

- Introduction to Reinforcement Learning
- Bandits
- Markov Decision Processes

Machine learning, big data and artificial intelligence – Block 9

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HT 2020



This week's lectures

- Introduction to Reinforcement Learning
- Bandits
- Markov Decision
- Markov Decision Processes



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- Another type of Machine Learning:
 - Supervised Learning
 - Unsupervised Learning
 - Reinforcement learning



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- Another type of Machine Learning:
 - Supervised Learning
 - Unsupervised Learning
 - Reinforcement learning
- Computational approach of learning from interaction
- Closest to human and animal learning: trial, error, and planning.
- The learner is *not* told which actions to take



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- Another type of Machine Learning:
 - Supervised Learning
 - Unsupervised Learning
 - Reinforcement learning
- Computational approach of learning from interaction
- Closest to human and animal learning: trial, error, and planning.
- The learner is not told which actions to take
- Connections to:
 - Game Theory
 - Control Theory
 - Multi-agent systems
 - Swarm intelligence
 - Information theory
 - Statistics



Introduction to Reinforcement

- Learning
- Bandits
- Markov Decision Processes

Introduction to Reinforcement Learning

• Goal: maximize return over a sequence of actions



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- Three characteristics:
 - 1. Closed-loop: early actions affects later actions



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- Goal: maximize return over a sequence of actions
- Three characteristics:
 - 1. Closed-loop: early actions affects later actions
 - 2. No direct instructions
 - 3. Reward signals over a long period of time



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• RL agent won over Lee Sedol in 2016: AlphaGo



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- Industry automation: RL is used to reduce the energy cost of datacenter cooling



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- Elevator scheduling



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- A/B testing and personalized recommendations



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- Industry automation: RL is used to reduce the energy cost of datacenter cooling
- Automated trading
- Elevator scheduling
- A/B testing and personalized recommendations
- Board games such as backgammon, chess and checkers



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1. The Agent: The learning agent.



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- 2. The Environment: Where the agent performs actions.



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- 5. Return: The aggregated reward over a long period.



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1. Agents:

- 1.1 Have a goal
- 1.2 Sense aspect of their environment
- 1.3 Choose actions
- 1.4 Possibility to improve performance over time



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- 1. Agents:
 - 1.1 Have a goal
 - 1.2 Sense aspect of their environment
 - 1.3 Choose actions
 - 1.4 Possibility to improve performance over time
- 2. Usually an uncertainty about the environment
- 3. Represent uncertainty of environment: Probability



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- Policy: How the agent choose actions. Determines behaviour.
- 2. Model: The agent's model of the environment. Used for planning



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- Policy: How the agent choose actions. Determines behaviour.
- 2. Model: The agent's model of the environment. Used for planning
- 3. Value function: The long-term value
- Outside agent: Reward signal: The instant value of an action
- Problem: Balance the trade-off between long-term and short-term rewards



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1. Static vs. Dynamic



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- 1. Static vs. Dynamic
- 2. No Gold Standard



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- 3. Multiple-Decision Process: Return vs. reward



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- 4. Need for exploration



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- 3. Multiple-Decision Process: Return vs. reward
- 4. Need for exploration
- 5. Evaluates actions not only instruct actions



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Exploration vs Exploitation

• Goal: Maximize the return (the total reward), i.e.



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- Goal: Maximize the return (the total reward), i.e.
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Exploration vs Exploitation

- Goal: Maximize the return (the total reward), i.e.
- Exploit the best actions
- Explore to know the best actions



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Evolution vs Learning

- Set a policy without learning: Evolutionary Methods
- Good when agent cannot sense the environment



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Evolution vs Learning

- Set a policy without learning: Evolutionary Methods
- Good when agent cannot sense the environment
- Example: Bacteria don't learn, they evolve



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Setting the goal for the Agent

- Setting the goal: defining the reward signal (reward function)
- Example: If you want the agent to do something quick, give -1 per action.



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Setting the goal for the Agent

- Setting the goal: defining the reward signal (reward function)
- Example: If you want the agent to do something quick, give -1 per action.
- We should give rewards for correct behaviour
- Do not use reward to guide how to reach the goal
- Be careful what you wish for...



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Goal: Maximize the total or average reward after N actions



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- The actions: Choose between k arms, i.e. $A_t \in \{1,...,k\}$



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- The reward signal:

$$R_t \sim p(R_t|a)$$
,

where
$$\mathbb{E}(R_t|A_t=a)=q^*(a)$$
.



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- The estimated (expected) value if action a at step t: $Q_t(a)$.



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- $q^*(a)$ is unknown.
- The estimated (expected) value if action a at step t: $Q_t(a)$.
- This is a tabular method/problem:
 We can represent the actions in a table.
- Tabular methods works in small problems e.g. A/B testing and dynamic web pages.



