Lecture 8: Building agents

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Outline

- Agent components
- Policies
 - Multi-Armed Bandits and Regret
 - Beyond bandits
 - Intrinsic motivation
- 3 Additional components
- Questions

Recap

- Reinforcement learning is the science of learning to make decisions
- We can do this by learning one or more of:
 - policy
 - value function
 - model
- The general problem involves taking into account time and consequences
- Our decisions affect the reward, our internal knowledge, and the state of the environment

This Lecture

- So far, we mainly discussed learning algorithms
- How do we build a full agent?
- We will talk about which components are needed, and how to combine these
- We will talk about policies and exploration

Interface between agent and environment

- The typical interface to a task is: action goes in, reward and observation come out
- So, our full agent must be a function: $A_t = \operatorname{agent}(R_t, O_t)$
- A policy can be considered a simple agent that only looks at the observation O_t
- ullet We want learning agents, which requires learning from R_t as well
- Simple policies can be embedded inside complex agents

High-level agent components

- Agents may have several components
 - ▶ An agent must include a policy $\pi_t : S \to A$ where S is the set of possible agent states
 - ▶ An agent can include a representation $S_t = f(S_{t-1}, O_t)$
 - ► An agent can include an algorithm to learn the policy
 - ▶ An agent can include an algorithm to learn the representation
 - ▶ An agent can include an algorithm to learn predictions
 - An agent can include an algorithm to learn a model
 - ► An agent can include memory of past experiences
 - An agent can include ...
- Different components may or may not share (parts of) the representation

Example: neural Q-learning

- Online neural Q-learning may include:
 - ▶ A network q_θ : $O_t \implies (q[1], ..., q[m])$ (m actions)
 - An ϵ -greedy exploration policy: $q_t \implies \pi_t \implies A_t$
 - \blacktriangleright A Q-learning loss function on θ

$$I(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \left(R_{t+1} + \gamma \left[\max_{a} q_{\theta}(S_{t+1}, a) \right] - q_{\theta}(S_t, A_t) \right)^2$$

where $[\cdot]$ denotes stopping the gradient, so that the gradient is

$$\nabla_{\theta} I(\theta) = \left(R_{t+1} + \gamma \max_{a} q_{\theta}(S_{t+1}, a) - q_{\theta}(S_{t}, A_{t}) \right) \nabla_{\theta} q_{\theta}(S_{t}, A_{t})$$

► An optimizer to minimize the loss (e.g., SGD, RMSProp, Adam)

Example: TF pseudo-code for Q-learning

```
# Compute Q values Q(S t, .)
q = q net(obs)
# Get action A t
action = epsilon greedy(g)
# Compute Q(S t, A t)
qa = q[action]
# Step in environment
reward, discount, next obs = env.step(action)
# Get max of values at next state
max q next = tf.reduce max(q net(next obs))
# Compute TD-error, do not to propagate into next state value
delta = reward + discount * tf.stop gradient(max q next) - qa
# Define loss
q loss = tf.square(delta)/2
```

Example: DQN

- DQN includes:
 - A network q_{θ} : $O_t \implies (q[1], \dots, q[m])$ (m actions)
 - An ϵ -greedy exploration policy: $q_t \implies \pi_t \implies A_t$
 - A replay buffer to store and retrieve past experiences
 - A target network q_{θ^-} : $O_t \implies (q^-[1], \ldots, q^-[m])$
 - A Q-learning loss function on θ (uses replay and target network)

$$I(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \left(R_{i+1} + \gamma [\max_{a} q_{\theta^{-}}(S_{i+1}, a)] - q_{\theta}(S_i, A_i) \right)^2$$

An optimizer to minimize the loss

Example: (Asynchronous) Advantage actor critic

- Advantage actor critic includes:
 - A representation (e.g., LSTM): $(S_{t-1}, O_t) \implies S_t$
 - A network v_{η} : $S \implies v$
 - ightharpoonup A network π_{θ} : $S \implies \pi$
 - Copies/variants π^m of π_θ as policies: $S_t^m \implies A_t^m$
 - ightharpoonup A *n*-step TD loss on v_n

$$I(\eta) = \frac{1}{2} \left(G_t^{(n)} - v_{\eta}(S_t) \right)^2$$

where
$$G_t^{(n)} = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \ldots + \gamma^{n-1} v_{\eta^-}(S_{t+n})$$

