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Savage's Approach

Savage's approach to decision making has dominated decision theory since the 1950's. It assumes that a decision maker (DM) is given/has

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- a set O of outcomes

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Example: Betting on a horse race.

- \blacksquare S = possible orders of finish
- \bigcirc *O* = how much you win
- act = bet

Savage's Theorem

Savage assumes that a DM has a preference order \succeq on acts satisfying certain postulates:

• E.g. transitivity: if $a_1 \succeq a_2$ and $a_2 \succeq a_3$, then $a_1 \succeq a_3$.

He proves that if a DM's preference order satisfies these postulates, then the DM is acting as if

- \checkmark he has a probability \Pr on states
- he has a utility function u on outcomes
- he is maximizing expected utility:
 - $a \succeq b$ iff $E_{\Pr}[u_a] \ge E_{\Pr}[u_b]$.
 - $u_a(s) = u(a(s))$: the utility of act a in state s

Are Savage Acts Reasonable?

Many problems have been pointed out with Savage's framework. We focus on one:

- People don't think of acts as function from states to outcomes
- In a complex environment, it's hard to specify the state space and outcome space before even contemplating the acts
 - What are the states/outcomes if we're trying to decide whether to attack Iraq?
- What are the acts if we can't specify the state/outcome space?

Acts as Programs

An alternative: instead of taking acts to be functions from states to outcomes, we take acts to be syntactic objects

essentially, acts are programs that the DM can run.

Consider the act "Buy 100 shares of IBM":

Call the stock broker, place the order, ...

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Program can also have tests

if the Democrats win then buy 100 shares of IBM

To specify tests, we need a language

The Setting

Savage assumes that a DM is given a state space and an outcome

space. We assume that the DM has

- **•** a set \mathcal{A}_0 of primitive programs
 - Buy 100 shares of IBM
 - Attack Iraq
- a set T_0 of primitive tests (i.e., formulas)
 - The price/earnings ratio is at least 7
 - The moon is in the seventh house
- \checkmark a theory AX
 - Some axioms that describe relations between tests
 - E.g., $t_1 \Leftrightarrow t_2 \wedge t_3$

The Programming Language

In this talk, we consider only one programming construct:

- if ... then ... else
 - If a_1 and a_2 are programs, and t is a test, then if t then a_1 else a_2 is a program
 - if moon in seventh house then buy 100 shares IBM
- \blacksquare tests formed by closing off T_0 under conjunction and negation:
 - tests are just propositional formulas
- Let \mathcal{A} denote this set of programs (acts).

In the full paper we also consider randomization.

With probability r perform a_1 ; with probability 1 - r, perform a_2

Programming Language Semantics

What should a program *mean*?

In this paper, we consider *input-output* semantics:

- A program defines a function from states to outcomes
 - once we are given a state space and an outcome space, a program determines a Savage act
- The state and outcome spaces are now subjective.
 - Different agents can model them differently
- The agent's theory AX affects the semantics:
 - interpretation of tests must respect the axioms

Semantics: Formal Details I

Given a state space S and an outcome space O, we want to view a program as a function from S to O, that respects AX. We first need

- a program interpretation ρ_{SO} that associates with each primitive program in \mathcal{A}_0 a function from S to O
- a test interpretation π_S that associates with each primitive proposition in T_0 an event (a subset of S)
 - extend to T in the obvious way
 - require that $\pi_S(t) = S$ for each axiom $t \in AX$
 - axioms are necessarily true



Can extend ρ_{SO} to a function that associates with each program in \mathcal{A} a function from S to O:

$$\rho_{SO}(\text{if } t \text{ then } a_1 \text{ else } a_2)(s) = \begin{cases} \rho_{SO}(a_1)(s) \text{ if } s \in \pi_S(t) \\ \rho_{SO}(a_2)(s) \text{ if } s \notin \pi_S(t) \end{cases}$$

Where We're Headed

We prove the following type of theorem:

If a DM has a preference order on programs satisfying appropriate postulates, then there exist

