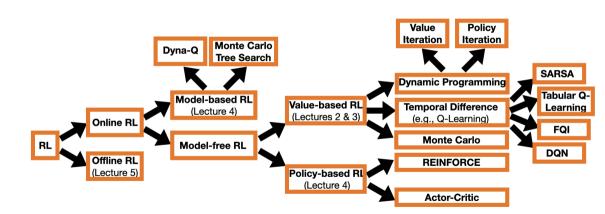
Reinforcement Learning

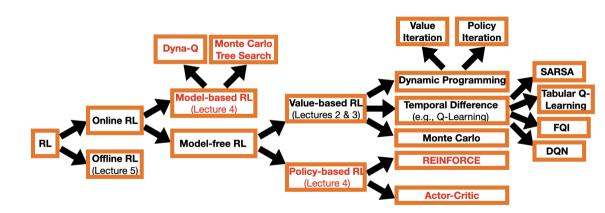
Lecture 4: Policy- and Model-based Learning

Chengchun Shi

Roadmap



Roadmap (Cont'd)



Lecture Outline

1. Policy-based Learning

- 1.1 Introduction to Policy-based Learning
- 1.2 Policy Gradient Theorem
- 1.3 REINFORCE and Actor Critic Algorithms
- 1.4 Advantage Actor-Critic (A2C)

2. Model-based Learning

- 2.1 Introduction to Model-based Learning
- 2.2 Model-based Methods
- 2.3 Mastering the Game of Go

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Policy We Studied So Far

Greedy policy:

$$\pi^{\mathrm{opt}}(s) = \arg\max_{a} Q^{\pi^{\mathrm{opt}}}(s, a)$$

• ϵ -Greedy policy:

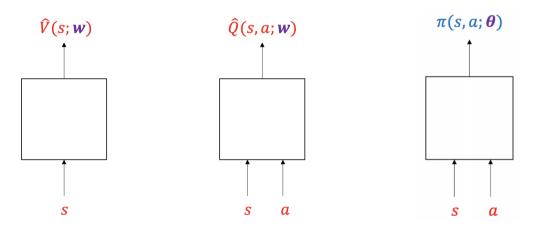
$$\begin{cases} \pi^{\text{opt}}(s), & \text{with probability } 1 - \epsilon \\ \text{random action}, & \text{with probability } \epsilon. \end{cases}$$

 Value-based methods: Policy Iteration, Value Iteration, Monte Carlo, SARSA, Q-Learning, etc.

Value-based v.s. Policy-based Methods

- Value-based methods: derive π^{opt} by learning an optimal Q-function (or value function)
- **Policy-based methods**: search π^{opt} within a restricted function class (e.g., linear, neural networks) that maximizes the value

Value-based v.s. Policy-based Methods (Cont'd)



Value-based Methods

Policy-based Methods

Example: Linear Function Approximation

- Linear approximation of features $\phi(s, a)$
- State-action value function approximation

$$Q(s, a; \theta) = \phi^{\top}(s, a)\theta$$

Policy function approximation

$$\pi(oldsymbol{s}, oldsymbol{a}; oldsymbol{ heta}) = rac{\exp(\phi^ op(oldsymbol{s}, oldsymbol{a}) oldsymbol{ heta})}{\sum_{oldsymbol{a'}} \exp(\phi^ op(oldsymbol{s}, oldsymbol{a'}) oldsymbol{ heta})}$$

Value-based v.s. Policy-based Methods (Cont'd)

- Pros of policy-based methods:
 - 1. Suitable for learning general **stochastic** policies (value-based methods mainly designed for deterministic policies)
 - 2. More **robust** to model misspecification
 - 3. Scalable for **high-dimensional** or **continuous** action spaces (SARSA, Q-learning mainly designed for discrete action space)
- Cons of policy-based methods:
 - 1. Convergence to local minima
 - 2. May have large variance

Example I: Advantage of Stochastic Policy



- Two-player game of rock-paper-scissors
 - Scissors beats paper
 - Rock beats scissors
 - Paper beats rock

- Consider iterated rock-paper-scissors
 - A deterministic policy is easily exploited
 - A uniform random policy is optimal (Nash equilibrium)

Example II: Robustness of Policy-based Method

- Q-function is more **difficult** to model compared to the optimal policy
- Example: optimal Q-function: $Q^{\pi^{\text{opt}}}(s, a) = g(\phi^{\top}(s, a)\theta^*)$ for some monotonically increasing function $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$
- When g is not linear function, value-based method misspecifies Q-function model

$$g(\phi^{\top}(s, a)\theta^*) \neq \phi^{\top}(s, a)\theta$$

However, since g is a monotonically increasing function

$$\pi^{\mathrm{opt}}(s) = \arg\max_{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{g}(\phi^{\top}(s, \mathbf{a})\theta^*) = \arg\max_{\mathbf{a}} \phi^{\top}(s, \mathbf{a})\theta^*$$

