Reinforcement Learning

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Reinforcement Learning

Ziel:

 Lernen von Bewertungsfunktionen durch Feedback (Reinforcement) der Umwelt (z.B. Spiel gewonnen/verloren).

Anwendungen:

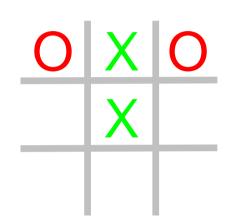
- Spiele:
 - Tic-Tac-Toe: MENACE (Michie 1963)
 - Backgammon: TD-Gammon (Tesauro 1995)
 - Schach: KnightCap (Baxter et al. 2000)

Andere:

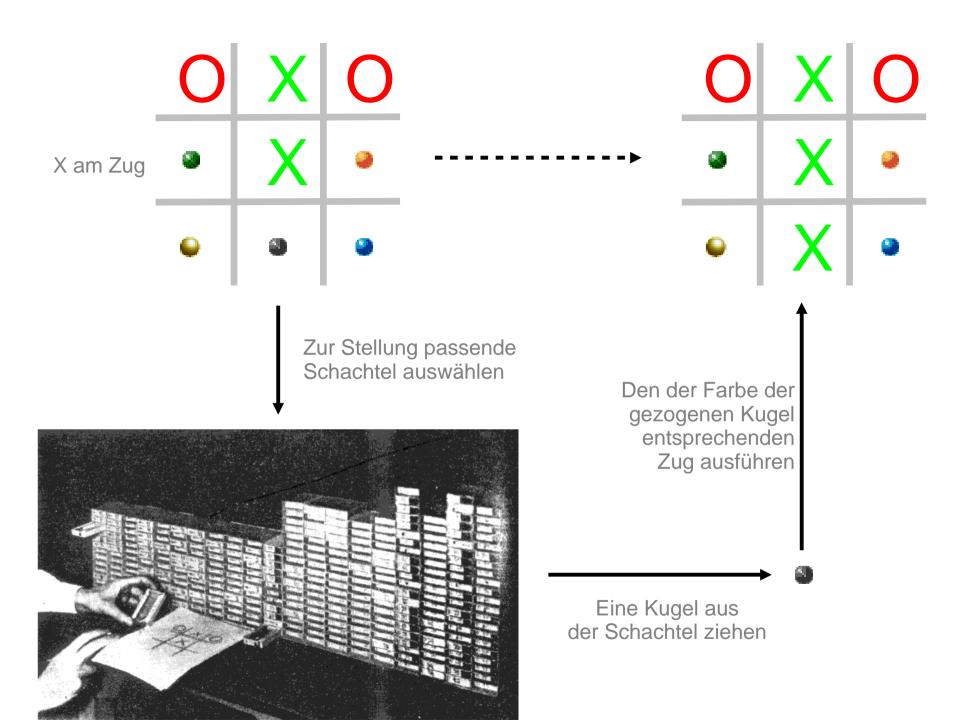
- Elevator Dispatching
- Robot Control
- Job-Shop Scheduling

MENACE (Michie, 1963)

- Lernt Tic-Tac-Toe zu spielen
- Hardware:
 - 287 Zündholzschachteln (1 für jede Stellung)
 - Perlen in 9 verschiedenen Farbe (1 Farbe für jedes Feld)



- Spiel-Algorithmus:
 - Wähle Zündholzschachtel, die der Stellung entspricht
 - Ziehe zufällig eine der Perlen
 - Ziehe auf das Feld, das der Farbe der Perle entspricht
- Implementation: http://www.codeproject.com/KB/cpp/ccross.aspx



Reinforcement Learning in MENACE

- Initialisierung
 - alle Züge sind gleich wahrscheinlich, i.e., jede Schachtel enthält gleich viele Perlen für alle möglichen Züge
- Lern-Algorithmus:
 - Spiel verloren → gezogene Perlen werden einbehalten (negative reinforcement)
 - Spiel gewonnen → eine Perle der gezogenen Farbe wird in verwendeten Schachteln hinzugefügt (positive reinforcement)
 - Spiel remis → Perlen werden zurückgelegt (keine Änderung)
- führt zu
 - Erhöhung der Wahrscheinlichkeit, daß ein erfolgreicher Zug wiederholt wird
 - Senkung der Wahrscheinlichkeit, daß ein nicht erfolgreicher Zug wiederholt wird

