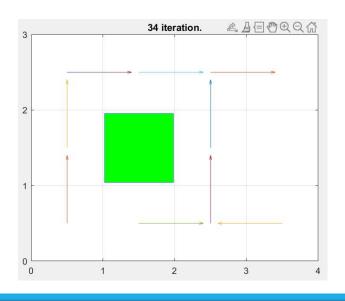
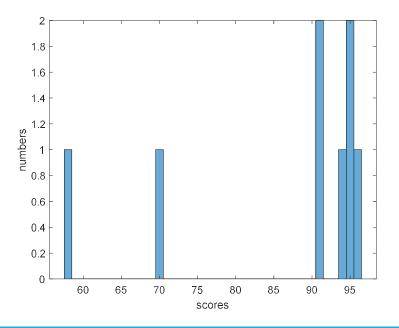
KUO-SHIH TSENG (曾國師) DEPARTMENT OF MATHEMATICS NATIONAL CENTRAL UNIVERSITY, TAIWAN 2021/04/28

HW2

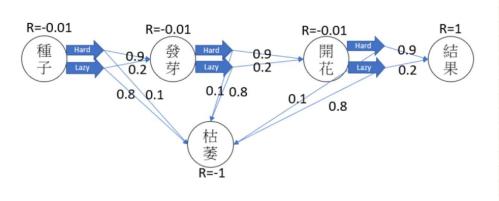
MDP

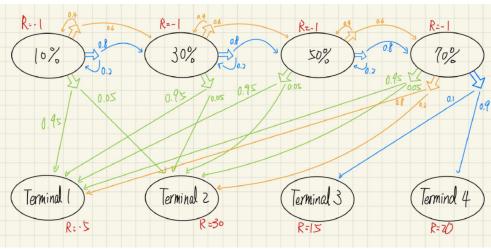




HW2

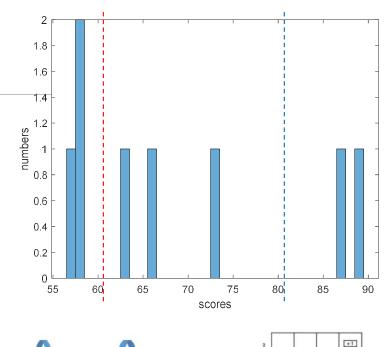
MDP example





Midterm

- 1. Perception
- a) Smoothing (20%)
- b) Bayesian search in 2 grids (15%)
- c) Bayesian search in 3 grids (15%)
- 2. Decision-making
- a) MDP (20%)
- b) Bellman EQ (15%)
- c) MCTS (15%)



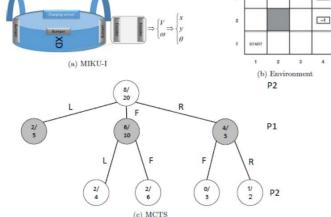


Figure 1: Illustration of the problem.

- Deadline of final project proposal: 05/12 0am
- Final Project Proposals should include the following :
 - The goal of learning
 - MDP formulation of your project
 - State, action, transitional probability, rewards, and discount terms.
 - Features of Q function
 - The data flow of your robot
- You can find the sample files of final project on LMS.
- You should cite the prior work (Reference).

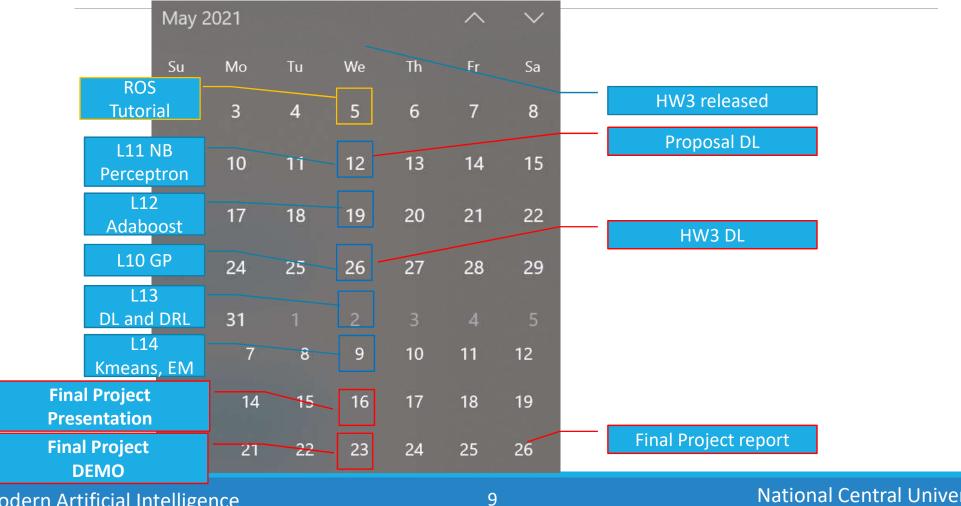
- HW3 was released (Deadline: 5/26 0am):
- A RL problem (40%)
- A supervised learning problem (40%)
- A RL proof (20%)
- You can start to work on P1 and P3 of HW3 today. Work on it ASAP!

