

# Machine learning

## Reinforcement Learning

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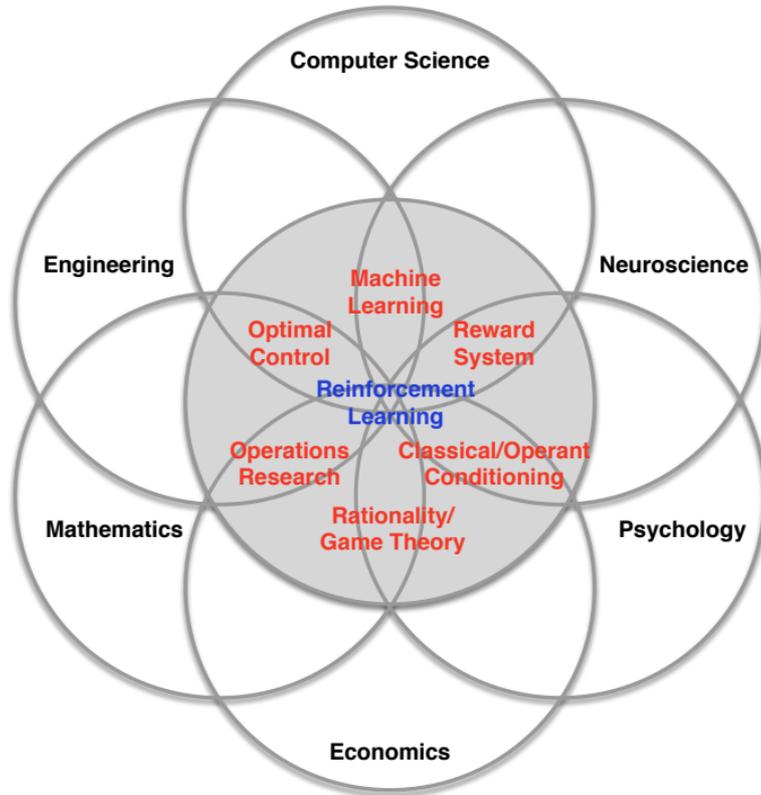




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# Introduction

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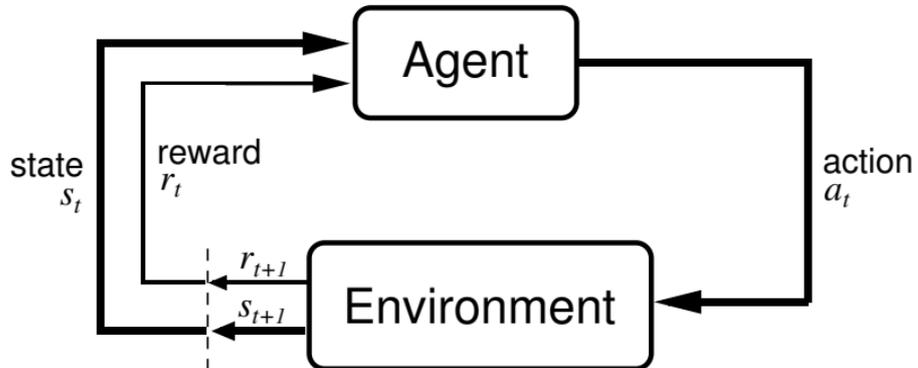




- ▶ Reinforcement learning is what to do (**how to map situations to actions**) so as to maximize a scalar reward/reinforcement signal
- ▶ The learner is not told which actions to take as in **supervised learning**, but discover which actions yield the most reward by trying them.
- ▶ The **trial-and-error** and **delayed reward** are the two most important feature of **reinforcement learning**.
- ▶ Reinforcement learning is defined not by characterizing **learning algorithms**, but by characterizing **a learning problem**.
- ▶ Any algorithm that is well suited for solving the given problem, we consider to be a **reinforcement learning**.
- ▶ One of the challenges that arises in reinforcement learning and other kinds of learning is **tradeoff** between **exploration** and **exploitation**.



- ▶ A key feature of reinforcement learning is that it explicitly considers the **whole problem** of a **goal-directed agent** interacting with **an uncertain environment**.