Credit Assignment Problem

- Delayed Reward
 - Der Lerner merkt erst am Ende eines Spiels, daß er verloren (oder gewonnen) hat
 - Der Lerner weiß aber nicht, welcher Zug den Verlust (oder Gewinn verursacht hat)
 - oft war der Fehler schon am Anfang des Spiels, und die letzten Züge waren gar nicht schlecht
- Lösung in Reinforcement Learning:
 - Alle Züge der Partie werden belohnt bzw. bestraft (Hinzufügen bzw. Entfernen von Perlen)
 - Durch zahlreiche Spiele konvergiert dieses Verfahren
 - schlechte Züge werden seltener positiv verstärkt werden
 - gute Züge werden öfter positiv verstärkt werden

Reinforcement Learning - Formalization

- Learning Scenario
 - a learning agent
 - S: a set of possible states
 - A: a set of possible actions
 - a state transition function $\delta: S \times A \to S$
 - a reward function $r: S \times A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
- Enviroment:
 - the agent repeatedly chooses an action according to some policy π: S → A
 - this will put the agent into a new state according to δ
 - in some states the agent receives feedback from the environment (reinforcement)

- Markov property
 - rewards and state transitions only depend on last state
 - not on how you got into this state

MENACE - Formalization

- Framework
 - states = matchboxes
 - actions = moves/beads
 - policy = prefer actions with higher number of beads
 - reward = game won/ game lost
 - delayed reward: we don't know right away whether a move was good or bad

Learning Task

find a policy that maximizes the cumulative reward

- delayed reward
 - reward for actions may not come immediately (e.g., game playing)
 - modeled as: every state s_i gives a reward r_i , but most $r_i=0$
- goal: maximize cumulative reward $R_t = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} y^k r_{t+k+1}$
 - reward from "now" until the end of time
 - immediate rewards are weighted higher, rewards further in the future are discounted (discount factor γ)
- training examples
 - generated by interacting with the environment (trial and error)
 - Note:
 - training examples are not supervised (s, a_{max})
 - training examples are of the form (s,a,r)

Optimal Policies and Value Functions

- Each policy can be assigned a value
 - the cumulative expected reward that the agent receives when it follows that policy $s_{t+1} = \delta(s_t, a_t)$

$$V^{\pi}(s_{t}) = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} y^{i} r_{t+i} = r_{t} + y r_{t+1} + y^{2} r_{t+2} \dots = r_{t} + y (r_{t+1} + y r_{t+2} + \dots) = r(s_{t}, a_{t}) + y V^{\pi}(\delta(s_{t}, a_{t}))$$

- Optimal policy
 - the policy with the highest expected value for all states s

$$\pi^* = arg \max_{\pi} V^{\pi}(s)$$

• learning an optimal value function $V^*(s)$ yields an optimal policy

$$\pi^*(s) = arg max_a[r(s, a) + \gamma V^*(\delta(s, a))]$$

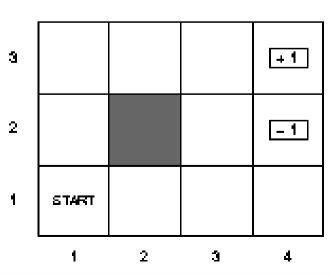
- We can try to learn the policy or the value function by starting with some function and iteratively improving it
 - policy iteration / value iteration

Unknown Actions and Rewards

- In many problems we might not know the effects of actions (δ) or the reward functions (r)
 - don't know which states are good
 - don't know which actions lead to which states
 - actions may also be indeterministic
 - → must try out actions to learn their effects

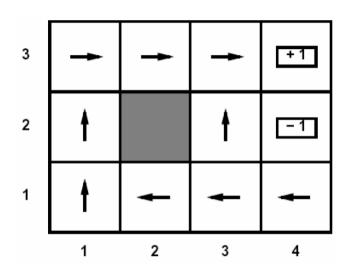
Example:

- learn to navigate in a simple tile world
- Actions:
 - go left/right/up/down,
 - may fail (but we don't know how)
 - each action costs a small amount
- Goal:
 - get to the upper right corner quickly
 - but don't fall into the pit below



Policy Evaluation

- Simplified task
 - ullet we don't know δ
 - we don't know r
 - but we are given a policy π
 - i.e., we have a function that gives us an action in each state



- Goal:
 - learn the value of each states
- Note:
 - here we have no choice about the actions to take
 - we just execute the policy and observe what happens

Policy Evaluation – Example

Episodes:

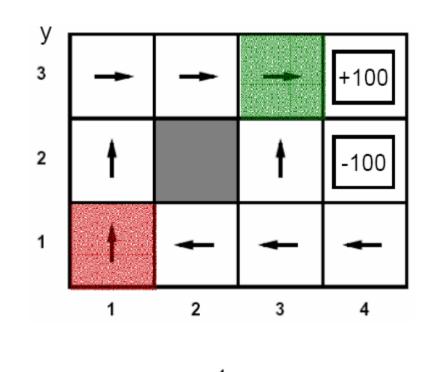
$$(1,2)$$
 up -1

$$(1,2)$$
 up -1

$$(4,3)$$
 exit +100

(done)

Actions are indeterministic!



$$\gamma = 1$$
,

$$V^{\pi}(1,1) \leftarrow (92 + -106)/2 = -7$$

$$V^{\pi}(3,3) \leftarrow (99+97+-102)/3 = 31.3$$

Q-function

- the Q-function does not evaluate states, but evaluates stateaction pairs
- The Q-function for a given policy π
 - is the cumulative reward for starting in s, applying action a, and, in the resulting state s', play according to π

$$Q^{\pi}(s,a) := r(s,a) + \gamma V^{\pi}(s') \qquad [s' = \delta(s,a)]$$

- For indeterministic actions:
 - The function δ does not map to a single successor action
 - but may be modeled as a probability distribution P(s'|s,a) over all possible successor states
 - the Q-function then needs to compute an expected value

$$Q^{\pi}(s, a) := r(s, a) + \gamma \sum_{s'} P(s' | s, a) V^{\pi}(s')$$

for the moment we stick with the deterministic case

Policy Iteration

- Policy Improvement Theorem
 - if it is true that selecting the first action in each state according to a policy π ' and continuing with policy π is better than always following π then π ' is a better policy than π

$$V^{\pi'}(s) \ge V^{\pi}(s) \Leftrightarrow Q^{\pi}(s, \pi'(s)) \ge V^{\pi}(s)$$

- Policy Improvement
 - always select the action that maximizes the Q-function of the current policy

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

- Policy Iteration
 - Interleave steps of policy evaluation with policy improvement

$$\pi_0 \stackrel{\mathbf{F}}{\longrightarrow} V^{\pi_0} \stackrel{\mathbf{I}}{\longrightarrow} \pi_1 \stackrel{\mathbf{F}}{\longrightarrow} V^{\pi_1} \stackrel{\mathbf{I}}{\longrightarrow} \pi_2 \stackrel{\mathbf{F}}{\longrightarrow} \cdots \stackrel{\mathbf{I}}{\longrightarrow} \pi^* \stackrel{\mathbf{F}}{\longrightarrow} V^*,$$

Value Iteration

- Policy Iteration works, but it involves frequent steps of policy evaluations
 - may be expensive
 - we have to run the agent several times before the estimates of V^{π} converge
- Value Iteration directly updates a value function \hat{V}

$$\hat{V}(s) \leftarrow \max_{a} Q^{\hat{V}}(s, a) = \max_{a} \left(r(s, a) + \gamma \hat{V}(s') \right)$$

 In practice, value iteration is much faster per iteration, but policy iteration takes fewer iterations.

