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

CS 486/686
University of Waterloo
Lecture 9: June 2, 2015

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

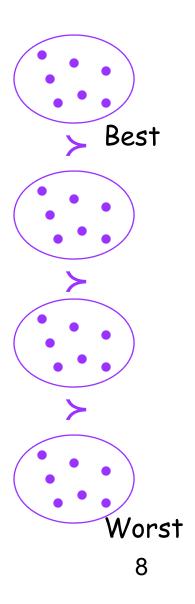
- If an agent's actions are deterministic then we know what states will occur
- If an agent's actions are not deterministic then we represent this by lotteries
 - Probability distribution over outcomes
 - Lottery L=[$p_1,s_1;p_2,s_2;...;p_n,s_n$]
 - s_1 occurs with prob p_1 , s_2 occurs with prob p_2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

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

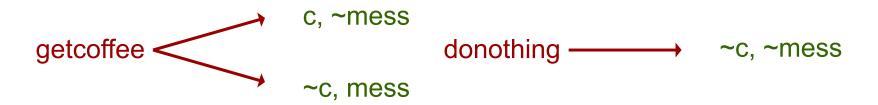
- Rather than just ranking outcomes, we must quantify our degree of preference
 - e.g., how much more important is c than ~mess
- A utility function U:S $\rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ associates a real-valued utility with each outcome.
 - U(s) measures your degree of preference for s
- Note: U induces a preference ordering \geq_U over 5 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_d 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

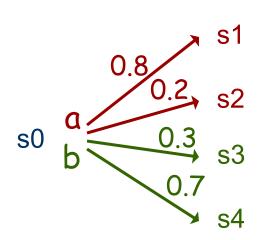
Decision Problems: Uncertainty

- 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

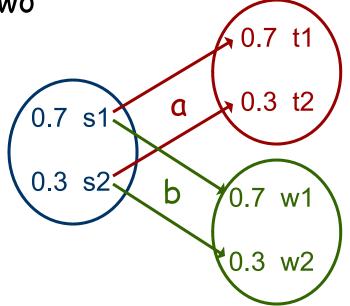
Expected Utility: Notes

- · 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)

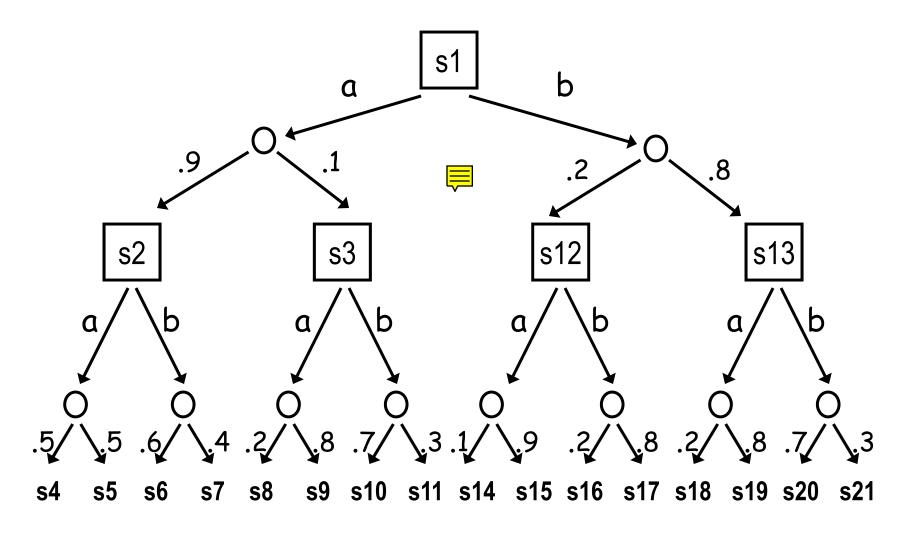
A Simple Example

- 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]

