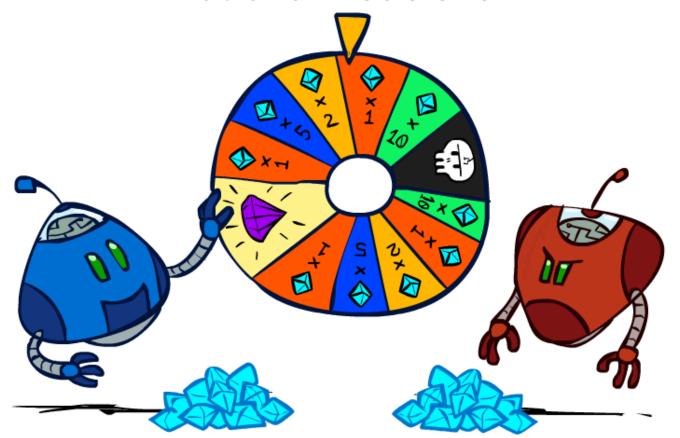
CS 188: Artificial Intelligence

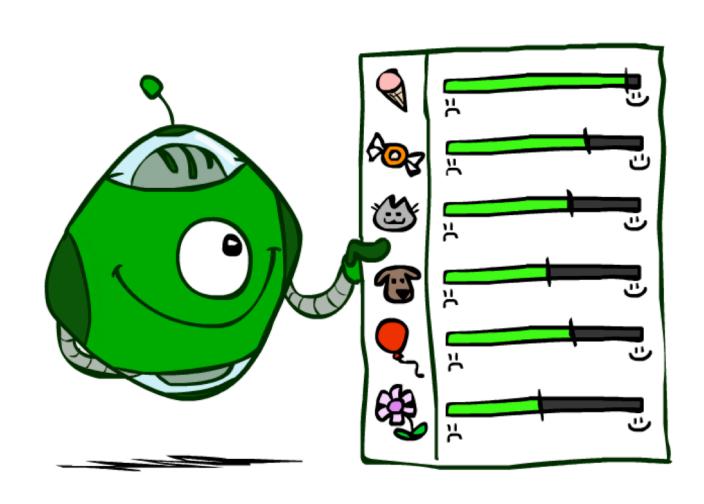
Rational Decisions



Instructor: Stuart Russell and Pat Virtue

University of California, Berkeley

Utilities

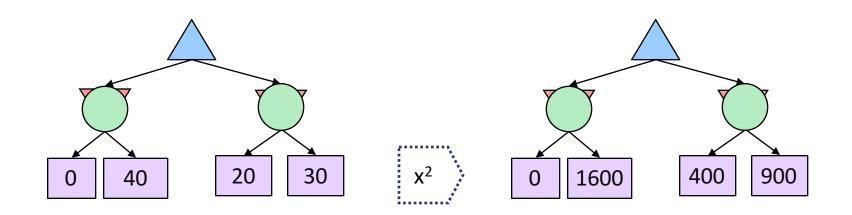


Maximum Expected Utility

- 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?



The need for numbers



- For worst-case minimax reasoning, terminal value scale doesn't matter
 - We just want better states to have higher evaluations (get the ordering right)
 - The optimal decision is invariant under any monotonic transformation
- For average-case expectimax reasoning, we need magnitudes to be meaningful

