1

Blackjack-GPT: An Actor-Critic Reinforcement Learning via LLM System

Bryan Ambriz, Sri Vinay Appari, Suresh Ravuri, Harshavardhan Valmiki Computer Engineering Department San José State University (SJSU) San José, CA, USA

Email: {bryan.ambriz, srivinay.appari, suresh.ravuri, harshavardhanraghavendra.valmiki}@sjsu.edu

Abstract—The goal of this project is to extend traditional reinforcement learning agents to utilize deep reinforcement learning by enhancing the agent with a neural network model using the Gymnasium library in the Python programming language. Traditional preference algorithms such as Monte Carlo, Temporal Difference, SARSA or Q-Learning learn the optimal preference strategy without requiring a neural network. Deep reinforcement learning strategies involving a neural network agent exist that can learn to predict the optimal state-value and action-value functions used within the Q preference learning algorithm. For this purpose we will use the reinforcement learning library Gymnasium, the neural network library Pytorch, and the deep reinforcement learning library agileRL in Python within the Google colaboratory computational environment. Thus, we aim to train a deep neural network to learn the optimal reinforcement learning strategy within Gymnasium's Blackjack or complex Atari game environments.

Index Terms—Actor, Critic, Reinforcement, Learning, Network, Large-Language-Model, LLM, Blackjack, GPT

1 Introduction

Reinforcement learning's foundational principles via classical conditioning emerged from behavioral psychology research in the early 20th century, particularly through the work of researchers like Thorndike (1911) and Skinner (1938). Classical conditioning was first systematically studied by Ivan Pavlov in his experiments with dogs (1927), where he discovered that dogs would salivate not only at the sight of food but also at the sound of a bell that had been repeatedly paired with food presentation. While classical conditioning, demonstrated by Pavlov's experiments, showed how organisms learn as

sociations between stimuli, operant conditioning—more closely related to modern reinforcement learning—demonstrated how behaviors are modified through consequences. In reinforcement learning, an agent learns optimal behavior through interactions with an environment, receiving rewards or penalties that shape its decision-making process.

The mathematical framework often used to formalize reinforcement learning is the Markov Decision Process (MDP), a term first introduced by Richard Bellman in 1957 when he built upon Andrey Markov's earlier work on state transition probabilities to develop a framework for sequential decision-making under uncertainty. Tra-

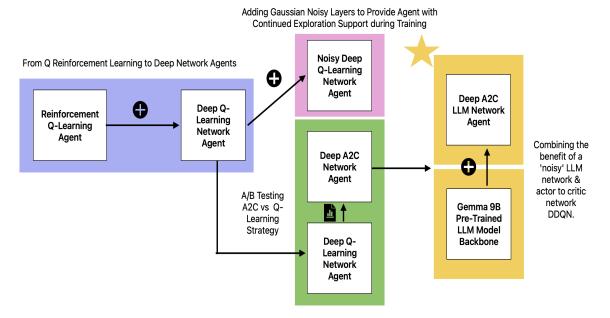


Fig. 1. Evolution of the blackjack learning network agent development from left-to right: Q-learning to double deep q learning (DDQN) in blue, experimental noisy DDQN in pink, A/B testing of actor-to-critic (A2C) DDQN and previous DDQN in green, and finally the combined LLM based A2C agent in yellow.

ditional reinforcement learning algorithms such as the Monte Carlo, Temporal Difference, SARSA, and Q-Learning algorithms make use of the mathematical definition of an MDP. These algorithms allow an agent in an environment to learn a decision following strategy over time by applying linear state-value and action-value or Q-Learning functions to estimate the goodness of a state or action.

2 PROBLEM STATEMENT / PROJECT AR-CHITECTURE

Traditional reinforcement algorithms and agents are inefficient and lack the ability to pick up complex patterns from an MDP environment, such as in Gymnasium's Blackjack and Atari environments. These learning algorithms (i.e SARSA or the Q-Learning strategies) use a strategy that utilizes state and action value expectation functions to influence the Q-learning algorithm. A limitation of these approaches is that these traditional

algorithms use simple linear functions to modify the Q strategy matrix.

In deep reinforcement learning, neural networks emulate the strategy for the agent within the MDP framework to approximate the value functions via non-linear regression, allowing the agent to learn and make decisions in complex state-action mappings or high-dimensional state spaces. The Gymnasium and the agileRL libraries in Python are popularly used in both reinforcement learning and deep reinforcement learning. Gymnasium provides a variety of simple and complex action and state spaces or environments that can be used to contextualize an MDP, while agileRL provides a variety of neural network architectures and training strategies for training the deep reinforcement learning agent. In Gymnasium's CartPole environment using the Q-Learning strategy, for example, the actions are discrete while the states are continuous and require discretization and binning to be able to map the states to actions in the Q-Learning matrix.