Policy-based methods correctly specify the optimal policy

$$\frac{\exp(\phi^\top(\boldsymbol{s},\boldsymbol{a})\theta)}{\sum_{\boldsymbol{a'}} \exp(\phi^\top(\boldsymbol{s},\boldsymbol{a'})\theta)} \to \mathbb{I}(\boldsymbol{a} = \pi^{\mathbf{opt}}(\boldsymbol{s}))$$

when
$$\theta = k\theta^*$$
 and $k \to \infty$

Policy Objective Functions

Average rewards:

$$J(\theta) = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{T} \mathbb{E}^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)} \left[\sum_{t=0}^{T-1} R_t \right] = \sum_{s,a} \nu^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(s) \pi(s,a;\theta) \mathcal{R}_s^a$$

where
$$\mathcal{R}_s^a = \mathbb{E}(R_t|A_t = a, S_t = s)$$

- For each π , the states $\{S_t\}_t$ forms a time-homogeneous Markov chain
- $\nu^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}$ the stationary distribution of $\{S_t\}_t$ under $\pi(\bullet;\theta)$

Policy Objective Functions (Cont'd)

• Discounted rewards: given a discounted factor $\gamma \in [0, 1]$ and initial state distribution ν , maximize the expected discounted rewards:

$$J(\theta) = \mathbb{E}^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)} \left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t R_t \right],$$

or equivalently,

$$m{J}(heta) = \sum_{m{s}}
u(m{s}) m{V}^{\pi(ullet; heta)}(m{s})$$

• If $\gamma = 1$, the task is assumed to be episodic

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Policy Gradient

- **Objective**: identify the maximizer of $J(\theta)$
- **Method**: apply (stochastic) gradient ascent algorithm to update θ (gradient descent to minimize $-J(\theta)$)

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + \alpha_t \nabla_\theta J(\theta_t)$$

Need to calculate the gradient $\nabla_{\theta} \mathbf{J}(\theta)$!

Policy Gradient Theorem

Theorem

For any differentiable policy $\pi(s, a; \theta)$ with respect to parameter θ , the policy gradient for average reward and discounted expected rewards objective is

$$\nabla_{\theta} \textbf{\textit{J}}(\theta) = \sum_{\textbf{\textit{s}},\textbf{\textit{a}}} \mu^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(\textbf{\textit{s}},\textbf{\textit{a}}) \nabla_{\theta} \log(\pi(\textbf{\textit{s}},\textbf{\textit{a}};\theta)) \textbf{\textit{Q}}^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(\textbf{\textit{s}},\textbf{\textit{a}})$$

- For average reward objective: $\mu^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}$ is the stationary distribution of $\{(S_t, A_t)\}_t$ under $\pi(\bullet;\theta)$
- For discounted expected rewards objective:

$$\mu^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(s, \mathbf{a}) = \sum_{t>0} \mathbf{\gamma}^t \mathsf{Pr}^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(S_t = s, \mathbf{A}_t = \mathbf{a})$$

Discounted state-action visitation probability

Policy Gradient Theorem (Cont'd)

Theorem

For any differentiable policy $\pi(s, a; \theta)$ with respect to parameter θ , the policy gradient for average reward and discounted expected rewards objective is

$$abla_{ heta} m{J}(heta) = \sum_{m{s},m{a}} \mu^{\pi(ullet; heta)}(m{s},m{a})
abla_{m{ heta}} \log(\pi(m{s},m{a}; heta)) m{Q}^{\pi(ullet; heta)}(m{s},m{a})$$

For average reward objective:

$$Q^{\pi}(s, \frac{a}{a}) = \mathbb{E}^{\pi}\Big[\sum_{t>0}(R_t - J(\theta))|S_0 = s, A_0 = a\Big]$$

- For discounted expected rewards objective: Q-function defined as usual.
- Proof given in the appendix

Policy Score

• For any state-action pair (s, a), the term

$$\nabla_{\theta} \log(\pi(s, a; \theta))$$

is referred as the **policy score**

Example 1: Softmax Policy Gradient

• State-action pairs weighted by linear combination of features

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{s}, \boldsymbol{a}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{\exp(\phi^{\top}(\boldsymbol{s}, \boldsymbol{a})\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\sum_{\boldsymbol{a'}} \exp(\phi^{\top}(\boldsymbol{s}, \boldsymbol{a'})\boldsymbol{\theta})}$$

The score function

$$abla_{ heta} \log \pi(s, \mathbf{a}; \mathbf{\theta}) = \phi(s, \mathbf{a}) - \frac{\sum_{\mathbf{a'}} \phi(s, \mathbf{a}) \exp(\phi^{\top}(s, \mathbf{a})\mathbf{\theta})}{\sum_{\mathbf{a'}} \exp(\phi^{\top}(s, \mathbf{a'})\mathbf{\theta})}$$

or equivalently,

$$\nabla_{\theta} \log \pi(s, a; \theta) = \phi(s, a) - \mathbb{E}_{a' \sim \pi(s, \bullet; \theta)} \phi(s, a')$$

Example 2: Continuous Action Space

- Action space: set of real numbers $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{R}$
- Policy approximator:

$$\pi(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{a}, \theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma(\mathbf{s}; \theta)} \exp\left(-\frac{(\mathbf{a} - \mu(\mathbf{s}; \theta))^2}{2\sigma^2(\mathbf{s}; \theta)}\right),$$

where μ and σ are mean and deviation function approximators

- Linear function approximator with feature vectors $\phi_{\mu}(s)$ and $\phi_{\sigma}(s)$
 - $\bullet \ \ \mu(\mathbf{s};\theta) = \phi_\mu^\top(\mathbf{s})\theta_\mu \ \text{and} \ \sigma(\mathbf{s};\theta) = \phi_\sigma^\top(\mathbf{s})\theta_\sigma$
 - $\nabla_{\theta_{\mu}} \log \pi(s, a, \theta) = \frac{a \mu(s; \theta)}{\sigma^{2}(s; \theta)} \phi_{\mu}(s)$
 - $\nabla_{\theta_{\sigma}} \log \pi(s, \mathbf{a}, \theta) = \frac{(\mathbf{a} \mu(s; \theta))^2 \sigma^2(s; \theta)}{\sigma^2(s; \theta)} \phi_{\sigma}(s)$

