CS 5/7320 Artificial Intelligence

Reinforcement Learning AIMA Chapter 17+22

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Remember Chapter 16:

Making Simple Decisions



For a decision that we make frequently and making it once does not affect the future decisions (episodic environment), we can use the Principle of Maximum Expected Utility (MEU).

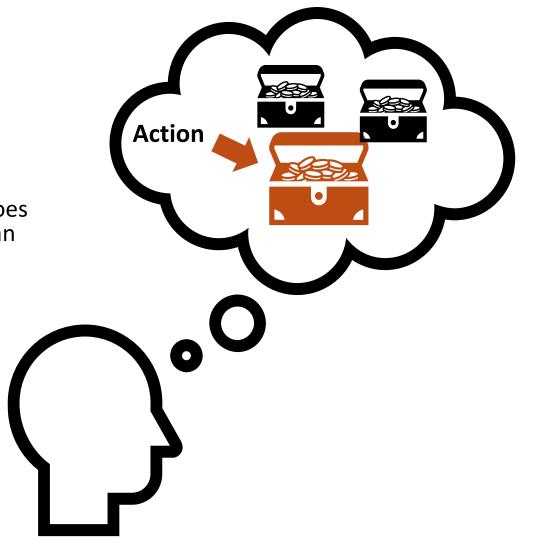
Given the expected utility of an action

$$EU(a) = \sum_{s'} \sum_{s} P(s) P(s'|s,a) U(s')$$

choose action that maximizes the expected utility:

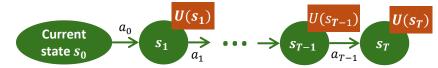
$$a^* = \operatorname{argmax}_a EU(a)$$

Now we will talk about sequential decision making.

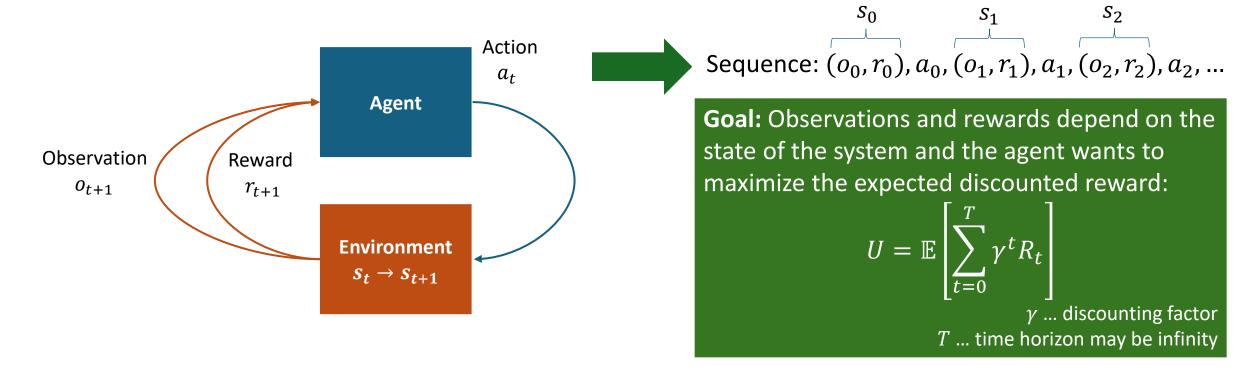


Making Complex Decisions: Sequential Decision Making AIMA Chapter 17

Sequential Decision Problems



- Utility-based agent: The agent's utility depends on a sequence of decisions that depend on each other.
- Sequential decision problems incorporate utilities (called reward), uncertainty, and sensing.



Definition: Markov Decision Process (MDP)

MDPs are sequential decision problems with

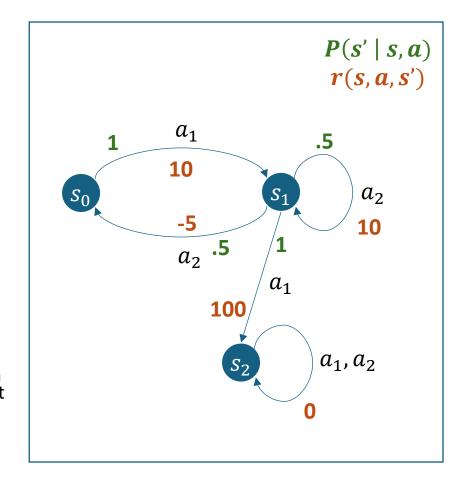
- a fully observable, stochastic, and known environment;
- a Markovian transition model (i.e., future states do not depend on past states give the current state);
- additive rewards.

