## CSCI 446: Artificial Intelligence <br> Uncertainty and Utilities


[These slides were created by Dan Klein and Pieter Abbeel for CS188 Intro to AI at UC Berkeley. All CS188 materials are available at http://ai.berkeley.edu.]

## Today

- Uncertain Outcomes
- Expectimax
- Probabilities
- Modeling Assumptions
- Rationality
- Human Utilities


## Uncertain Outcomes



## Worst-Case vs. Average Case



Idea: Uncertain outcomes controlled by chance, not an adversary!

## Expectimax Search

- Why wouldn't we know what the result of an action will be?
- Explicit randomness: rolling dice
- Unpredictable opponents: the ghosts respond randomly
- Actions can fail: when moving a robot, wheels might slip
- Values should now reflect average-case (expectimax) outcomes, not worst-case (minimax) outcomes
- Expectimax search: compute the average score under optimal play
- Max nodes as in minimax search

- Chance nodes are like min nodes but the outcome is uncertain
- Calculate their expected utilities
- I.e. take weighted average (expectation) of children
- Later, we'll learn how to formalize the underlying uncertainresult problems as Markov Decision Processes


## Expectimax Pseudocode

## def value(state):

if the state is a terminal state: return the state's utility if the next agent is MAX: return max-value(state) if the next agent is EXP: return exp-value(state)
def max-value(state): initialize $v=-\infty$ for each successor of state:
v = max(v, value(successor)) return $v$
def exp-value(state):
initialize $v=0$
for each successor of state:
p = probability(successor)
v += p * value(successor)
return $v$

## Expectimax Pseudocode

```
def exp-value(state):
    initialize v = 0
        for each successor of state:
        p = probability(successor)
        v += p * value(successor)
    return v
```



$$
v=(1 / 2)(8)+(1 / 3)(24)+(1 / 6)(-12)=10
$$

## Expectimax Example



## Expectimax Pruning?



## Depth-Limited Expectimax



## Probabilities



## 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: $\mathrm{T}=$ whether there's traffic

0.25
- Outcomes: T in \{none, light, heavy\}
- Distribution: $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{T}=$ none $)=0.25, \mathrm{P}(\mathrm{T}=$ light $)=0.50, \mathrm{P}(\mathrm{T}=$ heavy $)=0.25$
- 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:
- $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{T}=$ heavy $)=0.25, \mathrm{P}(\mathrm{T}=$ heavy $\mid$ Hour=8am $)=0.60$
- We'll talk about methods for reasoning and updating probabilities later

0.25


## Reminder: Expectations

- The expected value of a function of a random variable is the average, weighted by the probability distribution over outcomes
- Example: How long to get to the airport?



## What Probabilities to Use?

- In expectimax search, we have a probabilistic 1 den of how the opponent (or environment) will beh any state
- Model could be a simple uniform distribution (roll a det)
- Model could be sophisticated and require a great deal of computation
- We have a chance node for any outcome out of our contr $p$ : opponent or environment
- The model might say that adversarial actions are likely!
- For now, assume each chance node magically comes along with probabilities that specify the distribution over its outcomes



## Quiz: Informed Probabilities

- Let's say you know that your opponent is actually running a depth 2 minimax, using the result $80 \%$ of the time, and moving randomly otherwise
- Question: What tree search should you use?

- Answer: Expectimax!
- To figure out EACH chance node's probabilities, you have to run a simulation of your opponent
- This kind of thing gets very slow very quickly
- Even worse if you have to simulate your opponent simulating you...
- ... except for minimax, which has the nice property that it all collapses into one game tree


## Modeling Assumptions



## The Dangers of Optimism and Pessimism

Dangerous Optimism
Assuming chance when the world is adversarial


## Dangerous Pessimism

Assuming the worst case when it's not likely


## Assumptions vs. Reality



|  | Adversarial Ghost | Random Ghost |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Minimax <br> Pacman | Won 5/5 | Won 5/5 |
| Expectimax <br> Pacman | Won $1 / 5$ | Wvere: 483 | Avg. Score: 493