The grade for this course will consist of the following components:

HW1	10%		
° HW2	10%		
 Midterm Exam 	30%		
• HW3	10%		
Project Proposal (1-2 page)	10%		
 Project Presentation and Demonstration 10% 			
Project Report (4-8 pages)	20%		

NOTICE: I will NOT do curve fitting (e.g., "sqrt(X)*6" for your score) for your scores.

- To complete your final project, we will have a ROS tutorial for Minibot on 5/5.
 - Take your laptop to class
 - Take your Minibot or bebop to class with full charged battery.
 - Install virtualbox https://www.virtualbox.org/ before the class
- Download the image file from Minibot wikipage before the class
 - VirtualBox Image (password: hypharos) :
 https://drive.google.com/open?id=1xTVsPet6WT48Psete6ilkgg-gi1QdOht
- You can use your Minibot or Bebop in this building. You should return your robot to M-213 when you are not using it.



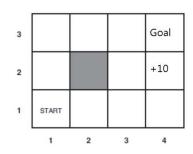
Outline

- Need
- Reinforcement learning
- Monte Carlo methods
- TD- learning
- Q-learning
 - Tubular Q-learning
 - function based Q-learning
- Linear regression
- Regularization
- Appendix More about RL

Outline

LRTA*

Deterministic action



$$s, a \rightarrow s'$$

L2: Uninformed search

L3: Heuristic search

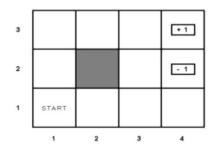
L4: Adversarial search

L5: Bayes theorem

L6: Bayes theorem over time

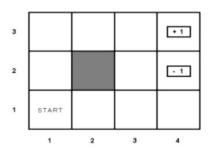
MDP (RL)

Probabilistic actions



POMDP

Probabilistic actions and states



L8: POMDP

L7: MDP

L9: Reinforcement learning

L10: GP and LWPR

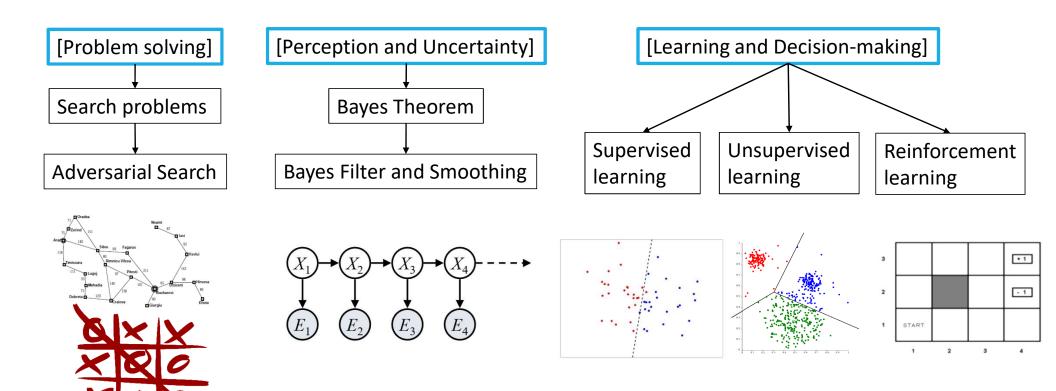
L11: Naïve Bayes and Perceptron

L12: Adaboost

(LRTA*)

L13: Deep learning and DRL

Outline



Need

- The disadvantages of iterative approaches for solving MDP are
 - (1) The robot needs to know the environments or states.
 - (2) they need a transition probability model;
 - (3) they need to update each state to converge to a solution.
- For most online learning applications, the robots do not know P and need to update utility immediately.

[GIVEN]

S:state

A: action

P(s'|s,a): Transition probability

R(s,a): reward

 γ : discount

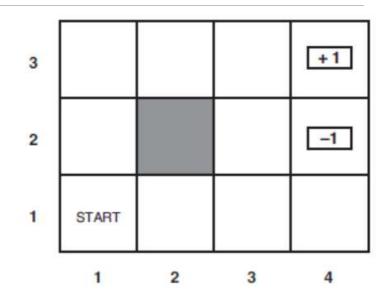
[Find]

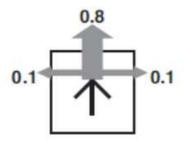
 $\pi^* = \arg\max U^{\pi}(s)$

$$U^{\pi}(s) = E\left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{t} R(S_{t})\right]$$

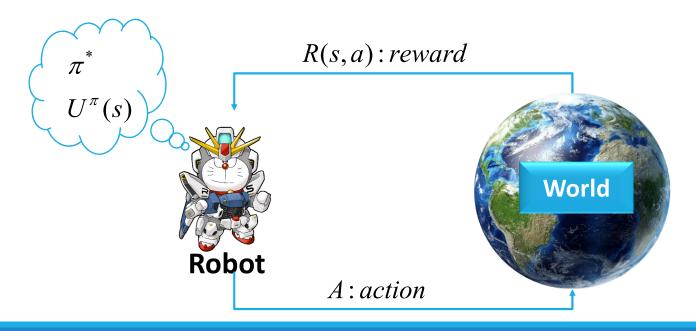
Need

- Let the robot interact with the world and receive reward immediately.
- The robot can try many times to update its utility function. Then, the robot can find optimal actions based on the learned utility function.





