

Introduction to Data Science

Markov Decision Process and Reinforcement Learning

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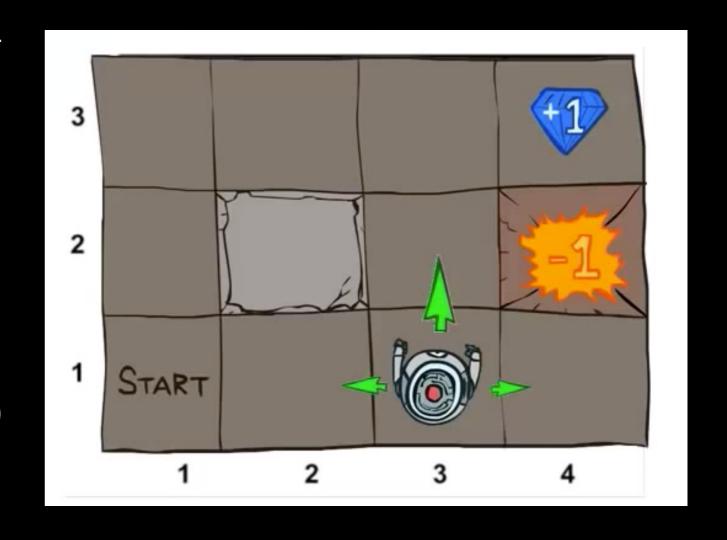


Markov Decision Process

- Andrey Markov came up with this model of a decision making when there is uncertainty in the outcome of the action
- Nondeterministic search problem
- Action need not result in the expected outcome
- Outcomes are probabilisitic in nature

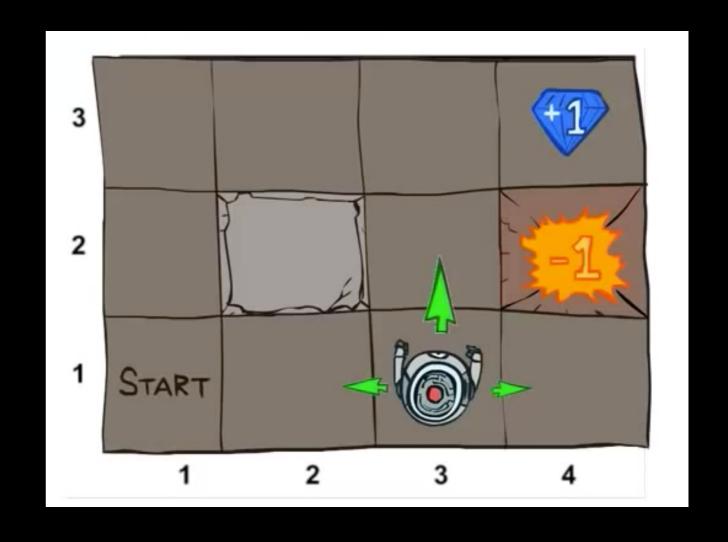


- Action may be move to North
- But it may result in North, East or West!
- Probability of going to N, W or E we already know
- Rewards associated with the outcomes
 - small living rewards (negative)
 - big reward or penalty
- Goal is to maximise the reward





- MDP is defined as
 - Set of states s in S
 - Set of actions a in A
 - Transition function T(s,a,s')
 - Reward function R(s,a,s')
 - Start state
 - Terminal state (not necessary)





- Action outcome depends on the present state only
- Action does not depend on all the previous states only the previous state (not the history)

$$P(S_{t+1} = s' | S_t = s_t, A_t = a_t, S_{t-1} = s_{t-1}, A_{t-1}, \dots S_0 = s_0)$$

