

# 高级人工智能

## 第十章

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### 强化学习

Reinforcement Learning

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# 内容提要

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- 引言
- 强化学习模型
- 动态规划
- 蒙特卡罗方法
- 时序差分学习
- Q学习
- 强化学习中的函数估计
- 应用

# 引言

人类通常从与外界环境的交互中学习。所谓强化(reinforcement)学习是指从环境状态到行为映射的学习,以使系统行为从环境中获得的累积奖励值最大。在强化学习中,我们设计算法来把外界环境转化为最大化奖励量的方式的动作。我们并没有直接告诉主体要做什么或者要采取哪个动作,而是主体通过看哪个动作得到了最多的奖励来自己发现。主体的动作的影响不只是立即得到的奖励,而且还影响接下来的动作和最终的奖励。试错搜索(trial-and-error search)和延期强化(delayed reinforcement)这两个特性是强化学习中两个最重要的特性。

# 引言

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强化学习技术是从控制理论、统计学、心理学等相关学科发展而来，最早可以追溯到巴甫洛夫的条件反射实验。但直到上世纪八十年代末、九十年代初强化学习技术才在人工智能、机器学习和自动控制等领域中得到广泛研究和应用，并被认为是设计智能系统的核心技术之一。特别是随着强化学习的数学基础研究取得突破性进展后，对强化学习的研究和应用日益开展起来，成为目前机器学习领域的研究热点之一。

# 引言

- 强化思想最先来源于心理学的研究。1911年Thorndike提出了效果律（ Law of Effect ）：一定情景下让动物感到舒服的行为，就会与此情景增强联系（ 强化 ），当此情景再现时，动物的这种行为也更易再现；相反，让动物感觉不舒服的行为，会减弱与情景的联系，此情景再现时，此行为将很难再现。换个说法，哪种行为会“记住”，会与刺激建立联系，取决于行为产生的效果。
- 动物的试错学习,包含两个含义：选择（ selectional ）和联系（ associative ），对应计算上的搜索和记忆。所以，1954年，Minsky在他的博士论文中实现了计算上的试错学习。同年，Farley和Clark也在计算上对它进行了研究。强化学习一词最早出现于科技文献是1961年Minsky 的论文 “Steps Toward Artificial Intelligence”，此后开始广泛使用。1969年， Minsky因在人工智能方面的贡献而获得计算机图灵奖。

# 引言

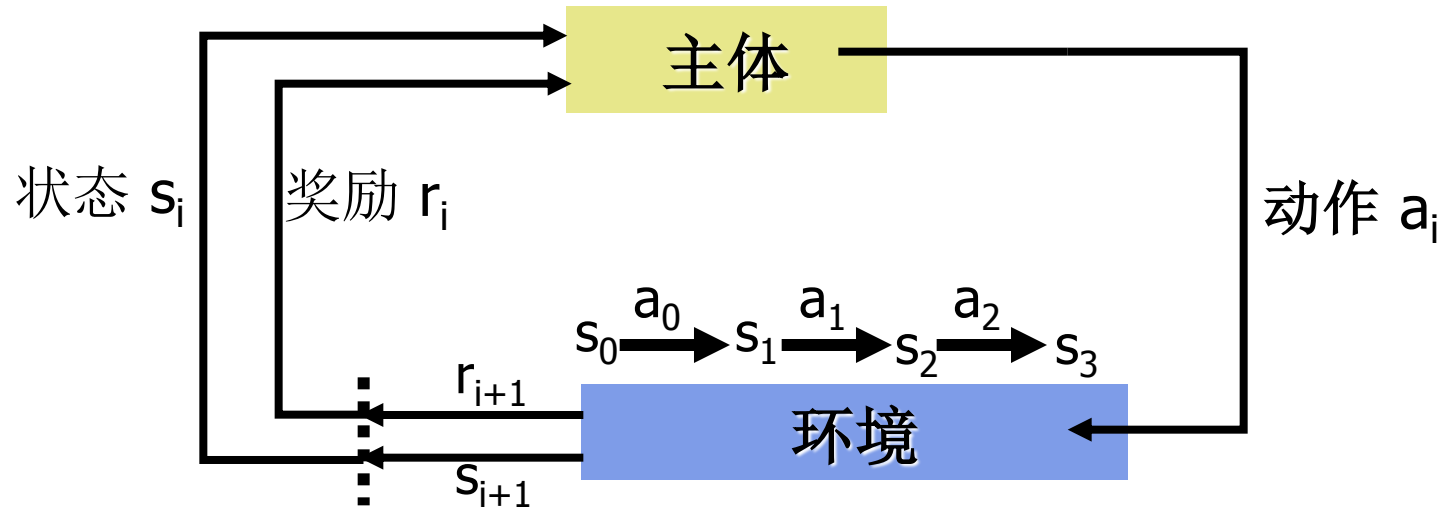
- 1953到1957年，Bellman提出了求解最优控制问题的一个有效方法：动态规划（dynamic programming）
- Bellman于1957年还提出了最优控制问题的随机离散版本，就是著名的马尔可夫决策过程（MDP, Markov decision process），1960年Howard提出马尔可夫决策过程的策略迭代方法，这些都成为现代强化学习的理论基础。
- 1972年，Klopf把试错学习和时序差分结合在一起。1978年开始，Sutton、Barto、Moore，包括Klopf等对这两者结合开始进行深入研究。
- 1989年Watkins提出了Q-学习[Watkins 1989]，也把强化学习的三条主线扭在了一起。
- 1992年，Tesauro用强化学习成功了应用到西洋双陆棋（backgammon）中，称为TD-Gammon。

# 内容提要

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- 应用

# 强化学习模型



i: input

r: reward

s: state

a: action



# 描述一个环境（问题）

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- Accessible vs. inaccessible
- Deterministic vs. non-deterministic
- Episodic vs. non-episodic
- Static vs. dynamic
- Discrete vs. continuous

The most complex general class of environments are inaccessible, non-deterministic, non-episodic, dynamic, and continuous.

# 强化学习问题

- Agent-environment interaction

- States, Actions, Rewards

- To define a finite MDP

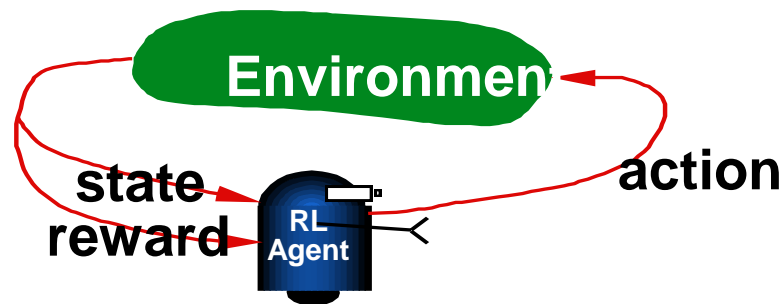
- **state and action sets :  $S$  and  $A$**

- **one-step “dynamics” defined by transition probabilities (Markov Property):**

$$P_{ss'}^a = \Pr\{s_{t+1} = s' \mid s_t = s, a_t = a\} \quad \text{for all } s, s' \in S, a \in A(s).$$

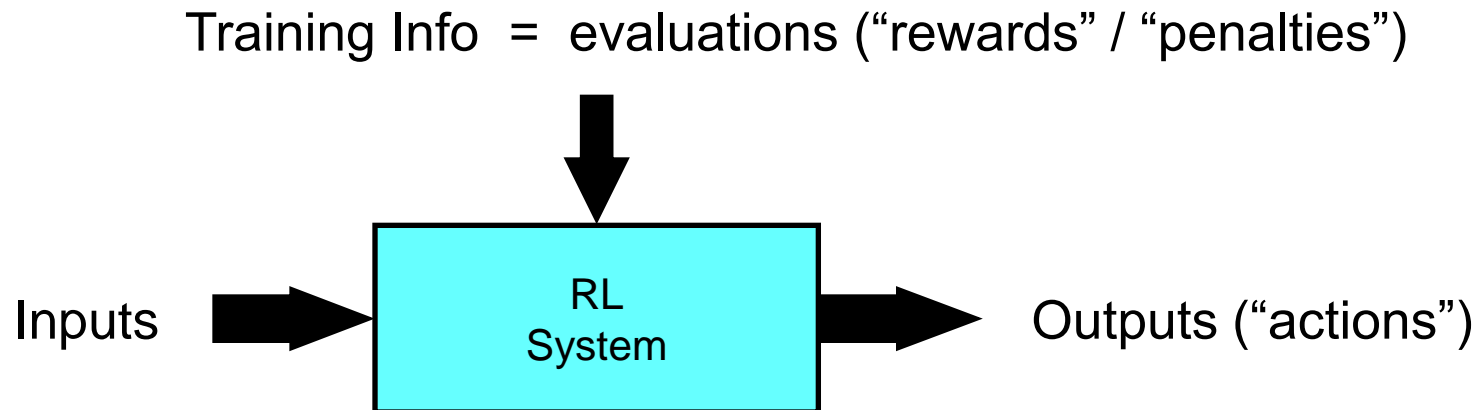
- **reward probabilities:**

$$R_s^a = E\{r_{t+1} \mid s_t = s, a_t = a, s_{t+1} = s'\} \quad \text{for all } s, s' \in S, a \in A(s)$$



# 与监督学习对比

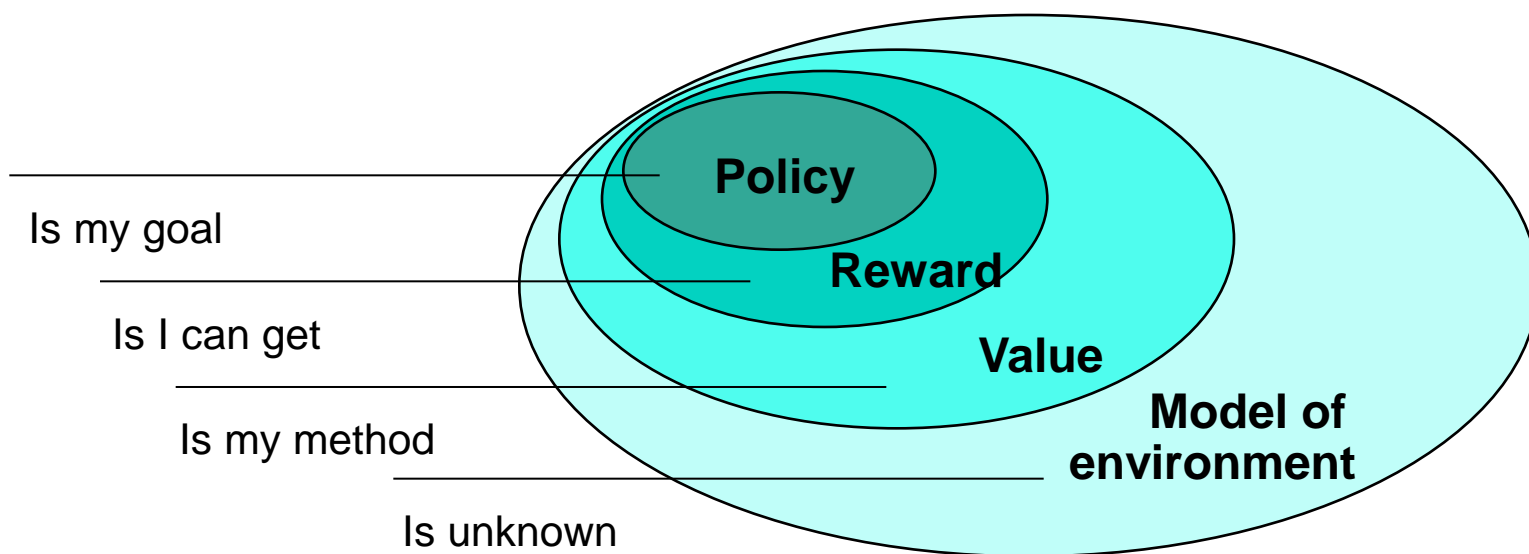
- Supervised Learning – Learn from examples provided by a knowledgeable external supervisor.



- Reinforcement Learning – Learn from interaction
  - learn from its own experience, and the objective is to get as much reward as possible. *The learner is not told which actions to take, but instead must discover which actions yield the most reward by trying them.*

# 强化学习要素

- Policy: **stochastic rule for selecting actions**
- Return/Reward: **the function of future rewards agent tries to maximize**
- Value: **what is good because it predicts reward**
- Model: **what follows what**



# 在策略 $\Pi$ 下的 Bellman 公式

The basic idea:

$$R_t = r_{t+1} + \gamma r_{t+2} + \gamma^2 r_{t+3} + \gamma^3 r_{t+4} \dots$$

$$= r_{t+1} + \gamma (r_{t+2} + \gamma r_{t+3} + \gamma^2 r_{t+4} \dots)$$

$$= r_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+1}$$

$\gamma$  is the discount rate

So:

$$\begin{aligned} V^\pi(s) &= E_\pi \{R_t | s_t = s\} \\ &= E_\pi \{r_{t+1} + \gamma V(s_{t+1}) | s_t = s\} \end{aligned}$$

Or, without the expectation operator:

$$V^\pi(s) = \sum_a \pi(s, a) \sum_{s'} P_{ss'}^a [R_{ss'}^a + \gamma V^\pi(s')]$$

# Bellman最优策略公式

$$\begin{aligned} V^*(s) &= \max_{a \in A(s)} E \left\{ r_{t+1} + \gamma V^*(s_{t+1}) \mid s_t = s, a_t = a \right\} \\ &= \max_{a \in A(s)} \sum_{s'} P_{ss'}^a \left[ R_{ss'}^a + \gamma V^*(s') \right] \end{aligned}$$

其中：

$V^*$ ：状态值映射

$s$ ：环境状态

$R$ ：奖励函数

$P$ ：状态转移概率函数

$\gamma$ ：折扣因子

# 马尔可夫决策过程

## MARKOV DECISION PROCESS

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由四元组 $\langle S, A, R, P \rangle$ 定义。

- 环境状态集 $S$
- 系统行为集合 $A$
- 奖励函数 $R: S \times A \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$
- 状态转移函数 $P: S \times A \rightarrow PD(S)$

记 $R(s, a, s')$ 为系统在状态 $s$ 采用 $a$ 动作使环境状态转移到 $s'$ 获得的瞬时奖励值；记 $P(s, a, s')$ 为系统在状态 $s$ 采用 $a$ 动作使环境状态转移到 $s'$ 的概率。

# 马尔可夫决策过程

## MARKOV DECISION PROCESS

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- 马尔可夫决策过程的本质是：当前状态向下一状态转移的概率和奖励值只取决于当前状态和选择的动作，而与历史状态和历史动作无关。因此在已知状态转移概率函数  $P$  和奖励函数  $R$  的环境模型知识下，可以采用动态规划技术求解最优策略。而强化学习着重研究在  $P$  函数和  $R$  函数未知的情况下，系统如何学习最优行为策略。



# MARKOV DECISION PROCESS

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Characteristics of MDP:

a set of states :  $\mathcal{S}$

a set of actions :  $\mathcal{A}$

a reward function :

$$\mathcal{R}: \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$$

A state transition function:

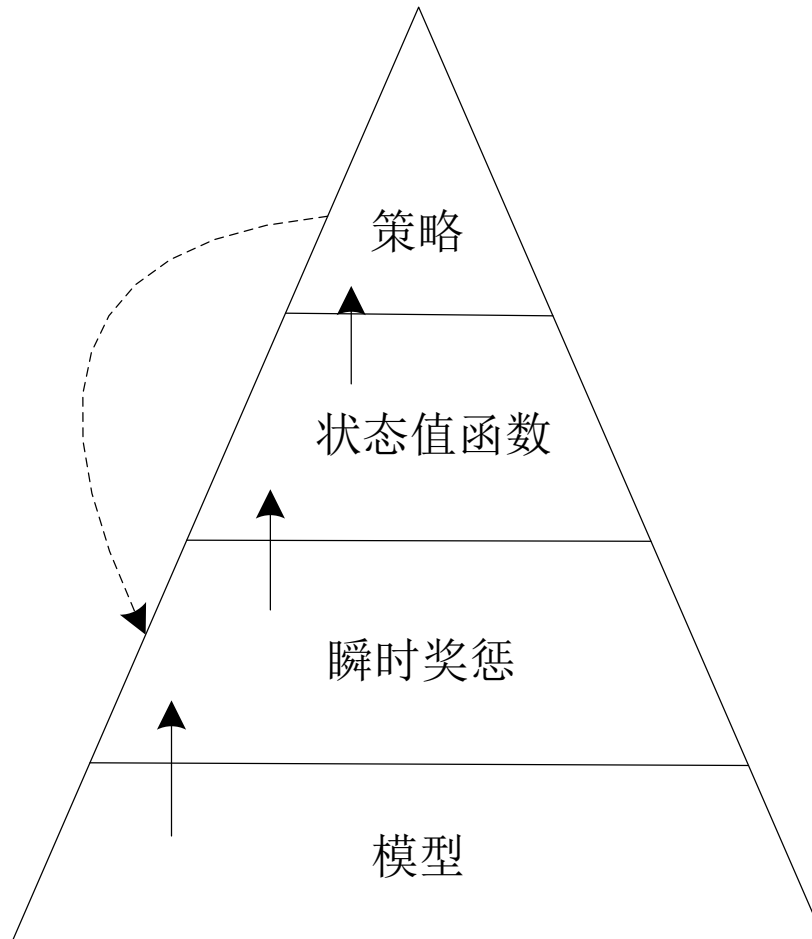
$$\mathcal{T}: \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \Pi(\mathcal{S})$$

$\mathcal{T}(s,a,s')$ : probability of transition from  $s$  to  $s'$  using action  $a$

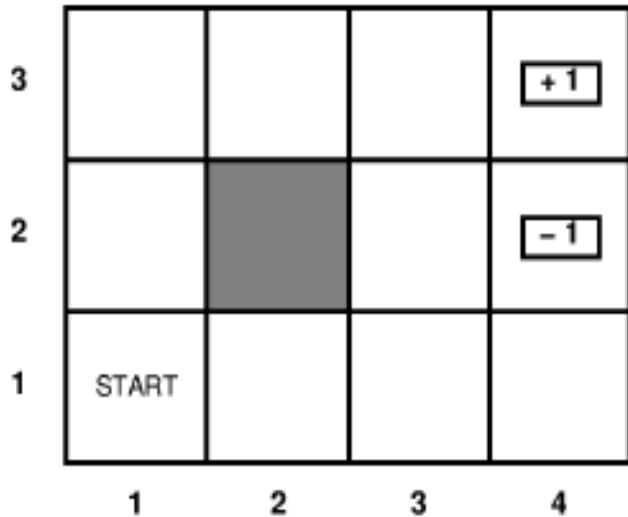
# 马尔可夫决策过程

## MARKOV DECISION PROCESS

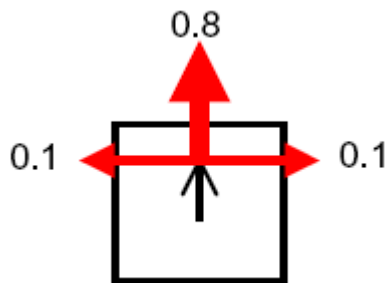
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# MDP EXAMPLE:



States and rewards



Transition  
function

$$V^*(s) = \max_{\pi} E \left( \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t r_t \right)$$

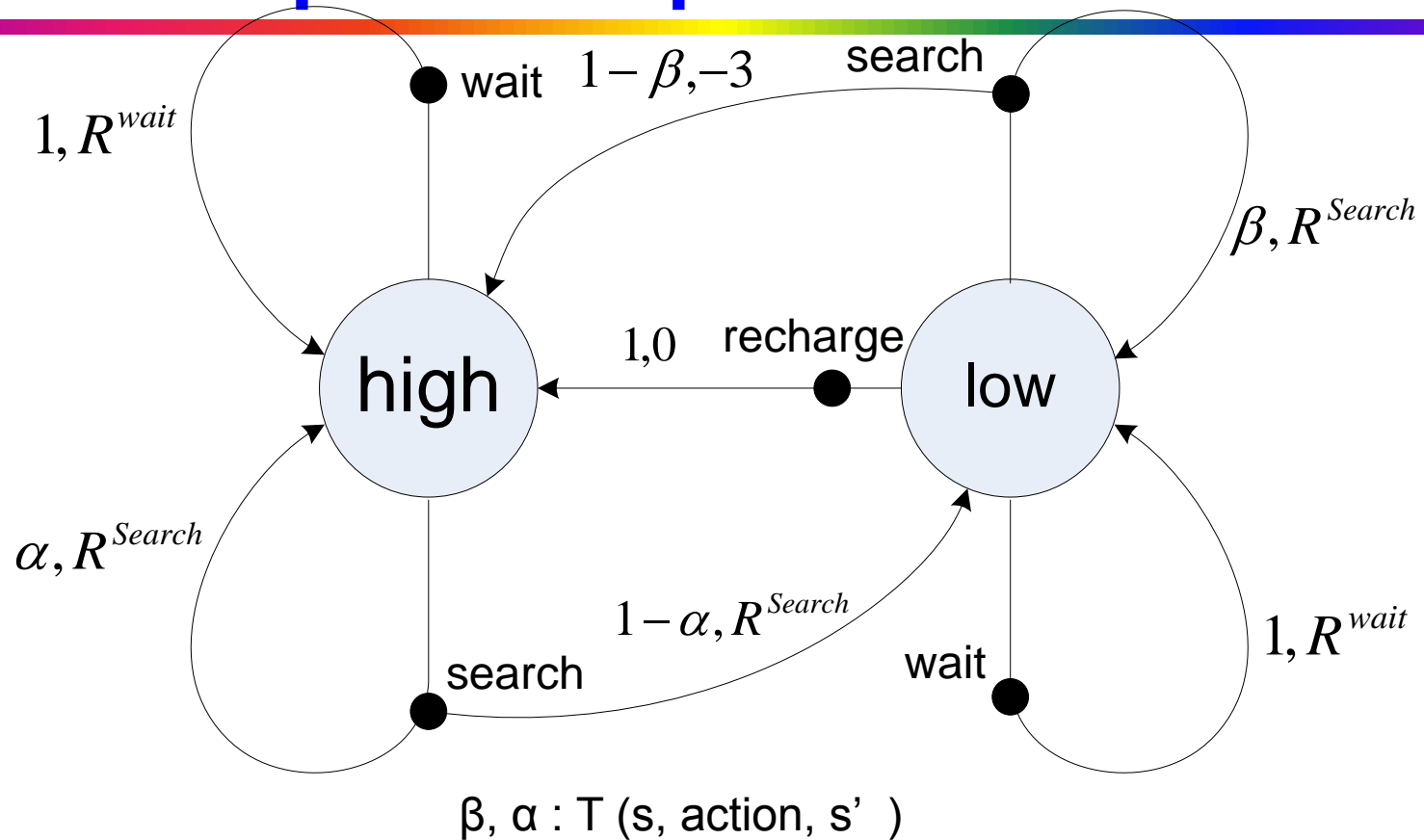
Bellman Equation:

$$V^*(s) = \max_a \left( R(s, a) + \gamma \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} T(s, a, s') V^*(s') \right), \forall s \in \mathcal{S}$$

$$\pi^*(s) = \arg \max_a \left( R(s, a) + \gamma \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} T(s, a, s') V^*(s') \right)$$

(Greedy policy selection)

# MDP Graphical Representation



***Similarity to Hidden Markov Models (HMMs)***

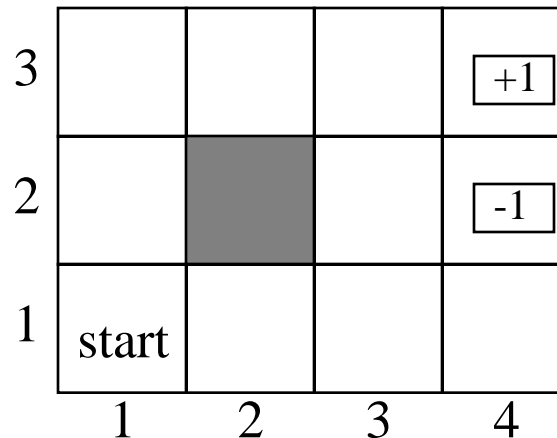
# Reinforcement Learning ...

Deterministic transitions

Stochastic transitions

$M_{ij}^a$  is the probability to reaching state  $j$  when taking action  $a$  in state  $i$

A simple environment that presents the agent with a sequential decision problem:



Move cost = 0.04

(Temporal) credit assignment problem sparse reinforcement problem

Offline alg: action sequences determined ex ante

Online alg: action sequences is conditional on observations along the way;

Important in stochastic environment (e.g. jet flying)

# Reinforcement Learning ...

$M = 0.8$  in direction you want to go  
 0.2 in perpendicular  $\begin{cases} 0.1 \text{ left} \\ 0.1 \text{ right} \end{cases}$

Policy: mapping from states to actions

An optimal policy for the stochastic environment:

3	→	→	→	<span style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">+1</span>
2	↑		↑	<span style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">-1</span>
1	↑	←	←	
	1	2	3	4

utilities of states:

3	0.812	0.868	0.912	<span style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">+1</span>
2	0.762		0.660	<span style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 2px;">-1</span>
1	0.705	0.655	0.611	0.388
	1	2	3	4

Environment  $\begin{cases} \text{Observable (accessible): percept identifies the state} \\ \text{Partially observable} \end{cases}$

*Markov property*: Transition probabilities depend on state only, not on the path to the state.

Markov decision problem (MDP).

Partially observable MDP (POMDP): percepts does not have enough info to identify transition probabilities.

# 动态规划 Dynamic Programming

- 动态规划(dynamic programming)的方法通过从后继状态回溯到前驱状态来计算赋值函数。动态规划的方法基于下一个状态分布的模型来接连的更新状态。强化学习的动态规划的方法是基于这样一个事实：对任何策略 $\pi$ 和任何状态 $s$ ，有下式迭代的一致等式成立

$$V^\pi(s) = \sum_a \pi(a | s) \times \sum_{s'} \pi(s \rightarrow s' | a) \times (R^a(s \rightarrow s') + \gamma(V^\pi(s')))$$

$\pi(a | s)$ 是给定在随机策略 $\pi$ 下状态 $s$ 时动作 $a$ 的概率。

$\pi(s \rightarrow s' | a)$ 是在动作 $a$ 下状态 $s$ 转到状态 $s'$ 的概率。这就是对 $V^\pi$ 的Bellman(1957)等式。

# 动态规划

## Dynamic Programming - Problem

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- A discrete-time dynamic system
  - States  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  + termination state 0
  - Control  $U(i)$
  - Transition Probability  $p_{ij}(u)$

- Accumulative cost structure

$$\gamma^k r(i, u, j), 0 < \alpha \leq 1$$

- Policies

$$\pi = \{\mu_0, \mu_1, \dots\}$$

$$p(i_{k+1} = j | i_k = i) = p_{ij}(\mu_k(i))$$



# 动态规划

## Dynamic Programming – Iterative Solution

- Finite Horizon Problem

$$V_N^\pi(i) = E \left[ \gamma^N G(i_N) + \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \gamma^k r(i_k, \mu_k(i_k), i_{k+1}) \mid i_0 = i \right]$$

- Infinite Horizon Problem

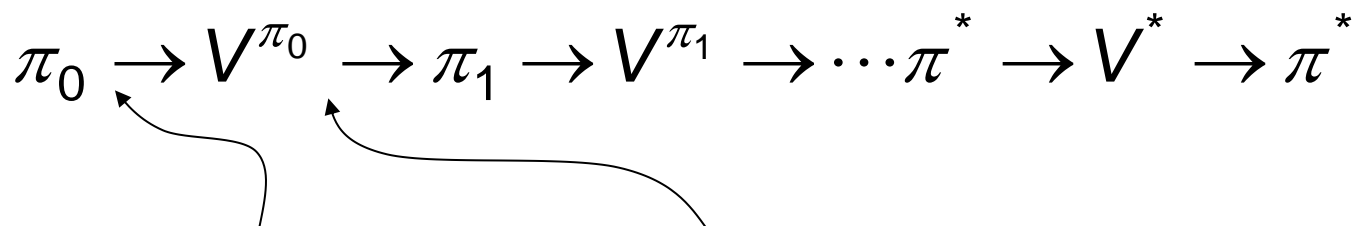
$$V^\pi(i) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E \left[ \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \gamma^k r(i_k, \mu_k(i_k), i_{k+1}) \mid i_0 = i \right]$$

- Value Iteration

$$T(V(i)) = \max_{u \in U(i)} \sum_{j=0}^n p_{ij}(u) (r(i, u, j) + \gamma \cdot V(j)), i = 1, \dots, n$$

$$V_{k+1}(i) = T(V_k(i)) \quad V^*(i) = \min_{\pi} V^\pi(i)$$

# 动态规划中的策略迭代/值迭代

$$\pi_0 \rightarrow V^{\pi_0} \rightarrow \pi_1 \rightarrow V^{\pi_1} \rightarrow \cdots \pi^* \rightarrow V^* \rightarrow \pi^*$$


policy evaluation      policy improvement  
“greedification”

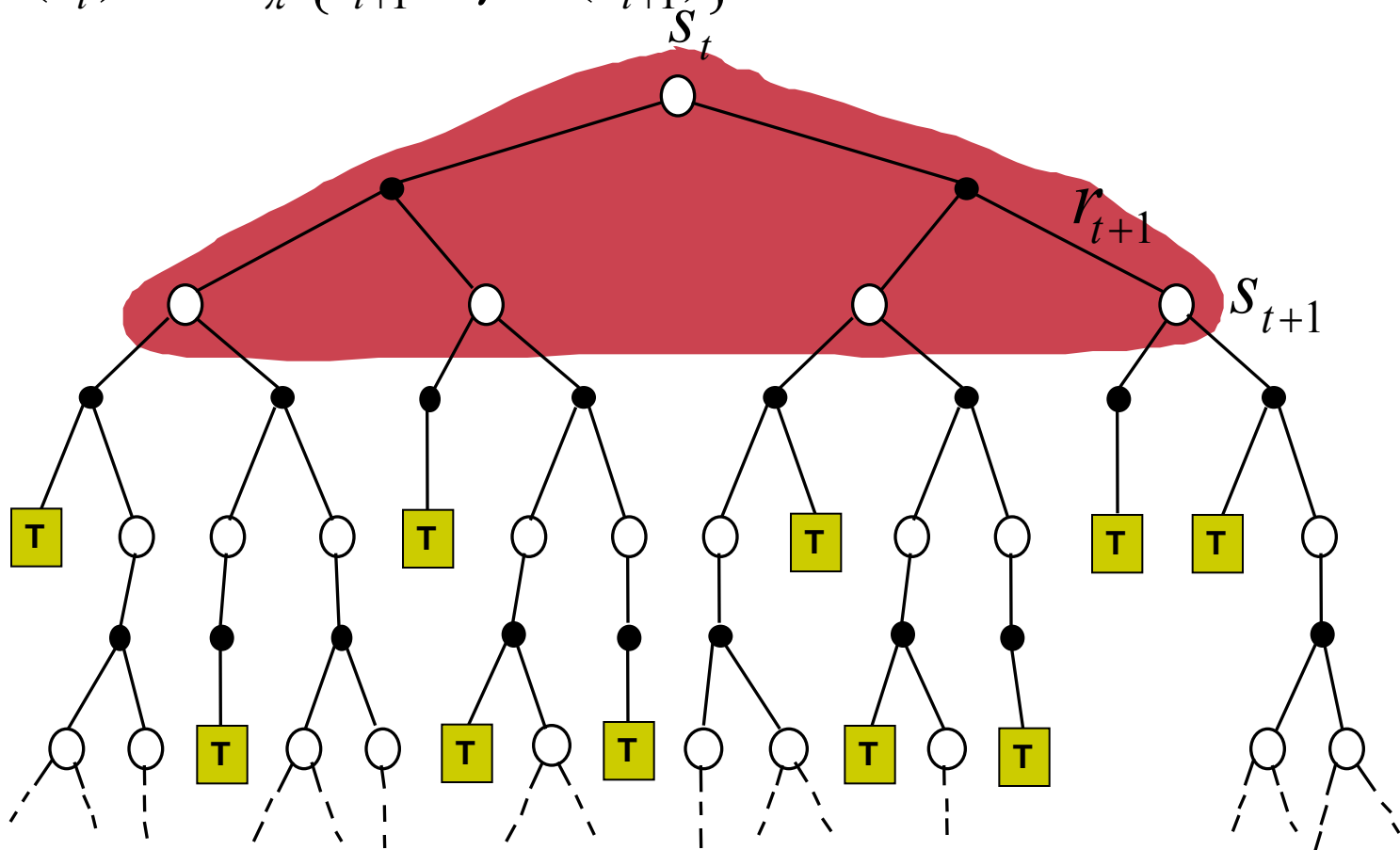
$$\begin{aligned} \pi'(s) &= \arg \max_a \sum_{s'} P_{ss'}^a [R_{ss'}^a + \gamma V^\pi(s')] \\ V_{k+1}(s) &\leftarrow \sum_a \pi(s, a) \sum_{s'} P_{ss'}^a [R_{ss'}^a + \gamma V_k(s')] \\ V_{k+1}(s) &\leftarrow \max_a \sum_{s'} P_{ss'}^a [R_{ss'}^a + \gamma V_k(s')] \end{aligned}$$

Policy Iteration

Value Iteration

# 动态规划方法

$$V(s_t) \leftarrow E_{\pi} \{r_{t+1} + \gamma V(s_{t+1})\}$$



# 自适应动态规划 (ADP)

Idea: use the constraints (state transition probabilities) between states to speed learning.

