

# CS 188: Artificial Intelligence Spring 2010

## Lecture 8: MEU / Utilities 2/11/2010

Pieter Abbeel – UC Berkeley  
Many slides over the course adapted from Dan Klein

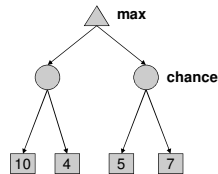
## Announcements

- W2 is due today (lecture or drop box)
- P2 is out and due on 2/18

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## Expectimax Search Trees

- What if we don't know what the result of an action will be? E.g.,
  - In solitaire, next card is unknown
  - In minesweeper, mine locations
  - In pacman, the ghosts act randomly
- Can do **expectimax search**
  - Chance nodes, like min nodes, except the outcome is uncertain
  - Calculate **expected utilities**
  - Max nodes as in minimax search
  - Chance nodes take average (expectation) of value of children
- Later, we'll learn how to formalize the underlying problem as a **Markov Decision Process**



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## Maximum Expected Utility

- Why should we average utilities? Why not minimax?
- Principle of maximum expected utility: an agent should choose the action which **maximizes its expected utility, given its knowledge**
- General principle for decision making
- Often taken as the definition of rationality
- We'll see this idea over and over in this course!
- Let's decompress this definition...
  - Probability --- Expectation --- Utility

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## Reminder: Probabilities

- 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 = amount of traffic
  - Outcomes: T in {none, light, heavy}
  - Distribution:  $P(T=none) = 0.25$ ,  $P(T=light) = 0.55$ ,  $P(T=heavy) = 0.20$
- 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:
  - $P(T=heavy) = 0.20$ ,  $P(T=heavy | Hour=8am) = 0.60$
  - We'll talk about methods for reasoning and updating probabilities later

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## What are Probabilities?

- Objectivist / frequentist answer:
  - Averages over repeated *experiments*
  - E.g. empirically estimating  $P(\text{rain})$  from historical observation
  - Assertion about how future experiments will go (in the limit)
  - New evidence changes the *reference class*
  - Makes one think of *inherently random* events, like rolling dice
- Subjectivist / Bayesian answer:
  - Degrees of belief about unobserved variables
  - E.g. an agent's belief that it's raining, given the temperature
  - E.g. pacman's belief that the ghost will turn left, given the state
  - Often *learn* probabilities from past experiences (more later)
  - New evidence *updates beliefs* (more later)

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## Uncertainty Everywhere

- Not just for games of chance!
  - I'm sick: will I sneeze this minute?
  - Email contains "FREE!": is it spam?
  - Tooth hurts: have cavity?
  - 60 min enough to get to the airport?
  - Robot rotated wheel three times, how far did it advance?
  - Safe to cross street? (Look both ways!)
- Sources of uncertainty in random variables:
  - Inherently random process (dice, etc)
  - Insufficient or weak evidence
  - Ignorance of underlying processes
  - Unmodeled variables
  - The world's just noisy – it doesn't behave according to plan!

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## Reminder: Expectations

- We can define function  $f(X)$  of a random variable  $X$
- The expected value of a function is its average value, weighted by the probability distribution over inputs
- Example: How long to get to the airport?
  - Length of driving time as a function of traffic:
    - $L(\text{none}) = 20$ ,  $L(\text{light}) = 30$ ,  $L(\text{heavy}) = 60$
  - What is my expected driving time?
    - Notation:  $E[L(T)]$
    - Remember,  $P(T) = \{\text{none}: 0.25, \text{light}: 0.5, \text{heavy}: 0.25\}$
    - $E[L(T)] = L(\text{none}) * P(\text{none}) + L(\text{light}) * P(\text{light}) + L(\text{heavy}) * P(\text{heavy})$
    - $E[L(T)] = (20 * 0.25) + (30 * 0.5) + (60 * 0.25) = 35$

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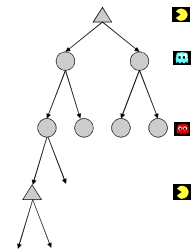
## Utilities

- 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 set of preferences between outcomes can be summarized as a utility function (provided the preferences meet certain conditions)
- In general, we hard-wire utilities and let actions emerge (why don't we let agents decide their own utilities?)
- More on utilities soon...