$$=$$

$$P(S_{t+1} = s' | S_t = s_t, A_t = a_t)$$

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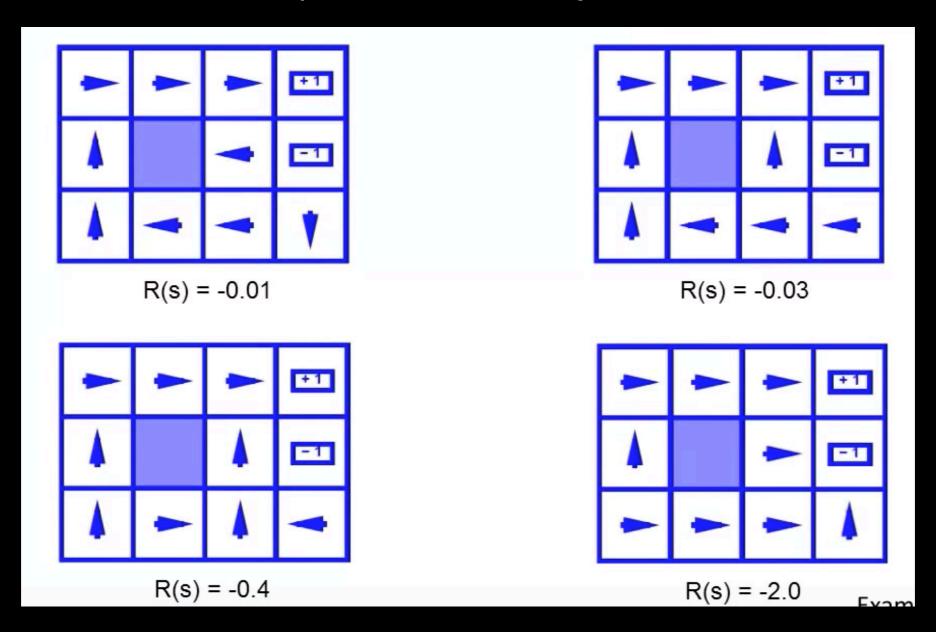


- Our goal is to maximise the reward this implies we need to find the movement so that it maximises the reward, i.e., we need to find the optimum action at each state!
- Finding the optimum action to be taken at each state is called as the optimum policy: ∏*: S → A

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Optimum Policy



Taken from Stuart Russel's Example

Example: Racing Car

- States: Cool, Warm, Overheated
- Action: Slow, Fast
- Going faster gets more reward double reward
- Cool, Warm and Overheated are the states of this model
- Once we commit an action, either Slow or Fast then the pairs (Cool, Slow), (Cool, Fast), (Warm, Slow) and so on are called as q-states.
- When we are in a q-state we do not know what will be the outcome though because we have just committed not performed it.
- T(s,a,s') = p(s'|s,a)
- Based on state and a-state we can draw a tree structure

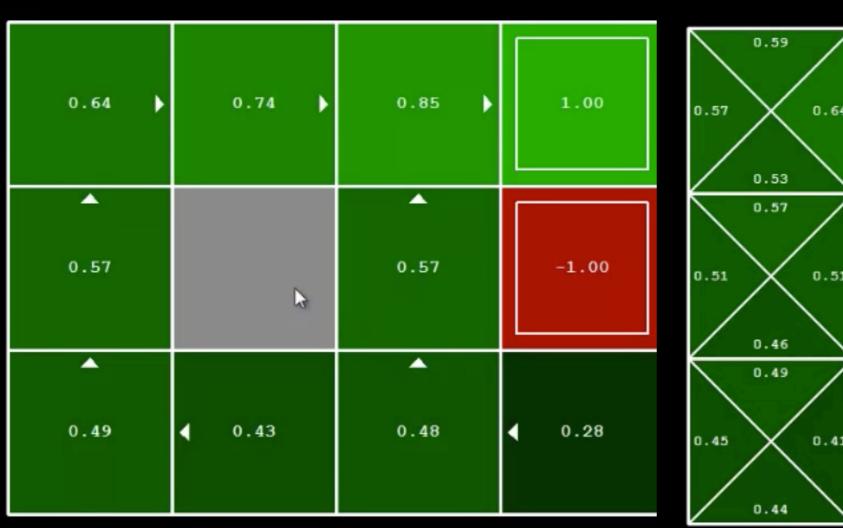


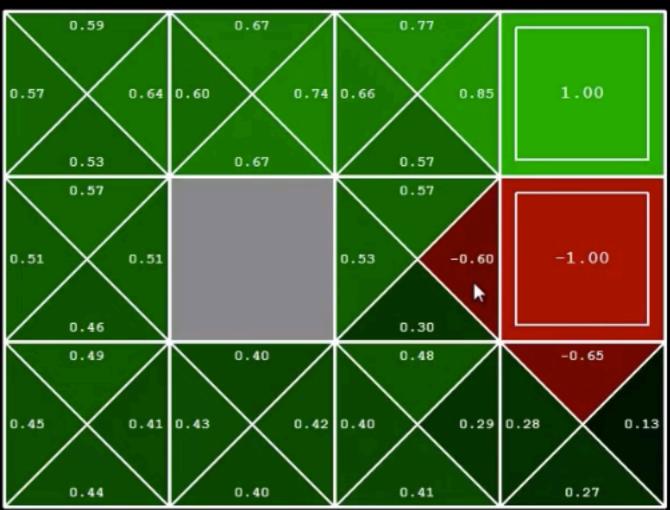
- Maximise the reward
- Logic to go for reward immediately than waiting for it in future
- Impart a discouting factor where the rewards get discounted by a factor γ which we can define
- Example: Do you want to go for (1,0,0) or (0,0,1) if we have discounted factor γ then (1,0,0) > (0,0,1)



