

Reinforcement Learning

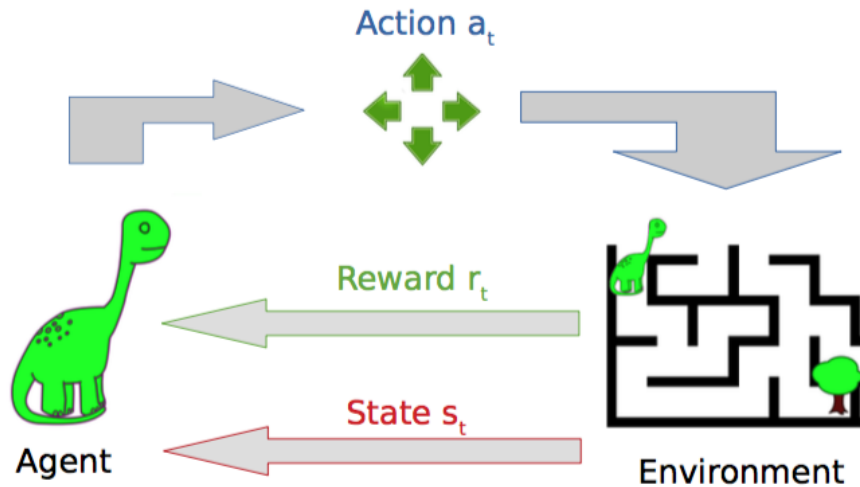
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Machine Learning

Learning setting

- The learner is provided a set of possible states $\mathcal{S}$, and for each state, a set of possible actions, $\mathcal{A}$ moving it to a next state.
- In performing action a from state s , the learner is provided an immediate reward $r(s, a)$.
- The task is to learn a *policy* allowing to choose for each state s the action a maximizing the overall reward (including future moves).
- The learner has to deal with problems of *delayed reward* coming from future moves, and trade-off between *exploitation* and *exploration*.
- Typical applications include moving policies for robots and sequential scheduling problems in general.

Reinforcement learning: overview



Reinforcement learning: applications

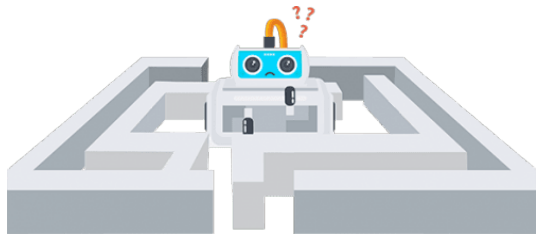


Robotics

Game Playing



Sequential Decision Making



Setting

- An agent needs to take a sequence of decisions (e.g. moves in a maze)
- The agent should maximize some utility function (e.g. avoiding holes, exiting the maze)
- There is uncertainty in the result of a decision (e.g. the floor could be slippery)

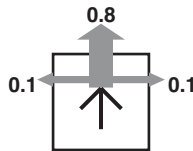
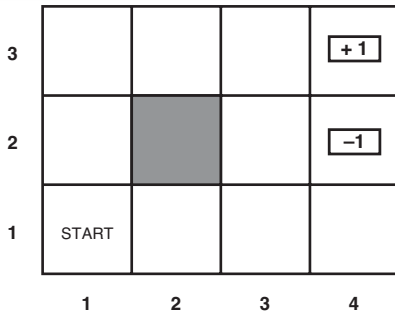
Markov Decision Process (MDP)

- A set of **states** $\mathcal{S}$ in which the agent can be at each time instant
- A (possibly empty) set of **terminal states** $\mathcal{S}_G \subset \mathcal{S}$
- A set of **actions** $\mathcal{A}$ the agent can make
- A **transition** model providing the probability of going to a state s' with action a from state s

$$P(s'|s, a) \quad s, s' \in \mathcal{S}, a \in \mathcal{A}$$

- A **reward** $R(s, a, s')$ for making action a in state s and reaching state s'