 Let the robot interact with the world and receive the reward immediately. RL is inspired by animals. Animals learn the world via interactions!

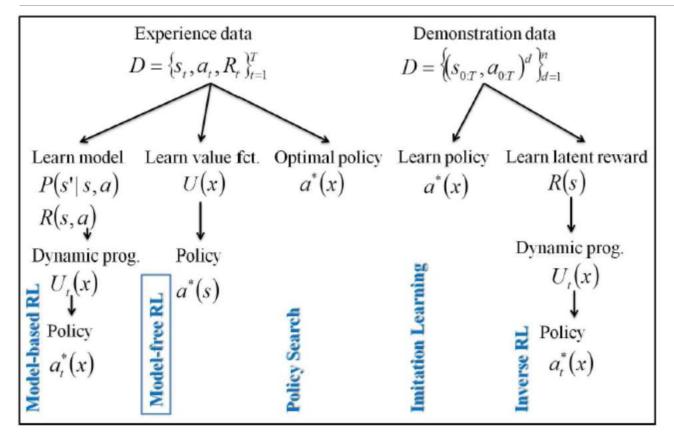


- During the past 10 years, robots are able to do amazing control tasks (~60 DOFs) using RL.
- In 2015, AlphaGo can beat the best human players.
- In 2015, AI can play 49 Atari games.
- RL+DL is the future of AI?

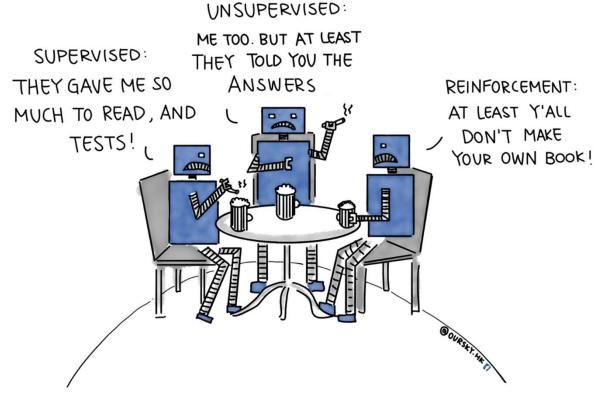




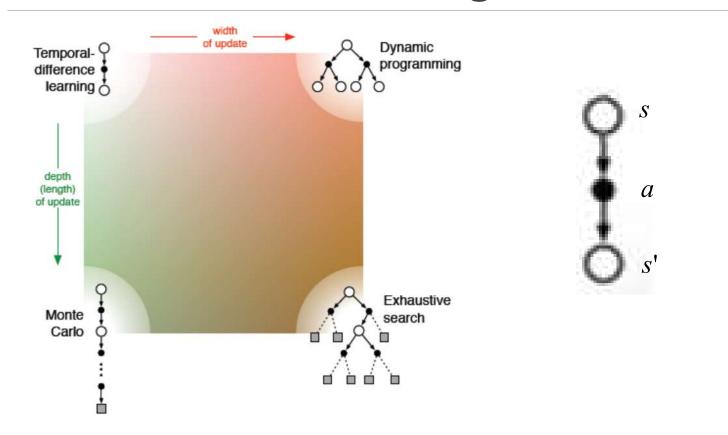




[1] Marc Toussaint. Machine learning and robotics. ICML tutorial, 2011.



From: Facebook OURSKY

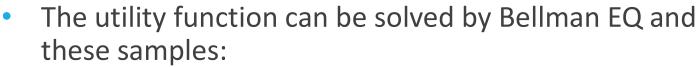


Richard S. Sutton and Andrew G. Barto, "Reinforcement Learning: An Introduction," MIT Press, 2nd edition, 2018.

Monte Carlo methods

- Monte Carlo approaches can be applied to compute the utility function.
- For example, there are some trial samples.