Utilities

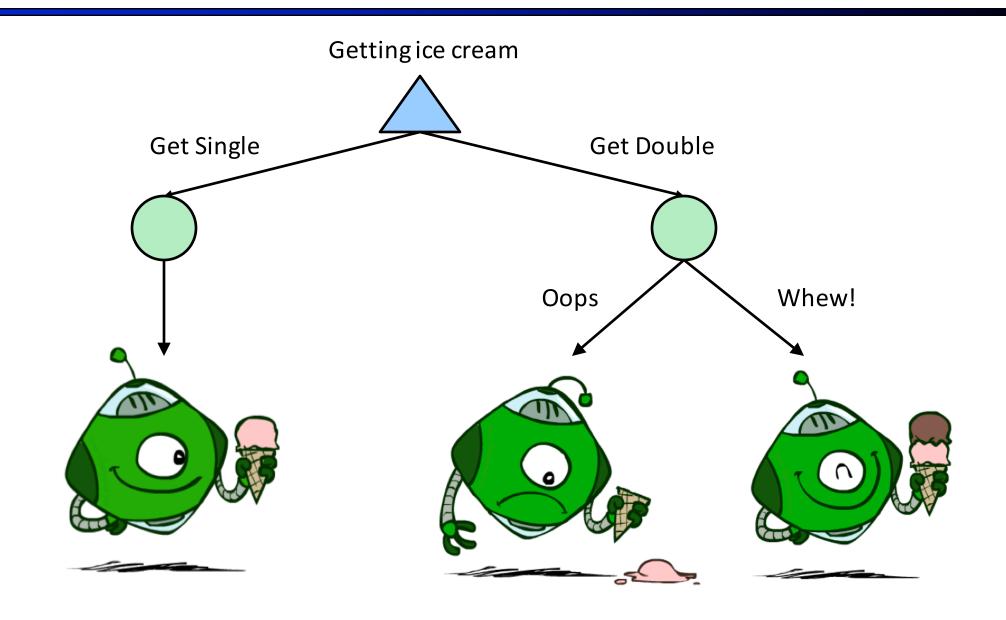
- Utilities are functions from outcomes (states of the world) to real numbers that describe an agent's preferences
- Where do utilities come from?
 - In a game, may be simple (+1/-1)
 - Utilities summarize the agent's goals
 - Theorem: any "rational" preferences can be summarized as a utility function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

