CS 5/7320 Artificial Intelligence

Reinforcement Learning AIMA Chapter 17+22

Slides by Michael Hahsler with figures from the AIMA textbook.



Remember Chapter 16:

Making Simple Decisions

For a decision that we make frequently and making it once does not affect the future decisions (episodic environment), we can use the Principle of Maximum Expected Utility (MEU).

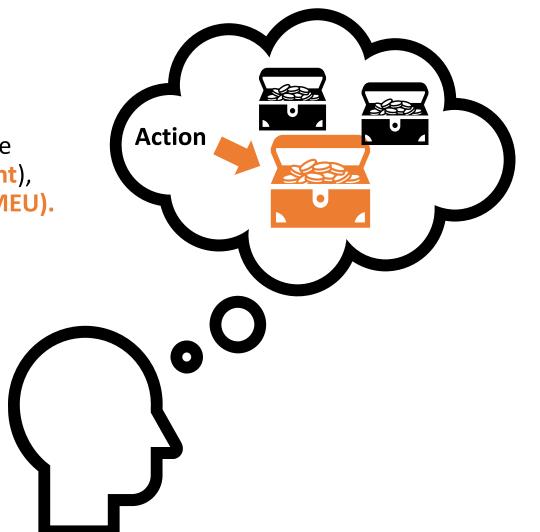
Given the expected utility of an action

$$EU(a) = \sum_{s'} P(Result(a) = s')U(s')$$

choose action that maximizes the expected utility:

$$a^* = \operatorname{argmax}_a EU(a)$$

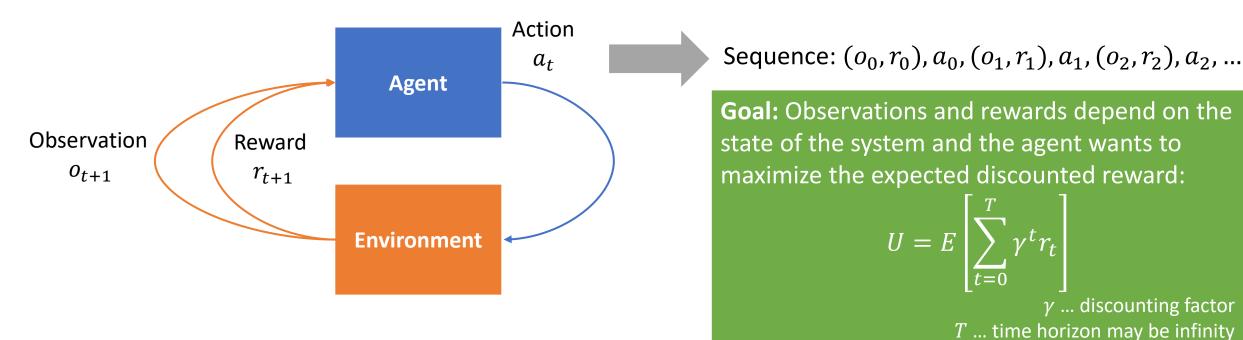
Now we will talk about decision making in sequential environments.





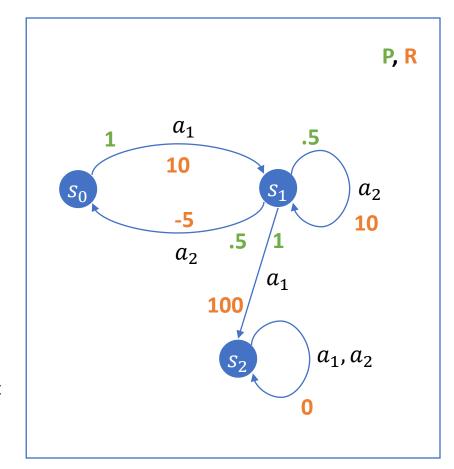
Sequential Decision Problems

- Utility-based agent: The agent's utility depends on a sequence of decisions that depend on each other.
- Sequential decision problems incorporate utilities, uncertainty, and sensing.



