

# 2534 Lecture 2: Utility Theory

- *Tutorial on Bayesian Networks: Weds, Sept.17, 5-6PM, PT266*
- *LECTURE ORDERING: Game Theory before MDPs? Or vice versa?*
  
- Preference orderings
- Decision making under strict uncertainty
- Preference over lotteries and utility functions
- Useful concepts
  - Risk attitudes, certainty equivalents
  - Elicitation and stochastic dominance
- Paradoxes and behavioral decision theory
- Multi-attribute utility models
  - preferential and utility independence
  - additive and generalized addition models

# Why preferences?

- Natural question: why not specify behavior with *goals*?
- Preferences: *coffee*  $\succ$  *OJ*  $\succ$  *tea*
  - Natural goal: coffee
    - but what if unavailable? requires a 30 minute wait? ...
  - allows alternatives to be explored in face of costs, infeasibility, ...

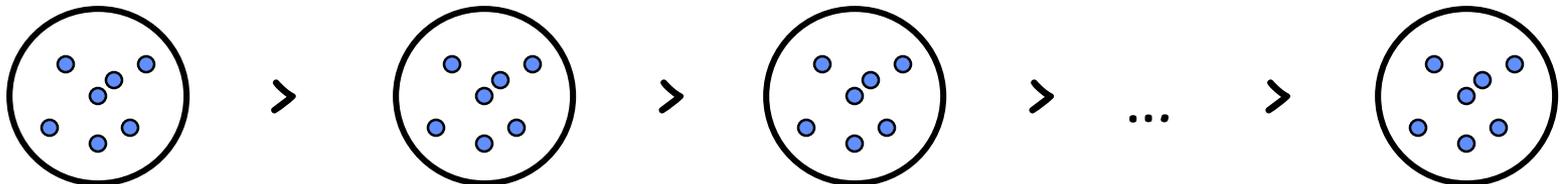


# Preference Orderings

- Assume (finite) outcome set  $X$  (states, products, etc.)
- *Preference ordering*  $\succsim$  over  $X$ :
  - $y \succsim z$  interpreted as: “I (weakly) prefer  $y$  to  $z$ ”
  - $y \succ z$  iff  $y \succsim z$  and  $z \not\sucsim y$  (strict preference)
  - $y \sim z$  iff  $y \succsim z$  and  $y \succsim z$  (indifference, *incomparability*?)
- Conditions:  $\succsim$  must be:
  - (a) *transitive*: if  $x \succsim y$  and  $y \succsim z$  then  $x \succsim z$
  - (b) *connected* (orderable): either  $y \succsim z$  or  $z \succsim y$
  - i.e., a total preorder

# Preference Orderings

- Total preorder: seems natural, but conditions reasonable?
  - implies (iff) strict relation  $>$  is asymmetric and neg. transitive\*
    - *\*if a not better than b, b not better than c, then a not better than c*
  - why connected? why transitive? (e.g., money pump)
- Are preference orderings enough?
  - decisions under certainty? under uncertainty?
- Exercise: what properties of  $\succcurlyeq, >$  needed if you desire incomparability?



# Revealed Preference

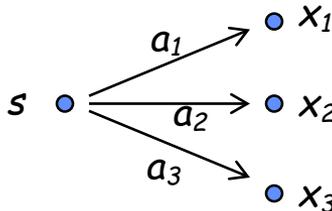
- Given a non-empty subset of  $Y \subseteq X$ , preferences “predict” choice:  $c(Y) \in X$  should be a most preferred element
- More general *choice function*: select subset  $c(Y) \subseteq Y$
- Given  $\succ$ , define  $c(Y, \succ) = \{y \in Y : \nexists z \in Y \text{ s.t. } z \succ y\}$ 
  - i.e., the set of “top elements” of  $\succ$  (works for partial orders too)
  - Exercise: show that  $c(Y, \succ)$  must be non-empty
  - Exercise: show that if  $y, z \in c(Y, \succ)$  then  $y \sim z$
- CF  $c$  is *rationalizable* iff exists  $\succ$  s.t. for all  $Y$ ,  $c(Y) = c(Y, \succ)$ 
  - are all choice functions rationalizable? (give counterexample)