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Exploration vs. Exploitation

- Two types of actions:
 - Exploitation: Choose the action with highest expected reward (short term)
 - 2. Exploration: Choose action to improve $Q_t(a)$, but reduces the reward (long term)
- The conflict between exploration and exploitation



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• ϵ -greedy: $P(\text{exploration}) = \epsilon$



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$$A_t = \arg\max_a Q_t(a)$$



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• $Q_1(a) = 0$ (or used to encourage initial exploration)



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- $Q_1(a) = 0$ (or used to encourage initial exploration)
- For any $\epsilon > 0$, $Q_t(a) \rightarrow q^*(a)$
- We estimate $q^*(a)$ using $Q_t(a)$ as

$$Q_T(a) = \frac{1}{N(a)} \sum_{t}^{T-1} R_{t,A_t=a},$$



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 - Large $V(R_t)$



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- When should we explore?
 - Large $V(R_t)$
 - Large \mathcal{A}
 - Non-stationarity



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Bandit example

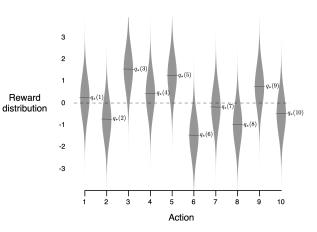


Figure: The 10-armed bandit environment (Sutton and Barto, 2017, Fig. 2.1)



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Bandit example

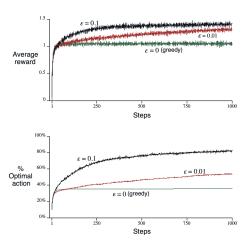


Figure: The ϵ -greedy algorithm result in the 10-armed bandit (Sutton and Barto, 2017, Fig. 2.2)



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Bandit example: Optimistic initialization

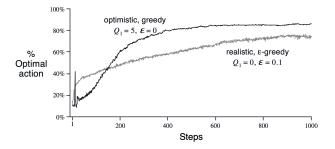


Figure: The ϵ -greedy algorithm and optimistic initialization (Sutton and Barto, 2017, Fig. 2.3)



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• Compute $Q_t(a)$ on the fly:

$$Q_{T}(a) = Q_{T-1} + \frac{1}{N_{t}(a)}(R_{t,A_{t}=a} - Q_{T-1}(a))$$



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$$Q_T(a) = Q_{T-1} + \frac{1}{N_t(a)} (R_{t,A_t=a} - Q_{T-1}(a))$$

$$Q_T(a) = Q_{T-1} + \alpha(t)(R_{t,A_t=a} - Q_{T-1}(a))$$



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- Examples:
 - $\alpha(t) = 1$: $Q_T(a) = R_{t,A_t=a}$



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- Examples:
 - $\alpha(t) = 1$: $Q_T(a) = R_{t,A_t=a}$
 - $\alpha(t) = 0$: $Q_T(a) = Q_1(a)$



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 - $\alpha(t) = \frac{1}{N_t(a)}$: Average reward



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 - $\alpha(t) = 0$: $Q_T(a) = Q_1(a)$
 - $\alpha(t) = \frac{1}{N_t(a)}$: Average reward
- $Q_T(a) \rightarrow q^*(a)$, if:



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- Examples:
 - $\alpha(t) = 1$: $Q_T(a) = R_{t,A_t=a}$
 - $\alpha(t) = 0$: $Q_T(a) = Q_1(a)$
 - $\alpha(t) = \frac{1}{N_t(a)}$: Average reward
- $Q_T(a) \rightarrow q^*(a)$, if:
 - 1. $\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \alpha_{t} = \infty$
 - 2. $\sum_{t}^{\infty} \alpha_{t}^{2} < \infty$
- Where have we seen these criterias before?



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The ϵ -greedy algorithm

```
A simple bandit algorithm  \begin{aligned} &\text{Initialize, for } a = 1 \text{ to } k \text{:} \\ &Q(a) \leftarrow 0 \\ &N(a) \leftarrow 0 \end{aligned}   \begin{aligned} &\text{Repeat forever:} \\ &A \leftarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{arg max}_a \, Q(a) & \text{with probability } 1 - \varepsilon \\ \text{a random action} & \text{with probability } \varepsilon \end{array} \right. \end{aligned}  (breaking ties randomly)  \begin{aligned} &R \leftarrow bandit(A) \\ &N(A) \leftarrow N(A) + 1 \\ &Q(A) \leftarrow Q(A) + \frac{1}{N(A)} \left[ R - Q(A) \right] \end{aligned}
```

Figure: The ϵ -greedy algorithm



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The Upper-Confidence-Bound method

• Explore based on our uncertainty of $Q_t(a)$



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The Upper-Confidence-Bound method

- Explore based on our uncertainty of $Q_t(a)$
- The Upper-Confidence-Bound (UCB) method

$$A_t = rg \max_{a} \left(Q_t + c \sqrt{rac{\hat{\sigma}^2(a)}{N_t(a)}} \right)$$

$$A_t = \arg\max_{a} \left(Q_t + c \sqrt{\frac{\log t}{N_t(a)}} \right)$$

• Another (Bayesian) alternative is Thompson Sampling



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The UCB algorithm

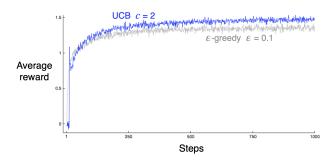


Figure: The UCB algorithm



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• Bandit does not have a state.