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## Expectimax Search

- 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 node for every outcome out of our control: opponent or environment
  - The model might say that adversarial actions are likely!
- For now, assume for any state we magically have a distribution to assign probabilities to opponent actions / environment outcomes

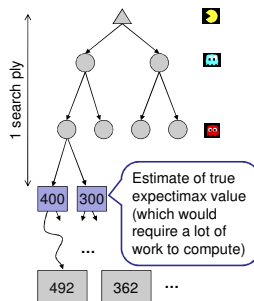


*Having a probabilistic belief about an agent's action does not mean that agent is flipping any coins!*

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## Expectimax Search

- Chance nodes
  - Chance nodes are like min nodes, except the outcome is uncertain
  - Calculate expected utilities
  - Chance nodes average successor values (weighted)
- Each chance node has a probability distribution over its outcomes (called a model)
  - For now, assume we're given the model
- Utilities for terminal states
  - Static evaluation functions give us limited-depth search



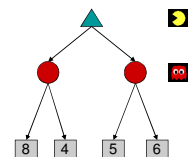
## Expectimax Pseudocode

- ```

def value(s)
  if s is a max node return maxValue(s)
  if s is an exp node return expValue(s)
  if s is a terminal node return evaluation(s)

def maxValue(s)
  values = [value(s') for s' in successors(s)]
  return max(values)

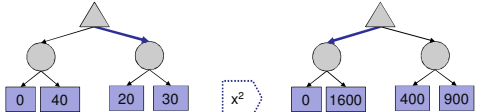
def expValue(s)
  values = [value(s') for s' in successors(s)]
  weights = [probability(s, s') for s' in successors(s)]
  return expectation(values, weights)
    
```



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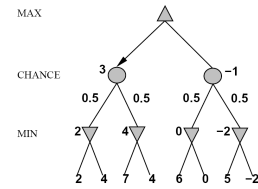
## Expectimax Evaluation

- Evaluation functions quickly return an estimate for a node's true value (which value, expectimax or minimax?)
- For minimax, evaluation 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 expectimax, we need *magnitudes* to be meaningful



## Mixed Layer Types

- E.g. Backgammon
- Expectiminimax
  - Environment is an extra player that moves after each agent
  - Chance nodes take expectations, otherwise like minimax

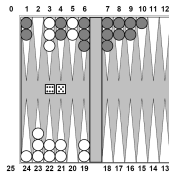


Expectiminimax-Value(*state*):

- if *state* is a MAX node then return the highest EXPECTIMINIMAX-VALUE of SUCCESSORS(*state*)
- if *state* is a MIN node then return the lowest EXPECTIMINIMAX-VALUE of SUCCESSORS(*state*)
- if *state* is a chance node then return average of EXPECTIMINIMAX-VALUE of SUCCESSORS(*state*)

## Stochastic Two-Player

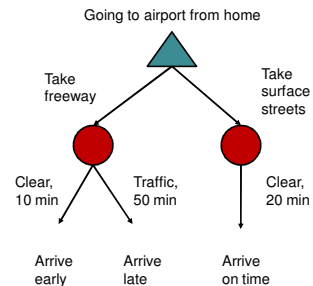
- Dice rolls increase *b*: 21 possible rolls with 2 dice
  - Backgammon ≈ 20 legal moves
  - Depth 4 =  $20 \times (21 \times 20)^3 = 1.2 \times 10^9$
- As depth increases, probability of reaching a given node shrinks
  - So value of lookahead is diminished
  - So limiting depth is less damaging
  - But pruning is less possible...
- TDGammon uses depth-2 search + very good eval function + reinforcement learning: world-champion level play



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## Utilities: Unknown Outcomes

- Principle of maximum expected utility:
  - A rational agent should choose the action which **maximizes its expected utility, given its knowledge**
- Questions:
  - Where do utilities come from?
  - How do we know such utilities even exist?
  - Why are we taking expectations of utilities (not, e.g. minimax)?
  - What if our behavior can't be described by utilities?