• A *n*-step REINFORCE loss on (each) π_{η}

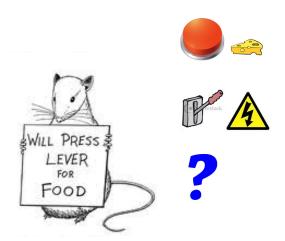
$$I(\theta) = \left[G_t^{(n)} - \nu_{\eta}(S_t)\right] \log \pi_{\theta}(A_t|S_t)$$

- Optimizers to minimize the losses
- The optimizer can be synchronous (A2C), or asynchronous (A3C)

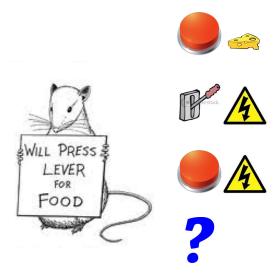
Policies

- We typically agents that learn to improve their behaviour over time
- Good policies trade off exploration and exploitation
- There are many design choices
 - ▶ Policies may depend on internal state $S_t \in S$, or just on observation O_t
 - Policies could be 'blind', e.g., consider uniform random policies
 - Output actions must be compatible with the environment e.g., integer for Atari, real-valued vector for continuous control

Rat Example



Rat Example

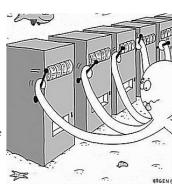


Exploration vs. Exploitation

- Online decision-making involves a fundamental choice:
 - Exploitation: Maximize return given current knowledge
 - ► Exploration: Increase knowledge
- The best long-term strategy may involve short-term sacrifices
- Gather enough information to make the best overall decisions

Recap: The Multi-Armed Bandit

- ullet A multi-armed bandit is a tuple $\langle \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{R} \rangle$
- A is a known set of actions (or "arms")
- $\mathcal{R}^a(r) = \mathbb{P}\left[R_t = r | A_t = a\right]$ is an unknown probability distribution over rewards
- At each step t the agent selects an action $A_t \in \mathcal{A}$
- ullet The environment generates a reward $R_t \sim \mathcal{R}^{A_t}$
- The goal is to maximize cumulative reward $\sum_{i=1}^{t} R_i$
- Repeated 'game against nature'



Regret

• The optimal value v_* is

$$v_* = \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} q(a) = \max_{a} \mathbb{E}\left[R_t \mid A_t = a\right]$$

Regret is the opportunity loss for one step

$$v_* - q(A_t)$$

• E.g., I might regret going to class, although I might learn by going

Regret

 Trade-off exploration and exploitation by minimizing total regret:

$$L_t = \sum_{i=1}^t v_* - q(a_i)$$

- Maximise cumulative reward ≡ minimise total regret
- Note: cumulation here extends over termination of 'episode'
- Extends over 'lifetime of learning', rather than over 'current episode'

Counting Regret

- The gap Δ_a is the difference in value between action a and optimal action a_* , $\Delta_a = v_* q(a)$
- Total regret depends on gaps and counts

$$egin{aligned} L_t &= \sum_{i=1}^t v_* - q(a_i) \ &= \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} N_t(a)(v_* - q(a)) \ &= \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} N_t(a) \Delta_a \end{aligned}$$

- A good algorithm ensures small counts for large gaps
- Problem: gaps are not known...

Exploration

- We need to explore to learn about the values of all actions
- What is a good way to explore?
- One common solution: ϵ -greedy
 - ▶ Select greedy action (exploit) w.p. 1ϵ
 - ▶ Select random action (explore) w.p. ϵ
- Used in Atari
- Is this enough?
- How to pick ϵ ?