Example 3: Bernoulli, Logistic Example

- Actions space: binary, {**0**, **1**}
- Policy approximator:

$$\pi(\mathbf{1}, \mathbf{s}; \theta) = \mathbf{1} - \pi(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{s}; \theta) = \mathbf{p}(\mathbf{s}; \theta)$$

where $p(s; \theta)$ is a function approximator

- Linear function approximator with feature vectors $\phi(s)$
 - Logistic function $\sigma(x) = [1 + \exp(-x)]^{-1}$
 - For exponential soft-max policy $p(s; \theta) = \sigma(\phi^{\top}(s)\theta)$
 - $\nabla_{\theta} \log(\pi(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{a}; \theta)) = (\mathbf{a} \sigma(\phi^{\top}(\mathbf{s})\theta))\phi(\mathbf{s})$

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REINFORCE: MC Policy Gradient Algorithm

• To maximize $J(\theta)$, we apply (stochastic) gradient ascent algorithm

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + \alpha_t \nabla_\theta J(\theta_t)$$

According to the policy gradient theorem,

$$abla_{ heta} oldsymbol{J}(heta) = \sum_{s,oldsymbol{a}} \mu^{\pi(ullet; heta)}(oldsymbol{s},oldsymbol{a})
abla_{ heta} \log(\pi(oldsymbol{s},oldsymbol{a}; heta)) oldsymbol{Q}^{\pi(ullet; heta)}(oldsymbol{s},oldsymbol{a})$$

- Focus on the average reward setting
- μ^{π} (stationary state-action distribution) is unknown: use empirical state-action distribution $\{(S_t, A_t)\}_t$ as an approx
- Q^{π} is unknown: use empirical return $G_t = \sum_{j=t}^T R_j$ as an approx

REINFORCE: Pseudocode

- Initialization: θ arbitrary
- For each episode $(S_0, A_0, R_0, \dots, S_T, A_T, R_T)$ generated using policy $\pi(\bullet; \theta)$

For
$$t = 0, 1, 2, \dots, T$$
 do:

$$\theta \leftarrow \theta + \alpha \nabla_{\theta} \log(\pi(S_t, A_t; \theta)) G_t$$

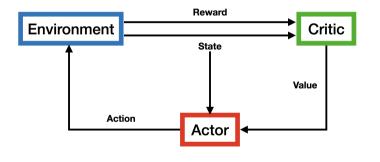
end for

return heta

Actor-Critic Algorithm

- MC policy gradient algorithm may have a large variance
 - Return involves many state transitions, many actions and many rewards
- Solution sought by using actor-critic algorithms
- Actor-critic algorithms combine policy gradient with value function estimation

Actor-Critic Algorithm (Cont'd)



- Critic uses function approximator to learn value function
- Actor uses policy approximator to learn optimal policy

Actor-Critic Control

- Critic: estimates $Q^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(s,a)$ by a function approximator $\widehat{Q}(s,a;\omega)$
 - The critic performs policy evaluation
 - Standard methods can be applied: MC, TD
- Actor: updates policy parameter θ
 - The actor performs control using approximate policy gradient

$$abla_{ heta} oldsymbol{J}(heta) = \mathbb{E}_{(oldsymbol{s},oldsymbol{a})\sim oldsymbol{\mu}}
abla_{ heta} \log(\pi(oldsymbol{s},oldsymbol{a}; heta)) oldsymbol{Q}^{oldsymbol{\pi}}(oldsymbol{s},oldsymbol{a};\omega)$$

- Parameter update
 - Average reward setting

$$heta \leftarrow heta + lpha
abla_{ heta} \log(\pi(\mathbf{S_t}, \mathbf{A_t}; heta)) \widehat{Q}(\mathbf{S_t}, \mathbf{A_t}; \omega)$$

Discounted reward setting

$$\theta \leftarrow \theta + \alpha \gamma^t \nabla_{\theta} \log(\pi(S_t, A_t; \theta)) \widehat{Q}(S_t, A_t; \omega)$$

Example: Actor-Critic with Linear Value Function

• Linear value function approximator

$$\widehat{m{Q}}(m{s},m{a};\omega)=\phi^{ op}(m{s},m{a})\omega$$

- Focus on the discounted reward setting
- Critic: updates ω by linear TD

$$egin{aligned} \omega_{t+1} = \omega_t + \eta \phi(\mathbf{S_t}, \mathbf{A_t}) (R_t + \gamma \phi^{ op}(\mathbf{S_{t+1}}, \mathbf{A_{t+1}}) \omega_t - \phi^{ op}(\mathbf{S_t}, \mathbf{A_t}) \omega_t) \end{aligned}$$

