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Utility

Many slides courtesy of Dan Klein, Stuart Russell, or Andrew Moore

CS 5300 / CS 6300
Artificial Intelligence
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www.cs.utah.edu/~hal/courses/2009S_AI

Slide 1

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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...

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Reminder: Probabilities

- A **random variable** is 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 {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 about 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 sniffing: am I sick?
 - 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!)
- Why can a random variable have uncertainty?
 - Inherently random process (dice, etc)
 - Insufficient or weak evidence
 - Ignorance of underlying processes
 - Unmodeled variables
 - The world's just noisy!
- Compare to *fuzzy logic*, which has *degrees of truth*, or rather than just *degrees of belief*

Slide 6

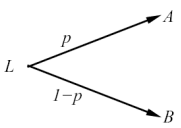
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Preferences

- 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

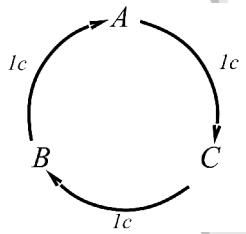
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Rational Preferences

- We want some constraints on preferences before we call them rational
- For example: an agent with intransitive preferences can be induced to give away all 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
 $A \succ B \Rightarrow (p \geq q \Rightarrow [p, A; 1 - p, B] \succeq [q, A; 1 - q, B])$
- 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 likelihood (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, reflex vacuum cleaner

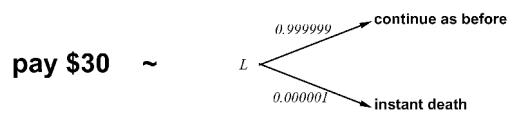
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Human Utilities

- 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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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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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-prone, no insurance needed!

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Money

- > Money does **not** behave as a utility function
- > Given a lottery L :
 - > Define **expected monetary value** $EMV(L)$
 - > Usually $U(L) < U(EMV(L))$
 - > I.e., people are **risk-averse**
- > Utility curve: for what probability p am I indifferent between:
 - > A prize x
 - > A lottery $[p, \$M; (1-p), \$0]$ for large M ?
 - > Typical empirical data, extrapolated with **risk-prone** behavior:

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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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Reinforcement Learning

- > [DEMOS]
- > Basic idea:
 - > Receive feedback in the form of **rewards**
 - > Agent's utility is defined by the reward function
 - > Must learn to act so as to **maximize expected rewards**
 - > **Change the rewards, change the learned behavior**
- > Examples:
 - > Playing a game, reward at the end for winning / losing
 - > Vacuuming a house, reward for each piece of dirt picked up
 - > Automated taxi, reward for each passenger delivered

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Markov Decision Processes

- > An MDP is defined by:
 - > A **set of states** $s \in S$
 - > A **set of actions** $a \in A$
 - > A **transition function** $T(s, a, s')$
 - > Prob that a from s leads to s'
 - > i.e., $P(s' | s, a)$
 - > Also called the model
 - > A **reward function** $R(s, a, s')$
 - > Sometimes just $R(s)$ or $R(s')$
 - > A **start state** (or distribution)
 - > Maybe a **terminal state**
- > MDPs are a family of non-deterministic search problems
- > Reinforcement learning: MDPs where we don't know the transition or reward functions

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