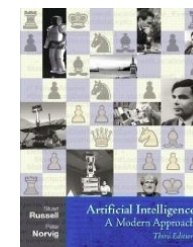


Decision Making

- Rational preferences
- Utilities
- Money
- Multiattribute utilities
- Decision networks
- Value of information

Material from
Russell & Norvig,
chapter 16



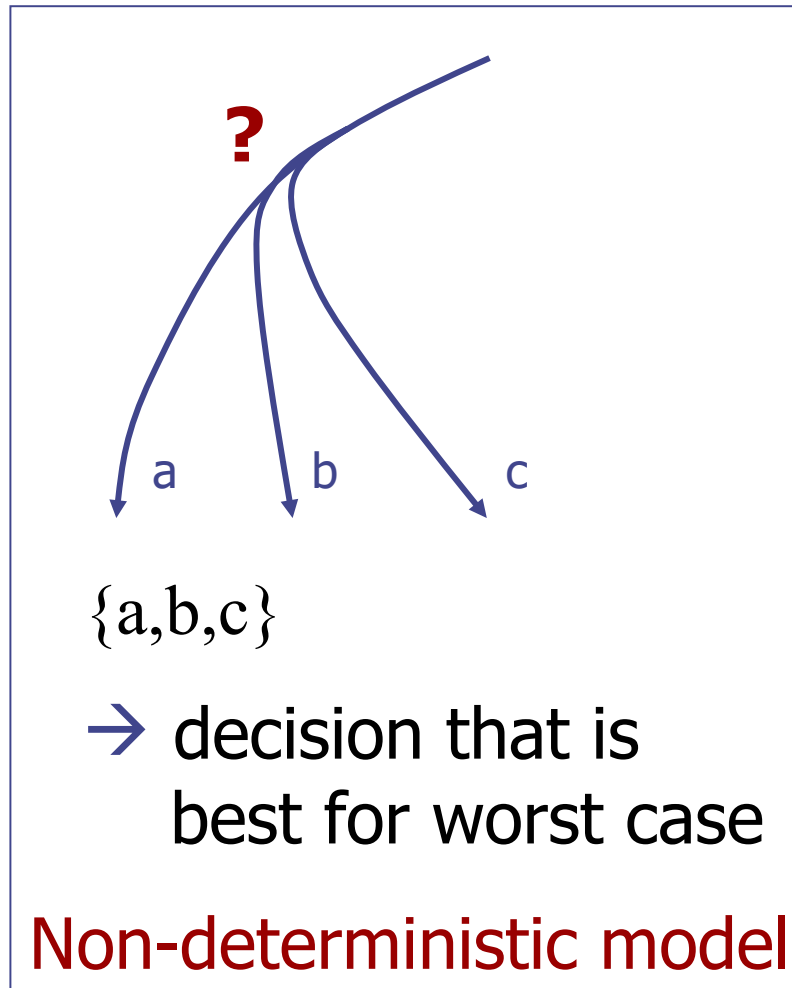
Many slides taken from
Russell & Norvig's slides
**Artificial Intelligence:
A Modern Approach**

Some based on Slides by
Lise Getoor, Jean-Claude
Latombe and Daphne Koller

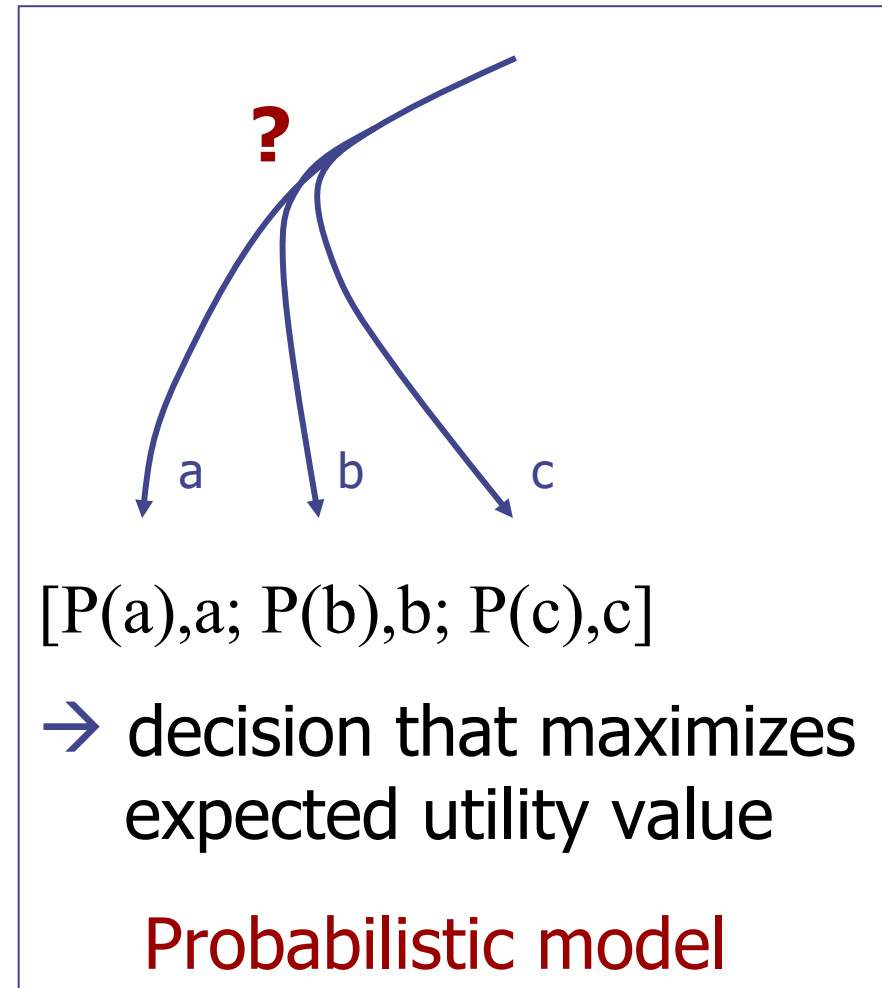
Decision Making under Uncertainty

- Many environments are uncertain in the sense that it is not clear what state an action will lead to
 - **Uncertainty:** Some states may be likely, others may be unlikely
 - **Utility:** Some states may be desirable, others may be undesirable
- Still, an agent has to make a decision which action to choose
 - **Decision Theory** is concerned with making rational decisions in such scenarios

