

# A Brief Survey of Reinforcement Learning

A modern beamer theme

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# Introduction

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# What is Reinforcement Learning



[9]

REINFORCEMENT LEARNING is an area of machine learning concerned with how software agents ought to take actions in an environment so as to maximize some notion of cumulative reward.

# Challenges in RL

RL vision is about creating systems that are capable of learning how to adapt in the real world, solely based on trial-and-error.

Challenges:

- The optimal policy must be inferred by interacting with the environment. The only learning signal the agent receives is the reward.
- Agents must deal with long-range time dependencies: Often the consequences of an action only materialise after many transitions of the environment [8].

## What it is Not

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- Supervised learning
- Mathematical optimization
- **Genetic programming**

# Genetic Programming

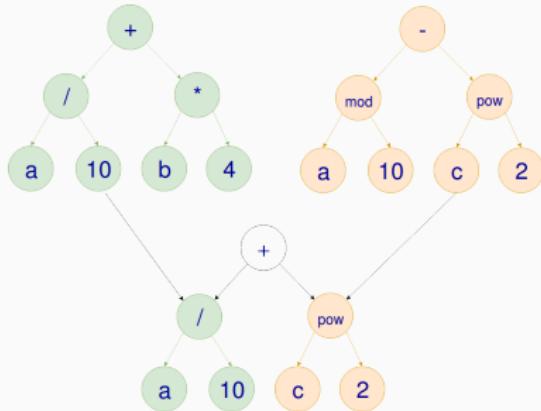
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# Genetic Programming

GP is a technique whereby computer programs are encoded as a set of genes that are then modified using an evolutionary algorithm.

- A number of chromosomes are randomly created.
- Each chromosome is evaluated through a fitness function.
- Best ones are selected, the others are disposed.
- Chromosomes could be breded among the selected for a new generation.
- Offsprings are randomly mutated.
- Repeat until the score threshold is reached [3].

# Crossover



**Figure 1:** The “breeding” is called crossover. The chromosome (in this case an AST), is merged between two individuals for searching a better function.

## Strengths on many local minima

GP may overtake gradient-based algorithms when the solution space has many local minima

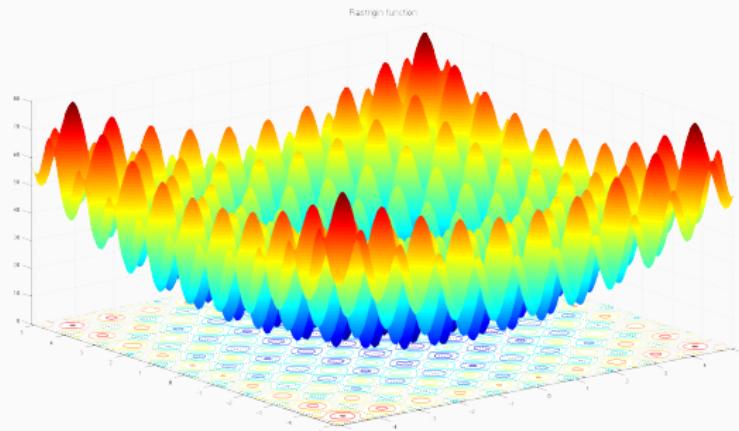


Figure 2: Rastrigin function

# Strengths on no-differentiable functions

$f(x)$  is DIFFERENTIABLE when it has always a finite derivative along the domain.

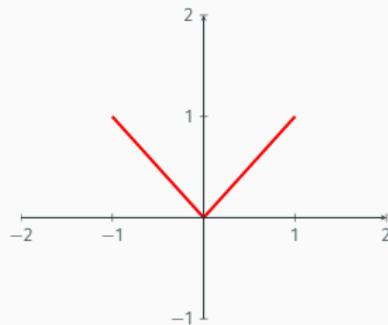


Figure 3:  $f(x) = |x|$  has no derivative at  $x = 0$ .

GP is tollerant to *latent* no-differentiable functions.