# Weak Axiom of Revealed Preference

- Desirable properties of choice functions:
  - (AX1) If  $y \in Y$ ,  $Y \subseteq Z$ , and  $y \in c(Z)$ , then  $y \in c(Y)$
  - (AX2) If  $Y \subseteq Z$ ,  $y, z \in c(Y)$ , and  $z \in c(Z)$ , then  $y \in c(Z)$
- **Thm:** (a) given prefs  $\succ$ ,  $c(\cdot, \succ)$  satisfies (AX1) and (AX2)  
(b) if  $c$  satisfies (AX1) and (AX2), then  $c = c(\cdot, \succ)$  for some  $\succ$ 
  - Exercise: prove this
- Thus: a characterization of rationalizable choice functions
- Weak axiom of revealed preference:
  - (WARP) If  $y, z \in Y \cap Z$ ,  $y \in c(Y)$ ,  $z \in c(Z)$ , then  $y \in c(Z)$  and  $z \in c(Y)$
  - Alternative characterization:  $c$  satisfies WARP iff (AX1) and (AX2)

# Making Decisions: One-shot

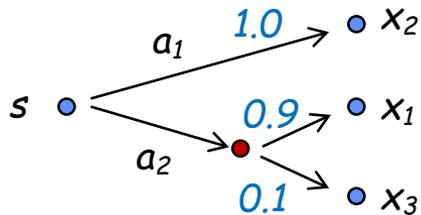
- Basic model of (one-shot) decisions:
  - finite set of actions  $A$ , each leads to set of possible outcomes  $X$
  - given preference ordering  $\succsim$ , is decision obvious?
- Deterministic actions:  $f:A \rightarrow X$ 
  - Let  $f(A) = \{f(a) \in X\}$  be the set of possible outcomes, choose a with *most preferred* outcome:  $c(f(A))$
  - preferences more useful than goals: what if  $A$  is set of *plans*?
- Is it always so straightforward?



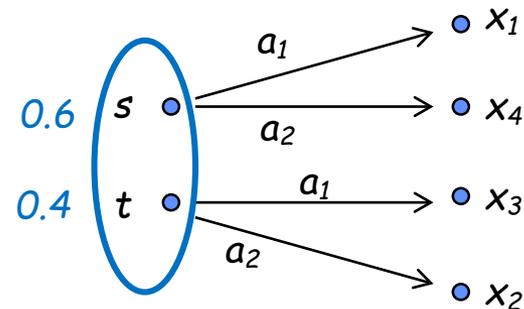
$x_1 \succ x_2 \succ x_3$ : then choose  $a_1$

# Making Decisions: Uncertainty

- What if a given action has several possible outcomes
  - Nondeterministic actions:  $f:A \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(X)$
  - Stochastic actions:  $f:A \rightarrow \Delta(X)$
  - Initial state uncertainty (nondeterministic or stochastic)



$x_1 > x_2 > x_3$ : choose  $a_1$  or  $a_2$  ?



$x_1 > x_2 > x_3 > x_4$ : choose  $a_1$  or  $a_2$  ?

# Making Decisions: Uncertainty

- Two solutions to this problem:
- Soln 1: Assign values to outcomes
  - decision making under *strict uncertainty* if nondeterministic
  - *expected value/utility theory* if stochastic
  - **Question:** where do values come from? what do they mean?
- Soln 2: Assign preferences to lotteries over outcomes
  - decision making under quantified uncertainty

# Making Decisions: Strict Uncertainty

- Suppose you have no way to quantify uncertainty, but each outcome has some “value” to you
  - require the value function respect  $\succsim$ :  $v(x) \geq v(y)$  iff  $x \succsim y$
- Useful to specify a decision table
  - rows: *actions*; columns: *states of nature*; entries: *values*
  - unknown states of nature dictate outcomes, table has:  $v(f(a, \theta_1))$

	$\theta_1$	$\theta_2$	...	$\theta_k$
$a_1$	$v_{11}$	$v_{12}$	...	$v_{1k}$
$a_2$	$v_{21}$	$v_{22}$	...	$v_{2k}$
...				
$a_n$	$v_{n1}$	$v_{n2}$	...	$v_{nk}$

# Strict Uncertainty: Decision Criteria

- **Maximin (Wald):** choose action with *best worst* outcome
  - $\max_a \min_{\theta} v(f(a, \theta))$
  - $a$  with max *security level*  $s(a)$
  - very pessimistic
- **Maximax:** choose action with *best best* outcome
  - $\max_a \max_{\theta} v(f(a, \theta))$
  - $a$  with max *optimism level*  $o(a)$
- Hurwicz criterion: set  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ 
  - $\max_a \alpha s(a) + (1 - \alpha)o(a)$

	$\theta_1$	$\theta_2$	$\theta_3$	$\theta_4$
$a_1$	2	2	0	1
$a_2$	1	1	1	1
$a_3$	0	4	0	0
$a_4$	1	3	0	0

- Maximin:  $a_2$
- Maximax:  $a_3$
- Hurwicz: *which decisions are possible?*
- What if  $a_3 = \langle 0.5 \ 3 \ 2 \ 2 \rangle$ ?

