#### **Reinforcement Learning**

Philipp Koehn

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#### **Rewards**

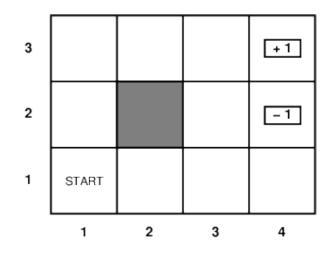


- Agent takes actions
- Agent occasionally receives reward
- Maybe just at the end of the process, e.g., Chess:
  - agent has to decide on individual moves
  - reward only at end: win/lose
- Maybe more frequently
  - Scrabble: points for each word played
  - ping pong: any point scored
  - baby learning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

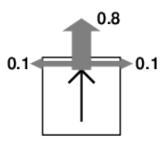
#### **Markov Decision Process**



#### **State Map**



#### **Stochastic Movement**



- States  $s \in S$ , actions  $a \in A$
- Model  $T(s, a, s') \equiv P(s'|s, a)$  = probability that a in s leads to s'
- Reward function 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

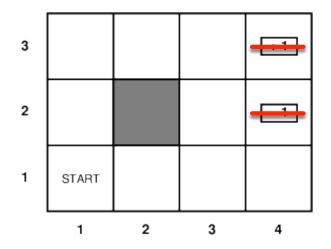


# passive reinforcement learning

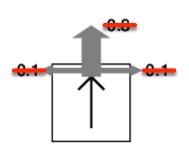
#### Setup



#### **State Map**



#### Stochastic Movement



#### **Reward Function**

$$R(s) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{for goal} \\ -1 & \text{for pit} \\ -0.04 & \text{for other} \end{cases}$$

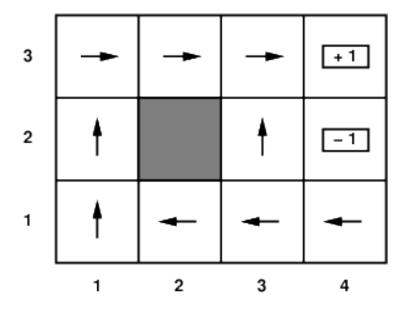
Unknown information

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

#### **Passive Reinforcement Learning**

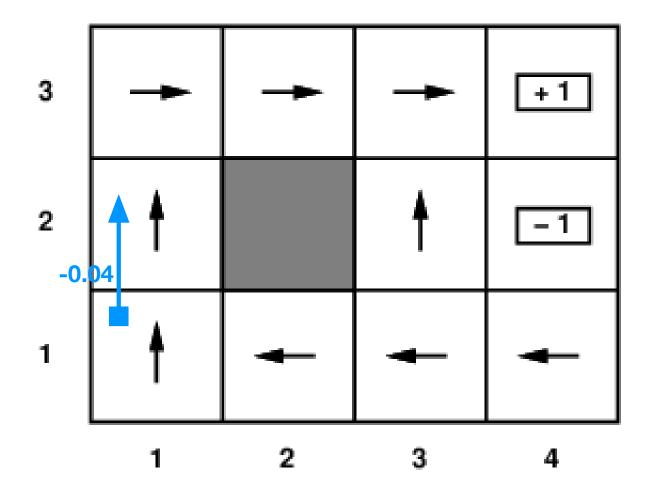


• Given a policy

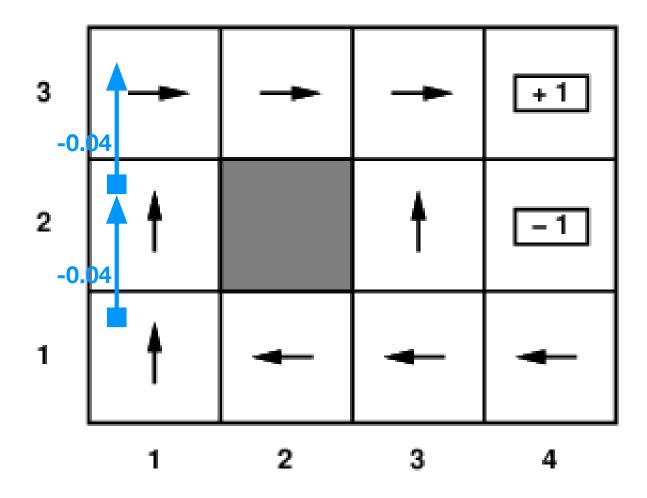


- Task: compute utility of policy
- We will extend this later to **active** reinforcement learning
   (⇒ policy needs to be learned)