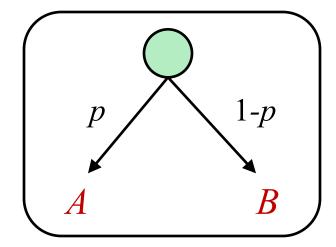
$$L = [p, A; (1-p), B]$$

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

A Prize



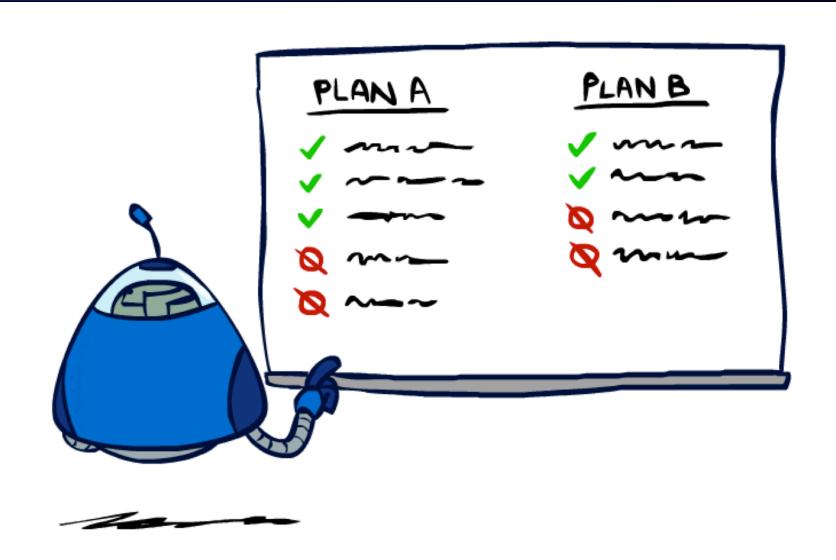
A Lottery







Rationality

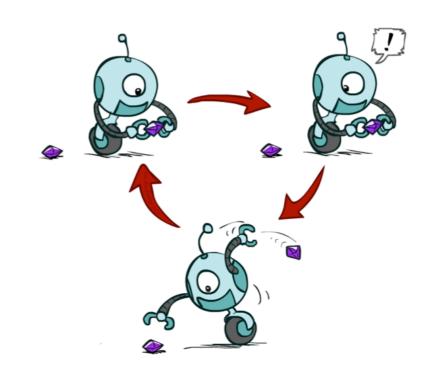


Rational Preferences

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

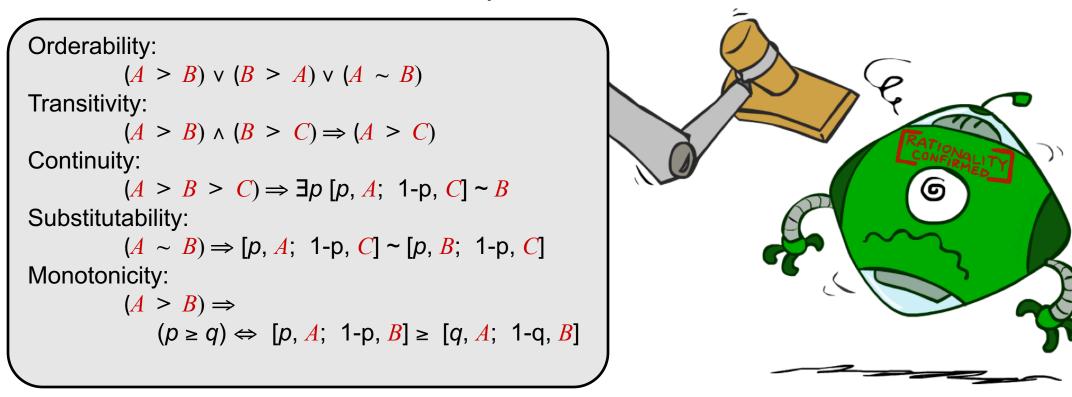
Axiom of Transitivity:
$$(A > B) \land (B > C) \Rightarrow (A > C)$$

- 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 C



Rational Preferences

The Axioms of Rationality



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

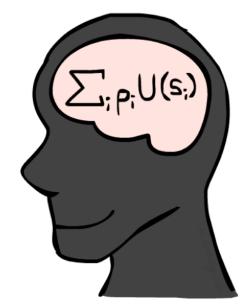
MEU Principle

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

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

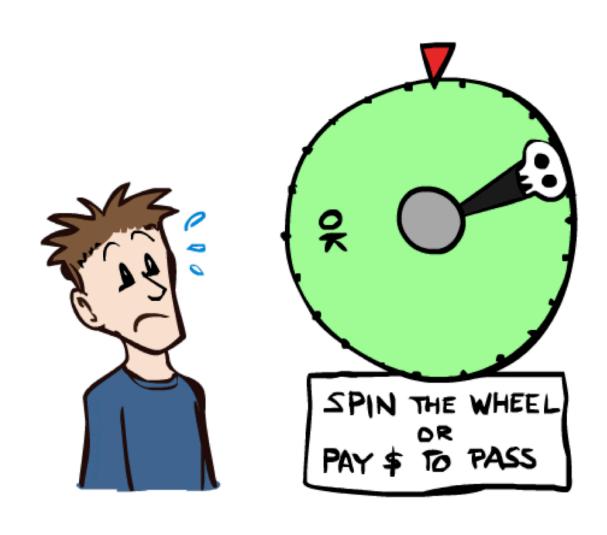
$$U([p_1, S_1; \dots; p_n, S_n]) = p_1 U(S_1) + \dots + p_n U(S_n)$$

- I.e. values assigned by *U* preserve preferences of both prizes and lotteries!
- Optimal policy invariant under **positive affine transformation** U' = aU+b, a>0



- Maximum expected utility (MEU) principle:
 - Choose the action that maximizes expected utility
 - Note: rationality does not require representing or manipulating utilities and probabilities
 - E.g., a lookup table for perfect tic-tac-toe

Human Utilities



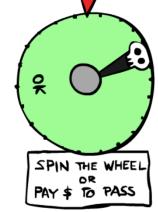
Human Utilities

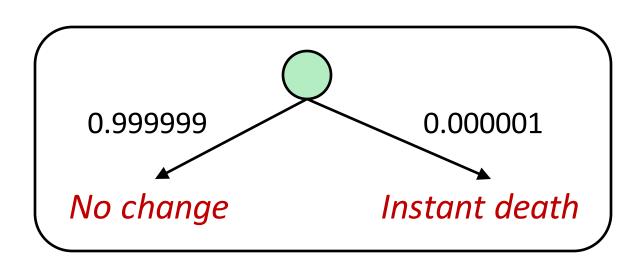
- Utilities map states to real numbers. Which numbers?
- Standard approach to assessment (elicitation) of human utilities:
 - Compare a prize A to a **standard lottery** L_p between
 - "best possible prize" u_T with probability p
 - "worst possible catastrophe" u⊥ with probability 1-p
 - Adjust lottery probability p until indifference: $A \sim L_p$
 - Resulting p is a utility in [0,1]