Solve

$$U(i) = R(i) + \sum_j M_{ij} U(j)$$

= value determination.

No maximization over actions because agent is passive unlike in value iteration.

using DP

→ Large state space

e.g. Backgammon:  $10^{50}$  equations in  $10^{50}$  variables

# Value Iteration Algorithm

```
initialize  $V(s)$  arbitrarily
loop until policy good enough
  loop for  $s \in \mathcal{S}$ 
    loop for  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ 
       $Q(s, a) := R(s, a) + \gamma \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} T(s, a, s') V(s')$ 
     $V(s) := \max_a Q(s, a)$ 
  end loop
end loop
```

Stop Iteration when  $V(s)$  differs less than  $\epsilon$ .

Policy difference ratio  $\leq 2\epsilon\gamma / (1-\gamma)$

(Williams & Baird 1993b)

AN ALTERNATIVE ITERATION: (Singh, 1993)

$$Q(s, a) := Q(s, a) + \alpha(r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a') - Q(s, a))$$

# Policy Iteration Algorithm

***Policies converge faster than values.***

```
choose an arbitrary policy  $\pi'$ 
loop
   $\pi := \pi'$ 
  compute the value function of policy  $\pi$ :
    solve the linear equations
      
$$V_\pi(s) = R(s, \pi(s)) + \gamma \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} T(s, \pi(s), s') V_\pi(s')$$

    improve the policy at each state:
      
$$\pi'(s) := \arg \max_a (R(s, a) + \gamma \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} T(s, a, s') V_\pi(s'))$$

until  $\pi = \pi'$ 
```

***Why faster convergence?***

# 动态规划 Dynamic Programming

- 典型的动态规划模型作用有限，很多问题很难给出环境的完整模型。仿真机器人足球就是这样的问题，可以采用实时动态规划方法解决这个问题。在实时动态规划中不需要事先给出环境模型，而是在真实的环境中不断测试，得到环境模型。可以采用反传神经网络实现对状态泛化，网络的输入单元是环境的状态 $s$ ，网络的输出是对该状态的评价 $V(s)$ 。

# 没有模型的方法

## Model Free Methods

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Models of the environment:

$$\mathcal{T}: S \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \Pi(S) \text{ and } \mathcal{R}: S \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$$

*Do we know them? Do we have to know them?*

- Monte Carlo Methods
- Adaptive Heuristic Critic
- Q Learning



# 蒙特卡罗方法 Monte Carlo Methods

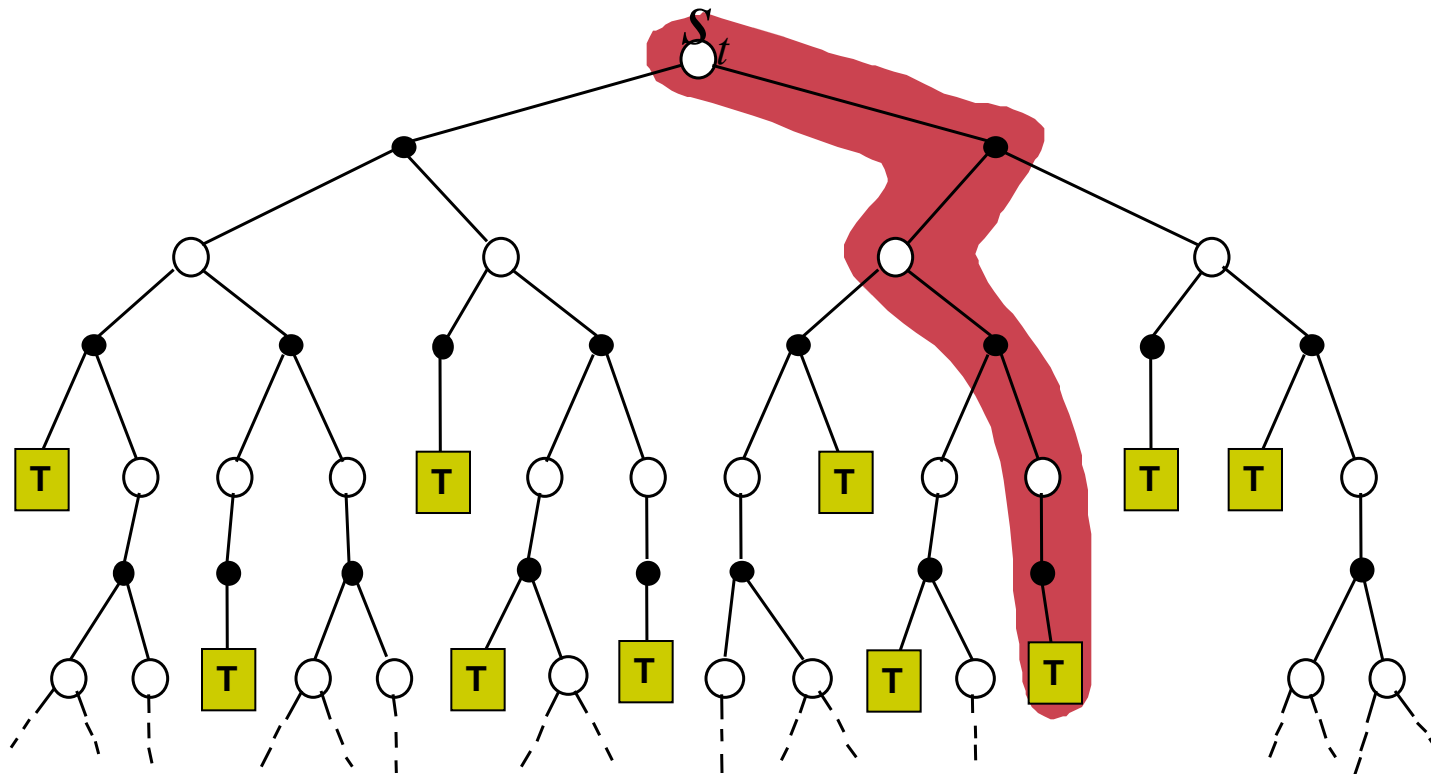
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- 蒙特卡罗方法不需要一个完整的模型。而是它们对状态的整个轨道进行抽样，基于抽样点的最终结果来更新赋值函数。蒙特卡罗方法不需要经验，即从与环境联机的或者模拟的交互中抽样状态、动作和奖励的序列。联机的经验是令人感兴趣的，因为它不需要环境的先验知识，却仍然可以是最优的。从模拟的经验中学习功能也很强大。它需要一个模型，但它可以是生成的而不是分析的，即一个模型可以生成轨道却不能计算明确的概率。于是，它不需要产生在动态规划中要求的所有可能转变的完整的概率分布。

# Monte Carlo方法

$$V(s_t) \leftarrow V(s_t) + \alpha [R_t - V(s_t)]$$

where  $R_t$  is the actual return following state  $s_t$ .

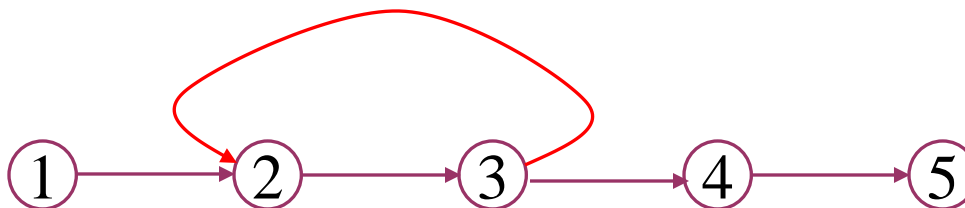


# 蒙特卡罗方法 Monte Carlo Methods

- *Idea:*
  - Hold statistics about rewards for each state
  - Take the average
  - This is the  $V(s)$
- Based only on experience 😊
- Assumes episodic tasks ☹️  
(Experience is divided into episodes and all episodes will terminate regardless of the actions selected.)
- Incremental in episode-by-episode sense not step-by-step sense.

# Monte Carlo 策略评价

- **Goal:** learn  $V^\pi(s)$  under  $P$  and  $R$  are unknown in advance
- **Given:** some number of episodes under  $\pi$  which contain  $s$
- **Idea:** Average returns observed after visits to  $s$



- **Every-Visit MC:** average returns for **every** time  $s$  is visited in an episode
- **First-visit MC:** average returns only for **first** time  $s$  is visited in an episode
- Both converge asymptotically

# 蒙特卡罗方法

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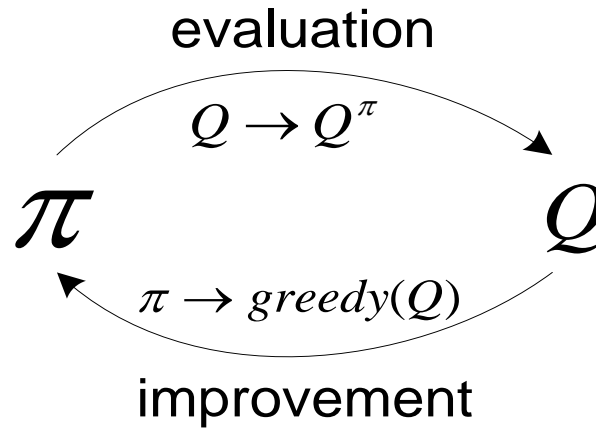
Problem: Unvisited  $\langle s, a \rangle$  pairs  
(problem of ***maintaining exploration***)

For every  $\langle s, a \rangle$  make sure that:  
 $P(\langle s, a \rangle \text{ selected as a start state and action}) > 0$

(Assumption of ***exploring starts*** )

# 蒙特卡罗控制

***How to select Policies:  
(Similar to policy evaluation)***



- **MC policy iteration: Policy evaluation using MC methods followed by policy improvement**
- **Policy improvement step: greedify with respect to value (or action-value) function**

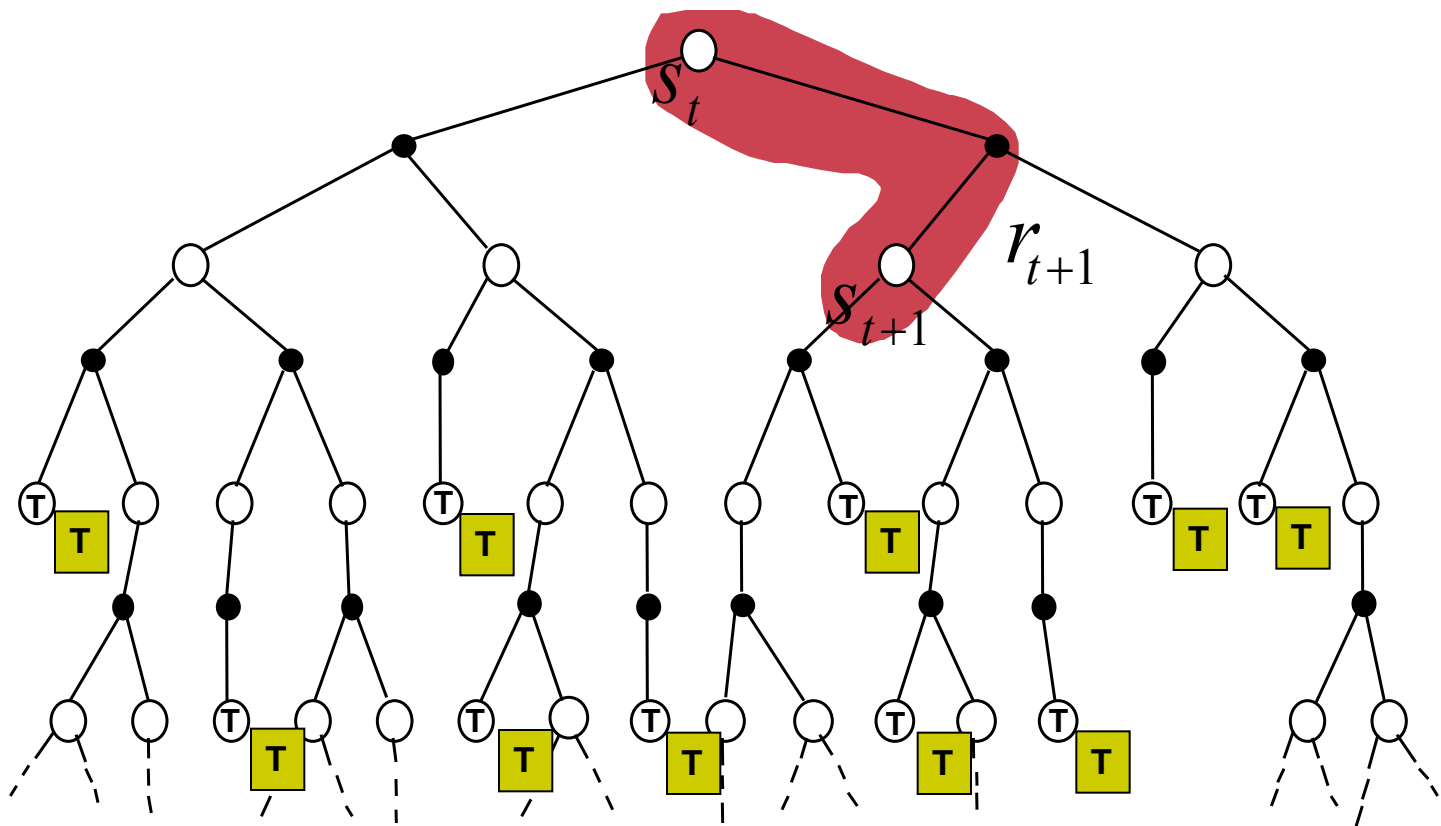
# 时序差分学习 Temporal-Difference

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时序差分学习中没有环境模型，根据经验学习。每步进行迭代，不需要等任务完成。预测模型的控制算法，根据历史信息判断将来的输入和输出，强调模型的函数而非模型的结构。时序差分方法和蒙特卡罗方法类似，仍然采样一次学习循环中获得的瞬时奖惩反馈，但同时类似与动态规划方法采用自举方法估计状态的值函数。然后通过多次迭代学习，去逼近真实的状态值函数。

# 时序差分学习 TD

$$V(s_t) \leftarrow V(s_t) + \alpha[r_{t+1} + \gamma V(s_{t+1}) - V(s_t)]$$





# 时序差分学习 Temporal-Difference

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Simple every-visit Monte Carlo method :

$$V(s_t) \leftarrow V(s_t) + \alpha [R_t - V(s_t)]$$

 **target**: the actual return after time  $t$

The simplest TD method, TD(0) :

$$V(s_t) \leftarrow V(s_t) + \alpha [r_{t+1} + \gamma V(s_{t+1}) - V(s_t)]$$



**target**: an estimate of the return

# 时序差分学习 (TD)

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Idea: Do ADP backups on a per move basis, not for the whole state space.

$$U(i) \leftarrow U(i) + \alpha[R(i) + U(j) - U(i)]$$

Theorem: Average value of  $U(i)$  converges to the correct value.

