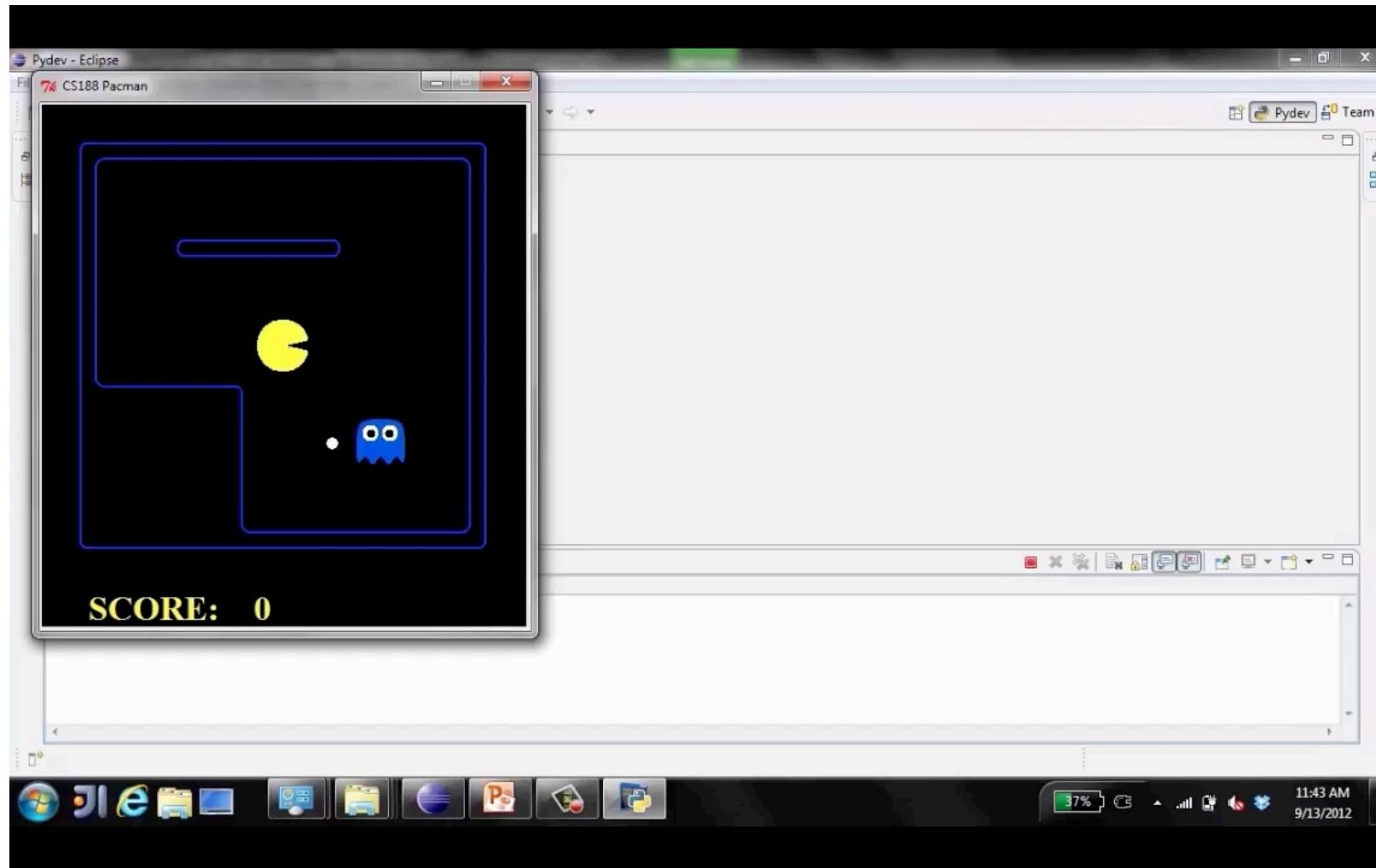
Assumptions vs. Reality



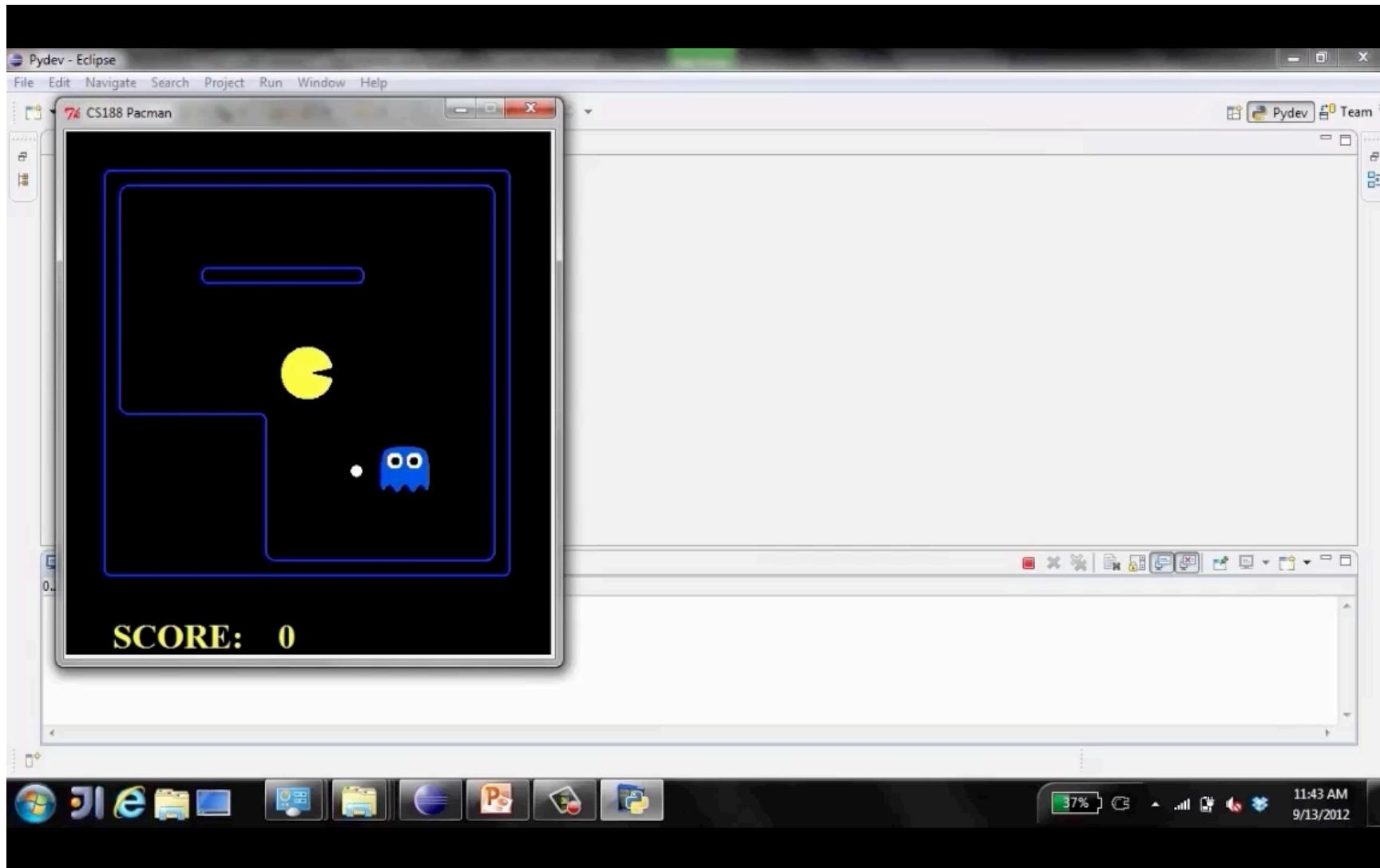
Adversarial Ghost	Random Ghost
Minimax Pacman	
Expectimax Pacman	