ϵ -Greedy Algorithm

- Greedy can lock onto a suboptimal action forever
- ⇒ Greedy has linear expected total regret
- ullet The ϵ -greedy algorithm continues to explore forever
 - $\blacktriangleright \text{ With probability } 1 \epsilon \text{ select } a = \mathop{\mathsf{argmax}}_{a \in \mathcal{A}} Q_t(a)$
 - lacktriangle With probability ϵ select a random action
 - ightharpoonup Constant ϵ ensures minimum expected regret

$$\mathbb{E}\left[v_* - q(A_t)\right] \geq rac{\epsilon}{|\mathcal{A}|} \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \Delta_a$$

• $\Rightarrow \epsilon$ -greedy with constant ϵ has linear total regret

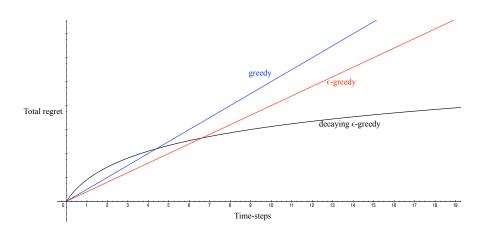
Decaying ϵ_t -Greedy Algorithm

- Pick a decay schedule for $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, ...$
- Consider the following schedule

$$\epsilon_t = rac{c}{t}$$
 where $c \in (0,1]$

- Decaying ϵ_t -greedy has *logarithmic* asymptotic total regret
- Finding proper decay (e.g., c) is not trivial (can depend on problem)

Linear or Sublinear Regret



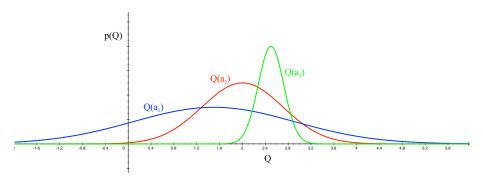
Lower Bound

- The performance of any algorithm is determined by similarity between optimal arm and other arms
- Hard problems have arms with similar distributions but different means
- This is described formally by the gap Δ_a and the similarity in distributions $\mathit{KL}(\mathcal{R}^a||\mathcal{R}^a*)$

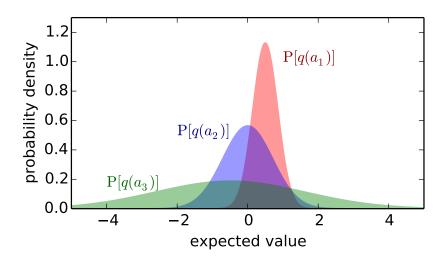
Theorem (Lai and Robbins)

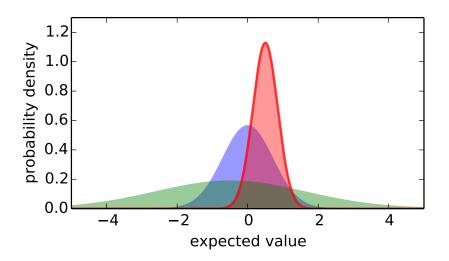
Asymptotic total regret is at least logarithmic in number of steps

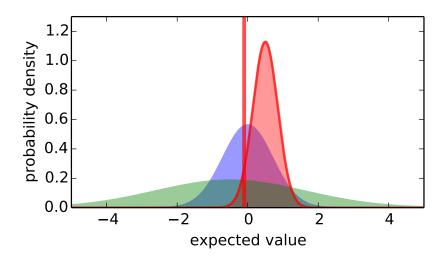
$$\lim_{t\to\infty} L_t \ge \log t \sum_{a|\Delta_a>0} \frac{\Delta_a}{\mathit{KL}(\mathcal{R}^a||\mathcal{R}^{a_*})}$$