Deep reinforcement learning provides more

flexible, accurate, and efficient learning within Gymnasium's more complex environments, or within custom environments. Traditional reinforcement learning algorithms that require converting the continuous states or actions into discrete values will inherently lose valuable information in the process. Deep learning via neural networks solves this problem as it is able to understand the more complex, continuous input. Our project aims to solve the learning problems posed in Gymnasium's Blackjack and potentially more complex Atari environments to leverage the benefit of deep reinforcement learning.

3 METHOD(S) / SYSTEM DESIGN

The first step of our architectural building process was to setup a base reinforcement learning algorithm that utilizes a neural network. For this purpose, we built a Deep Q-Learning Network (DQN) agent. A deep Q-Learning network is similar to a basic neural network and has traditional elements such as multiple dense layers, an activation function, an optimizer, etc. A key difference is that the DQN we implemented adds specific elements related to the reinforcement learning literature; it implements an off policy learning strategy. As such, it contains two networks within it - one that is used to learn the target Q-Learning strategy during training, while the other is used to enact the policy during prediction or inference.

An additional exercise we managed to include was to add noise layers to add noise to the output predictions of the target policy networks, based on a learned distribution of gaussian noise. Including these layers has the potential to increase the "exploration" capability of a reinforcement learning model. By including noise to add randomization to the models outputs, the model is able to make "exploratory" decisions during training and after the typical exploration phase (when the epsilon value is close to 0) as well as post training. The next and culminating step of our project was to use a different learning algorithm, and compare their performance at learning the blackjack environment in Gymnasium. As previously mentioned, the DQN implemented a

Fig. 2. Example of the Deep Q-Learning Network Agent.

```
Noisy DDQN Architecture

1 import torch.optim as optim
2 class NoisyDoubleDQNdgent:
4     def __init__(self, input_dim=3, learning_rate=5e-4, gamma=0.99, epsilon=1.0):
5     self.device = torch.device("cuda" if torch.cuda.is_available() else "cpu")
6     self.fitness = || # used to store a series of 'avg revard' during evaluation
7
8     self.policy_noisy_Linear1 = NoisyLinear(128, 64)
9     self.policy_noisy_Linear2 = NoisyLinear(128, 64)
11     self.target_noisy_Linear2 = NoisyLinear(128, 64)
12     self.target_noisy_Linear2 = NoisyLinear(64, 2)
13     # Larger network
14     self.policy_net = nn.Sequential{
15          nn.nenar(input_dim, 128),
16          nn.RelU(),
17          nn.nenar(128, 128),
18          nn.RelU(),
19          self.policy_noisy_Linear1, # the noisy layers w/o RelU in-between
20          self.policy_noisy_Linear2,
21     ).to(self.device)
22     self.target_net = nn.Sequential{
24          nn.Linear(sinut_dim, 128),
25          nn.RelU(),
26          nn.Linear(sinut_dim, 128),
27          nn.Linear(sinut_dim, 128),
28          self.target_noisy_Linear1,
29          self.target_noisy_Linear2,
30          ).to(self.device)
```

Fig. 3. Example of the Noisy Deep Q-Learning Network Agent.

Q-Learning strategy that is an off-policy strategy to ensure the agent is taking reasonable risks during training that would allow them to explore the environment without strictly adhering to the policy. The A2C learning strategy, on the other hand, is an on-policy & risk-averse learning strategy that ensures the model follows it's policy during training & during prediction or inference. We built and trained a deep A2C network agent and then compared it to the DQN, and found promising results.

Fig. 4. Example of the Deep Actor-to-Critic Learning Network Agent.

4 RESULTS

Although we did not evaluate the noisy DQN as compared to the DQN, we noticed the noisy DQN performed slightly worse than the original DQN in terms of the training loss. This may be expected however, as the noisy DQN is including noise into the learned strategy and output predictions. In essence, it seems that the noisy layers may be used when training the model for more iterations where it might be necessary to extend the length of the exploration phase to avoid overfitting. As we did not train the agents for many iterations, we may not have had enough time to take full advantage of the noise layers.