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

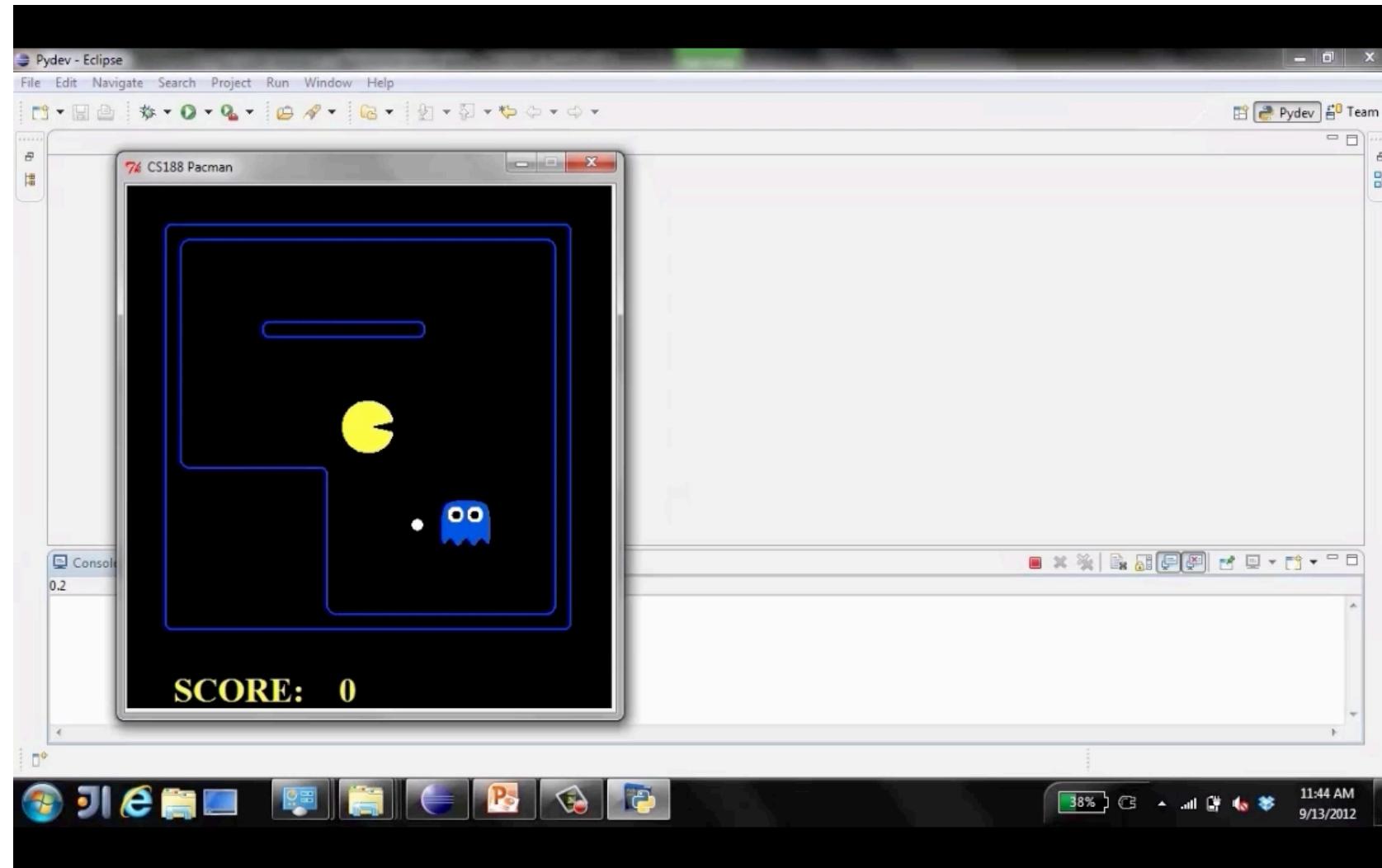
World Assumption Demo – Random Ghost Expectimax Pacman



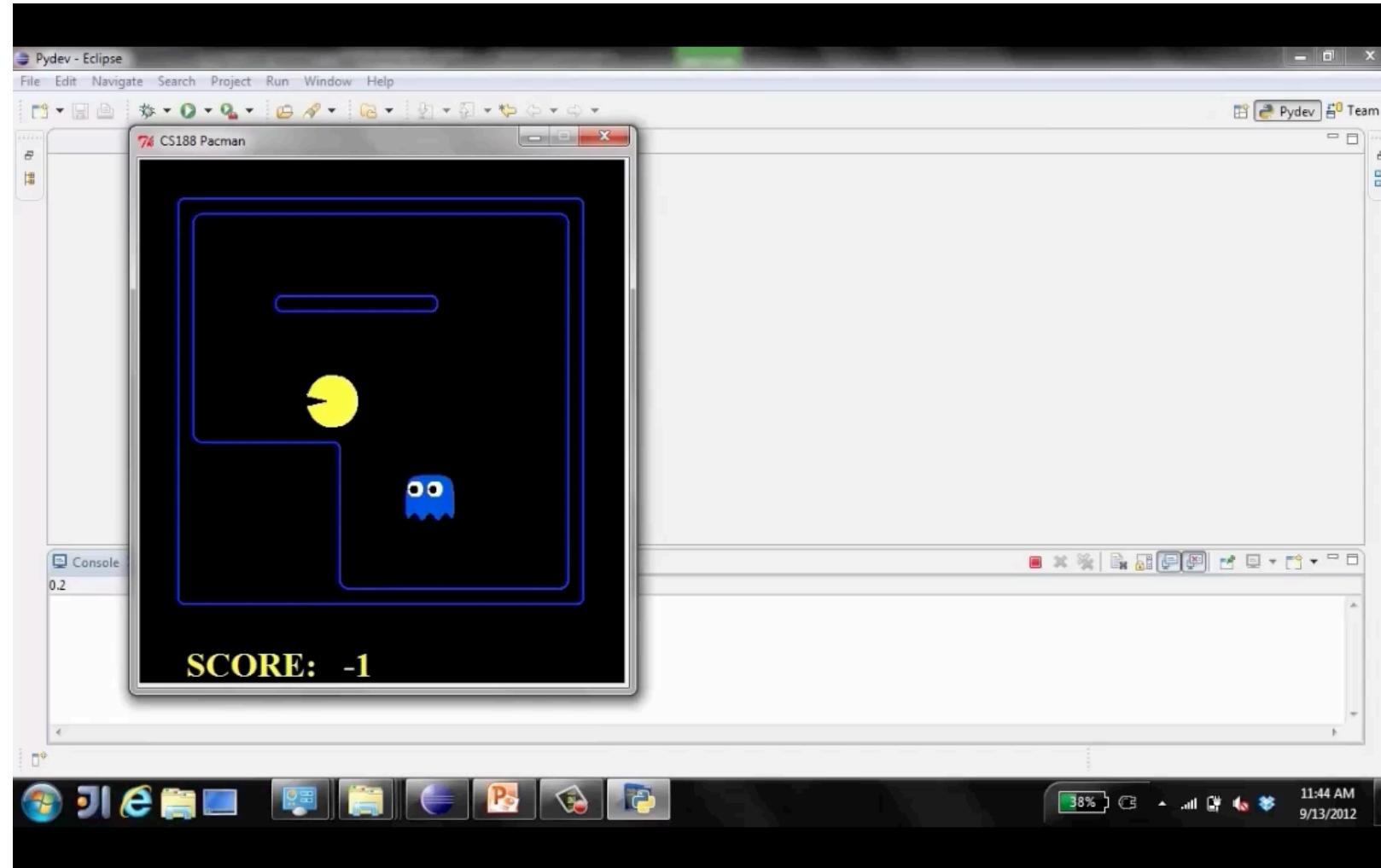
World Assumption Demo – Adversarial Ghost Minimax Pacman



