

## ENSAE PARISTECH

## Master 1st year Python Machine Learning Project

## On-Policy Reinforcement Learning for Blackjack

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#### Abstract

Reinforcement Learning is a major Machine Learning class of algorithms. In this report, I will apply some major RL algorithms to a simplified blackjack game, mostly inspired form the Easy21 Assignment by Prof. David Silver at UCL. I will demonstrate through simulations that these algorithms achieve a good performance in this framework.

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#### Introduction

The report is organized as follows:in the first part, I define the problem, in the second part I describe the reinforcement learning terminology and the algorithms I will use. In the third part, I will describe some important coding aspects such as code structure and performance improvement tricks.

#### Motivation

Reinforcement learning is a one of the major Machine Learning classes of algorithms. It achieved a better performance than many state of the art algorithms in many domains, such as in games [1] [3], shape recognition [2], and it is used for some very complex problems such as driveless cars.

Through this assignment, I aim to:

- explore and understand Reinforcement Learning Algorithms
- apply these algorithms to concrete problems and explore their limits
- test new approaches and personal ideas in these problems

### Running the simulations

The code can be retrieved under my GitHub repository: https://github.com/MehdiAB161/Reinforcement-Learning.git The running instructions are provided within the Readme file

#### 1 Problem definition

#### 1.1 Simple case

This exercise is similar to the Blackjack example in Sutton and Barto 5.3, however, the rules of the card game are different and non-standard.

- The game is played with an infinite deck of cards (i.e. cards are sampled with replacement). Each draw from the deck results in a value between 1 and 10 (uniformly distributed) with a colour of red (probability 1/3) or black (probability 2/3). There are no aces or picture (face) cards in this game
- At the start of the game both the player and the dealer draw one black card (fully observed)
- Each turn the player may either stick or hit. If the player hits then she draws another card from the deck. If the player sticks she receives no further cards
- The values of the player's cards are added (black cards) or subtracted (red cards). If the player's sum exceeds 51, or becomes less than 1, then she "goes bust" and loses the game (reward -1)
- If the player sticks then the dealer starts taking turns. The dealer always sticks on any sum of 47 or greater, and hits otherwise. If the dealer goes bust, then the player wins; otherwise, the outcome win (reward +1), lose (reward -1), or draw (reward 0) is the player with the largest sum

## 1.2 Card history memory integration and card sampling without replacement

In this part, I will put additional constraints and drop some other hypotheses on the environment and the agent:

- The cards sampling is without replacement, so there is a set of 30 cards, 20 black and 10 red, sampled with the same probability.
- The agent will remember the cards which were played before and will adapt his actions to these information.
- The dealer will not take into account this history and will play as defined in the previous section.

## 2 Forumlation of Reinforcement Learning Problem

#### 2.1 Definitions

#### **Definition 1** State Value Function

The state value function v(s) of a Markov Reward Process is the expected return starting from state s

$$v(s) = \mathbb{E}[G_t|S_t = s]$$

#### **Definition 2** Policy

A policy  $\pi$  is a distribution over actions given states

$$\pi(a|s) = \mathbb{P}[A_t = a|S_t = s]$$

#### **Definition 3** Return

The return  $G_t$  is the total discounted reward from time step t.

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

#### **Definition 4** State Value Function

The state value function  $v_{\pi}(s)$  of a MDP is the expected return starting from state s, and then following the policy  $\pi$ 

$$v_{\pi}(s) = \mathbb{E}[G_t|S_t = s]$$

#### **Definition 5** State Action Value Function

The state action value function  $q_{\pi}(s, a)$  of a MDP is the expected return starting from state s, and taking action a, then following the policy  $\pi$ 

$$v_{\pi}(s) = \mathbb{E}[G_t|S_t = s]$$

The state action value function  $q_{\pi}(s, a)$  of a MDP is the expected return starting from state s, and taking action a, then following the policy  $\pi$ 

