## **Reinforcement Learning**

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#### Rewards



- Agent takes actions
- Agent occasionally receives reward
- Maybe just at the end of the process, e.g., Chess:
  - agent has to decide on individual moves
  - reward only at end: win/lose
- Maybe more frequently
  - ping pong: any point scored
  - learning to crawl: any forward movement

### **Markov Decision Process**





**Stochastic Movement** 



- States  $s \in S$ , actions  $a \in A$
- <u>Model</u>  $T(s, a, s') \equiv P(s'|s, a)$  = probability that *a* in *s* leads to *s'*
- <u>Reward function</u> R(s) (or R(s, a), R(s, a, s')) =  $\begin{cases} -0.04 & \text{(small penalty) for nonterminal states} \\ \pm 1 & \text{for terminal states} \end{cases}$

## **Agent Designs**



- Utility based agent
  - needs model of environment
  - learns utility function on states
  - selects action that maximize expected outcome utility
- Q-learning
  - learns action-utility function (Q(s, a) function)
  - does not need to model outcomes of actions
  - function provides expected utility of taken a given action at a given step
- Reflex agent
  - learns policy that maps states to actions



# passive reinforcement learning





- We know which state we are in (= partially observable environment)
- We know which actions we can take
- But only after taking an action
  - $\rightarrow$  new state becomes known
  - $\rightarrow$  reward becomes known



• Given a policy



- Task: compute utility of policy
- We will extend this later to **active** reinforcement learning (⇒ policy needs to be learned)

































• Sample of reward to go









# **Utility of Policy**



• Definition of utility U of the policy  $\pi$  for state s

$$U^{\pi}(s) = E\left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{t} R(S_{t})\right]$$

- Start at state  $S_0 = s$
- Reward for state is R(s)
- Discount factor  $\gamma$  (we use  $\gamma = 1$  in our examples)

# **Direct Utility Estimation**



- Learning from the samples
- Reward to go:
  - **–** (1,1) one sample: 0.72
  - **–** (1,2) two samples: 0.76, 0.84
  - **–** (1,3) two samples: 0.80, 0.88
- Reward to go will converge to utility of state
- But very slowly can we do better?



## **Bellman Equation**



- Direct utility estimation ignores dependency between states
- Given by Bellman equation

$$U^{\pi}(s) = R(s) + \gamma \sum_{s'} P(s'|s, \pi(s)) U^{\pi(s')}$$

( $\gamma$  = reward decay)

- Use of this known dependence can speed up learning
- Requires learning of transition probabilities  $P(s'|s, \pi(s))$

# **Adaptive Dynamic Programming**



Need to learn:

- State rewards *R*(*s*)
  - whenever a state is visited, record award (deterministic)
- Outcome of action  $\pi(s)$  at state *s* according to policy  $\pi$ 
  - collect statistic count(s, s') that s' is reached from s
  - estimate probability distribution

$$P(s'|s,\pi(s)) = \frac{\operatorname{count}(s,s')}{\sum_{s''}\operatorname{count}(s,s'')}$$

#### ⇒ Ingredients for policy evaluation algorithm

# **Adaptive Dynamic Programming**



function PASSIVE-ADP-AGENT(percept) returns an action

**inputs:** percept, a percept indicating the current state s' and reward signal r' static:  $\pi$ , a fixed policy

mdp, an MDP with model T, rewards R, discount  $\gamma$ 

U, a table of utilities, initially empty

 $N_{sa}$ , a table of frequencies for state-action pairs, initially zero

 $N_{sas'}$ , a table of frequencies for state-action-state triples, initially zero

s, a, the previous state and action, initially null

if s is new then do  $U[s] \leftarrow r$ ;  $R[s] \leftarrow r'$ if s is not null then do increment  $N_{sa}[s, \mathbf{a}]$  and  $N_{sas'}[s, \mathbf{a}, s]$ for each t such that  $N_{sas'}[s, \mathbf{a}, t]$  is nonzero do  $T[s, a, t] \leftarrow N_{sas'}[s, a, t] / N_{sa}[s, a]$   $U \leftarrow POLICY- EVALUATION(^{\wedge}, U, mdp)$ if TERMINAL?[s'] then  $s, a \leftarrow$  null else  $s, \mathbf{a} \leftarrow s, \pi[s']$ return a

