

Decision analysis and expected utility hypothesis

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Decision analysis

- ▶ Especially in business (and naturally many other areas, too) it is common that we must answer the question “what should we do next?”
- ▶ When the decision process deals with quantifiable concepts in such a way that the goal can be expressed numerically (e.g., minimize losses/risk, maximize profits), it is natural that this problem is of mathematical nature
- ▶ Therefore, mathematics must be able to provide tools which can help to find an answer to the problem
- ▶ One branch of mathematics that deals with problems like this is *decision analysis*
 - ▶ Heavily connected to statistics and probability calculations

Decision tree

- ▶ Decision analysis can be made using multiple tools, but by far the most common (and easiest to implement) method is to employ a *decision tree*
 - ▶ Simple idea, graphical nature helps understanding
- ▶ A decision tree consists of a root and three different kinds of nodes, and it is drawn followingly:
 - ▶ *Root* (starting point) to left*, all possible scenarios branch and proceed from left to right
 - ▶ Nodes which represent choice situations (*decision nodes*) are drawn as squares; edges leaving these are *options*
 - ▶ Nodes which represent random outcomes (*chance nodes*) are drawn as circles; edges leaving these are *chances*
 - ▶ Nodes which are final outcomes of decision paths (*end nodes*) are drawn as triangles or left without a symbol with just the final *outcome value* written

*Some authors prefer top-to-bottom instead of left-to-right progression.

Decision tree

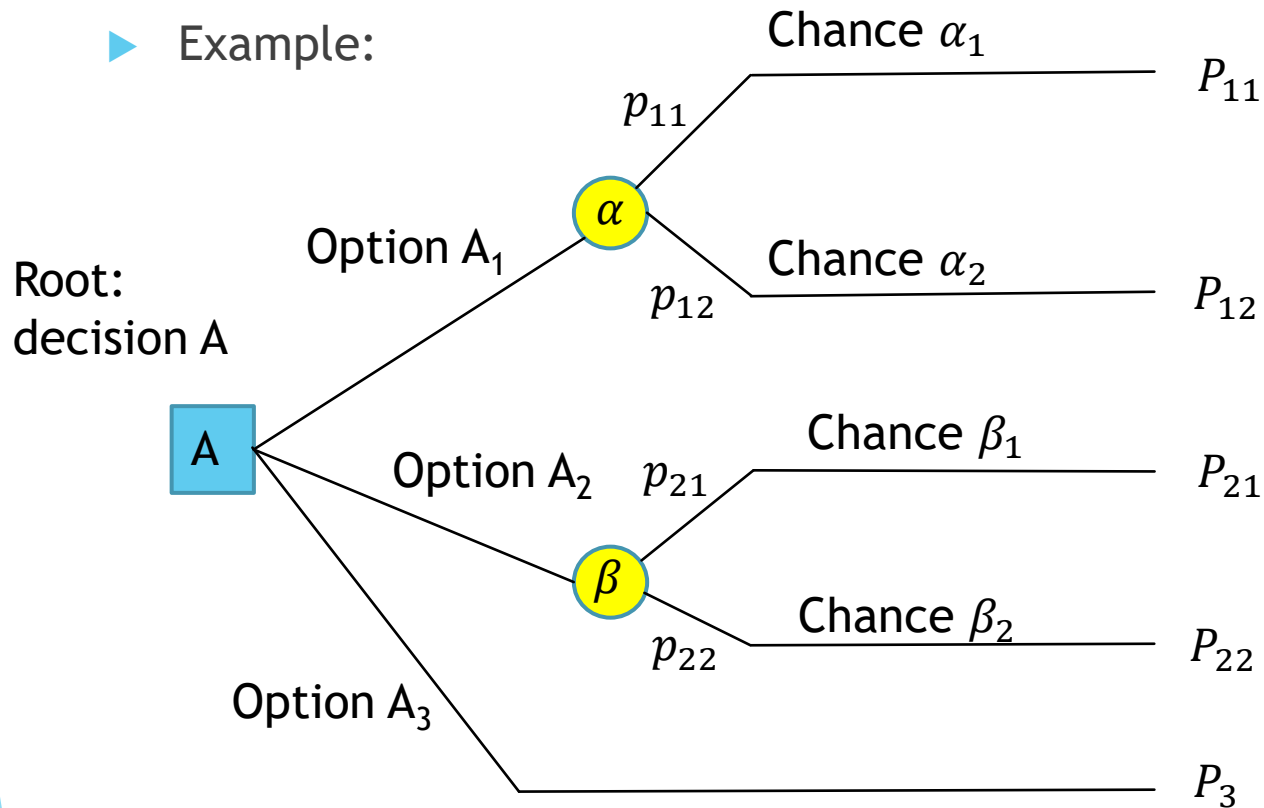
- ▶ Decision nodes are usually labeled with (uppercase) letters, so that we can refer to them more easily
 - ▶ Edges that leave decision nodes (options) are employed with short descriptions of the options
- ▶ Chance nodes are left without a label or labeled with (lowercase) Greek letters
 - ▶ Edges that leave chance nodes (chances) are employed with short descriptions of chances and their probabilities
 - ▶ Sum of chance probabilities leaving a chance node is 1
- ▶ In end nodes we just write the numeric values of final outcomes

Note: In the examples of this lecture I've left everything unlabeled, since there aren't that many nodes.

Decision tree

Outcomes

► Example:



$$p_{11} + p_{12} = 1$$

$$p_{21} + p_{22} = 1$$

Decision trees in finance

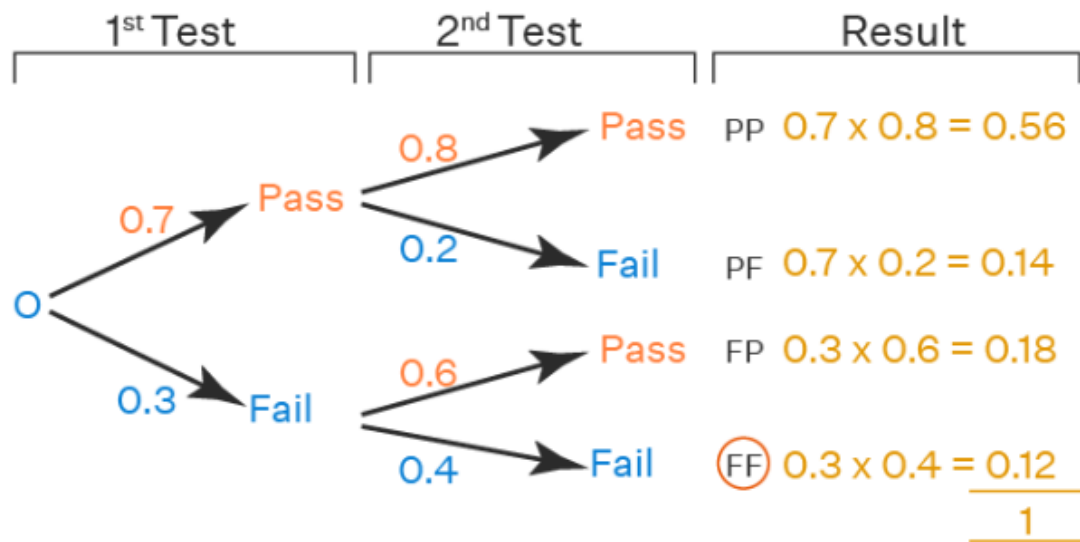
- ▶ The most common application of this kind of decision trees is business and finance
 - ▶ What kind of investments should we do?
- ▶ When drawing these decision trees, we deal with concepts of *revenue*, *cost* and *profit*
 - ▶ Revenue (or income) = money coming in
 - ▶ Cost = money leaving out
 - ▶ Profit = revenue - cost
- ▶ In decision nodes, it is common that (at least some) options come with a cost
- ▶ Decisions may lead to chance nodes, whose outcomes (chances) generate additional (or decreased, in case of a really bad decision) revenues