$$q_{\pi}(s) = \mathbb{E}[G_t | S_t = s, A_t = a]$$

#### **Definition 6** Optimal Value Function

The optimal state value function  $v_{\star}(s)$  is the maximum state action value function over all policies

$$v_{\star}(s) = \max_{\pi} v_{\pi}(s)$$

The optimal state action value function  $q_{\star}(s,a)$  is the maximum state action value function over all policies

$$q_{\star}(s,a) = \max_{\pi} q_{\pi}(s,a)$$

**Definition 7** Optimal Policy

We define a partial ordering over a policies:

$$\pi \geq \pi' \text{ if } v_{\pi}(s) \geq v_{\pi}(s)$$

#### 2.2 Theorems

**Theorem 1** Optimal Policy For any MDP

- There exists an optimal policy  $\pi_{\star}$  that is better than or equal to all other policies  $\pi_{\star} \geq \pi, \forall \pi$
- All policies achieve the optimal value function  $v_{\pi_{\star}} = v_{\star}$
- All policies achieve the optimal state action value function  $q_{\pi_{\star}} = q_{\star}$

**Theorem 2** The Bellman Expectation Equation

The state-value function can be decomposed into immediate reward plus discounted value of the successor state.

$$v_{\pi}(s) = \mathbb{E}[R_{t+1} + \gamma v_{\pi}(S_{t+1})|S_t = s]$$

The action-value function can similarly be decomposed

$$q_{\pi}(s) = \mathbb{E}[R_{t+1} + \gamma q_{\pi}(S_{t+1}, A_{t+1}) | S_t = s, A_t = a]$$

## 2.3 Monte Carlo Algorithms

The intuition behind this algorithm is that, in order to estimate the value of a state action pair, we run a full episode, with a policy such as  $\epsilon$  greedy policy, then we update our current estimation of the action-value function in the direction of the average of the action value estimation of all visited state-action pairs during the episode.

## 2.4 Temporal Difference Learning Algorithms

#### SARSA Algorithm

The intuition behind this algorithm is that, in order to estimate the value of a state action pair, we run a full episode, with a policy such as  $\epsilon$  greedy policy, then we update our current estimation of the action-value function in the direction of the average of the action value estimation of all visited state-action pairs during the episode.

## Algorithm 1 Greedy in the Limit with Infinite Exploration Algorithm (GLIE)

- 1: Sample kth episode using  $\pi : \{S_1, A_1, R_1, S_2, ...\}$
- 2: for  $eachstateS_t and ActionA_t in the episode$  do
- 3:  $N(S_t, A_t) \leftarrow N(S_t, A_t) + 1$
- 4:  $Q(S_t, A_t) \leftarrow Q(S_t, A_t) + \frac{1}{N(S_t, A_t)}$
- 5: Improve policy based on new action-value function
- 6:  $\epsilon = 1/k$
- 7:  $\pi \Leftarrow \epsilon greedy(Q)$

#### Algorithm 2 SARSA Algorithm for On-Policy Control

- 1: Initialize  $Q(s, a), \forall s \in \mathbb{S}, a \in \mathbb{A}(s)$ , arbitrarlily, and Q(terminal-state,-)=0
- 2: for each episode do
- 3: Initialize S
- 4: Choose A from S using policy derived from Q (e.g., epsilon greedy)
- 5: **for** each step in the episode **do**
- 6: Take action A, observe R, S'
- 7: Choose A' from S'
- 8:  $Q(S,A) \leftarrow Q(S,A) + \alpha(R + \gamma Q(S',A') Q(S,A))$
- 9:  $S \leftarrow S'$
- 10:  $A \leftarrow A'$