Theorem: If  $\alpha$  is appropriately decreased as a function of times a state is visited ( $\alpha = \alpha[N[i]]$ ), then  $U(i)$  itself converges to the correct value

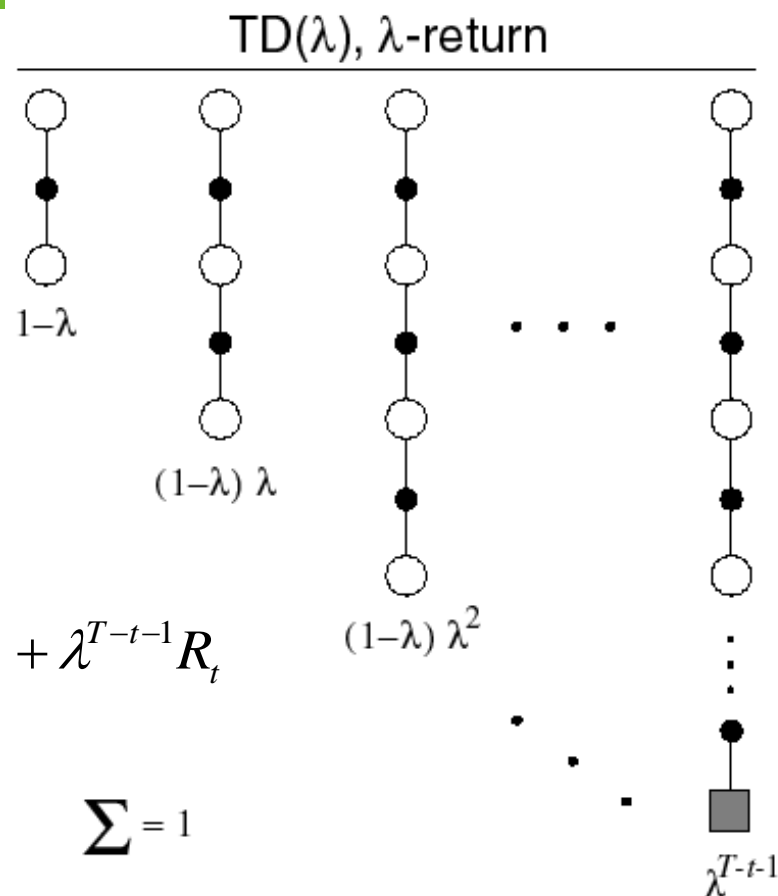
# TD( $\lambda$ ) – A Forward View

- TD( $\lambda$ ) is a method for averaging all n-step backups
  - weight by  $\lambda^{n-1}$  (time since visitation)
  - $\lambda$ -return:

$$R_t^\lambda = (1-\lambda) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda^{n-1} R_t^{(n)} = (1-\lambda) \sum_{n=1}^{T-t-1} \lambda^{n-1} R_t^{(n)} + \lambda^{T-t-1} R_t$$

- Backup using  $\lambda$ -return:

$$\Delta V_t(s_t) = \alpha \left[ R_t^\lambda - V_t(s_t) \right]$$



# 时序差分学习算法 TD( $\lambda$ )

Idea: update from the whole epoch, not just on state transition.

$$U(i) \leftarrow U(i) + \alpha \sum_{m=k}^{\infty} \lambda^{m-k} [R(i_m) + U(i_{m+1}) - U(i_m)]$$

Special cases:

$\lambda=1$ : Least-mean-square (LMS), Mont Carlo

$\lambda=0$ : TD

Intermediate choice of  $\lambda$  (between 0 and 1) is best.

Interplay with  $\alpha$  ...

# 时序差分学习算法 TD( $\lambda$ )

算法 **10.1** TD(0)学习算法

Initialize  $V(s)$  arbitrarily,  $\pi$  to the policy to be evaluated

Repeat (for each episode)

Initialize  $s$

Repeat (for each step of episode)

Choose  $a$  from  $s$  using policy  $\pi$  derived from  $V$  (e.g.,  $\epsilon$ -greedy)

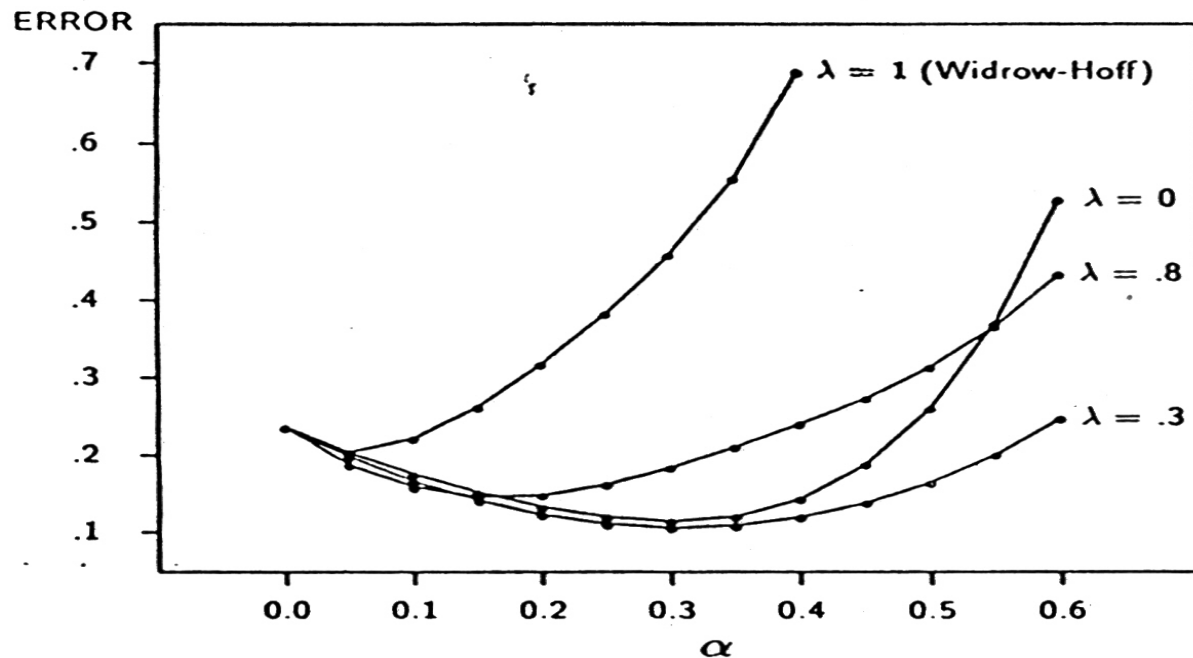
Take action  $a$ , observe  $r, s'$

$$V(s) \leftarrow V(s) + \alpha [r + \gamma V(s') - V(s)]$$

$$s \leftarrow s'$$

Until  $s$  is terminal

# 时序差分学习算法



**Figure 4.** Average error on random walk problem after experiencing 10 sequences. All data are from TD( $\lambda$ ) with different values of  $\alpha$  and  $\lambda$ . The dependent measure is the RMS error between the ideal predictions and those found by the learning procedure after a single presentation of a training set. This measure was averaged over 100 training sets. The  $\lambda = 1$  data points represent performances of the Widrow-Hoff supervised-learning procedure.

# 时序差分学习算法收敛性TD( $\lambda$ )

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Theorem: Converges w.p. 1 under certain boundaries conditions.  
Decrease  $\alpha_i(t)$  s.t.

$$\sum_t \alpha_i(t) = \infty$$
$$\sum_t \alpha_i^2(t) < \infty$$

In practice, often a fixed  $\alpha$  is used for all  $i$  and  $t$ .

# 时序差分学习 TD

我的移动:

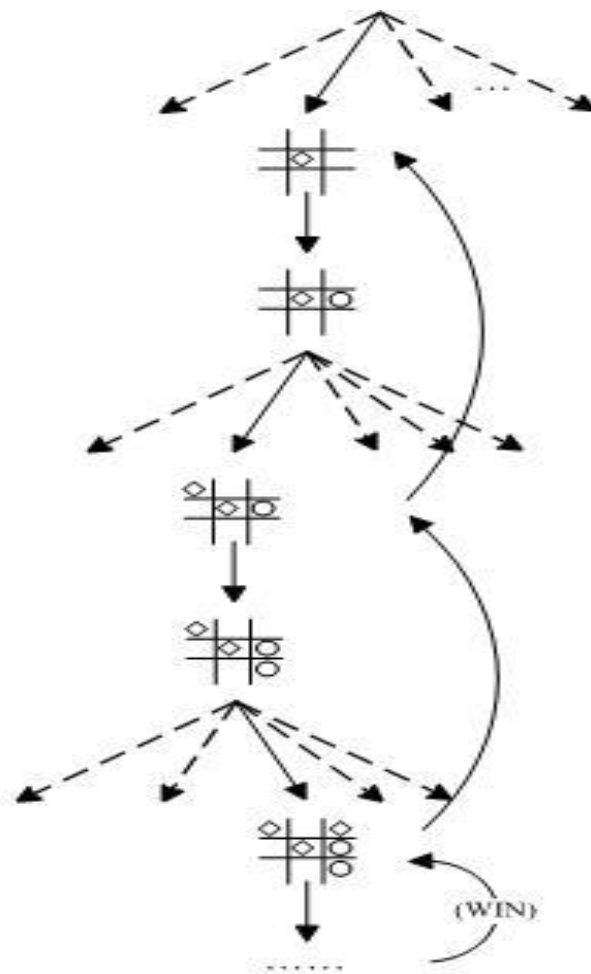
对手的移动:

我的移动:

对手的移动:

我的移动:

对手的移动:





# Q-learning

---

Watkins, 1989

在Q学习中，回溯从动作结点开始，最大化下一个状态的所有可能动作和它们的奖励。在完全递归定义的Q学习中，回溯树的底部结点一个从根结点开始的动作和它们的后继动作的奖励的序列可以到达的所有终端结点。联机的Q学习，从可能的动作向前扩展，不需要建立一个完全的世界模型。Q学习还可以脱机执行。我们可以看到，Q学习是一种时序差分的方法。

# Q-learning

在Q学习中， $Q$ 是状态-动作对到学习到的值的一个函数。

对所有的状态和动作：

$$Q: (\text{state} \times \text{action}) \rightarrow \text{value}$$

对Q学习中的一步：

$$Q(s_t, a_t) \leftarrow (1 - c) \times Q(s_t, a_t) + c \times [r_{t+1} + \gamma \text{MAX}_a Q(s_{t+1}, a) - Q(s_t, a_t)]$$

其中 $c$ 和 $\gamma$ 都 $\leq 1$ ， $r_{t+1}$ 是状态 $s_{t+1}$ 的奖励。

# Q-Learning

---

- Estimate the **Q-function** using some approximator (for example, linear regression or neural networks or decision trees etc.).
- Derive the estimated policy as an **argument** of the **maximum** of the estimated Q-function.
- Allow different parameter vectors at different time points.
- Let us illustrate the algorithm with linear regression as the approximator, and of course, squared error as the appropriate loss function.

# Q-learning

---

$Q(a,i)$

$$U(i) = \max_a Q(a,i)$$

$$Q(a,i) = R(i) + \sum_j M_{ij}^a \max_{a'} Q(a', j)$$

Direct approach (ADP) would require learning a model  $M_{ij}^a$ .

Q-learning does not:

Do this update after each state transition:

$$Q(a,i) \leftarrow Q(a,i) + \alpha [R(i) + \max_{a'} Q(a', j) - Q(a,i)]$$

# 探查Exploration

---

在使用(控制)和探查(标识)之间寻求折中

Extremes: greedy vs. random acting  
(n-armed bandit models)

Q-learning将收敛到最佳的Q 估值，如果

- \*(由于探查)，每个状态可以被无限地访问，

- \*当时间接近无限时，动作选择变得贪婪，和

- \*学习速率 $\alpha$  被减少足够快但不是太迅速

(我们在TD 学习过程中讨论)

# 常用探查方法

1. In value iteration in an ADP agent: Optimistic estimate of utility  $U^+(i)$

$$U^+(i) \leftarrow R(i) + \max_a f[\sum_j M_{ij}^a U^+(j), N(a, i)]$$

Exploration func

$$f(u, n) = \begin{cases} R^+ & \text{if } n < N \\ u & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$

2.  $\epsilon$ -greedy method

Nongreedy actions

$$\frac{\epsilon}{|A(s)|}$$

Greedy action  $1 - \epsilon + \frac{\epsilon}{|A(s)|}$

3. Boltzmann exploration

$$P_{a^*} = \frac{e^{-\frac{\sum_j M_{ij}^{a^*} U(j)}{T}}}{\sum_a e^{-\frac{\sum_j M_{ij}^a U(j)}{T}}}$$

# Q-Learning 算法

## Q学习算法

- Initialize  $Q(s,a)$  arbitrarily
- Repeat (for each episode)
  - Initialize  $s$
  - Repeat (for each step of episode)
    - Choose  $a$  from  $s$  using policy derived from  $Q$  (e.g.,  $\epsilon$ -greedy)
    - Take action  $a$ , observe  $r, s'$

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

$$s \leftarrow s'$$

- Until  $s$  is terminal

# Q-Learning 算法

- Set  $Q_{T+1} = 0$ .
- For

$$t = T, T-1, \dots, 0,$$

$$Y_t \leftarrow r_t + \max_{a_{t+1}} Q_{t+1}(\mathbf{S}_{t+1}, \mathbf{A}_t, a_{t+1}; \hat{\theta}_{t+1}).$$

$$\hat{\theta}_t \leftarrow \arg \min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (Y_{t,i} - Q_t(\mathbf{S}_{t,i}, \mathbf{A}_{t,i}; \theta))^2.$$

- The estimated policy satisfies

$$\hat{\pi}_{Q,t}(\mathbf{s}_t, \mathbf{a}_{t-1}) \in \arg \max_{a_t} Q_t(\mathbf{s}_t, \mathbf{a}_t; \hat{\theta}_t), \forall t.$$



# 直觉是什么？

- Bellman equation gives

$$Q_t^*(S_t, A_t) = E \left[ r_t + \max_{a_{t+1}} Q_{t+1}^*(S_{t+1}, A_t, a_{t+1}) \mid S_t, A_t \right]$$

- If  $Q_{t+1} = Q_{t+1}^*$  and the training set were infinite, then Q-learning minimizes

$$E \left[ r_t + \max_{a_{t+1}} Q_{t+1}^*(S_{t+1}, A_t, a_{t+1}) - Q_t(S_t, A_t; \theta) \right]^2$$

which is equivalent to minimizing

$$E[Q_t^* - Q_t(S_t, A_t; \theta)]^2$$

# A-Learning

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## Murphy, 2003 and Robins, 2004

- Estimate the **A-function** (advantages) using some approximator, as in Q-learning.
- Derive the estimated policy as an **argument** of the **maximum** of the estimated A-function.
- Allow different parameter vectors at different time points.
- Let us illustrate the algorithm with linear regression as the approximator, and of course, squared error as the appropriate loss function.