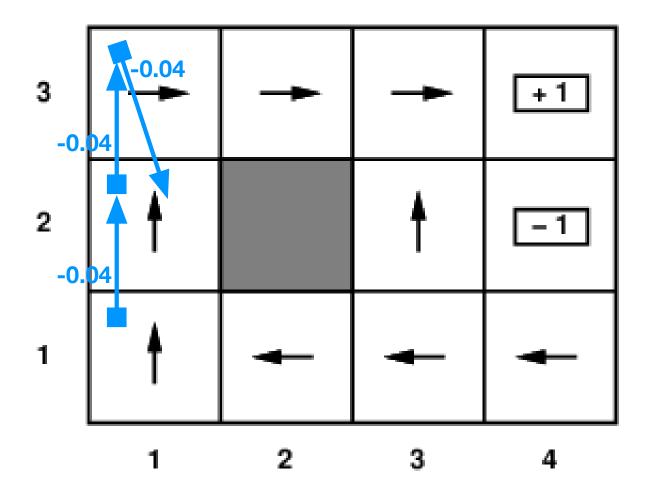




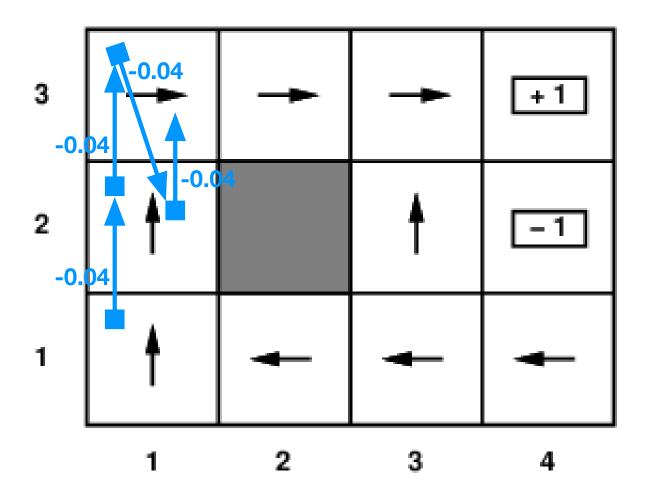




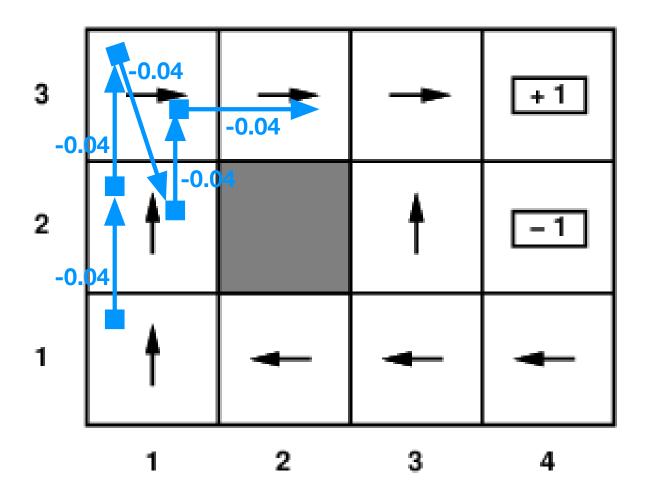




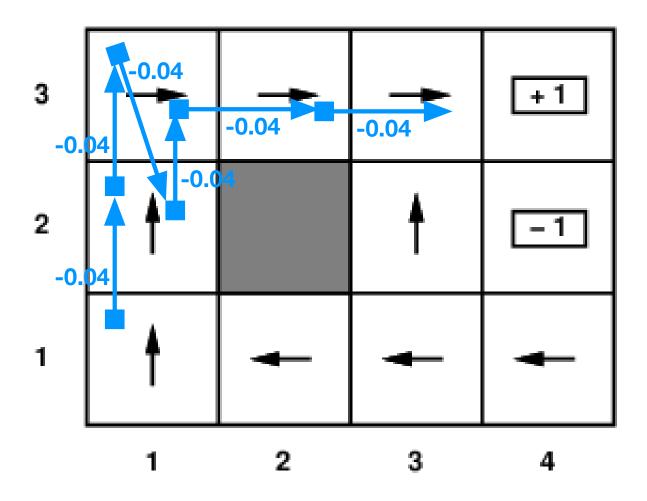




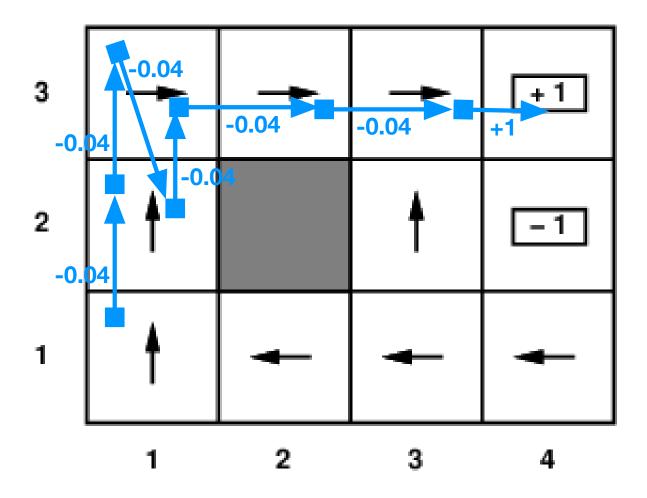




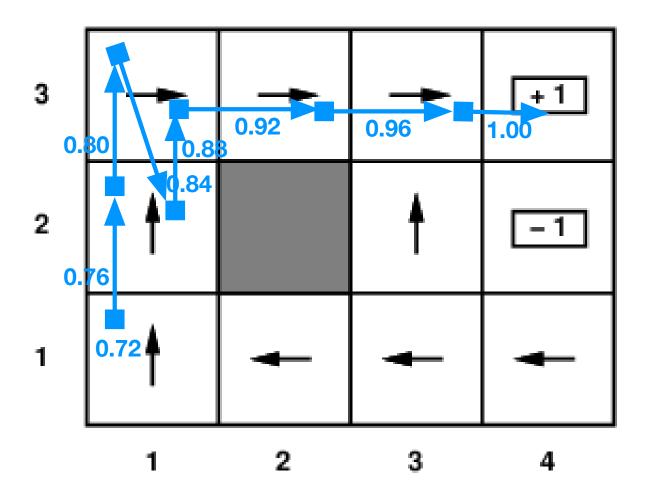






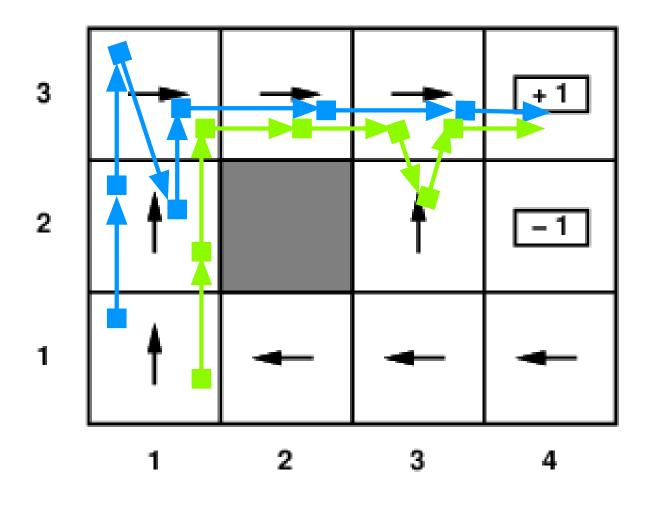




