

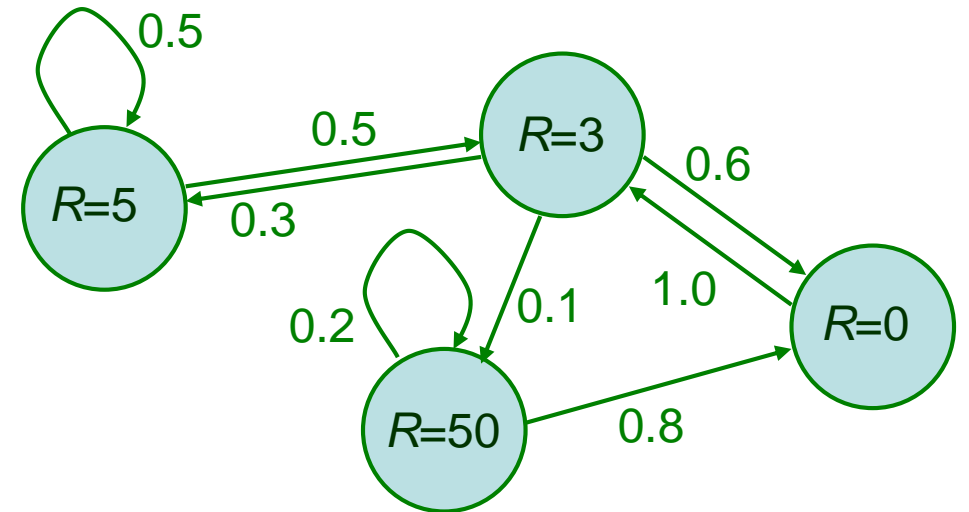
Reinforcement Learning (RL)

Why Reinforcement Learning?

- The task involves a series of actions.
- For a given state, there is no teacher to tell the agent what the "correct" or "optimal" action is from that state.
- External feedbacks (reward/penalty) are available, but not after every action.
- Example scenario: Playing a game without a given evaluation function. Can the agent learn an evaluation function from its experience?

Markov Decision Processes

- We talk about **Markov Decision Processes** (MDPs) because these are how the tasks of RL are represented.
- The content of a MDP consists of:
 - States.
 - Allowed actions of the states.
 - Immediate rewards of the states.
 - Probabilistic transition function $P(s'|s,a)$.



Markov Decision Processes

- In a MDP, we can not find an optimal "path" because it is stochastic.
- What we try to optimize is a **policy**, $\pi(s)$, which is a function from states to actions.
- A **state-value function** (often called just "value function") of a state, $V^\pi(s)$, represents the "expected total rewards" when we start from state s with policy π .
 - This is like the averaged reward of all the possible paths from the given state to the terminal states, weighted by probabilities of the paths.
 - We represent the optimal policy as π^* and the corresponding optimal state-value function as $V^*(s)$.

Rewards

- The total reward of a path with state sequence s_0, s_1, s_2, \dots is given by

$$R(s_0) + \gamma R(s_1) + \gamma^2 R(s_2) + \dots$$

- **Discounted Reward:**

- Far-away future rewards are less important than immediate rewards (when $\gamma < 1$).
- Here γ is called the discount factor.
- When $\gamma = 1$, we say we have additive rewards.

Policy, Reward and State-Values

Bellman's equation (fixed policy):

The diagram shows the Bellman's equation for a fixed policy: $V^\pi(s) = R(s) + \gamma \sum_{s'} P(s'|s, \pi(s)) V^\pi(s')$. Red annotations include: an arrow from 'Reward' to $R(s)$; an arrow from 'Probabilistic transition function' to $P(s'|s, \pi(s))$; an arrow from 'Discount Factor' to γ ; an arrow from 'Policy (action at s)' to $\pi(s)$; and an arrow from 'State-values' to $V^\pi(s)$. Red circles highlight $V^\pi(s)$, $R(s)$, γ , $P(s'|s, \pi(s))$, and $\pi(s)$.

$$V^\pi(s) = R(s) + \gamma \sum_{s'} P(s'|s, \pi(s)) V^\pi(s')$$

State-values Discount Factor Policy (action at s)

