

Autonomous Agents Assignment 2

Tobias Stahl
10528199

Spyros Michaelides
10523316

Ioannis Giounous Aivalis
10524851

Francesco Stablum
6200982

October 3, 2013

1 Introduction

This report is based on the implementation of an assignment exercise in which a predator is trying to catch a prey in a 2-dimensional environment, being unknown to the predator. This will be attempted using Temporal Difference learning methods (TD), a combination of Monte Carlo and dynamic programming. TD learning methods can learn directly from experience, rather than having to rely on a model of the environment. TD methods can update action state values estimates based on other learned estimates, without having to wait for the final outcome.

2 Algorithms

In this part of the report the used algorithms are introduced on the basis of their Pseudocode description.

2.1 Q-Learning

The initial exercise of this lab assignment is to implement Q-learning, a temporal-difference (TD) learning algorithm. This algorithm is to be used by the predator agent to catch the prey.

Q-learning is an off-policy TD control algorithm. An off-policy TD algorithm is one in which the estimated value functions can be updated using hypothetical actions, without having actually executed the actions themselves. Using this approach the algorithm can separate exploration from control, since the deterministic learned policy is separate to the exploration,

meaning the agent could learn through the environment without necessarily having had the explicit experience. The steps involved can be summarised into the following Algorithm 1

Algorithm 1 Q-learning

```

1: Initialise  $Q(s, a)$  arbitrarily
2: for all Episodes do
3:   Initialise  $s$ 
4:   for all Steps of episodes do
5:     Choose  $a$  from  $s$  using policy derived from  $Q$  (e.g.,  $\epsilon$ -greedy)
6:     Take action  $a$ , observe  $r, s'$ 
7:      $Q(s, a) \leftarrow Q(s, a) + \alpha[r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a') - Q(s, a)]$ 
8:      $s \leftarrow s'$ ;
9:   end for
10:  Until  $s$  is terminal
11: end for

```

Where:

- α is the learning rate. Setting it to a high value will force learning to occur faster, whereas for a low value it will occur slower.
- $\max_{a'}$ is the maximum reward reachable in the state s'
- γ is the value which gives future rewards less worth than immediate ones

2.2 Q-learning using ϵ -greedy

When the Q-learning algorithm to selects an action, there needs to be some form of trade-off between selecting the action with the highest estimated reward so far, and the the rest of the actions available. Limiting the action selection policy to only the best action learned so far, would mean potentially losing out on a better action in the future, being in a given state. To satisfy this trade-off, ϵ -greedy policy uses a (in this example a small) probability of ϵ to select randomly between all between all the actions available in a given state, excluding the most optimal one so far. In turn, (as in this scenario ϵ

is small), the most optimal action is chosen with a much larger probability, $1 - \epsilon$, most of the time, giving the policy a tendency to exploit the best action so far most of the time, but not lose out on potentially better actions, which could be found through exploration of the other actions.

Based on the task at hand, the predator should directly learn a high reward policy without learning a model, since the agent is not supposed to know not know the transition probabilities, nor the reward structure of the environment. It is assumed that convergence should occur as long as all state action pair values continue to be updated using a certain policy (in this case ϵ -greedy).

2.3 Softmax Action-Selection Policy

In this section, a different action selection policy will be used in Q-learning instead of ϵ -greedy. ϵ -greedy policy satisfies the exploration/exploitation variance which is desired to be used in the Q-learning algorithm, although the way in which it achieves this could be a disadvantage in scenarios where the least favourable action has a much worse pay-off than the e.g., the second-best one. When the algorithm explores with a probability ϵ , it does not do this by taking into consideration the performance of the individual non-best actions themselves. The probability distribution between which non-best action is selected, is uniformly distributed and therefore, each one is as likely to be chosen as the rest. To optimise the performance of the Q-learning algorithm, it could be more efficient to make the selection among the non-best actions by weighing them according to their action-value estimates, thus increasing probability of selection for the higher action-value estimates, and hence making a more guided (by value) exploration. Algorithm 2 differs from ϵ -greedy in Operation 5.

Where:

- τ is a positive parameter called *temperature*. A high temperature leads the actions to be almost equiprobable, low temperature values cause a greater difference with $\tau \rightarrow 0$ being the same as greedy action selection.

2.4 Sarsa

Sarsa, like Q-learning is a temporal difference algorithm, meaning that it compares temporally successive predictions. Unlike Q-learning though,

Algorithm 2 Softmax

```
1: Initialise  $Q(s, a)$  arbitrarily
2: for all Episodes do
3:   Initialise  $s$ 
4:   for all Steps of episodes do
5:     Choose  $a$  with probability  $\frac{\exp^{Q_t(a)/\tau}}{\sum \exp^{Q_t(b)/\tau}}$ 
6:     Take action  $a$ , observe  $r, s'$ 
7:      $Q(s, a) \leftarrow Q(s, a) + \alpha[r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a') - Q(s, a)]$ 
8:      $s \leftarrow s'$ ;
9:   end for
10:  Until  $s$  is terminal
11: end for
```

Sarsa is an on-policy TD method. In on-policy TD learning the algorithm learns the value of the policy that is used to make the decisions, meaning directly through experience. This is in contrast to off-policy where value functions are not updated solely on experienced actions. The action selection policies previously discussed in Q-learning are also applicable for use in Sarsa. Again, there is the choice of specifying the trade-off between exploitation/exploration by setting the ϵ parameter when using ϵ -greedy, or using the softmax policy.