## Multi-armed Bandit

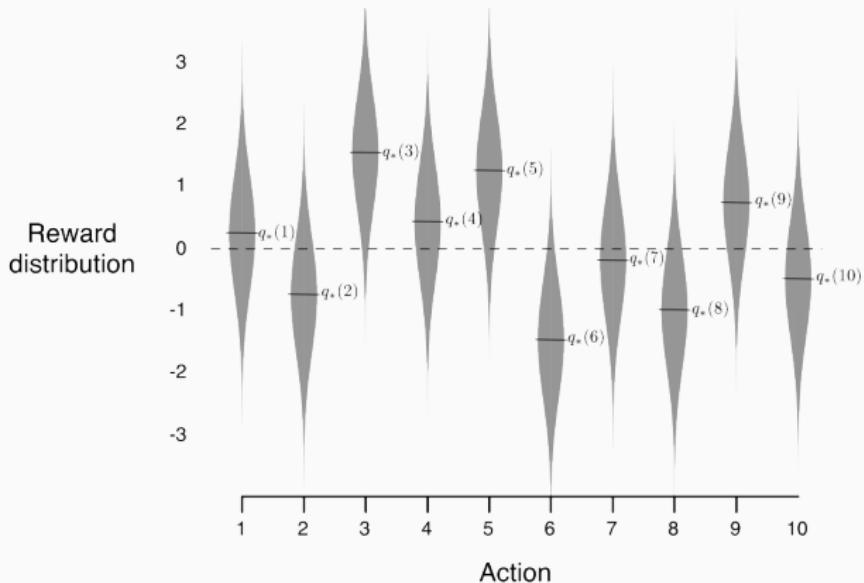
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# Multi-armed Bandit



The multi-armed bandit problem has been the subject of decades of intense study in statistics, operations research, electrical engineering, computer science, and economics [12]

# $Q$ Value's Action



An example bandit problem [8]. Obtained measures after repeated pullings with 10 arms.

## $Q$ Value's Action

$Q_n$  is the estimated value of its action after  $n$  selections.

$$Q_{n+1} = \frac{R_1 + R_2 + \dots + R_n}{n}$$

A more scalable formula, updates the average with incremental and small constant:

$$Q_{n+1} = Q_n + \frac{1}{n}(R_n - Q_n)$$

General expression of the badint algorithm at the fundation of RL.  
Target could be considered the reward  $R$  by now.

$$\text{NewEstimate} = \text{OldEstimate} + \text{StepSize}(\text{Target} - \text{OldEstimate})$$

# Gambler's Dilemma

When pulled, an arm produces a random payout drawn independently of the past. Because the distribution of payouts corresponding to each arm is not listed, the player can learn it only by experimenting.

## Exploitation

Earn more money by exploiting arms that yielded high payouts in the past.

## Exploration

Exploring alternative arms may return higher payouts in the future.

# Markov Decision Process

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# Definition of MDP



**Figure 4:** 2015 DARPA Robotics Challenge [6]

Despite as in bandits, MDP formalizes the decision making (Policy  $\pi$ ) in sequential steps, aggregated in Episodes.

# Actions and States

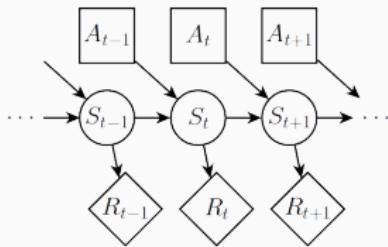


Figure 5: Model representation of MDP [5]

MDP strives to find the best  $\pi$  to all possible states. In Markov processes, the selected action depends **only** on current state.

# How to evaluate an Agent?

Given that:

- Policy  $\pi$  defines a particular way of acting.
- $v_\pi(s)$  is the expected return from  $s$  following  $\pi$  thereafter.
- $q_\pi(s, a)$  is the  $v_\pi(s)$  taking action  $a$
- For maximizing future rewards, only the  $\max Q_\pi$  is considered.
- $\gamma$  is the rewards' discount factor.

A recursive algorithm could be identified, known as the BELLMAN EQUATION. Iteratively computes the value  $Q$  from the terminal state:

$$Q_t(s, a) = R_{t+1} + \gamma \max[v(S_{t+1})]$$

# Grid World

☒	-1	-1	-1
-1	-1	-1	-1
-1	-1	-1	-1
-1	-1	-1	☒

- $A = \text{up, down, right, left}$
- Terminal states are the flagged boxes.
- $R_t = 0$  for terminal states.
- $R_t = -1$  for other states.

The problem is to define the best  $\pi$ . Value function is computed by iterative policy evaluation.

# Iteration 1

Calculated  $V_1$

0	-1	-1	-1
-1	-1	-1	-1
-1	-1	-1	-1
-1	-1	-1	0

Policy  $\pi_1$

☒	←	?	?
↑	?	?	?
?	?	?	↓
?	?	→	☒

## Iteration 2

Calculated  $V_2$

0	-1.7	-2	-2
-1.7	-2	-2	-2
-2	-2	-2	-1.7
-2	-2	-1.7	0

Policy  $\pi_2$

☒	←	←	?
↑	↔	?	↓
↑	?	⤒	↓
?	→	→	☒

# Iteration 3

Calculated  $V_3$

0	-2.4	-2.9	-3
-2.4	-2.9	-3	-2.9
-2.9	-3	-2.9	-2.4
-3	-2.9	-2.4	0

Policy  $\pi_3$

	←	←	↖
↑	↑↖	↖	↓
↑	↖	↖	↓
↖	→	→	

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# Neural Networks in RL

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# Beyond the Gridworld

In the Gridworld every state value  $v_t$  is stored in a table. The approach lacks scalability and is inherently limited to fairly low-dimension problems.



