

# It Is Important to Take All Available Information into Account When Making a Decision: Case of the Two Envelopes Problem

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# 1. Traditional Decision Theory: Reminder

- Decision theory is based on the notion of *utility*.
- To describe this meaning, we need to select two alternatives:
  - a very bad alternative  $A_-$  which is worse than anything that we will actually encounter, and
  - a very good alternative  $A_+$  which is better than anything that we will actually encounter.
- Then, for each number  $p$  from the interval  $[0, 1]$ , we can form a lottery  $L(p)$  in which:
  - we get  $A_+$  with probability  $p$  and
  - we get  $A_-$  with the remaining probability  $1 - p$ .

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## 2. Traditional Decision Theory (cont-d)

- For  $p = 0$ , the lottery  $L(p)$  coincides with the very bad alternative  $A_-$ .
- Thus,  $L(0)$  is worse than any actual alternative  $A$ ; we will denote this by  $L(0) = A_- < A$ .
- For  $p = 1$ , the lottery  $L(p)$  coincides with the very good alternative  $A_+$ .
- Thus,  $L(1)$  is better than any actual alternative  $A$ :  $A < A_+$ .
- We can ask the user to compare the alternative  $A$  with the lotteries  $L(p)$  corresponding to different  $p$ .

### 3. Traditional Decision Theory (cont-d)

- We assume that for every two alternatives  $A$  and  $B$ , the user always decides:
  - whether  $A$  is better (i.e.,  $B < A$ )
  - or whether  $B$  is better (i.e.,  $A < B$ ),
  - or whether  $A$  and  $B$  are of the same quality to this user; we will denote this by  $A \sim B$ .
- We also assume that the user's decisions are consistent:
  - that the preference relation  $<$  is transitive and
  - that  $p < p'$  implies  $L(p) < L(p')$ .
- One can see that under these assumptions, there is a threshold value  $p_0$  such that:
  - for all  $p < p_0$ , we have  $L(p) < A$ , and
  - for all  $p < p_0$ , we have  $A < L(p)$ .

## 4. Traditional Decision Theory (cont-d)

- This threshold value is called the *utility* of the alternative  $A$ . The utility is usually denoted by  $u(A)$ .
- By definition of the utility, for every small value  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we have  $L(u(A) - \varepsilon) < A < L(u(A) + \varepsilon)$ .
- For very small  $\varepsilon$ , lotteries with probabilities  $u(A)$  and  $u(A) \pm \varepsilon$  are practically indistinguishable.
- So we can say that the alternative  $A$  is equivalent to the lottery  $L(u(A))$ .
- We will denote this equivalence by  $A \equiv L(u(A))$ .
- Suppose now that for some action  $a$ , we have consequences  $A_1, \dots, A_n$  with probabilities  $p_1, \dots, p_n$ .
- This means that the action  $a$  is equivalent to a lottery in which we get each  $A_i$  with probability  $p_i$ .

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## 5. Traditional Decision Theory (cont-d)

- Each alternative  $A_i$ , in its turn, is equivalent to the lottery  $L(u(A_i))$  in which:
  - we get  $A_+$  with probability  $u(A_i)$  and
  - we get  $A_-$  with the remaining probability  $1 - u(A_i)$ .
- Thus, the action  $a$  is equivalent to a two-stage lottery, in which:
  - first, we select  $A_i$  with probability  $p_i$ , and
  - then, depending on  $A_i$ , we select  $A_+$  with probability  $u(A_i)$  and  $A_-$  with probability  $1 - u(A_i)$ .
- As a result of this two-stage lottery, we get either  $A_+$  or  $A_-$ , and the probability of getting  $A_+$  is equal to

$$p = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \cdot u(A_i).$$

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## 6. Traditional Decision Theory (cont-d)

- So, the action  $a$  is equivalent to the lottery  $L(p)$ .
- By definition of utility, this means that the utility  $u(a)$  of the action  $a$  is equal to this probability  $p$ , i.e., that

$$u(a) = \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \cdot u(A_i).$$

- By definition of utility, we select the action with the largest possible value of utility.
- The right-hand side of the above formula is the expected value of the utility.
- So, a rational person should select the alternative with the largest possible value of expected utility.