Definition: Markov Decision Process (MDP)

- MDPs are sequential decision problems with
 - a fully observable ($o_t = s_t$), stochastic environment;
 - a Markovian transition model: future states do not depend on past states give the current state;
 - additive rewards.
- MDPs are discrete-time stochastic control processes defines by:
 - a finite set of **states** $S = \{s_0, s_1, s_2, ...\}$ (initial state s_0)
 - a set of available **actions** ACTIONS(s) in each state s
 - a transition model P(s' | s, a) where $a \in ACTIONS(s)$
 - a **reward function** R(s) where the reward depends on the current state (often R(s, a, s') is used)
- Time horizon
 - Infinite horizon: non-episodic (continuous) tasks with no terminal state.
 - **Finite horizon**: episodic tasks. Episode ends after a number of periods or when a terminal state is reached. Episodes contain a sequence of several actions that affect each other.



This is different from the previous definition of an **episodic** environment!

Example: 4x3 Grid World

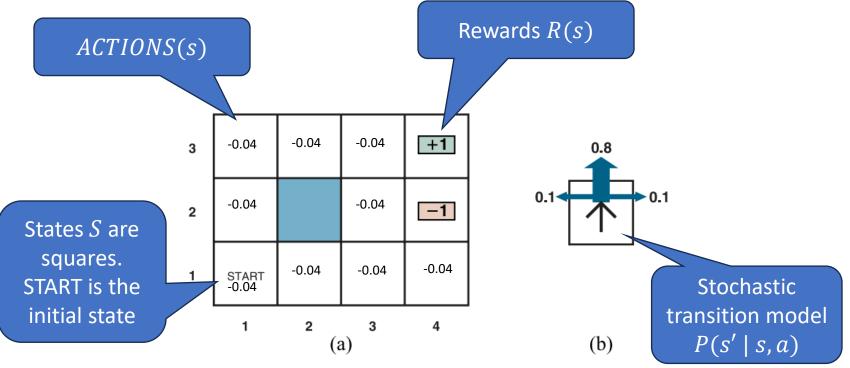


Figure 17.1 (a) A simple, stochastic 4×3 environment that presents the agent with a sequential decision problem. (b) Illustration of the transition model of the environment: the "intended" outcome occurs with probability 0.8, but with probability 0.2 the agent moves at right angles to the intended direction. A collision with a wall results in no movement. Transitions into the two terminal states have reward +1 and -1, respectively, and all other transitions have a reward of -0.04.

Goal

For each square: determine what direction should we try to go to maximize the total utility?

This is called a **policy** written as the function

 $\pi: S \to ACTIONS(S)$

Optimal Policy

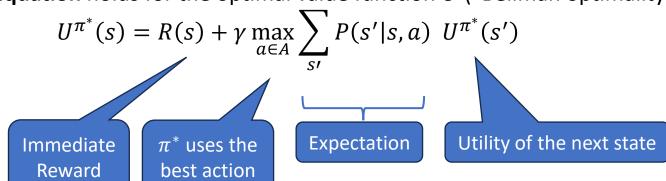
- A policy $\pi = {\pi(s_0), \pi(s_1), ...}$ defines for each state which action to take.
- The expected utility of being in state s under policy π can be calculated as the sum:

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

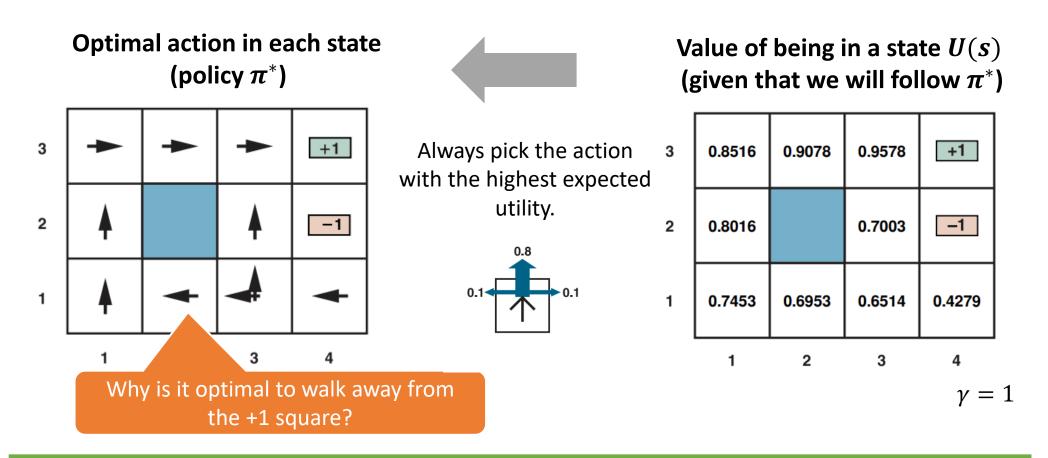
 γ is a discounting factor to give more weight to immediate rewards.