Figure 6: The state  $v_t$  might be a frame of a videogame [11]

# Deep Reinforcement Learning

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Deep learning enables RL to scale to decision-making problems that were previously intractable, i.e., settings with high-dimensional state and action spaces. [1]

- **Universal function approximator** Multilayer neural networks can approximate any continuous function to any degree of accuracy [4].

# Deep Reinforcement Learning

Deep learning enables RL to scale to decision-making problems that were previously intractable, i.e., settings with high-dimensional state and action spaces. [1]

- **Universal function approximator** Multilayer neural networks can approximate any continuous function to any degree of accuracy [4].
- **Representation learning** Automatically discover the representations needed for feature detection or classification from raw data, also known as FEATURE ENGINEERING [2].

Neural networks can learn the approximated value of  $V_s$  or  $Q(s, a)$  for any given STATE/ACTION SPACE.

## Discrete space

When the ACTION SPACE is limited by a set of options, (e.g. *turn right, left*) the output layer could be a set of neurons as the number of possible actions.

A1	A2	A3	A4
0.21	0.27	0.30	0.21

Figure 7: Output layer with softmax

The choosed action is the one with the biggest  $Q_t$  (A3).

# Exploration in discrete space

The balance between EXPLORATION and EXPLOITATION is one of the most challenging task in RL. The most common is the  $\epsilon$ -greedy:

$$\pi(s) = \begin{cases} \text{random action,} & \text{if } \xi < \epsilon. \\ \text{argmax}Q(s, a), & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

With  $\epsilon$ -GREEDY, at each time step, the agent selects a random action with a fixed probability,  $0 \leq \epsilon \leq 1$ , instead of selecting the learned optimal action.

# Exploration in discrete space

$\epsilon$ -GREEDY must be tuned and it is fixed during the training. In contrast, VALUE-DIFFERENCE BASED EXPLORATION adapts the exploration-probability based on fluctuations of confidence [10].

A1	A2	A3	A4
0.21	0.27	<b>0.30</b>	0.21

**Figure 8:** Low confidence, flat likelihood

A1	A2	A3	A4
0.21	0.07	<b>0.70</b>	0.01

**Figure 9:** High confidence, sharp likelihood

Applications of RL require continuous state spaces defined by means of continuous variables *e.g. position, velocity, torque.*

## Single Output

Like in DDPG algorithm. The NN yields only one output.

# Continuous space

Applications of RL require continuous state spaces defined by means of continuous variables *e.g. position, velocity, torque.*

## Single Output

Like in DDPG algorithm. The NN yields only one output.

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## Probability distribution

The network yields a distribution. For convenience usually it is a NORMAL DISTRIBUTION defined by 2 outputs:  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ .

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NN comes into play by approximating state-action value pairs  $Q_t(s, a)$ .

## Double network

Other the main network, a sibling network (TARGET) is used in training for adjusting values  $Q$ , the second network is periodically aligned the the main network.

## Priority experience replay

Past state/action/reward tuples are kept also for future iterations. Tuples with higher error in evaluation are retained longer.

► First disruptive advance in DEEP RL in 2015 by DeepMind [7].

## Actor-Critic

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## Policy-based algorithm

ACTOR-CRITIC methods lay in the family of POLICY-BASED algorithms. Differently by VALUE-BASED ones - like DQN - the main network (ACTOR) learns directly the action  $a_\pi(s)$  to return for a given state  $s$ .

☞ Therefore there is no  $\text{argmax } Q_\pi(s, A)$  among all  $Q_\pi(s)$  for a given state

# Actor-Critic

ACTOR-CRITIC defines an architecture based on 2 parts:

## Actor

Main NN which infers the action for a given state ( $s_t \rightarrow a$ )



## Critic

Secondary NN used only for training, evaluates the ACTOR output returning the *averaged* value of state-action pair.  $s_t, a_t \rightarrow Q(s, a)$



## Advantage function for incremental learning

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The ADVANTAGE technique is used to give a evaluation of the last action (reward) *compared* to the average of other actions - so far performed - in a given state.

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It answers the following question:

Is last action more rewarding than others in such scenario?