- ▶ **Experience** is a sequence of observations, actions, rewards.

$$o_1, r_1, a_1, \dots, a_{t-1}, o_t, r_t$$

- ▶ The **state** is a summary of experience

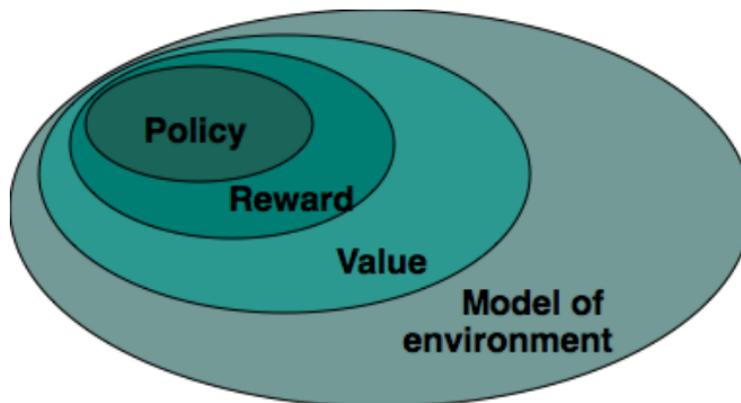
$$s_t = f(o_1, r_1, a_1, \dots, a_{t-1}, o_t, r_t)$$

- ▶ In a **fully observed** environment

$$s_t = f(o_t)$$



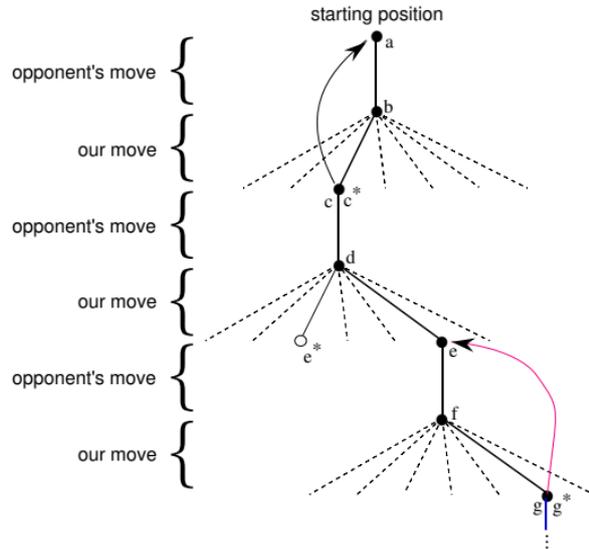
- ▶ **Policy** : A policy is a mapping from received states of the environment to actions to be taken (**what to do?**).
- ▶ **Reward function**: It defines the goal of RL problem. It maps each state-action pair to a single number called reinforcement signal, indicating the goodness of the action. (**what is good?**)
- ▶ **Value** : It specifies what is good in the long run. (**what is good because it predicts reward?**)
- ▶ **Model of the environment (optional)**: This is something that mimics the behavior of the environment. (**what follows what?**)





- ▶ Consider a two-players game (Tic-Tac-Toe)

X	O	O
O	X	X
		X

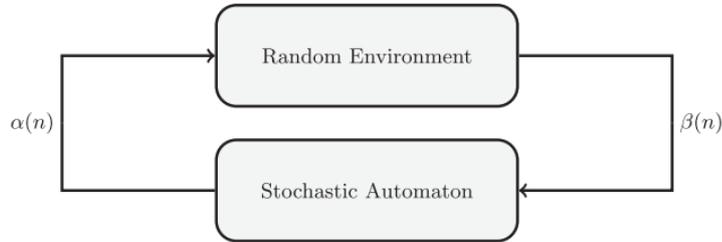


- ▶ Consider the following updating

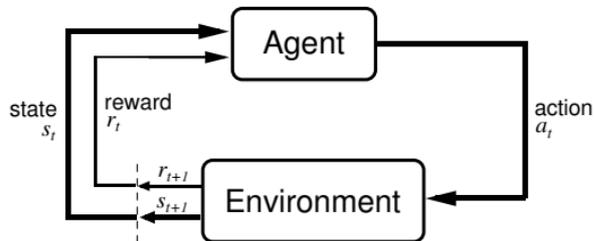
$$V(s) \leftarrow V(s) + \alpha[V(s') - V(s)]$$



- ▶ **Non-associative reinforcement learning** : The learning method that does not involve learning to act in more than one state.



- ▶ **Associative reinforcement learning** : The learning method that involves learning to act in more than one state.



## Non-associative reinforcement learning

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- ▶ Consider that you are faced repeatedly with a choice among  $n$  different options or actions.
- ▶ After each choice, you receive a numerical reward chosen from a stationary probability distribution that depends on the action you selected.
- ▶ Your objective is to maximize the expected total reward over some time period.
- ▶ This is the original form of the  $n$ -armed bandit problem called a slot machine.