Bellman's equation (optimal policy):

$$V^*(s) = R(s) + \gamma \max_a \sum_{s'} P(s'|s, a) V^*(s')$$

Value Iteration

- **Bellman update:** We take the Bellman's equation for optimal policy, and convert it to right-to-left assignment. Applying it iteratively allows us to estimate the state-value function (when the policy is optimal):

$$V(s) \leftarrow R(s) + \gamma \max_a \sum_{s'} P(s'|s, a) V(s')$$

- We start with all-zero state values.
- The optimal policy is linked to the estimated state-value function as

$$\pi^*(s) = \arg \max_a \sum_{s'} P(s'|s, a) V(s')$$

Policy Iteration

Alternating iteration of these two steps:

■ **Policy Evaluation:** Estimate the state-value function using the current policy:

$$V^{\pi}(s) \leftarrow R(s) + \gamma \sum_{s'} P(s'|s, \pi(s)) V^{\pi}(s')$$

- For small MDPs, this can be solved exactly.
- For larger MDPs, we can just apply several iterations of Bellman update.
- The policy is randomly initialized.

■ (Greedy) **Policy Improvement:** Update the policy so that it is optimal with the current state-value function:

$$\pi(s) \leftarrow \arg \max_a \sum_{s'} P(s'|s, a) V(s')$$

Policy Parameterization

- While we have a very large state space, the policy can no longer be expressed as a look-up table (like we have assumed so far).
- What we can do is to represent the policy with a set of parameters (e.g., using a neural network).
- Policy optimization becomes the optimization of the parameters.
- With policy parameterization, we commonly have a soft (continuous) representation of the policy, $\pi^\theta(a|s)$, where θ represents the set of parameters.
- With a soft policy, a small change on the parameters only leads to a small change of the agent behavior. This allows for easier optimization.
- The parameters can be optimized using gradient based methods (**policy gradient**) or methods that do not use gradients, such as evolutionary methods.

Model-Based vs. Model-Free Learning

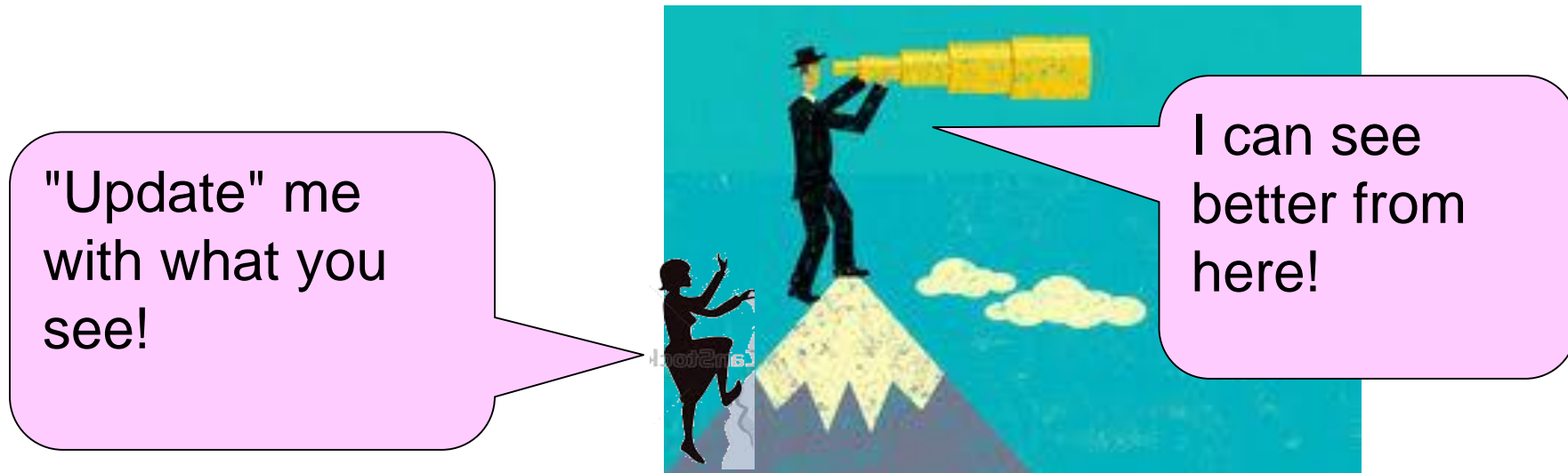
- So far, we have assumed that the MDP (in particular, the transition function) is known. Methods based on this assumption are considered **model-based**. However, this is not the case for many real-world problems.
- We need methods to learn a policy without knowing or estimating the MDP; such methods are considered **model-free**.
- Such learning is achieved by **sampling** paths through the state space in order to collect information.
- Monte-Carlo Tree Search is a kind of such sampling.