Model-Free Reinforcement Learning

 Both, Value and Policy Iteration need the maximal Q-function for each action

$$Q(s,a) := r(s,a) + \gamma V(s') \qquad [s' = \delta(s,a)]$$

- BUT
 - for computing this maximum we need to know the functions r and δ
 - i.e., we need a model of the world
- Can we learn to act without having a model of the world?

Simple Approach: Learn the Model from Data

Episodes:

(1,1) up -1

(1,1) up -1

(1,2) up -1

(1,2) up -1

(1,2) up -1

(1,3) right -1

(1,3) right -1

(2,3) right -1

(2,3) right -1

(3,3) right -1

(3,3) right -1

(3,2) up -1

(3,2) up -1

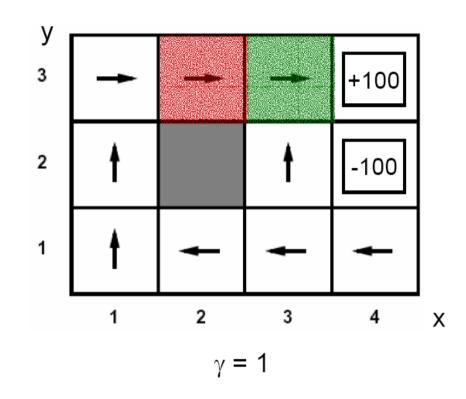
(4,2) exit -100

(3,3) right -1

(4,3) exit +100

(done)

(done)



$$P((4,3) | (3,3), right) = 1/3$$

$$P((3,3)|(2,3), right)=2/2$$

But do we really need to learn the transition model?

Optimal Q-function

 the optimal Q-function is the cumulative reward for starting in s, applying action a, and, in the resulting state s', play optimally

$$Q(s,a) := r(s,a) + \gamma V^*(s')$$
 $[s' = \delta(s,a)]$

- \rightarrow the optimal value function is the maximal Q-function over all possible actions in a state $V^*(s) = max_a Q(s, a)$
- Bellman equation: $Q(s, a) = r(s, a) + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a')$
 - the value of the Q-function for the current state s and an action a is the same as the sum of
 - the reward in the current state s for the chosen action a
 - the (discounted) value of the Q-function for the best action that I can play in the successor state s'

Better Approach: Directly Learning the Q-function

- Basic strategy:
 - start with some function \hat{Q} , and update it after each step
 - in MENACE: \hat{Q} returns for each box s and each action a the number of beads in the box
- update rule:
 - the Bellman equation will in general not hold for \hat{Q} i.e., the left side and the right side will be different
 - \rightarrow new value of $\hat{Q}(s,a)$ is a weighted sum of both sides
 - weighted by a learning rate α

$$\hat{Q}(s,a) \leftarrow (1-\alpha)\hat{Q}(s,a) + \alpha(r(s,a) + \gamma \max_{a'} \hat{Q}(s',a'))$$

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

new Q-value for state *s* and action *a*

old Q-value for this state/action pair

predicted Q-value for state s' and action a'

Q-learning (Watkins, 1989)

- 1. initialize all $\hat{Q}(s, a)$ with 0
- 2. observe current state s
- 3. loop
 - 1. select an action a and execute it
 - 2. receive the immediate reward and observe the new state s'
 - 3. update the table entry

$$\hat{Q}(s,a) \leftarrow \hat{Q}(s,a) + \alpha \left[(\underline{r(s,a) + \gamma \max_{a'} \hat{Q}(s',a')}) - \hat{\underline{Q}(s,a)} \right]$$
4. $s = s'$

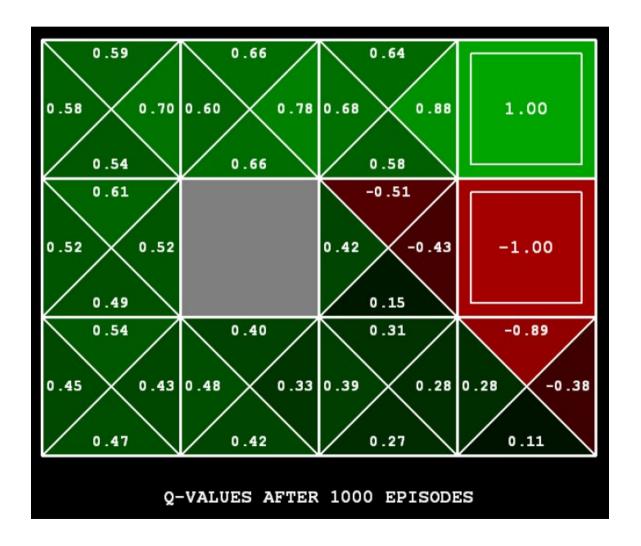
Temporal Difference:

Difference between the estimate of the value of a state/action pair before and after performing the action.