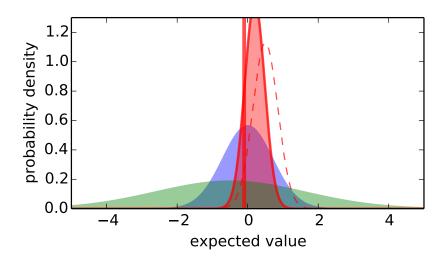


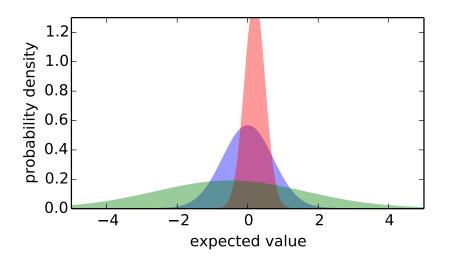
- Which action should we pick?
- More uncertainty: more important to explore that action
- It could turn out to be the best action

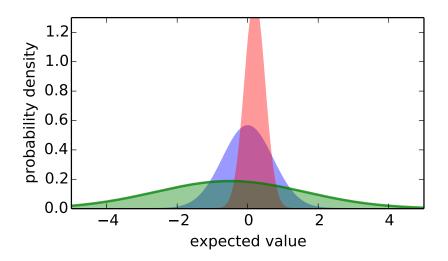


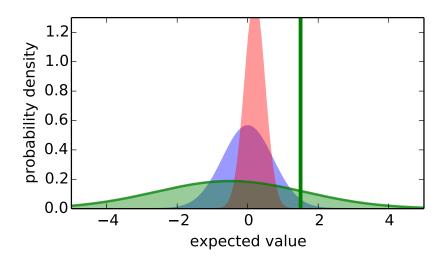


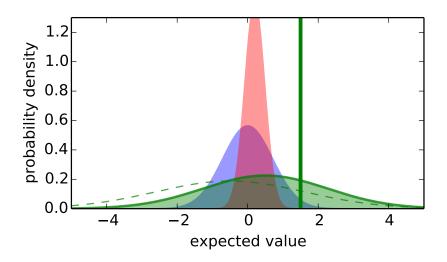












Upper Confidence Bounds

- Estimate an upper confidence $U_t(a)$ for each action value, such that $q(a) \leq Q_t(a) + U_t(a)$ with high probability
- Uncertainty depends on the number of times N(a) has been selected
 - ▶ Small $N_t(a) \Rightarrow \text{large } U_t(a)$ (estimated value is uncertain)
 - ▶ Large $N_t(a)$ \Rightarrow small $U_t(a)$ (estimated value is accurate)
- Select action maximizing Upper Confidence Bound (UCB)

$$a_t = \underset{a \in \mathcal{A}}{\operatorname{argmax}} Q_t(a) + U_t(a)$$

Hoeffding's Inequality

Theorem (Hoeffding's Inequality)

Let $\Sigma_1,...,\Sigma_t$ be i.i.d. random variables in [0,1], and let $\overline{X}_t = \frac{1}{t} \sum_{i=1}^t \Sigma_i$ be the sample mean. Then

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\mathbb{E}\left[X\right] > \overline{X}_t + u\right] \le e^{-2tu^2}$$

- We can apply Hoeffding's Inequality to bandits with bounded rewards
- ullet E.g., if $R_t \in [0,1]$, then

$$\mathbb{P}\left[q(a) > Q_t(a) + U_t(a)\right] \leq e^{-2N_t(a)U_t(a)^2}$$

Calculating Upper Confidence Bounds

- Pick a probability p that true value exceeds UCB
- Now solve for $U_t(a)$

$$e^{-2N_t(a)U_t(a)^2} = p$$

$$U_t(a) = \sqrt{\frac{-\log p}{2N_t(a)}}$$

- Reduce p as we observe more rewards, e.g. $p = t^{-1}$
- ullet Ensures we select optimal action as $t o \infty$

$$U_t(a) = \sqrt{\frac{\log t}{2N_t(a)}}$$

UCB1

• This leads to the UCB algorithm

$$a_t = \operatorname*{argmax}_{a \in \mathcal{A}} Q_t(a) + c \sqrt{\dfrac{\log t}{N_t(a)}}$$

with c > 0

Theorem (Auer et al., 2002)