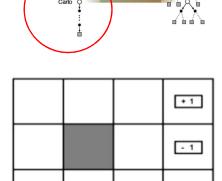
$$\begin{array}{l} (1,1) \text{-.04} \leadsto (1,2) \text{-.04} \leadsto (1,3) \text{-.04} \leadsto (1,2) \text{-.04} \leadsto (1,3) \text{-.04} \leadsto (2,3) \text{-.04} \leadsto (3,3) \text{-.04} \leadsto (4,3) \text{+1} \\ (1,1) \text{-.04} \leadsto (1,2) \text{-.04} \leadsto (1,3) \text{-.04} \leadsto (2,3) \text{-.04} \leadsto (3,3) \text{-.04} \leadsto (3,2) \text{-.04} \leadsto (3,3) \text{-.04} \leadsto (4,3) \text{+1} \\ (1,1) \text{-.04} \leadsto (2,1) \text{-.04} \leadsto (3,1) \text{-.04} \leadsto (3,2) \text{-.04} \leadsto (4,2) \text{-1} \end{array}.$$



$$U^{\pi}(s) = E\left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{t} R(S_{t})\right]$$

or

$$U(s) = R(s) + \gamma \max_{a} \left[\sum_{s'} U(s') P(s'|s,a) \right]$$



START

TD-learning

- Temporal-difference (TD) learning is proposed based on dynamic programming (DP) and Monte Carlo concepts.
- TD updates the utility function based on the difference of utility after each action. Hence, it needs a lot of samples (Monte Carlo) and updates parts of utility (DP) without reaching terminals.
- The updated equation of the utility function is as follows:

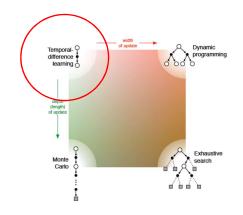
$$U(s) \leftarrow U(s) + \alpha (R(s) + \gamma U(s') - U(s))$$

U(s): utility function

R(s): reward

 α : learning rate

TD is a model free approach.



TD-learning

• Given an action (a), reward (R) and next state (s'), the robot updates U(s).

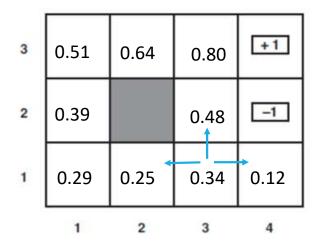
$$s = (3,1)$$

 $s' = (3,2)$
 $\gamma = 1, \alpha = 0.1$
 $U(s) \leftarrow U(s) + \alpha(R(s) + \gamma U(s') - U(s))$
 $U(s) \leftarrow 0.34 + 0.1(-0.04 + 0.48 - 0.34)$
 $U(s) = 0.35$
When $(R(s) + \gamma U(s') - U(s)) = 0$,
 $U(s)$ will not be updated.

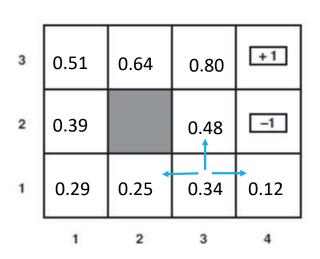
3	0.51	0.64	0.80	+1
2	0.39		0.48	-1
1	0.29	0.25	0.34	0.12
	1	2	3	4

TD-learning

- A disadvantage of TD is that it needs a lot of samples since the robot does not know what the next action is while collecting data.
- To improve TD, the robot needs a function with **actions** and **states** variables. $U(s) \rightarrow Q(s,a)$



- In Q-learning, the robot learns an **action-utility** function Q(s,a).
- With the learned Q function, the robot knows what the next best action is. Since Q-learning does not need transition probability and action section models, it is one of the *model-free* methods for reinforcement learning.



$$s = (3,1)$$

$$\begin{cases} Q(s, a = left) \\ Q(s, a = up) \\ Q(s, a = right) \end{cases}$$

Pick up the action with the maximal Q value

$$U(s) = \max_{a} Q(s, a)$$

Bellman equation: Assuming the agent chooses the optimal action, The utility of a state is the immediate reward for that state + the expected discounted utility of the next state.

$$U(s) = R(s) + \gamma \max_{a} \left[\sum_{s'} U(s') P(s'|s,a) \right]$$

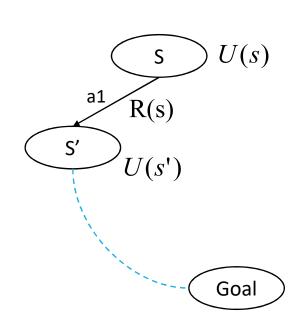
immediate reward expected discounted utility

Bellman equation of Q-learning

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

immediate reward expected discounted utility

$$Q(s,a) = R(s) + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s',a')$$



The TD learning can be extended to Q learning.

$$U(s) \leftarrow U(s) + \alpha (R(s) + \gamma U(s') - U(s))$$

TD learning

$$U(s) = \max_{a} Q(s, a)$$

$$U(s) = \max_{a} Q(s, a)$$

$$Q(s, a) \leftarrow Q(s, a) + \alpha \left(R(s) + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a') - Q(s, a) \right)$$

Q learning

or

$$Q(s,a) \leftarrow (1-\alpha)Q(s,a) + \alpha \left(R(s) + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s',a')\right)$$

