## Reinforcement Learning

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November 23, 2024

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## A new kind of learning

- Supervised learning: matching features to labels
- Unsupervised learning: clustering data
- ▶ Reinforcement learning: learning from rewards

# What is reinforcement learning (RL)?

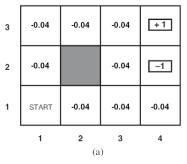
▶ We give the agent **rewards** based on its performance

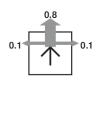
# What is reinforcement learning (RL)?

- ▶ We give the agent **rewards** based on its performance
- Markov property: we can view problems as Markov decision processes (MDPs)

## A framework: Markov decision processes

- ► Actions map states to states with a probability distribution
- ▶ Transition reward: R(s, a, s')
- ▶ Transition probability: P(s' | s, a)

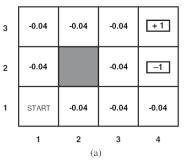


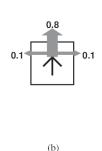


(b)

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#### Bellman's equation

Given a discount factor  $\gamma \in [0,1]$ , the utility is given by:

$$U(s) = \max_{a \in A(s)} \sum_{s'} P(s' \mid s, a) \left[ R(s, a, s') + \gamma U(s') \right]$$



## Model-based reinforcement learning

We maintain a transition model (an MDP):

- Reward function: R(s, a, s')
- ▶ Probability function: P(s' | s, a)
- Utility function: U(s), maps states to utility

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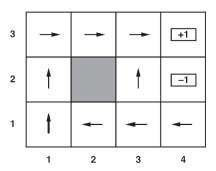
▶ Utility function: U(s), maps states to **utility** 

Once the model is learned, we can maximize utility

3	0.812	0.868	0.918	+1
2	0.762		0.660	-1
1	0.705	0.655	0.611	0.388
	1	2	3	4

# Model-free reinforcement learning

- Action-utility function: Q(s, a) maps actions to utility
- Policy search: maps states to actions, essentialy a reflex agent



# Passive reinforcement learning

We can't modify the policy, but we can figure out the utilities U(s)

► We use **policy iteration**:

$$U^{\pi}(s) = E\left[\sum_{t=0}^{+\infty} \gamma^t R(s_t, \pi(s_t), s_{t+1})\right]$$

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Three approaches for approximation:

- Direct estimation
- Adaptive dynamic programming (ADP)
- Temporal difference learning (TD)

The goal is to approximate state utility under the given policy

► Make **trials** and take the **reward-to-go** for each state

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#### Example

We calculate utilities for (1,2) given the trial:

$$(1,1) \xrightarrow{-0.4} (1,2) \xrightarrow{-0.4} (1,3) \xrightarrow{-0.4} (1,3) \xrightarrow{-0.4} (1,2) \xrightarrow{-0.4} (1,3) \xrightarrow{-0.4} (2,3) \xrightarrow{-0.4} (2,3) \xrightarrow{-0.4} (3,3) \xrightarrow{Right} (4,3)$$

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► This is inefficient! We can **exploit** the Markov property



# Adaptive dynamic programming

We can approximate the transition reward and probability functions (P and R) and apply **simplified Bellman's equation**:

$$U(s) = \sum_{s'} P(s' \mid s, \pi(s)) \left[ R(s, \pi(s), s') + \gamma U(s') \right]$$

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Calculating P and R is easy when the environment is fully observable

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Still taking trials, but we **update** the utility to match frequently observed transitions

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$$U^{\pi}(1,3)' = -0.04 + U^{\pi}(2,3)$$

► This gives  $U^{\pi}(1,3)' = 0.92$ , which means 0.88 might be a low estimate



## Temporal difference learning (continued)

We want to match  $U^{\pi}$  to  $U^{\pi\prime}$  with learning rate  $\alpha$ :

$$U^{\pi}(1,3) \leftarrow U^{\pi}(1,3) + \alpha \left[ U^{\pi}(1,3)' - U^{\pi}(1,3) \right]$$

Which generalizes to:

$$U^{\pi}(s) \leftarrow U^{\pi}(s) + \alpha \left[ R(s, \pi(s), s') + \gamma U^{\pi}(s') - U^{\pi}(s) \right]$$