Non-Deterministic vs. Probabilistic Uncertainty

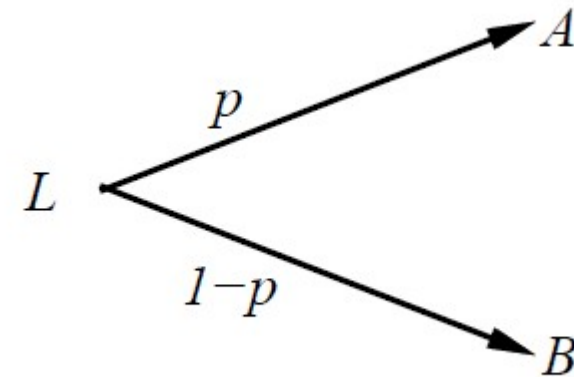


~ Adversarial search



Lotteries and Preferences

- In the following, we call such probabilistic events **lotteries**
 - A lottery consists of a set of events (**prizes**) with their **probabilities**



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

- **Preferences:**
 - An agent likes certain prizes better than others
 - An agent therefore also likes certain lotteries better than others

Notation:

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

Preferences and Rational Behavior

- Preferences between prizes may, in principle, be arbitrary
- For example, preferences may be cyclic

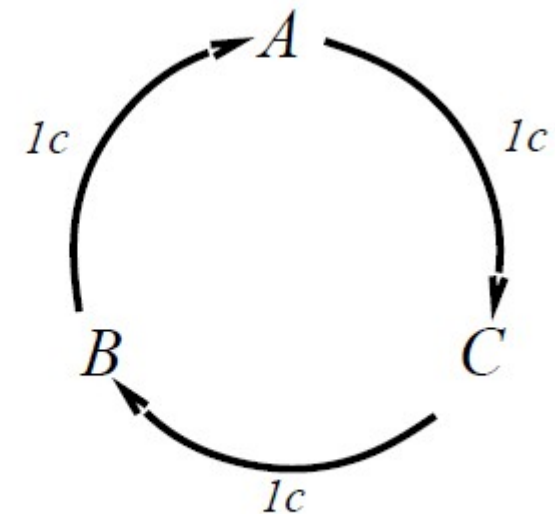
$$A \succ B, B \succ C, C \succ A$$

- However, cyclic preferences lead to irrational behavior:

If $B \succ C$, then an agent who has C would pay (say) 1 cent to get B

If $A \succ B$, then an agent who has B would pay (say) 1 cent to get A

If $C \succ A$, then an agent who has A would pay (say) 1 cent to get C



→ Eventually the agent will give away all its money

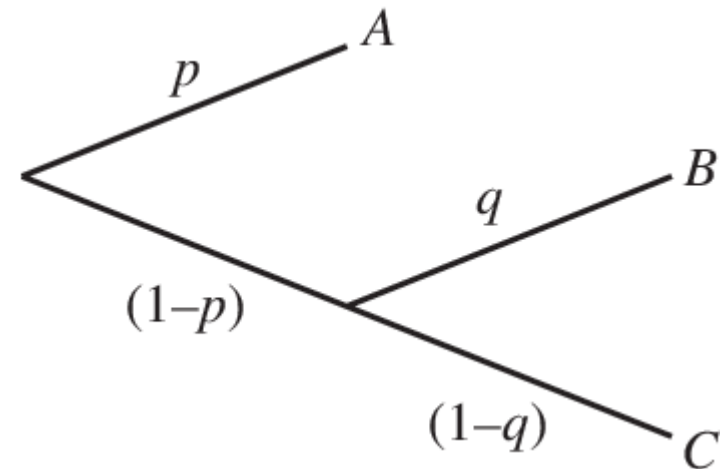
Preferences and Rational Behavior

- Another property that should be obeyed is that lotteries are decomposable
- Therefore, no rational agent should have a preference between the two equivalent formulations

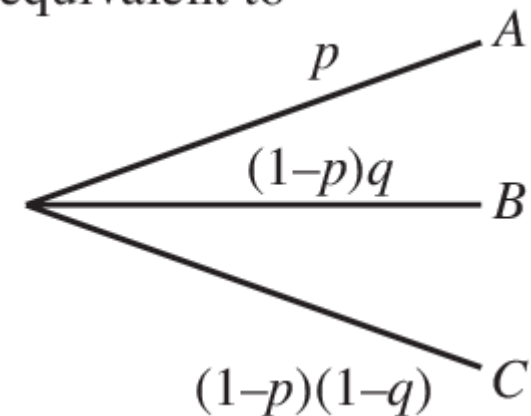
$$[p, A; 1-p, [q, B; 1-q, C]] \sim [p, A; (1-p)q, B; (1-p)(1-q), C]$$

- Such properties be formulated as **constraints** on preferences

- Decomposability



is equivalent to



Other Constraints for Rational Behavior

- Together with Decomposability, these constraints define a rational behavior:

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

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

Utility functions

- A natural way for measuring how desirable certain prizes are is using a **utility function** U
 - A utility function assigns a numerical value to each prize
- Utility function naturally lead to preferences

$$A \succ B \Leftrightarrow U(A) > U(B)$$

- The Expected Utility of an Event is the expected value of the utility function in a lottery

$$EU(X) = \sum_{x \in X} P(x) \cdot U(x)$$

- A utility function in a deterministic environment (no lotteries) is also called a **value function**

Maximizing Utilities

- It has been shown that acting according to rational preferences corresponds to maximizing a utility function U

Theorem (Ramsey, 1931; von Neumann and Morgenstern, 1944):