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## 7. Utility Is Defined Modulo a Linear Transformation

- Numerical values of utility depend on the selection of the very bad and very good alternatives  $A_-$  and  $A_+$ .
- What if we select a different pair  $A'_-$  and  $A'_+$ ?
- Let us consider the case  $A_- < A'_- < A'_+ < A_+$ .
- Every alternative  $A$  is equivalent to a lottery  $L'(u'(A))$  in which:
  - we get  $A'_+$  with probability  $u'(A_+)$  and
  - we get  $A'_-$  with probability  $1 - u'(A)$ .
- $A'_-$  is equivalent to a lottery  $u(A'_-)$  in which:
  - we get  $A_+$  with probability  $u(A'_-)$  and
  - we get  $A_-$  with the remaining probability  $1 - u(A'_-)$ .

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## 8. Linear Transformation (cont-d)

- $A'_+$  is equivalent to a lottery  $u(A'_+)$  in which:
  - we get  $A_+$  with probability  $u(A'_+)$  and
  - we get  $A_-$  with the remaining probability  $1-u(A'_+)$ .
- Thus, the original alternative  $A$  is equivalent to a two-stage lottery in which:
  - we first select  $A'_-$  or  $A'_+$ , and
  - then, depending on what we selected on the first stage, select  $A_+$  or  $A_-$ .

- As a result of this two-stage lottery, we get either  $A_+$  or  $A_-$ ; the probability  $p$  of selecting  $A_+$  is equal to

$$p = u'(A) \cdot u(A'_+) + (1 - u'(A)) \cdot u(A'_-) = \\ u(A'_-) + u'(A) \cdot (u(A_+) - u(A_-)).$$

- By definition of utility, this probability  $p$  is the utility  $u(A)$  of the alternative  $A$  in terms of  $A_-$  and  $A_+$ .

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## 9. Linear Transformation (cont-d)

- Thus,  $u(A) = u(A'_-) + u'(A) \cdot (u(A_+) - u(A_-))$ .
- In other words, the utility is defined modulo a linear transformation.
- This is similar to measuring quantities like time or temperature, where the numerical value depends:
  - on the selection of the starting point and
  - on the selection of the measuring unit.

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## 10. What If We Only Have Partial Information About Probabilities: Two Approaches

- The formula for the expected utility assumes that we know the probability of each alternative.
- In many practical situations, we only have partial information about the probabilities.
- In this case, for different probability distributions  $P = (p_1, \dots, p_n)$ , we have different expected utility.
- If two probability distributions  $P$  and  $P'$  are possible, then we can also consider as possible the case when:
  - we have  $P$  with probability  $\beta$  and
  - we have  $P'$  with probability  $1 - \beta$ .
- In this case, the expected utility is equal to the convex combination of expected utilities corr. to  $P$  and  $P'$ .

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## 11. Two Approaches (cont-d)

- So, the set of possible values of expected utility is closed under convex combinations.
- It is, thus, an interval  $[\underline{u}(a), \bar{u}(a)]$ .
- How can we make a decision under this interval uncertainty?
- There are two approaches to solving this problem.
- The 1st approach is based on the fact that we need to compare the action  $a$ , in particular, with lotteries  $L(p)$ .
- Thus, we need to assign, to this interval, a corresponding utility  $u(a)$ :

$$u(a) = f(\underline{u}(a), \bar{u}(a)) \text{ for some functions } f(x, y).$$

- Utility is defined modulo a linear transformation

$$u(a) \rightarrow k \cdot u(a) + \ell, \text{ for some } k > 0 \text{ and } \ell.$$

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## 12. Two Approaches (cont-d)

