

Reinforcement Learning: Tutorial 2

Introduction & MDPs

Week 1
University of Amsterdam

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Check-in

How is it going?



Outline

1 Admin

2 Tutorial 2

- Introduction
- Exploration
- Markov Decision Processes

Admin

- Have you started looking for a HW buddy?
- Any questions?



Tutorial 2 Overview

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Exploration
- 3 Markov decision processes

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- 1 Introduction
 - Questions 1.1.1 - 1.1.4
- 2 Exploration
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Q 1.1 Introduction

- 1 Explain what is meant by the 'curse of dimensionality'.

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From the book: 'the computational requirements grow exponentially with the number of state variables'.

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5^4 .

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Instead of using both (x, y) -coordinates, use the point-wise distance between the predator and the prey. So if predator is at (x, y) and prey is at (x', y') then the state is (for instance) $(x - x', y - y')$. Note that in this representation something like $(-2, -2)$ is the same state as $(3, 3)$, due to the toroidal symmetry (the maximum distance between predator and prey in any direction is 4). This means we can choose to represent the distances as numbers between 0 and 4 (inclusive).

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In the new representation, there are 5^2 states.

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Alleviating the curse of dimensionality by reducing the number of state variables.

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By exploiting rotation invariance in the value function.

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We expect the curious agent to perform better: it will be able to discover strategies that the greedy agent may miss.

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Straightforward: annealing ϵ over time.

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 - b Does your method work if the opponent changes strategies? Why/why not? If not, provide suggestions on a heuristic that can adapt to changes in the opponent's strategy.

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Time-based: No. Heuristics that would work: temporal difference (TD) error, curiosity.



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Q 1.2 Exploration

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We have probability $1 - \epsilon$ of selecting a greedy action, and ϵ of selecting a random action uniformly. Thus, each individual action has base probability of selection of $\frac{\epsilon}{n}$. The probability of selecting a greedy action is thus $1 - \epsilon + \frac{\epsilon}{n}$.

Q 1.2 Exploration

- 2 Consider a 3-armed bandit problem with actions 1, 2, 3. If we use ϵ -greedy action-selection, initialization at 0, and **sample-average** action-value estimates, which of the following sequence of actions are certain to be the result of exploration?

$$A_0 = 1, R_1 = -1, A_1 = 2, R_2 = 1, A_2 = 2, R_3 = -2, \\ A_3 = 2, R_4 = 2, A_4 = 3, R_5 = 1.$$

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 $A_3 = 2, R_4 = 2, A_4 = 3, R_5 = 1.$

Start of Q-values: $[0, 0, 0]$.

After $A_0 = 1$: $[-1, 0, 0]$.

After $A_1 = 2$: $[-1, 1, 0]$.

After $A_2 = 2$: $[-1, -0.5, 0]$.

After $A_3 = 2$: $[-1, 0.333, 0]$.

After $A_4 = 3$: $[-1, 0.333, 1]$.

Actions that were non-greedy: A_3, A_4 .

Q 1.2 Exploration

- ② You are trying to find the optimal policy for a two-armed bandit. You try two approaches: in the pessimistic approach, you initialize all action-values at -5 , and in the optimistic approach you initialize all action-values at $+5$. One arm gives a reward of $+1$, one arm gives a reward of -1 . Using a greedy policy to choose actions, compute the resulting Q-values for both actions after three interactions with the environment. In case of a tie between two Q-values, break the tie at random. *Note:* the initialization is *not* a sample.

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- a Start of Q-values: $[5, 5]$. After $A_0 = 1$: $[1, 5]$. After $A_1 = 2$: $[1, -1]$ (these two can be flipped with the same end result). After $A_2 = 1$: $[1, -1]$. Total return: $1 + -1 + 1 = 1$

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 - b Start of Q-values: $[-5, -5]$. After $A_0 = 1$: $[1, -5]$. After $A_1 = 1$: $[1, -5]$. After $A_2 = 1$: $[1, -5]$. Total return: $1 + 1 + 1 = 3$. If the tie is broken differently: $A_0 = 2$: $[-5, -1]$. $A_1 = 2$: $[-5, -1]$. $A_2 = 2$: $[-5, -1]$. Total return: $-1 + -1 + -1 = -3$

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If the tie is broken one way: pessimistic has higher return (3 vs +1).

If it's broken the other way, optimistic has higher return (-3 vs +1).

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The optimistic initialization.

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Looking for an answer along the lines that the optimistic one is better due to unexplored options having a very high value and thus higher chance of actually being selected.

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Q 1.3 Markov Decision Processes

- 1 a For the first four examples outlined in Section 1.2 of the book, describe the state space, action space and reward signal.

Q 1.3 Markov Decision Processes

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- 1 State space: all possible configurations of chess board. Action space: all allowed moves of one piece at a time. Reward signal: win/lose/draw
 - 2 State space: all possible configurations of parameters. Action space: change of parameters. Reward signal: marginal cost
 - 3 State space: limb configurations. Action space: change angles of limbs. Reward signal: penalizes falling, reward acceleration
 - 4 State space: battery level, location of charger. Action space: enter/not enter. Reward signal: penalize running out of battery, reward collecting trash

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For example, non-Markov states (biological processes).

Q 1.3 Markov Decision Processes

- 1 d In mazes, the agent's position is often seen as the state. However, the agent's position alone is not always a sufficient description. Come up with an example where the state consists of the agent's location and one or more other variables.

Q 1.3 Markov Decision Processes

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For example, in Pacman the state consists of the agent's location, as well as the location of the ghosts and food pellets. In a driving task, the state consists of the agent's location as well as the state of other vehicles and context variables such as time of day, season, traffic light status. In a maze, the possession of a key might be another state variable next to the agent's location.

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This low-level representation allows you to learn *how* to drive. The disadvantage is that this approach makes it very hard to navigate anywhere, since our representation is too fine-grained.

Q 1.3 Markov Decision Processes

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This high-level representation is much better suited to learning how to navigate somewhere, and to reach high-level goals such as *go to the supermarket*. The disadvantage is that we have to assume the agent already knows how to drive a car.

Q 1.3 Markov Decision Processes

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Two-level policies, hierarchical RL.

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$$G_t = \sum_{k=0}^{T-t-1} \gamma^k R_{t+k+1}$$

Q 1.3 Markov Decision Processes

- 2 b Show that $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k = \frac{1}{1-\gamma}$ if $0 \leq \gamma < 1$. (Hint: if you're stuck, have a look at the Wikipedia page on *geometric series*)

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$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \gamma + \gamma^2 + \cdots + \gamma^n)$$

$$\begin{aligned} (1 - \gamma) \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 - \gamma)(1 + \gamma + \gamma^2 + \cdots + \gamma^n) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} ((1 - \gamma) + (\gamma - \gamma^2) + (\gamma^2 - \gamma^3) + \cdots + (\gamma^n - \gamma^{n+1})) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 - \gamma^{n+1}) \Rightarrow \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 - \gamma^{n+1}}{1 - \gamma} \end{aligned}$$

If $\gamma < 1$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \gamma^n \rightarrow 0$, so $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k = \frac{1}{1-\gamma}$.

Q 1.3 Markov Decision Processes

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The return is always $0 + 0 + \dots + 1 = 1$, regardless of how many time steps the agent takes.

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By adding γ , the return is now γ^K , with K the number of time steps until the robot escapes. Since $\gamma < 1$, the return is bigger if the robot escapes faster.

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By changing the reward to give a small penalty of e.g. $R_t = -0.01$ on every time step, the return is now $G_t = -0.01(T - t)$, which means the return is bigger if the robot escapes faster.

That's it!



See you next Monday