From TD's point of view, ADP is TD with simulated experiences

#### Active reinforcement learning

Utility functions give the best (expected) policy We can decide to improve utility (explore) or keep maximizing utility (exploit)

► This is a **bandit problem** (set of Markov reward processes)

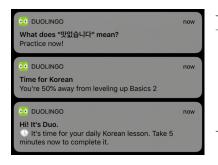
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#### Example

Duolingo's recurring notifications use a bandit problem solver:



Template	Eligibility Criteria
You're on fire Continue your 109 day Spanish streak on Duolingo.	Must have a 3+ day streak. <sup>1</sup>
<b>Streak wager reminder</b> You're on day 2 of your 7-day streak wager! Now get to day 3!	Must have a streak wager. <sup>2</sup>
<b>Ready for your trip?</b> Take 5 minutes to practice Italian now	User's profile must indicate travel motivation.

## Greedy in the limit of infinite exploration (GLIE)

A greedy algorithm could ignore higher utility actions. We need a GLIE algorithm:

- Each eaction in a each state is tried an unbounded amount of times
- In the limit  $(\to \infty)$  the algorithm becomes truly greedy

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We can try different approaches:

- Random sampling
- Minimum trials

## Random sampling

At step *t*, do the following:

- ► Choose a random action with probability  $\frac{1}{t}$
- ► Otherwise, follow the greedy policy

This **does** eventually converge, but can be slow: a better approach would use some heuristic on state utility

#### Minimum trials

Have an **optimistic estimate** of utility  $(U^+(s))$ :

$$U^{+}(s) \leftarrow \max_{a} f\left(\sum_{s'} P(s' \mid s, a) \left[R(s, a, s') + \gamma U^{+}(s')\right], N(s, a)\right)$$

- $\triangleright$  N(s, a) is the number of times action a was tried from state s
- f is defined as:

$$f(u,n) = \begin{cases} R^+, & n < N_e \\ u, & n \ge N_e \end{cases}$$

Here,  $R^+$  is an optimistic utility for actions tried less than  $N_e$  times

Basically, we are estabilishing an optimistic **prior** that assigns higher utilities to actions tried less than  $N_e$  times



#### Safe exploration

In the real world, we have to look out for:

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- Absorbing states
- Permanent damage (e.g. long-term utility losses)

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Neither the greedy nor the exploratory approach are optimal! Two ways to solve the problem:

- ► Bayesian reinforcement learning
- Robust control theory approaches

## Bayesian reinforcement learning

We take a probabilistic approach, starting with a **prior** probability P(h) on h hypotheses about what the model **is**: the policy is then given by the posterior  $P(h \mid e)$ :

$$\pi^* = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\pi} \sum_{h} P(h \mid e) U_h^{\pi}$$

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- We turned the problem into an exploration partially observable Markov decision process (POMDP)
- Note that this approach assumes that the prior contains good estimates of reality

## The robust control theory approach

We define a set of models  $\mathcal{H}$ , and always take the policy that maximizes utility in the **worst case** over  $\mathcal{H}$ :

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- ▶ This is closely tied to bayesian reinforcement learning: the set  $\mathcal{H}$  is the set of models that exceed some likelihood threshold on  $P(h \mid e)$
- Again, we assume the models to be good estimates of reality

#### Temporal difference Q-learning

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- ► Now we can estimate the action-utility functions in order to improve the policy

We substitute Q(s, a) into Bellman's equation:

$$Q(s,a) = \sum_{s'} P(s'|s,a) \left[ R(s,a,s') + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s',a') \right]$$

Now we can derive an update:

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

## SARSA learning

SARSA is a variation of TD Q-learning: instead of assuming the best possible action under known action-utility functions to be taken (off-policy), we wait for the model to actually execute actions (on-policy)

• We act after s, a, r, s', a' quintuplets

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TD and SARSA are subtly different:

- ► TD learning asks: "What does this action give if i stop using my policy, and take the best action (according to my estimates) from there onwards?"
- ➤ SARSA asks: "What did I get when i followed my policy and took this action?"