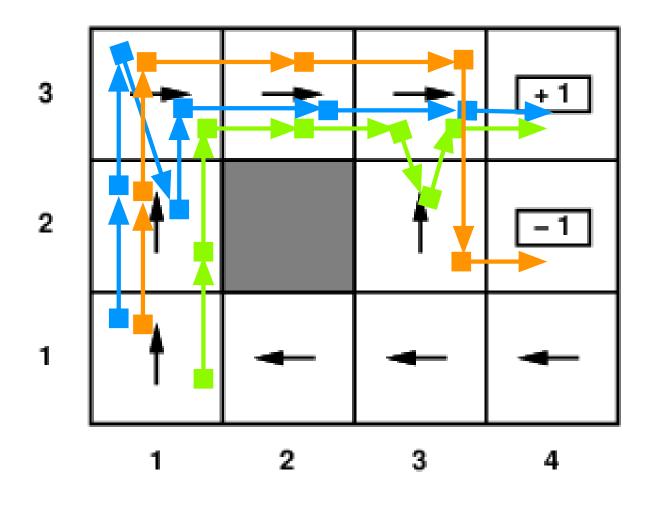


• Sample of reward to go









# **Utility of Policy**



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

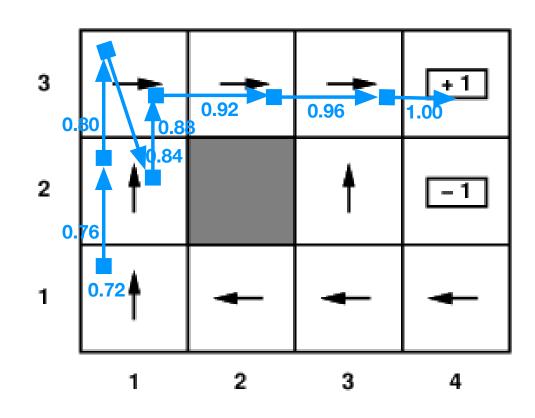
$$U^{\pi}(s) = E\left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{t} R(S_{t})\right]$$