# Minimax Regret (Savage)

- *Regret* of  $a_i$  under outcome  $\Theta_j$ :  $r_{ij} = \max \{v_{kj}\} - v_{ij}$ 
  - How sorry I'd be doing  $a_i$  if I'd known  $\Theta_j$  was coming
  - Why worry about *worst* outcome: beyond my control
- *Minimax regret*: choose  $\arg \min_a \max_j r_{ij}$

	$\Theta_1$	$\Theta_2$	$\Theta_3$	$\Theta_4$	<i>Max Regret</i>
$a_1$	2 / 0	2 / 2	0 / 1	1 / 0	2
$a_2$	1 / 1	1 / 3	1 / 0	1 / 0	3
$a_3$	0 / 2	4 / 0	0 / 1	0 / 1	2
$a_4$	1 / 1	3 / 1	0 / 1	0 / 1	1

*\*red values are regrets  $r_{ij}$*

# Qualitative Criteria: Reasonable?

- Criteria all make sense at some level, but not at others
  - indeed, all have “faults”
- *Independence of irrelevant alternatives (IIA)*: adding an action to decision problem does not influence relative ranking of other actions

- Minimax regret violates IIA
  - $a_1$  lower MR than  $a_2$  (no  $a_3$ )
  - $a_2$  lower MR than  $a_1$  (with  $a_3$ )

	$\Theta_1$	$\Theta_2$	$\Theta_3$
$a_1$	6 / 0 / 0	9 / 0 / 0	3 / 1 / 5
$a_2$	2 / 4 / 4	9 / 0 / 0	4 / 0 / 4
$a_3$	0 / - / 6	0 / - / 9	8 / - / 0

\*red: regrets  $r_{ij}$  without  $a_3$

\*green: regrets  $r_{ij}$  with  $a_3$

- Classic impossibility result:
  - no qualitative decision criterion satisfies all of a set of intuitively reasonable principles (like IIA)

# Making Decisions: Probabilistic Uncertainty

## ■ What if:

- 2% chance no coffee made (30 min delay)? 10%? 20%? 95%?
- robot has enough charge to check only *one* possibility
- 5% chance of *damage* in coffee room, 1% at OJ vending mach.



# Preference over Lotteries

- If uncertainty in action/choice outcomes,  $\succsim$  not enough
- Each action is a “lottery” over outcomes

- A *simple lottery* over  $X$  has form:

$$l = [ (p_1, x_1), (p_2, x_2), \dots, (p_n, x_n) ]$$

where  $p_j \geq 0$  and  $\sum p_j = 1$

- outcomes are just trivial lotteries (one outcome has prob 1)

- A *compound lottery* allows outcomes to be lotteries:

$$[ (p_1, l_1), (p_2, l_2), \dots, (p_n, l_n) ]$$

- restrict to finite compounding

# Constraints on Lotteries

## ■ Continuity:

- If  $x_1 \succ x_2 \succ x_3$  then  $\exists p$  s.t.  $[(p, x_1), (1-p, x_3)] \sim x_2$

## ■ Substitutability:

- If  $x_1 \sim x_2$  then  $[(p, x_1), (1-p, x_3)] \sim [(p, x_2), (1-p, x_3)]$

## ■ Monotonicity:

- If  $x_1 \succcurlyeq x_2$  and  $p \geq q$  then  $[(p, x_1), (1-p, x_2)] \succcurlyeq [(q, x_1), (1-q, x_2)]$

## ■ Reduction of Compound Lotteries (“no fun gambling”):

- $[ (p, [(q, x_1), (1-q, x_2)] ), (1-p, [(q', x_3), (1-q', x_4)]) ]$   
 $\sim [ (pq, x_1), (p-pq, x_2), (q'-pq', x_3), ((1-p)(1-q'), x_4) ]$

## ■ Nontriviality:

- $x_T \succ x_\perp$

# Implications of Properties on $\succsim$

- Since  $\succsim$  is transitive, connected: representable by ordinal value function  $V(x)$
- With constraints on lotteries: we can construct a *utility function*  $U(l) \in \mathbf{R}$  s.t.  $U(l_1) \geq U(l_2)$  iff  $l_1 \succsim l_2$ 
  - where  $U([ (p_1, x_1), \dots, (p_n, x_n) ]) = \sum_i p_i U(x_i)$
  - famous result of Ramsey, von Neumann & Morgenstern, Savage
- Exercise: prove existence of such a utility function
- Exercise: given any  $U$  over outcomes  $X$ , show that ordering  $\succsim$  over lotteries induced by  $U$  satisfies required properties of  $\succsim$