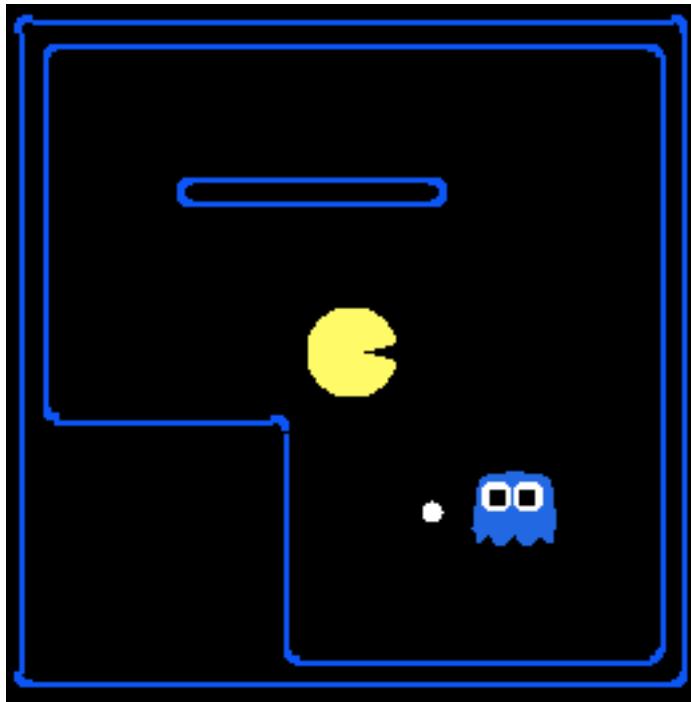
World Assumption Demo – Adversarial Ghost Expectimax Pacman



World Assumption Demo – Random Ghost Minimax Pacman



Assumptions vs. Reality



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

Results from playing 5 games

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

Example: Backgammon

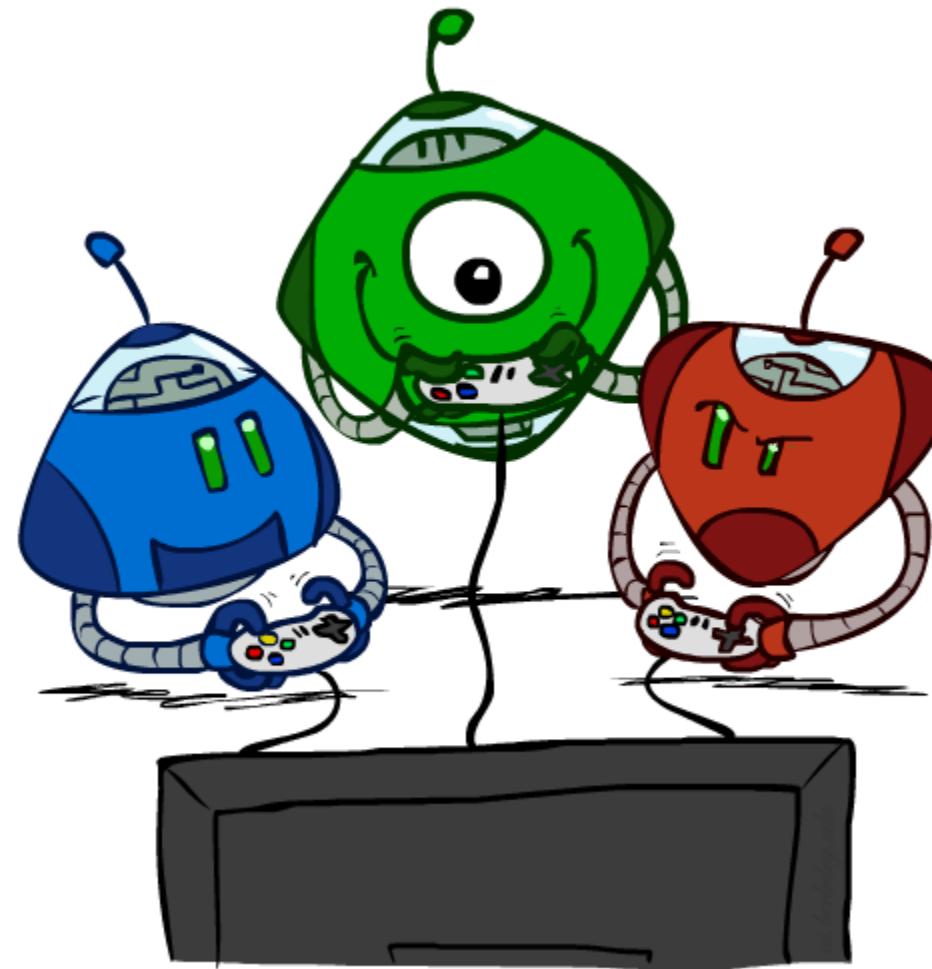
- Dice rolls increase b : 21 possible rolls with 2 dice
 - Backgammon ≈ 20 legal moves
 - Depth 2 = $20 \times (21 \times 20)^3 = 1.2 \times 10^9$
- As depth increases, probability of reaching a given search node shrinks
 - So usefulness of search is diminished
 - So limiting depth is less damaging
 - But 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!



Image: Wikipedia

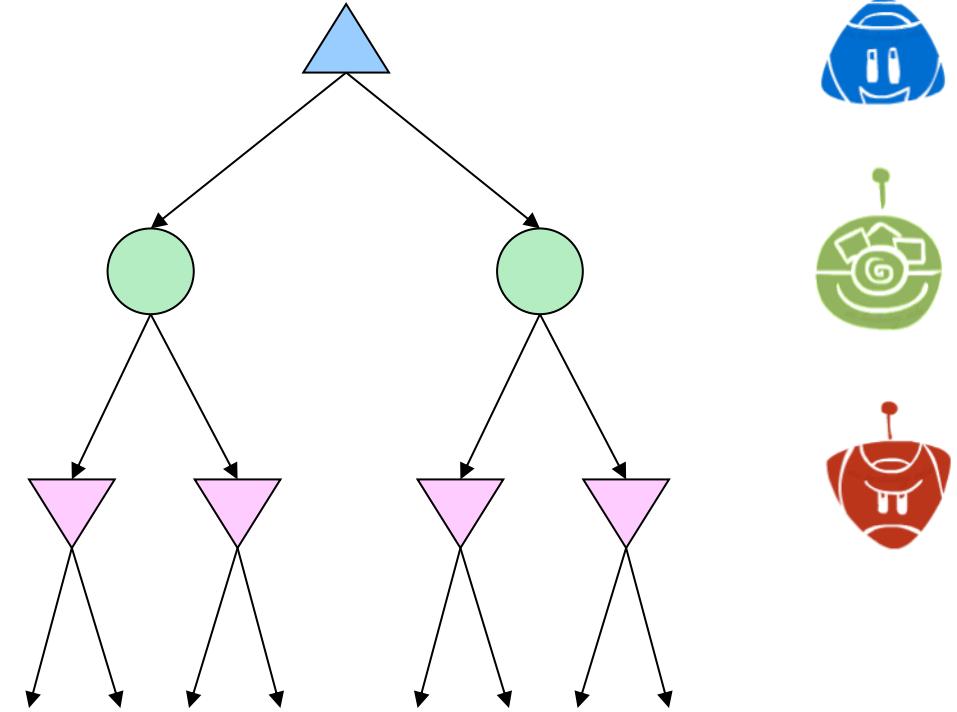
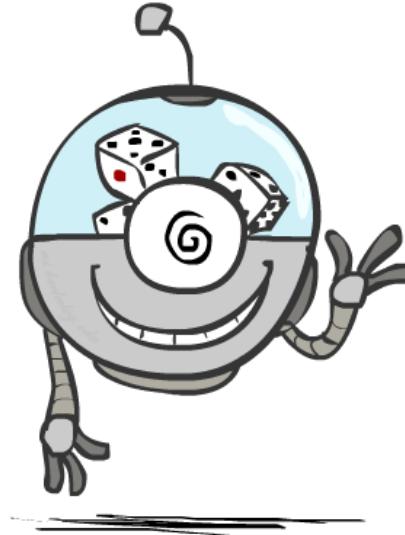
Figure from Berkley AI