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- Bandit does not have a state.
- An action might change the environment.
- An action might be different in different states



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- An action might be different in different states
- Example: In chess, we want to make a move based on the current position of all pieces



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- Bandit does not have a state.
- An action might change the environment.
- An action might be different in different states
- Example: In chess, we want to make a move based on the current position of all pieces
- To capture this we use a Markov Decision process
- One of the most important concepts in Reinforcement Learning



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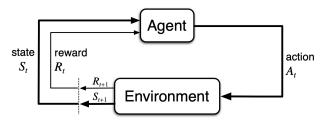


Figure: The (finite) Markov Decision Process (Sutton and Barto, 2017, Fig 3.1)

- States $S_t \in \mathcal{S}$: Basis for action
- Actions $A_t \in \mathcal{A}$
- Rewards $R_t \in \mathbb{R}$



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- Boundry between Agent and Environment:
 - The total control of the action



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- Boundry between Agent and Environment:
 - The total control of the action
 - Reward is external to agent: Pain and pleasure
 - The agent should not be able to change the reward function



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- Boundry between Agent and Environment:
 - The total control of the action
 - Reward is external to agent: Pain and pleasure
 - The agent should not be able to change the reward function
- The policy $(\pi(A_t|S_t=s))$:
 - We make an action given the current state S_t
- The goal: (Again) maximize return $G_t = R_{t+1} + ... + R_T$



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- Two type of interactions
 - Episodic: $T < \infty$, has terminal state
 - Continuing: $T = \infty$
- Discounting:

$$G_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+3} + \gamma^2 R_{t+3} + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k R_{t+k+1}$$



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 - Episodic: $T < \infty$, has terminal state
 - Continuing: $T = \infty$
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$$G_{t} = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+3} + \gamma^{2} R_{t+3} + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{k} R_{t+k+1}$$

- Discount rate γ :
 - $0 \le \gamma \le 1$



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- Discount rate γ :
 - $0 \le \gamma \le 1$
 - $\gamma = 1$: No discount
 - $\gamma = 0$: Full discount: Only next reward counts
 - $\gamma < 1$ and R_t is bounded: $G_t < \infty$



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- Two type of interactions
 - Episodic: $T < \infty$, has terminal state
 - Continuing: $T = \infty$
- Discounting:

$$G_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+3} + \gamma^2 R_{t+3} + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k R_{t+k+1}$$

- Discount rate γ :
 - $0 \le \gamma \le 1$
 - $\gamma = 1$: No discount
 - $\gamma = 0$: Full discount: Only next reward counts
 - $\gamma < 1$ and R_t is bounded: $G_t < \infty$
- For episodic problem we assume $R_{T+i} = 0$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}^+$



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• The Markov Decision process (MDP):

$$P(S_{t+1} = s', R_{t+1} = r | S_t = s, A_t = a)$$
 (1)

• Eq. (1) fully specify a MDP



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• State-transition probability:

$$p(s'|s, a) = P(S_{t+1} = s'|S_t = s, A_t = a)$$



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• The value function $v_{\pi}(s)$: the long-term value of s given a policy $\pi(a|s)$:

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- Value functions are recursive:

$$egin{aligned} v_\pi(s) &= \mathbb{E}_\pi(G_t|S_t=s) \ &= \sum_a \pi(a|s) \sum_{s',r} p(s',r|s,a) (r + \gamma v_\pi(s')) \end{aligned}$$

• This is the Bellman equation for $v_{\pi}(s)$: The relationship between the values of the state and its successor states.



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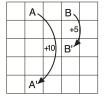
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- Bellman equation is the basis for computing $v_{\pi}(s)$ (not part of this course)



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8 4.4	5.3	1.5
0 2.3	1.9	0.5
7 0.7	0.4	-0.4
.4 -0.4	-0.6	-1.2
.3 -1.2	-1.4	-2.0
	0 2.3 7 0.7 .4 -0.4	8 4.4 5.3 0 2.3 1.9 7 0.7 0.4 .4 -0.4 -0.6 .3 -1.2 -1.4

Figure: The gridworld equiprobable policy value function



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The Optimal Policy

• A policy π is better than π' if $v_p i(s) \ge v_p i'(s)$ for all $s \in \mathcal{S}$.



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- A policy π is better than π' if $v_p i(s) \ge v_p i'(s)$ for all $s \in \mathcal{S}$.
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 - Example: Chess, we cannot compute the optimal long-term moves, we need to approximate/estimate (based on computational budget)



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- We might also estimate v_{*}(s) better for commonly encountered states



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Figure: The gridworld optimal value function and policy