→ Temporal Difference Learning

Example: Maze

Q-Learning will produce the following values



Miscellaneous

- Weight Decay:
 - α decreases over time, e.g. $\alpha = \frac{1}{1 + visits(s, a)}$
- Convergence:

it can be shown that Q-learning converges

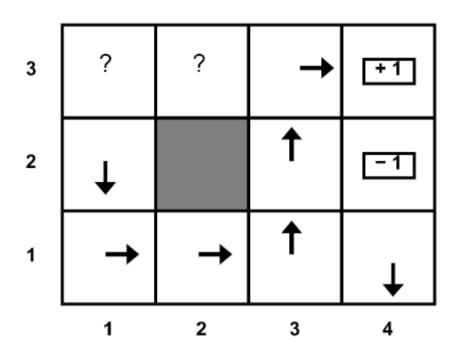
- if every state/action pair is visited infinitely often
 - not very realistic for large state/action spaces
 - but it typically converges in practice under less restricting conditions

Representation

- in the simplest case, $\hat{Q}(s,a)$ is realized with a look-up table with one entry for each state/action pair
- a better idea would be to have trainable function, so that experience in some part of the space can be generalized
- special training algorithms for, e.g., neural networks exist

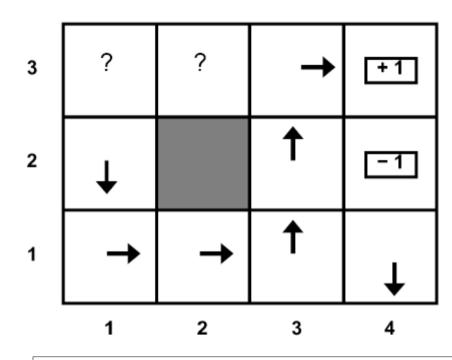
Exploration vs. Exploitation

- Imagine we find the lower path to the good exit first
- Some states will never be visited following this policy from (1,1)
- We'll keep re-using this policy because following it never collects the regions of the model we need to learn the optimal policy



Exploration vs. Exploitation

- Problem with following optimal policy for current model:
 - Never learn about better regions of the space if current policy neglects them
- Fundamental tradeoff: exploration vs. exploitation
 - Exploration: must take actions with suboptimal estimates to discover new rewards and increase eventual utility
 - Exploitation: once the true optimal policy is learned, exploration reduces utility
 - Systems must explore in the beginning and exploit in the limit



ε-greedy policies

- choose random action with probability ε , otherwise greedy
- reduce ε over time

SARSA

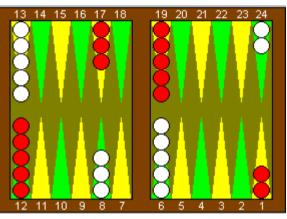
- performs on-policy updates
 - update rule assumes action a' is chosen according to current policy

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

 convergence if the policy gradually moves towards a policy that is greedy with respect to the current Q-function

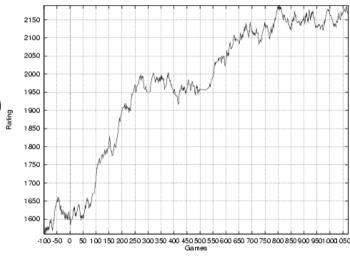
TD-Gammon (Tesauro, 1995)