- 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

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

 $(\gamma = \text{reward decay})$ 

- 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]

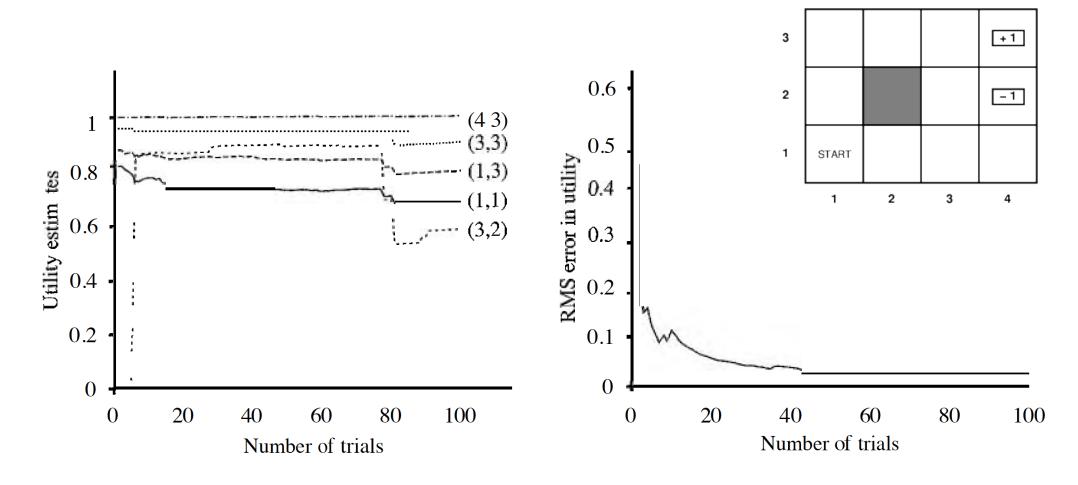
U \leftarrow POLICY-EVALUATION(^{\wedge}, U, mdp)