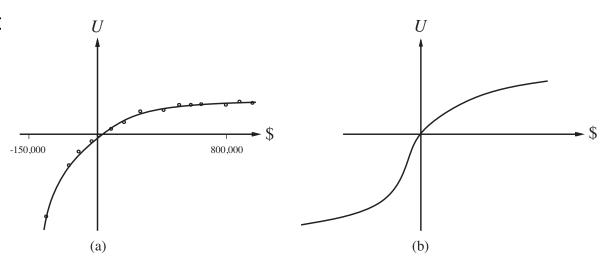




Money

- 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) = pX + (1-p)Y
 - The utility is U(L) = pU(\$X) + (1-p)U(\$Y)
 - Typically, U(L) < U(EMV(L))
 - In this sense, people are risk-averse
 - E.g., how much would you pay for a lottery ticket L=[0.5, \$10,000; 0.5, \$0]?
 - The *certainty equivalent* of a lottery CE(*L*) is the cash amount such that CE(*L*) ~ *L*
 - The *insurance premium* is EMV(L) CE(L)
 - If people were risk-neutral, this would be zero!

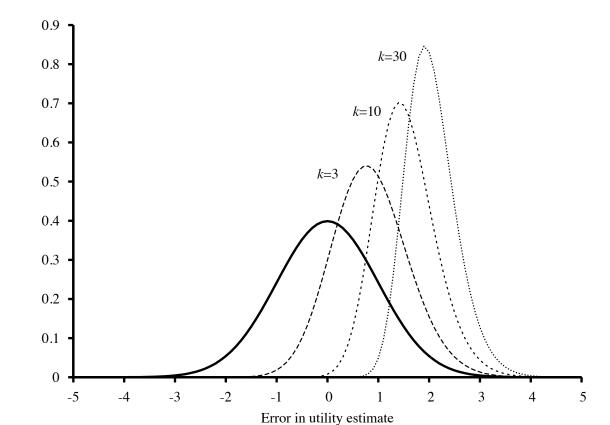




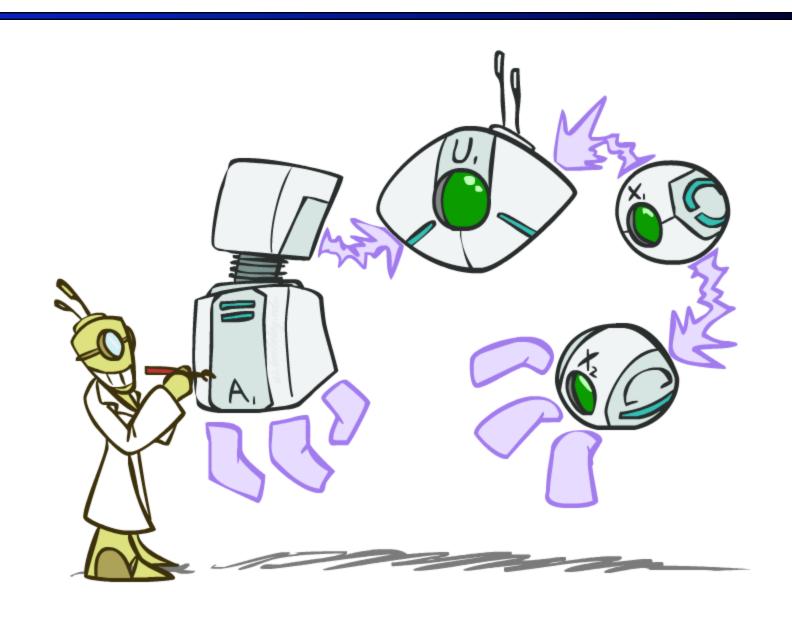
Post-decision Disappointment: the Optimizer's Curse