We conducted an ablation experiment by evaluating the output of our previously trained black-jack playing DQN as compared to the trained A2C model. We found that the A2C model outperformed the DQN model at blackjack. After 200 simulated rounds of the game, the DQN model only won 18% of the games, whereas the A2C model won 35%. Similarly, the A2C outperformed the DQN by achieving a higher average reward

across the 200 rounds. The A2C model averaged a reward of -0.250 while the DQN averaged a reward of -0.591. Finally, we compared them by measuring whether they agreed or differed in choices during their matches. We found that they had a decision disagreement rate of around 48% - implying that the models learned a very different strategy due to their difference in learning algorithm.

5 Conclusion

This project successfully enhanced traditional reinforcement learning (RL) agents by incorporating deep reinforcement learning (Deep RL) techniques, specifically utilizing Deep Q-Learning Networks (DQN) and Actor-to-Critic (A2C) models within the Gymnasium Blackjack environment. Our findings demonstrate that the A2C model outperformed the standard DQN, achieving a higher win rate (35% vs. 18%) and a more favorable average reward (-0.250 vs. -0.591) over 200 simulated games. This highlights the effectiveness of Actor-Critic methods in optimizing decision-making strategies in complex environments.

The introduction of noise layers in the DQN aimed to improve exploration did not yield significant performance gains within the limited training period, suggesting that further training or hyperparameter adjustments may be necessary to realize their potential benefits. Additionally, the notable 48% decision disagreement rate between DQN and A2C models indicates that different RL approaches can lead to distinct strategic behaviors, offering opportunities for hybrid strategies.

Integrating a Large Language Model (LLM) with the A2C framework represents an innovative advancement, though preliminary results indicate the need for further exploration to fully harness this integration.

Future work will focus on optimizing the noisy DQN through extended training, exploring additional Deep RL algorithms, applying models to more complex environments, and deepening the integration of LLMs to enhance decision-making capabilities. Overall, this project establishes a solid foundation for advancing Deep RL

agents, demonstrating significant improvements in strategy optimization and performance within the Blackjack environment.

REFERENCES

- I. P. Pavlov, Conditioned Reflexes: An Investigation of the Physiological Activity of the Cerebral Cortex, Oxford University Press, 1927.
- [2] E. L. Thorndike, "Animal intelligence: Experimental studies," *Psychological Review*, vol. 18, no. 2, pp. 117– 137, 1911.
- [3] B. F. Skinner, *The Behavior of Organisms: An Experimental Analysis*, Appleton-Century, 1938.
- [4] A. A. Markov, "Extension of the limit theorems of probability theory to a sum of variables connected in a chain," *Halle*, 1906.
- [5] R. Bellman, *Dynamic Programming*, Princeton University Press, 1957.
- [6] R. Sutton and A. G. Barto, Reinforcement Learning: An Introduction, MIT Press, 1998.
- [7] C. J. C. H. Watkins and P. Dayan, "Q-learning," *Machine Learning*, vol. 8, no. 3, pp. 279–292, 1989.
- [8] V. Mnih et al., "Human-level control through deep reinforcement learning," *Nature*, vol. 518, pp. 529–533, 2015.
- [9] Y. Wang, M. Riedmiller, and D. Silver, "Dueling Network Architectures for Deep Reinforcement Learning," arXiv preprint arXiv:1511.06581, 2016.
- [10] J. Schulman et al., "Proximal Policy Optimization Algorithms," arXiv preprint arXiv:1707.06347, 2017.
- [11] V. R. Konda and A. G. Barto, "Actor-Critic Algorithms," in *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, 1999, pp. 1008–1014.
 [12] Gymnasium, "Gymnasium: A Next Generation Openion."
- [12] Gymnasium, "Gymnasium: A Next Generation OpenAI Gym," arXiv preprint arXiv:2109.02277, 2021. [Online]. Available: https://gymnasium.farama.org/
- [13] A. Paszke et al., "PyTorch: An Imperative Style, High-Performance Deep Learning Library," in Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 2019.
- [14] agileRL, "agileRL: Agile Reinforcement Learning Library," 2020. [Online]. Available: https://github.com/agile-rl/agileRL
 [15] V. Mnih et al., "Asynchronous Methods for
- [15] V. Mnih et al., "Asynchronous Methods for Deep Reinforcement Learning," arXiv preprint arXiv:1602.01783, 2016.
- [16] Y. Wang and L. Jia, "Noisy Networks for Exploration," arXiv preprint arXiv:1706.10295, 2017.
- [17] A. Vaswani et al., "Attention is All You Need," in Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems, 2017, pp. 5998–6008.
- pp. 5998–6008.

 [18] J. Devlin, M. W. Chang, K. Lee, and K. Toutanova, "BERT: Pre-training of Deep Bidirectional Transformers for Language Understanding," arXiv preprint arXiv:1810.04805, 2018.