Decision trees in finance

- ▶ Two options to draw the financial decision tree
- ▶ Option 1: Profits in end nodes
 - ▶ Deduct the costs of all decisions on the decision path from final revenues in order to get profits of each path
 - ▶ Write the profits in end nodes
- ▶ Option 2: Revenues in end nodes
 - ▶ Write the revenues in end nodes
 - ▶ Write the costs of each decision in option edges (in parentheses)
- ▶ Personal opinion: **always use option 1!**
 - ▶ Less mistakes in analysis ("oops, I forgot to minus the costs")
 - ▶ Outcomes are directly comparable

Decision tree vs. probability tree

- ▶ Decision trees resemble very much the *probability trees* we've (likely) faced in statistics and probability calculations:



- ▶ The difference is that decision tree links the probabilities to their outcomes
 - ▶ We can think that the outcome profits are weighted by their respective probabilities!

Scope notes

- ▶ Decision analysis is heavily used also in the field of artificial intelligence and machine learning
 - ▶ Classification of computer vision observations
 - ▶ Improving decision quality based on prior events
- ▶ In this decision analysis, the decision criteria are different:
 - ▶ Entropy, Gini impurity, Information gain (and others)
- ▶ In this kind of decision analysis, decisions are made repetitively, and prior decisions (and their outcomes) have an effect on the probabilities
- ▶ We'll leave this kind of evolving decision trees out from the scope of this course and concentrate on decision trees aimed for single events

Interested to read more? Check here:

<https://medium.com/geekculture/criterion-used-in-constructing-decision-tree-c89b7339600f>

Decision rules

- ▶ The “goodness” of the decision is naturally linked to which property the decision-maker values the most
- ▶ Decision-maker evaluates the quality of decisions based on selected decision rule(s)
 - ▶ Usually only one rule is selected, but mathematically it's possible to formulate more complicated ones, too
 - ▶ In this case we formulate an objective function that has decisions as variables and search for a minimum/maximum
- ▶ Possible decision rules:
 - ▶ Minimum risk rule
 - ▶ Rule of highest probability
 - ▶ Expected utility hypothesis

Minimum risk rule

- ▶ In *minimum risk rule*, the decision-maker goes through all options and finds out the smallest profit of each option (also known as “worst-case scenario”)
- ▶ The option that has the greatest worst-case profit (MRP) is selected
- ▶ Not very popular rule for selection, since being a pessimist and avoiding risks rarely leads to good profit
- ▶ Decent if some part of assets needs to be invested as safely as possible (in order to act as a “cushion”)
 - ▶ Risks are then taken by some other portfolio in the hope of profits

Rule of highest probability

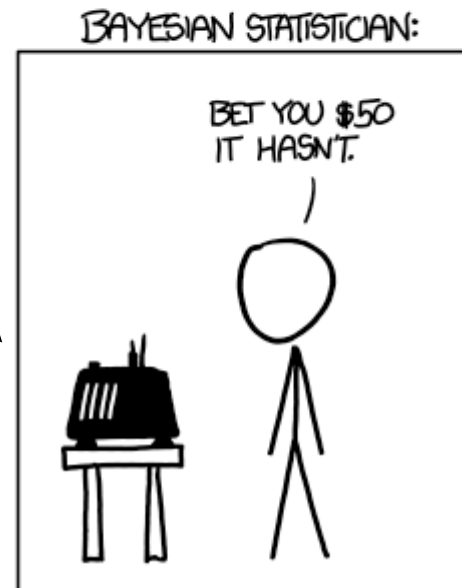
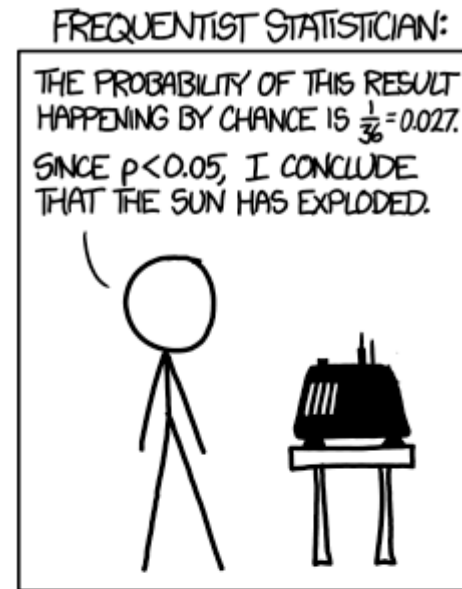
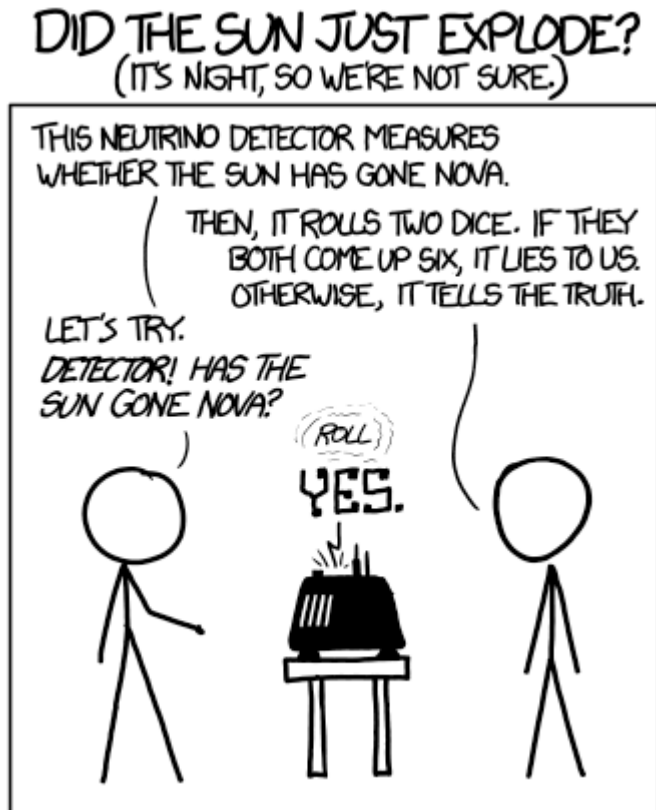
- ▶ *Rule of highest probability* starts with the assumption that for all options, the chance that has the highest probability will be the one that happens
- ▶ Best option is then decided based on this assumption: for all options, we calculate the profit in the case of chance that has the highest probability (HPP)
- ▶ The option which has the greatest HPP is selected
- ▶ One would think that this rule leads to the same results as the minimum risk rule - which it often does, but not every time

Expected utility hypothesis

- ▶ The previous rules have fundamental problems:
 - ▶ Minimum risk rule doesn't take the probabilities into account in any way
 - ▶ Rule of highest probability doesn't take into account the profit in the chance of lesser probability (even if huge)
- ▶ The rules should be combined somehow
- ▶ *Expected utility hypothesis* does exactly this:
 - ▶ Calculate the expected profit (EXP) for each option
 - ▶ Select the option which has the highest EXP
- ▶ EXP = sum of products of probability (p) & profit (P) for each chance (i) of our option
 - ▶ Mathematically: $EXP = \sum p_i P_i$
- ▶ Based on Bayesian statistics
- ▶ Best decision-making rule in the long run!