Pseudocode

```
• Initialization: s. \theta. \omega
• For each episode:
           Initialize t=0
           Sample action a from \pi(\bullet, s; \theta)
           Repeat until s is terminal
                   Receive reward r and next state s'
                   Sample action a' from \pi(\bullet, s; \theta)
                   \theta \leftarrow \theta + \alpha \gamma^t \log(\pi(s, a; \theta)) \phi^{\top}(s, a) \omega
                   \omega \leftarrow \omega + \eta \phi(s, \mathbf{a})[\mathbf{r} + \gamma \phi^{\top}(s', \mathbf{a}')\omega - \phi^{\top}(s, \mathbf{a})\omega]
                   a \leftarrow a' and s \leftarrow s'
                   t \leftarrow t + 1
```

Bias-Variance Tradeoff

- **REINFORCE** uses Return G_t , an unbiased estimate of $Q^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(s,a)$
- Actor-critic uses $\widehat{Q}(s, a; \omega)$, a biased estimate of $Q^{\pi(\bullet; \theta)}(s, a)$
- REINFORCE gradient has high variance and zero bias
- Actor-critic gradient has low variance and some bias
- Similar to Pros & Cons of MC vs TD (Lecture 2)

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Variance Reduction Using a Baseline

Recall that policy parameter update

$$\theta \leftarrow \theta + \alpha \gamma^t \nabla_{\theta} \log(\pi(\mathbf{S_t}, \mathbf{A_t}; \theta)) \widehat{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathbf{S_t}, \mathbf{A_t}; \omega)$$

• For any heta, when $extbf{A}_{t} \sim \pi(extbf{S}_{t}, ullet, heta)$

$$\mathbb{E}[
abla_{ heta} \log(\pi(S_t, A_t, heta)) | S_t] = 0$$

• For any baseline function B(s), consider the update

$$\theta \leftarrow \theta + \alpha \gamma^t \nabla_{\theta} \log(\pi(S_t, A_t; \theta)) [\widehat{Q}(S_t, A_t; \omega) - B(S_t)]$$

- The **mean** of gradient is the same without baseline
- However, the variance of the gradient would be smaller with a properly chosen B

Variance Reduction Using a Baseline (Cont'd)

- Consider the baseline that minimizes the variance of the gradient
- For any random variable Z, the mean $\mathbb{E} Z$ minimizes arg min $_z \mathbb{E} (Z-z)^2$
- To minimize variance of the gradient $\nabla_{\theta} \log(\pi(S_t, A_t; \theta))[\widehat{Q}(S_t, A_t; \omega) B(S_t)]$, the baseline is set to the conditional mean of Q-function given the state
- i.e., $B(s) = \sum_{a} \pi(s, a; \theta) \widehat{Q}(s, a; \omega)$, e.g., the estimated state-value

Policy Gradient Using Advantage Function

- Advantage function: $m{A}^{\pi(ullet; heta)}(m{s},m{a}) = m{Q}^{\pi(ullet; heta)}(m{s},m{a}) m{V}^{\pi(ullet; heta)}(m{s})$
- Policy gradient based on advantage function

$$abla_{ heta} J(heta) = \mathbb{E}_{(s,a) \sim \mu^{\pi(\bullet; heta)}}
abla_{ heta} \log(\pi(s,a; heta)) A^{\pi(\bullet; heta)}(s,a)$$

The advantage function reduces the variance of policy gradient

An Approach for Estimating Advantage Function

The critic may compute estimators of both value functions

$$\widehat{Q}(s, a; \omega)$$
 for $Q^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(s, a)$

and

$$\widehat{\boldsymbol{V}}(\boldsymbol{s};\omega) ext{ for } \boldsymbol{V}^{\pi(ullet; heta)}(\boldsymbol{s})$$

which can be done by standard methods such as TD learning

The estimator of the advantage function

$$\widehat{A}(s, a; \omega) = \widehat{Q}(s, a; \omega) - \widehat{V}(s; \omega)$$

Another Approach

•
$$r + \gamma V^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(s') - V^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(s)$$
 is unbiased to $A^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(s,a)$

$$\mathbb{E}[r + \gamma V^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(s') - V^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(s)|a,s]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[r + \gamma V^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(s') - Q^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(s,a) + Q^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(s,a) - V^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(s)|a,s]$$

$$= Q^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(s,a) - V^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(s) = A^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(s,a)$$

As such,

$$\nabla_{\theta} \boldsymbol{J}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{(\boldsymbol{s},\boldsymbol{a}) \sim \mu^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}} \nabla_{\theta} \log(\pi(\boldsymbol{s},\boldsymbol{a};\theta))[\boldsymbol{r} + \frac{\gamma}{2} \boldsymbol{V}^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(\boldsymbol{s}') - \boldsymbol{V}^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(\boldsymbol{s})]$$

 No need to estimate the advantage. It suffices to estimate the state-value and use the estimator to compute the policy gradient

Advantage Policy Gradient Methods

• The policy gradient

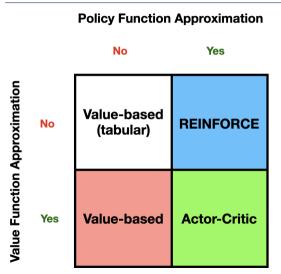
$$abla_{ heta} J(heta) = \mathbb{E}_{(s,a) \sim \mu^{\pi(\bullet; heta)}}
abla_{ heta} \log(\pi(s,a; heta)) A^{\pi(\bullet; heta)}(s,a)$$