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

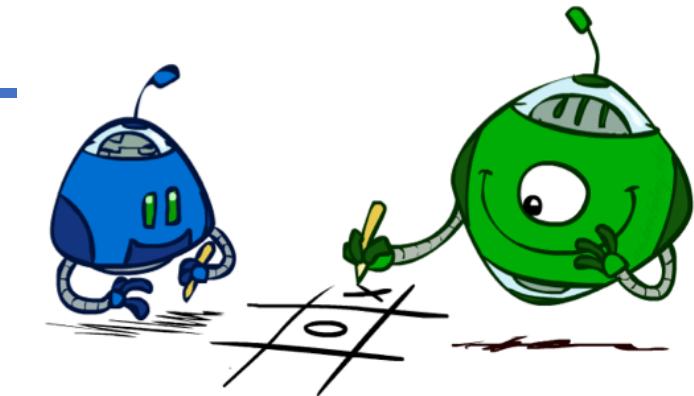
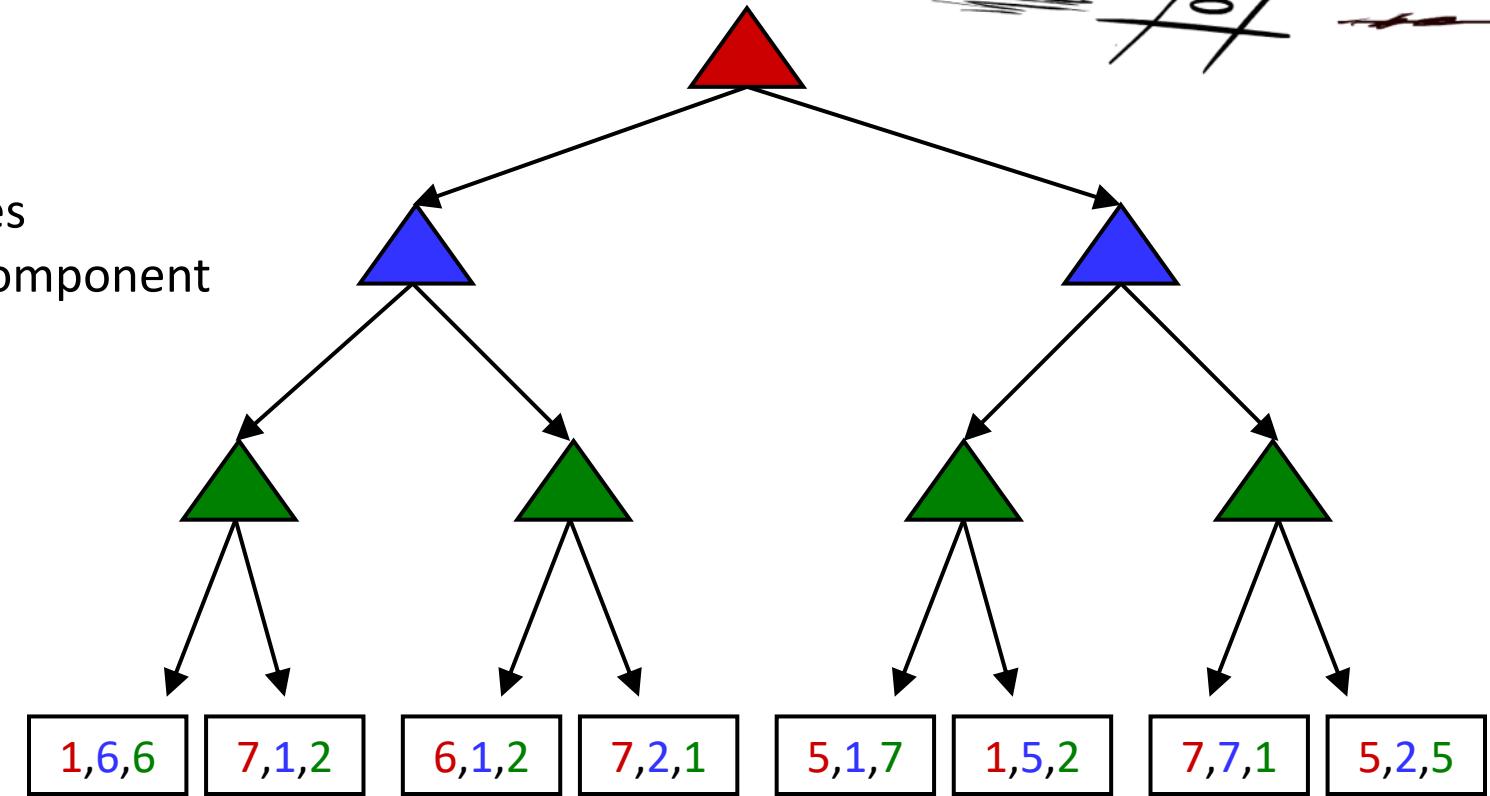
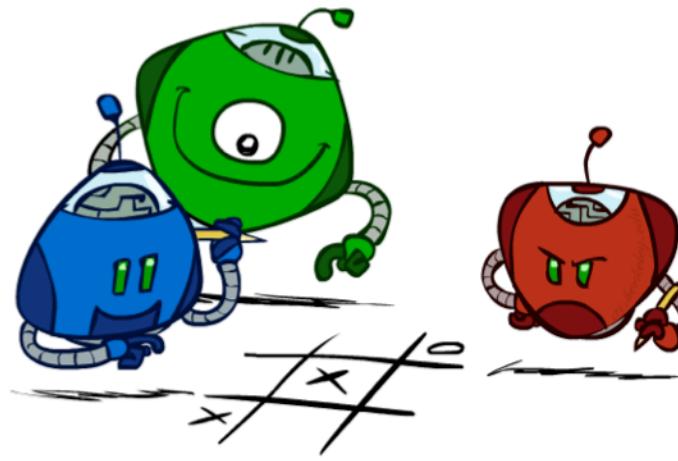