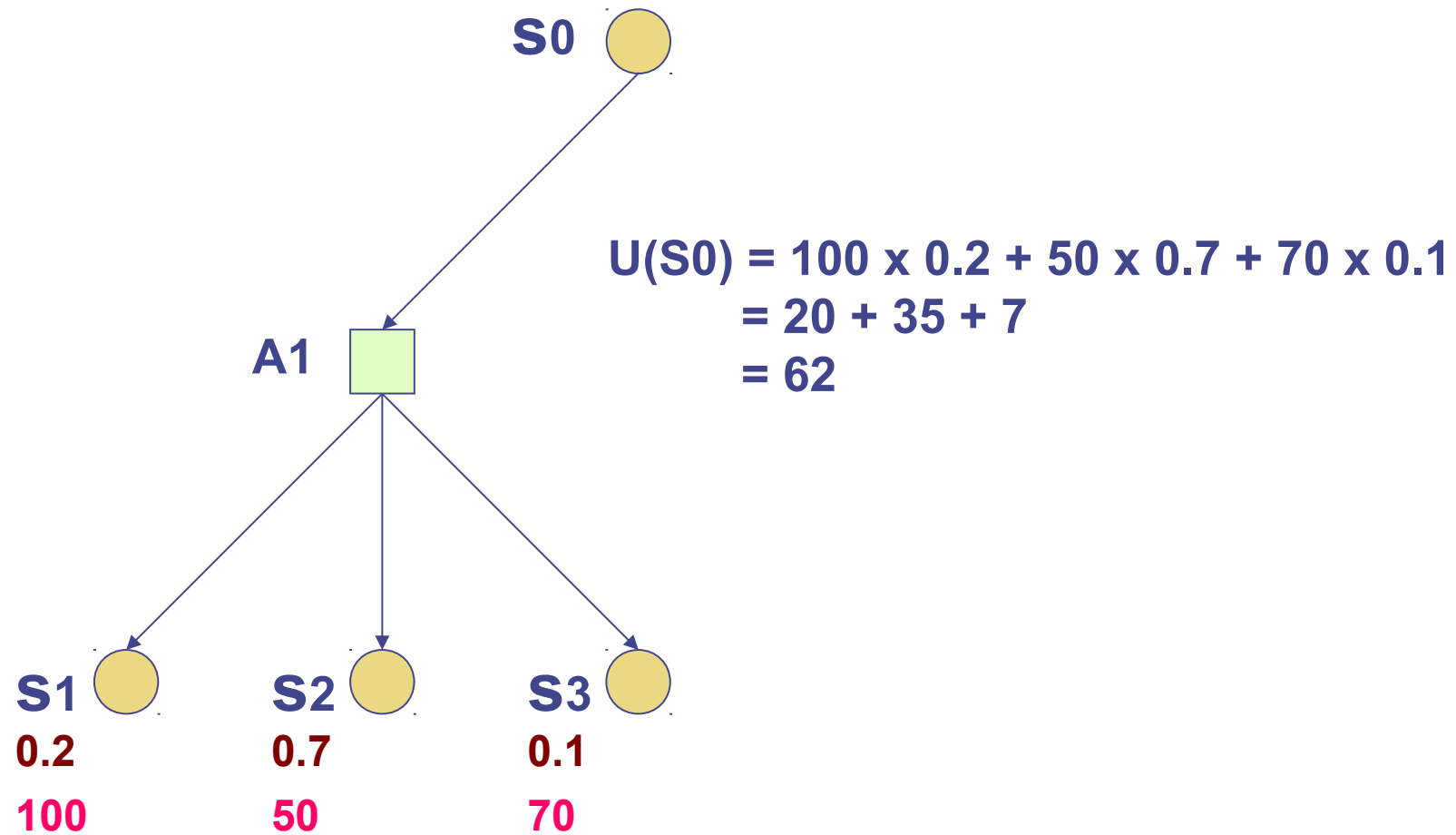
Given preferences satisfying the constraints there exists a real-valued function U such that

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

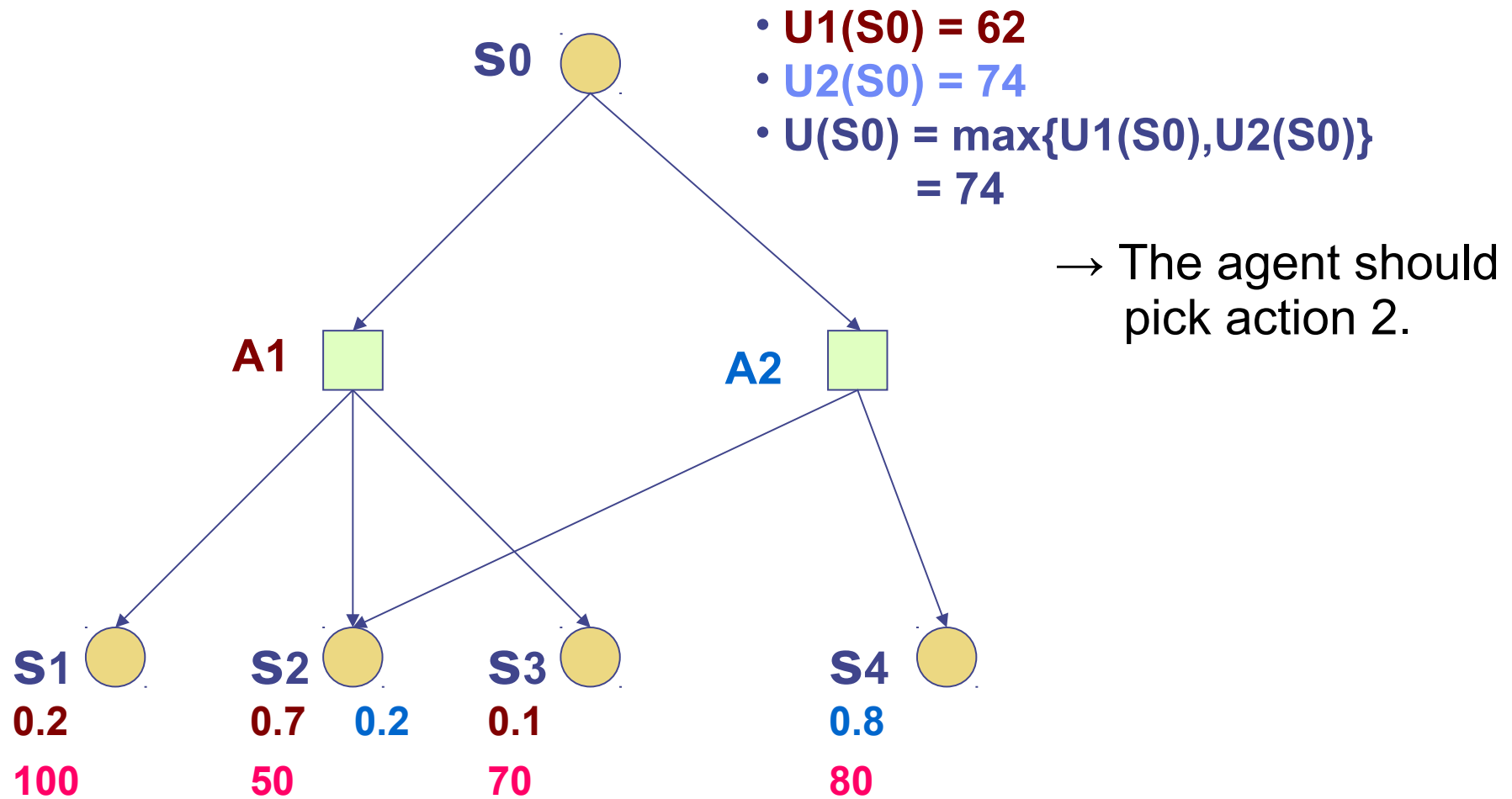
$$U([p_1, S_1; \dots ; p_n, S_n]) = \sum_i p_i U(S_i)$$