Q(s,a): action – utility function (Q function)

R(s): reward

 α : learning rate

Q-learning

[GIVEN]

S: state

A: action

R(s,a): reward

 γ : discount

 α : learning rate

[Find]

Q(s,a): action – utility function (Q function)

 $U(s) = \max_{a} Q(s, a)$

 $\pi^* = \arg\max U^{\pi}(s)$

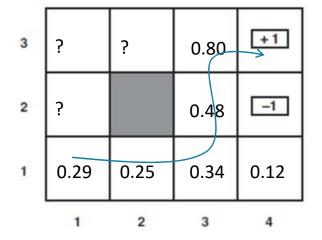
$$U^{\pi}(s) = E\left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{t} R(S_{t})\right]$$

$$Q(s,a) \leftarrow Q(s,a) + \alpha \left(R(s) + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s',a') - Q(s,a) \right)$$

- Trade-off between exploration and exploitation of the Q function.
- If the robot always select the action with the maximal utility, it could follow the same path without exploring other paths.

• ϵ -greedy was proposed to solve this issue. The robot will action randomly with ϵ probability and select best action with (1- ϵ)

probability.





Exploration: Random actions

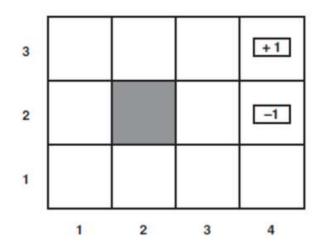
$$Q(s, a = up)$$

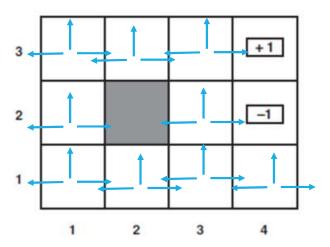
$$Q(s, a = left)$$

$$Q(s, a = right)$$

Exploitation:
Pick up the best action based on Q

 Although Q(s,a) can provide the utility of each action at each state, it means there are more values to learn!



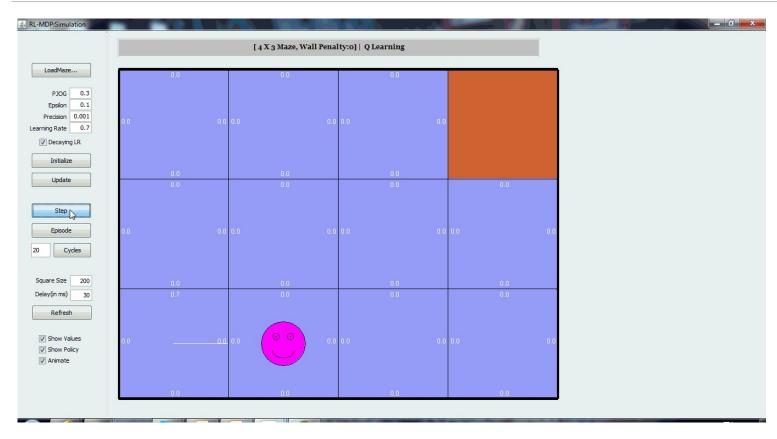


U(s): There are 9 values to learn.

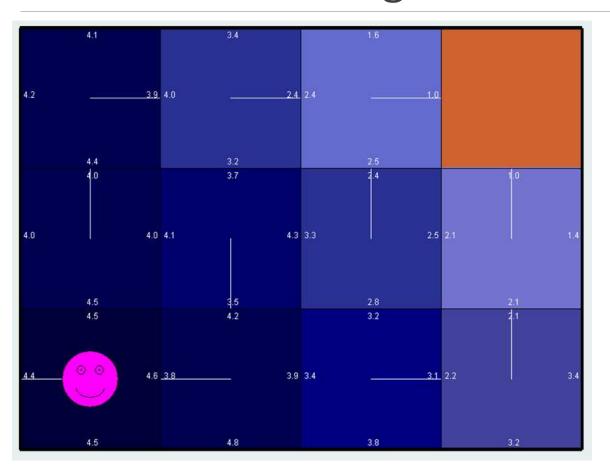
Q(s,a): There are 9*3 values to learn.

There are $|S| \cdot |A|$ values in Q table

|S|:# of states, |A|:# of actions



http://www.cs.cmu.edu/~awm/rlsim/



This is similar to HW3 P1.

- Disadvantage of tubular Q-learning
 - 1. Storage space: |S|X|A|
 - 2. Exploration time
 - 3. Convergence time
- If the state space and action space is larger, the Q function is difficult to converge.
- To solve these issues, function-based Q learning was proposed.
 The Q function can be approximated by functions.

- To improve tubular Q learning, function approximation was adopted.
- There are two kinds of approximations
- Parametric approximation:
 - The parametric approximators are mappings from a parameter space to the space Q functions. For example, polynomial basis (feature) is a popular approach.
- Nonparametric approximation:
 - The non parametric approximators are derived from the available data. For example, Gaussian processes (GP) and neural network (NN) are popular after 2005.