Expected utility

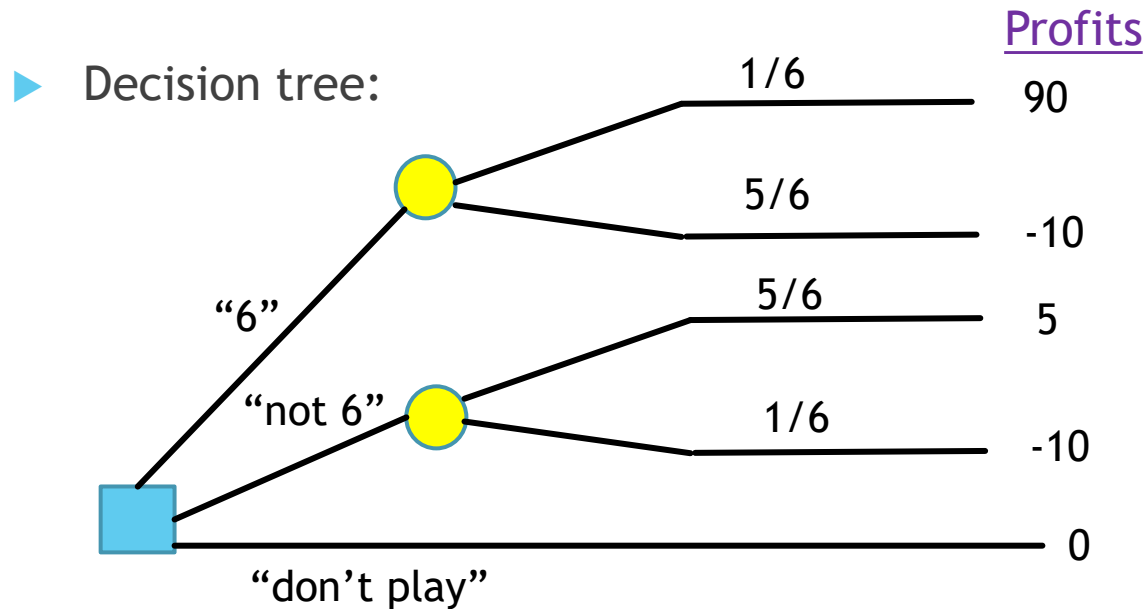
- Get the point? ☺



Example: Dice roll

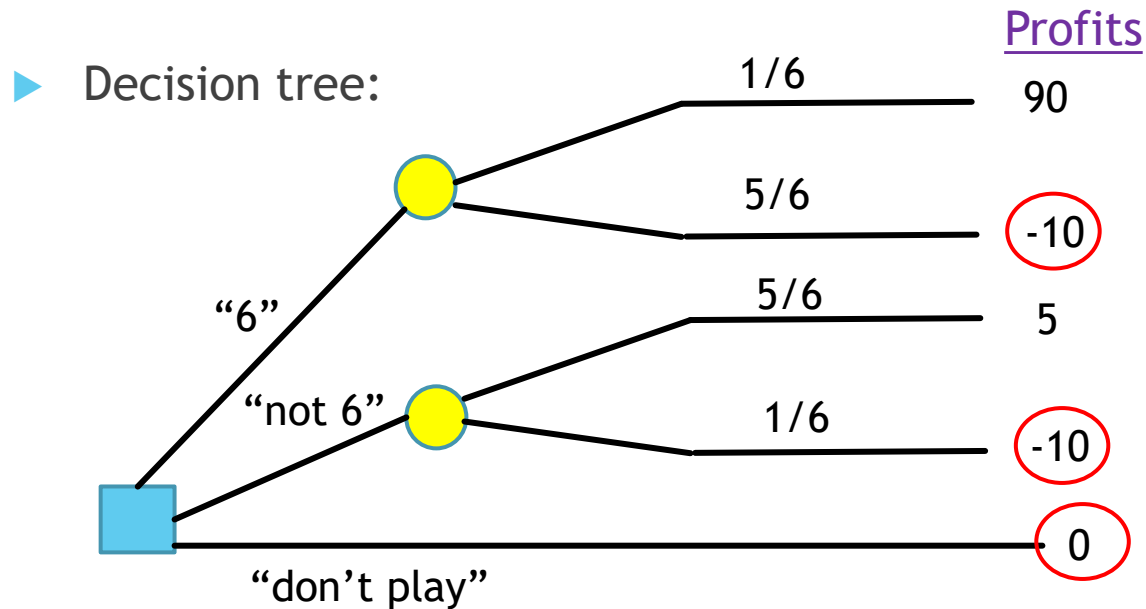
- ▶ Casino invites each visitor to participate in a dice roll game. In the game, the participant rolls one traditional (six-face) dice once. Before the dice roll, the participant is given two options to set a \$10 stake:
 - ▶ Bet on 6 - win \$100
 - ▶ Bet on 1-5 - win \$15
- ▶ After setting the stake, the participant rolls the dice. The stake goes to the casino anyway, but if his/her guess was correct, he/she collects the win.
- ▶ Draw a decision tree and explain, which option is taken by a visitor, who makes decisions based on
 - a) Minimum risk rule
 - b) Rule of highest probability
 - c) Expected utility hypothesis

Example: Dice roll



Let's examine which option should we choose when using each rule:

Example: Dice roll



a) Minimum risk rule:

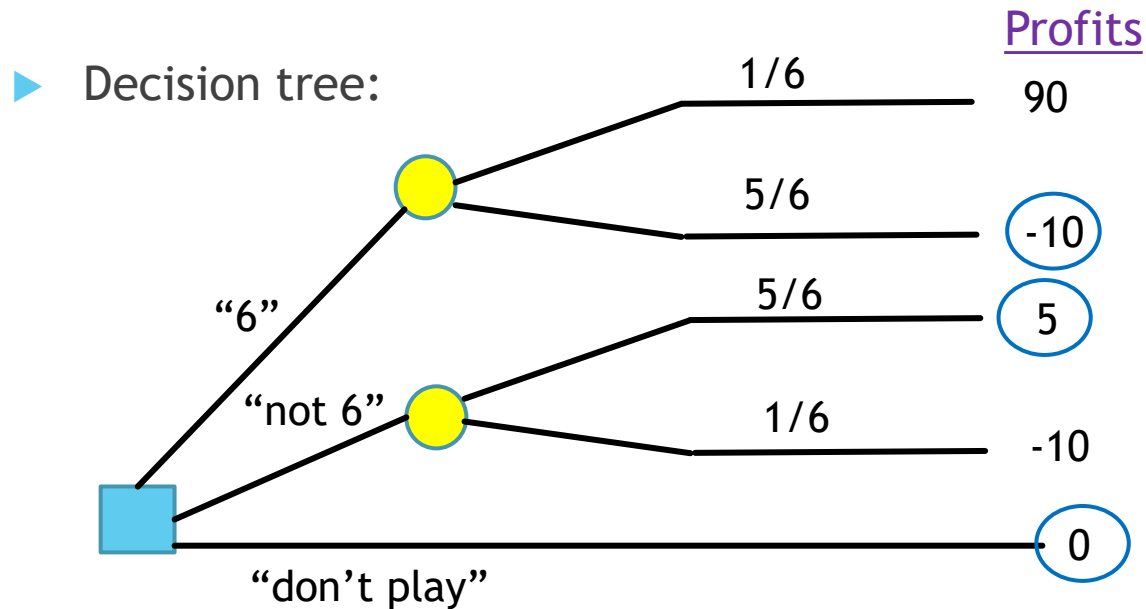
$$\text{MRP}(\text{"6"}) = -10$$

$$\text{MRP}(\text{"not 6"}) = -10$$

$$\text{MRP}(\text{"don't play"}) = 0 \quad (\text{greatest!})$$

→ decision: don't participate in the game

Example: Dice roll



b) Rule of highest probability:

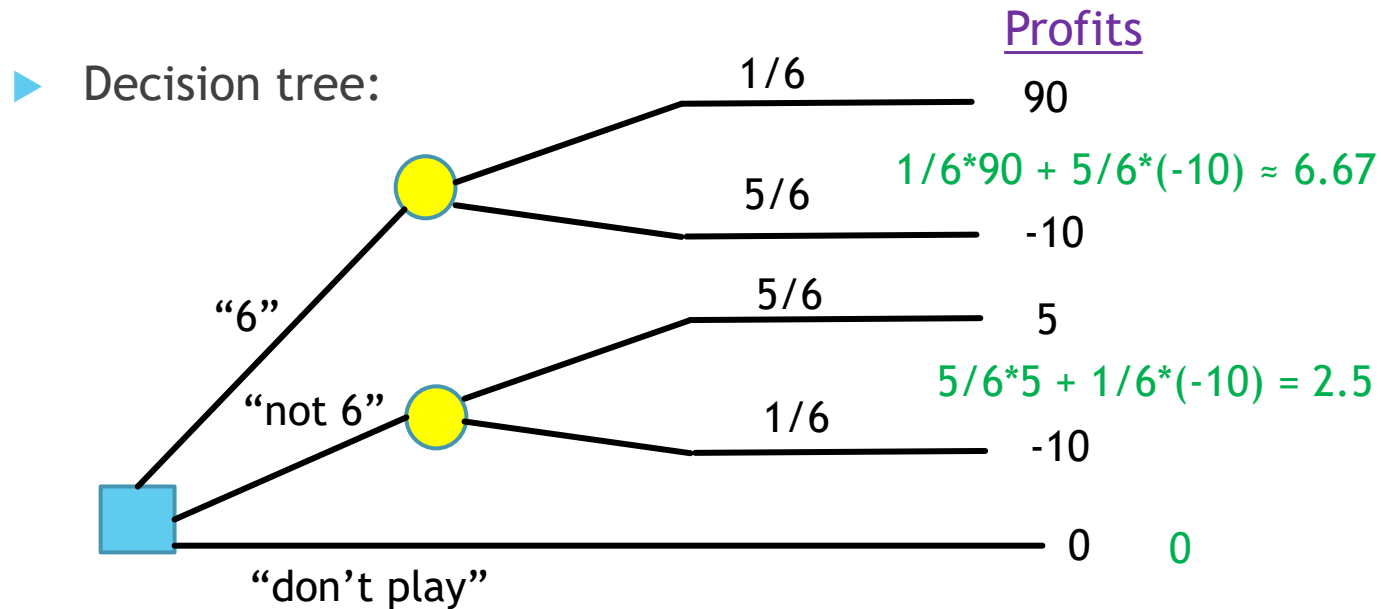
HPP(“6”) = -10

HPP(“not 6”) = 5 (greatest!)

HPP(“don't play”) = 0

→ decision: participate, bet on “not 6”

Example: Dice roll



c) Expected utility hypothesis:

$EXP(\text{“6”}) = 6.67$ (greatest!)

$EXP(\text{“not 6”}) = 2.5$

$EXP(\text{“don't play”}) = 0$

→ decision: participate, bet on “6”

Example: Search for oil 1

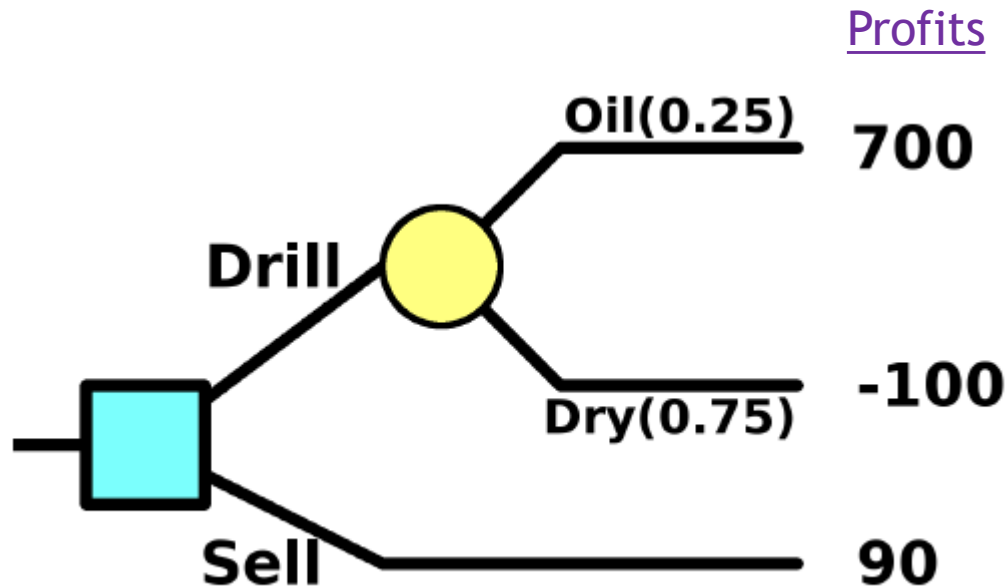
- ▶ Company Inc. owns a land property which it doesn't need. Anyhow, according to reports given to the board of directors, there's a 25 % probability that there is a small oil well on the land. This is a tempting opportunity, because according to estimates, then the company would get \$800k of income for selling the oil. The downside is that organizing drilling works would cost \$100k, and if no oil is found, this money is wasted.
- ▶ A 3rd party investor has offered to buy the land for \$90k. The company has a hunch that this interest is due to the suspected oil well.
- ▶ The board of directors gathers in a meeting and tries to decide what to do in the situation.

Example: Search for oil 1

- ▶ The board of directors decides to draw a decision tree:
 - ▶ If they drill and oil is found, profit is $800 - 100 = 700$
 - ▶ If they drill and no oil is found, the drilling costs are lost, so the profit is -100. Added to that, presumably also the interest of the 3rd party investor is lost (= can't sell the land anymore)
 - ▶ If they sell, the profit is 90 (sell price)

Example: Search for oil 1

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Example: Search for oil 1

- ▶ Let's examine the decision by using multiple decision rules:
 - ▶ Minimum risk rule would lead to selling (\$90k sure profit)
 - ▶ Rule of highest probability would assume that no oil is found (75 % vs. 25 %), so drilling would only result in loss of \$100k. Therefore, according to this rule we should also sell the land.
 - ▶ Expected utility hypothesis requires calculation of EXPs:

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$$EXP(Drill) = 0.25 \cdot 700 + 0.75 \cdot (-100) = 175 - 75 = 100$$

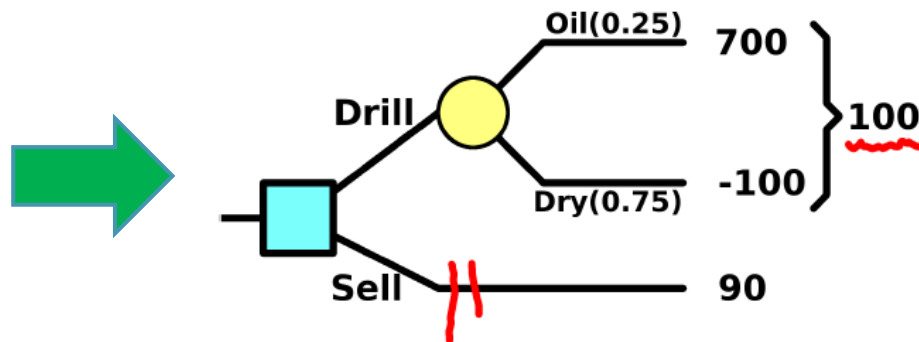
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Example: Search for oil 1

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$$EXP(Sell) = 90$$



Decision:
Drill and
see what
happens!