# A-Learning Algorithm (Inefficient Version)

- For  $t = T, T-1, \dots, 0$ ,

$$Y_t \leftarrow \sum_{j=t}^T r_j - \sum_{j=t+1}^T \mu_j(\mathbf{S}_j, \mathbf{A}_j; \hat{\theta}_j).$$

$$\hat{\theta}_t \leftarrow \arg \min_{\theta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ Y_{t,i} - \mu_t(\mathbf{S}_{t,i}, \mathbf{A}_{t,i}; \theta) + E(\mu_t | \mathbf{S}_{t,i}, \mathbf{A}_{t-1,i}) \right]^2.$$

$$\mu_t(\mathbf{S}_t, \mathbf{A}_t; \hat{\theta}_t) \leftarrow \mu_t(\mathbf{S}_t, \mathbf{A}_t; \hat{\theta}_t) - \max_{a_t} \mu_t(\mathbf{S}_t, \mathbf{A}_{t-1}, a_t; \hat{\theta}_t)$$

- The estimated policy satisfies

$$\hat{\pi}_{A,t}(\mathbf{s}_t, \mathbf{a}_{t-1}) \in \arg \max_{a_t} \mu_t(\mathbf{s}_t, \mathbf{a}_t; \hat{\theta}_t), \forall t.$$

# Q-Learning and A-learning 差别

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- Q-learning

- At time  $t$  we model the main effects of the history,  $(S_t, A_{t-1})$  and the action  $A_t$  and their interaction
- Our  $Y_{t-1}$  is affected by how we modeled the main effect of the history in time  $t$ ,  $(S_t, A_{t-1})$

- A-learning

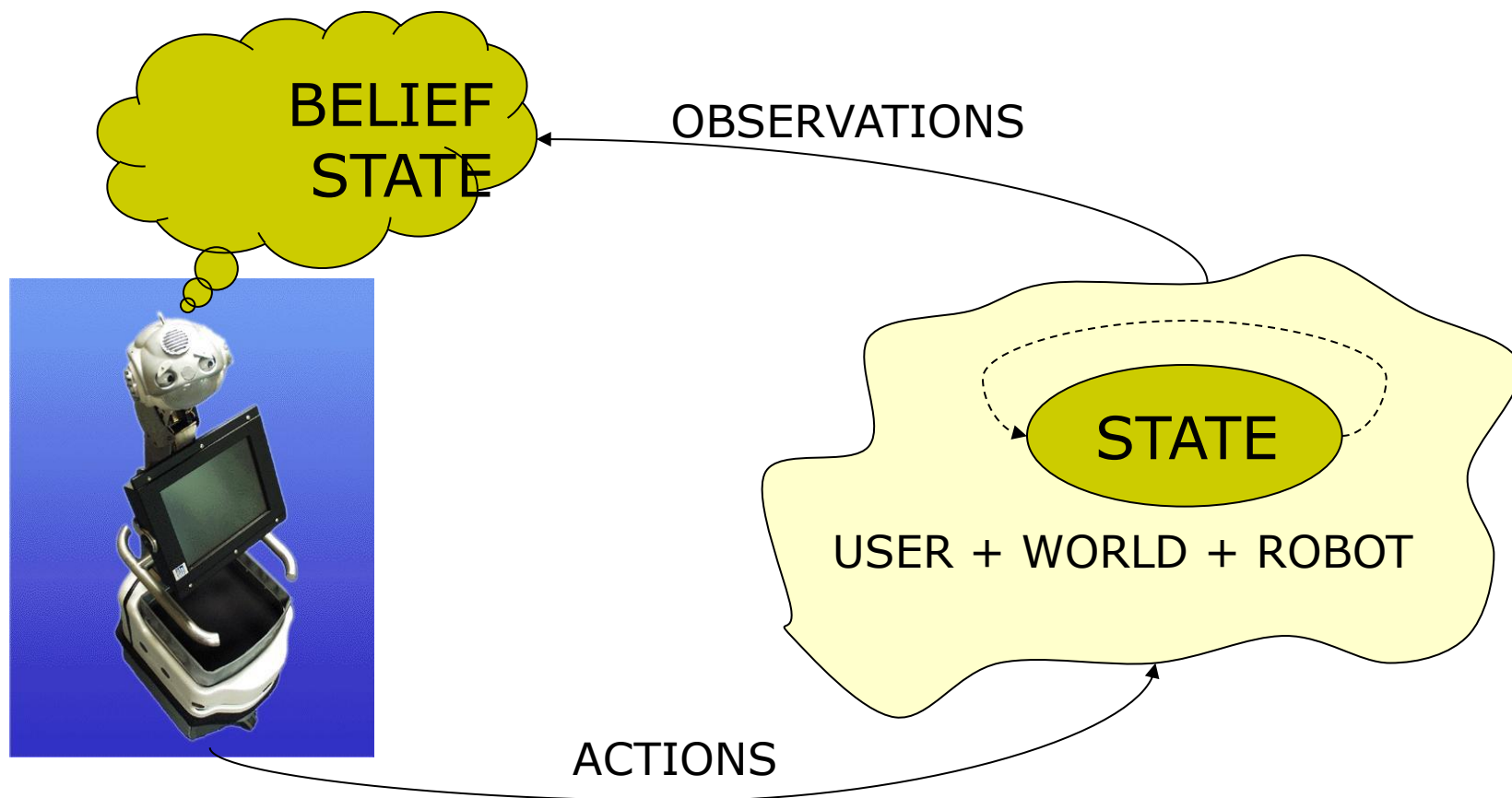
- At time  $t$  we only model the effects of  $A_t$  and its interaction with  $(S_t, A_{t-1})$
- Our  $Y_{t-1}$  does not depend on a model of the main effect of the history in time  $t$ ,  $(S_t, A_{t-1})$

# Q-Learning Vs. A-Learning

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- 直到现在有关的优点和缺点没被完全知道。
- Q-learning有低的分散, 高的偏置。
- A-learning有高的分散, 低的偏置。
- 比较Q-learning与A-learning必须在分散与偏置间求折中。

# High-level robot behavior control using Partially Observable Markov Decision Processes



# POMDP 部分感知马氏决策过程

- Rather than observing the state we observe some function of the state.
- Ob – Observable function  
a random variable for each states.
- Problem : different states may look similar

The optimal strategy might need to consider the history.

# Framework of POMDP

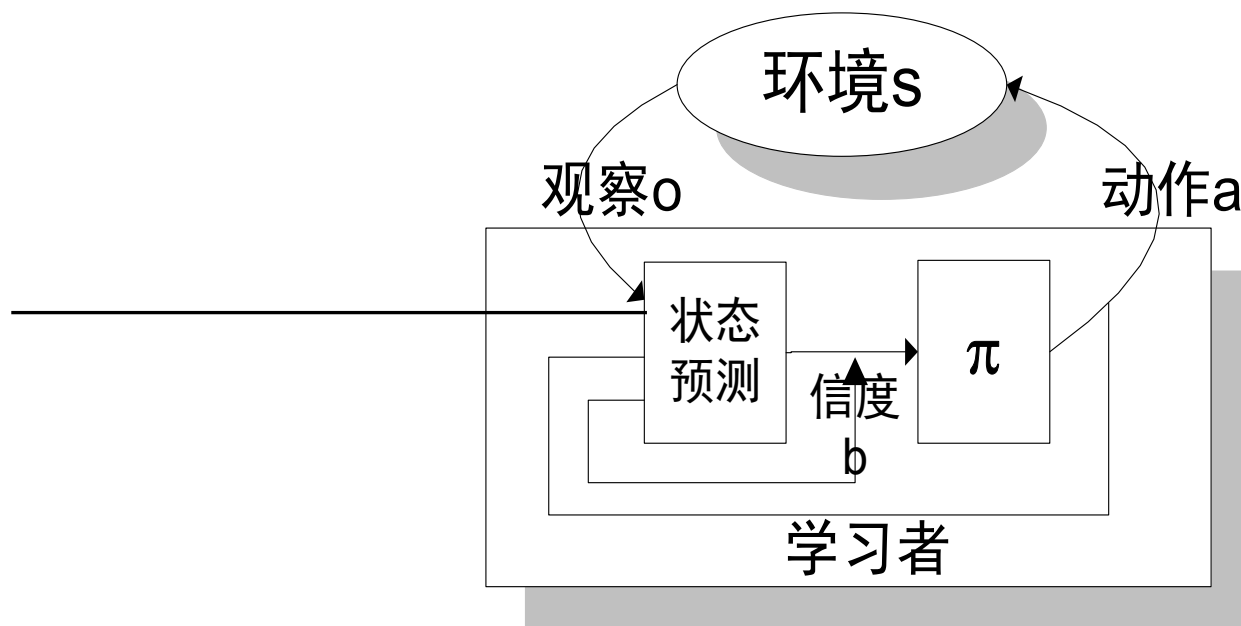


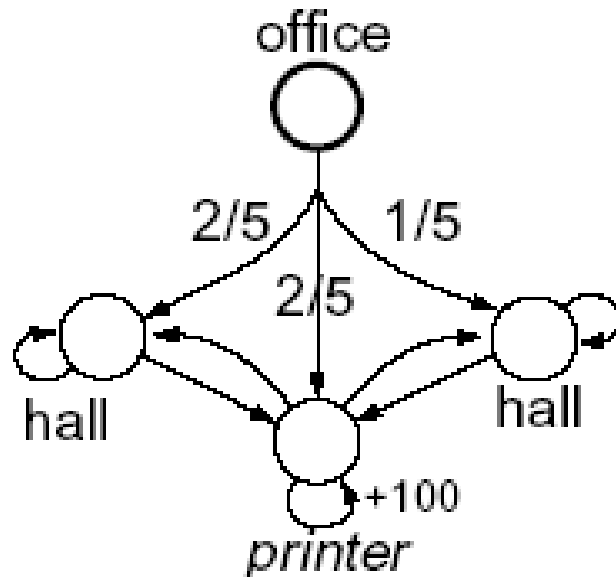
图1 POMDP 问题框架

**POMDP**由六元组 $\langle S, A, R, P, \Omega, O \rangle$ 定义。其中 $\langle S, A, P, R \rangle$ 定义了环境潜在的马尔可夫决策模型上， $\Omega$ 是观察的集合，即系统可以感知的世界状态集合，观察函数 $O: S \times A \rightarrow \text{PD}(\Omega)$ 。系统在采取动作 $a$ 转移到状态 $s'$ 时，观察函数 $O$ 确定其在可能观察上的概率分布。记为 $O(s', a, o)$ 。 $\Omega$ 可以是 $S$ 的子集，也可以与 $S$ 无关



# POMDPs

***What if state information (from sensors) is noisy?***  
***Mostly the case!***



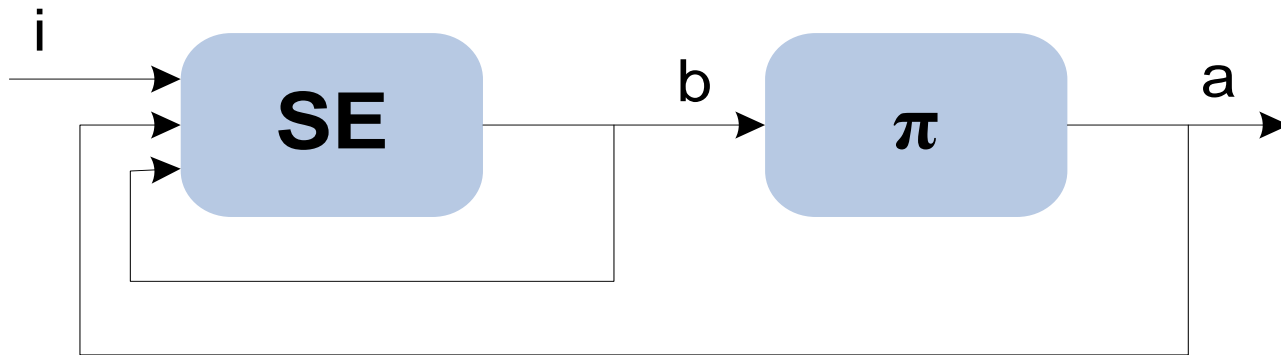
MDP  
techniques  
are  
suboptimal!

Two halls are  
not the same.

An example of a partially observable environment.

# POMDPs – A Solution Strategy

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SE: Belief State Estimator (Can be based on HMM)

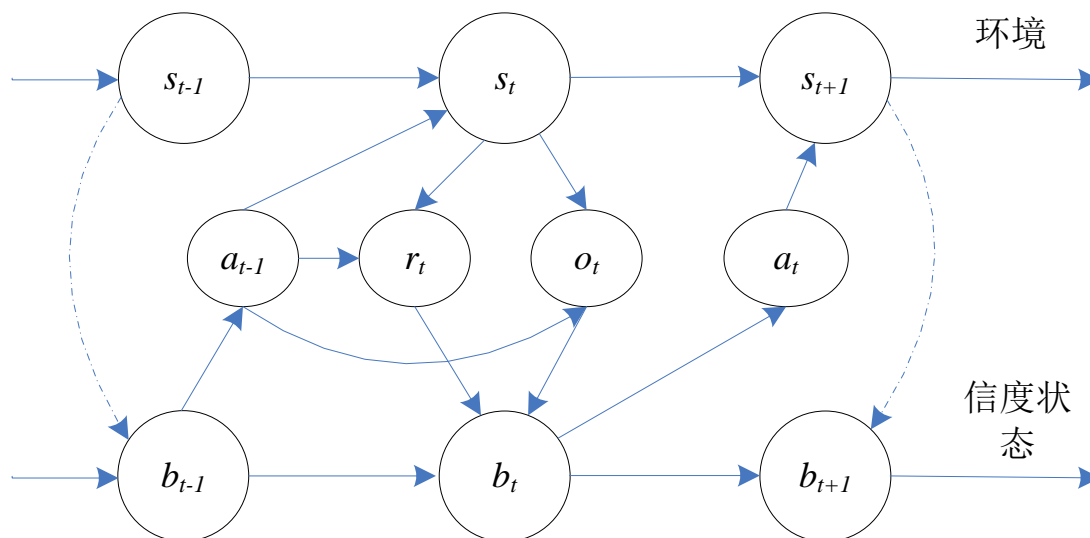
π: MDP Techniques

# POMDP\_信度状态方法

- **Idea**: Given a history of actions and observable value, we compute a posterior distribution for the state we are in (belief state)
- The **belief-state MDP**
  - States: distribution over  $S$  (states of the POMDP)
  - Actions: as in POMDP
  - Transition: the posterior distribution (given the observation)

Open Problem : How to deal with the continuous distribution?