MDP: Example



Agent moving in room

- **State:** occupied cell
- **Terminal states** (row,column): (4,2), (4,3)
- **Actions:** UP,DOWN,LEFT,RIGHT
- **Transitions probabilities:** 0.8 in direction of action, 0.1 in each orthogonal direction (see figure)

Utilities over time

- An **environment history** is a sequence of states
- Utilities are defined over environment histories
- We assume an **infinite horizon** (no constraint on the number of time steps)
- We assume **stationary** preferences (if one history is preferred to another at time t , the same should hold at time t' provided they start from the same state)

Defining Utilities

Utilities over time

Two sensible ways to define utilities under previous conditions

- **Additive rewards**

$$U([s_0, s_1, s_2, \dots]) = R(s_0) + R(s_1) + R(s_2) + \dots$$

- **Discounted rewards**

$$U([s_0, s_1, s_2, \dots]) = R(s_0) + \gamma R(s_1) + \gamma^2 R(s_2) + \dots$$

for $\gamma \in [0, 1]$

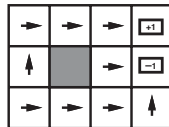
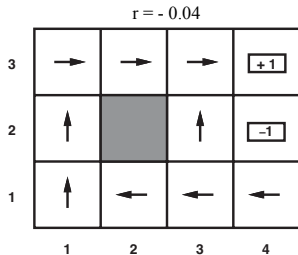
Note

We consider rewards that only depend on the (destination) state. In the more general case each reward should be written as $R(s_t, a_t, s_{t+1})$.

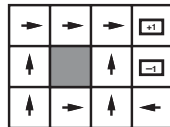
Optimal Policy

- A **policy** π is a full specification of what action to take at each state.
- The **expected utility** of a policy is the utility of an environment history, taken in expectation over all possible histories generated with that policy
- An **optimal policy** π^* is a policy maximizing expected utility
- For infinite horizons, optimal policies are **stationary**, i.e. they only depend on the current state

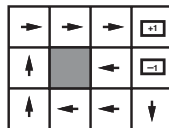
Optimal policy: examples



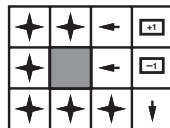
$r < -1.6284$



$-0.4278 < r < -0.0850$



$-0.0221 < r < 0$

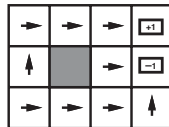
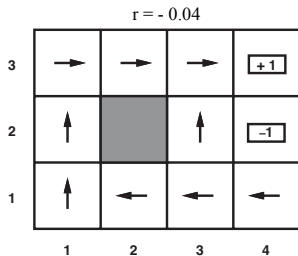


$r > 0$

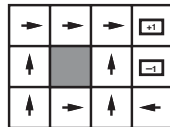
Optimal policies varying r

- utility is made with additive rewards
- r is the reward of non-terminal states
- Arrows indicate the best action to take
- Star indicates all actions are equally optimal

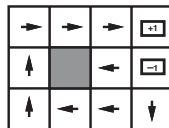
Optimal policy: examples



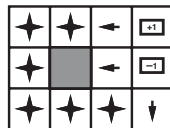
$r < -1.6284$



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$r > 0$

Discussion

- If moving is very expensive, optimal policy is to reach any terminal state asap
- If moving is very cheap, optimal policy is avoiding the bad terminal state at all costs
- If moving gives positive reward, optimal policy is to stay away of terminal states!! (usefulness of discounted rewards)

Optimal policy: utilities

Utility of states

- The utility of a state given a policy π is:

$$U^\pi(s) = E_\pi \left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t R(S_t) \mid S_0 = s \right]$$

where S_t is the state reached after t steps using policy π starting from $S_0 = s$.