# Implications of Properties on $\succsim$

- Assume some collection of actions/choices at your disposal
- Knowing  $U(x_i)$  for each *outcome* allows tradeoffs to be made over uncertain courses of action (lotteries)
  - simply compute expected utility of each course of action
- **Principle of Maximum Expected Utility (MEU)**
  - utility of choice is a expected utility of its outcome
  - appropriate choice is that with *maximum expected utility*
  - *Why? Action (lottery) with highest EU is the action (lottery) that is most preferred in ordering  $\succsim$  over lotteries!*

# Some Discussion Points

- Utility function existence: proof is straightforward
  - Hint: set  $U(x_T) = 1$ ;  $U(x_{\perp}) = 0$ ; find a  $p$  s.t.  $x \sim [(p, x_T), (1-p, x_{\perp})]$
- Utility function for  $\succ$  over lotteries is not unique:
  - any positive affine transformation of  $U$  induces same ordering  $\succ$
  - normalization in range  $[0, 1]$  common
- Ordinal preferences “easy” to elicit (if  $X$  small)
  - cardinal utilities trickier for people: an “art form” in decision anal.
- Outcome space often factored: exponential size
  - requires techniques of multi-attribute utility theory (MAUT)
- Expected utility accounts for risk attitudes: inherent in preferences over lotteries
  - see utility of money (next)

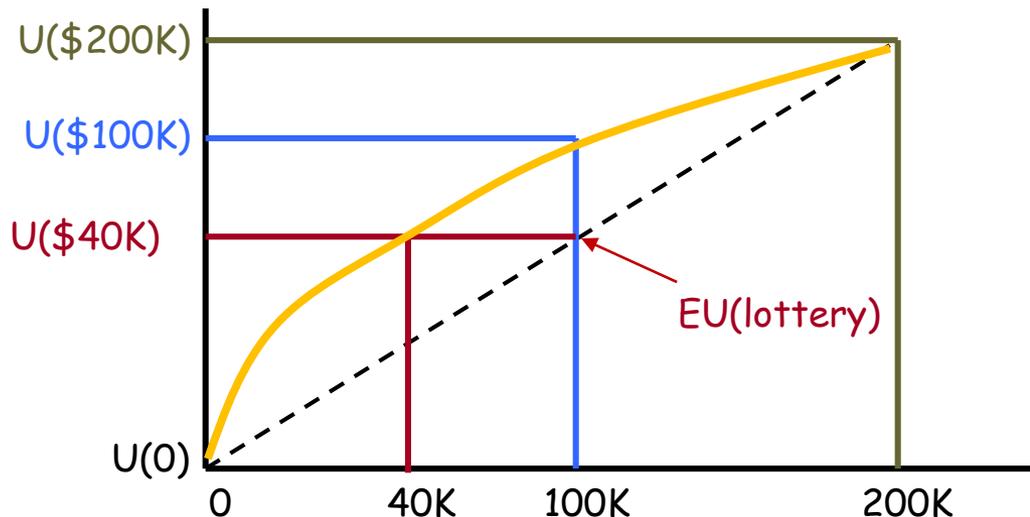
# Risk profiles and Utility of money

## ■ What would you choose?

- (a) \$100,000 or (b) [(0.5, \$200,000), (0.5, 0)]
- what if (b) was \$250K, \$300K, \$400K, \$1M;  $p = .6, .7, .9, .999, \dots$
- generally,  $U(\mathbf{EMV}(\text{lottery})) > U(\text{lottery})$  *EMV = expected monetary value*

## ■ Utility of money is nonlinear: e.g., $U(\$100K) > .5U(\$200K) + .5U(\$0)$

## ■ Certainty equivalent of $I$ : $U(CE) = U(I)$ ; $CE = U^{-1}(EU(I))$

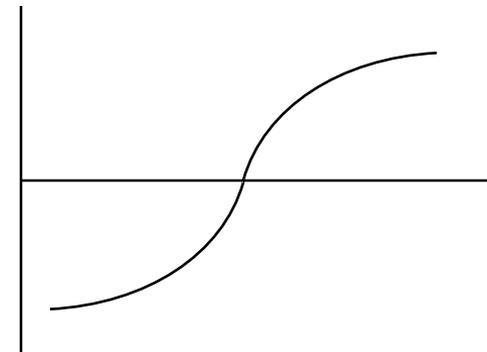


For many people,  $CE \sim \$40K$   
Note: 2<sup>nd</sup> \$100K "worth less"  
than 1<sup>st</sup> \$100K