- Parametric approximation:
- The Q function is approximated by some features.

$$Q(s,a) = \sum_{i} w_{i} f_{i}(s,a)$$

w: weighting vector

f : features

- How to find w? → gradient descent
- How to find f? → hand crafting

- There are two ways to compute W:
- Offline approach: least square (pseudo inverse)

$$\min \left[Q(s, a) - Q(s, a) \right]^2 = \min \left[(Y - WF)^T (Y - WF) \right]$$

$$W = \left(F^T F \right)^{-1} F^T Y$$

Online approach: gradient descent (online least-squares)

$$E = \frac{1}{2} \left[(Y - WF)^T (Y - WF) \right] \Rightarrow w_i \leftarrow w_i - \alpha \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_i}$$

$$w_i \leftarrow w_i + \alpha \left[R(s) + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a') - Q(s, a) \right] \frac{\partial Q(s, a)}{\partial w_i}$$

Online approach: gradient descent (online least-squares)

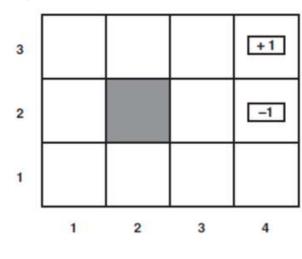
$$\begin{aligned} w_i &\leftarrow w_i + \alpha \Big[R(s) + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a') - Q(s, a) \Big] \frac{\partial Q(s, a)}{\partial w_i} \\ EX: \end{aligned}$$

$$Q(s,a) = w_0 + w_1 x + w_2 y$$

$$w_0 \leftarrow w_0 + \alpha \Big[R(s) + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s',a') - Q(s,a) \Big]$$

$$w_1 \leftarrow w_1 + \alpha \Big[R(s) + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s',a') - Q(s,a) \Big] x$$

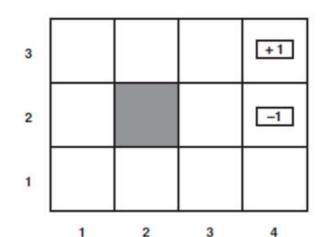
$$w_2 \leftarrow w_2 + \alpha \Big[R(s) + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s',a') - Q(s,a) \Big] y$$

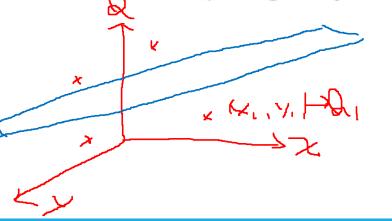


- How to find good features?
 - The distance between the robot and the goal (4,3)
 - Polynomial terms of x and y

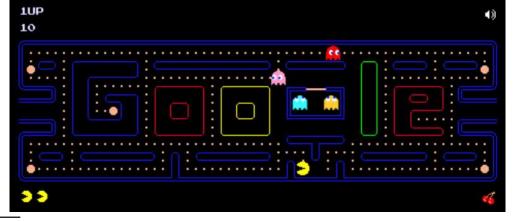
$$Q(s,a) = \sum_{i} w_{i} f_{i}(s,a)$$

$$= \underline{w_0} + \underline{w_1}x + \underline{w_2}y + w_3\sqrt{(x - x_g)^2 + (y - y_g)^2}$$





- How to find good features for Pac-Man?
 - Distance to closest ghost
 - Distance to closest dot
 - Number of ghosts
 - 1 / (dist to dot)^2
 - ...etc.



$$Q(s,a) = w_0 + w_1 \sqrt{(x - x_g)^2 + (y - y_g)^2}$$

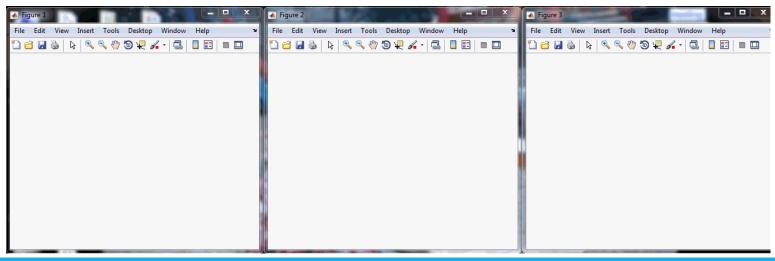
$$+ w_2 \sqrt{(x - x_d)^2 + (y - y_d)^2}$$

$$+ w_3 \left(1/(x - x_d)^2 + (y - y_d)^2\right)$$

Q-learning using 5 features

$$Q(s,a) = \sum w_i f_i$$

- Basis functions
 - Constant
 - Distance
 - Delta_theta
 - UPPER
 - Turn



- Function-based Q learning works but humans need to find features (hand crafting).
- Finding good features is the key to function-based Q learning.
- As aforementioned examples, we need domain knowledge to find good features. This processing is called feature engineering.
- The features worked well for A problem could not work for B problem.
- Hence, researchers also adopted nonparametric approximation (GP and NN) for Q learning.