Algorithm 3 Sarsa

```
1: Initialise  $Q(s, a)$  arbitrarily
2: for all Episodes do
3:   Initialise  $s$ 
4:   Choose  $a$  from  $s$  using policy derived from  $Q$  (e.g.,  $\epsilon$ -greedy)
5:   for all Steps of episodes do
6:     Take action  $a$ , observe  $r, s'$ 
7:     Choose  $a'$  from  $s'$  using policy derived from  $Q$  (e.g.,  $\epsilon$ -greedy)
8:      $Q(s, a) \leftarrow Q(s, a) + \alpha[r + \gamma Q(s', a') - Q(s, a)]$ 
9:      $s \leftarrow s'; a \leftarrow a'$ ;
10:  end for
11:  Until  $s$  is terminal
12: end for
```

2.5 Monte-Carlo Methods

Monte-Carlo methods are also usually used in situations where there is no model of the environment's dynamics, and so can learn from the the experience they gain through each complete episode. The main difference between Monte-Carlo and Temporal Difference (TD) methods is that in TD methods the final outcome does not need to be reached until the state-action values can be updated, whereas in Monte-Carlo methods, it does. Monte-Carlo methods also use a variation of generalized policy iteration for the control problem, so the main difference lies in the way way the prediction problem is solved. Through the number of episodes (i.e. experience), the action value function for each state should average towards the true value function, and the optimal action for each state could then be computed. For this to be true, the hypothesis must be taken in that:

- The start of each episode must start at a state-action pair, and all state-action pairs have a chance of being used as a starting state-action. With a large enough number of episodes, each state-action pair should be visited enough times in order to make sufficient exploration for the best action to take, given a certain state.

This hypothesis can be unrealistic in some real-problem scenarios where for example the number of episodes generated cannot be large enough to obtain optimal state-action values. This be overcome in two ways, which will be explained in the following subsections.

2.5.1 On-policy Monte-Carlo Control

On-Policy

3 Experiments

This section describes the properties of the system the experiments were tested on and give an overview of the achieved results including plots to visualize them.

3.1 System Properties

The experiments were performend on a

3.2 Experiment 1

3.2.1 Hypotheses

The first experiment aims to measure the performance of the predator catching the predator with different learning rates α and different discount factors γ over time. Therefore the average performance of 100 simulations with different α and γ for learning with an episode count from 50 to 950 is taken into account. The reduced state space with 11x11 states is chosen, in order to save computational time.

The expected outcome is that high learning rates tend to always replace the current value with the new estimates and converge quickly, while a small learning rate value leads to a slow convergence and seems to trust the current estimate. [2]

3.2.2 Results

The results of this experiment are plotted in Table 1. The five chosen learning rates α are shown in each of the four graphs with different discount factors γ .

The interpretation of these results will follow in the next section.

3.2.3 Interpretation

3.2.4

3.3 Experiment 2

3.3.1 Hypotheses

The second experiment observes the impact of ϵ in the ϵ -greedy action selection policy and the initialization of the Q-table. ϵ determines the exploration rate, with values close to zero favouring exploitation and values close to 1 preferring exploration.

In order to test this, the constant learning rate $\alpha = 0.5$ and the constant discount factor $\gamma = 0.9$ are chosen, since these values had the best performance in the previous experiment.

In the previous experiment the Q-Table was initialized optimistically, with values higher than the actual reward to receive, which encourages an early exploration, since any actual reward is less than the actual reward. Changing this value to a pessimistical initialization on the other hand inspires exploitation.