REINFORCE

- **REINFORCE**, also called **Monte-Carlo Policy Gradient**, is a gradient-ascent method that updates the policy parameters after a path is sampled.
- Updates are favored for the parameters that enhance the probabilities of actions along paths with larger accumulated rewards.
- Objective function:
$$U(\theta) = \sum_{\tau} P(\tau; \theta) R(\tau)$$
 - τ : A trajectory (sequence of states in sampled path)
 - $R(\tau)$: Reward of the trajectory
 - $P(\tau; \theta)$: Probability of the trajectory given the policy
- Gradient ascend:
$$\theta \leftarrow \theta + \alpha \nabla_{\theta} U(\theta)$$

Temporal Difference (TD) Learning

- It is unnecessary to do updates only after complete sample paths (episodes).
- Idea: Use "estimated evaluations at future states" (which tend to be more accurate) to update the evaluation of the current state.

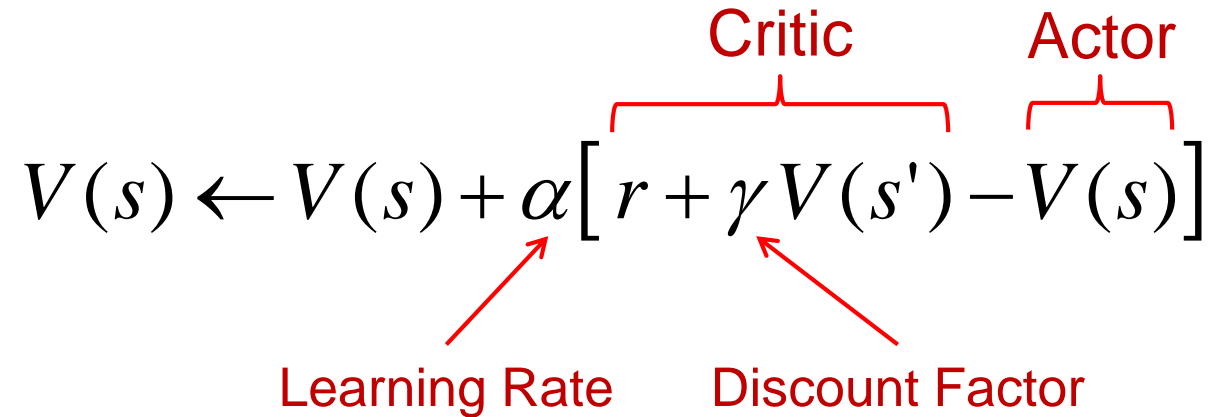


Temporal Difference (TD) Learning

- A basic TD learning step:

$$V(s) \leftarrow V(s) + \alpha \left[\overbrace{r + \gamma V(s')}^{\text{Critic}} - \overbrace{V(s)}^{\text{Actor}} \right]$$

Learning Rate Discount Factor



- This is an **actor-critic method** in RL. (The "critic" is the supposedly better estimation from a subsequent state.)

Q-Learning

- A really popular approach of reinforcement learning.
- The algorithm follows the idea of TD learning.
- **Q-functions** are **action-value functions**: Each entry, $Q(s,a)$, represents the expected total reward of taking action a at state s .
- The goal: To learn the Q-functions
 - When the learning converges, the best policy is to follow the action with the best Q value.
 - The "expected total reward" assumes that the best-Q-value action is taken for all subsequent steps until a terminal state is reached.
- Q functions, like state-value functions, can be parameterized.

The Q-Learning Algorithm

- Initialize all the Q values (for example, to zero).
- A typical Q-learning procedure is to repeat the following many times (learning episodes):
 - Start at any valid initial state.
 - Repeat until a terminal state is reached:
 - ◆ Choose a valid action a from the current state s . Let s' be the resulting new state, and let r be the reward incurred for this action.
 - ◆ Update $Q(s,a)$: (This occurs only for non-terminal s .)