- Maximizing Expected Utility (MEU) principle**
 - An agent acts rationally if it selects the action that promises the highest expected utility
- Note that an agent may act rationally without knowing U or the probabilities!
 - e.g., according to pre-compiled look-up tables for optimal actions

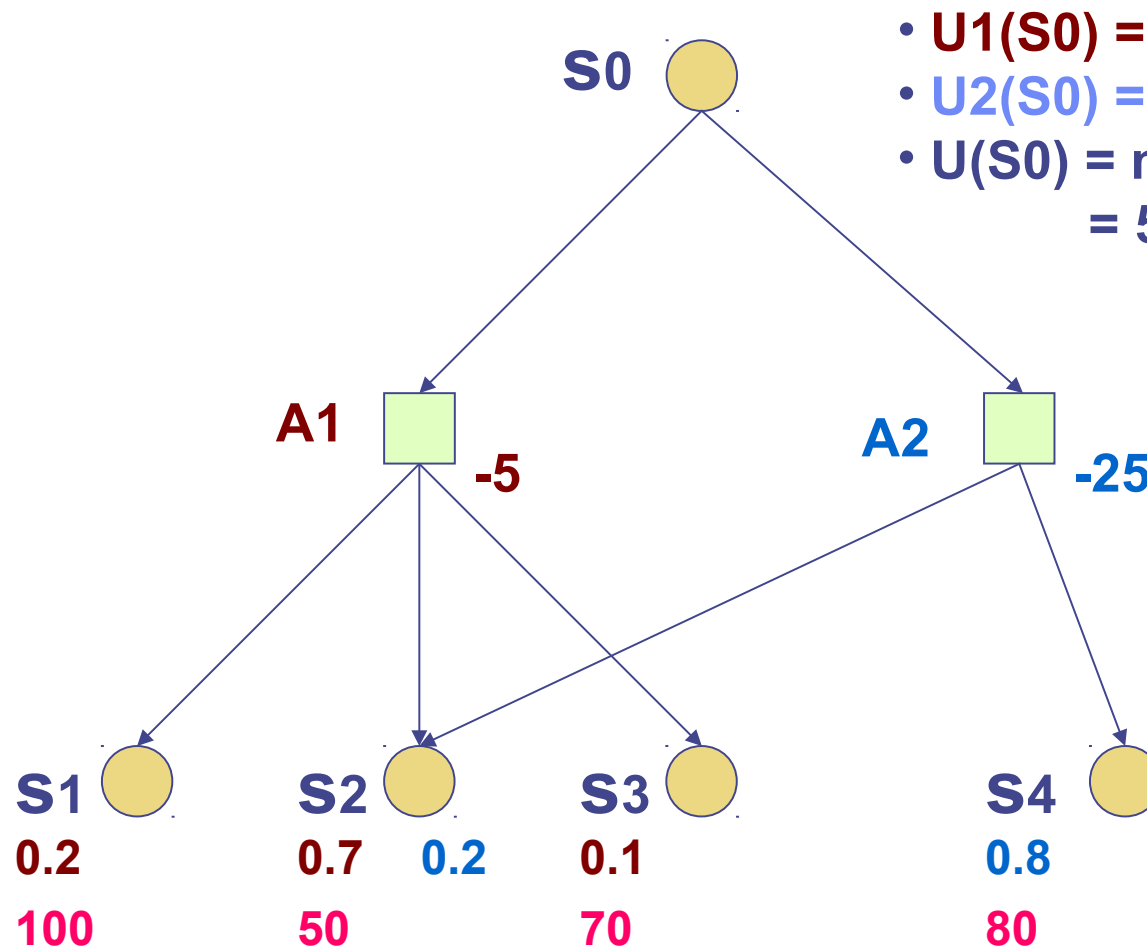
Example: Expected Utility of an Action



Example: Choice between 2 Actions



Example: Adding Action Costs



- $U_1(S_0) = 62 - 5 = 57$
- $U_2(S_0) = 74 - 25 = 49$
- $U(S_0) = \max\{U_1(S_0), U_2(S_0)\} = 57$

→ The agent should pick action 1.

MEU Principle

- A **rational agent** should choose the action that **maximizes** agent's **expected utility**
- This is the basis of the field of **decision theory**
- The MEU principle provides a **normative criterion** for rational choice of action

Do we now have a working definition of rational behavior?
And therefore solved AI?

Not quite...

- Must have **complete** model of:
 - Actions
 - Utilities
 - States
- Even if you have a complete model, it will be computationally **intractable**
- In fact, a truly rational agent takes into account the utility of reasoning as well – **bounded rationality**
- Nevertheless, great progress has been made in this area recently, and we are able to solve much more complex decision-theoretic problems than ever before

Decision Theory vs. Reinforcement Learning

- Simple decision-making techniques are good for selecting the best action in simple scenarios
- → Reinforcement Learning is concerned with selecting the optimal action in Sequential Decision Problems
 - Problems where a sequence of actions has to be taken until a goal is reached.

How to measure Utility?

An obvious idea: **Money**

- However, Money is not the same as utility

Example:

- If you just earned 1,000,000\$, are you willing to bet them on a double-or-nothing coin flip?
- How about triple or nothing?