- ▶ Consider some simple methods for estimating the values of actions and then using the estimates to select actions.
- ▶ Let the true value of action  $a$  denoted as  $Q^*(a)$  and its estimated value at  $t^{\text{th}}$  play as  $Q_t(a)$ .
- ▶ The true value of an action is the mean reward when that action is selected.
- ▶ One natural way to estimate this is by averaging the rewards actually received when the action was selected.
- ▶ In other words, if at the  $t^{\text{th}}$  play action  $a$  has been chosen  $k_a$  times prior to  $t$ , yielding rewards  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_{k_a}$ , then its value is estimated to be

$$Q_t(a) = \frac{r_1 + r_2 + \dots + r_{k_a}}{k_a}$$



- ▶ **Greedy action selection** : This strategy selects the action with highest estimated action value.

$$a_t = \operatorname{argmax}_a Q_t(a)$$

- ▶  **$\epsilon$ -greedy action selection** : This strategy selects the action with highest estimated action value most of time but with small probability  $\epsilon$  selects an action at random, uniformly, independently of the action-value estimates.
- ▶ **Softmax action selection** : This strategy selects actions using the action probabilities as a graded function of estimated value.

$$p_t(a) = \frac{\exp^{Q_t(a)/\tau}}{\sum_b \exp^{Q_t(b)/\tau}}$$



- ▶ Environment represented by a tuple  $\langle \underline{\alpha}, \underline{\beta}, \underline{C} \rangle$ ,
  1.  $\underline{\alpha} = \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_r\}$  shows a set of inputs,
  2.  $\underline{\beta} = \{0, 1\}$  represents the set of values that the reinforcement signal can take,
  3.  $\underline{C} = \{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_r\}$  is the set of **penalty probabilities**, where  $c_i = Prob[\beta(k) = 1 | \alpha(k) = \alpha_i]$ .
- ▶ A **variable structure learning automaton** is represented by triple  $\langle \beta, \alpha, T \rangle$ ,
  1.  $\beta = \{0, 1\}$  is a set of inputs,
  2.  $\alpha = \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_r\}$  is a set of actions,
  3.  $T$  is a learning algorithm used to modify action probability vector  $\underline{p}$ .



- ▶ In linear reward- $\epsilon$ penalty algorithm ( $L_{R-\epsilon P}$ ) updating rule for  $p$  is defined as

$$p_j(k+1) = \begin{cases} p_j(k) + a \times [1 - p_j(k)] & \text{if } i = j \\ p_j(k) - a \times p_j(k) & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

when  $\beta(k) = 0$  and

$$p_j(k+1) = \begin{cases} p_j(k) \times (1 - b) & \text{if } i = j \\ \frac{b}{r-1} + p_j(k)(1 - b) & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

when  $\beta(k) = 1$ .

- ▶ Parameters  $0 < b \ll a < 1$  represent step lengths.
- ▶ When  $a = b$ , we call it linear reward penalty ( $L_{R-P}$ ) algorithm.
- ▶ When  $b = 0$ , we call it linear reward inaction ( $L_{R-I}$ ) algorithm.



- ▶ In **stationary environments**, **average penalty** received by automaton is

$$M(k) = E[\beta(k)|p(k)] = \text{Prob}[\beta(k) = 1|p(k)] = \sum_{i=1}^r c_i p_i(k).$$

- ▶ A learning automaton is called **expedient** if

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} E[M(k)] < M(0)$$

- ▶ A learning automaton is called **optimal** if

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} E[M(k)] = \min_i c_i$$

- ▶ A learning automaton is called  **$\epsilon$ -optimal** if

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} E[M(k)] < \min_i c_i + \epsilon$$