Stability analysis

- ▶ Probabilities of chances in the decision tree are seldom surely known values, but are based on estimates
- ▶ If the probabilities change even a little bit, it is possible that the optimal decision changes
- ▶ Therefore, it is important to do a *stability analysis* for the decision tree:
 - ▶ Denote the probability of our chance by p
 - ▶ Plot the EXPs as functions of p
 - ▶ Which option produces the greatest EXP by which values of p ?

Stability analysis

- ▶ For example, the previous search for oil problem: denote the probability of oil well by p

- ▶ Expected profit of drill option is

$$\begin{aligned} EXP(Drill) &= p \cdot 700 + (1 - p) \cdot (-100) \\ &= 700p + 100p - 100 = \mathbf{800p - 100} \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Expected profit of sell option is 90 (constant)
- ▶ When are the EXPs equal?

Stability analysis

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- ▶ Expected profit of sell option is 90 (constant)

- ▶ When are the EXPs equal?

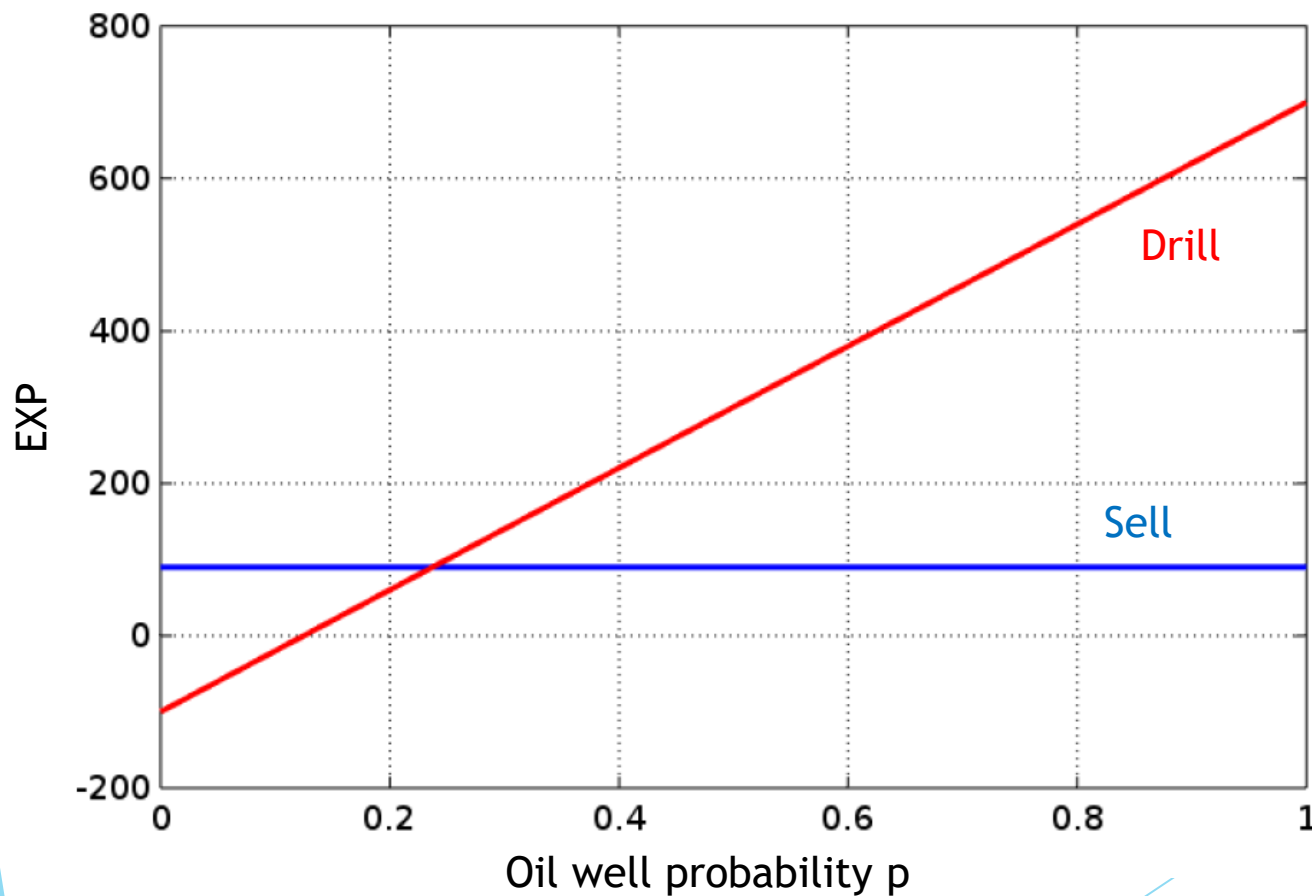
$$EXP(Drill) = EXP(Sell)$$

$$800p - 100 = 90$$

$$p = \frac{190}{800} = 0.2375$$

Stability analysis

- ▶ Both EXPs plotted in the same picture:



Several decision nodes

- ▶ It is very common that our decision tree is not as simple as in prior examples; usually decision trees contain several decision nodes (and several chance nodes)
- ▶ In this kind of cases, we start analyzing the decision tree from the right:
 - ▶ Calculate EXPs for last choices and select the best of them (cut off worse ones)
 - ▶ Using these EXPs, calculate the EXPs for preceding choices and select the best of them (cut off worse ones)
 - ▶ Continue until we end up in the root; at this point we have found out the best choices for each decision node

Example: Search for oil 2

- ▶ Let's expand the previous example a bit by taking into account one more option: getting more information by performing additional analyses
- ▶ Geotechnical expert company SeisCo offers to perform a seismic survey for the land property for \$30k. This survey is not going to give us a bulletproof answer on the existence of the oil well, but it provides an estimate on whether the soil is favorable for oil wells. SeisCo presents the following number claims:
 - ▶ If there is oil in the land, the survey gives a favorable result with a probability of 60 %
 - ▶ If there is no oil in the land, the survey gives an unfavorable result with a probability of 80 %

Example: Search for oil 2

- ▶ Let's use abbreviations FSS = “Favorable seismic survey” and USS = “unfavorable seismic survey”
- ▶ Then the probabilities given by SeisCo are

$$P(USS \mid Oil) = 0.4$$

$$P(FSS \mid Oil) = 0.6$$

$$P(USS \mid Dry) = 0.8$$

$$P(FSS \mid Dry) = 0.2$$

- ▶ Considering the decision tree, these probabilities are the wrong way around; we'd want to know the probabilities in the form “if the survey gives FSS, then there is oil in the land with a probability of ...”