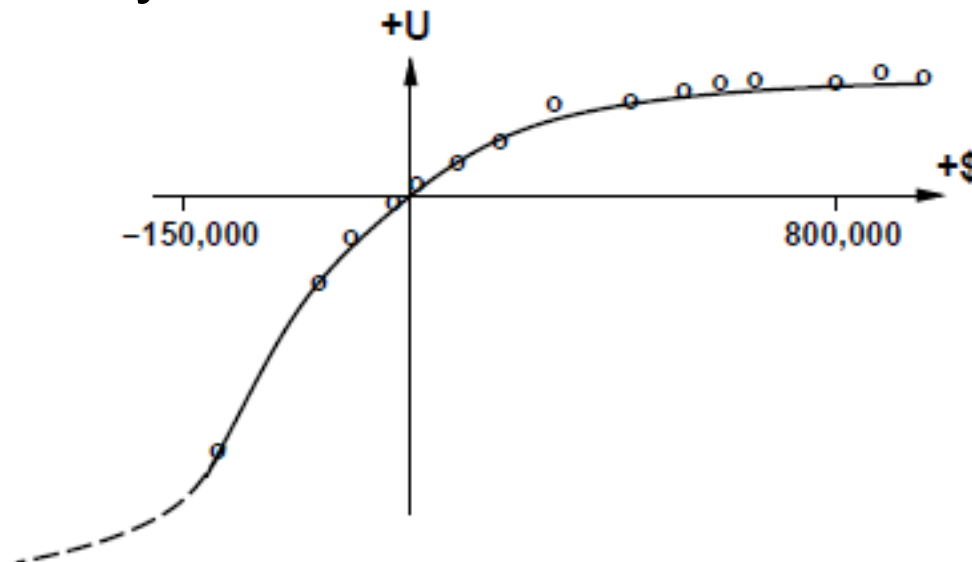
$$U(1,000,000) > EU([0.5, 0; 0.5, 3,000,000])?$$

$$U(1,000,000) > 0.5 \cdot U(0) + 0.5 \cdot U(3,000,000)?$$

Most people would grab a million and run, although the expected value of the lottery is 1.5 million

The Utility of Money

- Grayson (1960) found that the utility of money is almost exactly proportional to its logarithm
- One way to measure it:
 - Which is the amount of money for which your behavior between „grab the money“ changes to „play the lottery“?
 - Obviously, this also depends on the person i
 - if you already have 50 million, you are more likely to gamble...
- Utility of money for a certain Mr. Beard:



Risk-Averse vs. Risk-Seeking

- People like Mr. Beard are **risk-averse**
 - Prefer to have the expected monetary value of the lottery ($EMV(L)$) handed over than to play the lottery L

$$U(L) < U(S_{EMV(L)})$$

- Other people are **risk-seeking**
 - Prefer the thrill of a wager over secure money

$$U(L) > U(S_{EMV(L)})$$

- For **risk-neutral** people, the Utility function is the identity

$$U(L) = U(S_{EMV(L)})$$

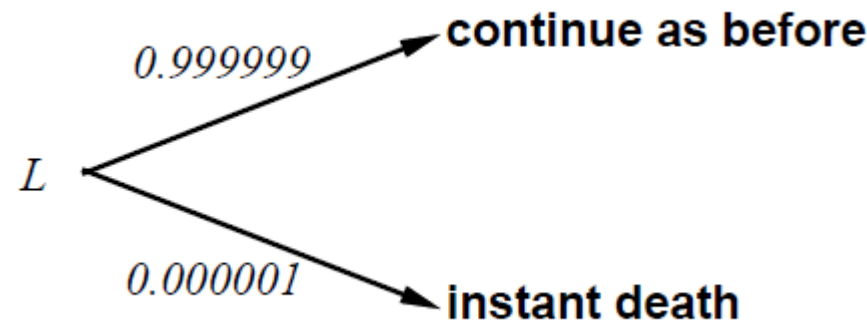
- The difference $U(L) - U(S_{EMV(L)})$ is called the **insurance premium**. This is the business model of insurances

General Approach to Assessing Utilities

- Find probability p so that the expected value of a lottery between two extremes corresponds to value of the prize A
 - compare a given state A to a standard lottery L_p that has
 - “best possible prize” u_{\top} with probability p
 - “worst possible catastrophe” u_{\perp} with probability $(1 - p)$
 - adjust lottery probability p until $A \sim L_p$
- Normalized utility scales interpolate $u_{\top} = 1.0, u_{\perp} = 0.0$
 - Normalization does not change the behavior of an agent, because (positive) linear transformations $U'(S) = k_1 + k_2 \cdot U(S)$ leave the ordering of actions unchanged
 - If there are no lotteries, any monotonic transformation leaves the preference ordering of actions unchanged

Other Units of Measurements for Utilities

- In particular for medicine and safety-critical environments, other proposals have been made (and used)
- Micromorts:
 - A **micromort** is the lottery of dying with a probability of one in a million



- It has been established that a micromort is worth about \$50.
 - Does not mean that you kill yourself for \$50,000,000 (we have already seen that utility functions are not linear...)
 - Used in safety-critical scenarios, car insurance, ...
- Quality-Adjusted Life Year (**QALY**)
 - A year in good health, used in medical applications

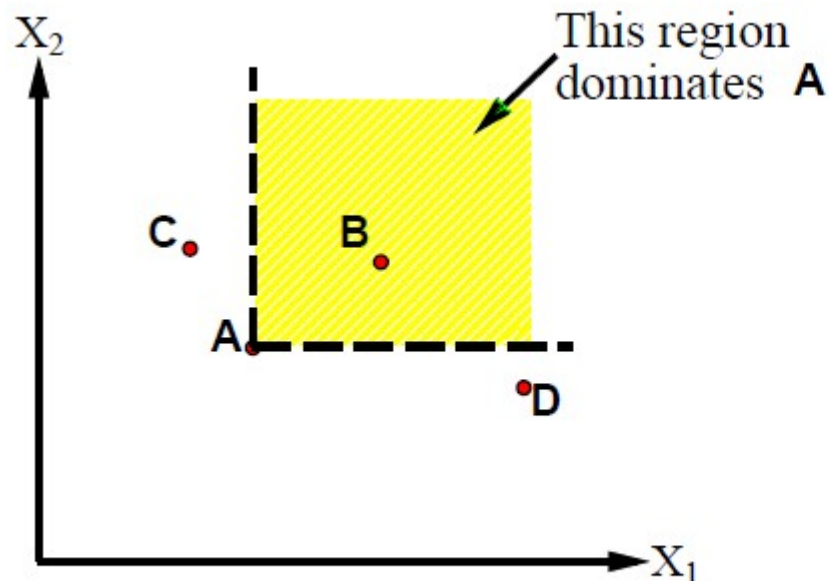
Multi-Attribute Utilities

- Often, the utility does not depend on a single value but on multiple values simultaneously
- Example: Utility of a car depends on
 - Safety
 - Horse-Power
 - Fuel Consumption
 - Size
 - Price
- How can we reason in this case?
 - It is often hard to define a function that maps multiple dimensions X_i to a single utility value $U(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$
→ **Dominance** is a useful concept in such cases