MDPs are discrete-time stochastic control processes defines by:

- a finite set of **states** $S = \{s_0, s_1, s_2, ...\}$ (initial state s_0)
- a set of available **actions** ACTIONS(s) in each state s
- a transition model P(s' | s, a) where $a \in ACTIONS(s)$
- a **reward function** r(s) where the reward depends on the current state (often r(s,a,s') is used to make modelling easier)

Time horizon

- Infinite horizon: non-episodic (continuous) tasks with no terminal state.
- **Finite horizon**: episodic tasks. Episode ends after a number of periods or when a terminal state is reached. Episodes contain a sequence of several actions that affect each other.



This is different from the previous definition of an **episodic** environment!

Example: 4x3 Grid World

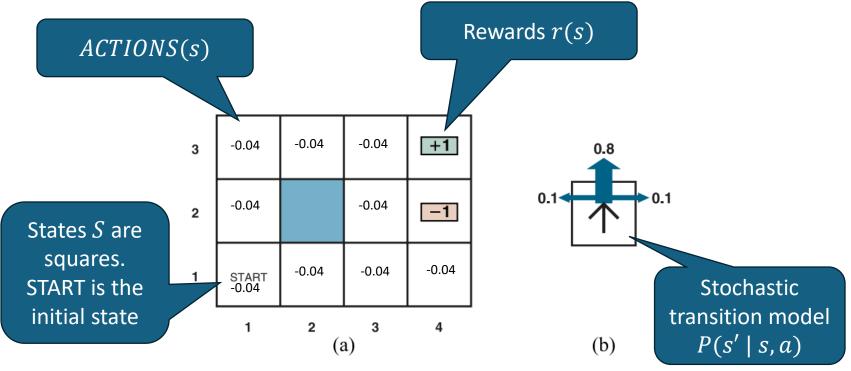


Figure 17.1 (a) A simple, stochastic 4×3 environment that presents the agent with a sequential decision problem. (b) Illustration of the transition model of the environment: the "intended" outcome occurs with probability 0.8, but with probability 0.2 the agent moves at right angles to the intended direction. A collision with a wall results in no movement. Transitions into the two terminal states have reward +1 and -1, respectively, and all other transitions have a reward of -0.04.

Since we know the complete MDP model, we can solve this as a planning problem.

For each square: specify what direction should we try to go to maximize the expected total utility.

This is called a **policy** written as the function

 $\pi: S \to ACTIONS(S)$

Policy

S	Action $\pi(s)$	
(1,1)	Up	
•••	•••	

Value Function

- A policy $\pi = {\pi(s_0), \pi(s_1), ...}$ defines for each state which action to take.
- The expected utility of being in state s under policy π (i.e., following the policy starting from s) can be calculated as the sum:

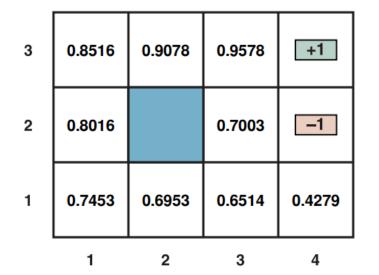
$$U^{\pi}(s) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{t} r(s_{t}) | s_{0} = s \right]$$

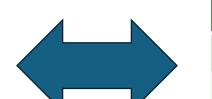
• $U^{\pi}(s)$ (often also written as V(s)) is called **the value function**. It is often stored as a table.

 γ is a discounting factor to give more weight to immediate rewards.

 E_{π} is the expectation over sequences that can be created by following π .