Gradient-based method

$$\theta \leftarrow \theta + \alpha \gamma^t \nabla_{\theta} \log(\pi(S_t, A_t; \theta)) \widehat{A}(S_t, A_t; \omega)$$

- Examples:
 - MC: $\widehat{\mathbf{A}}(\mathbf{S}_t, \mathbf{A}_t; \omega) = \mathbf{G}_t \widehat{\mathbf{V}}(\mathbf{S}_t; \omega)$
 - TD: $\widehat{A}(S_t, A_t; \omega) = R_t + \gamma \widehat{V}(S_{t+1}; \omega) \widehat{V}(S_t; \omega)$

Summary



Value-based

- SARSA
- Tabular Q-learning
- Fitted Q-iteration
- Deep Q-network

REINFORCE

- No value function
- Learn policy

Actor-critic

- Learn value
- Learn policy

Advantage actor-critic

- Variance reduction

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Recap: Planning vs Learning

Two fundamental problems in sequential decision making

Planning

- A model of the environment (e.g., state transition, reward function) is known
- The agent performs computations with its model, without any external interaction
- a.k.a. deliberation, reasoning, introspection, pondering, thought, search

Learning

- The environment is initially **unknown**
- The agent interacts with the environment
- The agent **learns** the optimal policy from experience

RL Algorithms We Have Covered So Far

- Dynamic Programming (Lecture 2): learn value from model (planning)
- MC, TD (Lectures 2 & 3): learn value from experience (learning)
- Policy-based (Lecture 4): learn policy from experience (learning)
- Today's lecture: Model-based RL
 - learn **model** from experience
 - use both learned model and experience to construct a value function or policy
 - combine learning with planning

What is a Model?

- A model \mathcal{M} is a **representation** of an MDP $\langle \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{R}, \frac{\gamma}{\gamma} \rangle$
- The state space S and action space A are usually known to us
- The discounted factor γ is user-specified
- ullet Only need to learn the state transition ${\cal P}$

$$\mathcal{P}_{ss'}^{a} = \Pr(S_{t+1} = s' | S_t = s, A_t = a)$$

and reward function \mathcal{R}

$$\mathcal{R}_s^a = \mathbb{E}(R_t|S_t = s, A_t = a)$$

Model-Free v.s. Model-Based RL

- Model-based RL
 - Learn the model (e.g., reward \mathcal{R}_s^a and transition $\mathcal{P}_{ss'}^a$) from experience
 - Plan value or policy from model or integrate planning with learning
- Model-free RL
 - Learn value or policy without learning the reward and transition function
 - Rely on Bellman optimality equation
 - Examples: MC, TD, Policy gradient

Model-Free v.s. Model-Based RL (Cont'd)

- Pros of model-based RI
- In some applications, we have a perfect model (e.g., Go, chess)
- Can handle offline data (more in the next lecture)

- Pros of model-free RL
- Dimensional reduction
- Easier to learn value than model
- # of parameters of $Q^{\pi^{\text{opt}}}$: $|\mathcal{S}||\mathcal{A}|$
- # of parameters of \mathcal{R}_s^a : $|\mathcal{S}||\mathcal{A}|$
- ullet # of parameters of $\mathcal{P}^{a}_{ss'}$: $|\mathcal{S}|^{2}|\mathcal{A}|$

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Model-based Methods

- First, we learn a model (reward and state transition functions) based on data
- Next, we can implement **planning** based on the learned model
- Alternatively, we can integrate planning with learning (Dyna)
- Finally, we can implement Monte Carlo tree search for decision-time planning

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Model Learning

- Goal: estimate \mathcal{R}_s^a and $\mathcal{P}_{ss'}^a$ from experience $\{S_0, A_0, R_0, \cdots, S_T\}$
- Using supervised learning

$$S_0, A_0 \rightarrow R_0, S_1$$

$$S_1, A_1 \rightarrow R_1, S_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$S_{T-1}, A_{T-1} \rightarrow R_{T-1}, S_T$$

- Learning $s, a \rightarrow r$ is a **regression** problem
- Learning $s, a \rightarrow s'$ is a conditional density estimation problem
- Loss function: least square/Huber loss, KL divergence
- Compute parameter that minimizes empirical loss

Models for Conditional Density Estimation

- Table lookup model
- Conditional kernel density estimation
- Gaussian process model [Williams and Rasmussen, 2006]
- Deep conditional generative learning¹
 - mixture density network [Rothfuss et al., 2019]
 - normalising flows [Trippe and Turner, 2018]

 $^{^{1}} https://deep generative models.github.io/notes/index.html\\$

Table Lookup Model

- Finite MDP model
- Count visits $N(s, a) = \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \mathbb{I}(S_t = s, A_t = a)$ to each state-action pair

$$\widehat{\mathcal{P}}_{ss'}^{a} = \frac{1}{N(s,a)} \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \mathbb{I}(S_t = s, A_t = a, S_{t+1} = s')$$

$$\widehat{\mathcal{R}}_{s}^{a} = \frac{1}{N(s,a)} \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \mathbb{I}(S_t = s, A_t = a) R_t$$