- The true utility of a state is its utility under an optimal policy:

$$U(s) = U^{\pi^*}(s)$$

- Given the true utility, an optimal policy is as follows:

$$\pi^*(s) = \operatorname{argmax}_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} p(s'|s, a) U(s')$$

Computing an optimal policy

The utility of a state is its immediate reward plus the expected discounted utility of the next state, assuming that the agent chooses an optimal action

Bellman equation

$$U(s) = R(s) + \gamma * \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} p(s'|s, a) U(s')$$

- There is a Bellman equation for each state $s \in \mathcal{S}$
- Utilities of states are solutions of the set of Bellman equations
- The solutions to the set of Bellman equations are *unique*
- Directly solving the set of equations is hard (non-linearities because of the max)

Computing an optimal policy

Value iteration

- 1 Initialize $U_0(s)$ to zero for all s
- 2 Repeat
 - 1 do Bellman update for each state s :

$$U_{i+1}(s) \leftarrow R(s) + \gamma * \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} p(s'|s, a) U_i(s')$$

- 2 $i \leftarrow i + 1$
- 3 Until *max utility difference below a threshold*
- 4 return U

Optimal policy

The optimal policy can be set as:

$$\pi^*(s) = \operatorname{argmax}_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} p(s'|s, a) U(s')$$

Computing an optimal policy

Policy iteration

- 1 Initialize π_0 randomly
- 2 Repeat
 - 1 **policy evaluation**, solve set of linear equations:

$$U_i(s) = R(s) + \gamma \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} p(s'|s, \pi_i(s)) U_i(s') \quad \forall s \in \mathcal{S}$$

where $\pi_i(s)$ is the action that policy π_i prescribes for state s .

- 2 **policy improvement**

$$\pi_{i+1}(s) \leftarrow \operatorname{argmax}_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} p(s'|s, a) U_i(s') \quad \forall s \in \mathcal{S}$$

- 3 $i \leftarrow i + 1$

- 3 Until *no policy improvement*
 - 4 return π

Dealing with partial knowledge

- Value iteration and policy iteration assume perfect knowledge (environment, transition model, rewards)
- In most cases, some of these aspects are not known
- Reinforcement learning aims at **learning policies** by space exploration
- **policy evaluation**: policy is given, environment is learned (passive agent)
- **policy improvement**: both policy and environment are learned (active agent)

Policy evaluation in unknown environment

Adaptive Dynamic Programming (ADP): algorithm

1 Loop

1 Initialize s

2 Repeat

1 Receive reward r , set $R(s) = r$

2 Choose next action $a \leftarrow \pi(s)$

3 Take action a , reach step s'

4 Update counts

$$N_{sa} \leftarrow N_{sa} + 1; \quad N_{s'|sa} \leftarrow N_{s'|sa} + 1$$

5 Update transition model

$$p(s''|s, a) \leftarrow N_{s''|sa} / N_{sa} \quad \forall s'' \in \mathcal{S}$$

6 Update utility estimate

$$U \leftarrow \text{POLICYEVALUATION}(\pi, U, p, R, \gamma)$$

3 Until s is terminal

ADP: characteristics

- The algorithm performs **maximum likelihood** estimation of transition probabilities
- Upon updating the transition model, it calls **standard policy evaluation** to update the utility estimate (U is initially empty)
- Each step is **expensive** as it runs policy evaluation

Policy evaluation in unknown environment

Temporal-difference (TD) policy evaluation: rationale

- Avoid running policy evaluation at each iteration
- Locally update utility.
- If transition from s to s' is observed:
 - If s' was *always* the successor of s , the utility of s should be

$$U(s) = R(s) + \gamma U(s')$$

- The temporal-difference update rule updates the utility to get closer to that situation:

$$U(s) \leftarrow U(s) + \alpha(R(s) + \gamma U(s') - U(s))$$

where α is a learning rate (possibly decreasing over time)