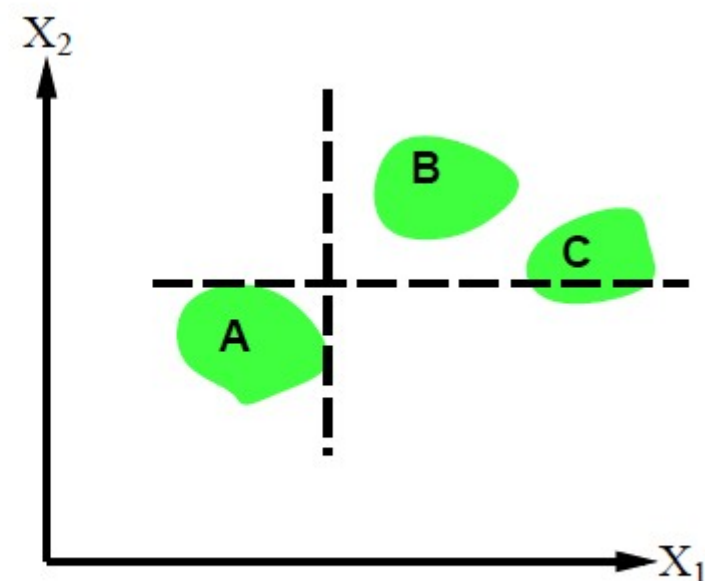
Strict Dominance

- Scenario A is better than Scenario B if it is better along all dimensions
- Example:
 - 2 dimensions, in both dimensions higher is better (utility grows monotonically with the value)

$$A \succ B \Leftrightarrow U(X_A, Y_A) \geq U(X_B, Y_B) \Leftrightarrow (X_A \geq X_B) \wedge (Y_A \geq Y_B)$$



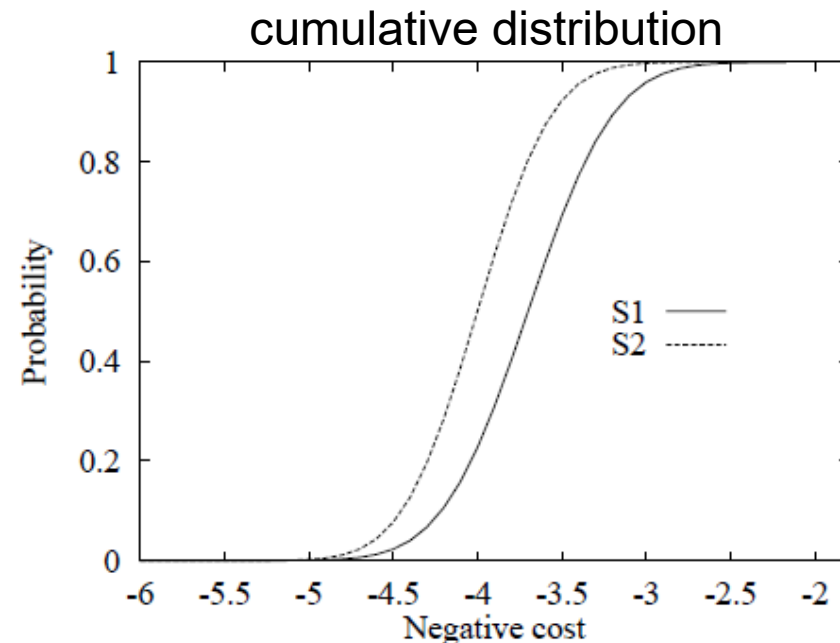
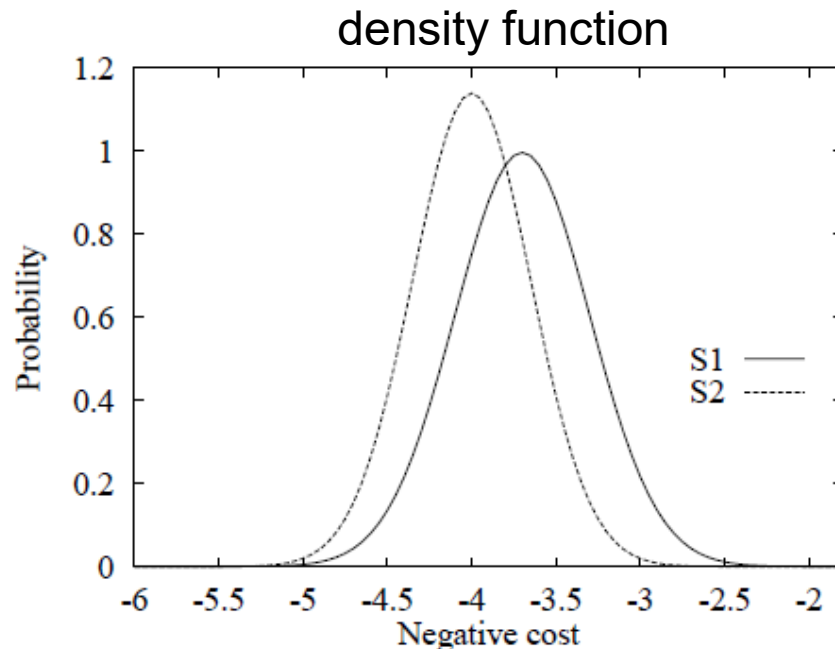
Deterministic attributes



