

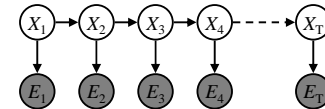
CS 188: Artificial Intelligence Spring 2006

Lecture 20: Utilities 4/4/2006

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Recap: HMMs

- Hidden Markov models (HMMs)
 - Underlying Markov chain over states X
 - You only observe outputs (effects) E at each time step
 - Want to reason about the hidden states X given observations E

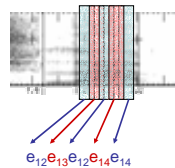


$$P(x_{1:T}, e_{1:T}) = P(x_1)P(e_1|x_1) \prod_{i=2}^T P(x_i|x_{i-1})P(e_i|x_i)$$

Recap: Speech Recognition

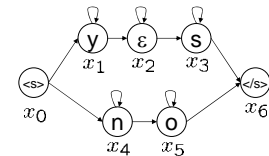
- Observations are acoustic measurements

- Real systems:
 - 39 MFCC coefficients
 - Real numbers, modeled with mixtures of multidimensional Gaussians
- Your projects:
 - 2 real numbers (formant frequencies)
 - Discretized values, discrete conditional probs



Speech Recognition

- States indicate which part of which word we're speaking
 - Each word broken into phonemes
 - Real systems: context-dependent sub-phonemes
 - Your projects: just one state per phoneme



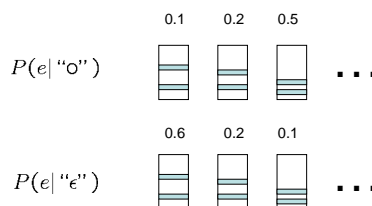
$$P(x|x') = \begin{cases} 0.5 & \text{if } x = x_1, \\ 0.5 & \text{if } x = x_4, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$P(x|x_1) = \begin{cases} 0.8 & \text{if } x = x_1, \\ 0.2 & \text{if } x = x_2, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Example: Yes/No recognizer

Speech Recognition

- Emission probs: distribution over acoustic observations for each phoneme
 - How to learn these? See project 3!



Example of Hidden Sequences

- For the yes/no recognizer, imagine we hear "yynooo"
- What are the scores of possible labelings?

	<S>	n	n	n	o	o	o	</S>	Low, but best?
	<S>	y	y	ε	ε	s	s	</S>	VV Low
X	<S>	y	y	ε	ε	ε	s	</S>	V Low
	<S>	y	y	n	o	o	o	</S>	ZERO
E									
		"y"	"y"	"n"	"o"	"o"	"o"		

The Viterbi Algorithm







- The Viterbi algorithm computes the best labeling for an observation sequence

- Incrementally computes best scores for subsequences
- Recurrence:

$$\begin{aligned}
 m_t[x_t] &= \max_{x_{1:t-1}} P(x_{1:t-1}, x_t, e_{1:t}) \\
 &= \max_{x_{1:t-1}} P(x_{1:t-1}, e_{1:t-1}) P(x_t | x_{t-1}) P(e_t | x_t) \\
 &= P(e_t | x_t) \max_{x_{t-1}} P(x_t | x_{t-1}) \max_{x_{1:t-2}} P(x_{1:t-1}, e_{1:t-1}) \\
 &= P(e_t | x_t) \max_{x_{t-1}} P(x_t | x_{t-1}) m_{t-1}[x_{t-1}]
 \end{aligned}$$

- Also store **backtraces** which record the argmaxes

Example

<S>	•	•	•	•	•	•
y	•	•	•	•	•	•
ε	•	•	•	•	•	•
s	•	•	•	•	•	•
n	•	•	•	•	•	•
o	•	•	•	•	•	•
</S>	•	•	•	•	•	•
						
	e_0	e_{13}	e_{27}	e_5	e_5	e_{100}
	"<S>"	"y"	"n"	"o"	"o"	"</S>"

Utilities

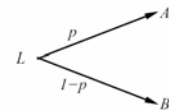
- So far: talked about beliefs
- Important difference between:
 - Belief about some variables
 - Rational action involving those variables
 - Remember the midterm question?
- Next: utilities

Preferences

- An agent chooses among:

- Prizes: A , B , etc.
- Lotteries: situations with uncertain prizes

$$L = [p, A; (1-p), B]$$

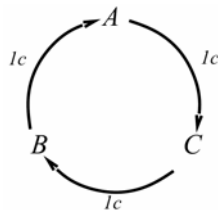


- Notation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 A \succ B & \quad A \text{ preferred over } B \\
 A \sim B & \quad \text{indifference between } A \text{ and } B \\
 A \succeq B & \quad B \text{ not preferred over } A
 \end{aligned}$$

Rational Preferences

- We want some constraints on preferences before we call them rational
- For example: an agent with intransitive preferences can be induced to give away all its money
 - If $B \succ C$, then an agent with C would pay (say) 1 cent to get B
 - If $A \succ B$, then an agent with B would pay (say) 1 cent to get A
 - If $C \succ A$, then an agent with A would pay (say) 1 cent to get C