- Utility of a state s V*(s)
- Value of a q-state Q*(s,a)
- Optimal policy $\prod^*(s)$ optimal action from s







utility of states

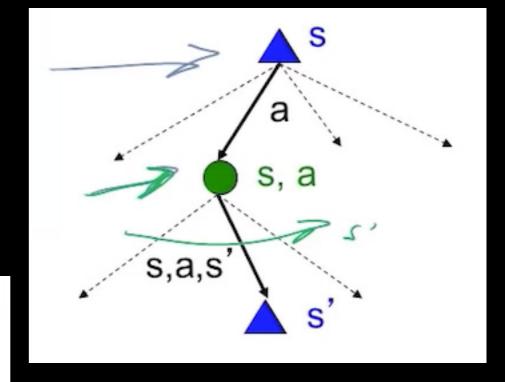
utility of q-states



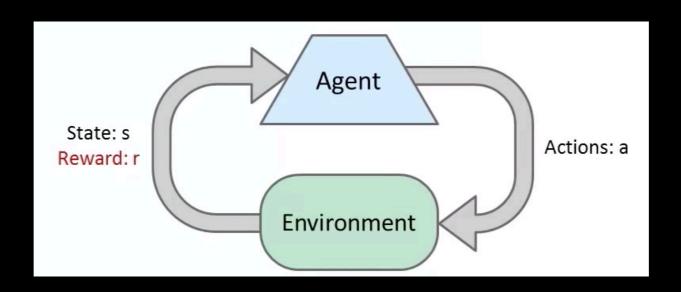


$$V^{*}(s) = \max_{\alpha} Q^{*}(s, \alpha)$$

$$Q^{*}(s, \alpha) = \sum_{s'} T(s, s') \left[R(s, \alpha, s') + \gamma V^{*}(s') \right]$$







- Behaviorial Psychology reinforcement learning is studied heavily for a long time
- Receive feedback via reward points
- Utility function is defined interns of reward points
- Goal is to maximise the reward points
- Learning is completely based on the observed outcomes!

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- MDP is used here
 - Set of states s in S
 - Set of actions a in A
 - Transition function T(s,a,s')
 - Reward function R(s,a,s')
 - Start state
 - Terminal state (not necessary)

- Main difference here are:
 - Transition function is not known
 - Reward function is not known



- Note that RL does not have a complete model of the environment and the reward functions. It assumes no prior knowledge of environment and the reward functions.
- RL uses the observed rewards and penalties to learn an optimal policy to face the environment
- RL is as simple as saying how an agent learns to behave itself when put in an environment



- Passive Learning: Agent's policy is fixed. The task is to learn the utilities for the q-states
- Active Learning: Agent has to learn the policy in order to maximise the utility function. This done through exploration.



- Model-Based Learning
- Model-Free Learning

Model Free Vs Model Based - Analogy



Known P(A)

$$E[A] = \sum_{a} P(a) \cdot a = 0.35 \times 20 + \dots$$

Without P(A), instead collect samples [a₁, a₂, ... a_N]

Unknown P(A): "Model Based"

Why does this work? Because eventually you learn the right model.