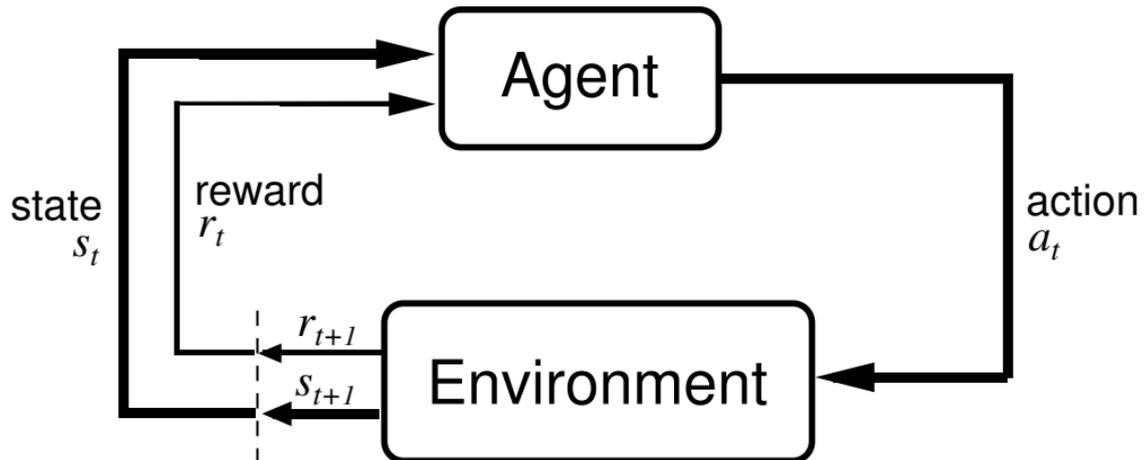
for arbitrary  $\epsilon > 0$

## Associative reinforcement learning

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The learning method that involves learning to act in more than one state.



## Goals, rewards, and returns

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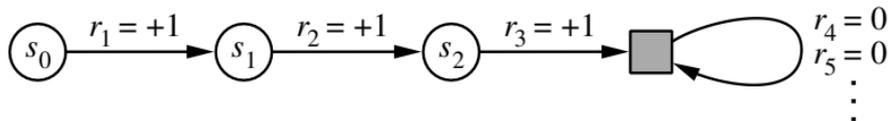
- ▶ In reinforcement learning, the goal of the agent is formalized in terms of a special reward signal passing from the environment to the agent.
- ▶ The agent's goal is to maximize the total amount of reward it receives. This means maximizing not immediate reward, but cumulative reward in the long run.
- ▶ How might the goal be formally defined?
- ▶ In **episodic tasks** the return,  $R_t$ , is defined as

$$R_t = r_1 + r_2 + \dots + r_T$$

- ▶ In **continuous tasks** the return,  $R_t$ , is defined as

$$R_t = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k r_{t+k+1}$$

- ▶ The unified approach



## Markov decision process

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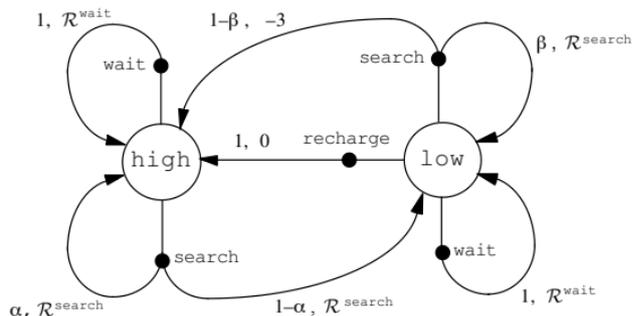


- ▶ A RL task satisfying the Markov property is called a Markov decision process (MDP).
- ▶ If the state and action spaces are finite, then it is called a finite MDP.
- ▶ A particular finite MDP is defined by its state and action sets and by the one-step dynamics of the environment.

$$P_{ss'}^a = \text{Prob}\{s_{t+1} = s' | s_t = s, a_t = a\}$$

$$\mathcal{R}_{ss'}^a = E[r_{t+1} | s_t = s, a_t = a, s_{t+1} = s']$$

- ▶ Recycling Robot MDP





- ▶ Let in state  $s$  action  $a$  is selected with probability of  $\pi(s, a)$ .
- ▶ Value of state  $s$  under a policy  $\pi$  is the expected return when starting in  $s$  and following  $\pi$  thereafter.

$$\begin{aligned} V^\pi(s) &= E_\pi\{R_t | s_t = s\} = E_\pi\left\{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k r_{t+k+1} \mid s_t = s\right\} \\ &= \sum_{\pi} \pi(s, a) \sum_{s'} P_{ss'}^a [\mathcal{R}_{ss'}^a + \gamma V^\pi(s')]. \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Value of action  $a$  in state  $s$  under a policy  $\pi$  is the expected return when starting in  $s$  taking action  $a$  and following  $\pi$  thereafter.

$$Q^\pi(s, a) = E_\pi\{R_t | s_t = s, a_t = a\} = E_\pi\left\{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k r_{t+k+1} \mid s_t = s, a_t = a\right\}$$



