- •The algorithm does not specify how actions are chosen by the agent.
- •One strategy would be in state s to select the action a that maximizes  $\hat{Q}(s,a)$ , thereby exploiting its current approximation  $\hat{Q}$ .

- •Using this strategy the agent runs the risk that it will overcommit to actions that are found during early training to have high Q values, while failing to explore other actions that have even higher values.
- •It is common in Q learning to use a probabilistic approach to selecting actions.

•Actions with higher Q values are assigned higher probabilities, but every action is assigned a nonzero probability. One way to assign such probabilities is

$$P(a_i | s) = \frac{e^{\hat{Q}(s, a_i)/T}}{\sum_{j} e^{\hat{Q}(s, a_j)/T}}$$

•where  $P(a_i|s)$  is the probability of selecting action  $a_i$ , given that the agent is in state s, and where T > 0 is a constant that determines how strongly the selection favors actions with high Q values.

- •Hence it is good to try new things so now and then, e.g. If *T* large lots of exploring, if *T* small, exploit current policy. One can decrease *T* over time to first explore, and then converge and exploit.
- •For example T = c/k + d where k is iteration of the algorithm  $\hat{Q}^{\hat{Q}(s,a_i)/T}$

$$P(a_i \mid s) = \frac{e^{\hat{Q}(s,a_i)/T}}{\sum_{i} e^{\hat{Q}(s,a_j)/T}}$$

•Decreasing *T* over time is sometimes called simulated annealing, which is inspired by annealing process in metals. *T* is sometimes called the *Temperature*.

#### Improvements

- One can trade-off memory and computation by cashing (s,s',r) for observed transitions. After a while, as Q(s',a') has changed, you can "replay" the update:  $\hat{Q}(s,a) \leftarrow r + \gamma \max_{a'} \hat{Q}(s',a')$
- One can actively search for state-action pairs for which Q(s,a) is expected to change a lot (prioritized sweeping).

- •Q learning algorithm learns by iteratively reducing the discrepancy between Q value estimates for adjacent state
- •Q learning is a special case of *temporal* difference algorithms that learn by reducing discrepancies between estimates made by the agent at different times.

- •The raining rule we studied reduces the difference between the estimated Q values of a state and its immediate successor
- •However, we could design an algorithm that reduces discrepancies between this state and more distant descendants or ancestors.

- •Recall that our Q learning training rule calculates a training value for  $Q(s_t, a_t)$  in terms of the values for  $Q(s_{t+1}, a_{t+1})$  where  $s_{t+1}$  is the result of applying action  $a_t$  to the state  $s_t$ .
- Let  $Q^{(1)}(s_t, a_t)$  denote the training value calculated by this one-step lookahead:

$$Q^{(1)}(s_t, a_t) \equiv r_t + \gamma \max_{a} \hat{Q}(s_{t+1}, a)$$

•One alternative way to compute a training value for  $Q(s_t, a_t)$  is to base it on the observed rewards for two steps

$$Q^{(2)}(s_t, a_t) \equiv r_t + \gamma r_{t+1} + \gamma^2 \max_{a} \hat{Q}(s_{t+2}, a)$$

• or, in general, for *n* steps

$$Q^{(n)}(s_t, a_t) \equiv r_t + \gamma r_{t+1} + \dots + \gamma^{(n-1)} r_{t+n-1} + \gamma^n \max_{a} \hat{Q}(s_{t+n}, a)$$

- •A general method for blending these alternative training estimates, called  $TD(\lambda)$ .
- •The idea is to use a constant  $0 \le \lambda \le 1$  to combine the estimates obtained from various lookahead distances in the following fashion

$$Q^{\lambda}(s_t, a_t) \equiv (1 - \lambda) \left[ Q^{(1)}(s_t, a_t) + \lambda Q^{(2)}(s_t, a_t) + \lambda^2 Q^{(3)}(s_t, a_t) + \cdots \right]$$

•An equivalent recursive definition for  $Q^{\lambda}$  is

$$Q^{\lambda}(s_t, a_t) = r_t + \gamma [ (1 - \lambda) \max_{a} \hat{Q}(s_t, a_t) + \lambda Q^{\lambda}(s_{t+1}, a_{t+1}) ]$$

$$Q^{\lambda}(s_t, a_t) = r_t + \gamma [ (1 - \lambda) \max_{a} \hat{Q}(s_t, a_t) + \lambda Q^{\lambda}(s_{t+1}, a_{t+1}) ]$$

- •If  $\lambda = 0$  we have our original training estimate  $Q^{(1)}$ , which considers only one-step discrepancies in the Q estimates.
- •As λ is increased, the algorithm places increasing emphasis on discrepancies based on more distant lookaheads.

$$Q^{\lambda}(s_t, a_t) = r_t + \gamma [ (1 - \lambda) \max_{a} \hat{Q}(s_t, a_t) + \lambda Q^{\lambda}(s_{t+1}, a_{t+1}) ]$$

- •At the extreme value  $\lambda = 1$ , only the observed  $r_{t+i}$  values are considered, with no contribution from the current Q estimate.
- •The motivation for the TD( $\lambda$ ) method is that in some settings training will be more efficient if more distant lookaheads are considered.

#### **Extensions**

• To deal with stochastic environments, we need to maximize *expected* future discounted reward:

$$Q(s,a) = E[r(s,a)] + \gamma \sum_{s'} P(s'|s,a) \max_{a'} Q(s',a')$$

• Often the state space is too large to deal with all states and adopt a table-lookup approach. In this case we need to learn a function:

$$Q(s,a) \approx f_{\theta}(s,a)$$

#### **Extensions**

$$Q(s,a) \approx f_{\theta}(s,a)$$

- Neural network with back-propagation have been quite successful.
- For instance, TD-Gammon is a back-gammon program that plays at expert level.
- •state-space very large, trained by playing against itself, uses NN to approximate value function, uses  $TD(\lambda)$  for learning.

#### More on Function Approximation

• For instance: linear function:

$$Q(s,a) \approx f_{\theta}(s,a) = \sum_{k=0}^{K} \theta_{k}^{a} \Phi_{k}(s)$$

The features Φ are fixed meastirements of the state (e.g. # stones on the board).

We only learn the parameters theta.

 Update rule: (start in state s, take action a, observe reward r and end up in state s')

$$\theta_k^a \leftarrow \theta_k^a + \alpha \left( r + \gamma \max_{a'} \hat{Q}(s', a') - \hat{Q}(s, a) \right) \Phi_k(s)$$

$$change in Q$$

#### Conclusion

 Reinforcement learning addresses a very broad and relevant question:

How can we learn to survive in our environment?

 We have looked at Q-learning, which simply learns from experience.

No model of the world is needed.

#### Conclusion

•We made simplifying assumptions: e.g. state of the world only depends on last state and action. This is the *Markov* assumption. The model is called a *Markov* Decision Process (MDP)

Decision Process (MDP). Decision Process

Warker order Markons

actions

want previous

#### Conclusion

• We assumed deterministic dynamics, reward function, but the world really is stochastic.

- There are many extensions to speed up learning.
- There have been many successful real world applications.