$$\hat{P}(a) = \frac{\text{num}(a)}{N}$$

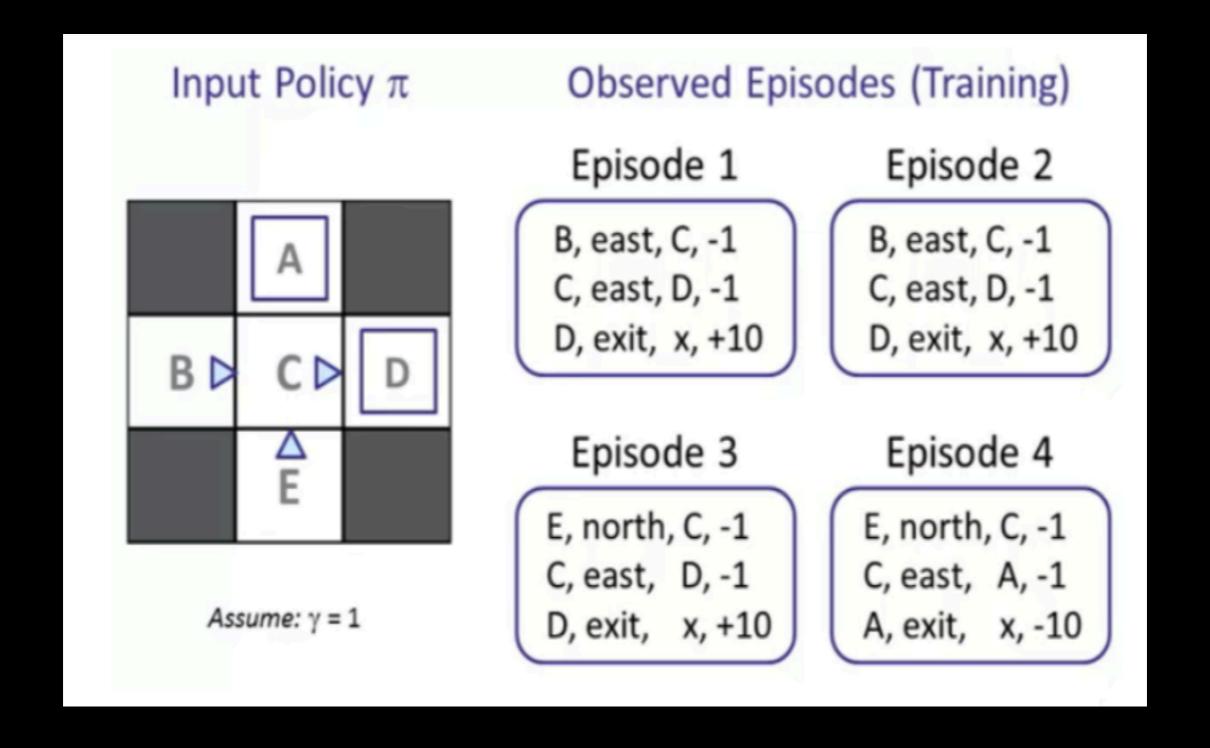
$$E[A] \approx \sum_{a} \hat{P}(a) \cdot a$$

Unknown P(A): "Model Free"

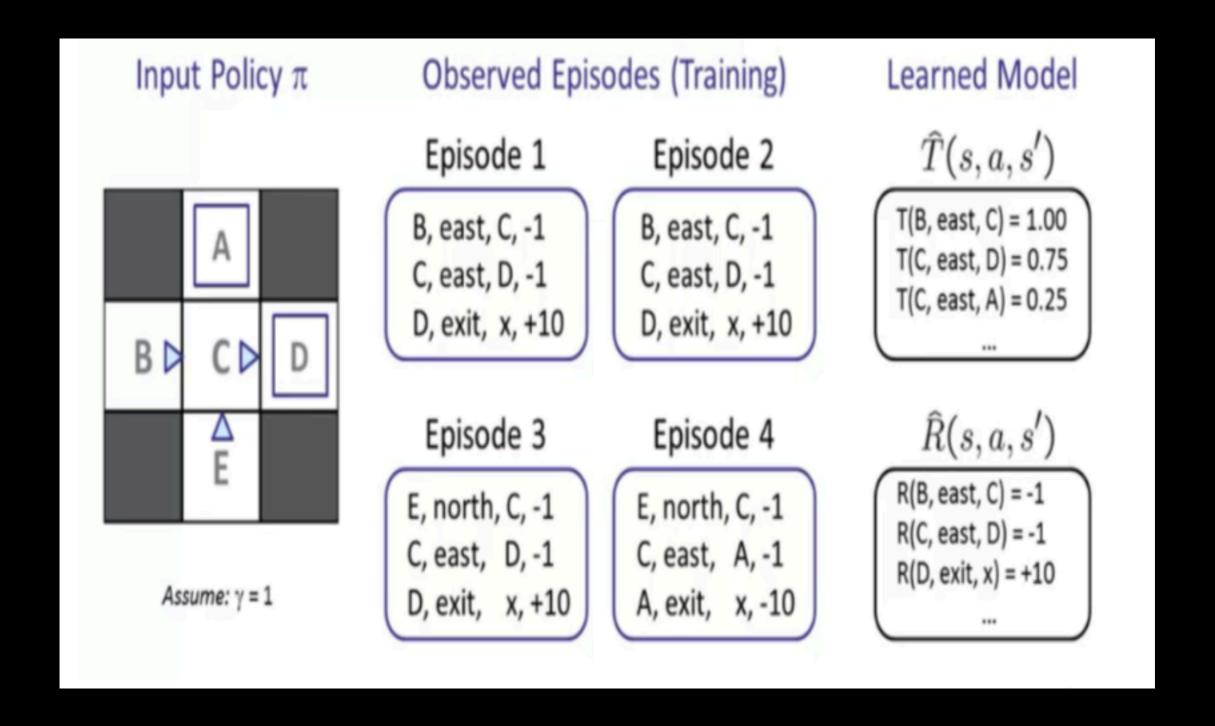
$$E[A] \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} a_{i}$$