#### SARSA- $\lambda$ Algorithm

#### **Algorithm 3** SARSA- $\lambda$ Algorithm for On-Policy Control

```
1: Initialize Q(s, a), \forall s \in \mathbb{S}, a \in \mathbb{A}(s), arbitrarily, and Q(terminal-state,-)=0
 2: for each episode do
          E(s,a) = 0 for all s \in \mathbb{S}, a \in \mathbb{A}(s)
 3:
         Initialize S, A
 4:
         for each step in the episode do
 5:
              Take action A, observe R, S'
 6:
              Choose A' from S' using policy derived from Q (e.g. \epsilongreedy)
 7:
              \delta \leftarrow R + \gamma Q(S', A') - Q(S, A)
 8:
              E(S,A) \leftarrow E(S,A) + 1
 9:
              for all s \in S, a \in \mathbf{A}(s) do
10:
                   Q(s,a) \Leftarrow Q(s,a) + \alpha \delta E(s,a)
11:
                   E(s,a) \leftarrow \gamma \lambda E(s,a)
12:
              A \leftarrow A', S \leftarrow S',
13:
```

#### 2.5 Action Value Function Approximation

Where the state action space size is very big, we cannot use table lookup anymore to get the state action value function values for all states. In this case, we approximate the value function by parametrizing it. The state action value function becomes Q(S,A,w), where w is a vector which size is the feature space size.

In this case, we update the parameters w instead of updating every single state action pair value function. This approach also has some upsides such as approximating the value of state-actions that may be never visited.

In case of the Monte Carlo 'GLIE' algorithm, we operate the following update:

$$\Delta w = \alpha(G_t - \hat{q}(S_t, A_t, w)) \nabla_w \hat{q}(S_t, A_t, w))$$

This equation means that we make a step in direction of the difference of our estimate and the sampled value with Monte Carlo.

For TD $-\lambda$ , the update is as follows:

$$\Delta w = \alpha(R_{t+1} + \gamma \hat{q}(S_{t+1}, A_{t+1}, w)) - \hat{q}(S_t, A_t, w)) \nabla_w \hat{q}(S_t, A_t, w)$$

This equation means that we make a step in direction of the difference of our estimate and the sampled value with Sarsa  $\lambda$ .

## 3 Reinforcement Learning applied to Blackjack

#### 3.1 Experimental results

I applied the Algorithms above to the simplified blackjack game defined in the first section.

I expect the Monte Carlo estimation to be the most stable algorithm, and is unbiased asymptotically.

I infered the state value function from the state action value function as the the value of the action which brings the most value from state s V(s,a) = argmaxQ(s,a) The results are shown in the figure ... In this figure, we can see that we can identify the mechanisms of the game. The value function is decreasing with the card value of the dealer. Also the value 10 is relatively safe for the player because he is sure not to lose the game, from 17 to 21 ........

The figure ... shows the value function using Sarsa lambda, in this figure we see that our estimate is more noisy than in the previous one. The reason is that Sarsa lambda is based on bootstrapping, therefore our updates are biased. I also expected Sarsa lambda to be slower in term of convergence speed, we can see that on the rmse figure.

For this application, value function approximation is not relevant because the state space is very small the size is equal to scoreLimit \* 10, which in our case corresponds to 520 states. The chosen features' space size is ....

First, I used linear function approximation, which I have theoretical convergence guaranties The result is displayed in figure ... We can see that

The RMSE is

The other function approximation I used is quadratic approximation, I don't have theoretical convergence guaranties. The results are displayed in ....

#### 3.2 Further analysis

In case of a very high dimensional state space, for example a finite card set without re-sampling and by integrating a memory to the agent. For It is not possible to use table lookup, therefore the basic Monte Caro GLIE and Temporal difference algorithms are intractable. State Action value function approximation is necessary.