- Usually we don't have direct access to exact utilities, only *estimates*
 - E.g., you could make one of *k* investments
 - An unbiased expert assesses their expected net profit $V_1,...,V_k$
 - You choose the best one V*
 - With high probability, its actual value is considerably less than V*
- This is a serious problem in many areas:
 - Future performance of mutual funds
 - Efficacy of drugs measured by trials
 - Statistical significance in scientific papers
 - Winning an auction

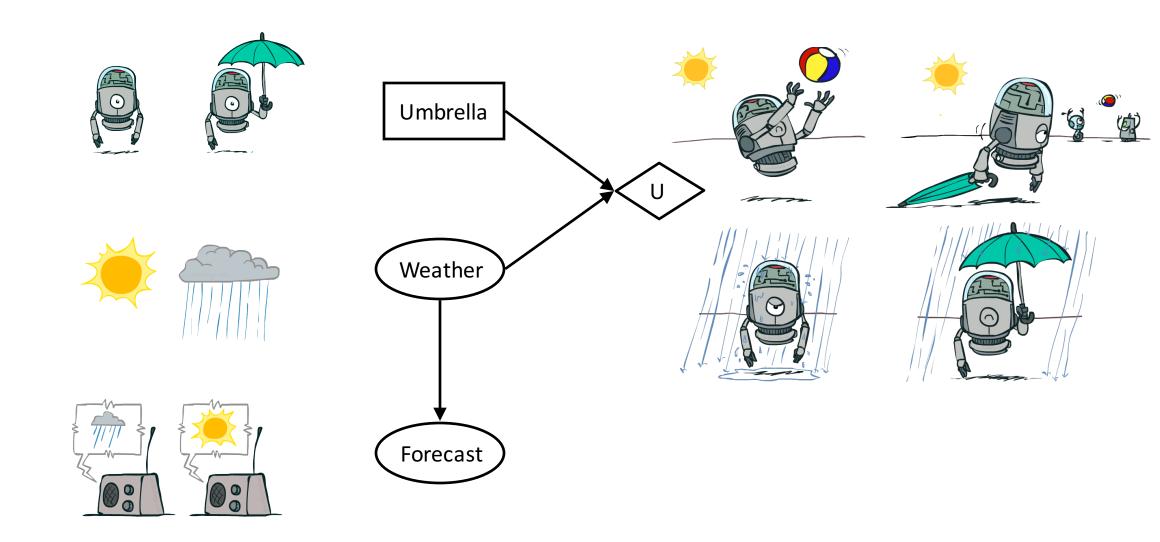
Suppose true net profit is 0 and estimate $\sim N(0,1)$; Max of k estimates:



Decision Networks



Decision Networks



Decision Networks

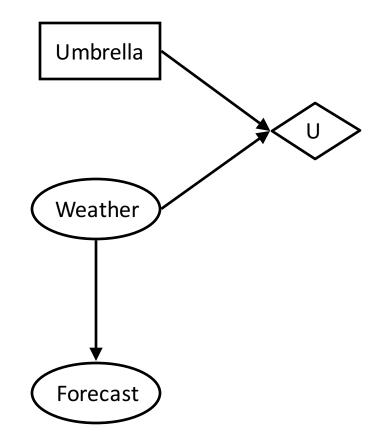
Bayes net inference!

Decision network = Bayes net + Actions + Utilities

Action nodes (rectangles, cannot have parents, will have value fixed by algorithm)

Utility nodes (diamond, depends on action and chance nodes)

- Decision algorithm:
 - Fix evidence *e*
 - For each possible action a
 - Fix action node to a
 - Compute posterior P(W|e,a) for parents W of U
 - Compute expected utility $\sum_{w} P(w | e, a) U(a, w)$
 - Return action with highest expected utility



Example: Take an umbrella?