Example: Search for oil 2

- ▶ So, we want to convert the conditional probabilities:

$$P(FSS | Oil) \rightarrow P(Oil | FSS)$$

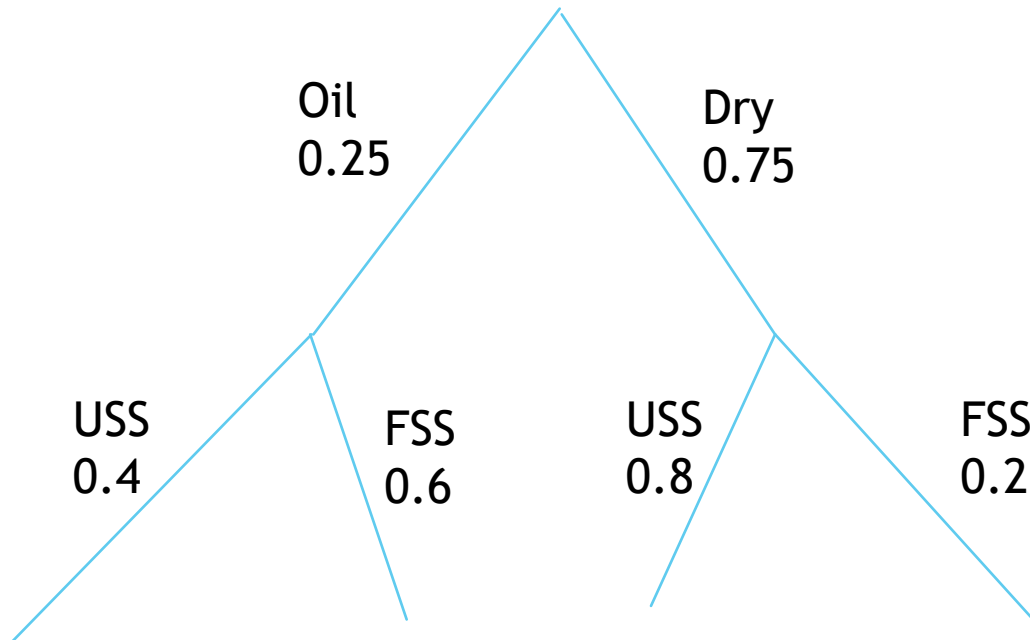
- ▶ Luckily this can be done very easily using rules of statistics - namely, using the Bayes theorem:

$$p(A | B) = \frac{p(A \cap B)}{p(B)} = \frac{p(B|A) p(A)}{p(B)}$$

- ▶ In order to solve this, we only need to find out the total probability of B
 - ▶ Can be solved f. ex. by using a probability tree

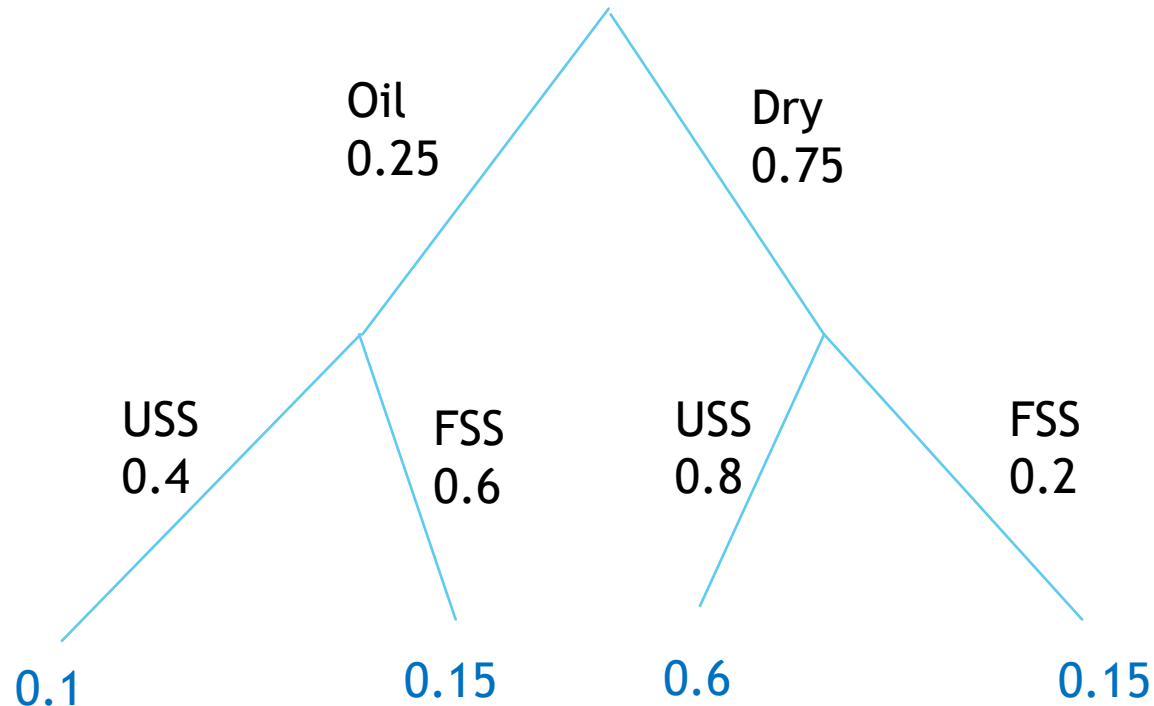
Example: Search for oil 2

- Draw the probability tree:



Example: Search for oil 2

- Draw the probability tree:



$$P(\text{USS}) = 0.1 + 0.6 = 0.7$$

$$P(\text{FSS}) = 0.15 + 0.15 = 0.3$$

Example: Search for oil 2

- Now we can calculate the probabilities of different choices to our decision tree:

$$P(Oil | USS) = \frac{P(Oil \cap USS)}{P(USS)} = \frac{0.1}{0.7} \approx 0.143$$

$$P(Dry | USS) = \frac{P(Dry \cap USS)}{P(USS)} = \frac{0.6}{0.7} \approx 0.857$$

$$P(Oil | FSS) = \frac{P(Oil \cap FSS)}{P(FSS)} = \frac{0.15}{0.3} = 0.5$$

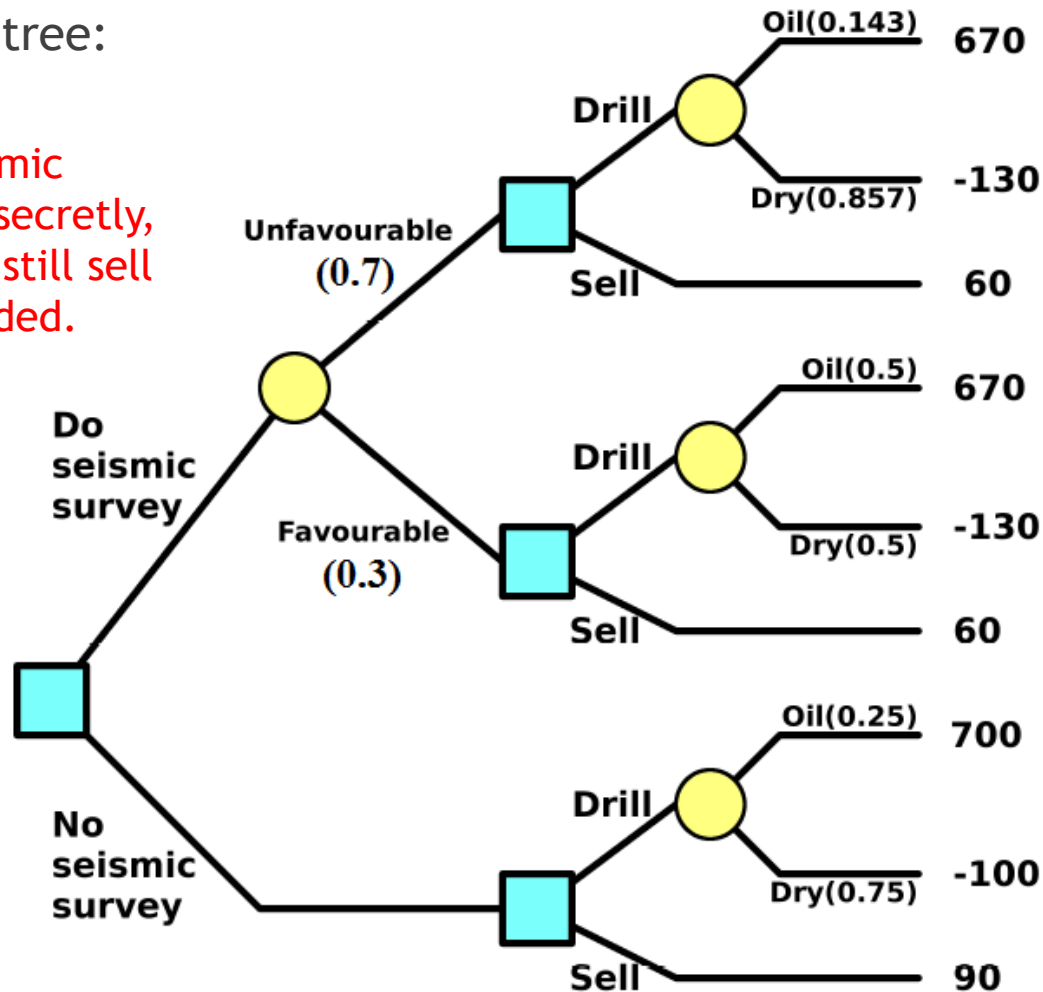
$$P(Dry | FSS) = \frac{P(Dry \cap FSS)}{P(FSS)} = \frac{0.15}{0.3} = 0.5$$