Multi-Agent Utilities

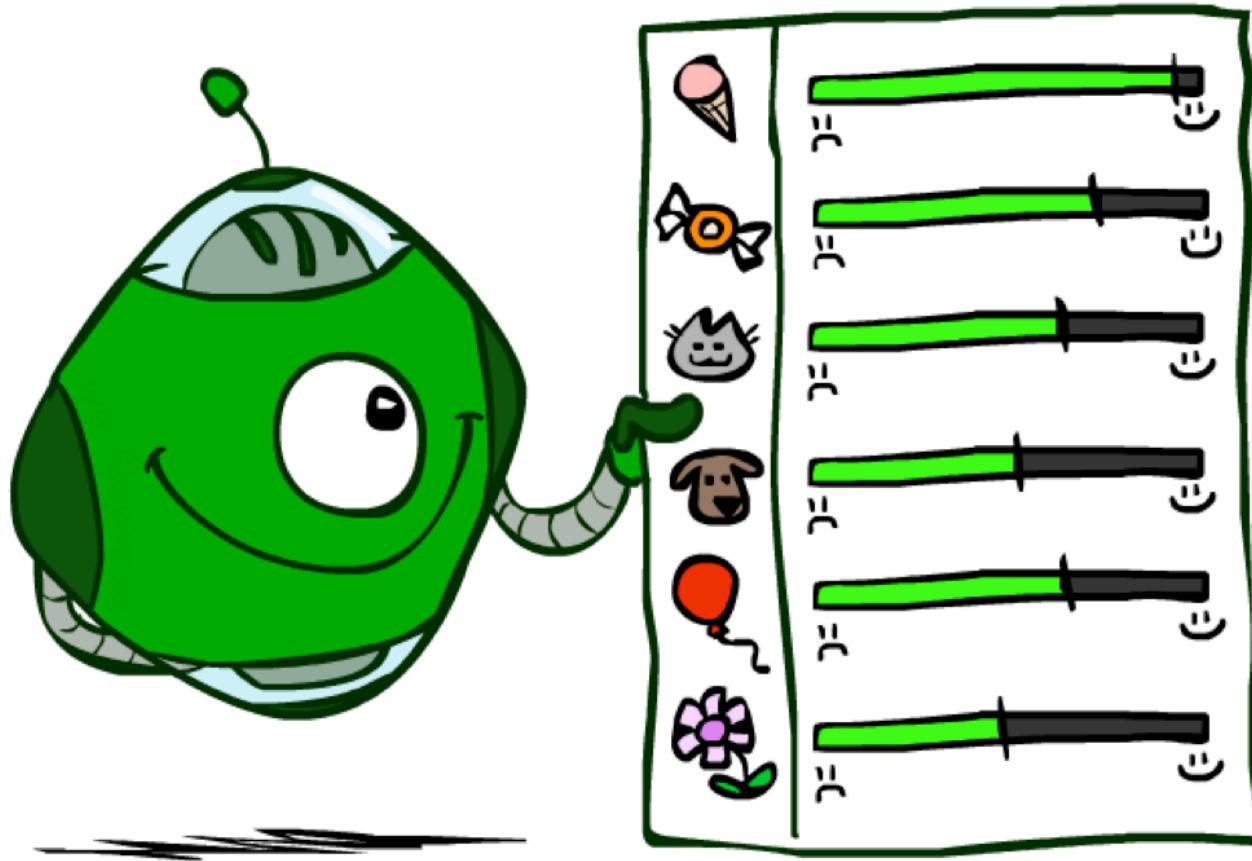
- What if the game is not zero-sum, or has multiple players?

- 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

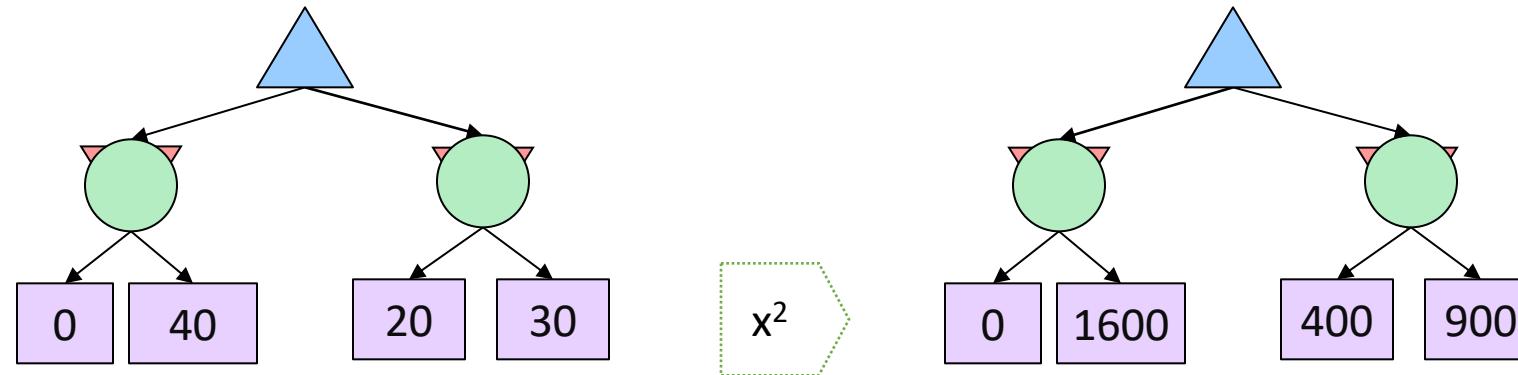


Maximum Expected Utility

- Why should we average utilities? Why not minimax?
- Principle of maximum expected utility:
 - 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?



What Utilities to Use?



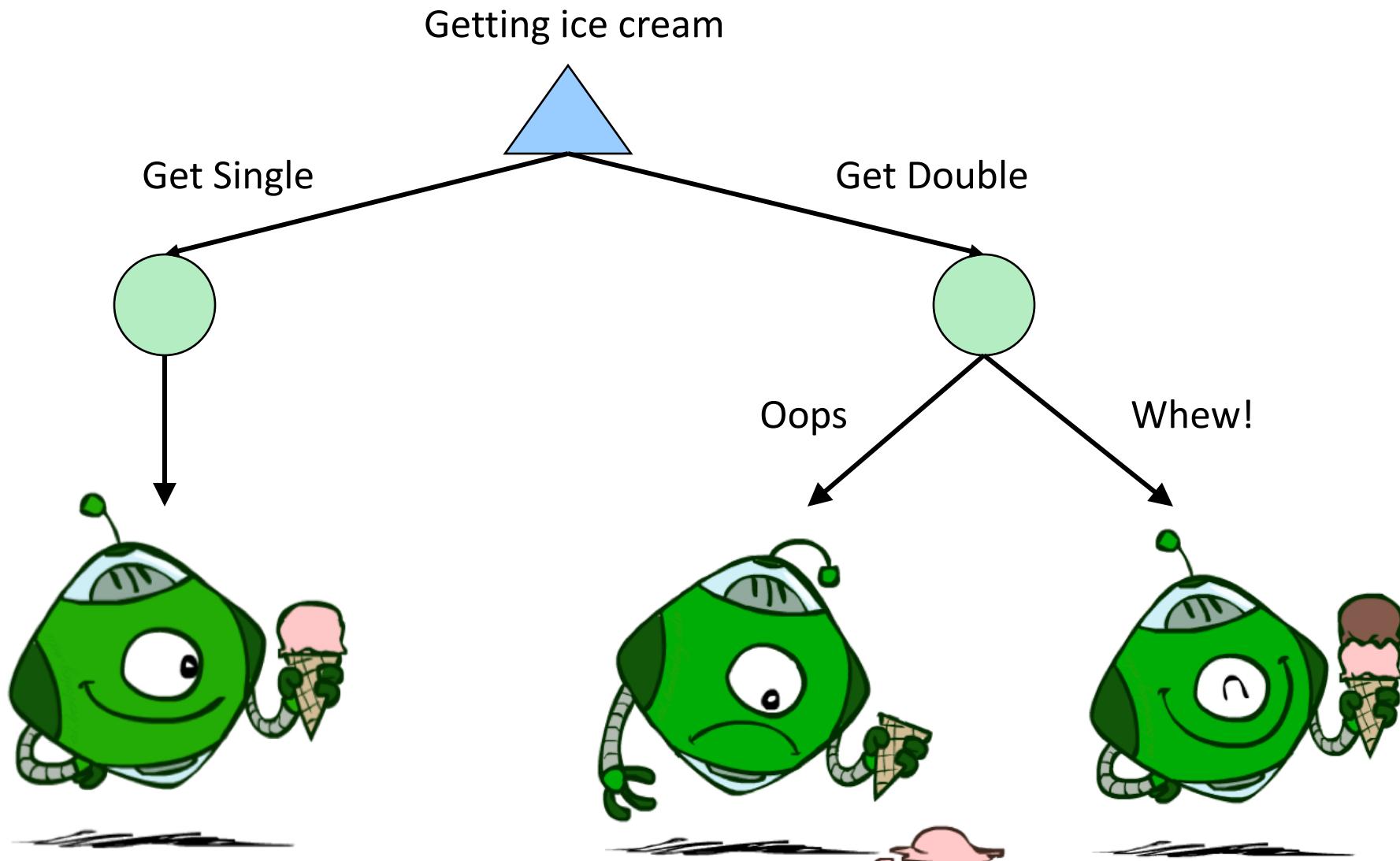
- For worst-case minimax reasoning, terminal function scale doesn't matter
 - We just want better states to have higher evaluations (get the ordering right)
 - We call this **insensitivity to monotonic transformations**
- For average-case expectimax reasoning, we need *magnitudes* to be meaningful