- \checkmark a state space S,
- \checkmark a probability \Pr on S,
- \checkmark an outcome space O,
- \blacksquare a utility function u on O,
- a program interpretation ho_{SO} ,
- \checkmark a test interpretation π_S

such that $a \succeq b$ iff $E_{\Pr}[u_{\rho_{SO}(a)}] \geq E_{\Pr}[u_{\rho_{SO}(b)}].$



- This is a Savage-like result
 - The postulates are variants of standard postulates
 - The DM has to put a preference order only on "reasonable" acts But now S and O are subjective, just like \Pr and u!
 - S, O, Pr, u, ρ_{SO} , and π_S are all in the DM's head
 - \checkmark S and O are not part of the description of the problem

The Benefits of the Approach

We have replaced Savage acts by programs and prove Savage-type theorems. So what have we gained?

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We have replaced Savage acts by programs and prove Savage-type theorems. So what have we gained?

- Acts are easier for a DM to contemplate
 - No need to construct a state space/outcome space
 - Just think about what you can do
- Different agents can have different conceptions of the world
 - You might make decision on stock trading based on price/earnings ratio
 - I might use astrology (and might not even understand the notion of p/e ratio)



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- Can deal with unanticipated events, novel concepts:
 - Updating \neq conditioning
- We do not have to identify two acts that act the same as functions
 - Can capture resource-bounded reasoning (agent can't tell two acts are equivalent)
 - allow nonstandard truth assignments
 - \checkmark $t_1 \wedge t_2$ may not be equivalent to $t_2 \wedge t_1$
- Can capture framing effects

Example: [McNeill et al.] DMs are asked to choose between surgery or radiation therapy as a treatment for lung cancer. They are told that,

- Version 1: of 100 people having surgery, 90 alive after operation,
 68 alive after 1 year, 34 alive after 5 years; with radiation, all live through the treatment, 77 alive after 1 year, 22 alive after 5 years
- Version 2: with surgery, 10 die after operation, 32 dead after one year, 66 dead after 5 years; with radiation, all live through the treatment, 23 dead after one year, 78 dead after 5 years.

Both versions equivalent, but

- In Version 1, 18% of DMs prefer radiation;
- in Version 2, 44% do

Framing in our Framework

Primitive propositions:

- \blacksquare RT: 100 people have radiation therapy;
- \checkmark S: 100 people have surgery;
- $L_0(k)$: k/100 people live through operation (i = 0)
- $L_1(k)$: k/100 are alive after one year
- $L_5(k)$: k/100 are alive after five years
- ${}$ $D_0(k)$, $D_1(k)$, $D_5(k)$ similar, with death

Primitive programs

- a_S : perform surgery (primitive program)
- \blacksquare a_R : perform radiation therapy



Version 1: Which program does the DM prefer: $a_1 = \text{if } t_1 \text{ then } a_S \text{ else } a$, or $a_2 = \text{if } t_1 \text{ then } a_R \text{ else } a$, where a is an arbitary program and $t_1 = (S \Rightarrow L_0(90) \land L_1(68) \land L_5(34)) \land$

$$(RT \Rightarrow L_0(100) \land L_1(77) \land L_5(22))$$

- Can similarly capture Version 2, with analogous test t_2 and programs b_1 and b_2
- Perfectly consistent to have $a_1 \succ a_2$ and $b_2 \succ b_1$
- A DM does not have to identify t_1 and t_2
 - Preferences should change once $t_1 \Leftrightarrow t_2$ is added to theory

The Cancellation Postulate

Back to the Savage framework:

Cancellation Postulate: Given two sequences $\langle a_1, \ldots, a_n \rangle$ and $\langle b_1, \ldots, b_n \rangle$ of acts, suppose that for each state $s \in S$

$$\{\{a_1(s),\ldots,a_n(s)\}\} = \{\{b_1(s),\ldots,b_n(s)\}\}.$$

• $\{\{o, o, o, o', o'\}\}$ is a *multiset* If $a_i \succeq b_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, n-1$, then $b_n \succeq a_n$. Cancellation is surprising powerful. It implies