Example: Search for oil 2

Profits

► Decision tree:

NOTE: The seismic survey is done secretly, so that we can still sell the land if needed.



Example: Search for oil 2

- ▶ Calculate the EXPs of rightmost decision node choices:
 - ▶ EXPs only need to be calculated for options which end up in chance nodes; therefore only “Drill” options are calculated here (EXPs of “Sell” options are trivial)

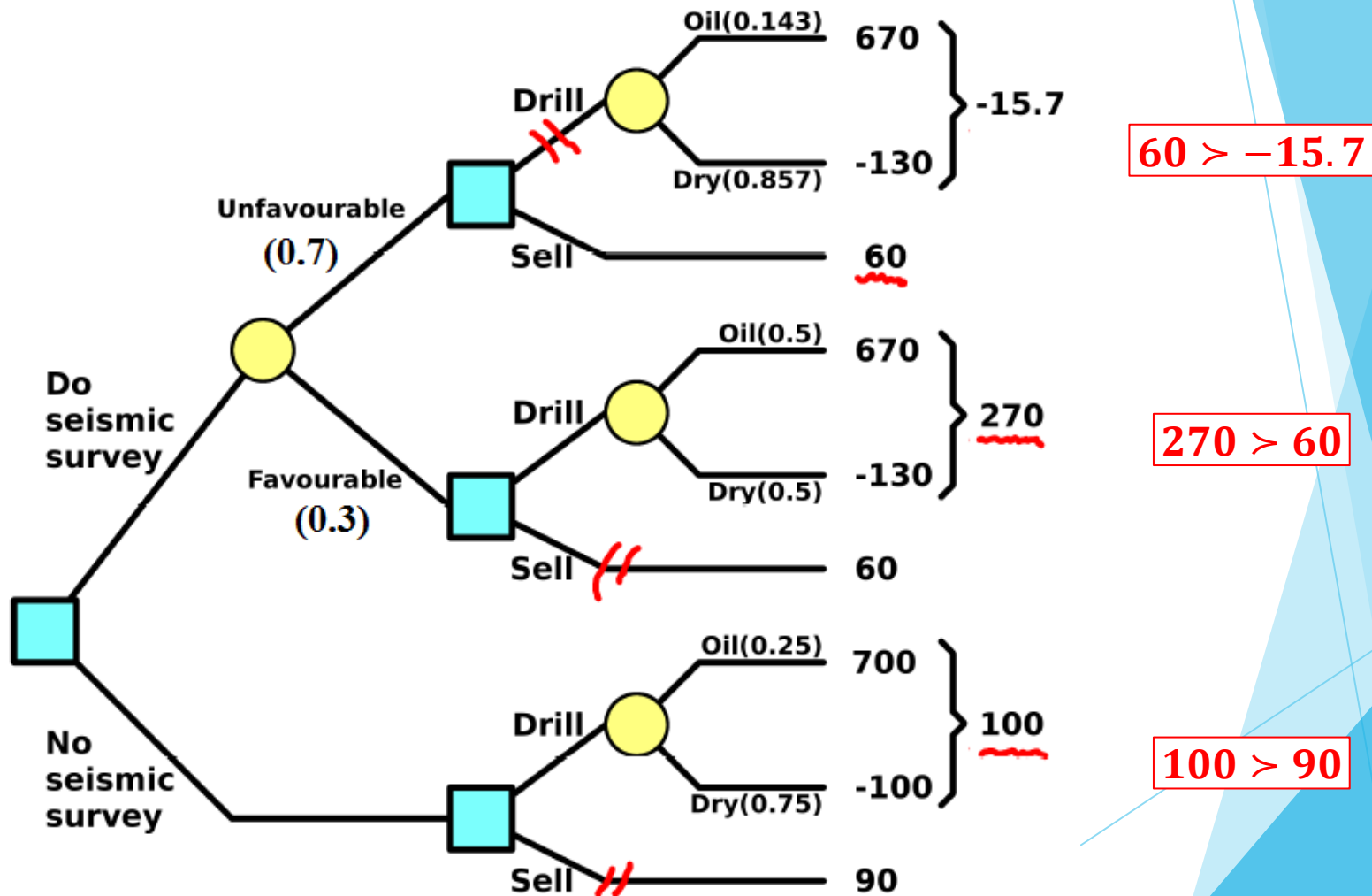
$$EXP(SS, U, Drill) = 0.143 \cdot 670 + 0.857 \cdot (-130) = -15.7$$