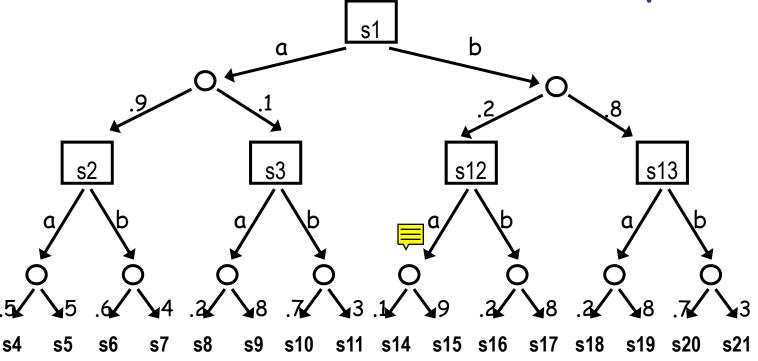


- Actions are stochastic: action a induces distribution $Pr_a(s_i \mid s_j)$ over states
 - e.g., $Pr_a(s_2 \mid s_1) = .9$ means prob. of moving to state s_2 when a is performed at s_1 is .9
 - similar distribution for action b
- · How good is a particular sequence of actions?

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]

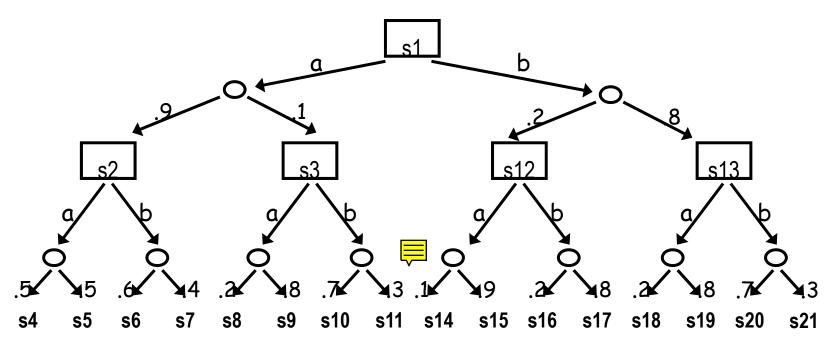
How Good is a Sequence?

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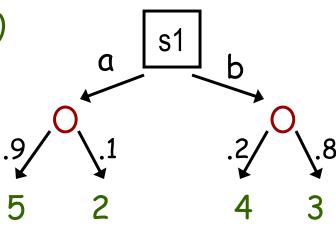
- Contrast this with four "plans"
 - [a; a], [a; b], [b; a], [b; b]
 - note: we can only *gain* by allowing decision maker to use policies

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

•
$$U(n3) = .9*5 + .1*2$$

•
$$U(n4) = .8*3 + .2*4$$

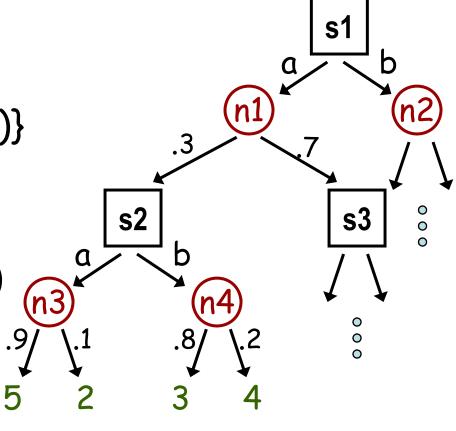
•
$$U(s2) = max\{U(n3), U(n4)\}$$

decision a or b(whichever is max)

•
$$U(n1) = .3U(s2) + .7U(s3)$$

•
$$U(s1) = max{U(n1), U(n2)}$$

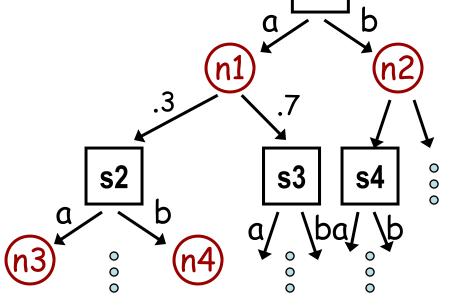
- decision: max of a, b



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)^d 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)