- Alternatively
 - At each time step t, record experience tuple $\langle S_t, A_t, R_t, S_{t+1} \rangle$
 - To sample model, based on a state-action pair (s, a), randomly pick tuple matching (s, a, \bullet, \bullet)

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Planning with Dynamic Programming

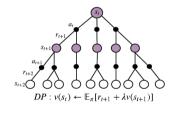
- Give a model $\langle \widehat{\mathcal{R}}, \widehat{\mathcal{P}} \rangle$
- Use dynamic programming algorithm
 - Policy iteration

$$\pi_0 \longrightarrow V^{\pi_0} \longrightarrow \pi_1 \longrightarrow V^{\pi_1} \longrightarrow \cdots \longrightarrow \pi^{opt} \longrightarrow V^{\pi^{opt}}$$

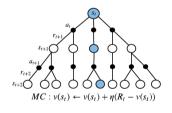
Value iteration

$$V^{\pi_0} \longrightarrow V^{\pi_1} \longrightarrow V^{\pi_2} \longrightarrow \cdots \longrightarrow V^{\pi^{opt}} \longrightarrow \pi^{opt}$$

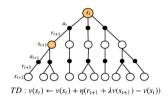
Difference From Model-Free Methods



Dynamic Programming (DP)



Monte Carlo (MC)



Temporal Difference (TD)

Planning with Model-Free RL

- A simple but powerful approach to planning
- Use the model only to generate samples
- **Sample** experience from model:

$$oldsymbol{S}' \sim \widehat{\mathcal{P}}_{oldsymbol{S},ullet}^{oldsymbol{A}}$$
 and $oldsymbol{R} = \widehat{\mathcal{R}}_{oldsymbol{S}}^{oldsymbol{A}}$

- Apply model-free RL to samples
 - deep Q-network
 - fitted Q-iteration
 - actor-critic
- This is often more efficient than dynamic programming-based method

Model-based Methods

- First, we learn a model (reward and state transition functions) based on data
- Next, we can implement **planning** based on the learned model
- Alternatively, we can integrate planning with learning (Dyna)
- Finally, we can implement Monte Carlo tree search for decision-time planning

Real and Simulated Experience

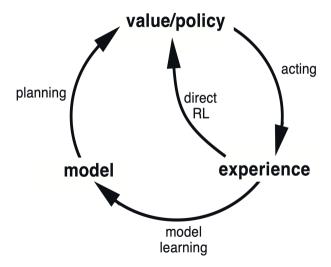
- We consider two sources of experience
- **Real experience**: Sampled from environment (true MDP)

$$\{S_0, A_0, R_0, \cdots, S_T\}$$

• **Simulated experience**: Sampled from model (estimated MDP)

$$\mathbf{S}' \sim \widehat{\mathcal{P}}_{\mathbf{S},\bullet}^{\mathbf{A}}$$
 and $R = \widehat{\mathcal{R}}_{\mathbf{S}}^{\mathbf{A}}$

Dyna



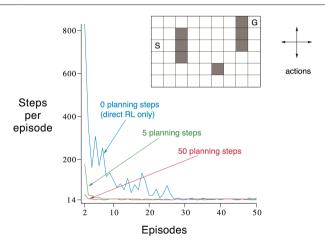
Dyna-Q Algorithm

- Initialize Q(s, a) and model(s, a) for all s and a
- **do** forever:
 - (a) $s \leftarrow$ current (non-terminal) state
 - (b) $\mathbf{a} \leftarrow \varepsilon$ -greedy(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{Q})
 - (c) Execute action a; observe reward r and next state s'
 - (d) $Q(s, a) \leftarrow Q(s, a) + \alpha[r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a') Q(s, a)]$
 - (e) $model(s, a) \leftarrow (r, s')$
 - (f) Repeat *n* times:
 - s ← random previously observed state
 - $a \leftarrow$ random action previously taking in s

$$(r, s') \sim \mathsf{model}(s, a)$$

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

Dyna-Q on a Simple Maze



- similar to "experience replay" in DQN
- use historical data more efficiently

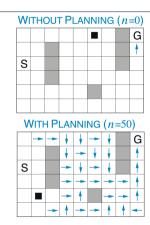


Figure: Policies found through 2nd episode. The arrows indicate greedy action; if no arrow is shown for a state, then all of its action values were equal.

Model-based Methods

- First, we learn a model (reward and state transition functions) based on data
- Next, we can implement **planning** based on the learned model
- Alternatively, we can **integrate planning with learning** (Dyna)
- Finally, we can implement Monte Carlo tree search for decision-time planning

Two Ways of Planning

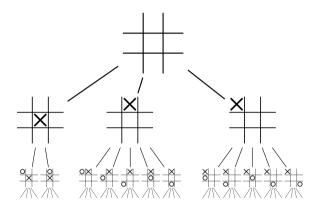
Background planning

- Planning is used well before an action is selected
- Need to select actions fo each state, not current state
- Examples: policy iteration and value iteration in Lecture 2

Decision-time planning

- Planning is started and completed after encountering each new state S_t
- As a computation to determine A_t
- On the next step planning begins anew with S_{t+1} to produce A_{t+1} , and so no

Game Trees



- Game trees: data structures to represent a game
- Exhaustive search can be **computationally intensive**
- Solutions bought by Monte Carlo tree search