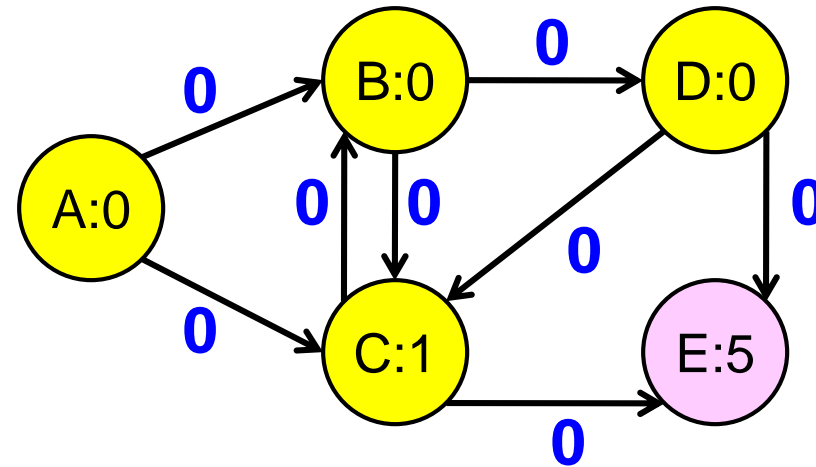
$$Q(s,a) \leftarrow Q(s,a) + \alpha \left[r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s',a') - Q(s,a) \right]$$

Learning Rate

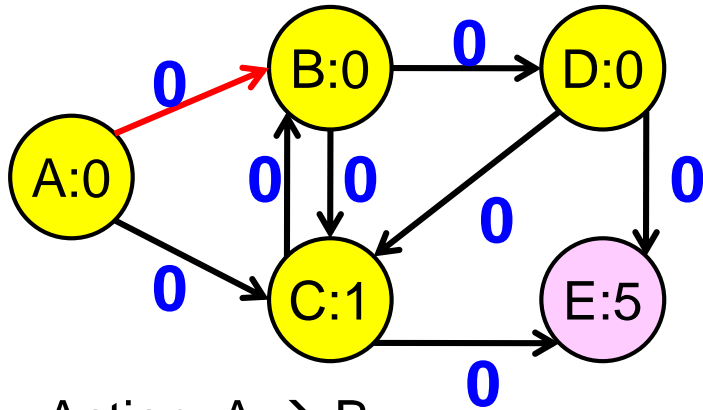
Discount Factor

Q-Learning Example

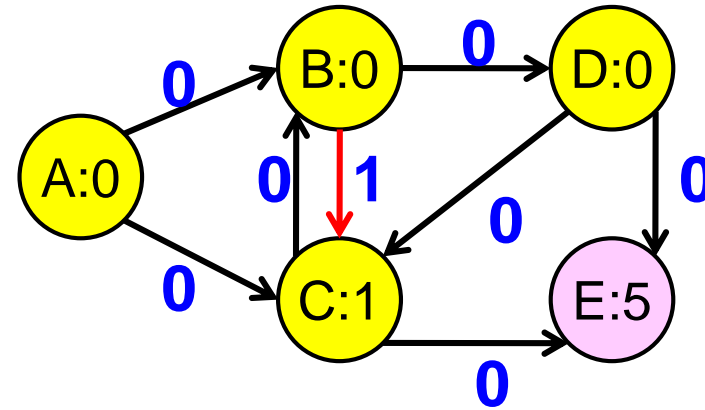
- For simplicity, we will consider only a deterministic environment here, and all the Q values are initialized to zero.
- Settings (state space given below): Start states = {A}.
Learning rate = 1. Discount factor = 1. Terminal states = {E}.