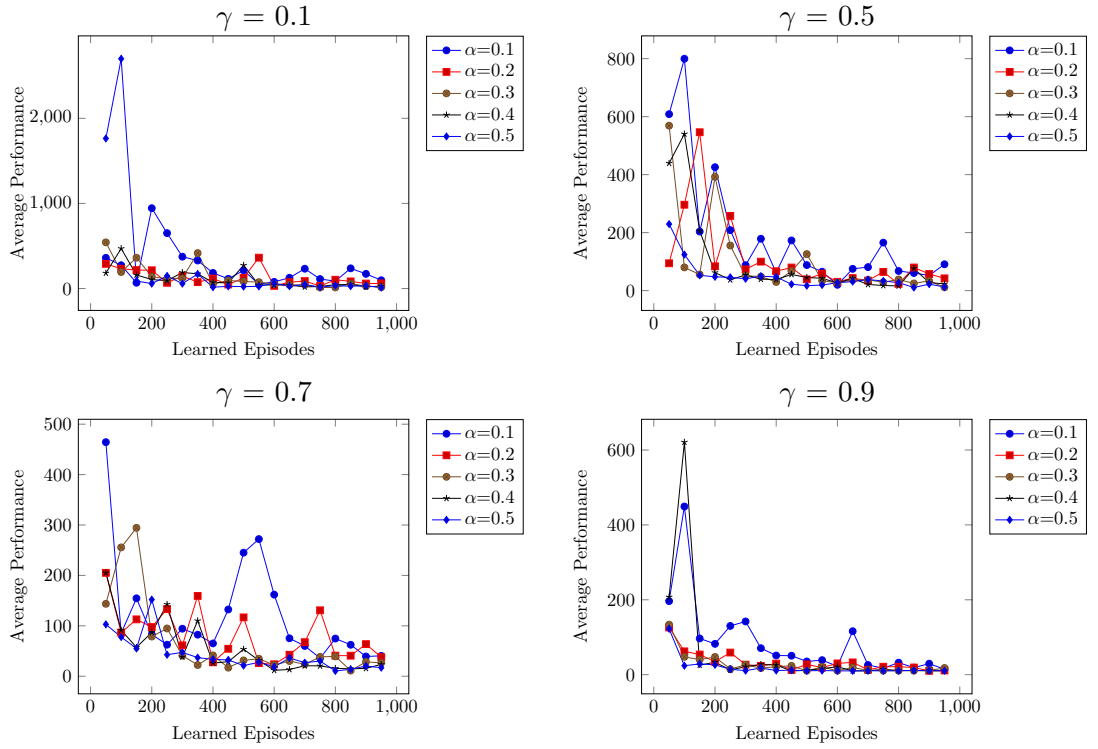


Table 1: Plots show the average performance over time spent learning the policy with learning rates α from 0.1 to 0.5. The first plot shows the curve for discount factor $\gamma = 0.1$, second $\gamma = 0.5$, third $\gamma = 0.7$ and fourth $\gamma = 0.9$

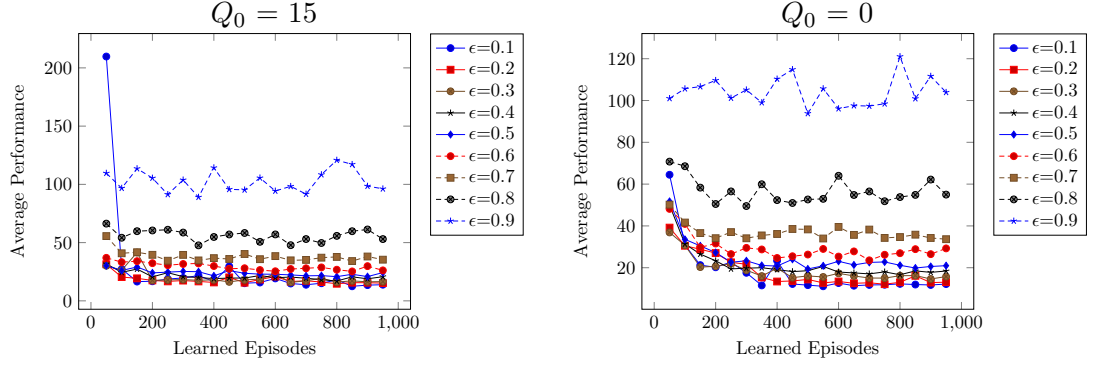


Table 2: Plots show the average performance over time spendt learning the policy with learning rates α from 0.1 to 0.5. The first plot shows the curve for discount factor $\gamma = 0.1$, second $\gamma = 0.5$, third $\gamma = 0.7$ and fourth $\gamma = 0.9$

The performance over time is measured again, in order to show how these variables influence the learning speed.

3.3.2 Results

3.3.3 Interpretation

3.3.4

3.4 Experiment 3

3.4.1 Hypotheses

In this experiment the difference between the ϵ -greedy and the softmax action selection policy is researched. The ϵ -greedy action selection chooses all actions, except the action with the highest estimated reward so far, with the same probability, while the softmax approach weights the other actions and chooses actions with more pay-off with a higher probability.

The experiment setup is the same as in Experiment 1, except that the softmax action selection policy is used instead.

Assuming that

3.4.2 Results

3.4.3 Interpretation

3.4.4

3.5 Experiment 4

3.5.1 Hypotheses

3.5.2 Results

3.5.3 Interpretation

3.5.4

4 Conclusion

References

- [1] Richard S. Sutton and Andrew G. Barto , *Reinforcement Learning: An Introduction*. The MIT Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts
- [2] Eyal Even-Dar and Yishay Mansour , *Learning Rates for Q-learning*. Journal of Machine Learning Research 5 (2003)