Monte-Carlo Tree Search (Evaluation)

- Given a model M
- Simulate K episodes from current states S_t using current policy π

$$\left\{\boldsymbol{S}_{t}, \boldsymbol{A}_{t}^{k}, \boldsymbol{R}_{t}^{k}, \boldsymbol{S}_{t+1}^{k}, \boldsymbol{A}_{t+1}^{k}, \boldsymbol{R}_{t+1}^{k}, \cdots, \boldsymbol{S}_{T}^{k}\right\}_{k=1}^{K} \sim \mathcal{M}, \boldsymbol{\pi}$$

- Build a search tree containing visited states and actions
- Evaluate states Q(s, a) by mean return of episodes from s, a

$$Q(s, a) = \frac{1}{N(s, a)} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{u=t}^{T} \mathbb{I}(S_u = s, A_u = a) G_u \rightarrow Q^{\pi}(s, a)$$

After search is finished, select current action with maximum value in search tree

$$A_t = \arg\max_{a \in A} Q(S_t, a)$$

Monte-Carlo Tree Search (Simulation)

- In MCTS, the simulation policy (rollout policy) π that simulates data **improves**
- Repeat (each simulation)
 - **Evaluate** states Q(s, a) by Monte-Carlo evaluation
 - Improve simulation policy, e.g., by ε -greedy(Q)
 - Monte-Carlo control applied to simulated experience
- Converges to the optimal search tree, $Q(s, a) o Q^{\pi^{\mathrm{opt}}}(s, a)$

Lecture Outline

1. Policy-based Learning

- 1.1 Introduction to Policy-based Learning
- 1.2 Policy Gradient Theorem
- 1.3 REINFORCE and Actor Critic Algorithms
- 1.4 Advantage Actor-Critic (A2C)

2. Model-based Learning

- 2.1 Introduction to Model-based Learning
- 2.2 Model-based Methods
- 2.3 Mastering the Game of Go

Case Study: the Game of Go



- Invented in China over 2500 years ago
- The **hardest** classic board game
- Much harder than chess:
 - Go has larger number of legal moves than chess (\approx 250 v.s. \approx 35)
 - Go involve more moves than chess (\approx 150 v.s. \approx 80)
 - Traditional game-tree search fails in Go

Rules of Go

- Two players place down white and black stones alternately
- Stones are captured according to simple rules

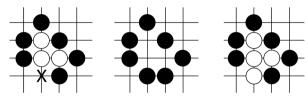


Figure: Left: the three white stones are not surrounded because point X is unoccupied. Middle: if black places a stone on X, the three white stones are captured and removed from the board. Right: if white places a stone on point X first, the capture is blocked.

- The game ends when neither player wishes to place another stone
- The player with more **territory** wins the game

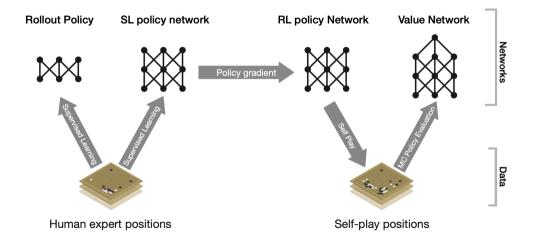
AlphaGo



AlphaGo Pipeline

- Based on a novel version of Monte-Carlo tree search (MCTS)
- Combined with a policy and a value function learned by RL with function approximation provided by deep CNN
- Simulate trajectories and generate the search tree using the rollout policy
- Expand search tree by selecting unexplored actions according to a policy network
- Policy network trained previously via supervised learning to predict moves contained in a database of nearly 30 million human expert moves, and updated via self-play
- Evaluate state-action value based on simulated returns (MC) and a value network
- Value network trained previously via RL

AlphaGo Pipeline (Cont'd)



Input of Neural Networks

Extended Data Table 2 | Input features for neural networks

Feature	# of planes	Description
Stone colour	3	Player stone / opponent stone / empty
Ones	1	A constant plane filled with 1
Turns since	8	How many turns since a move was played
Liberties	8	Number of liberties (empty adjacent points)
Capture size	8	How many opponent stones would be captured
Self-atari size	8	How many of own stones would be captured
Liberties after move	8	Number of liberties after this move is played
Ladder capture	1	Whether a move at this point is a successful ladder capture
Ladder escape	1	Whether a move at this point is a successful ladder escape
Sensibleness	1	Whether a move is legal and does not fill its own eyes
Zeros	1	A constant plane filled with 0
Player color	1	Whether current player is black

Policy Network

- Training the SL policy network took approximately 3 weeks using distributed implementation of SGD on 50 processors
- The SL policy network achieved 57% accuracy; best accuracy achieved by other methods 44%
- The RL policy network is trained on a million games in a single day
- The final RL policy won more than 80% of games played against the SL policy
- It won 85% of games played against a Go program using MCTS that simulated 100,000 games per move

Value Network

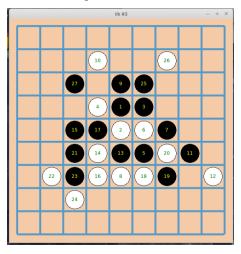
- The value network used Monte Carlo policy evaluation based on data obtained from a large number of self-play games played using the RL policy
- To avoid overfitting and instability, and to reduce the strong correlations between
 positions encountered in self-play, the dataset consists of 30 million positions, each
 chosen randomly from a unique self-play game
- Training was done using 50 million mini-batches each of 32 positions drawn from this data set
- Training took one week on **50** GPUs