Why does this work? Because samples appear with the right frequencies.

Passive Learning - Direct Evaluation



Passive Learning - Direct Evaluation



Passive Learning - Direct Evaluation

Input Policy π

$B \triangleright$

Assume: $\gamma = 1$

Observed Episodes (Training)

Episode 1

B, east, C, -1 C, east, D, -1 D, exit, x, +10

Episode 3

E, north, C, -1 C, east, D, -1 D, exit, x, +10

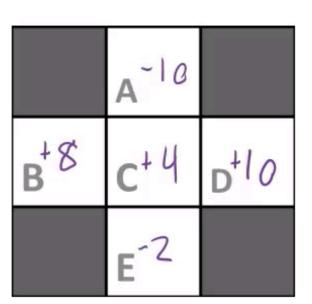
Episode 2

B, east, C, -1 C, east, D, -1 D, exit, x, +10

Episode 4

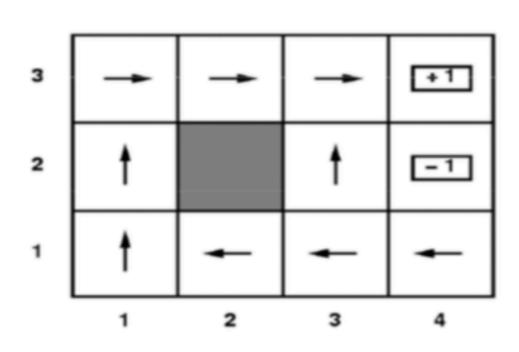
E, north, C, -1 C, east, A, -1 A, exit, x, -10

Output Values





Passive Learning



Training sequences:

$$(1,1) \rightarrow (1,2) \rightarrow (1,3) \rightarrow (1,2) \rightarrow (1,3) \rightarrow (2,3) \rightarrow (3,3) \rightarrow (3,4) +1$$

 $(1,1) \rightarrow (1,2) \rightarrow (1,3) \rightarrow (2,3) \rightarrow (3,3) \rightarrow (3,2) \rightarrow (3,3) \rightarrow (3,4) +1$
 $(1,1) \rightarrow (2,1) \rightarrow (3,1) \rightarrow (3,2) \rightarrow (4,2) -1$



Passive Learning

Training sequences:

$$(1,1) \rightarrow (1,2) \rightarrow (1,3) \rightarrow (1,2) \rightarrow (1,3) \rightarrow (2,3) \rightarrow (3,3) \rightarrow (3,4) +1$$

 $(1,1) \rightarrow (1,2) \rightarrow (1,3) \rightarrow (2,3) \rightarrow (3,3) \rightarrow (3,2) \rightarrow (3,3) \rightarrow (3,4) +1$
 $(1,1) \rightarrow (2,1) \rightarrow (3,1) \rightarrow (3,2) \rightarrow (4,2) -1$

Consider the trial:

$$(1,1)_{-0.04}
ightarrow (1,2)_{-0.04}
ightarrow (1,3)_{-0.04}
ightarrow (1,2)_{-0.04}
ightarrow (1,3)_{-0.04} \
ightarrow (2,3)_{-0.04}
ightarrow (3,3)_{-0.04}
ightarrow (4,3)_{+1}$$

The total reward for (1, 1) is 0.72.