Value Function





S	Value U(s)	
(1,1)	0.7453	
(1,2)	0.8016	

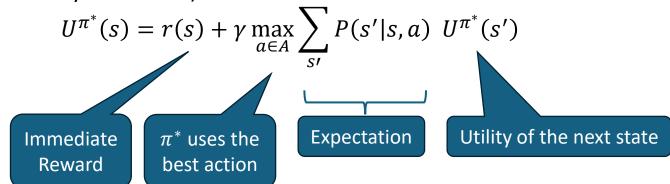
Value Function

Planning: Finding the Optimal Policy

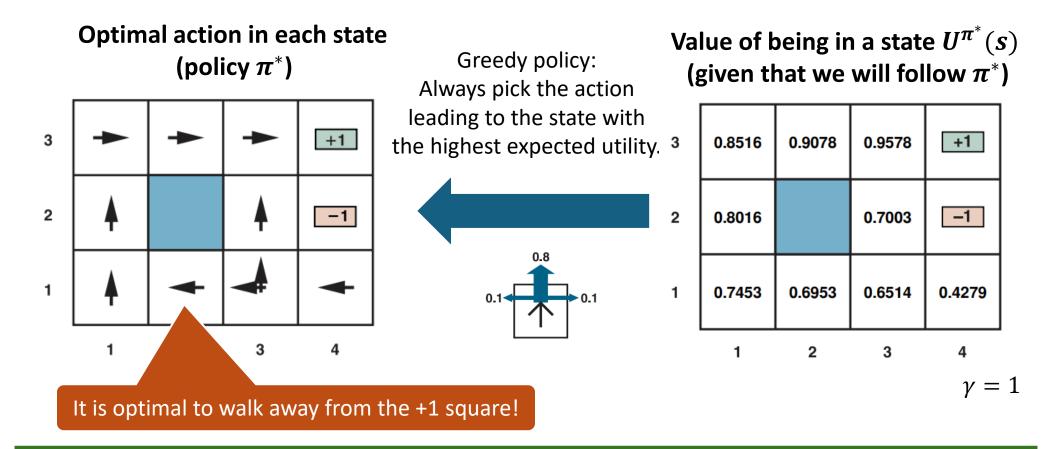
• The goal of solving an MDP is to find an optimal policy π that maximizes the expected future utility for each state

$$\pi^*(s) = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\pi} U^{\pi}(s) \quad \text{for all } s \in S$$

- Issue: π^* depends on U^{π} and vice versa!
- The problem can be formulated recursively using the **Bellman equation** which holds for the optimal value function U ("Bellman optimality condition"):



Solution: 4x3 Grid World



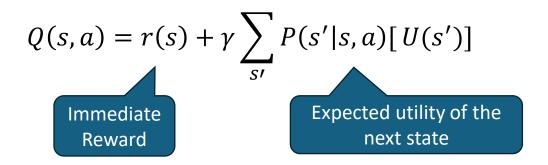
How to we find the optimal value function/optimal policy?

Policy Iteration

Value Iteration

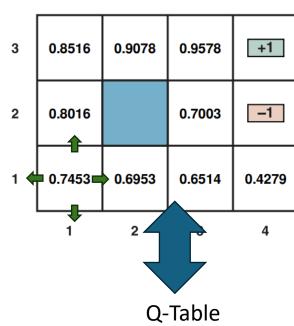
Q-Function

• Q(s,a) is called the state-action value function. It gives the expected utility of taking action a in state s and then following the policy.



- The Relationship with the state value function: $U(s) = \max_{a} Q(s, a)$
- The Q-function lets us compare the value of taking an action is a given state and is often used for convenience in algorithms.

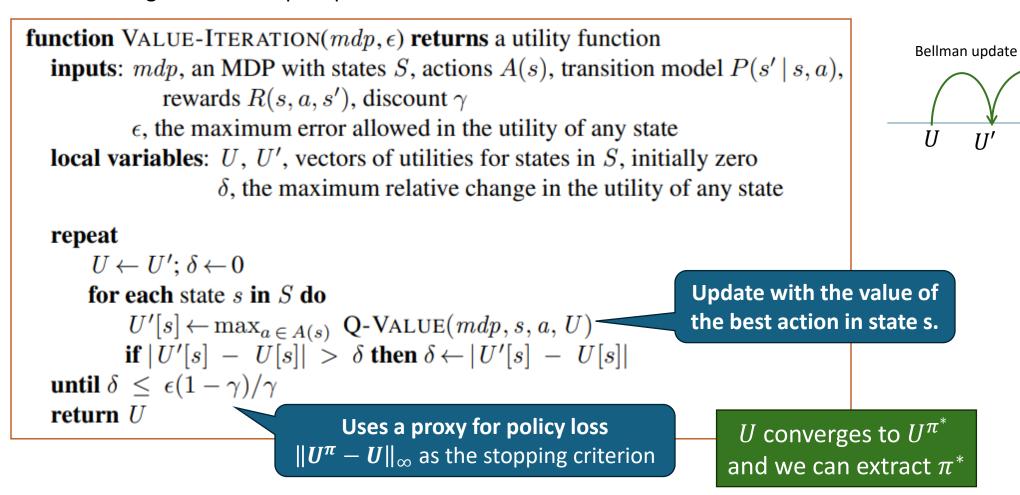
Value Function



S	а	Q(s,a)
(1,1)	Up	0.7453
(1,1)	Right	0.6709
(1,1)	Down	0.7003
(1,1)	Left	0.7109

Value Iteration: Estimate the Optimal Value Function U^{π^*}

Algorithm: Start with a U vector of 0 for all states and then update (Bellman update) the vector iteratively until it converges to the unique optimal solution U^{π^*} .