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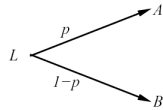
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## Preferences

- An agent chooses among:

- Prizes:  $A, B$ , etc.
- Lotteries: situations with uncertain prizes

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



- Notation:

- $A \succ B$       $A$  preferred over  $B$
- $A \sim B$      indifference between  $A$  and  $B$
- $A \succeq B$       $B$  not preferred over  $A$

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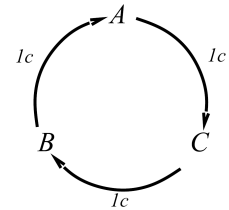
## Rational Preferences

- We want some constraints on preferences before we call them rational

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

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

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



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## Rational Preferences

- Preferences of a rational agent must obey constraints.

- 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

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## MEU Principle

- Theorem:

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

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

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

- 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 tictactoe

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## 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

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

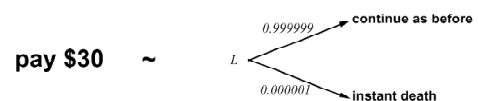
- With deterministic prizes only (no lottery choices), only **ordinal utility** can be determined, i.e., total order on prizes

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## Human Utilities

- Utilities map states to real numbers. Which numbers?
- Standard approach to assessment of human utilities:

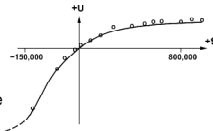
- Compare a state  $A$  to a **standard lottery**  $L_p$  between
  - "best possible prize"  $u_+$  with probability  $p$
  - "worst possible catastrophe"  $u_-$  with probability  $1-p$
- Adjust lottery probability  $p$  until  $A \sim L_p$
- Resulting  $p$  is a utility in  $[0, 1]$



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## 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  $p \cdot X + (1-p) \cdot Y$
  - $U(L) = p \cdot U(\$X) + (1-p) \cdot U(\$Y)$
  - Typically,  $U(L) < U(EMV(L))$ : why?
  - In this sense, people are **risk-averse**
  - When deep in debt, we are **risk-prone**
- Utility curve: for what probability  $p$  am I indifferent between:
  - Some sure outcome  $x$
  - A lottery  $[p, \$M; (1-p), \$0]$ ,  $M$  large



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## 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!

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## Example: Insurance

- Because people ascribe different utilities to different amounts of money, insurance agreements can increase both parties' expected utility

You own a car. Your lottery:  
 $L_V = [0.8, \$0; 0.2, -\$200]$   
 i.e., 20% chance of crashing

| Amount | Your Utility $U_V$ |
|--------|--------------------|
| \$0    | 0                  |
| -\$50  | -150               |
| -\$200 | -1000              |

You do not want -\$200!

$$U_V(L_V) = 0.2 \cdot U_V(-\$200) = -200$$

$$U_V(-\$50) = -150$$

## Example: Insurance

- Because people ascribe different utilities to different amounts of money, insurance agreements can increase both parties' expected utility

You own a car. Your lottery:  
 $L_V = [0.8, \$0; 0.2, -\$200]$   
 i.e., 20% chance of crashing

Insurance company buys risk:  
 $L_I = [0.8, \$50; 0.2, -\$150]$   
 i.e., \$50 revenue + your  $L_V$

You do not want -\$200!

Insurer is risk-neutral:  
 $U(L) = U(EMV(L))$

$$U_V(L_V) = 0.2 \cdot U_V(-\$200) = -200$$

$$U_V(-\$50) = -150$$

$$U_I(L_I) = U(0.8 \cdot 50 + 0.2 \cdot (-150))$$

$$= U(\$10) > U(\$0)$$

## 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
  - $B > A \Rightarrow U(\$3k) > 0.8 U(\$4k)$
  - $C > D \Rightarrow 0.8 U(\$4k) > U(\$3k)$

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