## **Learning Curve**





• Major change at 78<sup>th</sup> trial: first time terminated in –1 state at (4,2)

## **Temporal Difference Learning**



- Idea: no model  $P(s'|s, \pi(s))$ , directly adjust utilities U(s) for all visited states
- Current model expects utility of current state as  $R(s) + \gamma U^{\pi}(s')$
- Actually current utility:  $U^{\pi}(s)$
- Adjust utility of current state  $U^{\pi}(s)$  if they differ

$$\Delta U^{\pi}(s) = \alpha \left( R(s) + \gamma U^{\pi}(s') - U^{\pi}(s) \right)$$

( $\alpha$  = learning rate)

• Learning rate may decrease when state has been visited often

#### Learning Curve





• Noisier, converging more slowly

## Comparison



- Both eventually converge to correct values
- Adaptive dynamic programming (ADP) faster than temporal difference learning (TD)
  - both make adjustments to make successors agree
  - but: ADP adjusts all possible successors, TD only observed successor
- ADP computationally more expensive due to policy evaluation algorithm



# active reinforcement learning

## **Active Reinforcement Learning**



- Passive agent follows prescribed policy
- Active agent decides which action to take
  - following optimal policy (as currently viewed)
  - exploration
- Goal: optimize rewards for a given time frame

## **Greedy Agent**



- 1. Start with initial policy
- 2. Compute utilities (using ADP)
- 3. Optimize policy
- 4. Go to Step 2

• This *very seldom* converges to global optimal policy

## **Learning Curve**





• Greedy agent stuck in local optimum

## **Bandit Problems**



- Bandit: slot machine
- N-armed bandit: *n* levers
- Each has different probability distribution over payoffs
- Spend coin on
  - presume optimal payoff
  - exploration (new lever)
- If independent
  - Gittins index: formula for solution
  - uses payoff / number of times used



# Greedy in the Limit of Infinite Exploration 31

- Explore any action in any state unbounded number of times
- Eventually has to become greedy
  - carry out optimal policy
  - $\Rightarrow$  maximize reward
- Simple strategy
  - with probability p(1/t) take random action
  - initially (*t* small) focus on exploration
  - later (*t* big) focus on optimal policy



• Previous definition of utility calculation

$$U(s) \leftarrow R(s) + \gamma \max_{a} \sum_{s'} P(s'|s, a) U(s')$$

• New utility calculation

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

• One possible definition of f(u, n)

$$f(u,n) = \begin{cases} R^+ & \text{if } n < N_c \\ u & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

 $R^+$  is optimistic estimate, best possible award in any state

## Learning Curve





- Performance of exploratory ADP agent
- Parameter settings  $R^+ = 2$  and  $N_e = 5$
- Fairly quick convergence to optimal policy

# **Q-Learning**

![](_page_34_Picture_1.jpeg)

- Learning an action utility function Q(s, a)
- Allows computation of utilities  $U(s) = \max_a Q(s, a)$
- Model-free: no explicit transition model P(s'|s, a)
- Theoretically correct Q values

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

• Update formula inspired by temporal difference learning

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

• For our example, Q-learning slower, but successful applications (TD-GAMMON)

![](_page_35_Picture_0.jpeg)

# generalization in reinforcement learning

# Large Scale Reinforcement Learning

![](_page_36_Picture_1.jpeg)

- Adaptive dynamic programming (ASP) scalable to maybe 10,000 states
  - Backgammon has 10<sup>20</sup> states
  - Chess has 10<sup>40</sup> states
- It is not possible to visit all these states multiple times
- $\Rightarrow$  Generalization of states needed

## **Function Approximation**

![](_page_37_Picture_1.jpeg)

• Define state utility function as linear combination of features

$$\hat{U}_{\theta}(s) = \theta_1 f_1(s) + \theta_2 f_2(s) + \dots + \theta_n f_n(s)$$

- Recall: features to assess Chess state
  - $f_1(s)$  = (number of white pawns) (number of black pawns)
  - $f_2(s) = ($ number of white rooks) (number of black rooks)
  - $f_3(s)$  = (number of white queens) (number of black queens)
  - $f_4(s) = \text{king safety}$

- 
$$f_5(s)$$
 = good pawn position

- **–** etc.
- $\Rightarrow$  Reduction from 10<sup>40</sup> to, say, 20 parameters
  - Main benefit: ability to assess unseen states