- Decision algorithm:
 - Fix evidence e
 - For each possible action a
 - Fix action node to a
 - Compute posterior P(W|e,a) for parents W of U
 - Compute expected utility of action $a: \sum_{w} P(w|e,a) U(a,w)$
 - Return action with highest expected utility

Umbrella = leave

$$EU(leave|F=bad) = \sum_{w} P(w|F=bad) U(leave,w)$$

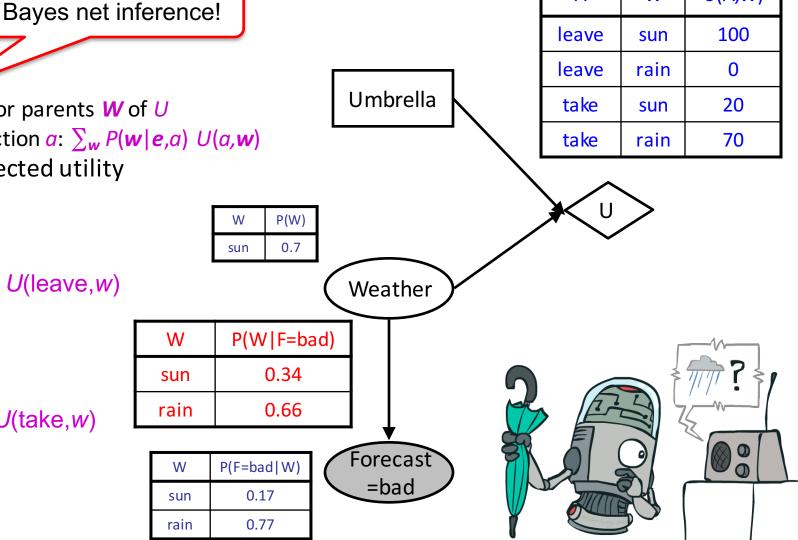
$$= 0.34 \times 100 + 0.66 \times 0 = 34$$

Umbrella = take

$$EU(take|F=bad) = \sum_{w} P(w|F=bad) U(take,w)$$

$$= 0.34 \times 20 + 0.66 \times 70 = 53$$

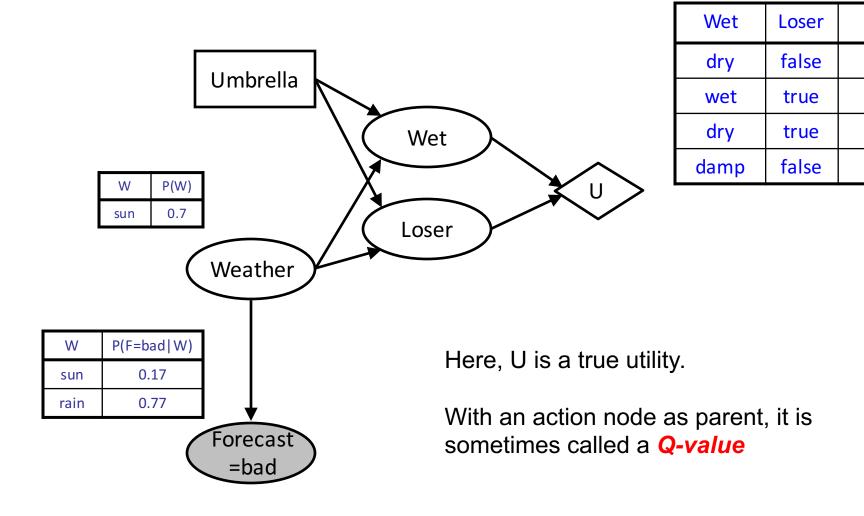
Optimal decision = take!

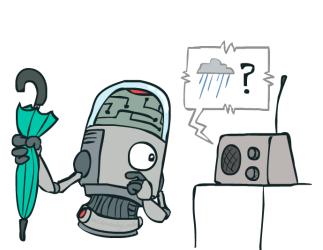


U(A,W)