Policy evaluation in unknown environment

TD policy evaluation: algorithm

1 Loop

1 Initialize s

2 Repeat

1 Receive reward r

2 Choose next action $a \leftarrow \pi(s)$

3 Take action a , reach step s'

4 Update local utility estimate

$$U(s) \leftarrow U(s) + \alpha(r + \gamma U(s') - U(s))$$

3 Until s is terminal

TD policy evaluation: characteristics

- **No need** for a transition model for utility update
- Each **step is much faster** than ADP
- Same as ADP on the long run
- Takes **longer to converge**
- Can be seen as a rough efficient approximation of ADP

Policy learning in unknown environment

Setting

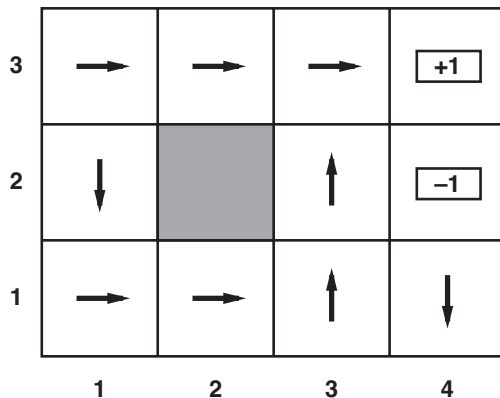
- policy learning requires combining learning the environment and learning the optimal policy for the environment
- A simple option consists of replacing policy evaluation in ADP with optimal policy computation (given current knowledge of the environment, **greedy agent**):

$$U(s) = R(s) + \gamma \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} p(s'|s, a) U(s')$$

Problem

The knowledge of the environment is **incomplete**. A greedy agent usually learns a suboptimal policy (lack of **exploration**).

Suboptimal policy: example



Discussion

- The algorithm finds a policy reaching the +1 terminal state along the lower route (2,1), (3,1), (3,2), and (3,3)
- It never learns the utilities of the other states

Learning optimal policies

Exploration-exploitation trade-off

- **Exploitation** consists in following promising directions given current knowledge
- **Exploration** consists in trying novel directions looking for better (unknown) alternatives
- A reasonable trade-off should be used in defining the search scheme:
 - ϵ -greedy strategy: choose a random move with probability ϵ , be greedy otherwise
 - assign higher utility estimates to (relatively) unexplored state-action pairs:

$$U^+(s) = R(s) + \gamma \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} f \left(\sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} p(s'|s, a) U^+(s'), N_{sa} \right)$$

with f increasing over the first argument and decreasing over the second.

Learning optimal policies

TD learning: learning utilities of actions

- TD policy evaluation can also be adapted to learn an optimal policy
- If TD is used to learn a state utility function, it needs to estimate a transition model to derive a policy
- TD can instead be applied to learn an action utility function $Q(s, a)$
- The optimal policy corresponds to:

$$\pi^*(s) = \operatorname{argmax}_{a \in \mathcal{A}} Q(s, a)$$

Learning optimal policies

SARSA: on-policy TD learning

1 Loop

1 Initialize s

2 Repeat

1 Receive reward r

2 Choose next action $a \leftarrow \pi^\epsilon(s)$

3 Take action a , reach step s'

4 Choose action $a' \leftarrow \pi^\epsilon(s')$

5 Update local utility estimate

$$Q(s, a) \leftarrow Q(s, a) + \alpha(r + \gamma Q(s', a') - Q(s, a))$$

3 Until s is terminal

Note

π^ϵ is an ϵ -greedy (or some other form of non-greedy) policy based on Q .

