ng += 1

(1) Generally, we don't just want to evaluate the expected utility of a particular policy, but rather we want to find the policy with the best expected Utility. One step in his direction is to rewrite DLEARNING in terms of the expected utility U(q, o) of taking action or in state q, rather than the expected utility of policy in state q: TDLEARNING (Q, Z, R, T): set U(q, o) = 0, n = 1 for all (q, o) EQ X E repeat: observe transition q "(q) q' Update U(q, m(q)) = U(q, m(q)) + x(n) [Ro(q)

2) Rather than averaging

for each transition gray g' we observe, we now want to average

roward for state q

otility of the observed next state, given we perform the best action in that state

for each transition of g' we observe.

3) In TDLEARNING, we collect observations by rigidly following a fixed policy Tr. Now we have the flexibility to choose different actions ("experimentation") to observe their outcomes. This gives us the following "active" algorithm:

[set U(q, 0) = 0, nq, 0=1 for all (q, 0) = Q x Z

9=90 ropport

choose action or observe transition q=q

$$U(q,\sigma) += \alpha(n_{q,\sigma}) \left[R_{\sigma}(q) + \gamma_{\max} U(q',\sigma') \right] - U(q,\sigma)$$

ng, += 1

ACTIVE RENFORCEMENT LEARNING

(4) This algorithm is called Q-learning. The main piece we left unspecified is how to choose action o".

A simple approach is:

with prob p:

choose random action o ("exploration")

otherwise:

choose argmax U(q, o)

("exploitation")

(5) Generally in blackjack, the player gets to see one of the dealer's two cards (called the "up card"). This gives a player additional information on which to base a decision. For instance, if the player has a total of 14, but the dealer's up card is a 5, then it might be good to STAND, knowing that the dealer is likely to draw a 10 and then be forced to HIT on 15 (which is likely to result in a bust). We could make a state machine for this more typical version of blackjack: Q = {START, WIN, LOSE, DRAW} U {A K, U | KE [2,21], U & [1,10] } Z = {DEAL, HIT, STAND} Δ= { (START, DEAL, AK, U | K ∈ [2, 20], U ∈ [1, 10] } U }(AKU, STAND, Q) | KE [2,20], UE [1,10], QE ZWIN, LOSE, DRAW} U & (Azi, u, STAND, q) | U & [1,10], q & {Win, DRAW3} U & (Ak, u, HIT, Ak+m, u) | ke[2,20], u, me[1,10], k+m = 21 & U { (Ak, y, HIT, LOSE) | k \in [12,21], U \in [1,10]} \ we assume aus always count as I 90 = START F = {WIN, LOSE, DRAWS here, [i,j] denotes the integers from i to j (inclusive)

The trouble with his new state machine is that it has many more states than the "up card ignorant" formulation:

"upcard ignorant" "upcard informed"
$$4 + 20 \cdot 10$$
 = 24 = 204

7) This means that QLEARNING is now trying to estimate $U(q, \sigma)$ for approximately 400 state-action poirs (~200 states, ~2 actions/state) rather than approximately 40 state-action pairs, which intuitively will take much more experimentation and exploitation.

For instance, to get a good estimate of $U(A_{6,7}, H_{17})$, we have to reach a card total of (6 with a dealer upcard of 7 enough times to get a reliable sense of its utility.

So it will take longer to train. This problem only worsens as we add more information about the current State (e.g. card-counting statistics, "hard" or "soft" 16, etc.)

(6) One way to get reinforcement learning to scale to larger state spaces is to assume that each utility is a sum of weights:

For example, we are assuming that the expected - the "value" of HITTING given an upcard of 5. (Oup 5, HIT)

Generally:

$$U(A_{k,u},\sigma) = \sum_{k',u'} \theta_{k'}^{\text{total}} \int_{k'}^{\text{total}} (A_{k,u}) + \theta_{u'}^{\text{up}} \int_{u'}^{\text{up}} (A_{k,u})$$

where:
$$\int_{k'}^{total} (A_{k,\nu}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } k=k' \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
To otherwise otherwise

The advantage of this assumption is that we can generalize learning across states. For instance, it is generally bad to HIT on 20 (regardless of the up card). Evenified don't have many examples of state A20,8 in our data so far, if we've seen several states of the form A20,0, then we can still know not to HIT on A20,0, because the weight 9-total will be low.

Rather than learning ~400 independent utilities $U(q, \sigma)$, we need to estimate 40 $\theta_{k,\sigma}$ weights and $20 \theta_{v,\sigma}^{up}$ weights. So convergence (i.f. it happens) should be faster.

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10) The modification to OLEARNING is minimal

QLEARNING

Set
$$\theta_i = 0$$
 for all $i \in [1, I]$

set $n_{g,\sigma} = 1$ for all $(q,\sigma) \in \mathbb{Q} \times \Sigma$
 $q = q_0$

repeat:

choose action σ

observe transition $q = q'$
 $\theta_i + \infty (n_{g,\sigma}) \left(R_0(q) + \gamma_{\max} U(q',\sigma') \right) - U(q,\sigma)$

if $\sigma_i(q) = 1$

1) Why would such a modification work? Well, it doesn't always. But the rationale is this. If the weights O: have been set perfectly, then:

$$U(q,\sigma) = R_0(q) + V_{max} U(q',\sigma')$$

$$= (R_0(q) + V_{max} U(q',\sigma')) - U(q,\sigma) = 0$$
Thus, we won't update the weights if they're correct.

12) If the weights that compose $U(q, \sigma)$ are wrong, then either $U(q, \sigma)$ is underestimated: $\sum_{i=1}^{12} \theta_{i} < R_{o}(q) + \delta \max_{\sigma} U(q', \sigma')$ $i | \delta_{i}(q) = 1$

=> (Ro(q) + Vmax U(q', o')) - \(\frac{1}{2} \text{is positive} \)

So we increase the weights θ_i , or $U(q, \sigma)$ is overestimated, so we (similarly) decrease the weights θ_i .

However, there are no convergence guarantees. Sometimes however, it works spectacularly.