# Advantage function for incremental learning

The ADVANTAGE technique is used to give a evaluation of the last action (reward) *compared* to the average of other actions - so far performed - in a given state.

It answers the following question:

Is last action more rewarding than others in such scenario?

**Yes**

Action's likeliwood is encouraged i.e. actor gradients are pushed toward this action.

**No**

Action's likeliwood is discouraged i.e. actor gradients are pushed away from this action.

# Training

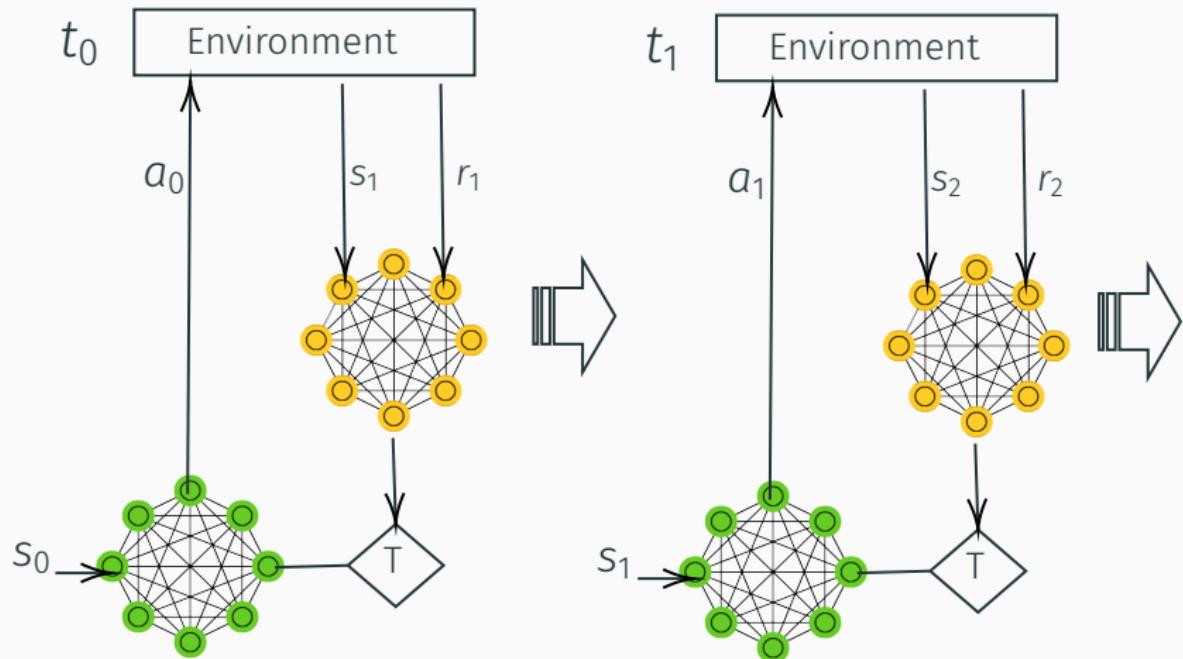
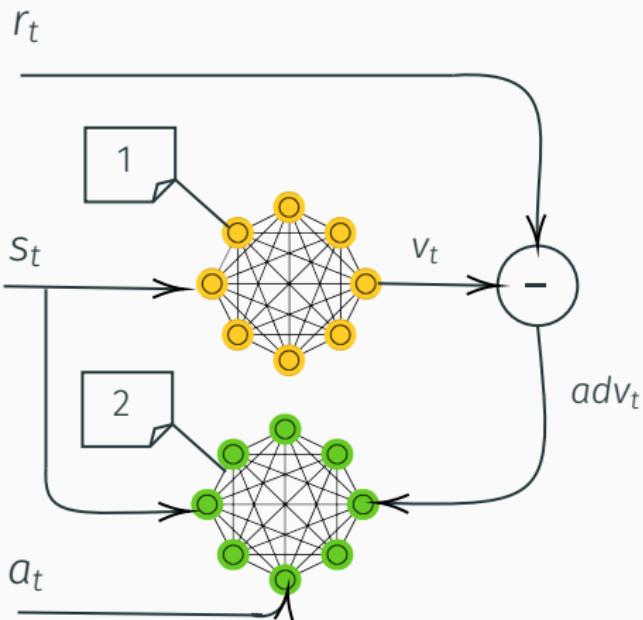


Figure 10: Actor-Critic interactions in an iterative training

# Actor training



- 1 Critic returns the averaged value of the state.
- 2 Actor is trained considering  $s_t, a_t$  and  $adv_t = r_t - v_t$

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