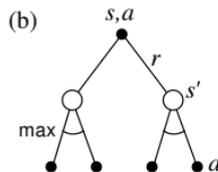
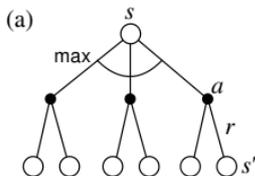
- ▶ Policy  $\pi$  is better than or equal of  $\pi'$  iff for all  $s$   $V^\pi(s) \geq V^{\pi'}(s)$ .
- ▶ There is always at least one policy that is better than or equal to all other policies. This is an **optimal policy**.
- ▶ Value of state  $s$  under the optimal policy ( $V^*(s)$ ) equals

$$V^*(s) = \max_{\pi} V^\pi(s)$$

- ▶ Value of action  $a$  in state  $s$  under the optimal policy ( $Q^*(s, a)$ ) equals

$$Q^*(s, a) = \max_{\pi} Q^\pi(s, a)$$

- ▶ Backup diagram for  $V^*$  and  $Q^*$





1. Model-based RL
  - 1.1 Build a model of the environment.
  - 1.2 Plan (e.g. by lookahead) using model.
2. Value-based RL
  - 2.1 Estimate the optimal value function  $Q^*(s, a)$
  - 2.2 This is the maximum value achievable under any policy
3. Policy-based RL
  - 3.1 Search directly for the optimal policy  $\pi^*$ .
  - 3.2 This is the policy achieving maximum future reward.

## Model based methods

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- ▶ The key idea of DP is the use of value functions to organize and structure the search for good policies.
- ▶ We can easily obtain optimal policies once we have found the optimal value functions, or , which satisfy the Bellman optimality equations:

$$\begin{aligned} V^*(s) &= \max_a E\{r_{t+1} + \gamma V^*(s_{t+1}) | s_t = s, a_t = a\} \\ &= \max_a \sum_{s'} P_{ss'}^a [\mathcal{R}_{ss'}^a + \gamma V^*(s')]. \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Value of action  $a$  in state  $s$  under a policy  $\pi$  is the expected return when starting in  $s$  taking action  $a$  and following  $\pi$  thereafter.

$$\begin{aligned} Q^*(s, a) &= E\{r_{t+1} + \gamma \max_{a'} Q^*(s_{t+1}, a') | s_t = s, a_t = a\} \\ &= \sum_{s'} P_{ss'}^a [\mathcal{R}_{ss'}^a + \gamma \max_{a'} Q^*(s', a')]. \end{aligned}$$



- ▶ Policy iteration is an iterative process

$$\pi_0 \xrightarrow{E} V^{\pi_0} \xrightarrow{I} \pi_1 \xrightarrow{E} V^{\pi_1} \xrightarrow{I} \pi_2 \xrightarrow{E} \dots \xrightarrow{I} \pi^* \xrightarrow{E} V^*$$

- ▶ Policy iteration has two phases : policy evaluation and improvement.
- ▶ In policy evaluation, we compute state or state-action value functions

$$\begin{aligned} V^\pi(s) &= E_\pi \{ R_t | s_t = s \} = E_\pi \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k r_{t+k+1} \middle| s_t = s \right\} \\ &= \sum_{\pi} \pi(s, a) \sum_{s'} P_{ss'}^a [R_{ss'}^a + \gamma V^\pi(s')]. \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ In policy improvement, we change the policy to obtain a better policy

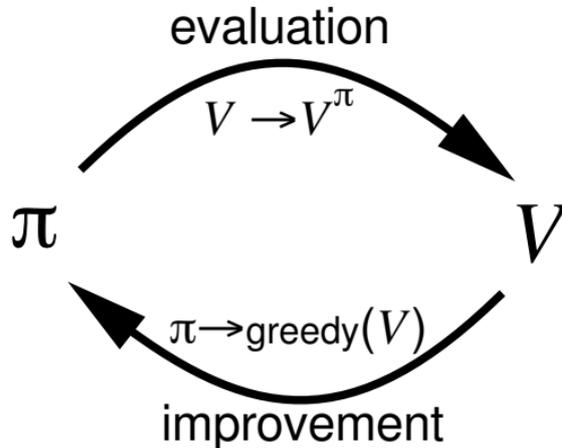
$$\begin{aligned} \pi'(s) &= \operatorname{argmax}_a Q^\pi(s, a) \\ &= \operatorname{argmax}_a \sum_{s'} P_{ss'}^a [R_{ss'}^a + \gamma V^\pi(s')]. \end{aligned}$$