$$EXP(SS, F, Drill) = 0.5 \cdot 670 + 0.5 \cdot (-130) = 270$$

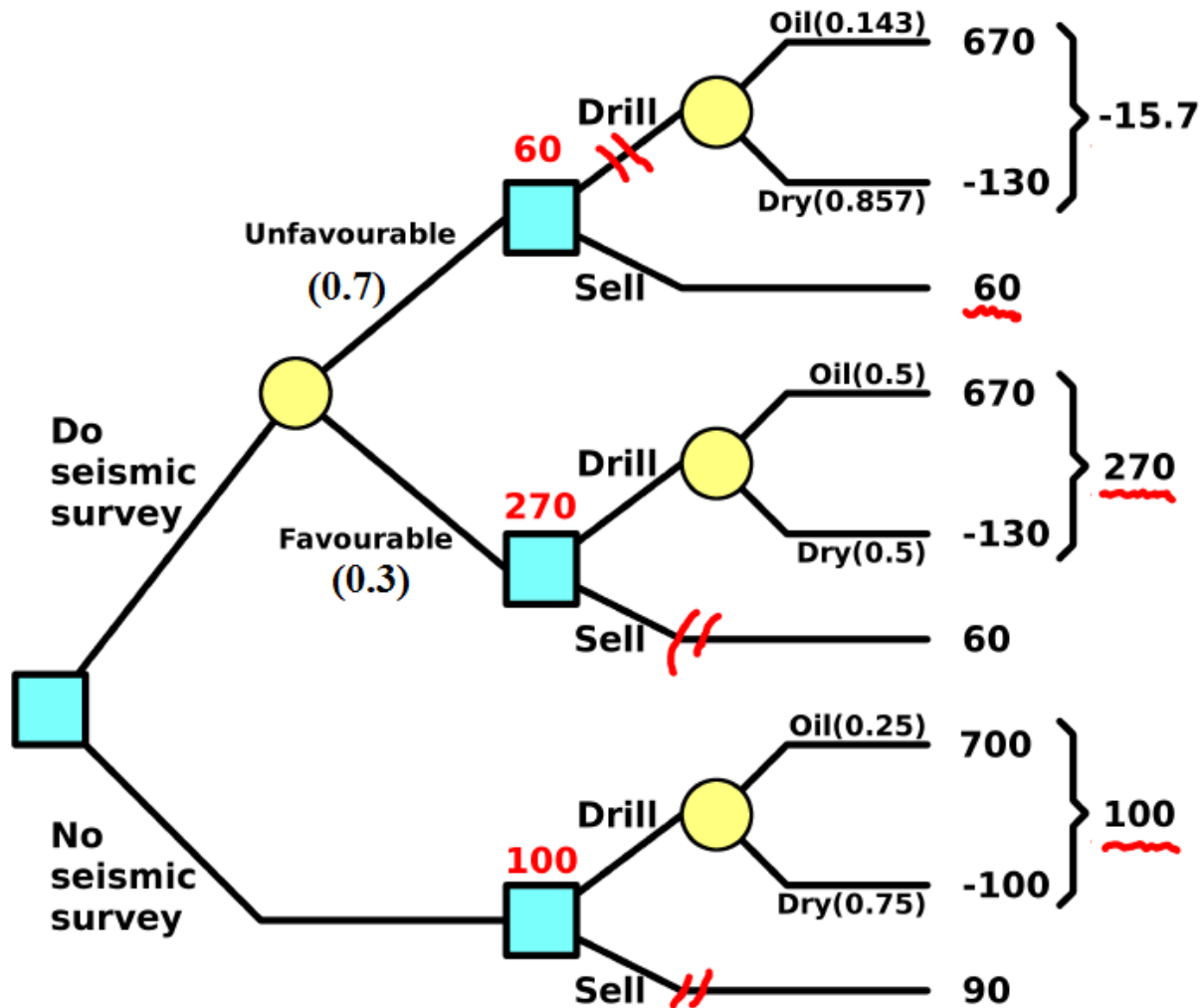
$$EXP(No\ SS, Drill) = 0.25 \cdot 700 + 0.75 \cdot (-100) = 100$$

- ▶ Write this information to the decision tree and cut off the worse options
- ▶ After this, write the EXPs of the best options to next decision nodes on the left

Example: Search for oil 2



Example: Search for oil 2



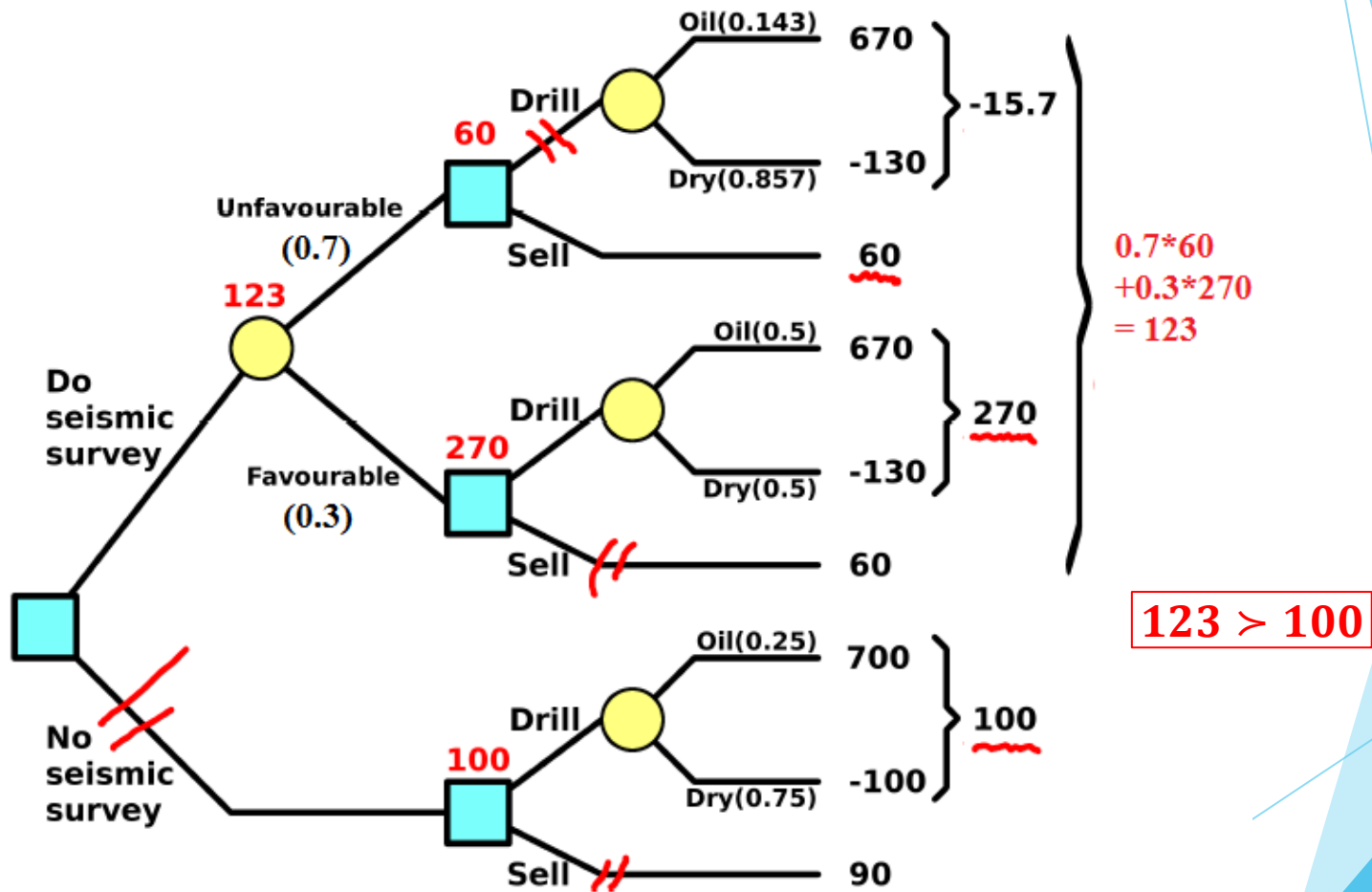
Example: Search for oil 2

- ▶ Then continue our journey towards the root and calculate the EXP for seismic survey:

$$EXP(SS) = 07 \cdot 60 + 0.3 \cdot 270 = 123$$

- ▶ Mark this to the decision tree and compare the options “seismic survey” and “no seismic survey”
- ▶ Again, cut the worse branch(es) away
- ▶ Now our analysis is almost finished! What we still need to report are the conclusions:

Example: Search for oil 2



Example: Search for oil 2

- ▶ Conclusion: the best plan is to
 - ▶ Do the seismic survey ($\text{EXP } 123 > 100$)
 - ▶ If the result of seismic survey is favorable, drill ($270 > 60$)
 - ▶ If the result of seismic survey is unfavorable, we keep our mouths shut and sell the land to 3rd party investor ($60 > -15.7$)
- ▶ NOTE: The final answer must be a full roadmap on what to do in which case! (Because we can't control the chance outcomes)
- ▶ NOTE 2: This doesn't guarantee that the profit will be optimal - the result of seismic survey could have been a false positive, and the new owner can then drill and gather the \$800k (minus purchase price and drilling costs, naturally)
 - ▶ Statistically it is next to impossible to be always right
 - ▶ Anyway, in the long run, this method will produce the best profits on average

Thank you!