Uncertain attributes

Stochastic Dominance

- Strict dominance rarely occurs in practice
 - The car that is better in horse-power is rarely also better in fuel consumption and price
- Stochastic dominance:
 - A utility distribution p_1 dominates utility distribution p_2 if the probability of having a utility less or equal a given threshold (cumulative probability) is always lower for p_1 than for p_2



Stochastic Dominance

- If two actions A_1 and A_2 lead to probability distributions $p_1(x)$ and $p_2(x)$ on attribute X , then

$$A_1 \text{ stochastically dominates } A_2 \text{ on attribute } X \text{ iff}$$

$$\forall x \in X \int_{-\infty}^x p_1(x') dx' \leq \int_{-\infty}^x p_2(x') dx'$$

Definition of stochastic dominance for probability distributions

- If U is monotonic in x , then A_1 with outcome distribution p_1 stochastically dominates A_2 with outcome distribution p_2 :

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_1(x)U(x)dx \geq \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_2(x)U(x)dx$$

- because high utility values have a higher probability in p_1
- Extension for Multiple attributes:
 - If there is stochastic dominance along all attributes, then action A_1 dominates A_2

Assessing Stochastic Dominance

- It may seem that stochastic dominance is a concept that is hard to grasp and hard to measure
- But actually it is often quite intuitive and can be established without knowing the exact distribution using qualitative reasoning
- Examples:
 - Construction costs for large building will increase with the distance from the city
 - For higher costs, the probability of such costs are larger for a site further away from the city than for a site that is closer to the city
 - Degree of injury increases with collision speed

Preference (In-)Dependence

- As with probability distribution, it may be hard to establish the utility for all possible value combinations of a multi-attribute utility function $U(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$
- Again, we can simplify things by introducing a notion of dependency
 - Attribute X_1 is preference-independent of attribute X_2 if knowing X_1 does not influence our preference in X_2
- Examples:
 - Drink preferences depend on the choice of the main course
 - For meat, red wine is preferred over white wine
 - For fish, white wine is preferred over red wine
 - Table preferences do not depend on the choice of the main course
 - A quiet table is always preferred, no matter what is ordered

Mutual Preference Independence

- A set of variables is mutually preferentially independent if each subset of variables is preferentially independent of its complement
 - Can be established by checking only attribute pairs (Leontief, 1947)
- If variables are mutually preferentially independent, the value function can be decomposed

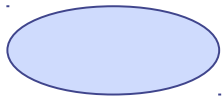
Theorem (Debreu, 1960): mutual P.I. $\Rightarrow \exists$ additive value function:

$$V(S) = \sum_i V_i(X_i(S))$$

- **Note:**
 - This only holds for deterministic environments (value functions). For stochastic environments (utility functions), establishing **utility-independence** is more complex

Decision Networks

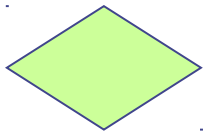
- Extend BNs to handle actions and utilities and enable rational decision making



- Chance nodes: random variables, as in BNs



- Decision nodes: actions that decision maker can take



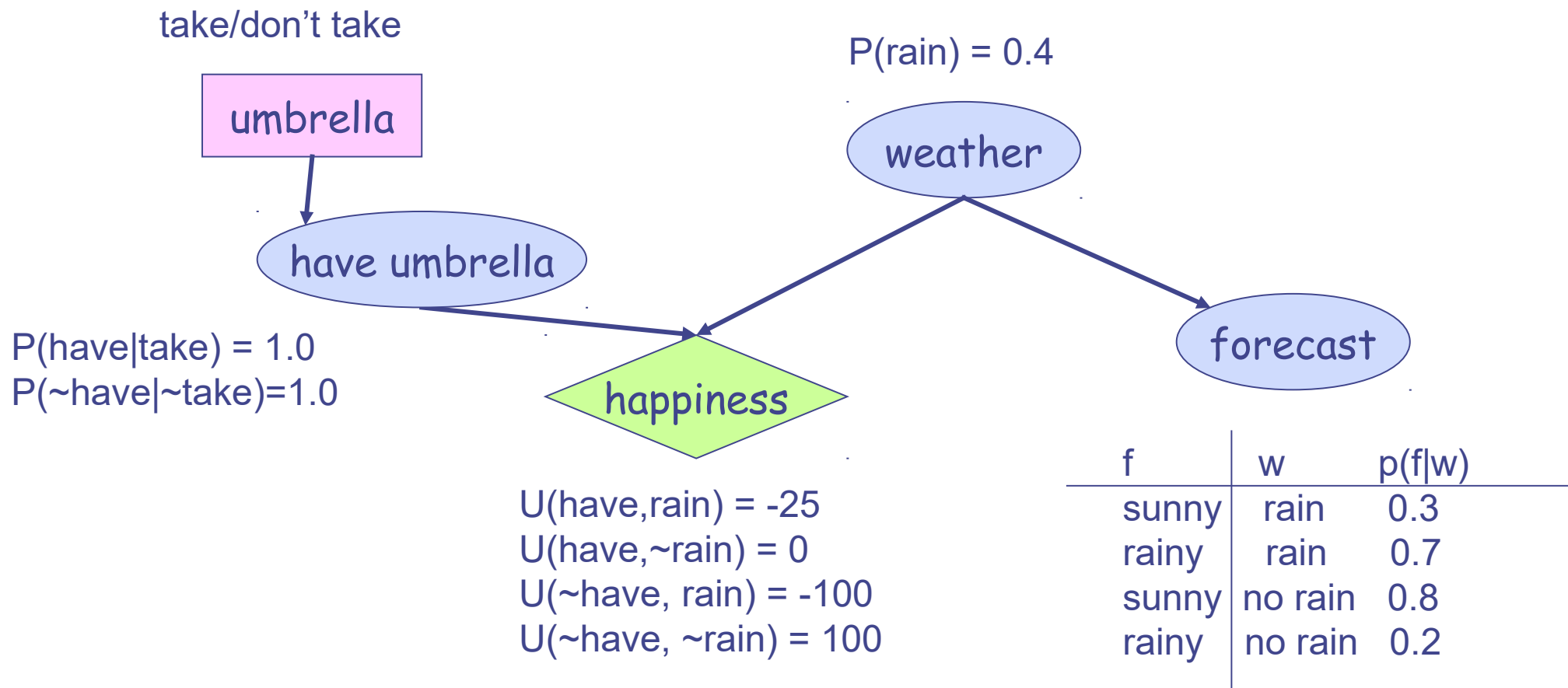
- Utility/value nodes: the utility of the outcome state.