- ▶ In value iteration we have

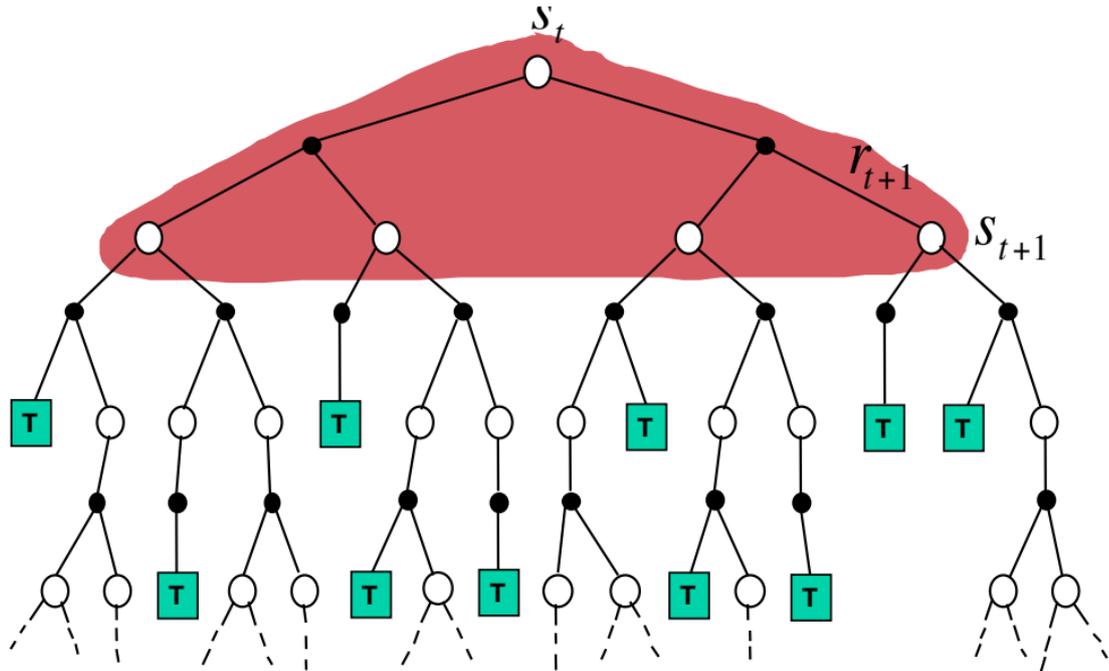
$$\begin{aligned} V_{k+1}(s) &= \max_a E\{r_{t+1} + \gamma V_k(s_{t+1}) | s_t = s, a_t = a\} \\ &= \max_a \sum_{s'} P_{ss'}^a [\mathcal{R}_{ss'}^a + \gamma V_k(s')]. \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ Generalized policy iteration





$$V(S_t) \leftarrow E_{\pi}[R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1})]$$



## Value-based methods

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- ▶ These methods learn **policy** function **implicitly**.
- ▶ These methods first learn a value function  $Q(s, a)$ .
- ▶ Then infer policy  $\pi(s, a)$  from  $Q(s, a)$ .
- ▶ Examples
  - ▶ Monte-carlo methods
  - ▶ Q-learning
  - ▶ SARSA
  - ▶ TD( $\lambda$ )

## **Value-based methods**

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**Monte Carlo methods**



- ▶ MC methods learn directly from episodes of experience.
- ▶ MC is model-free: no knowledge of MDP transitions / rewards
- ▶ MC learns from complete episodes
- ▶ MC uses the simplest possible idea: **value = mean return**
- ▶ Goal: learn  $V_\pi$  from episodes of experience under policy  $\pi$

$$S_1 \xrightarrow[R_1]{\alpha_1} S_2 \xrightarrow[R_2]{\alpha_2} S_3 \xrightarrow[R_3]{\alpha_3} S_4 \dots \xrightarrow[R_{k-1}]{\alpha_{k-1}} S_k$$

- ▶ The return is the total discounted reward:

$$G_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \dots + \gamma^{T-1} R_T$$

- ▶ The value function is the expected return:

$$V_\pi(s) = E_\pi[G_t | S_t = s]$$

- ▶ Monte-Carlo policy evaluation uses empirical mean return instead of expected return



- ▶ To evaluate state  $s$
- ▶ The **first** time-step  $t$  that state  $s$  is visited in an episode, Increment counter

$$N(s) \leftarrow N(s) + 1$$

- ▶ Increment total return

$$S(s) \leftarrow S(s) + G_t$$

- ▶ Value is estimated by mean return

$$V(s) = \frac{S(s)}{N(s)}$$

- ▶ By law of large numbers,

$$V(s) \rightarrow v_{\pi}(s)$$

as

$$N(s) \rightarrow \infty$$



- ▶ To evaluate state  $s$
- ▶ **Every** time-step  $t$  that state  $s$  is visited in an episode, Increment counter