## **Learning Feature Weights**

![](_page_38_Picture_1.jpeg)

• Example: 2 features: *x* and *y* 

$$\hat{U}_{\theta}(f_1, f_2) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 f_1 + \theta_2 f_2$$

- Current feature weights  $\theta_0, \theta_1, \theta_2 = (0.5, 0.2, 0.1)$
- Model's prediction of utility of specific state, e.g.,  $\hat{U}_{\theta}(1,1) = 0.8$
- Sample set of trials, found value  $u_{\theta}(1,1) = 0.4$
- Error  $E_{\theta} = \frac{1}{2} (\hat{U}_{\theta}(f_1, f_2) u_{\theta}(f_1, f_2))^2$
- How do you update the weights  $\theta_i$ ?

## **Gradient Descent Training**

![](_page_39_Picture_1.jpeg)

• Compute gradient of error

$$\frac{dE_{\theta}}{d\theta_i} = (\hat{U}_{\theta}(f_1, f_2) - u_{\theta}(f_1, f_2)) f_i$$

• Update against gradient

$$\Delta \theta_i = -\mu \, \frac{dE_\theta}{d\theta_i}$$

- Our example
  - $-\Delta\theta_1 = -\mu(\hat{U}_{\theta}(f_1, f_2) u_{\theta}(f_1, f_2)) f_i = -\mu(0.8 0.4) 1 = -0.4\mu$  $-\Delta\theta_2 = -\mu(\hat{U}_{\theta}(f_1, f_2) - u_{\theta}(f_1, f_2)) f_i = -\mu(0.8 - 0.4) 1 = -0.4\mu$

## **Additional Remarks**

![](_page_40_Picture_1.jpeg)

- If we know something about the problem
  - $\Rightarrow$  we may want to use more complex features
- Our toy example: utility related to Manhattan distance from goal  $(x_{\text{goal}}, y_{\text{goal}})$

$$f_3(s) = (x - x_{\text{goal}}) + (y - y_{\text{goal}})$$

• Gradient descent training can also be used for temporal distance learning

![](_page_41_Picture_0.jpeg)

# policy search

# **Policy Search**

![](_page_42_Picture_1.jpeg)

- Idea: directly optimize policy
- Policy may be parameterized Q functions, hence:

 $\pi(s) = \max_a \hat{Q}_{\theta}(s, a)$ 

• Stochastic policy, e.g., given by softmax function

$$\pi_{\theta}(s,a) = \frac{1}{Z_s} e^{\hat{Q}_{\theta}(s,a)}$$

• Policy value  $\rho(\theta)$ : expected reward if  $\pi_{\theta}$  is carried out

# Hillclimbing

![](_page_43_Picture_1.jpeg)

- Deterministic policy, deterministic environment
  - $\Rightarrow$  optimizing policy value  $\rho(\theta)$  may be done in closed form
- If  $\rho(\theta)$  differentiable
  - $\Rightarrow$  gradient descent by following policy gradient
- Make small changes to parameters  $\Rightarrow$  hillclimb if  $\rho(\theta)$  improves
- More complex for stochastic environment

![](_page_44_Picture_0.jpeg)

# examples

# **Game Playing**

![](_page_45_Picture_1.jpeg)

- Backgammon: TD-GAMMON (1992)
- Reward only at end of game
- Training with self-play
- 200,000 training games needed
- Competitive with top human players
- Better positional play, worse end game

![](_page_45_Picture_8.jpeg)

## **Robot Control**

![](_page_46_Picture_1.jpeg)

![](_page_46_Picture_2.jpeg)

- Observe position x, vertical speed  $\hat{x}$ , angle  $\theta$ , angle speed  $\hat{\theta}$
- Action: jerk left or right
- Reward: time balanced until pole falls, or cart out of bounce
- More complex: multiple stacked poles, helicopter flight, walking

## Summary

![](_page_47_Picture_1.jpeg)

- Building on Markov decision processes and machine learning
- Passive reinforcement learning (fixed policy, partially observable environment, stochastic outcomes of actions)
  - sampling (carrying out trials)
  - adaptive dynamic programming
  - temporal difference learning
- Active reinforcement learning
  - greedy in the limit of infinite exploration
  - following optimal policy vs. exploration
  - exploratory adaptive dynamic programming
- Generalization: representing utility function with small set of parameters
- Policy search