- Use BN inference methods to solve

For each value of action node
compute expected value of utility node given action, evidence
Return MEU action

Example: Umbrella Network

- Should I take an umbrella to increase my happiness?



Evaluating Decision Networks

- Set the evidence variables for current state
- For each possible value (action) of the decision node:
 - Set decision node to that value
 - Calculate the posterior probability of the parent nodes of the utility node, using BN inference
 - Calculate the resulting utility for action
- Return the action with the highest utility
- In the Umbrella example:

$$EU(\text{take}) = 0.4 \times -25 + 0.6 \times 0 = -10$$

$$EU(\neg\text{take}) = 0.4 \times -100 + 0.6 \times 100 = +20$$

→ My expected utility is higher if I don't take the umbrella

- Note that we did not take the weather Report into account!
 - Would it be worth to get that information?

Value of Information

- Decision Networks allow to measure the value of information

Example: buying oil drilling rights

Two blocks A and B , exactly one has oil, worth k

Prior probabilities 0.5 each, mutually exclusive

Current price of each block is $k/2$

“Consultant” offers accurate survey of A . Fair price?

Solution: compute expected value of information

= expected value of best action given the information

minus expected value of best action without information

Survey may say “oil in A ” or “no oil in A ”, **prob. 0.5 each** (given!)

= $[0.5 \times$ value of “buy A ” given “oil in A ”

+ $0.5 \times$ value of “buy B ” given “no oil in A ”]

– 0

= $(0.5 \times k/2) + (0.5 \times k/2) - 0 = k/2$

Value of Perfect Information (VPI)

- General Idea:
 - Compute the Expected Utility of an action without the evidence
 - Compute the Expected Utility of the action over all possible outcomes of the evidence
 - The difference is the value of knowing the evidence.

- More formally

- current evidence E , α is best of actions A

$$EU(\alpha | E) = \max_A \sum_i U(\text{Result}_i(A)) \cdot P(\text{Result}_i(A) | Do(A), E)$$

- after obtaining new evidence E_j

$$EU(\alpha | E, E_j) = \max_A \sum_i U(\text{Result}_i(A)) \cdot P(\text{Result}_i(A) | Do(A), E, E_j)$$

- Difference between expected value over all possible outcomes e_{jk} of E_j and the expected value without E_j

$$VPI_E(E_j) = \left(\sum_k P(E_j = e_{jk} | E) \cdot EU(\alpha_{e_{jk}} | E, E_j = e_{jk}) \right) - EU(\alpha | E)$$

Properties of VPI

Nonnegative—in **expectation**, not **post hoc**

$$\forall j, E \quad VPI_E(E_j) \geq 0$$

Nonadditive—consider, e.g., obtaining E_j twice

$$VPI_E(E_j, E_k) \neq VPI_E(E_j) + VPI_E(E_k)$$

Order-independent

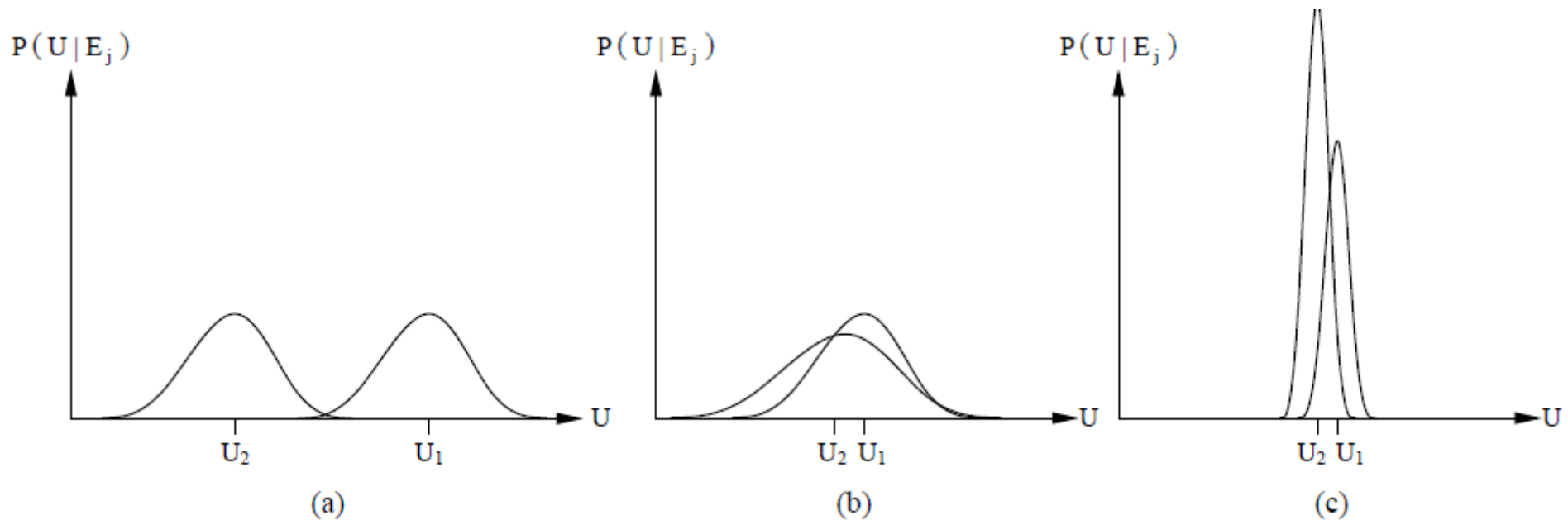
$$VPI_E(E_j, E_k) = VPI_E(E_j) + VPI_{E, E_j}(E_k) = VPI_E(E_k) + VPI_{E, E_k}(E_j)$$

Note: when more than one piece of evidence can be gathered, maximizing VPI for each to select one is not always optimal

⇒ evidence-gathering becomes a **sequential** decision problem

Qualitative Behaviors

- The value of information depends on the distribution of the new utility values in dependence of their old estimates



- Choice is obvious, information worth little
- Choice is nonobvious, information worth a lot
- Choice is nonobvious, information worth little

Real-World Decision Network