$$N(s) \leftarrow N(s) + 1$$

- ▶ Increment total return

$$S(s) \leftarrow S(s) + G_t$$

- ▶ Value is estimated by mean return

$$V(s) = \frac{S(s)}{N(s)}$$

- ▶ By law of large numbers,

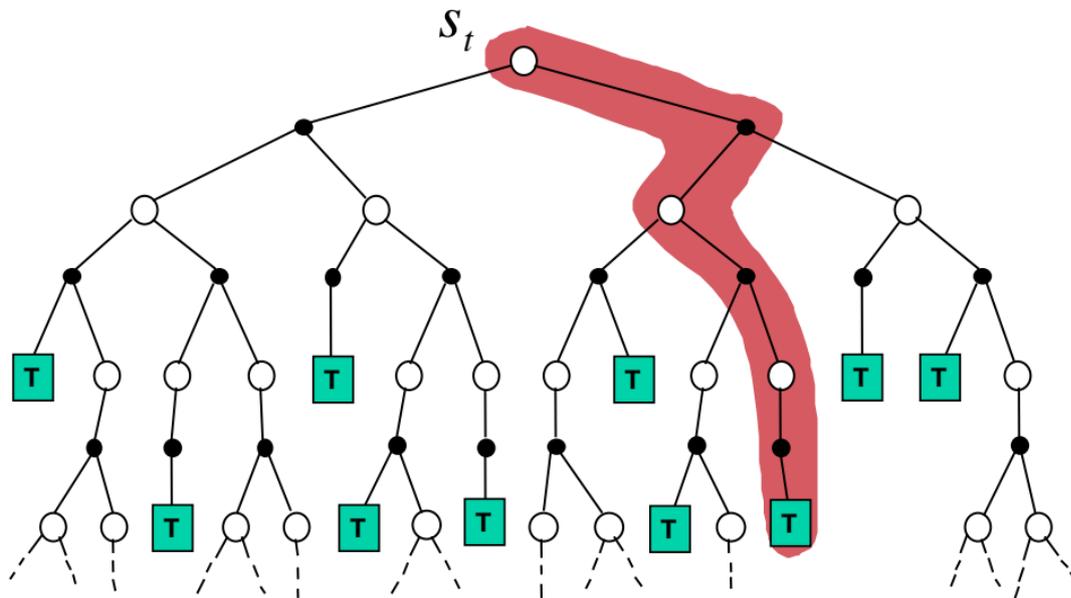
$$V(s) \rightarrow v_{\pi}(s)$$

as

$$N(s) \rightarrow \infty$$



$$V(S_t) \leftarrow V(S_t) + \alpha(G_t - V(S_t))$$



## Value-based methods

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Temporal-difference methods

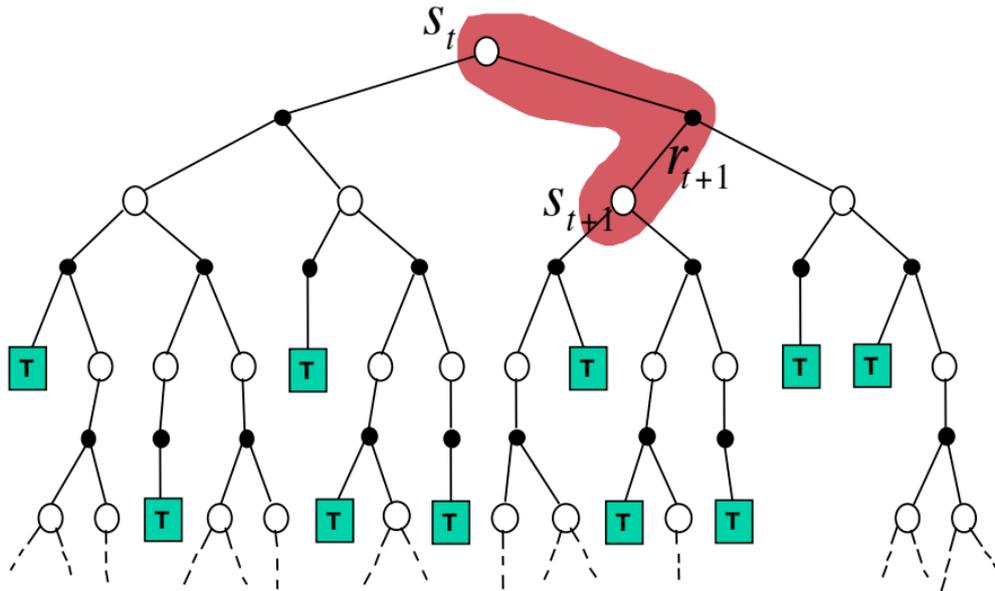


- ▶ TD learning is a combination of Monte Carlo ideas and dynamic programming (DP) ideas.
- ▶ Like Monte Carlo methods, TD methods can learn directly from raw experience without a model of the environment's dynamics.
- ▶ Like DP, TD methods update estimates based in part on other learned estimates, without waiting for a final outcome (they bootstrap).
- ▶ Monte Carlo methods wait until the return following the visit is known, then use that return as a target for  $V(s_t)$  while TD methods need wait only until the next time step.
- ▶ The simplest TD method, known as TD(0), is

$$V(s_t) \leftarrow V(s_t) + \alpha [r_{t+1} + \gamma V(s_{t+1}) - V(s_t)]$$



$$V(s_t) \leftarrow V(s_t) + \alpha [r_{t+1} + \gamma V(s_{t+1}) - V(s_t)]$$





► Algorithm for TD(0)