In case of

Figure 1: Optimal Value Function after  $10^6$  episodes using GLIE

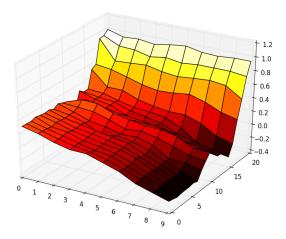
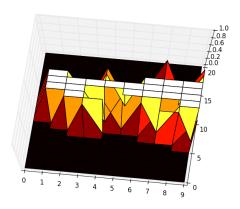


Figure 2: Optimal Actions after  $10^6$  episodes using GLIE



# 4 Conclusion and further possible developpements

Deep Q Networks and Experience Replay [1]

Figure 3: Optimal Value Function after 10<sup>6</sup> episodes using SARSA

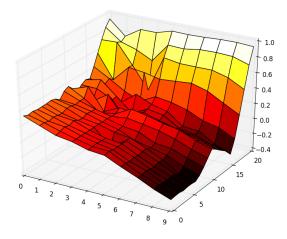
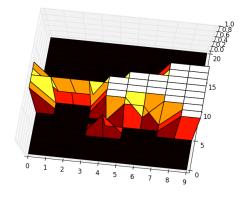


Figure 4: Optimal Actions after 10<sup>6</sup> episodes using SARSA



## References

- [1] Volodymyr Mnih, Koray Kavukcuoglu, David Silver, Andrei A. Rusu, Joel Veness, Marc G. Bellemare, Alex Graves, Martin Riedmiller, Andreas K. Fidjeland, Georg Ostrovski, Stig Petersen, Charles Beattie, Amir Sadik, Ioannis Antonoglou, Helen King, Dharshan Kumaran, Daan Wierstra, Shane Legg, and Demis Hassabis. Human-level control through deep reinforcement learning. *Nature*, 518(7540):529–533, 02 2015.
- [2] Danilo Jimenez Rezende, S. M. Ali Eslami, Shakir Mohamed, Peter Battaglia, Max Jaderberg, and Nicolas Heess. Unsupervised learning of 3d structure from images. *CoRR*, abs/1607.00662, 2016.

Figure 5: Optimal Value Function after  $10^6$  episodes using SARSA- $\lambda$  for  $\lambda=0.8$ 

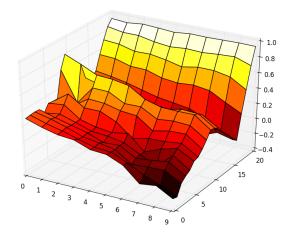
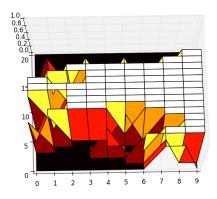


Figure 6: Optimal Actions after  $10^6$  episodes using SARSA- $\lambda$  for  $\lambda = 0.8$ 



- [3] David Silver, Aja Huang, Christopher J. Maddison, Arthur Guez, Laurent Sifre, George van den Driessche, Julian Schrittwieser, Ioannis Antonoglou, Veda Panneershelvam, Marc Lanctot, Sander Dieleman, Dominik Grewe, John Nham, Nal Kalchbrenner, Ilya Sutskever, Timothy Lillicrap, Madeleine Leach, Koray Kavukcuoglu, Thore Graepel, and Demis Hassabis. Mastering the game of go with deep neural networks and tree search. *Nature*, 529:484–503, 2016.
- [4] Richard S. Sutton and Andrew G. Barto. *Introduction to Reinforcement Learning*. MIT Press, Cambridge, MA, USA, 1st edition, 1998.

Figure 7: Optimal Value Function after  $10^6$  episodes using Linear Function Approximation and SARSA- $\lambda$  for  $\lambda=0.8$ 

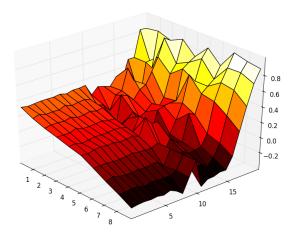


Figure 8: Optimal Value Function after  $10^6$  episodes using Linear Function Approximation and SARSA- $\lambda$  for  $\lambda=0.8$ 