# The Learning Process of Belief MDP



$$b'(s') = \Pr(s'|o, a, b) = \frac{O(s', a, o) \sum_{s \in S} P(s, a, s') b(s)}{\Pr(o|a, b)}$$

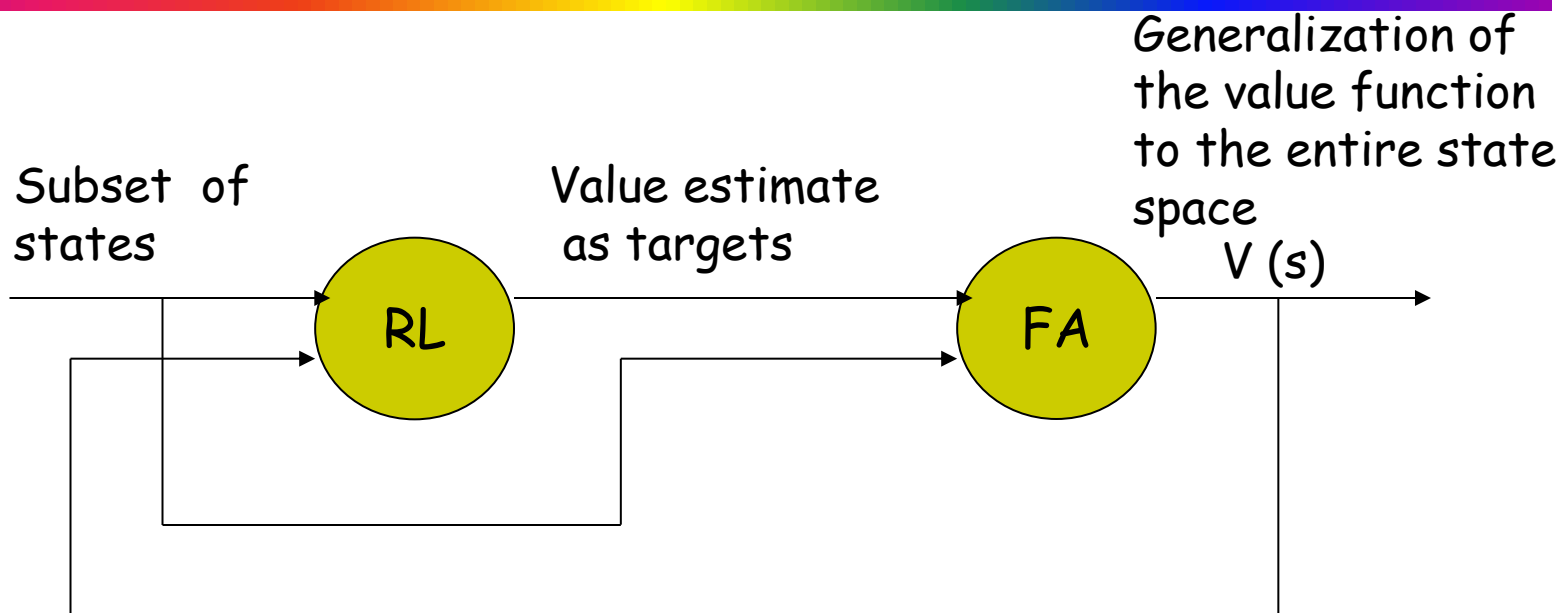
$$\rho(b, a) = \sum_{s \in S} b(s) R(s, a)$$

$$\tau(b, a, b') = \sum_{o \in O} \Pr(b'|a, b, o) \Pr(o|a, b)$$

# Major Methods to Solve POMDP

	算法名称	基本思想
学习值函数	Memoryless policies	直接采用标准的强化学习算法
	Simple memory based approaches	使用 $k$ 个历史观察表示当前状态
	UDM(Utile Distinction Memory)	分解状态, 构建有限状态机模型
	NSM(Nearest Sequence Memory)	存储状态历史, 进行距离度量
	USM(Utile Suffix Memory)	综合UDM和NSM两种方法
	Recurrent-Q	使用循环神经网络进行状态预测
策略搜索	Evolutionary algorithms	使用遗传算法直接进行策略搜索
	Gradient ascent method	使用梯度下降(上升)法搜索

# 强化学习中的函数估计



$$V_0, M(V_0), \Gamma(M(V_0)), M(\Gamma(M(V_0))), \Gamma(M(\Gamma(M(V_0)))) , \dots$$

$\Gamma$  is the TD operator.

$M$  is the function approximation operator.

# 并行两个迭代过程

- 值函数迭代过程

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

- 值函数逼近过程

$$V'(s,a) = M(Q(s,a))$$

How to construct the  $M$  function? Using state cluster, interpolation, decision tree or neural network?

# 并行两个迭代过程

- Function Approximator:

$$V(s) = f(s, w)$$

weight vector

- Update: Gradient-descent Sarsa:*

$$W \leftarrow W + \alpha \underbrace{[r_{t+1} + \gamma Q(s_{t+1}, a_{t+1}) - Q(s_t, a_t)]}_{\text{target value}} \nabla_w f(s_t, a_t, w)$$

Standard  
gradient

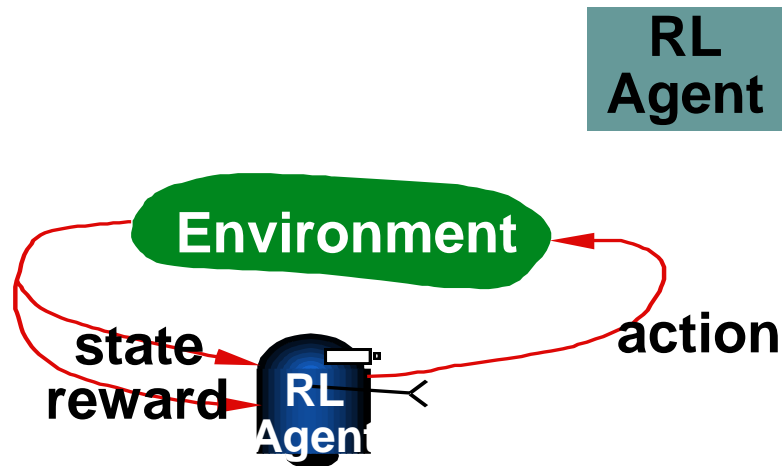
estimated value

Open Problem : How to design the non-linear FA system which can converge with the incremental instances?



# Multi-agent MDP

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- Distributed RL
- Markov Game
- Best Response

# 三种观点

	问题空间	主要方法	算法准则
合作多 agent 强化学习	分布、同构、 合作环境	交换状态	提高学习收敛速度
		交换经验	
		交换策略	
		交换建议	
基于平衡解 多 agent 强化学习	同构或异构、 合作或竞争环境	极小极大-Q	理性和收敛性
		NASH-Q	
		CE-Q	
		WoLF	
最佳响应 多 agent 强化学习	异构、竞争环境	PHC	收敛性和不遗憾性
		IGA	
		GIGA	
		GIGA-WoLF	

# 马尔可夫对策

- 在  $n$  个 agent 的系统中，定义离散的状态集  $S$ （即对策集合  $G$ ），agent 动作集  $A_i$  的集合  $A$ ，联合奖赏函数  $R_i: S \times A_1 \times \dots \times A_n \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  和状态转移函数  $P: S \times A_1 \times \dots \times A_n \rightarrow PD(S)$ 。

$S \times A_1 \times \dots \times A_n \rightarrow PD(S)$ 。

		Agent A		
		剪刀	石头	布
Agent B	剪刀	(0,0)	(-1,+1)	(+1,-1)
	石头	(+1,-1)	(0,0)	(-1,+1)
	布	(-1,+1)	(+1,-1)	(0,0)

		Agent A	
		对抗	合作
Agent B	对抗	(-9,-9)	(0,-10)
	合作	(-10,0)	(-1,-1)

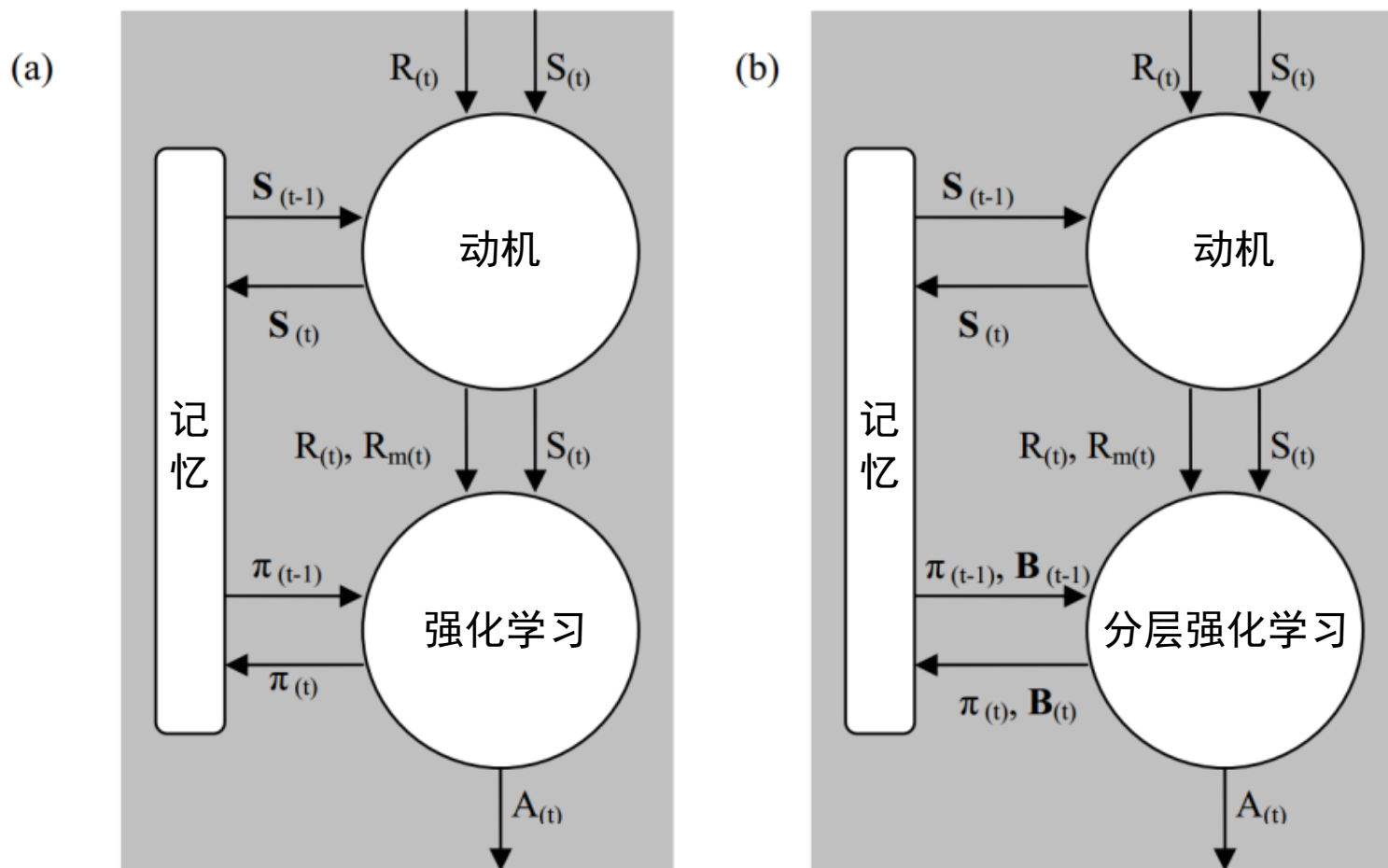
# 基于平衡解方法的强化学习

$$V^*(s) = \max_{\vec{a} \in \vec{A}(s)} \sum_{s'} P_{ss'}^{\vec{a}} \left[ R_{ss'}^{\vec{a}} + \gamma V^*(s') \right]$$

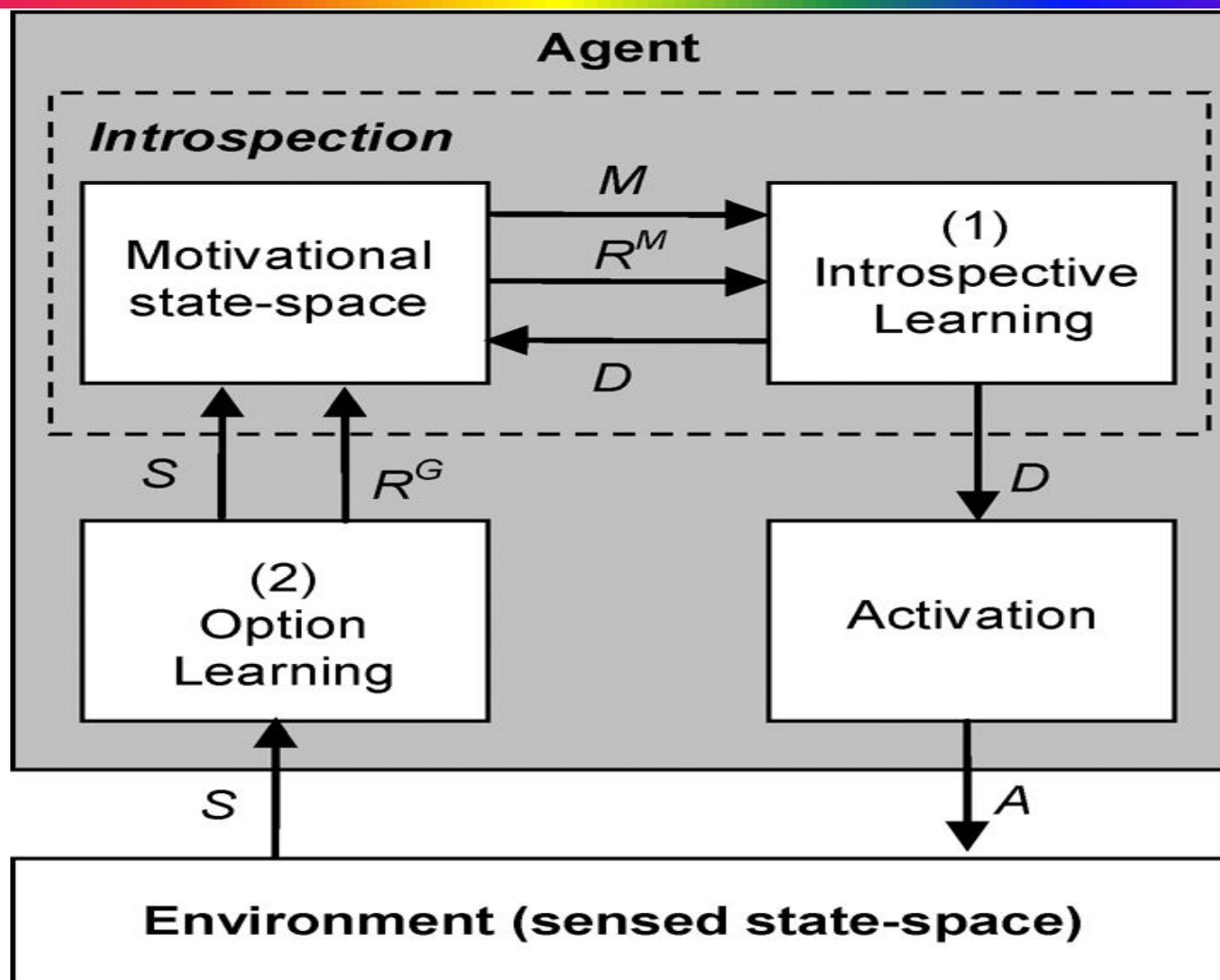
The optimal policy in single game is Nash equilibrium.

Open Problem : Nash equilibrium or other equilibrium is enough?

# 基于动机的强化学习

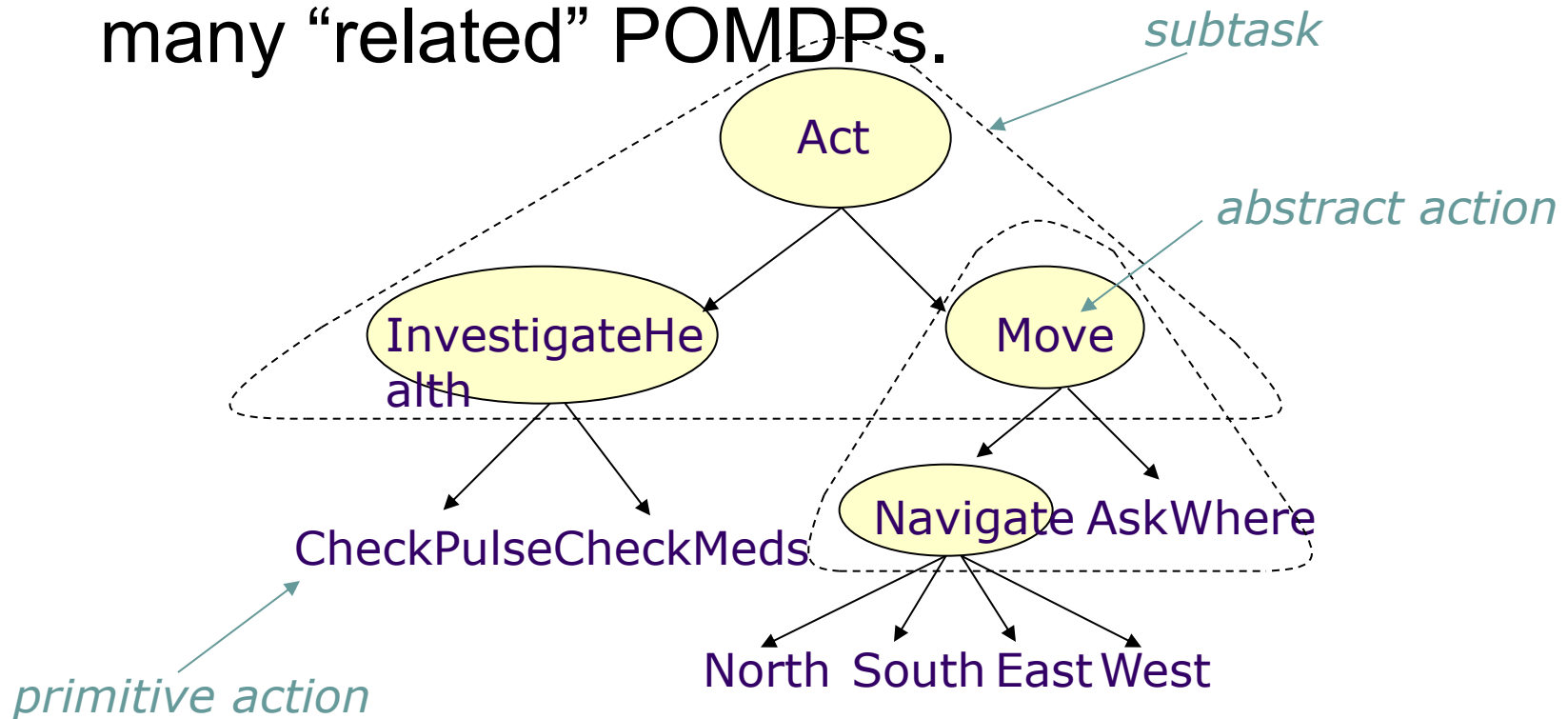


# 基于动机的强化学习



# Hierarchical POMDPs

- **Key Idea:** Exploit hierarchical structure in the problem domain to break a problem into many “related” POMDPs.