Learning optimal policies

Q-learning: off-policy TD learning

1 Loop

1 Initialize s

2 Repeat

1 Receive reward r

2 Choose next action $a \leftarrow \pi^\epsilon(s)$

3 Take action a , reach step s'

4 Choose action ~~$a' \leftarrow \pi^\epsilon(s')$~~

5 Update local utility estimate

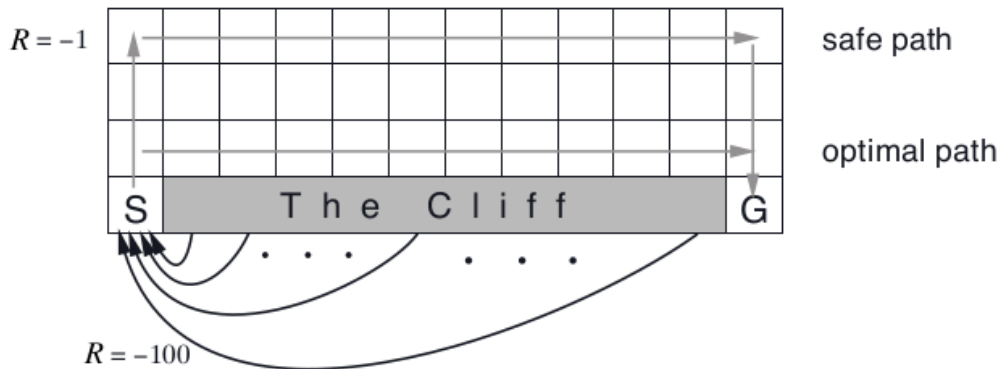
$$Q(s, a) \leftarrow Q(s, a) + \alpha(r + \gamma \max_{a' \in \mathcal{A}} Q(s', a') - Q(s, a))$$

3 Until s is terminal

SARSA vs Q-learning

- SARSA is **on-policy**: it updates Q using the **current policy**'s action
- Q-learning is **off-policy**: it updates Q using the **greedy policy**'s action (which is NOT the policy it uses to search)
- Off-policy methods are more flexible: they can even learn from traces generated with an unknown policy
- On-policy methods tend to exhibit more stable training, and to learn a more conservative policy

SARSA vs Q-learning



cliff walking example

- Sarsa learns the safe path
- Q-learning learns the (risky) optimal path

SARSA vs Q-learning

SARSA is better when

- When exploration can be dangerous
- When learning a safer policy is preferred
- When the environment is very noisy or adversarial

Q-learning is better when

- Pure exploitation performance after training is all you want
- Risk during training is not a major concern
- In deterministic, predictable environments

Scaling to large state spaces

Function approximation

- All techniques seen so far assume a tabular representation of utility functions (of states or actions)
- Tabular representations do not scale to large state spaces (e.g. Backgammon has an order of 10^{20} states)
- The solution is to rely on **function approximation**: approximate $U(s)$ or $Q(s, a)$ with a parameterized function.
- The function takes a state representation as input (e.g. x,y coordinates for the maze)
- The function allows to **generalize** to unseen states