Utilities

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



Utilities: Uncertain Outcomes



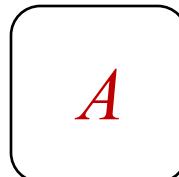
Preferences

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

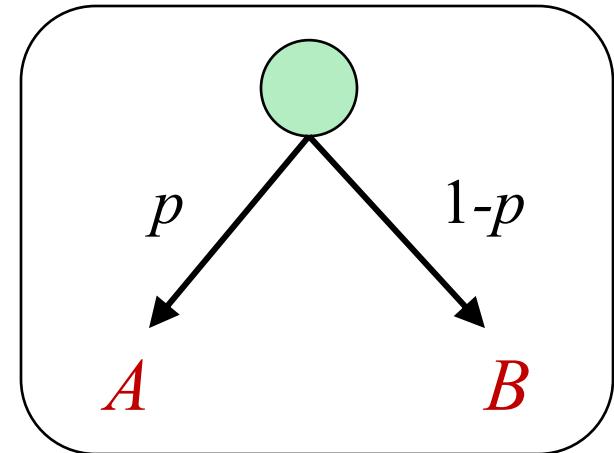
$$L = [p, A; (1 - p), B]$$

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

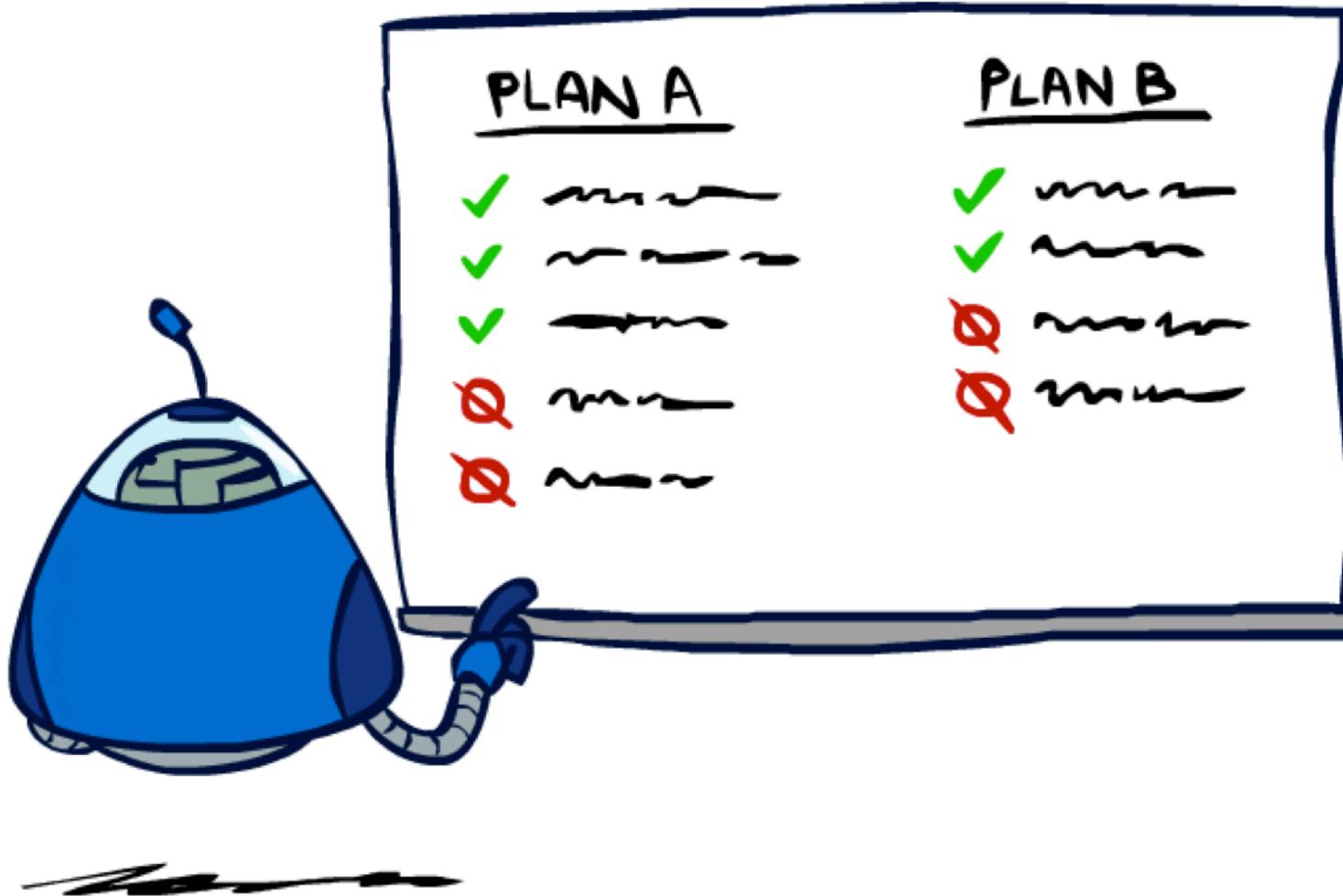
A Prize



A Lottery



Rationality



Rational Preferences

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

Axiom of Transitivity: $(A \succ B) \wedge (B \succ C) \Rightarrow (A \succ C)$

- For example: an agent with **intransitive preferences** can be induced to give away all of its money

- If $B > C$, then an agent with C would pay (say) 1 cent to get B
- If $A > B$, then an agent with B would pay (say) 1 cent to get A
- If $C > A$, then an agent with A would pay (say) 1 cent to get C