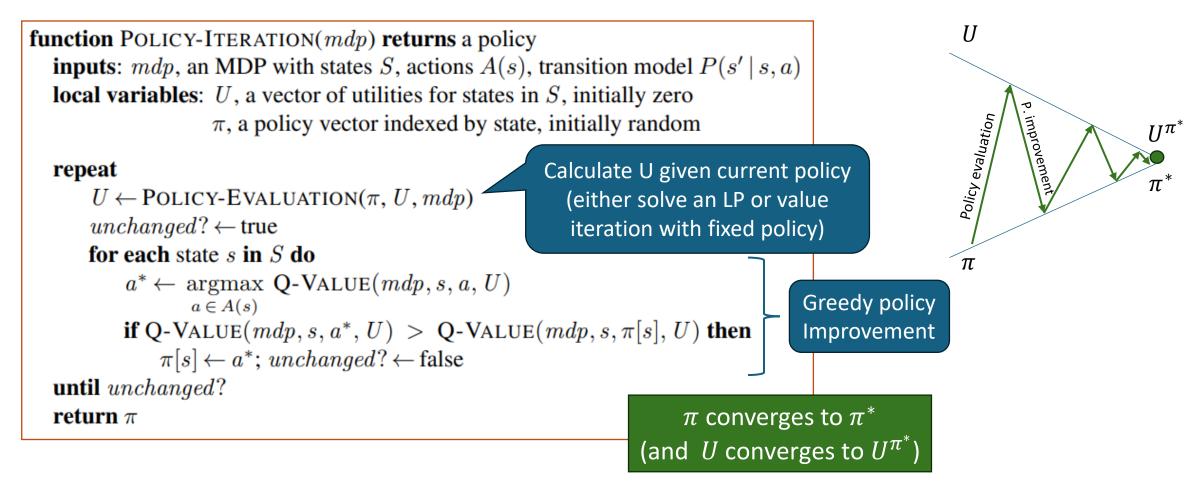


Extract

greedy π^*

Policy Iteration: Find the Optimal Policy π^*

Policy iteration tries to directly find the optimal policy by iterating policy evaluation and improvement.



Playing a Game as a Sequential Decision Problem: Tic-Tac-Toe

• Definitions from the Chapter 5 on Games for a goal-based agent:

s_0	Empty board.	
Actions(s)	Play empty squares.	
Result(s,a)	Symbol (x/o) is placed on empty square.	\rightarrow Stochastic transition model $P(s' s,a)$
Terminal(s)	Did a player win or is the game a draw?	
Utility(s)	+1 if x wins, -1 if o wins and 0 for a draw. Utility is only defined for terminal states.	Reward function $r(s)$

- We can set up an MDP to find the optimal policy $\pi^*(s)$, but it will be hard to solve since:
 - There are many states, so the table U(s) has many entries.
 - The stochastic transition model P(s'|s,a) needs to be known. The tables are very large.
 - All the reward is delayed. Immediate regards are always 0 until the end of the game.
- This makes planning hard! A solution is to use online learning like model-free reinforcement learning.

Reinforcement Learning AIMA Chapter 22

Reinforcement Learning (RL)

- RL assumes that the problem can be modeled as an MDP.
- However, we do not know the transition or the reward model. This
 means we have an unknown environment.
- We cannot use offline planning in unknown environments. The agent needs to interact with the environment (try actions) and use the reward signal to update its estimate of the utility of states and actions. This is a learning process where the reward provides positive reinforcement.
- A popular algorithm is Q-Learning which tries to learn the state-action value function of important states.

Q-Learning

Q-Learning learns the state-action value function as a table from interactions with the environment.

Q-Table					
S	а	Q(s,a)			

function Q-LEARNING-AGENT(percept) returns an action

inputs: percept, a percept indicating the current state s' and reward signal r

persistent: Q, a table of action values indexed by state and action, initially zero

 N_{sa} , a table of frequencies for state-action pairs, initially zero

s, a, the previous state and action, initially null

Learning rate

New episode has no s.

if s is not null then

increment $N_{sa}[s, a]$

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

 $s, a \leftarrow s', \operatorname{argmax}_{a'} f(Q[s', a'], N_{sa}[s', a'])$

return a

f is the exploration function and decides on the next action. As N increases it can exploit good actions more.