Example: State utility function approximation

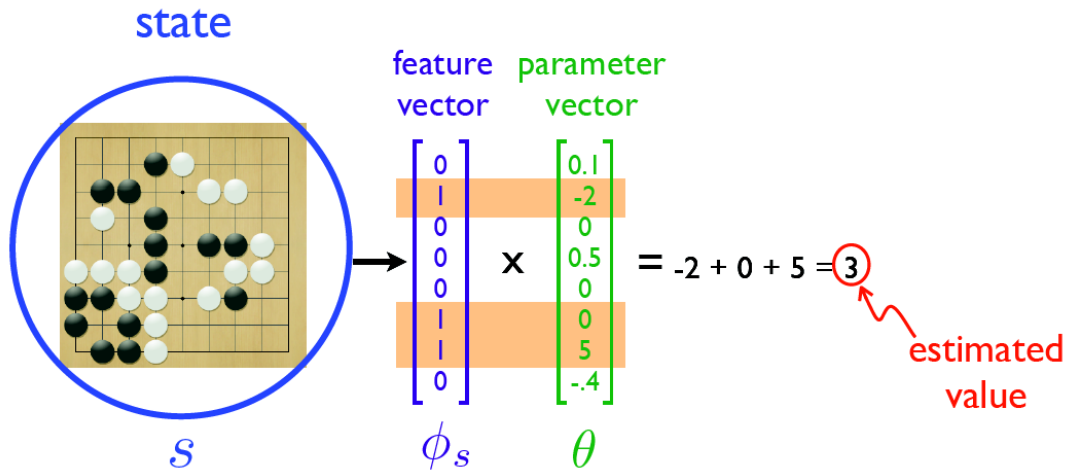
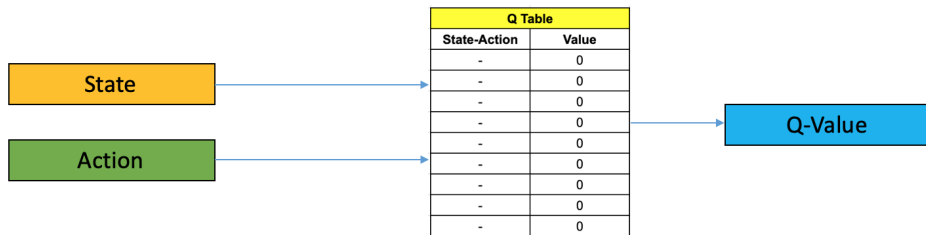
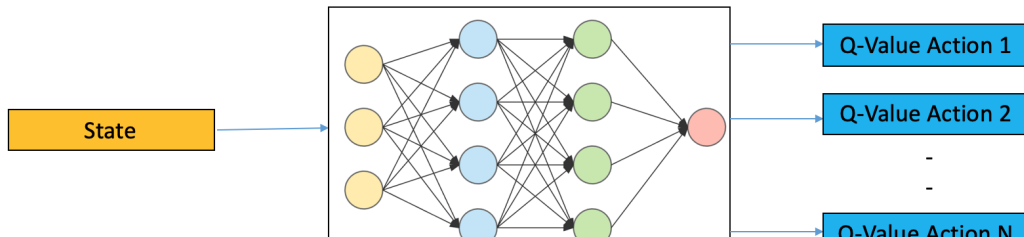


Image from Ngo Anh Vien's lectures

Example: Action utility function approximation



Q Learning



Learning the approximation function

TD learning: state utility

- TD error

$$E(s, s') = \frac{1}{2}(R(s) + \gamma U_{\theta}(s') - U_{\theta}(s))^2$$

- Error gradient wrt function parameters

$$\nabla_{\theta} E(s, s') = (R(s) + \gamma U_{\theta}(s') - U_{\theta}(s))(-\nabla_{\theta} U_{\theta}(s))$$

- Stochastic gradient update rule

$$\begin{aligned}\theta &= \theta - \alpha \nabla_{\theta} E(s, s') \\ &= \theta + \alpha (R(s) + \gamma U_{\theta}(s') - U_{\theta}(s))(\nabla_{\theta} U_{\theta}(s))\end{aligned}$$

Learning the approximation function

TD learning: action utility (Q-learning)

- TD error

$$E((s, a), s') = \frac{1}{2}(R(s) + \gamma \max_{a' \in \mathcal{A}} Q_{\theta}(s', a') - Q_{\theta}(s, a))^2$$

- Error gradient wrt function parameters

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{\theta} E((s, a), s') &= (R(s) + \gamma \max_{a' \in \mathcal{A}} Q_{\theta}(s', a') - Q_{\theta}(s, a)) \\ &\quad (-\nabla_{\theta} Q_{\theta}(s, a)) \end{aligned}$$

- Stochastic gradient update rule

$$\begin{aligned} \theta &= \theta - \alpha \nabla_{\theta} E((s, a), s') \\ &= \theta + \alpha (R(s) + \gamma \max_{a' \in \mathcal{A}} Q_{\theta}(s', a') - Q_{\theta}(s, a)) (\nabla_{\theta} Q_{\theta}(s, a)) \end{aligned}$$

- Russell, S. J., & Norvig, P. (2010). *Artificial Intelligence: A Modern Approach (3rd edition)*. Prentice Hall. Chapters 17 and 21.
- Sutton, R. S. & Barto, A. G. (2018). *Reinforcement Learning: an Introduction (2nd edition)*, The MIT PRESS.