Rational Preferences

- Preferences of a rational agent must obey constraints.
 - These constraints (plus one more) are the **axioms of rationality**
 - Orderability

$$(A \succ B) \vee (B \succ A) \vee (A \sim B)$$
 - Transitivity

$$(A \succ B) \wedge (B \succ C) \Rightarrow (A \succ C)$$
 - 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

$$A \succ B \Rightarrow (p \geq q \Leftrightarrow [p, A; 1-p, B] \succeq [q, A; 1-q, B])$$
- 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:

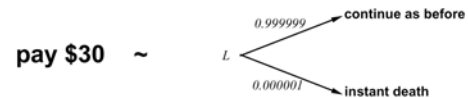
$$U(A) \geq U(B) \Leftrightarrow A \succeq B$$

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

- Maximum expected likelihood (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 tictactoe

Human Utilities

- Utilities map states to real numbers. Which numbers?
- Standard approach to assessment of human utilities:
 - Compare a state A to a **standard lottery** L_p between
 - "best possible prize" u_+ with probability p
 - "worst possible catastrophe" u_- with probability $1-p$
 - Adjust lottery probability p until $A \sim L_p$
 - Resulting p is a utility in $[0,1]$



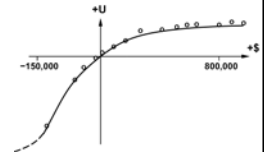
Utility Scales

- 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

$$U'(x) = k_1 U(x) + k_2 \quad \text{where } k_1 > 0$$
- With deterministic prizes only (no lottery choices), only **ordinal utility** can be determined, i.e., total order on prizes

Money

- Money does **not** behave as a utility function
- Given a lottery L :
 - Define **expected monetary value** $EMV(L)$
 - Usually $U(L) < U(EMV(L))$
 - I.e., people are **risk-averse**
- Utility curve: for what probability p am I indifferent between:
 - A prize x
 - A lottery $[p, \$M; (1-p), \$0]$ for large M ?
- Typical empirical data, extrapolated with **risk-prone** behavior:



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-prone, no insurance needed!

Example: Human Rationality?

- 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: $[0.25, \$3; 0.75, \$0]$
- Most people prefer $B > A$, $C > D$
- But if $U(\$0) = 0$, then
 - $B > A \Rightarrow U(\$3k) > 0.8 U(\$4k)$
 - $C > D \Rightarrow 0.8 U(\$4k) > U(\$3k)$

Decision Networks

- Extended BNs
 - Chance nodes (circles, like in BNs)
 - Decision nodes (rectangles)
 - Utility nodes (diamonds)
- Can query to find action with max expected utility
- Online applets if you want to play with these



Value of Information

- Idea: compute value of acquiring each possible piece of evidence
 - Can be done directly from decision network
- Example: buying oil drilling rights
 - Two blocks A and B, exactly one has oil, worth k
 - Prior probabilities 0.5 each, mutually exclusive
 - Current price of each block is k/2
 - "Consultant" offers accurate survey of A. Fair price?
- Solution: compute expected value of information
 - = expected value of best action given the information minus expected value of best action without information
- Survey may say "oil in A" or "no oil in A", prob 0.5 each (given!)
 - = [0.5 * value of "buy A" given "oil in A"] + [0.5 * value of "buy B" given "no oil in A"]
 - = 0
 - = [0.5 * k/2] + [0.5 * k/2] - 0 = k/2

General Formula

- Current evidence E , current best action α
- Possible action outcomes S_i , potential new evidence E_j

$$EU(\alpha|E) = \max_a \sum_i U(S_i) P(S_i|E, a)$$

- Suppose we knew $E_j = e_{jk}$, then we would choose $\alpha(e_{jk})$ s.t.

$$EU(\alpha_{e_{jk}}|E, E_j = e_{jk}) = \max_a \sum_i U(S_i) P(S_i|E, a, E_j = e_{jk})$$

- BUT E_j is a random variable whose value is currently unknown, so:
 - Must compute expected gain over all possible values

$$VPI_E(E_j) = \left(\sum_k P(E_j = e_{jk}|E) EU(\alpha_{e_{jk}}|E, E_j = e_{jk}) \right) - EU(\alpha|E)$$

- (VPI = value of perfect information)

VPI Properties

- Nonnegative in expectation

$$\forall j, E : VPI_E(E_j) \geq 0$$

- Nonadditive-- consider E_j obtaining E twice

$$VPI_E(E_j, E_k) \neq VPI_E(E_j) + VPI_E(E_k)$$

- $VPI_E(E_j, E_k) = VPI_E(E_j) + VPI_{E, E_j}(E_k)$
 $= VPI_E(E_k) + VPI_{E, E_k}(E_j)$

Next Class

- Start on reinforcement learning!
 - Central idea of modern AI
 - How to learn complex behaviors from simple feedback
 - Basic technique for robotic control
 - Last large technical unit of the course