----- Linear utility for money  
————— Concave utility for money

# Risk attitudes

- *Risk Premium:  $EMV(I) - CE(I)$* 
  - how much of EMV will I give up to remove risk of losing
- *Risk averse:*
  - decision maker has positive risk premium;  $U(\text{money})$  is concave
- *Risk neutral:*
  - decision maker has zero risk premium;  $U(\text{money})$  is linear
- *Risk seeking:*
  - decision maker has negative risk premium;  $U(\text{money})$  is convex
- Most people are risk averse
  - this explains insurance
  - often risk seeking in negative range
  - linear a good approx in small ranges



# St. Petersburg Paradox

- How much would you pay to play this game?
  - A coin is tossed until it falls heads. If it occurs on the  $N^{\text{th}}$  toss you get  $\$2^N$

$$EMV = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n 2^n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 1 = \infty$$

- Most people will pay about \$2-\$20
- Not a paradox *per se*... doesn't contradict utility theory

# A Game

- Situation 1: choose either
  - (1) \$1M, Prob=1.00
  - (2) \$5M, Prob=0.10; \$1M, Prob=0.89; nothing, Prob=0.01

# Another Game

- Situation 2: choose either
  - (3) \$1M, Prob=0.11; nothing, Prob=0.89
  - (4) \$5M, Prob=0.10; nothing, Prob=0.90

# Allais' Paradox

- Situation 1: choose either
  - (1) \$1M, Prob=1.00
  - (2) \$5M, Prob=0.10; \$1M, Prob=0.89; nothing, Prob=0.01
- Situation 2: choose either
  - (3) \$1M, Prob=0.11; nothing, Prob=0.89
  - (4) \$5M, Prob=0.10; nothing, Prob=0.90
- Most people: (1) > (2) and (4) > (3)
  - e.g., in related setups: 65% (1) > (2); 25% (3) > (4)
- Paradox: no way to assign utilities to monetary outcomes that conforms to expected utility theory and the stated preferences (violates substitutability)
  - possible explanation: *regret*

# Allais' Paradox: The Paradox

## ■ Situation 1: choose either

- (1) \$1M, Prob=1.00
  - *equiv: (\$1M 0.89; \$1M 0.11)*
- (2) \$5M, Prob=0.10; \$1M, Prob=0.89; nothing, Prob=0.01
- **So if (1)>(2), by subst: \$1M > (\$5M 10/11; nothing 1/11)**

## ■ Situation 2: choose either

- (3) \$1M, Prob=0.11; nothing, Prob=0.89
- (4) \$5M, Prob=0.10; nothing, Prob=0.90
  - *equiv: nothing 0.89; \$5M 0.10; nothing 0.01*
- **So if (4)>(3), by subst: (\$5M 10/11; nothing 1/11) > \$1M**

# ...and the Fall 2014 survey says

## ■ Situation 1:

- (1)>(2): a (x%)
- (2)>(1): b (y%)

## ■ Situation 2:

- (3)>(4): c (w%)
- (4)>(3): d (z%)

## ■ *The 2534 class of 2014 is \_\_\_\_\_*

- *many people who take a class on decision theory tend to think in terms of expected monetary value (so 2534 surveys tend to be consistent than more standard empirical results; however, if there was real money on the line, my guess is the proportions would be somewhat more in line with experiments)*

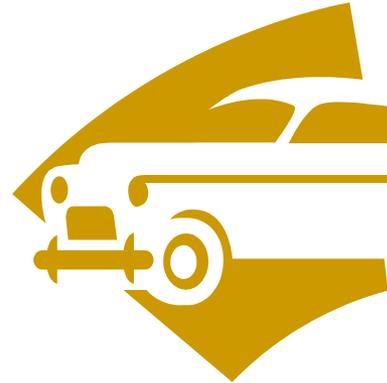
# Ellsberg Paradox

- Urn with 30 red balls, 60 yellow or black balls; well mixed
- Situation 1: choose either
  - (1) \$100 if you draw a red ball
  - (2) \$100 if you draw a black ball
- Situation 2: choose either
  - (3) \$100 if you draw a red or yellow ball
  - (4) \$100 if you draw a black or yellow ball
- Most people:  $(1) > (2)$  and  $(4) > (3)$
- Paradox: no way to assign utilities (all the same) and beliefs about yellow/black proportions that conforms to expected utility theory
  - possible explanation: *ambiguity aversion*