# 分层POMDPs规划

- Given POMDP model  $M = \{S, A, \Omega, b, T, O, R\}$  and hierarchy  $H$
- For each subtask  $h \in H$ :

1) Set components

$A_h \leftarrow \text{children nodes}$

$S_h \leftarrow S$

$\Omega_h \leftarrow \Omega$

$b_h, T_h, O_h, R_h$

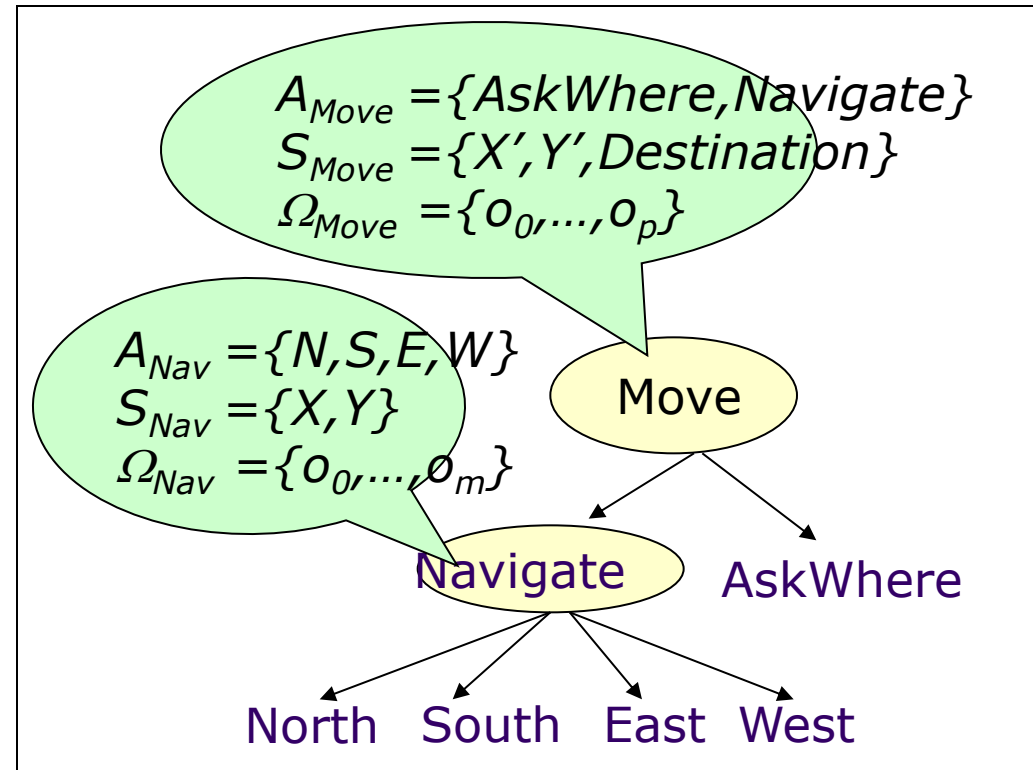
2) Minimize model

$S_h \leftarrow \{z_h(s_0), \dots, z_h(s_n)\}$

$\Omega_h \leftarrow \{y_h(o_0), \dots, y_h(o_p)\}$

3) Solve subtask  $h$

$\pi_h \leftarrow \{b_h, T_h, O_h, R_h\}$





# 分层POMDPs执行

- Step 1 - Update belief:

$$b_t(s_i) = \frac{P(o | s_i, a) \sum_{s_j \in S} P(s_i | s_j, a) b_{t-1}(s_j)}{P(o | a, b)}$$

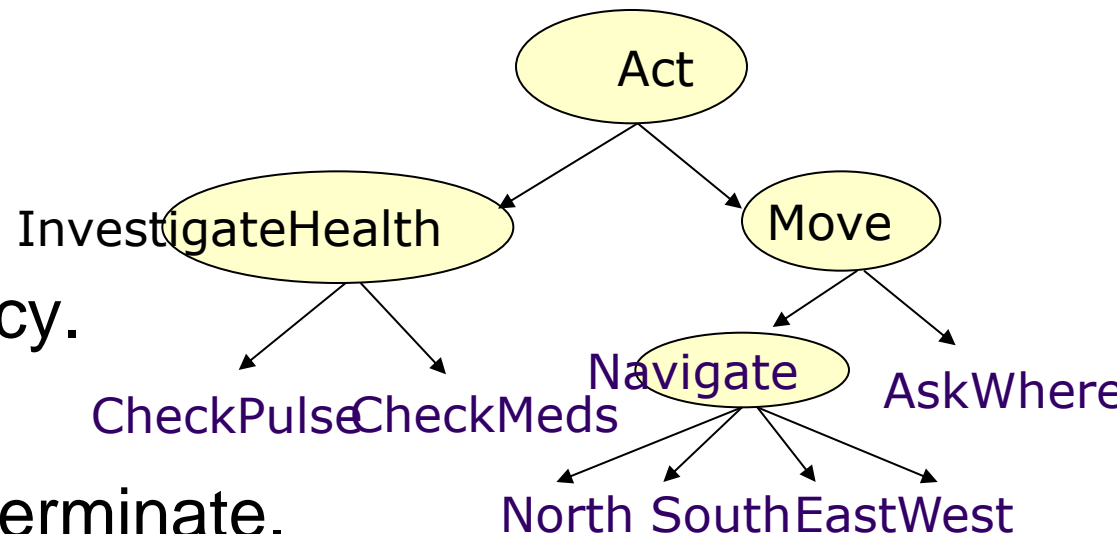
- Step 2 - Traversing hierarchy top-down, for each subtask:

1) Get local belief.

2) Consult local policy.

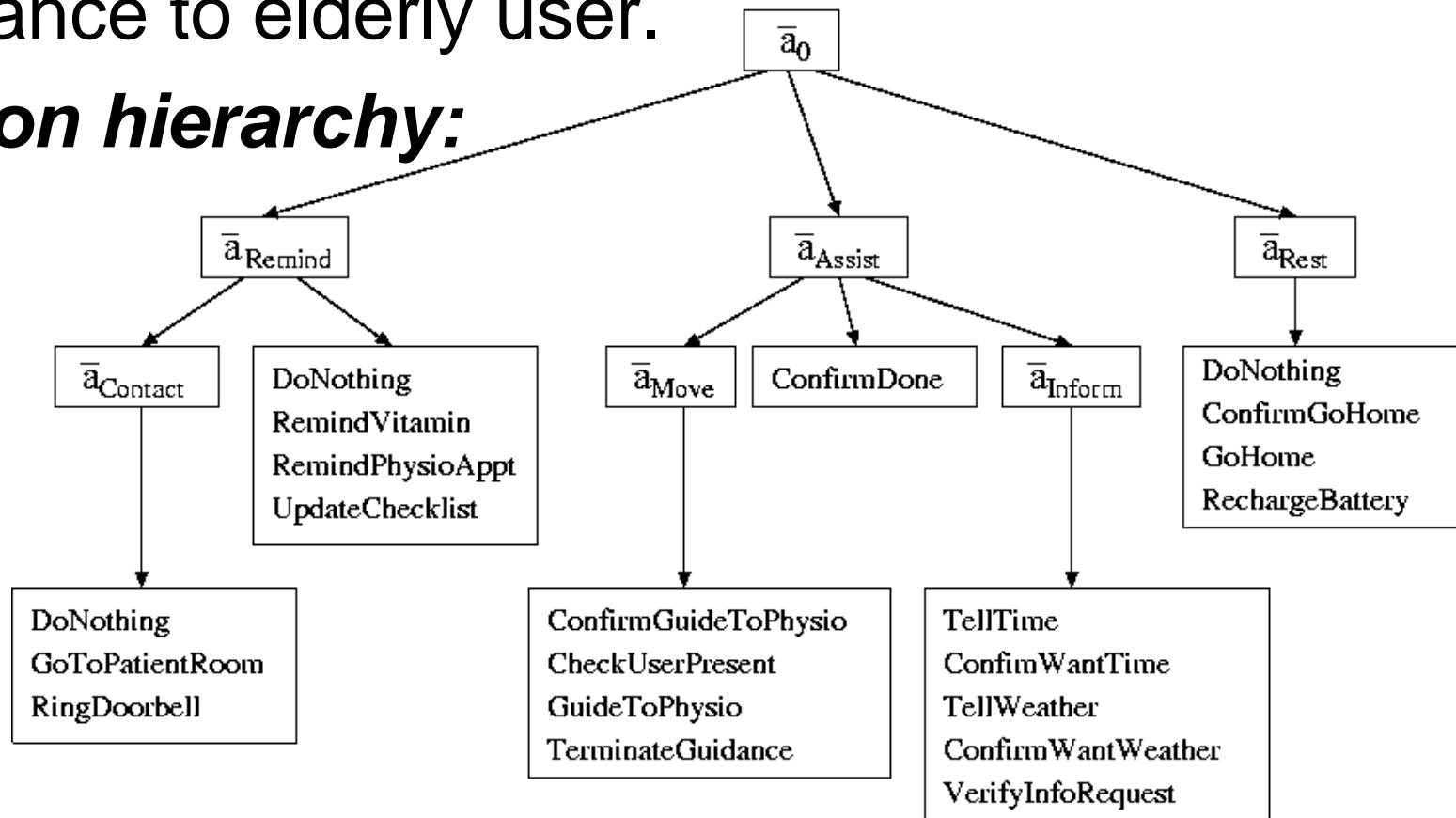
3) If  $a$  is leaf node, terminate.

Else, go to that subtask.



# 实验安排

- **Task:** Robot provides reminders and guidance to elderly user.
- **Action hierarchy:**



# Applications of RL

- Checker's [Samuel 59]
- TD-Gammon [Tesauro 92]
- World's best downpeak elevator dispatcher [Crites et al ~95]
- Inventory management [Bertsekas et al ~95]
  - 10-15% better than industry standard
- Dynamic channel assignment [Singh & Bertsekas, Nie&Haykin ~95]
  - Outperforms best heuristics in the literature
- Cart-pole [Michie&Chambers 68-] with bang-bang control
- Robotic manipulation [Gruppen et al. 93-]
- Path planning
- Robot docking [Lin 93]
- Parking
- Football [Stone98]
- Tetris
- Multiagent RL [Tan 93, Sandholm&Crites 95, Sen 94-, Carmel&Markovitch 95-, lots of work since]
- Combinatorial optimization: maintenance & repair
  - Control of reasoning [Zhang & Dietterich IJCAI-95]

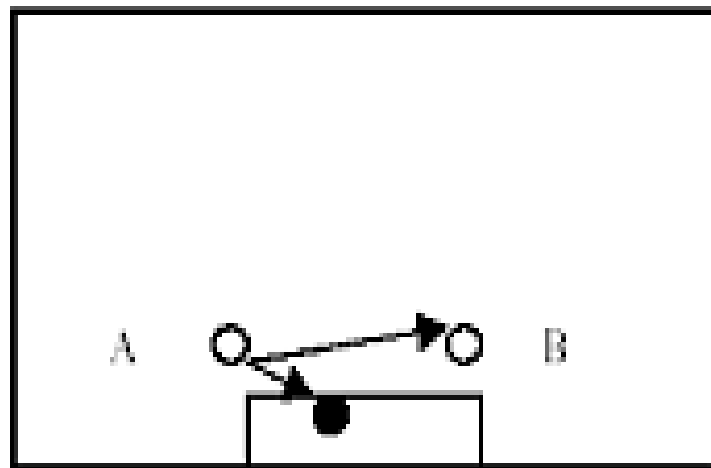
# 仿真机器人足球

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应用Q学习算法进行仿真机器人足球2 对1  
训练，训练的目的在于试图使主体学习获得  
到一种战略上的意识，能够在进攻中进行  
配合[宋志伟, 2003]

# 仿真机器人足球

前锋A控球，并且在可射门的区域内，但是A已经没有射门角度了；队友B也处于射门区域，并且B具有良好的射门角度。A传球给B，射门由B来完成，那么这次进攻配合就会很成功。通过Q学习的方法来进行2对1的射门训练，让A掌握在这种状态情况下传球给B的动作是最优的策略；主体通过大量的学习训练（大数量级的状态量和重复相同状态）来获得策略，因此更具有适应性。



# 仿真机器人足球

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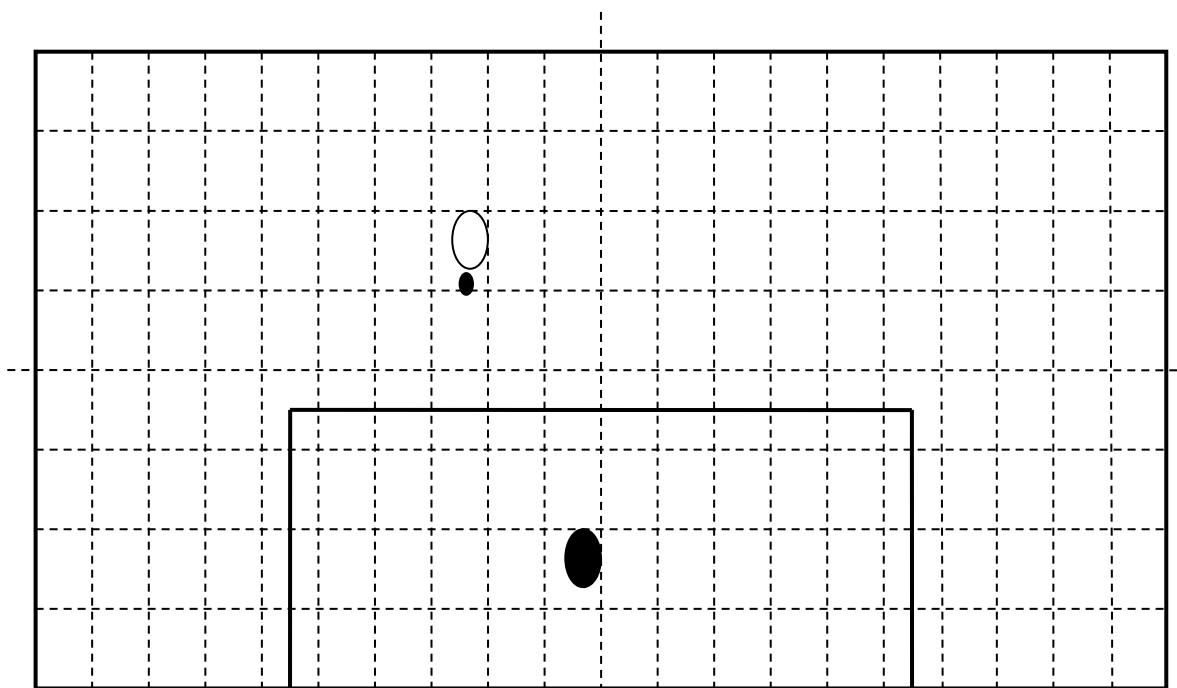


