Artificial Intelligence Programming Reinforcement Learning

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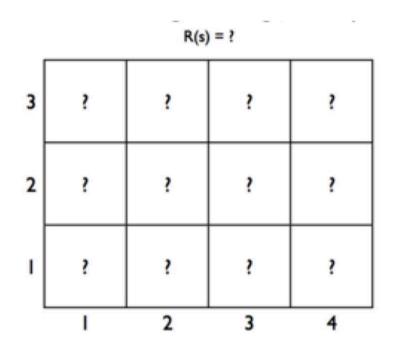
Previously ...

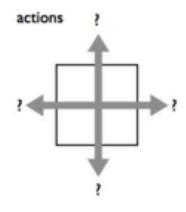
- Tuesday we saw how to solve a Markov Decision Process.
- This gives us an optimal policy
 - Mapping of states to actions
 - Lets our agent act optimally (in expectation) in stochastic environments.
- Value Iteration and Policy Iteration assume a lot of available knowledge.
 - All rewards, all state transitions
- Can we learn the values of states without this information?

- So far, most of the learning algorithms we've looked at have been supervised, passive, and offline.
 - We're given a labeled dataset and need to construct a hypothesis.
- Sometimes our agent is not that lucky.
 - Placed in an environment and forced to learn the best action to take in each state.
 - The environment provides a reward to the agent, but never tells it the best thing to do.
 - The agent must select actions to take.

- This approach to learning is called reinforcement learning.
- Not too different from the way children or animals are trained.
 - Reward positive actions
 - Punish negative actions

Reinforcement Learning Scenario





$$T(s, a, s') = ?$$

RL Scenario

- Don't know anything! Unknown environment, transition model, and reward function
- Need to explore the world. General approach: at each state the agent:
 - Selects an available action (it at least knows that!)
 - Receives reward (it can still sense rewards)
 - Observes resulting state (can still sense current state)
 - Repeat until a terminal state

Goal: find an optimal policy from these observations

Let's start simpler

- How could we do this in a deterministic, episodic environment?
 - Each action leads to a single reward.

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 - Each action leads to a single reward.
 - Try each action once, then always select the action with the highest reward.

How could we do this in a deterministic, sequential environment?

Case 1:

- A sequence of actions leads to a reward at the end.
- Try each sequence once, then always select the sequence with the highest reward.

Case 2:

- Each action has an immediate reward.
- Use search to find the optimal sequence of actions.

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 - We try each action multiple times and learn the expected utility of each action.
 - This is sometimes called a bandit problem

- What about in a stochastic, episodic environment?
 - Each action has multiple possible outcomes.
 - We try each action multiple times and learn the expected utility of each action.
 - How many times is "enough"?
 - Often, our agent is doing active learning; must integrate learning and performance.

Exploration

- Issue: The agent would always like to choose the action with the highest reward.
- This means taking the action with the highest expected utility.
- But if the agent never tries 'bad-looking' actions, it might be missing out on a higher reward.
 - Example: consider two levers:
 - one pays \$1 every time, and
 - the other pays \$0 90% of the time, and \$100 10% of the time.

Exploration

- Issue: early on, we would like to try lots of "non-optimal" actions, as our estimates are probably very inaccurate.
 - This process is called exploration.
- As our estimates of the reward for each action get more accurate, we want to select the best action more frequently.
 - This process is called exploitation.
- How to do this in a principled way?

Boltzmann exploration

- One way to do this is using Boltzmann exploration.
- Let U'(a) be our estimated utility for taking action a.
- We take an action with probability:

$$\frac{exp(\frac{U(a)}{k})}{\sum_{a} exp(\frac{U(a)}{k})}$$

- Where k is a temperature parameter.
 - k starts high and gradually decreases.
- How will this behave with k = 1? k << 1?

Sequential Problems

- This works great for episodic problems, but what about sequential problems?
- Now we need to think not only about the immediate reward an action generates, but also the value of subsequent states.
- How did we solve this with full information?

Markov Decision Process

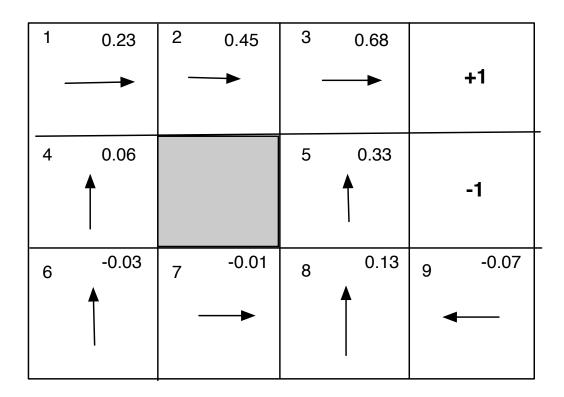
- With full information, we modeled this problem as a Markov Decision Process.
- We knew all the states, the transition probabilities between each state, and the rewards for each state.
- We then used value iteration to estimate utilities for each state, or policy iteration to find the policy directly.

Example Utilities

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

Value iteration can find utilities for each state, and we use these to construct a policy.

Example Policies



Policy iteration lets us find policies directly.