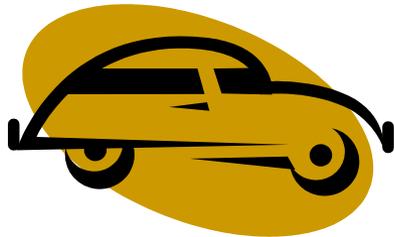
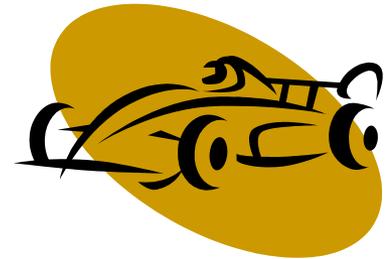
# Utility Representations

- Utility function  $u: X \rightarrow [0, 1]$ 
  - decisions induce distribution over outcomes
  - *or* we simply choose an outcome (no uncertainty), but constraints on outcomes
- If  $X$  is combinatorial, sequential, etc.
  - representing, eliciting  $u$  difficult in explicit form

# Product Configuration\*



*Luggage Capacity?  
Two Door? Cost?  
Engine Size?  
Color? Options?*



# COACH\*

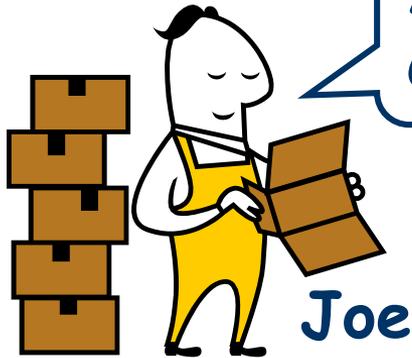
- POMDP for prompting Alzheimer's patients
  - solved using factored models, value-directed compression of belief space
- Reward function (patient/caregiver preferences)
  - indirect assessment (observation, policy critique)



# Winner Determination in Combinatorial Auctions

- *Expressive bidding* in auctions becoming common
  - expressive languages allow: combinatorial bids, side-constraints, discount schedules, etc.
  - direct expression of utility/cost: economic efficiency
- Advances in *winner determination*
  - determine least-cost allocation of business to bidders
  - new optimization methods key to acceptance
  - applied to large-scale problems (e.g., sourcing)

# Non-price Preferences



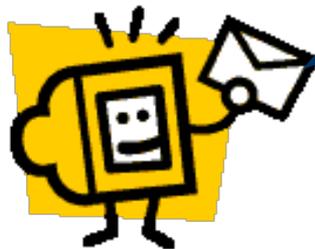
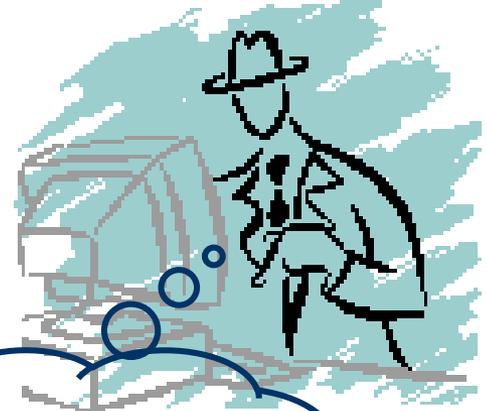
A and B for \$12000.  
C and D for \$5000...



A for \$10000.  
B and D for \$5000 if A;  
B and D for \$7000 if not A...

etc...

A, C to Fred.  
B, D, G to Frank.  
F, H, K to Joe...  
**Cost: \$57,500.**



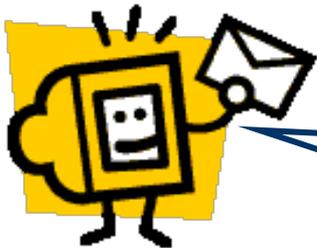
That gives too  
much business  
to Joe!!

# Non-price Preferences

- WD algorithms *minimize cost alone*
  - but preferences for *non-price attributes* play key role
  - Some typical attributes in sourcing:
    - *percentage volume business to specific supplier*
    - *average quality of product, delivery on time rating*
    - *geographical diversity of suppliers*
    - *number of winners (too few, too many), ...*
- Clear utility function involved
  - difficult to articulate precise tradeoff weights
  - “What would you pay to reduce *%volumeJoe* by 1%?”