The UCB algorithm (with $c=1/\sqrt{2}$) achieves logarithmic expected total regret

$$L_t \leq 8 \sum_{a|\Delta_a>0} \frac{\log t}{\Delta_a} + O(\sum_a \Delta_a)$$

for any t

Value of Information

- Exploration is valuable because information is valuable
- Can we quantify the value of information?
- Information gain is higher in uncertain situations
- Therefore it makes sense to explore uncertain situations more
- If we know value of information, we can trade-off exploration and exploitation optimally (in bandits)

Solving information state space bandits

- We can formulate bandits as an infinite MDP over information states
- 'Information state' includes (sufficient statistic) information of what we have learned (e.g., rewards and actions)
- Can be solved by reinforcement learning
- Model-free reinforcement learning
 - e.g. Q-learning (Duff, 1994)
- Bayesian model-based reinforcement learning
 - e.g. Gittins indices (Gittins, 1979)
- Latter approach is known as Bayes-adaptive RL
- Finds Bayes-optimal exploration/exploitation trade-off (with respect to prior distribution)

Towards complex environments

- Bandits are simple, in several senses
 - ► Tabular states, tabular actions, no generalisation
 - ▶ No sequential nature within episodes
- Real problems are much harder
- Key insights:
 - Optimism in the face of uncertainty
 - Seek information
- Key question: can we find good proxy for information?
- We need policies that yield information—in some settings this is easy, in some this is hard

Example: Cart Pole

- Imagine balancing a pole on a cart by hitting the cart
- If each episode starts with an almost-balanced pole, exploration is easy

Jittering

- Simplest approach to exploration: jitter
- Example: ϵ -greedy
- Example: soft max policy $\pi(a|s) = e^{p(s,a)} / \sum_b e^{p(s,b)}$ for some preference function p (e.g., $p(s,a) = q(s,a) / \tau$)
- Used in much current state of the art!

Intrinsic motivation

- Idea: UCB uses counts of states and actions
- These counts capture a notion of uncertainty
- Can we use (pseudo-) counts in complex environments?
- Can we use motivate the agent to go to novel situations?

Video: Montezuma's revenge

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0yI2wJ6F8r0

Agent components

- This agent had an additional a component: a density model
- This component was used to improve the behaviour policy
- This component can be (and recently was) swapped out and improved, while keeping the rest of the agent fixed
- But often components interact, so revisiting other components may be important (e.g., retuning)

Auxiliary predictions

- Sometimes we can improve components in interesting ways
- E.g., we can use a representation to make multiple predictions
- For instance: predict immediate rewards with the representation in A2C
- This help performance, even though the signal is quite indirect!

Auxiliary predictions \implies Better representation \implies Better policy

Models

- We have seen that models can be useful components
- In last lecture, a model was trained, and then used to update to a value function (Dyna)
- In the past, model-based RL was known to be data efficient, while model-free RL was thought to be more computation efficient
- These days: less clear
 - ▶ It is hard to learn good models in messy domains
 - Perhaps we are not using them optimally
 - However, replay is essentially a non-parametric model and is useful
 - We probably do not want to model individual pixels—but what then?
 - ▶ More to be done!

Questions

Topics and Terms

- Reward (and the reward hypothesis)
- Observation
- Action
- History
- State, environment state, agent state, Markov state
- Markov decision process (MDP)
- Partially observable MDP (POMDP)
- Discount
- Policy
- Value function
- Model-free / model-based
- Actor critic
- PlanningPrediction
- Control
- Exploration/exploitation
- Multi-armed bandit
- Return
- Bellman equation
- Bellman optimality equation
- Dynamic programming

- Policy evaluation
 - Policy improvement
- Policy iteration
- Generalized policy iteration
- Value iteration
- Contraction mappings
- Monte Carlo
 Temporal diff
- Temporal difference (TD)
- Bootstrapping
- TD error
- n-step returns
- λ-returns, TD(λ)
- Eligibility traces (forward view, backward view)
- On-policy / off-policy
- Sarsa, Q-learning
- Policy gradient
- REINFORCE (with and without baseline)
 - Dyna
- Monte Carlo tree search (MCTS)
- Regret
- Optimism in the face of uncertainty