 E_{π} is the expectation over sequences that can be created by following π .

- The goal of solving an MDP is to find an optimal policy π that maximizes the expected future utility for each state $\pi^*(s) = \operatorname{argmax} U^{\pi}(s)$ for all $s \in S$
- The recursive **Bellman equation** holds for the optimal value function U ("Bellman optimality condition"):



Solution: 4x3 Grid World



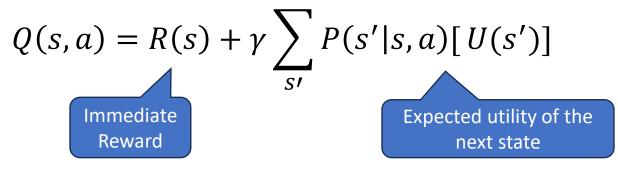
How to we find the optimal value function/optimal policy?

Policy Iteration

Value Iteration

Q-Function

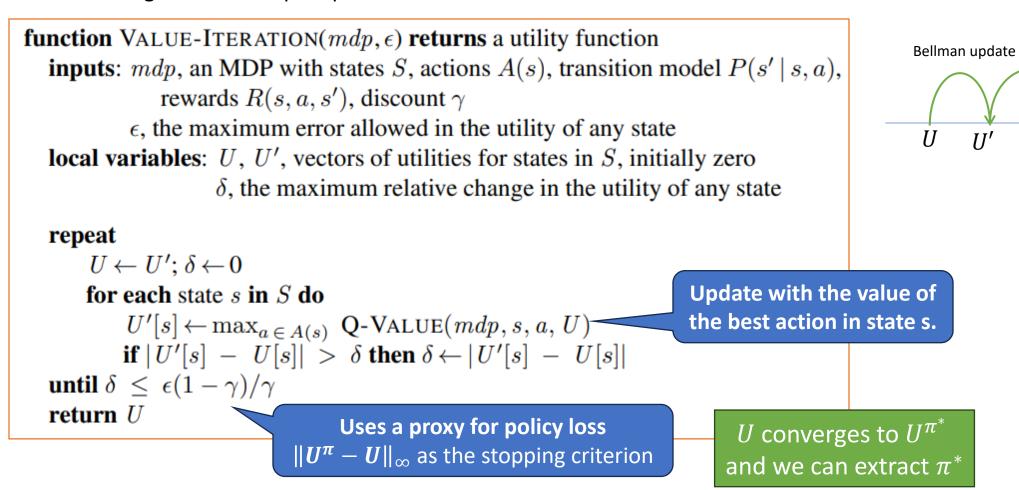
• Q(s,a) is called the state-action value function. It gives the expected utility of action a in state s.



- Relationship with the state value function: $U(s) = \max_{a} Q(s, a)$
- The Q-function is often used for convenience in algorithms.

Value Iteration: Estimate the Optimal Value Function U^{π^*}

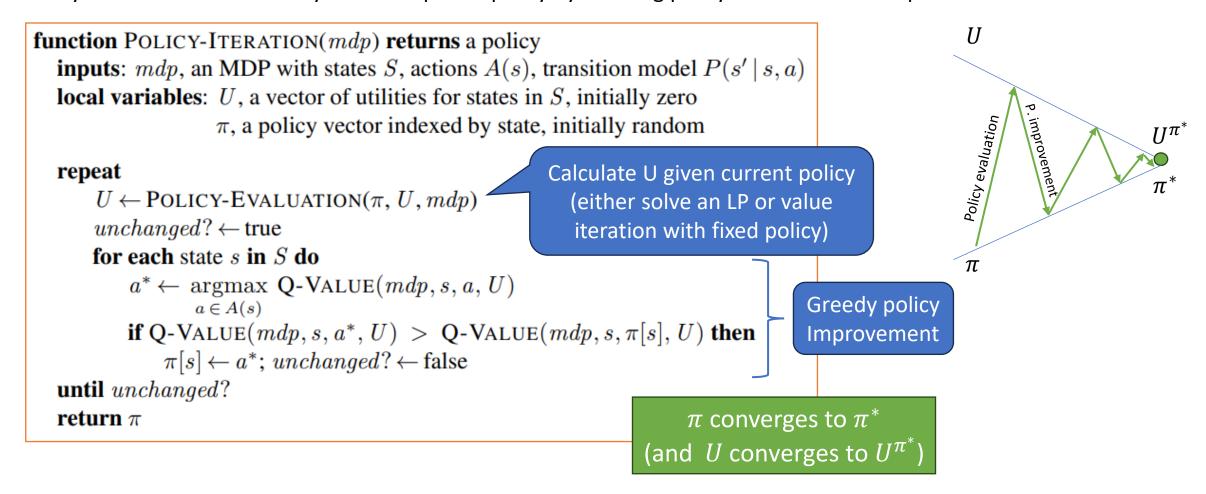
Algorithm: Start with a U vector of 0 for all states and then update (Bellman update) the vector iteratively until it converges to the unique optimal solution U^{π^*} .