W

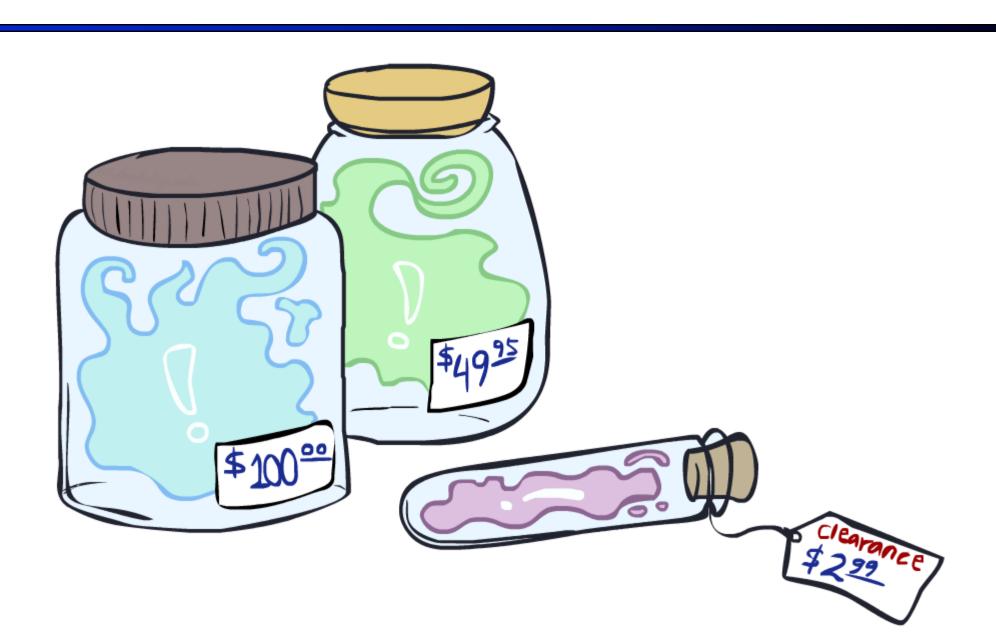
Decision network with utilities on outcome states





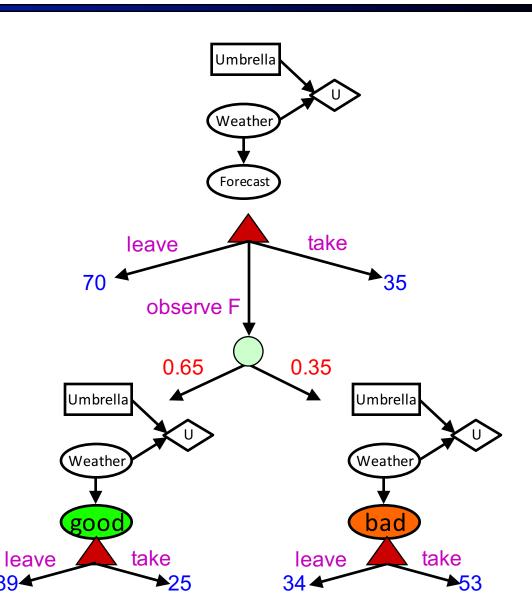
U

Value of Information



Value of information

- Suppose you haven't yet seen the forecast
 - EU(leave |) = 0.7x100 + 0.3x0 = 70
 - EU(take |) = 0.7x20 + 0.3x70 = 35
- What if you look at the forecast?
- If Forecast=good
 - \blacksquare EU(leave | F=good) = 0.89x100 + 0.11x0 = 89
 - EU(take | F=good) = 0.89x20 + 0.11x70 = 25
- If Forecast=bad
 Bayes net inference!
 - EU(leave | F=bad) = $\frac{100 + 0.66 \times 0 = 34}{100 + 0.66 \times 0 = 34}$
 - EU(take | F=b = 0.34x20 + 0.66x70 = 53
- P(Forecast) = <0.65,0.35>
- Expected utility given forecast
 - = 0.65x89 + 0.35x53 = 76.4
- Value of information = 76.4-70 = 6.4



Value of information contd.

- General idea: value of information = expected improvement in decision quality
 from observing value of a variable
 - E.g., oil company deciding on seismic exploration and test drilling
 - E.g., doctor deciding whether to order a blood test
 - E.g., person deciding on whether to look before crossing the road
- Key point: decision network contains everything needed to compute it!
- $VPI(E_i \mid e) = \left[\sum_{e_i} P(e_i \mid e) \max_a EU(a \mid e_i, e) \right] \max_a EU(a \mid e)$

VPI Properties

VPI is non-negative! $VPI(E_i | e) \ge 0$



VPI is not (usually) additive: $VPI(E_i, E_j | e) \neq VPI(E_i | e) + VPI(E_j | e)$



VPI is order-independent: $VPI(E_i, E_i | e) = VPI(E_i, E_i | e)$



Video of Demo Ghostbusters with VPI