- Both value iteration and policy iteration assume a great deal of knowledge about the world.
 - Reward function
 - Transition function
- What if we don't have a model?
- All we know is that there are a set of states, and a set of actions.

Model Estimation

We don't even know the transition function! P(s'|s,a). Might approximate by:

$$\frac{\#\mathtt{transitions}s \to s'\mathtt{for}a}{\#\mathtt{times}}$$

- For example, we tried "up" from (1,1) 10 times, and we observe:
 - 8 times we get to (1,2) and R=-.04
 - 2 times we get to (2,1) and R=-.04
- Now P((1,2)|(1,1), "up") = 8/10
- and R(s) for both states = -.04

Continued exploration will give increasingly accurate estimates. Do value / policy iteration as before.

Model-free learning

- This is pretty slow!
- We really want to learn an optimal policy, don't really care about utilities.
- This is called model-free learning: don't even have to learn transition function

Q-learning

- Learning a policy directly is difficult.
- Problem: our data is not of the form: <state, action>
- Instead, it's of the form $s_1, s_2, s_3, ..., R$.
- Since we don't know the transition function, it's also hard to learn the utility of a state.
- Instead, we'll learn a function Q(s, a). This will estimate the "utility" of taking action a in state s.

Q-learning

- More precisely, Q(s, a) will represent the value of taking a in state s, then acting optimally after that.
- $Q(s,a) = R(s,a) + \gamma \max_{a} \sum_{s'} P(s'|s,a)U(s')$
 - $m{\bullet}$ γ is our discount factor
- The optimal policy is then to take the action with the highest Q value in each state.
- Of course, we don't know what transition probabilities or utilities are.

Learning the Q function

- To learn Q, we need to be able to estimate the value of taking an action in a state even though our rewards are spread out over time.
- We can do this iteratively.
- Notice that $U(s) = max_aQ(s, a)$
- We can then rewrite our equation for Q as:
- $Q(s,a) = R(s,a) + \gamma max_{a'}Q(s',a')$

Learning the Q function

- Let's denote our estimate of Q(s, a) as $\hat{Q}(s, a)$
- We'll keep a table listing each state-action pair and estimated Q-value
- the agent observes its state s, chooses an action a, then observes the reward r = R(s, a) that it receives and the new state s'.
- In the simplest case, it then updates the Q-table according to the following formula:

$$\hat{Q}(s,a) = r + \gamma \max_{a'} \hat{Q}(s',a')$$

Learning the Q function

- The agent uses the estimate of \hat{Q} for s' to estimate \hat{Q} for s.
- Notice that the agent doesn't need any knowledge of R or the transition function to execute this.
- But why put so much reliance on what just happened?
- so we introduce a *learning rate* α that trades off between what we have already learned and the action just taken. Lower over time:

$$\hat{Q}(s,a) = (1-\alpha) \times \hat{Q}(s,a) + \alpha \times (r + \gamma max_{a'}\hat{Q}(s',a'))$$

Convergence

- Q-learning is guaranteed to converge as long as:
 - Rewards are bounded
 - The agent selects state-action pairs in such a way that it sees each infinitely often.
 - This means that an agent must have a nonzero probability of selecting each a in each s as the sequence of state-action pairs approaches infinity.

Exploration

- Of course, these are theoretical guarantees.
- In practice, we must sample each state "enough".
- We can do this with Boltzmann exploration.

$$\frac{exp(\frac{\hat{Q}(s,a)}{k})}{\sum_{a} exp(\frac{\hat{Q}(s,a)}{k})}$$

• In the next slide, we use "bestAction(s2)" as an abbreviation of $max_{a'}\hat{Q}(s',a')$

Pseudocode

```
Initialize Q table randomly
s = randomState
while not done :
    a = selectAction(s) # use Boltzmann here
    s2 = takeAction(s,a)
    r = reward(s2)
    Q(s,a) = (1-alpha)*Q(s,a) + alpha * (reward +gamma * bestAction(s2))
    if s2 is goal
        s = randomState
    else
        s = s2
```

Pros and cons

- Q-learning has proved to be very useful in some settings.
 - No knowledge of problem dynamics needed.
 - No labeled training data needed.
 - Agent can integrate learning and execution.
- It also has some weaknesses
 - Convergence can be slow
 - Q-table is very large
 - Not much generalization

Incorporating generalization

- A big weakness of Q-learning as compared to other learning algorithms is that knowing what to do in state s tells me nothing about how to act in states that are very similar to s.
 - Q-learning has poor generalization
 - This is a result of storing all the state-action pairs as a table.
- A standard way to deal with this is to store the table in a function approximator.
 - A construct that maps < state, action > to reward.

Credit Assignment

- Q-learning works best in environments in which reward is immediate.
- In delayed-reward environments, the credit assignment problem becomes an issue.
- To address this, a more sophisticated method known as TD-learning can be used.
 - Idea look ahead to the best action in the next state and use its EU.

Summary

- Policies tell our agent how to act optimally in a stochastic world.
- Reinforcement learning lets us learn a Q function, which gives us a policy.
- No knowledge of the world needed we just have to be able to select actions and observe rewards.
- This is active, online learning.
- Most extreme example of trading knowledge for time to learn.