- It is therefore reasonable to require that the function  $f(x, y)$  not depend on the selection of  $A_-$  and  $A_+$ :
  - if  $z = f(x, y)$ ,
  - then  $z' = f(x', y')$  for  $z' = k \cdot a + \ell$ ,  $x' = k \cdot x + \ell$ , and  $y' = k \cdot y + \ell$ .
- In particular, every interval  $[\underline{a}, \bar{a}]$  can be obtained from the interval  $[0, 1]$  if we take  $k = \bar{u} - \underline{u}$  and  $\ell = \underline{u}$ .
- So, for  $\alpha \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f(0, 1)$ , the above invariance implies:
$$f(\underline{u}, \bar{u}) = \alpha \cdot (\bar{u} - \underline{u}) + \underline{u} = \alpha \cdot \bar{u} + (1 - \alpha) \cdot \underline{u}.$$
- Thus, we should select the action  $a$  for which the value  $\alpha \cdot \bar{u} + (1 - \alpha) \cdot \underline{u}$  is the largest.
- This idea was first proposed by a Nobelist Leo Hurwicz.
- It is known as *Hurwicz optimism-pessimism approach*.

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## 13. Two Approaches (cont-d)

- When  $\alpha = 1$ , the decision maker only takes into account the best possible situation, with utility  $\bar{u}$ .
- This is what we usually mean by extreme optimism.
- When  $\alpha = 0$ , the decision maker only takes into account the worst possible situation, with utility  $\underline{u}$ .
- This is what we usually mean by extreme pessimism.
- In real life, these two behaviors do not make sense:
  - extreme pessimism means not going into the street at all – a car may hit;
  - extreme optimism would mean crossing the street on red light in heavy traffic.
- Realistic decision making corresponds to values  $\alpha$  between 0 and 1.
- For example, it is often recommended to select  $\alpha = 0.5$ .

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## 14. Two Approaches (cont-d)

- An alternative approach is that:
  - instead of considering all possible probability distributions,
  - we should select the most reasonable one.
- Some of the possible distributions correspond to larger uncertainty, some to smaller uncertainty.
- We do not want to pretend that we have less uncertainty.
- So, it is reasonable to select the distribution with the largest possible value of uncertainty.
- A natural measure of uncertainty of a probability distribution is its entropy.
- It is the average number of binary questions that we need to ask to determine the actual value.

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## 15. Two Approaches (cont-d)

- Thus, out of all possible distributions, we select the one with the largest possible entropy.
- This approach is known as the *Maximum Entropy* approach.
- In particular:
  - when we have a natural symmetry,
  - the resulting distribution is invariant with respect to the same symmetry.

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## 16. Two Approaches (cont-d)

- For example:
  - if we class of distributions is invariant with respect to permutations,
  - the maximum entropy distribution is also invariant with respect to all permutations,
  - and thus, assigns equal probability to all alternatives.
- This is known as Laplace Indeterminacy Principle.
- This invariance idea can be applied to the case when:
  - all we know is that the value  $x$  of some physical quantity is positive,
  - but we have no information about different probabilities.

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## 17. Two Approaches (cont-d)

- Which probability density function (pdf)  $\rho(x)$  should we choose?
- The numerical value of  $x$  depends on the choice of a measuring unit.
- If we select a unit which is  $\lambda$  times smaller, then all numerical values  $x$  are replaced by new values  $x' = \lambda \cdot x$ .
- For example, 1.7 meters becomes  $100 \cdot 1.7 = 170$  cm.
- Under this transformation, the original pdf  $\rho(x)$  takes, in the new unit, the form  $\frac{1}{\lambda} \cdot \rho\left(\frac{x'}{\lambda}\right)$ .
- We want to have the pdf that does not depend on the choice of the measuring unit.

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## 18. Two Approaches (cont-d)

- So we should have  $\frac{1}{\lambda} \cdot \rho\left(\frac{x'}{\lambda}\right) = \rho(x')$ , or, equivalently,

$$\rho\left(\frac{x'}{\lambda}\right) = \lambda \cdot \rho(x').$$

- For  $x' = 1$  and  $\lambda = 1/a$ , we get  $\rho(a) = \text{const} \cdot \frac{1}{a}$ .
- Strictly speaking, this is *not* a probability density function, since here, we have  $\int \rho(a) da = \infty \neq 1$ .
- This is known as an *improper* probability distribution.
- Both Hurwicz and Maximum Entropy approaches have been used in many practical problems.
- They usually lead to intuitively acceptable results, even when we ignore some available information.
- E.g., when this information is too vague to be easily formalized.

