

Attribution: many of these slides are modified versions of those distributed with the <u>UC Berkeley CS188</u> materials Thanks to <u>John DeNero</u> and <u>Dan Klein</u>



Reasoning about actions under the assumption that the environment is *deterministic* (we knew exactly what would happen)

This is not terribly realistic. We may not know how an opponent will respond, for example. More generally, the world is a stochastic place.

Uncertain outcomes



Remember street fighter

score S = Ryu's health points - Ken's





Worst-case vs. average case







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 uncertain-result problems as **Markov Decision Processes**



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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 = -∞
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 pruning?



Depth-Limited expectimax



Probabilities



Review/primer: probabilities

A **random variable** represents an event whose outcome is unknown A **probability distribution** is an assignment of weights to outcomes

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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) = 0.50, P(T=heavy) = 0.25





0.50

0.25



Review/primer: probabilities

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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) = 0.50, P(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: P(T=heavy) = 0.25, P(T=heavy | Hour=8am) = 0.60 We'll talk about methods for reasoning and updating probabilities later







0.50

0.25



Review/primer: expectations of RVs

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?





Review/primer: expectations of RVs

The **expected value** of a random variable is the long-run average value of repetitions of the experiment it represents.

Expectations: a few useful facts

Theorem

For any two random variables X and Y

E[X+Y] = E[X] + E[Y].

Lemma

For any constant c and discrete random variable X,

 $\mathbf{E}[cX] = c\mathbf{E}[X].$

Distributions

Random variables follow distributions

Two important distributions:

- Bernoulli distribution (discrete; think coin flips)
- Normal distribution (continuous; e.g. IQ)

There are, of course, many (many!) others. We will return to this.



Distributions have *probability mass functions* that describe the relative likelihood of a random variable taking a given value.

Bernoulli distribution

A Bernoulli random variable takes 1 with probability p and 0 with probability 1-p.

A single coin toss is a good example.

Expectation: *p* Variance: *p*(1-*p*)





Generalizes the Bernoulli

Suppose we flip a coin *k* times and record the count of heads *Y*

This is called the *binomial* distribution

$$Y = \sum_{k=1}^{n} X_k \sim \mathbf{B}(n, p)$$

Note that the Bernoulli is a special case:

B(1, *p*)

"Fitting" data via Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE)

Suppose we observe a bunch of data points and we believe they are drawn from some underlying distribution / statistical model

• We'd like to estimate the parameters of this distribution from the data

Maximum likelihood estimation involves finding parameter values that maximize the likelihood function

Bernoulli MLE

 $\widehat{\pi} = \frac{\text{number of heads}}{N}$ Ν

More generally: what probabilities to use?

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 chance node for any outcome out of our control: opponent or environment
- The model might say that adversarial actions are likely!



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

Exercise: expectimax in SFII



Pop Q: 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

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?





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?



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



Rationality



Rational preferences

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

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

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 $(A \succ B) \lor (B \succ A) \lor (A \sim B)$ Transitivity $(A \succ B) \land (B \succ C) \Rightarrow (A \succ C)$ 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 $A \succ B \Rightarrow$ $(p \ge q \Leftrightarrow [p, A; 1-p, B] \succeq [q, A; 1-q, B])$



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:

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

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

• 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



Difficulties with utilities





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

 $U'(x) = k_1 U(x) + k_2$ where $k_1 > 0$

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



Normalizing 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" $u_{\scriptscriptstyle +}$ with probability p
 - "worst possible catastrophe" u_ with probability 1-p
- Adjust lottery probability p until indifference: A ~ L_p
- Resulting p is a utility in [0,1]







Money

Money **<u>does not</u>** 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*X + (1-p)*Y
 - $U(L) = p^*U(\$X) + (1-p)^*U(\$Y)$
 - Typically, U(L) < U(EMV(L))
 - In this sense, people are **risk-averse**
 - When deep in debt, people are **risk-prone**





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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!
- 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)



People are not rational

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($3k)$



Bias in utilities



That's it for today!

- Next time: **MDP**'s!!!
- **Note**: Homework 2 is available now!