For (1, 2) there are two samples:

$$(1,2)_{-0.04}
ightarrow (1,3)_{-0.04}
ightarrow (1,2)_{-0.04}
ightarrow (1,3)_{-0.04}
ightarrow (2,3)_{-0.04} \
ightarrow (3,3)_{-0.04}
ightarrow (4,3)_{+1} \ ext{Total Value: 76} \ (1,2)_{-0.04}
ightarrow (1,3)_{-0.04}
ightarrow (2,3)_{-0.04}
ightarrow (3,3)_{-0.04}
ightarrow (4,3)_{+1} \ ext{Total Value: 84}$$



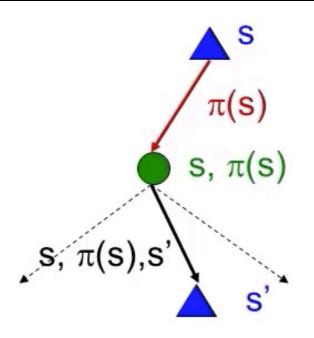
Passive Learning

- For state (1,2): the average is (0.76 + 0.84)/2 = 0.8
- In general this algorithm keeps a running average of the observed values in the trials
- As the number of trials increases we get a good expected utility value. As it reaches infinity the utility converges to the true utility!

- Simplified Bellman updates calculate V for a fixed policy:
 - Each round, replace V with a one-step-look-ahead layer over V

$$V_0^{\pi}(s) = 0$$

$$V_{k+1}^{\pi}(s) \leftarrow \sum_{s'} T(s, \pi(s), s') [R(s, \pi(s), s') + \gamma V_k^{\pi}(s')]$$
 s, $\pi(s)$, s'



- This approach fully exploited the connections between the states
- Unfortunately, we need T and R to do it!
- Key question: how can we do this update to V without knowing T and R?
 - In other words, how to we take a weighted average without knowing the weights?

- Big idea: learn from every experience!
 - Update V(s) each time we experience a transition (s, a, s', r)
 - Likely outcomes s' will contribute updates more often

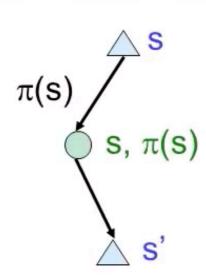


- Policy still fixed, still doing evaluation!
- Move values toward value of whatever successor occurs: running average

Sample of V(s):
$$sample = R(s, \pi(s), s') + \gamma V^{\pi}(s')$$

Update to V(s):
$$V^{\pi}(s) \leftarrow (1-\alpha)V^{\pi}(s) + (\alpha)sample$$

Same update:
$$V^{\pi}(s) \leftarrow V^{\pi}(s) + \alpha(sample - V^{\pi}(s))$$





0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	+1
0.00		0.00	0.00	-1
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	

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0.00	0.00	0.00	0.50	+1
0.00		0.00	0.00	-1
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	

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0.00	0.00	0.25	0.75	+1
0.00		0.00	0.00	-1
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	

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0.00	0.13	0.50	0.88	+1
0.00		0.00	0.00	-1
0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	

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Difference Learning (After few more steps)

0.75	0.91	0.98	1.00	+1
0.50		0.00	0.00	-1
0.25	0.00	0.00	0.00	

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0.75	0.91	0.98	1.00	+1
0.50		0.49	0.00	-1
0.13	0.00	0.00	0.00	

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Active Reinforcement Learning

- Agents choose the actions now
- Goal is to learn an optimal policy
- Don't know about transitions or reward points
- Agents makes choices and then learns
- Tradeoff: exploration or exploitation
- Not offline real-time actions and learning!

LNMIAEtive Reinforcement Learning - Q-Value Iteration

$$Q_{KH}(s,q) \leftarrow \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma \max_{q'} R(s'q') \right]$$

- Learn Q(s,a) values as you go
 - Receive a sample (s,a,s',r)
 - Consider your old estimate: Q(s, a)
 - Consider your new sample estimate:

$$sample = R(s, a, s') + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a')$$

• Incorporate the new estimate into a running average:

$$Q(s,a) \leftarrow (1-\alpha)Q(s,a) + (\alpha) [sample]$$

LNMIA Etive Reinforcement Learning - Q-Value Iteration





Active Reinforcement Learning - Q-Value Iteration

- Q-Value Iteration always converges to optimal policy even if he agent is acting sub-optimally!
- Agent has to explore "enough"
- Learning rate should be low enough
- Agent eventually learns the optimal policy irrespective of what action the agent selects for learning
- This is called as off-policy learning