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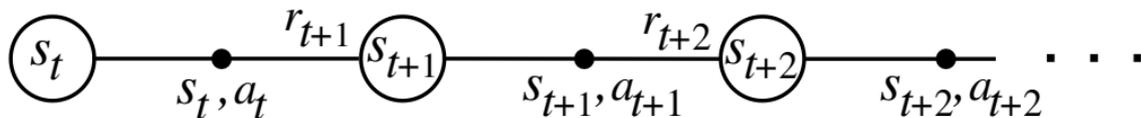
Initialize  $V(s)$  arbitrarily,  $\pi$  to the policy to be evaluated

Repeat (for each episode):

- . Initialize  $s$
  - . Repeat (for each step of episode):
    - .  $a \leftarrow$  action given by  $\pi$  for  $s$
    - . Take action  $a$ ; observe reward,  $r$ , and next state,  $s'$
    - .  $V(s) \leftarrow V(s) + \alpha [r + \gamma V(s') - V(s)]$
    - .  $s \leftarrow s'$
  - . until  $s$  is terminal
-



- ▶ An episode consists of an alternating sequence of states and state-action pairs:

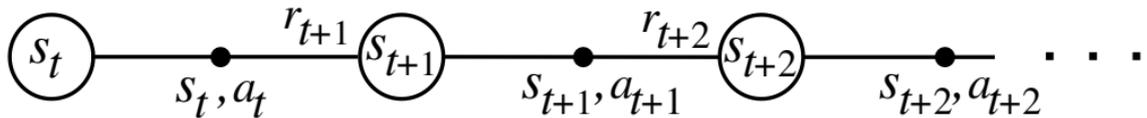


- ▶ SARSA, which is an on policy, updates values using

$$Q(s_t, a_t) \leftarrow Q(s_t, a_t) + \alpha [r_{t+1} + \gamma Q(s_{t+1}, a_{t+1}) - Q(s_t, a_t)]$$



- ▶ An episode consists of an alternating sequence of states and state-action pairs:



- ▶ Q-learning, which is an off policy, updates values using

$$Q(s_t, a_t) \leftarrow Q(s_t, a_t) + \alpha \left[ r_{t+1} + \gamma \max_a Q(s_{t+1}, a) - Q(s_t, a_t) \right]$$

## Policy-based methods

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- ▶ In policy-based learning, there is **no value function**.
- ▶ The policy  $\pi(s, a)$  is parametrized by vector  $\theta$  ( $\pi(s, a; \theta)$ ).
- ▶ Explicitly learn policy  $\pi(s, a; \theta)$  that implicitly maximize reward over all policies.
- ▶ Given policy  $\pi(s, a; \theta)$  with parameters  $\theta$ , find best  $\theta$ .
- ▶ How do we measure the quality of a policy  $\pi(s, a; \theta)$ ?
- ▶ Let objective function be  $J(\theta)$  .
- ▶ Find policy parameters  $\theta$  that maximize  $J(\theta)$  .
- ▶ Sample algorithm: **REINFORCE**



- ▶ Advantages of policy-based methods over value-based methods
  - ▶ Usually, computing Q-values is harder than picking optimal actions
  - ▶ Better convergence properties
  - ▶ Effective in high dimensional or continuous action spaces
  - ▶ Can benefit from demonstrations
  - ▶ Policy subspace can be chosen according to the task
  - ▶ Exploration can be directly controlled
  - ▶ Can learn stochastic policies
- ▶ Disadvantages of policy-based methods over value-based methods
  - ▶ Typically converge to a local optimum rather than a global optimum
  - ▶ Evaluating a policy is typically data inefficient and high variance

## Reading

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1. Chapters 1-6 of [Reinforcement Learning: An Introduction](#) (Sutton and Barto 2018).



-  Sutton, Richard S. and Andrew G. Barto (2018). *Reinforcement Learning: An Introduction*. Second edition. The MIT Press.

Questions?