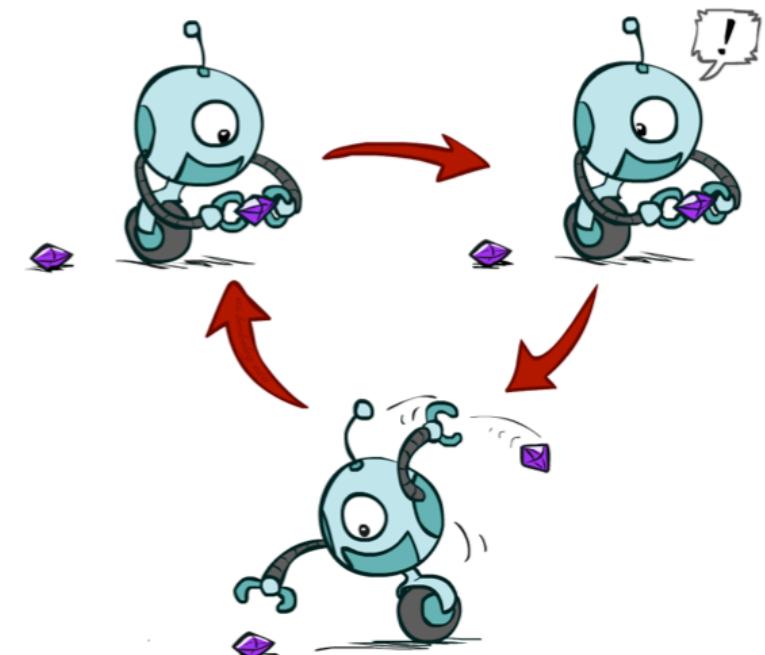


Figure from Berkley AI

Rational Preferences

The Axioms of Rationality

Orderability

$$(A \succ B) \vee (B \succ A) \vee (A \sim B)$$

Transitivity

$$(A \succ B) \wedge (B \succ C) \Rightarrow (A \succ C)$$

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

$$A \succ B \Rightarrow$$

$$(p \geq q \Leftrightarrow [p, A; 1 - p, B] \succeq [q, A; 1 - q, B])$$



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

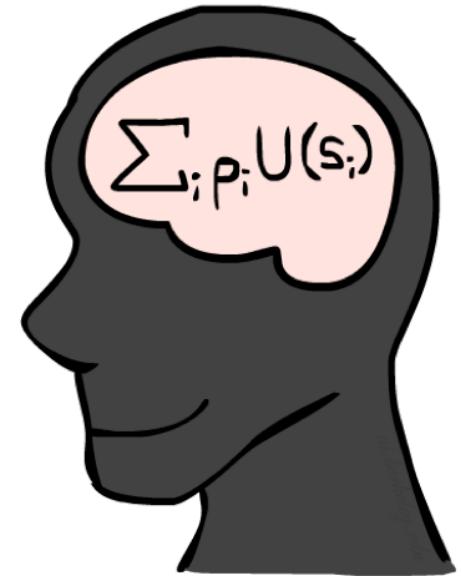
MEU Principle

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

$$U(A) \geq U(B) \Leftrightarrow A \succeq B$$

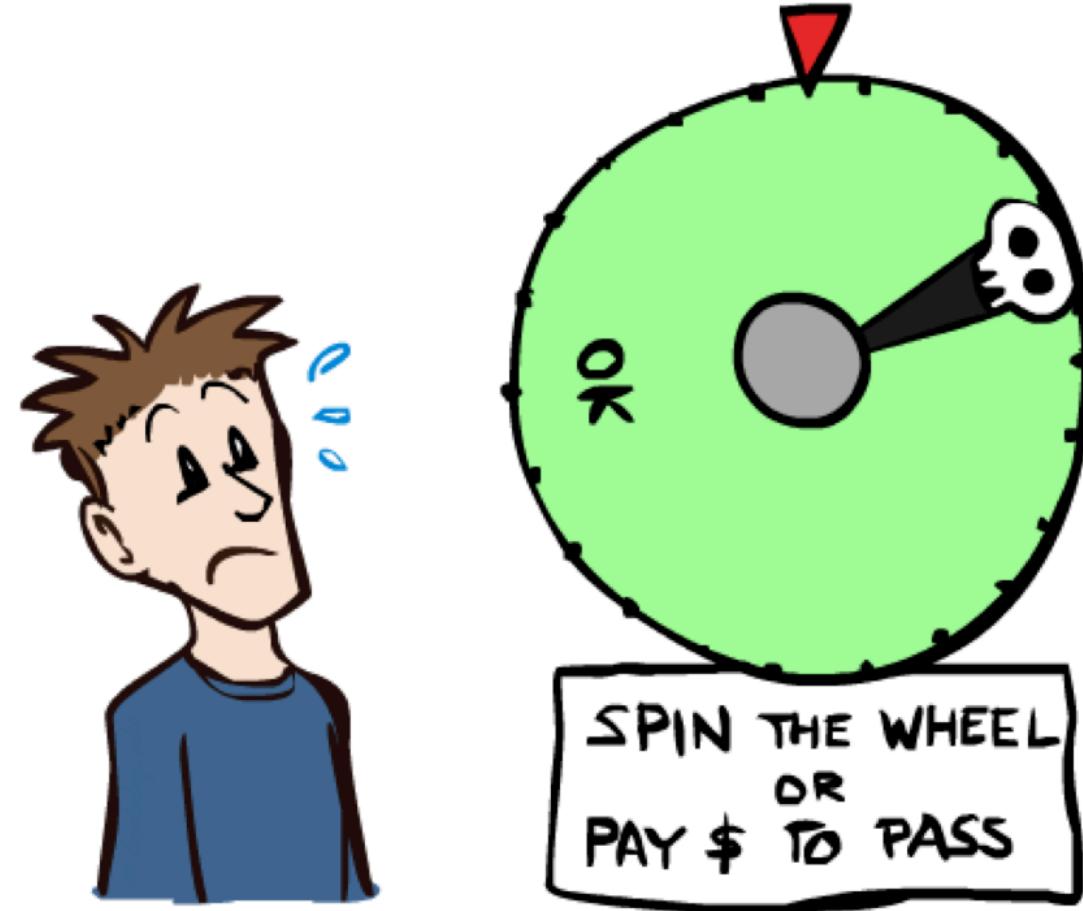
$$U([p_1, S_1; \dots; p_n, S_n]) = \sum_i p_i U(S_i)$$

- I.e. values assigned by U preserve preferences of both prizes and lotteries!



- Maximum expected utility (MEU) principle:
 - 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



Utility Scales

- Normalized utilities: $u_+ = 1.0, u_- = 0.0$
- Micromorts: one-millionth chance of death, useful for paying to reduce product risks, etc.
- QALYs: quality-adjusted life years, useful for medical decisions involving substantial risk
- Note: behavior is invariant under positive linear transformation

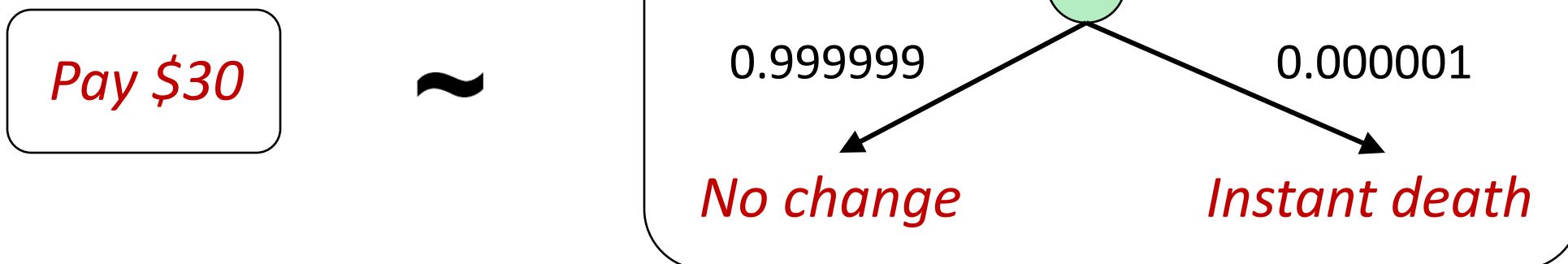
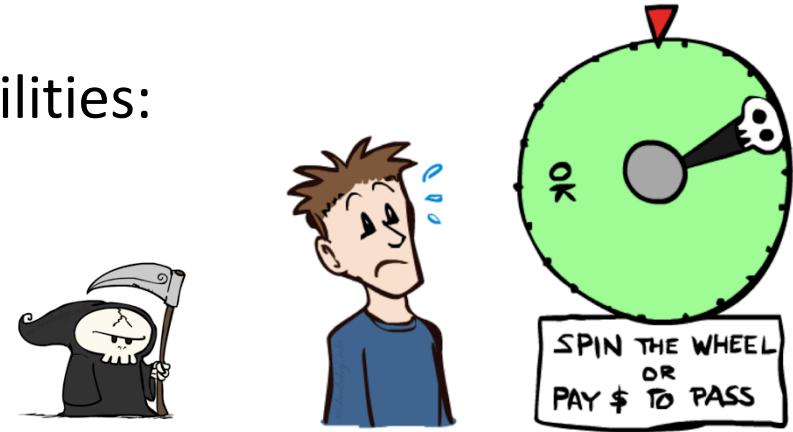
$$U'(x) = k_1 U(x) + k_2 \quad \text{where } k_1 > 0$$