# Manual Scenario Navigation\*

- Current practice: manual *scenario navigation*
  - impose constraints on winning allocation
    - **not a hard constraint!**
  - re-run winner determination
  - new allocation satisfying constraint: higher cost
  - assess tradeoff and repeat (often hundreds of times) until satisfied with some allocation



Here's a new allocation with  
less business to Joe.  
**Cost is now: \$62,000.**

# Utility Representations

- Utility function  $u: X \rightarrow [0, 1]$ 
  - decisions induce distribution over outcomes
  - *or* we simply choose an outcome (no uncertainty), but constraints on outcomes
- If  $X$  is combinatorial, sequential, etc.
  - representing, eliciting  $u$  difficult in explicit form
- Some structural form usually assumed
  - so  $u$  parameterized compactly (weight vector  $w$ )
  - e.g., linear/additive, generalized additive models
- *Representations for qualitative preferences, too*
  - e.g., CP-nets, TCP-nets, etc. [BBDHP03, BDS05]

# Flat vs. Structured Utility Representation

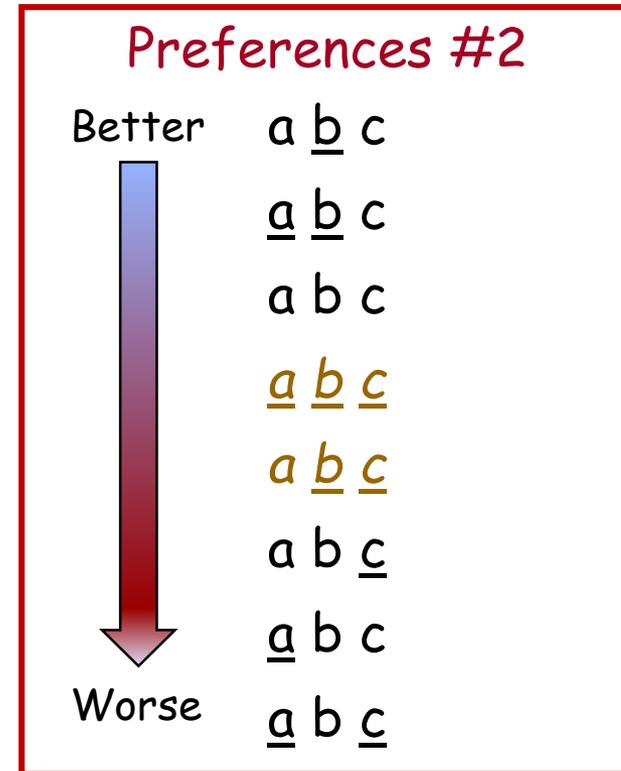
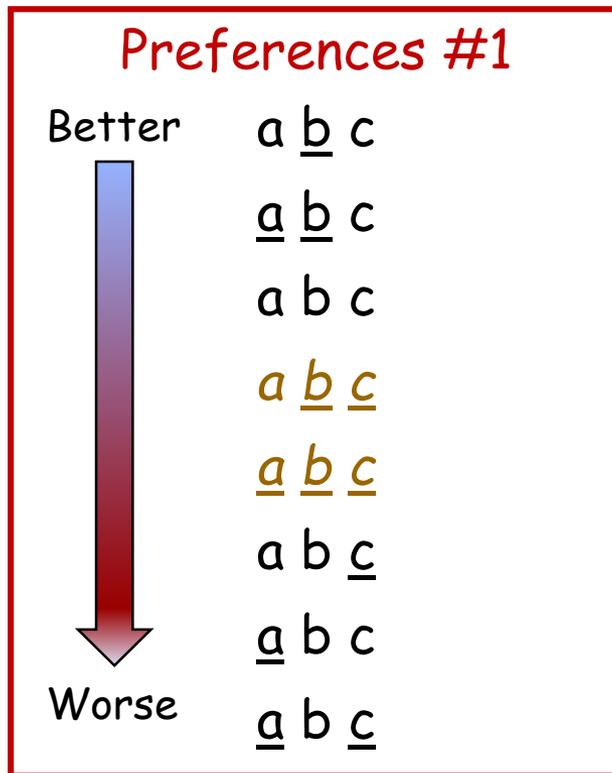
- Naïve representation: vector of values
  - e.g., *car7:1.0, car15:0.92, car3:0.85, ..., car22:0.0*
- Impractical for combinatorial domains
  - e.g., can't enumerate exponentially many cars, nor expect user to assess them all (choose among them)
- Instead we try to exploit independence of user preferences and utility for different attributes
  - the relative preference/utility of one attribute is independent of the value taken by (some) other attributes
- Assume  $X \subseteq \text{Dom}(X_1) \times \text{Dom}(X_2) \times \dots \times \text{Dom}(X_n)$ 
  - e.g., *car7: Color=red, Doors=2, Power=320hp, LuggageCap=0.52m<sup>3</sup>*