Q learning (Tabular v.s. function approximation)

$$1.\operatorname{run} a = \max_{a} Q(s, a)$$

8 Storage space

2. get reward R(s,a)

Exploration time

8 Convergence time

$$\left[3.Q(s,a) \leftarrow Q(s,a) + \alpha \left[R(s,a) + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s',a') - Q(s,a)\right]\right]$$

$$Q(s,a) = \sum w_i f_i$$

Storage space ↓

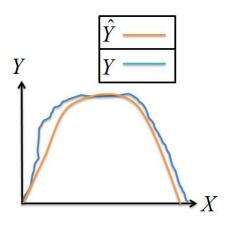
○ Convergence time ↓

ML techniques

⊗ Find features?

 $1.\operatorname{run} a = \max Q(s, a)$

$$3. w_i \leftarrow w_i + \alpha \left[R(s, a) + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a') - Q(s, a) \right] f_i$$



- Function-based Q learning works but humans need to find features (hand crafting).
- Issues of RL:
 - Credit assignment issues
 - Exploration and exploitation

Linear regression

- The principles of the theory are derived, as are those of rational mechanics, from a very small number of primary facts.
 - Joseph Fourier, 1878

$$y = w_0 \bullet 1 + w_1 \bullet \cos(\omega_1 x) + w_2 \bullet \sin(\omega_2 x)$$
$$y = w_0 \bullet 1 + w_1 \bullet x + w_2 \bullet x^2 + \dots$$
$$y = w_0 \bullet 1 + w_1 \bullet f_1(x) + w_2 \bullet f_2(x) + \dots$$

 These functions are called "basis." Linear regression is to find the weighting vector.

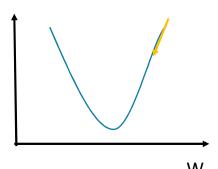
Linear regression

A popular approach is to minimize the least square: ^E

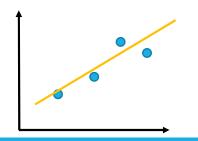
E=
$$(y-y)^{T}(y-y)=(y-WF)^{T}(y-WF)$$

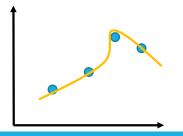
$$\min \left[Q(s,a) - Q(s,a) \right]^2 = \min \left[(Y - WF)^T (Y - WF) \right]$$

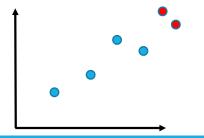
$$W = (F^T F)^{-1} F^T Y$$

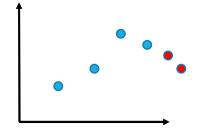


- Offline approach: least square (pseudo inverse)
- Online approach: gradient descent (online least-squares)
- Another issue is overfitting. The regression try to fit the training data.









Regularization is a way to avoid overfitting issues.

$$\cos t(h) = Loss(h) + \lambda Complexity(h)$$

Complexity
$$(h_w) = L_q(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_i |w_i|^q$$

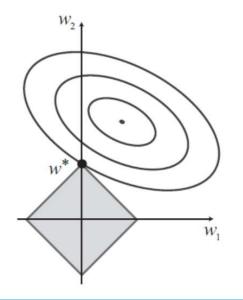
For example,

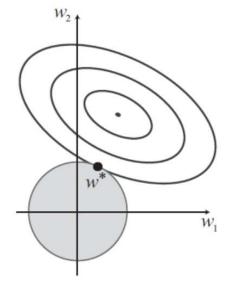
$$\min \left[(Y - WX)^2 + \lambda |W|^2 \right] ... L2 \text{ norm}$$

$$\min \left[(Y - WX)^2 + \lambda |W| \right] ... L1 \text{ norm}$$

 These two minimization problems can be solved by gradient descent approaches.

- L1 norm and L2 norm.
- L1 norm has the sparse property! L1 norm is applied to sparse learning, which is to learn the weighting and enforce elements of weighting vector are 0. (Feature selection!)