- weltmeisterliches Backgammon-Programm
 - Entwicklung von Anfänger zu einem weltmeisterlichen Spieler nach 1,500,000 Trainings-Spiele gegen sich selbst (!)
 - Verlor 1998 WM-Kampf über 100 Spiele knapp mit 8 Punkten
 - Führte zu Veränderungen in der Backgammon-Theorie und ist ein beliebter Trainings- und Analyse-Partner der Spitzenspieler
- Verbesserungen gegenüber MENACE:
 - Schnellere Konvergenz durch Temporal-Difference Learning
 - Neurales Netz statt Schachteln und Perlen erlaubt Generalisierung
 - Verwendung von Stellungsmerkmalen als Features



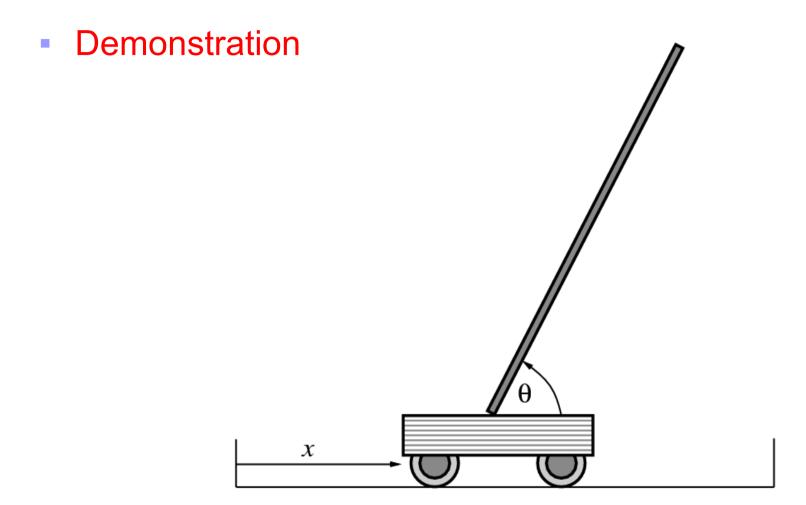
KnightCap (Baxter et al. 2000)

- Lernt meisterlich Schach zu spielen
 - Verbesserung von 1650 Elo (Anfänger) auf 2150 Elo (guter Club-Spieler) in nur ca. 1000 Spielen am Internet



- Verbesserungen gegenüber TD-Gammon:
 - Integration von TD-learning mit den tiefen Suchen, die für Schach erforderlich sind
 - Training durch Spielen gegen sich selbst → Training durch Spielen am Internet

Cart – Pole balancing



http://www.bovine.net/~jlawson/hmc/pole/sane.html

Inverted Pendulum

Demo



http://www.eecg.utoronto.ca/~aamodt/BAScThesis/

Reinforcement Learning Resources

- Book
 - On-line Textbook on Reinforcement learning
 - http://www.cs.ualberta.ca/~sutton/book/the-book.html
- More Demos
 - Grid world
 - http://thierry.masson.free.fr/IA/en/qlearning applet.htm
 - Robot learns to crawl
 - http://www.applied-mathematics.net/qlearning/qlearning.html
- Reinforcement Learning Repository
 - tutorial articles, applications, more demos, etc.
 - http://www-anw.cs.umass.edu/rlr/
- RL-Glue (Open Source RL Programming framework)
 - http://glue.rl-community.org/

On-line Search Agents

- Off-line Search
 - find a complete solution before setting a foot in the real world
- On-line Search
 - interleaves computation of solution and action
 - good in (semi-)dynamic and stochastic domains
 - on-line versions of search algorithms can only expand the current node (because they are physically located there)
 - depth-first search and local methods are directly applicable
 - some techniques like random restarts etc. are not available
- On-line search is necessary for exploration problems
 - Example: constructing a map of an unknown building

Dead Ends & Adversary Argument

- No on-line agent is able to always avoid dead ends in all state spaces
 - dead-ends: cliffs, staircases, ...
- Example:
 - no agent that has visited
 S and A can can discriminate between the two choices



- imagine that an adversary constructs the state space while the agent explores it
- and puts the goals and dead ends wherever it likes
- → We will assume that the search space is safely explorable
 - i.e., no dead-ends