# Preferential, Utility Independence

- $X$  and  $Y = V-X$  are *preferentially independent* if:
  - $\mathbf{x}_1\mathbf{y}_1 \succeq \mathbf{x}_2\mathbf{y}_1$  iff  $\mathbf{x}_1\mathbf{y}_2 \succeq \mathbf{x}_2\mathbf{y}_2$  (for all  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2$ )
  - e.g., *Color: red > blue* regardless of value of *Doors, Power, LugCap*
  - conditional P.I. given set  $Z$ : definition is straightforward
  
- $X$  and  $Y = V-X$  are *utility independent* if:
  - $I_1(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{y}_1) \succeq I_2(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{y}_1)$  iff  $I_1(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{y}_2) \succeq I_2(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{y}_2)$  (for all  $\mathbf{y}_1, \mathbf{y}_2$ , all distr.  $I_1, I_2$ )
  - e.g., preference for *lottery(Red, Green, Blue)* does not vary with value of *Doors, Power, LugCap*
    - implies existence of a “utility” function over local (sub)outcomes
  - conditional U.I. given set  $Z$ : definition is straightforward

# Question

- Is each attribute PI of others in preference relation 1? 2?



- Does UI imply PI? Does PI imply UI?

# Additive Utility Functions

- *Additive representations* commonly used [KR76]
  - breaks exponential dependence on number of attributes
  - use sum of *local utility functions*  $u_i$  over attributes
  - or equivalently *local value functions*  $v_i$  plus scaling factors  $\lambda_i$

$$u(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i(x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i v_i(x_i).$$

- e.g.,  $U(\text{Car}) = 0.3 v_1(\text{Color}) + 0.2 v_2(\text{Doors}) + 0.5 v_3(\text{Power})$   
and  $v_1(\text{Color}) : \text{cherryred}:1.0, \text{metallicblue}:0.7, \dots, \text{grey}:0.0$
- This will make elicitation much easier (more on this next time)
- It *can* also make optimization more practical (more next time)

# Additive Utility Functions

- An additive representation of  $u$  exists iff decision maker is indifferent between any two lotteries where the marginals over each attribute are identical
  - $I_1(\mathbf{X}) \sim I_2(\mathbf{X})$  whenever  $I_1(X_i) = I_2(X_i)$  for all  $X_i$

$$u(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i(x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i v_i(x_i).$$

# Generalized Additive Utility

- *Generalized additive models* more flexible
  - *interdependent value additivity* [Fishburn67], GAI [BG95]
- assume (overlapping) set of  $m$  subsets of vars  $\mathbf{X}[j]$
- use sum of *local utility functions*  $u_j$  over attributes

$$u(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^m u_j(\mathbf{x}_j)$$

- e.g.,  $U(\text{Car}) = 0.3 v_1(\text{Color, Doors}) + 0.7 v_2(\text{Doors, Power})$  with  
 $v_1(\text{Color, Door}) : \text{blue, sedan:}1.0; \text{blue, coupe:}0.7; \text{blue, hatch:}0.1,$   
 $\text{red, sedan: }0.8, \text{red, coupe:}0.9; \text{red, hatch:}0.0$
- This will make elicitation much easier (more on this next time)
- It *can* also make optimization more practical (more next time)

# GAI Utility Functions

- An GAI representation of  $u$  exists iff decision maker is indifferent between any two lotteries where the marginals over each factor are identical
  - $l_1(\mathbf{X}) \sim l_2(\mathbf{X})$  whenever  $l_1(\mathbf{X}[i]) = l_2(\mathbf{X}[i])$  for all  $i$

$$u(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{j=1}^m u_j(\mathbf{x}_j)$$

# Further Background Reading

- John von Neumann and Oskar Morgenstern. *Theory of Games and Economic Behavior*. Princeton University Press, Princeton, 1944.
- L. Savage. *The Foundations of Statistics*. Wiley, NY, 1954.
- R. L. Keeney and H. Raiffa. *Decisions with Multiple Objectives: Preferences and Value Trade-offs*. Wiley, NY, 1976.
- P. C. Fishburn. Interdependence and additivity in multivariate, unidimensional expected utility theory. *International Economic Review*, 8:335–342, 1967.
- Peter C. Fishburn. *Utility Theory for Decision Making*. Wiley, New York, 1970.
- F. Bacchus , A. Grove. Graphical models for preference and utility. *UAI-95*, pp.3–10, 1995.
- S. French, *Decision Theory*, Halsted, 1986.