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## 19. Two Approaches (cont-d)

- In this talk, we show, on the example of the two envelopes problems, that:
  - if we ignore this information,
  - both approaches lead to a counter-intuitive results.
- So, when making a decision under uncertainty, we must take into account all available information.

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## 20. Two Envelopes Problem

- Someone places some amount of money in one envelope, and a double that amount in another envelope.
- We do not know which envelope contains a smaller amount and which contains a larger amount.
- We can pick one envelope and check how much money  $x$  it has.
- Then, we can make a decision:
  - we can either keep this amount
  - or we can select the second envelope instead.
- The question is:
  - should we keep the original amount or
  - should we select the other envelope instead?

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## 21. How Realistic Is This Situation

- The above situation is over-simplified, but similar situations occur in real life.
- For example, suppose that there are two competing countries producing certain military equipment.
- A smaller country would like to buy from one of them.
- For political reasons, it cannot negotiate simultaneously with both.
- So it starts serious negotiations with one of the countries.
- After negotiations, it comes up with the expected cost  $x$  of the purchase.
- This cost is usually rather significant.

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## 22. How Realistic Is This Situation (cont-d)

- Now, this smaller country has a choice:
  - it can go with this contract, or
  - it can try its luck by negotiating with the competing country.
- If these negotiations do not lead to cheaper prices, there is no going back to the original contract.
- What should it do?
- More peaceful examples can be found; e.g.:
  - when forming political alliances inside a country or within countries,
  - when planning mergers, etc.

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## 23. At First Glance, This Is Somewhat Paradoxical

- Let us go back to the original two envelopes problem.
- From the common sense viewpoint, since our selection was random, it does not make sense to switch.
- On the other hand, intuitively, we do not know these the second envelope has  $2x$  or  $x/2$ .
- In line with the Laplace Indeterminacy Principle, we assume that these two amounts have equal prob. 0.5.
- The expected gain is  $0.5 \cdot 2x + 0.5 \cdot (x/2) = 1.25x$ .
- Since  $1.25x > x$ , it looks like it is always reasonable to switch – which contradicts to common sense.

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## 24. Paradox (cont-d)

- This argument is based on the assumption that utility is proportional to money.
- In practice, it is proportional to square root of money.
- However, the paradox remains if we take  $\sqrt{2} \cdot x$  and  $x/\sqrt{2}$  as the utilities of the two alternatives.

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## 25. This Is Not Really a Paradox

- A detailed analysis shows that, in reality, there is no paradox.
- Indeed, suppose that the original values come with the probability density  $\rho(x)$ .
- Then, the double amounts come with probability density  $\frac{1}{2} \cdot \rho\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)$ .
- Suppose that we found the value  $x$ .
- Then, the condition probability that this is the original amount of money is proportional to  $\rho(x)$ .
- Here, the remaining envelope contains  $2x$ .
- The conditional probability that this is the double amount of money is proportional to  $\frac{1}{2} \cdot \rho\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)$ .
- Then, the remaining envelope contains  $x/2$ .

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## 26. This Is Not Really a Paradox (cont-d)

- Since these two probabilities should add up to 1, we conclude that they should be equal to

$$\frac{\rho(x)}{\rho(x) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \rho\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)} \text{ and } \frac{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \rho\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)}{\rho(x) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \rho\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)}.$$

- Thus, the expected value of the gain that we get when we switch is equal to

$$\frac{\rho(x)}{\rho(x) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \rho\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)} \cdot 2x + \frac{\frac{1}{2} \cdot \rho\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)}{\rho(x) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \rho\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)} \cdot \frac{x}{2}.$$

- If this amount is smaller than  $x$ , we should not switch.
- If this amount is larger than  $x$ , we should switch.
- If this amount is equal to  $x$ , it does not matter whether we switch or not.

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## 27. This Is Not Really a Paradox (cont-d)

- If we know the probability distribution, then, depending of the amount  $x$ , we should switch or not switch.
- E.g., if we know that all the values  $x$  are smaller than some amount  $x_0$ , then:
  - if we get an amount  $x > x_0$ , we know that this is the larger amount,
  - so switching does not make sense.
- Similarly, if we know that all original amounts are larger than or equal to some minimal amount  $m$ :
  - we have a value  $x < 2m$ , we know that this cannot be the double amount,
  - so we should switch.