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: do not model  $P(s'|s, \pi(s))$ , directly adjust utilities U(s) for all visited states
- Estimate of current utility:  $U^{\pi}(s)$
- Estimate of utility after action:  $R(s) + \gamma U^{\pi}(s')$
- Adjust utility of current state  $U^{\pi}(s)$  if they differ

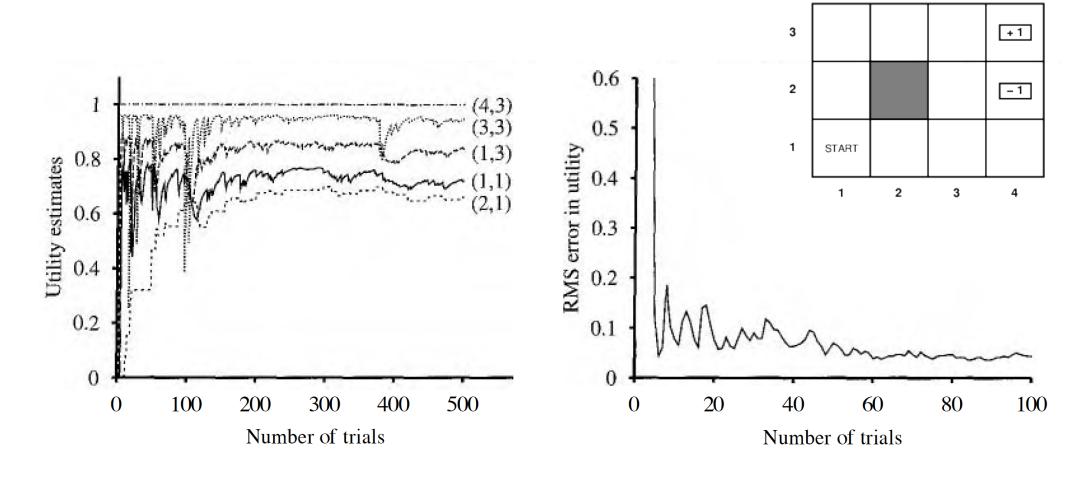
$$\Delta U^{\pi}(s) = \alpha \left( R(s) + \gamma U^{\pi}(s') - U^{\pi}(s) \right)$$

( $\alpha$  = 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**



- Previously: passive agent follows prescribed policy
- Now: active agent decides which action to take
  - following optimal policy (as currently viewed)
  - exploration

• Goal: optimize rewards for a given time frame

### **Greedy Agent**

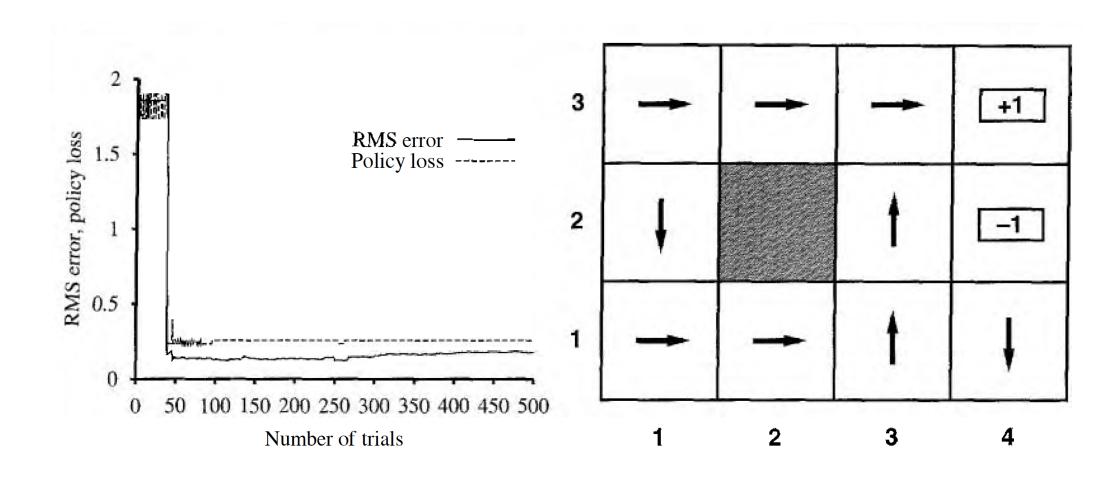


- 1. Start with initial policy
- 2. Compute utilities (using ADP)
- 3. Optimize policy
- 4. Go to Step 2