Extract π^*

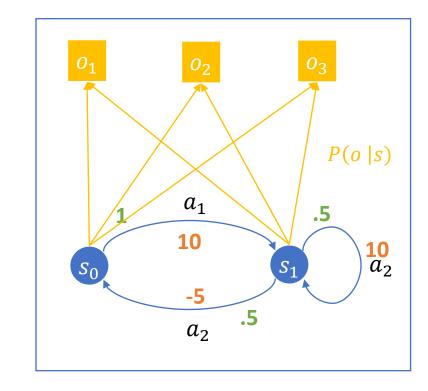
Policy Iteration: Learn the Optimal Policy π^*

Policy iteration tries to directly find the optimal policy by iterating policy evaluation and improvement.



Partially Observable Markov Decision Model (POMDP)

- If the environment is **partially observable**, then $o_t \neq s_t$ and the model is expanded by
 - a sensor model $P(o \mid s)$ for receiving observation o given being in state s.
- This makes things a lot more complicated, and we have to work with **belief states**. A belief state is a distribution over states. Example: For a problem with three states, the belief state b=(.2,.8,0) means the agent beliefs that it is with 20% in state 1 and 80% in state 2 but not in state 3.
- An MDP that uses belief states instead of system states is called a belief MDP.
 Issue: the probabilities in belief states are continuous, and the number of different belief states is infinite.
- The solution of a POMDP is a policy with the optimal actions for sets of belief states (i.e., ranges of belief).
- For all but tiny problems, POMDPs can only be solved **approximately** (e.g., by grid-based methods).



Reinforcement Learning AIMA Chapter 22

Reinforcement Learning (RL)

• RL assumes that the problem can be modeled by an MDP.

• What if we do not know the exact transition model $P(s' \mid s, a)$?

Now we cannot solve the MDP (estimate the state utility function/policy) because we cannot predict what the future states after an action will be!

• The agent needs to explore (try actions) and use the reward signal to update its estimate of the utility of states and actions. This is a learning process where the reward provides positive reinforcement.

Q-Learning

- Q-Learning learns the state-action value function from interactions with the environment (percepts).
- This agent function learns a Q-table for the state-action function Q.

Q-Table $\begin{array}{c|cc} s & a & Q(s,a) \end{array}$

function Q-LEARNING-AGENT(percept) returns an action inputs: percept, a percept indicating the current state s' and reward signal r persistent: Q, a table of action values indexed by state and action, initially zero N_{sa} , a table of frequencies for state-action pairs, initially zero s, s, the previous state and action, initially null

New episode has no s.

if s is not null then increment $N_{sa}[s,a]$

Make Q[s,a] a little more similar to the received reward + the best Q-value of the successor state.

$$Q[s, a] \leftarrow Q[s, a] + \alpha(N_{sa}[s, a])(r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q[s', a'] - Q[s, a])$$

 $s, a \leftarrow s', \operatorname{argmax}_{a'} f(Q[s', a'], N_{sa}[s', a'])$

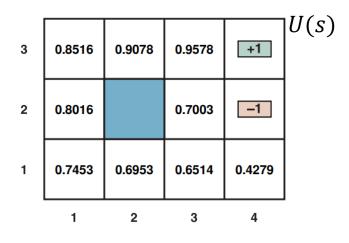
return a

f is the exploration function and decides on the next action. As N increases it can exploit good actions more.