Results from playing 5 games

Pacman used depth 4 search with an eval function that avoids trouble Ghost used depth 2 search with an eval function that seeks Pacman

## Other Game Types



## Mixed Layer Types

- E.g. Backgammon
- Expectiminimax
- Environment is an extra "random agent" player that moves after each min/max agent

- Each node computes the
 appropriate combination of its children


## Example: Backgammon

- Dice rolls increase $b: 21$ possible rolls with 2 dice
- Backgammon $\approx 20$ legal moves
- Depth $2=20 \times(21 \times 20)^{3}=1.2 \times 10^{9}$
- As depth increases, probability of reaching a given search node shrinks
- So usefulness of search is diminished
- So limiting depth is less damaging

- But pruning is trickier...
- Historic AI: TDGammon uses depth-2 search + very good evaluation function + reinforcement learning: world-champion level play
- $1^{\text {st }} \mathrm{Al}$ world champion in any game!


## Multi-Agent Utilities

- What if the game is not zero-sum, or has multiple players?
- Generalization of minimax:
- Terminals have utility tuples
- Node values are also utility tuples
- Each player maximizes its own component
- Can give rise to cooperation and competition dynamically...



## Utilities



## Maximum Expected Utility

- Why should we average utilities? Why not minimax?
- 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?


## What Utilities to Use?



- For worst-case minimax reasoning, terminal 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 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:

A Prize


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

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



## Rationality



## Rational Preferences

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

Axiom of Transitivity: $(A \succ B) \wedge(B \succ C) \Rightarrow(A \succ C)$

- For example: an agent with intransitive preferences can be induced to give away all of its money
- If $B>C$, 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

```
Orderability
    (A\succB)\vee(B\succA)\vee(A~B)
Transitivity
    (A\succB)}\wedge(B\succC)=>(A\succC
Continuity
    A\succB\succC=>\existsp[p,A;1-p,C]~B
Substitutability
    A~B=>[p,A;1-p,C]~[p,B;1-p,C]
Monotonicity
    A\succB=>
        ( }p\geqq\Leftrightarrow[p,A;1-p,B]\succeq[q,A;1-q,B]
```



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:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& U(A) \geq U(B) \Leftrightarrow A \succeq B \\
& U\left(\left[p_{1}, S_{1} ; \ldots ; p_{n}, S_{n}\right]\right)=\sum_{i} p_{i} U\left(S_{i}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

- I.e. values assigned by U preserve preferences of both prizes and lotteries!

- 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 tic-tac-toe, a reflex vacuum cleaner


## Human Utilities



## 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

$$
U^{\prime}(x)=k_{1} U(x)+k_{2} \quad \text { where } k_{1}>0
$$



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


## 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" $u_{+}$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 $\mathrm{EMV}(\mathrm{L})$ is $\mathrm{p}^{*} \mathrm{X}+(1-\mathrm{p})^{*} \mathrm{Y}$
- $\mathrm{U}(\mathrm{L})=\mathrm{p}^{*} \mathrm{U}(\$ \mathrm{X})+(1-\mathrm{p})^{*} \mathrm{U}(\$ \mathrm{Y})$
- Typically, $\mathrm{U}(\mathrm{L})<\mathrm{U}(\mathrm{EMV}(\mathrm{L}))$
- In this sense, people are risk-averse
- When deep in debt, people are risk-prone



## 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!
- It's win-win: you'd rather have the $\$ 400$ and
 the insurance company would rather have the lottery (their utility curve is flat and they have many lotteries)


## Example: Human Rationality?

- Famous example of Allais (1953)
- A: [0.8, \$4k; 0.2, \$0] ৫
- 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
- $\mathrm{B}>\mathrm{A} \Rightarrow \mathrm{U}(\$ 3 \mathrm{k})>0.8 \mathrm{U}(\$ 4 \mathrm{k})$

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


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