• This *very seldom* converges to global optimal policy

### **Learning Curve**





• Greedy agent stuck in local optimum

#### **Bandit Problems**



• Bandit: slot machine



#### **Bandit Problems**



- Bandit: slot machine
- N-armed bandit: *n* levers
- Each has different probability distribution over payoffs
- Spend coin on
  - presumed 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 32



- Explore any action in any state unbounded number of times
- Eventually has to become greedy
  - carry out optimal policy
  - ⇒ 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

### Extension of Adaptive Dynamic Programming 33



Previous definition of utility calculation

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

• New utility calculation

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

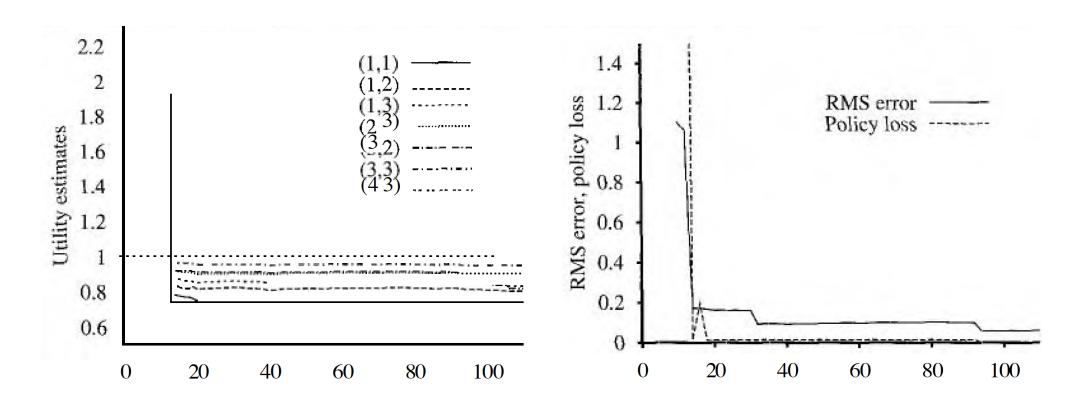
• One possible definition of f(u, n)

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

 $R^+$  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**



- 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 (after taking action a to reach state s')

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

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



# generalization in reinforcement learning

### Large Scale Reinforcement Learning



- Adaptive dynamic programming (ADP) scalable to maybe 10,000 states
  - Backgammon has  $10^{20}$  states
  - Chess has  $10^{40}$  states
- It is not possible to visit all these states multiple times
- ⇒ Generalization of states needed

#### **Function Approximation**



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)
  - $f_4(s)$  = king safety
  - $f_5(s)$  = good pawn position
  - etc.
- $\Rightarrow$  Reduction from  $10^{40}$  to, say, 20 parameters
  - Main benefit: ability to assess unseen states

#### **Learning Feature Weights**



• 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**



• 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**



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

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

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



# policy search

### **Policy Search**



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

$$\pi(s) = \operatorname{argmax}_a \hat{Q}_{\theta}(s, a)$$

• 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



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



## examples

## **Game Playing**



• Backgammon: TD-GAMMON (1992)

• Reward only at end of game

• Training with self-play

• 200,000 training games needed

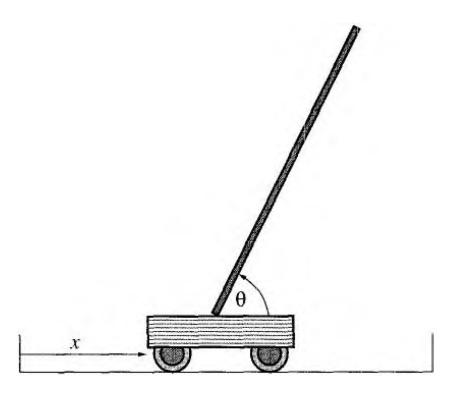
Competitive with top human players

• Better positional play, worse end game



#### **Robot Control**





- 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**



- 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