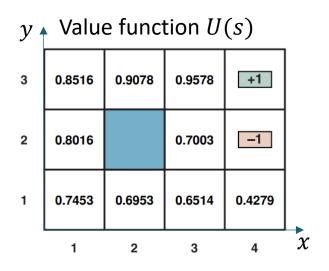
Make Q[s, a] a little more similar to the received

reward + the best Q-value of the successor state.

Value Function Approximation

- U (or Q) tables needs to store and estimate one entry for each state (state/action combination).
- Issues and solutions
 - Too many entries to store
 - Many combinations are rarely seen

- → lossy compression
- → generalize to unseen entries
- **Idea**: Estimate the state value by learning an approximation function $\widehat{U}(s) = g_{\theta}(s)$ based on features of s.
- **Example**: 4x3 Grid World with a linear combination of state features (x, y) and learn θ from observed data.

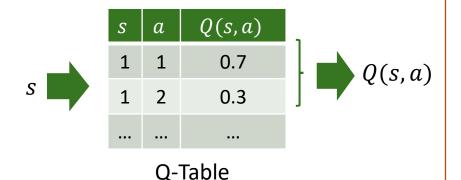


Learn θ from observed interactions with the environment to approximate U(s)

$$\widehat{U}_{\theta}(x, y) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x + \theta_2 y$$

 \theta can be updated iteratively after each new observed utility using gradient descent.

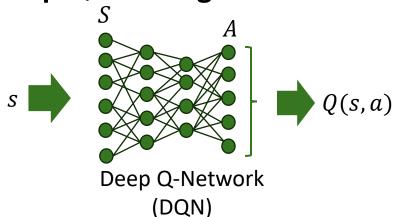
Traditional Q-Learning



function Q-LEARNING-AGENT(percept) returns an action inputs: percept, a percept indicating the current state s' and reward signal r persistent: Q, a table of action values indexed by state and action, initially zero N_{sa} , a table of frequencies for state—action pairs, initially zero s, s, the previous state and action, initially null

if
$$s$$
 is not null then increment $N_{sa}[s,a]$ target prediction $Q[s,a] \leftarrow Q[s,a] + \alpha(N_{sa}[s,a])(r+\gamma \max_{a'} Q[s',a'] - Q[s,a])$ $s,a \leftarrow s', \operatorname{argmax}_{a'} f(Q[s',a'], N_{sa}[s',a'])$ return a

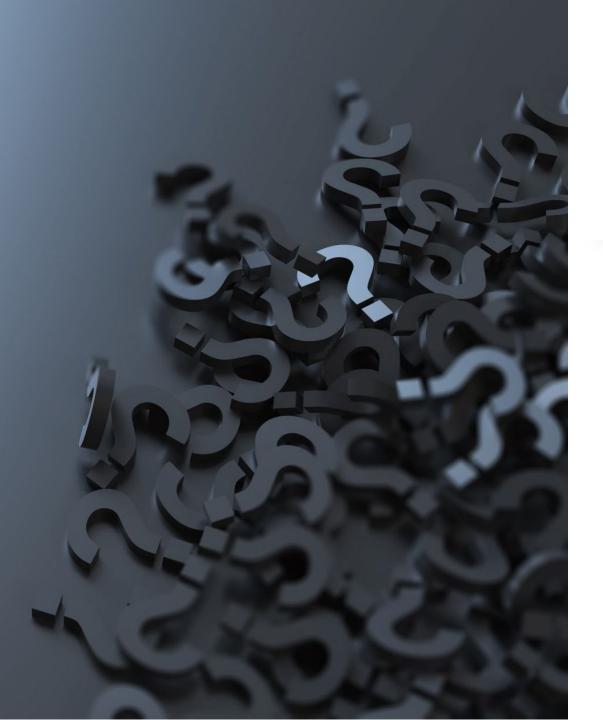
Deep Q-Learning



Target networks: It turns out that the Q-Network is unstable if the same network is used to estimate Q(s,a) and also Q(s',a'). Deep Q-Learning uses a second target network for Q(s',a') that is updated with the prediction network every \mathcal{C} steps.

Experience replay: To reduce instability more, generate actions using the current network and store the experience $\langle s, a, r, s' \rangle$ in a table. Update the model parameters by sampling from the table.

Loss function: squared difference between prediction and target.



Summary

- Agents can learn the value of being in a state from reward signals.
- Rewards can be delayed (e.g., at the end of a game).
- Not being able to fully observe the state makes the problem more difficult (POMDP).
- Unknown transition models lead to the need of exploration by trying actions (model free methods like Q-Learning).
- All these problems are computationally very expensive and often can only be solved by approximation. State of the art is to use deep artificial neural networks for function approximation.