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## 28. This Is Not Really a Paradox (cont-d)

- The above formula explains why there is no paradox.
- The only time when the probability of each option is exactly  $1/2$  is when  $\rho(x) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \rho\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)$  for all  $x$ .
- Since this can be repeated not just for doubling money, but also for  $\lambda$  times larger amount, we should have:

$$\rho(x) = \frac{1}{\lambda} \cdot \rho\left(\frac{x}{\lambda}\right) \text{ for all } x \text{ and } \lambda.$$

- We already know that this leads to an “improper” – not real – probability distribution.

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## 29. Idealized Formulation: What the Two Approaches Recommend

- Suppose now that we do not have any information about the probability distributions.
- What should the above two approaches recommend?
- Let us first consider the Hurwicz approach.
- We do not know the pdf, so we should consider all possible probability density functions.
- The worst-possible case is when  $\frac{1}{2} \cdot \rho\left(\frac{x}{2}\right) = 0$ , then after switching, we get  $x/2$  with probability 1.
- The best-possible case is when  $\rho(x) = 0$ , then after switching, we get  $2x$  with probability 1.
- So, e.g., for  $\alpha = 1/2$ , the Hurwicz combination is equal to  $0.5 \cdot 2x + 0.5 \cdot (x/2) = 1.25x > x$ .

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## 30. Idealized Formulation (cont-d)

- So we arrive at the counter-intuitive conclusion that we should always switch.
- So maybe we should use smaller value of Hurwicz's  $\alpha$ ?
- This will not help, since, as we have mentioned, we could have  $\lambda \cdot x$  in the second envelope.
- In this case, the expected value after switching is  $\alpha \cdot \lambda \cdot x + (1 - \alpha) \cdot (x/\lambda)$ .
- For any  $\alpha > 0$ , for a sufficiently large  $\lambda$ , we get a counter-intuitive conclusion that we should switch.
- The only case when this conclusion is not possible is  $\alpha = 0$  which is not realistic at all.
- So, for this problem, Hurwicz approach leads to a counter-intuitive behavior.

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## 31. Idealized Formulation (cont-d)

- Let us now consider the maximum entropy approach.
- Since all we know is that the amount is positive, we should use the corr. improper distribution; then

$$\rho(x) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \rho\left(\frac{x}{2}\right).$$

- So we also get  $1.25x$ .
- In other words, in this case, the Maximum Entropy approach also leads to a counter-intuitive conclusion.

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## 32. So What Should We Do?

- Why did we get the counter-intuitive result?
- Because our description of the problem is not realistic.
- Do we really believe that an envelope can contain any amount of money?
- Realistically, an envelope cannot contain more than several thousand dollars.
- A million will not fit into an envelope.
- So, we can impose an upper limit  $x_0$  on the original amount of money.
- Then the conclusions change – and become more intuitive.

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### 33. What Should We Do (cont-d)

- For the Hurwicz approach with  $\alpha = 0.5$ , we still recommend switching when  $x \leq x_0$ .
- However, now we do not recommend switching when  $x > x_0$ , since in this case,  $\rho(x) > 0$ .
- The Maximum Entropy approach leads to the uniform distribution

$$\rho(x) = \text{const for } x \leq x_0 \text{ and } \rho(x) = 0 \text{ for } x > x_0.$$

- For this distribution, the above formula also recommends switching if and only if  $x \leq x_0$ .
- This common recommendation seems to be in perfect accordance with common sense.

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## 34. Conclusion

- When making decision under uncertainty:
  - it is important to take into account *all* available information,
  - even seemingly useless one.
- Otherwise, if we ignore this information, we may end up with counter-intuitive recommendations.

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## 35. Acknowledgments

This work was supported in part by the National Science Foundation grants:

- 1623190 (A Model of Change for Preparing a New Generation for Professional Practice in Computer Science),
- HRD-1242122 (Cyber-ShARE Center of Excellence).

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