- Reflexivity
- Transitivity:
 - Suppose $a \succeq b$ and $b \succeq c$. Take $\langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle = \langle a, b, c \rangle$ and $\langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle = \langle b, c, a \rangle$.
- Event independence:
 - Suppose that $T \subseteq S$ and $f_Tg \succeq f'_Tg$
 - f_Tg is the act that agrees with f on T and g on S T.
 - Take $\langle a_1, a_2 \rangle = \langle f_T g, f'_T h \rangle$ and $\langle b_1, b_2 \rangle = \langle f'_T g, f_T h \rangle$.
 - Conclusion: $f_Th \succeq f'_Th$

Cancellation in Our Framework

A program maps truth assignments to primitive programs:

- **9** E.g., consider if t then a_1 else (if t' then a_2 else a_3):
 - $t \wedge t' \rightarrow a_1$
 - $t \wedge \neg t' \rightarrow a_1$
 - $\neg t \wedge t' \rightarrow a_2$
 - $\neg t \land \neg t' \to a_3$

Similarly for every program.

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Can rewrite the cancellation postulate using programs:

- replace "outcomes" by "primitive programs"
- replace "states" by "truth assignments"

Theorem: Given a preference orders \succeq on acts satisfying Cancellation, there exist

- \checkmark a set S of states and a set $\mathcal P$ of probability measures on S,
- \blacksquare a set O of outcomes and a utility function u on O,
- a program interpretation ho_{SO} ,
- **)** a test interpretation π_S

such that

$$a \succeq b$$
 iff $E_{\Pr}[u_a] \geq E_{\Pr}[u_b]$ for all $\Pr \in \mathcal{P}$.

Moreover, if \succeq is totally ordered, then \mathcal{P} can be taken to be a singleton.



In the representation, can always take the state space to have the form $AT \times TOT(\succeq)$:

- \blacksquare AT = all truth assignments to tests
- $TOT(\succeq)$ = total orders extending \succeq

Updating proceeds by conditioning:

- Learn $a \succeq b$: representation is $\mathcal{P} \mid (\succeq \oplus (a, b))$

Uniqueness

Savage gets uniqueness; we don't:

- We do have a canonical representation $AT \times TOT(\succeq)$
- In the totally ordered case, S = AT.
- $\textbf{ S} \quad \textbf{Cannot take } S = AT \text{ in the partially-ordered case }$
 - Even with no primitive propositions, if primitive programs a and b are incomparable, need two states, two outcomes, and two probability measures to represent this.
- Can't hope to have a unique probability measure on S, even in the totally ordered case: there aren't enough acts.
 - Savage's postulates force uncountably many acts

Program Equivalence

When are two programs equivalent?

- That depends on the choice of semantics
- Solution With input-output semantics, two programs are equivalent if they determine the same functions *no matter what* S, O, π_S, ρ_{SO} are.

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Example 1: (if t then a else b) \equiv (if $\neg t$ then b else a).

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These programs determine the same functions, no matter how t, a, and b are interpreted.

Example 2: If $t \equiv t'$, then

(if t then a else b) \equiv (if t' then a else b).

Cancellation and Equivalence

Testing equivalence of propositional formulas is hard

- co-NP complete, even for this simple programming language
- Have to check propositional equivalence

Cancellation implies a DM is indifferent between equivalent programs. Lemma: Cancellation \Rightarrow if $a \equiv b$, then $a \sim b$.

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- Cancellation requires smart decision makers!
- We don't have to require cancellation
 - Can consider more resource-bounded DM's

Conclusions

The theorems we have proved show only that this approach generalizes the classic Savage approach.

- The really interesting steps are now to use the approach to deal with issues that the classical approach can't deal with
 - conditioning on unanticipated events
 - (un)awareness
 - papers with Rêgo
 - learning concepts
 - **_**