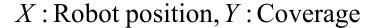




Coverage function approximation

Given: (Xi,Yi), i=1~m, Xi={xi,yi}

• Find: W robot1 robot2



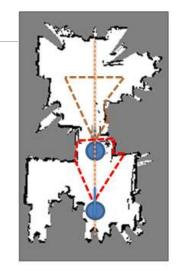
$$Y_{(m,1)} = X_{(m,n)} W_{(n,1)}$$

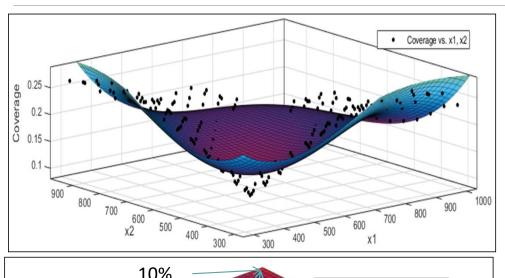
$$Y = w_0 1 + w_1 x + w_2 x^2 + w_3 x^3 + w_4 xy + w_5 xy^2 + w_6 x^2 y + w_7 y + w_8 y^2 + w_9 y^3$$

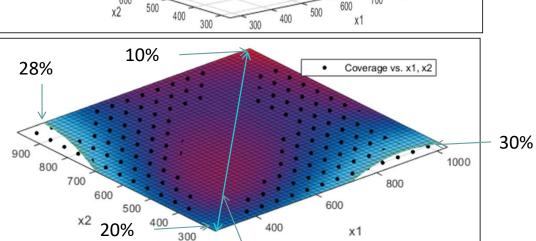
$$W = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y$$
 1. Pseudo inverse \rightarrow overfitting?

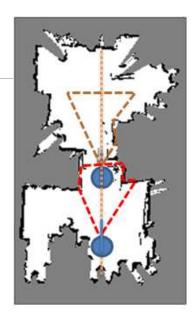
or

$$\mathbf{w}_{k+1} = \tau_{\lambda t} \Big(\mathbf{w}_k - 2t \mathbf{X}^T (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}_k - \mathbf{Y}) \Big)$$
 2. ISTA (L1 norm) \rightarrow feature selection Iterative Shrinkage-Thresholding algorithm

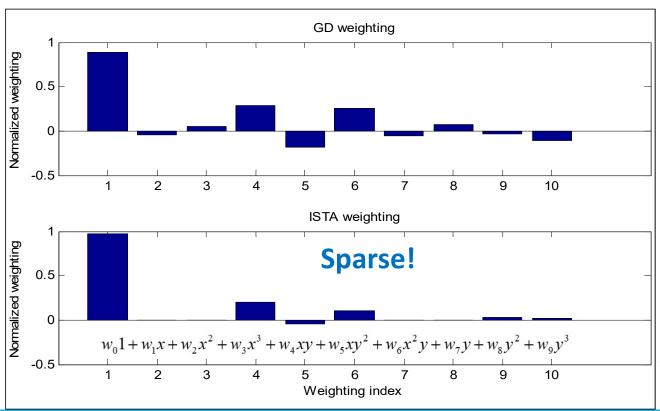






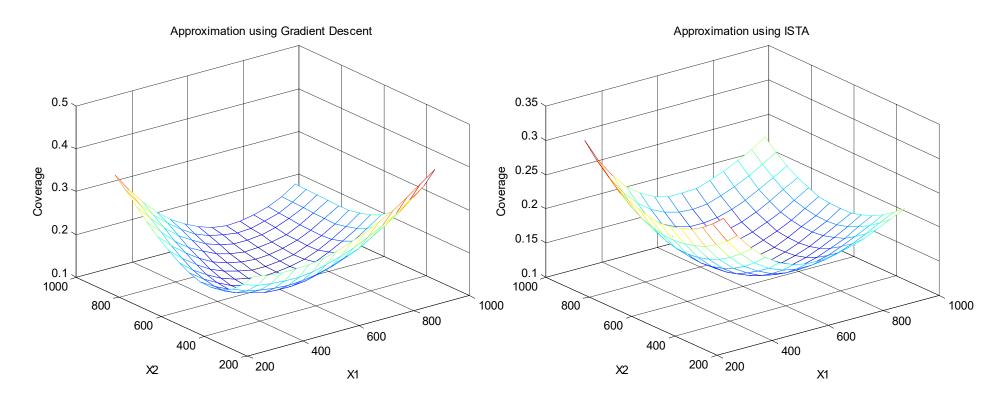


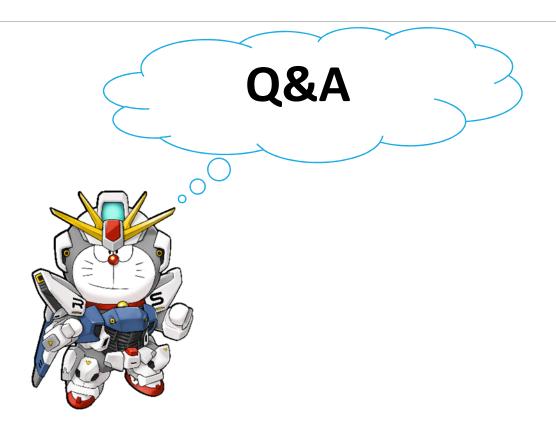
Results:



$$\lambda = 0.0005$$

Results:





Appendix – More about RL

- On-policy (sarsa) v.s. off-policy
- Policy gradient
- Actor-critic

Appendix

- "You don't learn to walk by following rules. You learn by doing, and by falling over."
 - Richard Branson, Entrepreneur