- With deterministic prizes only (no lottery choices), only ordinal utility can be determined, i.e., total order on prizes



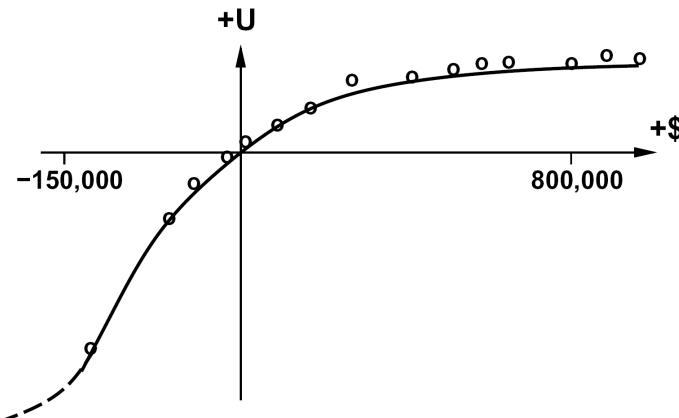
Human Utilities

- Utilities map states to real numbers. Which numbers?
- Standard approach to assessment (elicitation) of human utilities:
 - Compare a prize A to a **standard lottery** L_p between
 - “best possible prize” u_+ 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 $[0,1]$



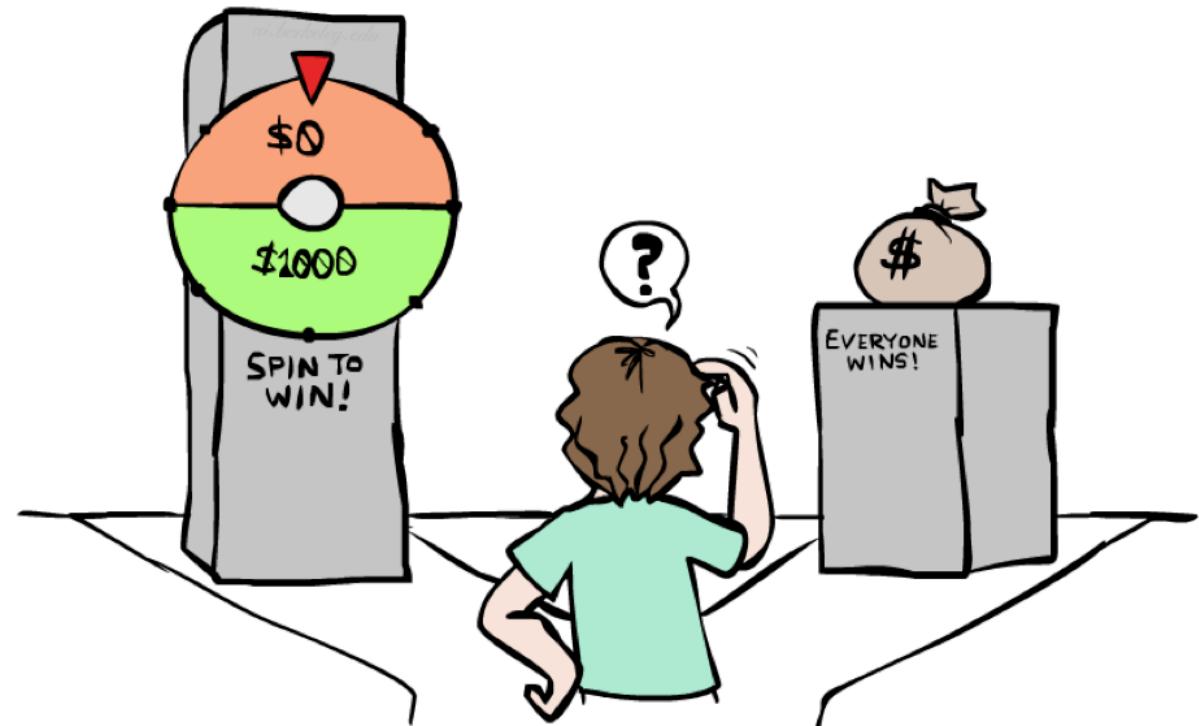
Money

- Money does not behave as a utility function, but we can talk about the utility of having money (or being in debt)
- Given a lottery $L = [p, \$X; (1-p), \$Y]$
 - The **expected monetary value** $EMV(L)$ is $p*X + (1-p)*Y$
 - $U(L) = p*U(\$X) + (1-p)*U(\$Y)$
 - Typically, $U(L) < U(EMV(L))$
 - In this sense, people are **risk-averse**
 - When deep in debt, people are **risk-prone**



Example: Insurance

- Consider the lottery $[0.5, \$1000; 0.5, \$0]$
 - What is its **expected monetary value?** ($\$500$)
 - What is its **certainty equivalent?**
 - Monetary value acceptable in lieu of lottery
 - $\$400$ for most people
 - Difference of $\$100$ is the **insurance premium**
 - There's an insurance industry because people will pay to reduce their risk
 - If everyone were risk-neutral, no insurance needed!
 - It's win-win: you'd rather have the $\$400$ and the insurance company would rather have the lottery (their utility curve is flat and they have many lotteries)



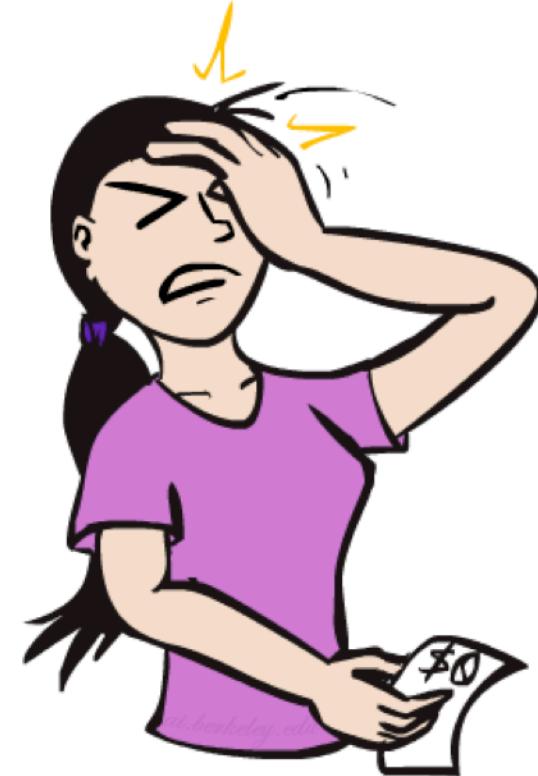
Example: Human Rationality?

- Famous example of Allais (1953)

- A: [0.8, \$4k; 0.2, \$0] ←
- B: [1.0, \$3k; 0.0, \$0]
- C: [0.2, \$4k; 0.8, \$0]
- D: [0.25, \$3k; 0.75, \$0]

- Most people prefer B > A, C > D

- But if $U(\$0) = 0$, then
 - $B > A \Rightarrow U(\$3k) > 0.8 U(\$4k)$
 - $C > D \Rightarrow 0.8 U(\$4k) > U(\$3k)$



Next Time

- Quiz 1b and Quiz 2 Release tomorrow. Due Monday
- PA 2 Due next Friday
- Next time we will start discussion Markov Decision Processes (MDPs)