Value Function Approximation

- U(Q) needs to store and estimate one entry for each state (state/action combination).
- Issues and solutions
 - Too many entries to store
 - Many combinations are rarely seen

- → lossy compression
- → generalize to unseen entries
- **Idea**: Estimate the state value by learning an approximation function $\widehat{U}(s) = g_{\theta}(s)$ based on features of s.
- **Example**: 4x3 Grid World with a linear combination of state features (x, y) and learn θ from observed data.

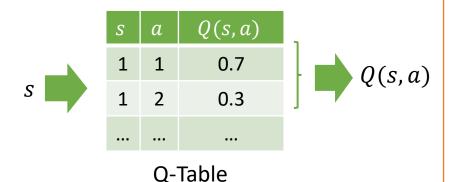


Learn θ from observed interactions with the environment to approximate U(s)

$$\widehat{U}_{\theta}(x, y) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \theta_2 y$$

 can be updated iteratively after each new observed utility using gradient descent.

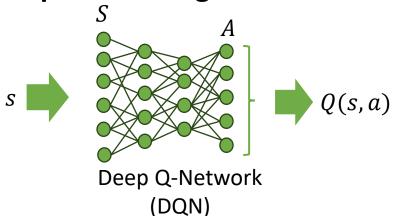
Traditional Q-Learning



function Q-LEARNING-AGENT(percept) returns an action inputs: percept, a percept indicating the current state s' and reward signal r persistent: Q, a table of action values indexed by state and action, initially zero N_{sa} , a table of frequencies for state-action pairs, initially zero s, a, the previous state and action, initially null

if s is not null then increment $N_{sa}[s,a]$ target prediction $Q[s,a] \leftarrow Q[s,a] + \alpha(N_{sa}[s,a])(r+\gamma \max_{a'} Q[s',a'] - Q[s,a])$ $s,a \leftarrow s', \operatorname{argmax}_{a'} f(Q[s',a'], N_{sa}[s',a'])$ return a

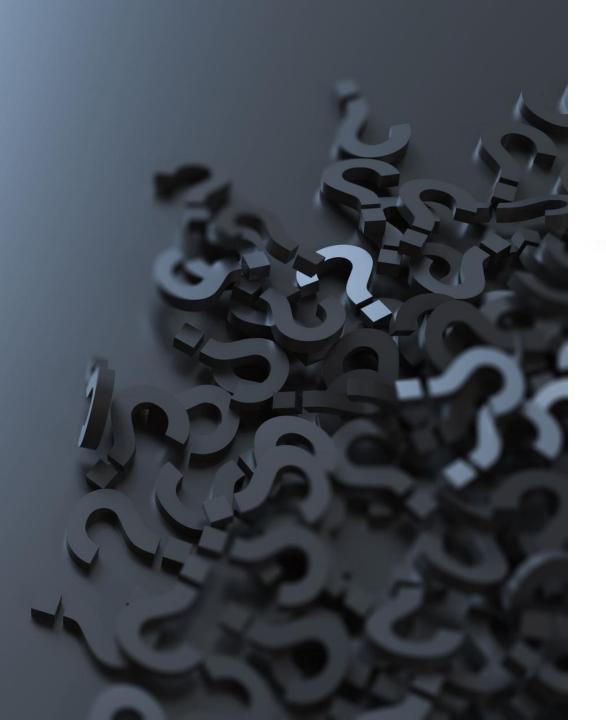
Deep Q-Learning



Target networks: It turns out that the Q-Network is unstable if the same network is used to estimate Q(s,a) and also Q(s',a'). Deep Q-Learning uses a second target network for Q(s',a') that is updated with the prediction network every $\mathcal C$ steps.

Experience replay: To reduce instability more, generate actions using the current network and store the experience $\langle s, a, r, s' \rangle$ in a table. Update the model parameters by sampling from the table.

Loss function: squared difference between prediction and target.



Summary

- Agents can learn the value of being in a state from reward signals.
- Rewards can be delayed (e.g., at the end of a game).
- Not being able to fully observe the state makes the problem more difficult (POMDP).
- Unknown transition models lead to the need of exploration by trying actions (model free methods like Q-Learning).
- All these problems are computationally very expensive and often can only be solved by approximation. State of the art is to use deep artificial neural networks for function approximation.