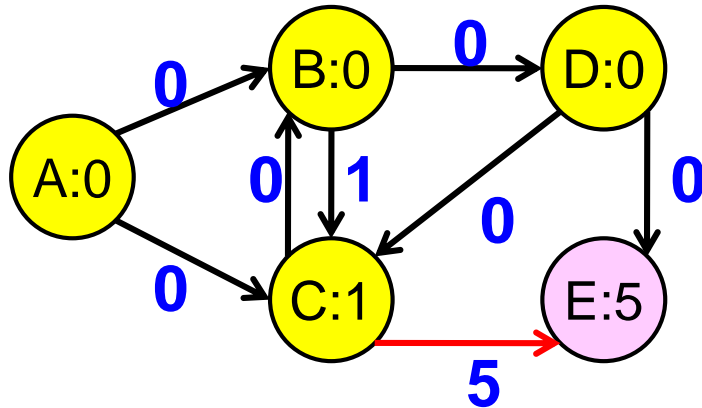
Q-Learning Example



Action: $A \rightarrow B$
 $Q(A, A \rightarrow B) \leftarrow 0$

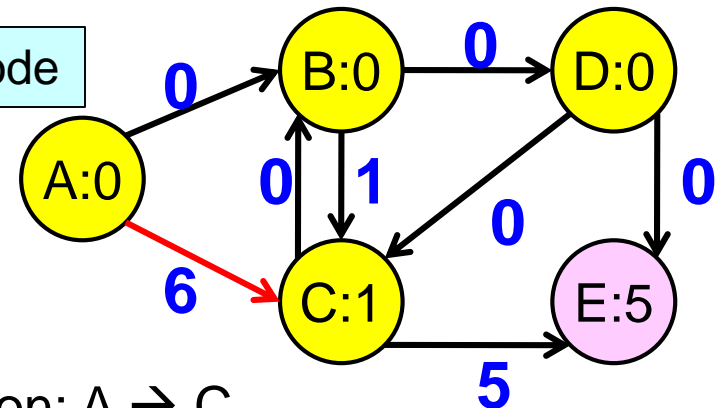


Action: $B \rightarrow C$
 $Q(B, B \rightarrow C) \leftarrow 1 + \max(0, 0) = 1$



Action: $C \rightarrow E$
 $Q(C, C \rightarrow E) \leftarrow 5$

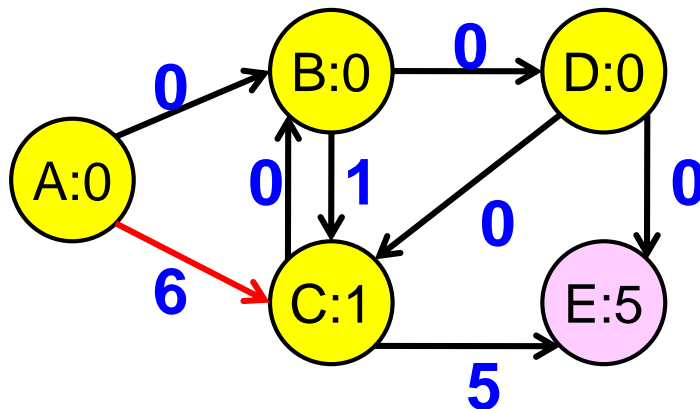
new episode



Action: $A \rightarrow C$
 $Q(A, A \rightarrow C) \leftarrow 1 + \max(0, 5) = 6$

Q Tables

- **Q-table** (the most common representation): A table of values of each combination of a state and a valid action from that state.
- Convenient for problems with finite states and finite valid actions per state.
- **Quantization** can be used for environments with continuous states and/or actions.