Rollout Policy

- The **rollout policy** was learned prior to play by a simple linear network trained by supervised learning from a corpus of **8** million human moves
- In principle, the SL or RL policy networks could have been used in the rollouts, but the forward propagation through these deep networks took too much time for either of them to be used in rollout simulations
- The rollout policy network allowed approximately 1,000 complete game simulations per second to be run on each of the processing threads

AlphaGo Zero on Gomoku

https://github.com/initial-h/AlphaZero_Gomoku_MPI



Summary

- Model-based/Model free learning
- Integrating planning and learning
- Dyna-Q

- Background/Decision-time planning
- Monte Carlo Tree Search
- AlphaGo

References I

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- Richard S Sutton, David McAllester, Satinder Singh, and Yishay Mansour. Policy gradient methods for reinforcement learning with function approximation. *Advances in neural information processing systems*, 12, 1999.
- Brian L Trippe and Richard E Turner. Conditional density estimation with bayesian normalising flows. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1802.04908*, 2018.
- Christopher K Williams and Carl Edward Rasmussen. *Gaussian processes for machine learning*, volume 2. MIT press Cambridge, MA, 2006.

Appendix: Proof of Policy Gradient Theorem

- We focus on the discounted reward setting. Proofs in the average reward setting can be found in Sutton et al. [1999]
- Basic identities

$$(A) \qquad \mathbf{V}^{\pi}(s) = \sum_{\mathbf{a}} \pi(\mathbf{a}|s) \mathbf{Q}^{\pi}(s, \mathbf{a})$$

$$(B) \qquad \mathbf{Q}^{\pi}(s, \mathbf{a}) = \mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{a}}_{s} + \gamma \sum_{s'} \mathbf{P}^{\mathbf{a}}_{s,s'} \mathbf{V}^{\pi}(s')$$

$$(C) \qquad \nabla_{\theta} \mathbf{V}^{\pi}(s) = \sum_{\mathbf{a}} [\nabla_{\theta} \pi(\mathbf{a}|s)] \mathbf{Q}^{\pi}(s, \mathbf{a}) + \sum_{\mathbf{a}} \pi(\mathbf{a}|s) [\nabla_{\theta} \mathbf{Q}^{\pi}(s, \mathbf{a})]$$

$$(D) \qquad \nabla_{\theta} \mathbf{Q}^{\pi}(s, \mathbf{a}) = \gamma \sum_{\mathbf{a}'} \mathbf{P}^{\mathbf{a}}_{s,s'} \nabla_{\theta} \mathbf{V}^{\pi}(s')$$

Appendix: Proof (Cont'd)

$$\nabla_{\theta} \mathbf{V}^{\pi}(\mathbf{s}) \stackrel{(C)}{=} \sum_{\mathbf{a}} [\nabla_{\theta} \pi(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{s})] \mathbf{Q}^{\pi}(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{a}) + \sum_{\mathbf{a}} \pi(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{s}) [\nabla_{\theta} \mathbf{Q}^{\pi}(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{a})]$$

$$\stackrel{(D)}{=} \sum_{\mathbf{a}} \pi(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{s}) [\nabla_{\theta} \log(\pi(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{s}))] \mathbf{Q}^{\pi}(\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{a}) + \gamma \sum_{\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{s'}} \pi(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{s}) \mathbf{P}^{\mathbf{a}}_{\mathbf{s}, \mathbf{s'}} \nabla_{\theta} \mathbf{V}^{\pi}(\mathbf{s'})$$

Now, consider 1. Similarly, we have

$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{I} &= \sum_{oldsymbol{a}, oldsymbol{s'}, oldsymbol{a'}} \pi(oldsymbol{a}|bs) oldsymbol{P_{s,s'}^a} \pi(oldsymbol{a'}|s') [
abla_{oldsymbol{ heta}} \log(\pi(oldsymbol{a'}|s'))] oldsymbol{Q^{\pi}(s', oldsymbol{a'})} \\ &+ \gamma \sum_{oldsymbol{a}, oldsymbol{s'}, oldsymbol{a'}, oldsymbol{s'}} \pi(oldsymbol{a}|oldsymbol{s}) oldsymbol{P_{s,s'}^a} \pi(oldsymbol{a'}|s') oldsymbol{P_{s',s'}^a} \pi(oldsymbol{a'}$$

Appendix: Proof (Cont'd)

Recursively applying the first identity, we obtain

$$abla_{ heta} oldsymbol{V}^{\pi}(oldsymbol{s}) = \mu^{\pi(ullet; heta)}(oldsymbol{s}',oldsymbol{a}';oldsymbol{s})
abla_{ heta} \log(\pi(oldsymbol{s}',oldsymbol{a}')) oldsymbol{Q}^{\pi}(oldsymbol{s}',oldsymbol{a}')$$

where

$$\mu^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(s', \mathbf{a}'; s) = \sum_{t \geq 0} \gamma^t \pi(s', \mathbf{a}') \mathsf{Pr}^{\pi(\bullet;\theta)}(S_t = s' | S_0 = s)$$

Questions