图10.11 进攻禁区内的位置划分

7

# 仿真机器人足球

状态描述，将进攻禁区划分为个小区域，每个小区域是边长为2m的正方形，一个二维数组()便可描述这个区域。使用三个Agent的位置来描述2对1进攻时的环境状态，利用图10.11所示的划分来泛化状态。可认为主体位于同一战略区域为相似状态，这样对状态的描述虽然不精确，但设计所需的是一种战略层次的描述，可认为Agent在战略区域内是积极跑动的，这种方法满足了需求。如此，便描述了一个特定的状态；其中，是进攻队员A的区域编号，是进攻队员B的区域编号，是守门员的区域编号。区域编号计算公式为： $S=ix8+j$ 。相应地，所保存的状态值为三个区域编号组成的对。前锋A控球，并且在可射门的区域内，但是A已经没有射门角度了；队友B也处于射门区域，并且B具有良好的射门角度。A传球给B，射门由B来完成，那么这次进攻配合就会很成功。通过Q学习的方法来进行2对1的射门训练，让A掌握在这种状态情况下传球给B的动作是最优的策略；主体通过大量的学习训练（大数量级的状态量和重复相同状态）来获得策略，因此更具有适应性。

# 仿真机器人足球

- 可选动作集确定为  $\{Shoot, Pass, Dribble\}$
- Shoot 的策略通过基于概率的射门训练的学习来得到。
- Dribble 的策略是，始终向受到威胁小，并且射门成功率高的区域带球。为了实现这一策略目标，可划分进攻区域为多个战略区，在每个战略区进行射门评价，记录每个区域的射门成功率。
- Pass策略很简单，只需在两个Agent间进行传球，即不需要选择球传送的对象，也不需要判断传球路径。如果传球失败的话，则认为在这种状态下执行Pass策略是不成功的；经过此训练后，不可能的传球路径也不会被执行了。



# 仿真机器人足球

- 训练中的所有状态包含了四个吸收状态。假设进攻方在左半场，按照标准的Soccer server规范，这四个状态的比赛模式为play\_on、goal\_left、goal\_kick\_right和free\_kick\_right。当达到吸收状态时，给与主体最终奖励 $r$ 。促使到达吸收状态的上一步动作获得的立即回报值为最终奖励值 $r$ ，其他未直接促使到达吸收状态的动作均获得过程奖励值作为立即奖励；其中goal\_left的 $r$ 最大为1表示进球，其他状态下 $r$ 为不同大小的负数。

# 仿真机器人足球

- 主体在经过一定的状态和执行多个动作后获得了终态奖励（到达了吸收状态），这时就会对这个状态-动作序列分配奖励。Q学习算法的核心就是每一个状态和动作的组合都拥有一个Q值，每次获得最终回报后通过更新等式更新这个Q值。由于Robocup仿真平台在设计的时候在状态转换的时候加入了一个较小的随机噪音，所以该模型为非确定MDP, 确定Q更新等式为：

$$Q(s, a) = (1 - \alpha)Q(s, a) + \alpha(r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s_{t+1}, a'))$$

规定 $\alpha=0.1$ ,  $\gamma=0.95$ 。

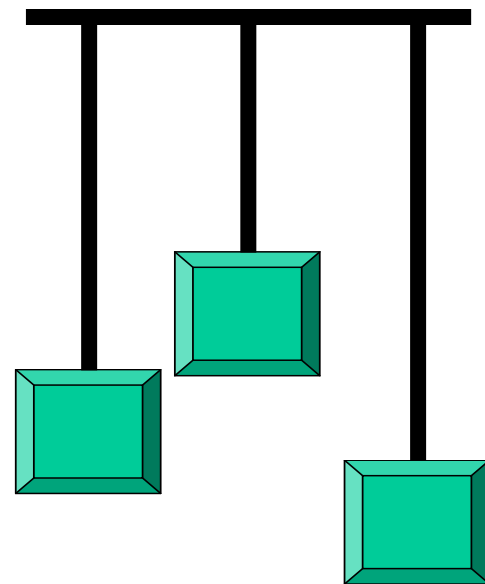
# 仿真机器人足球

在实际的训练中，初始Q表各项的值为1。经过大约2万次的训练（到达吸收状态为一次），Agent的Q表中的绝大部分项发生了变化，并且已经区分开来。下表是某场景下的训练次数和动作选择的变化示意表。

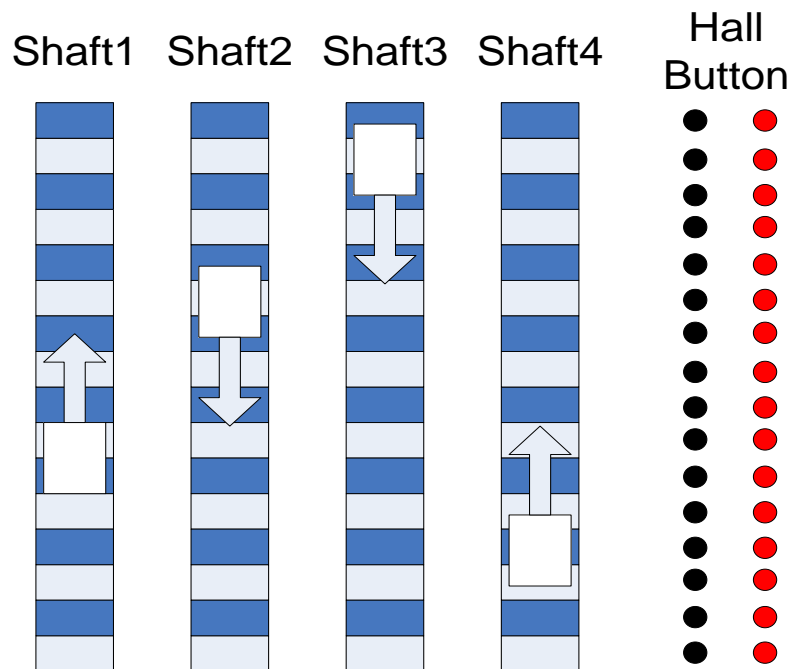
	初始值	5千次	1万次	2万次
shoot	1	0.7342	0.6248	0.5311
pass	1	0.9743	0.9851	0.993
dribble	1	0.9012	0.8104	0.7242

# 强化学习应用\_调度

- Job shop scheduling
- Group-control elevator scheduling
- Dynamical channel allocation



# 应用 - 分布式电梯控制

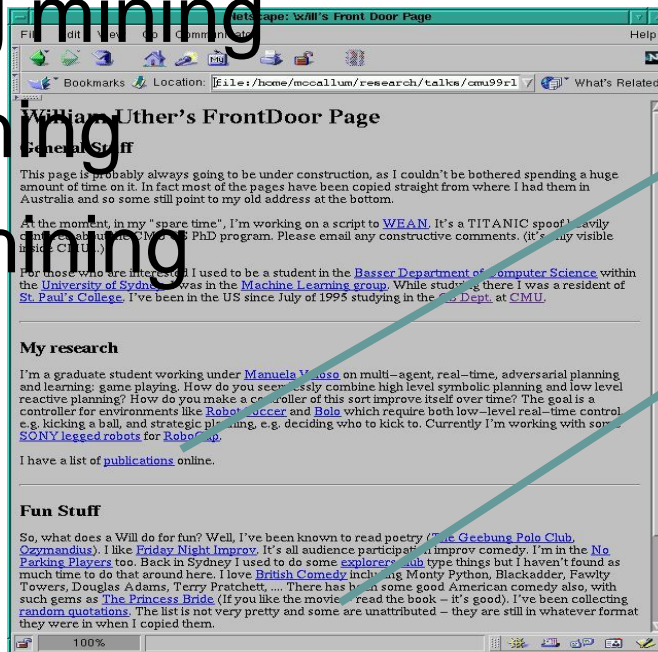


$$R_t = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\beta\tau} r_{t+\tau} d\tau$$

$$Q(s, a) \rightarrow Q(s, a) + \alpha \left[ \int_{t_1}^{t_2} e^{-\beta(\tau-t_1)} r_{\tau} d\tau + e^{-\beta(t_2-t_1)} \max_a Q(s', a') - Q(s, a) \right]$$

# 强化学习应用\_信息检索

- Web crawling
- Domain-specific Search Engine
- Web-log mining
- Text mining
- Image mining



Q("Publications",  
"My research",  
"Will's FrontDoor Page")

Q("British Comedy",  
"Fun Stuff",  
"Will's FrontDoor Page")

# Nursing Robot Pearl



# Pearl 介绍

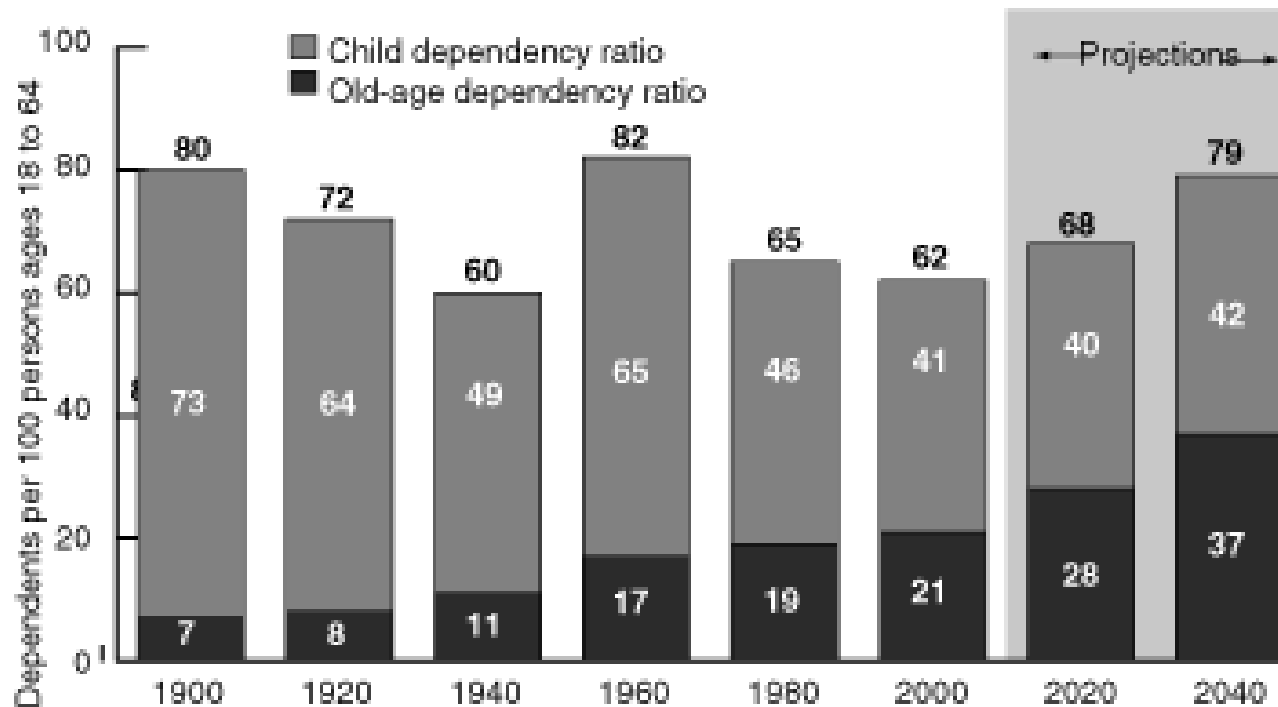
- Pearl is a prototype nursing robot, providing assistance to both nurses and elderly people



CogRob2002 workshop

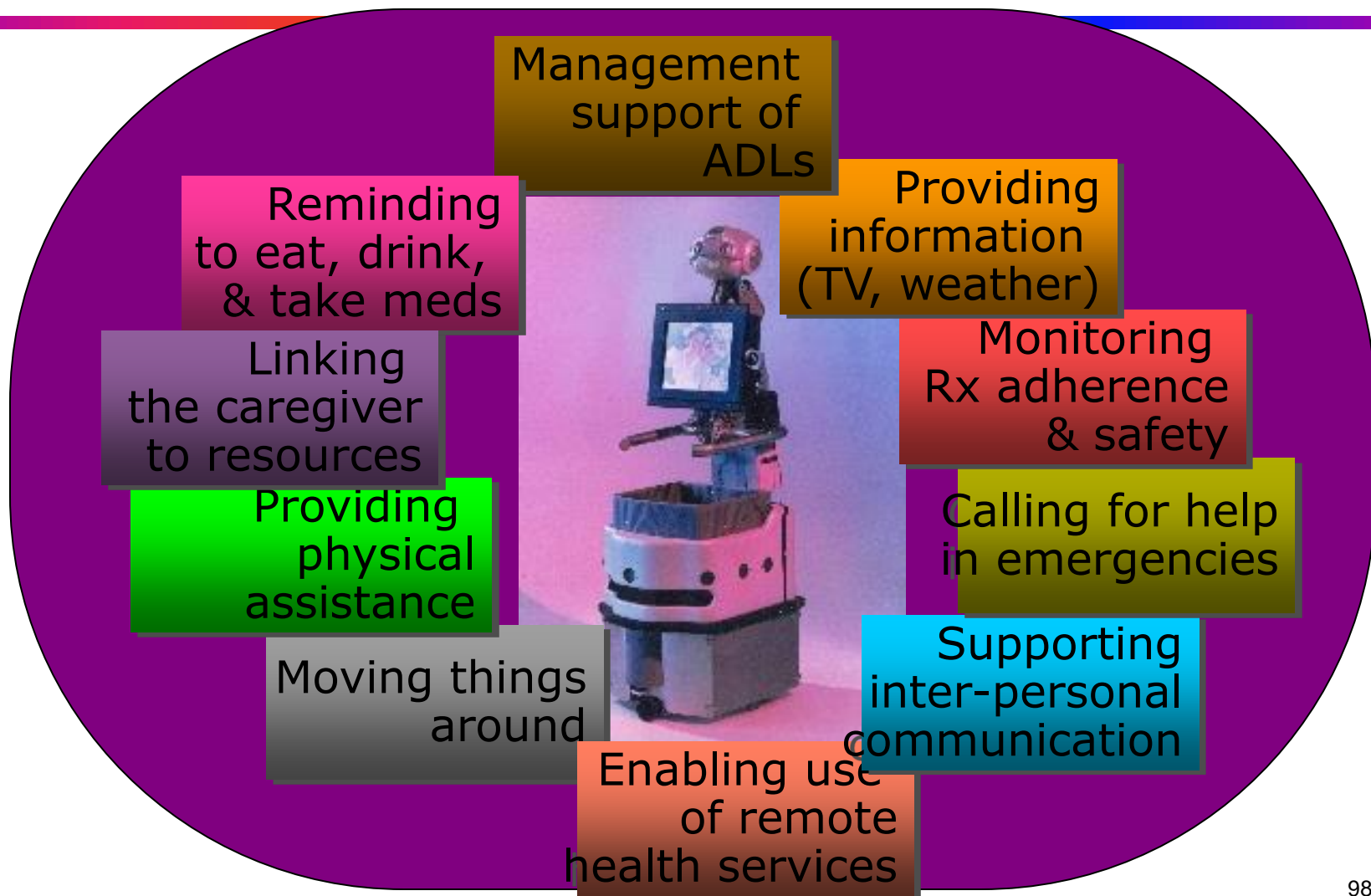


# 老年人数



- ↖ 450,000 more nurses needed by 2008
- ↖ campaign to recruit and retain nurses and other health care providers

# 机器人助理保健



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# Thank You

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Question!

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