	→A	→B	→C	→D	→E
A	-	0	6	-	-
B	-	-	1	0	-
C	-	0	-	-	5
D	-	-	0	-	0
E	-	-	-	-	-

Q-Learning: Exploration vs. Exploitation

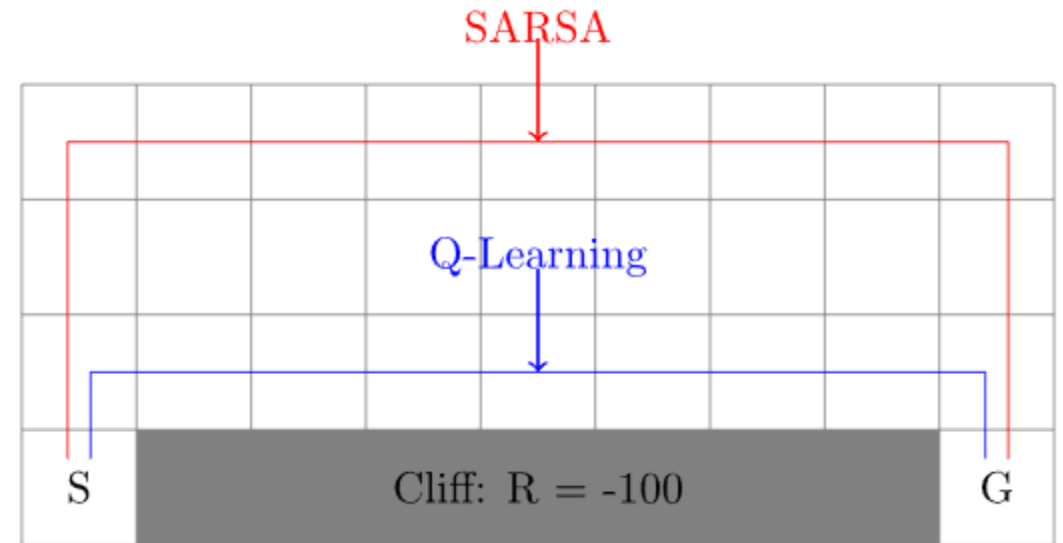
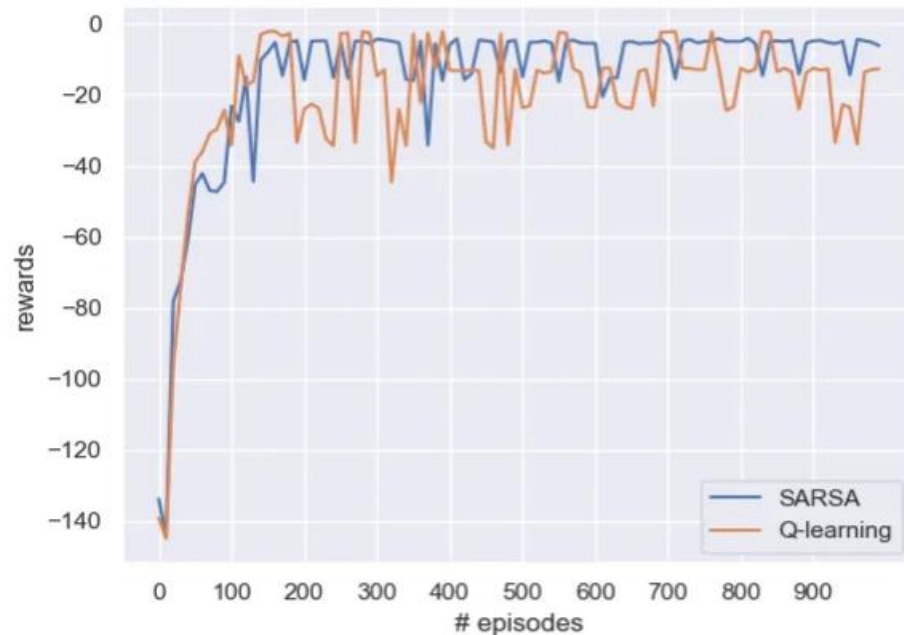
- Problem: During a training episode, how to choose the action from a state?
 - Best Q-value (greedy approach): Exploitation
 - Random action: Exploration
- ϵ -greedy: Use a probability (ϵ) to choose between the two. (More exploration initially, and more exploitation later to facilitate convergence.)
- (Optional) Adjustment of the discount factor: smaller initially (to avoid propagation of "noise") and larger later.

SARSA vs. Q-Learning

- **SARSA** (State-Action-Reward-State-Action) is a learning method very similar to Q-learning: It also attempts to learn a Q-function.
- The main difference is in how the Q values are updated:
 - Q-learning:
$$Q(s, a) \leftarrow Q(s, a) + \alpha \left[r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a') - Q(s, a) \right]$$
 - SARSA:
$$Q(s, a) \leftarrow Q(s, a) + \alpha \left[r + \gamma Q(s', \pi(s')) - Q(s, a) \right]$$
- The policy π in the update equation of SARSA is the policy used to run the episode, so the update is based on what will happen later in this episode.
- In comparison, Q-learning assumes a greedy policy after the current step, which is likely different from the current policy.
- Therefore, Q-learning is considered an **off-policy** method and SARSA is considered an **on-policy** method.

SARSA vs. Q-Learning

- During the learning process, SARSA tends to be more conservative as it will try to avoid risks in training episodes.
- SARSA might give a more robust (less risky) policy with limited learning.
- A well-known comparison (Cliff-Walk):



Experience Replay

■ The standard practice:

- Keep a finite-sized buffer of most recent transitions during learning.
- Periodically sample from the buffer to reuse it for learning.

■ Advantages:

- Reduce the effect of the correlation between consecutive episodes on the learning process.
- Reusing past transitions may be more efficient than running new episodes.

Deep Q-Learning

- Use a neural network to represent the Q function.
- The loss function (which leads to TD learning):

$$(1/2) \left[r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a') - Q(s, a) \right]^2$$

- The network weights are updated via backpropagation.
- DeepMind used DQL to make agents that play many Atari games to top human levels (2016).



Case Study: TD-Gammon

- Two-ply game tree search.
- Classical neural network (single hidden layer) for the evaluation function.
- First version: Pure reinforcement learning ([TD-lambda](#)) of the evaluation function without human knowledge. → Good but not top performance.
- Second version: The network learns a representation based on a set of expert-designed attributes. → As good as human world champions.

