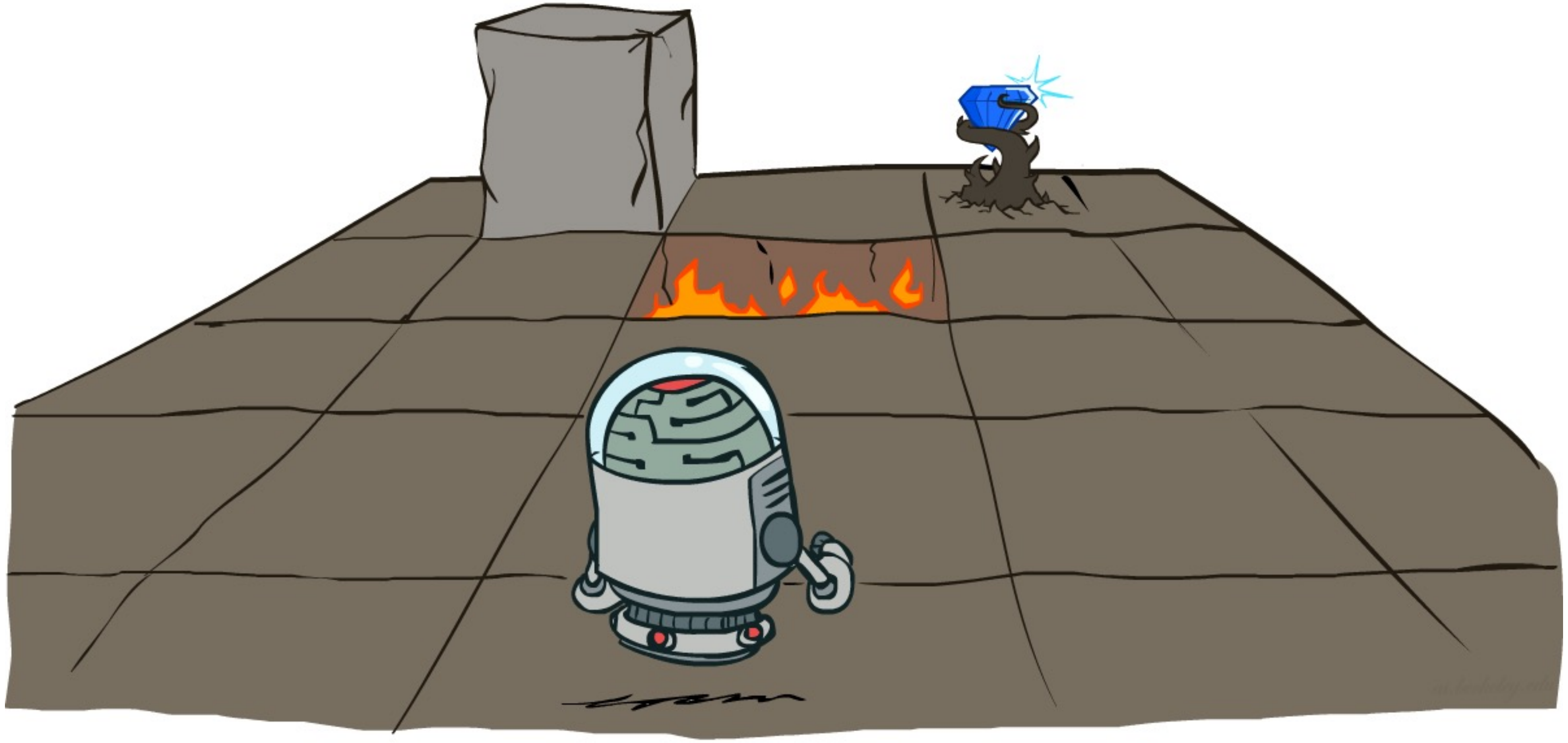
CS 188: Artificial Intelligence

Markov Decision Processes



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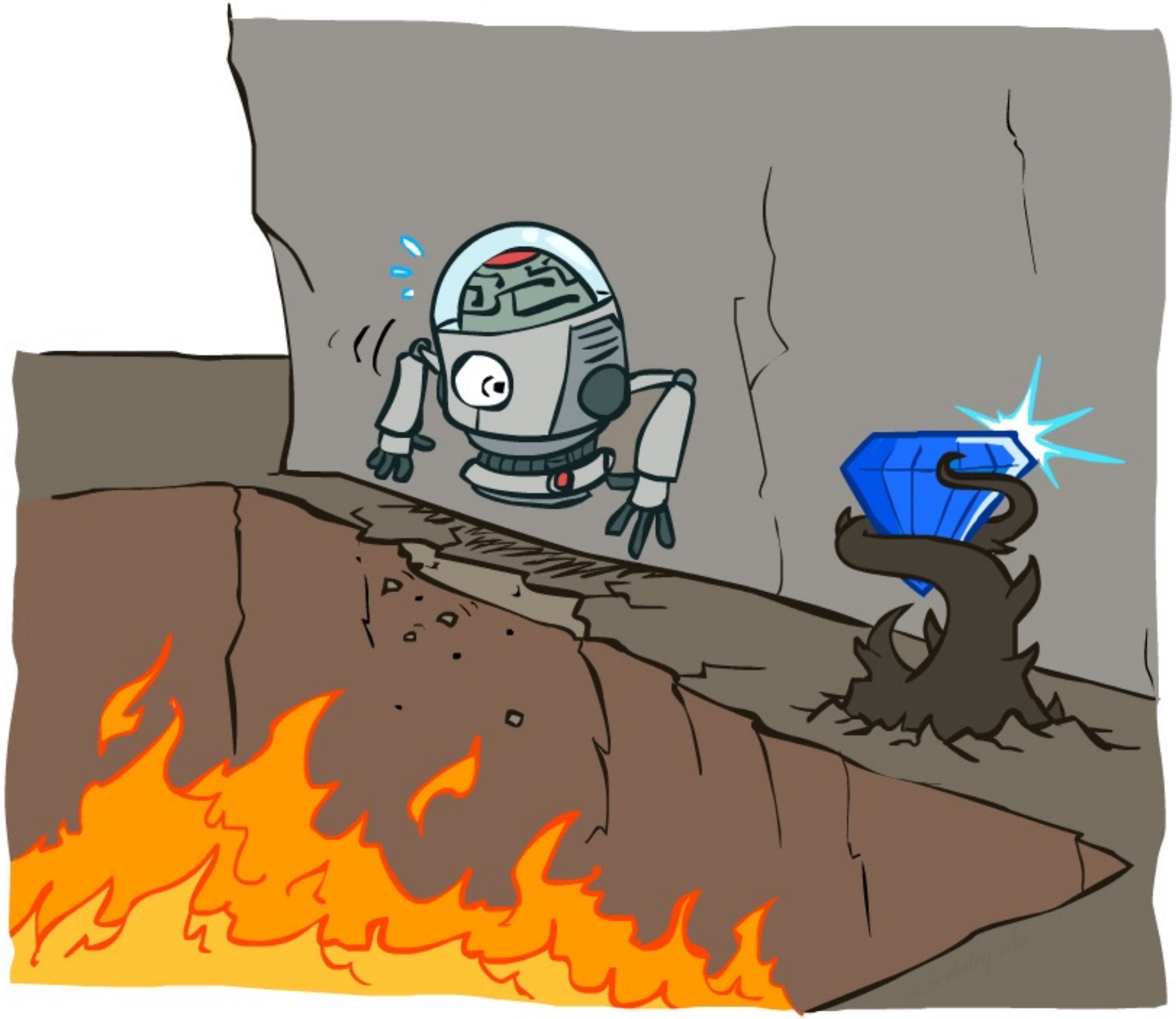
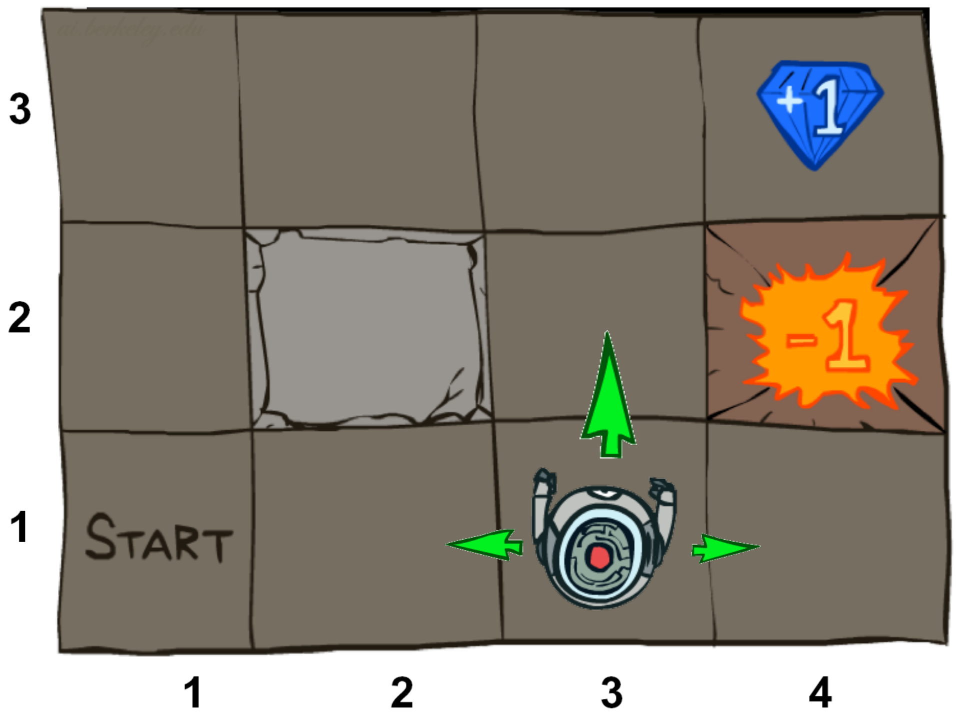
Non-Deterministic Search



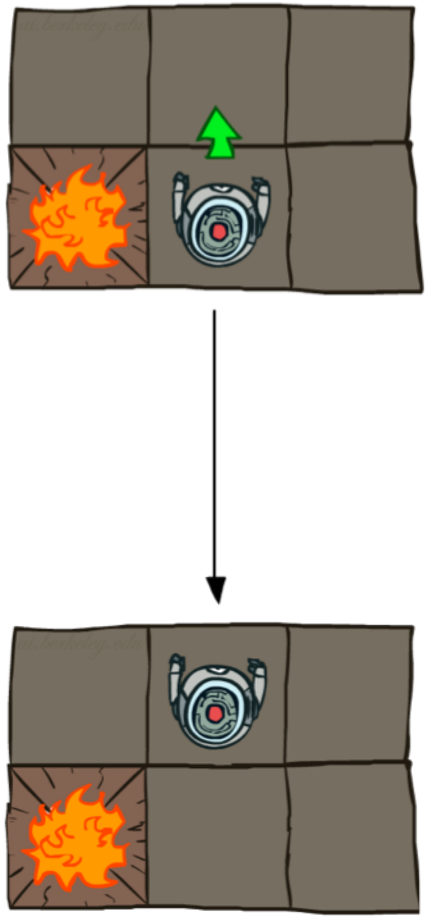
Example: Grid World

- A maze-like problem
  - The agent lives in a grid
  - Walls block the agent's path
- Noisy movement: actions do not always go as planned
  - 80% of the time, the action North takes the agent North (if there is no wall there)
  - 10% of the time, North takes the agent West; 10% East
  - If there is a wall in the direction the agent would have been taken, the agent stays put
- The agent receives rewards each time step
  - Small "living" reward each step (can be negative)
  - Big rewards come at the end (good or bad)
- Goal: maximize sum of rewards

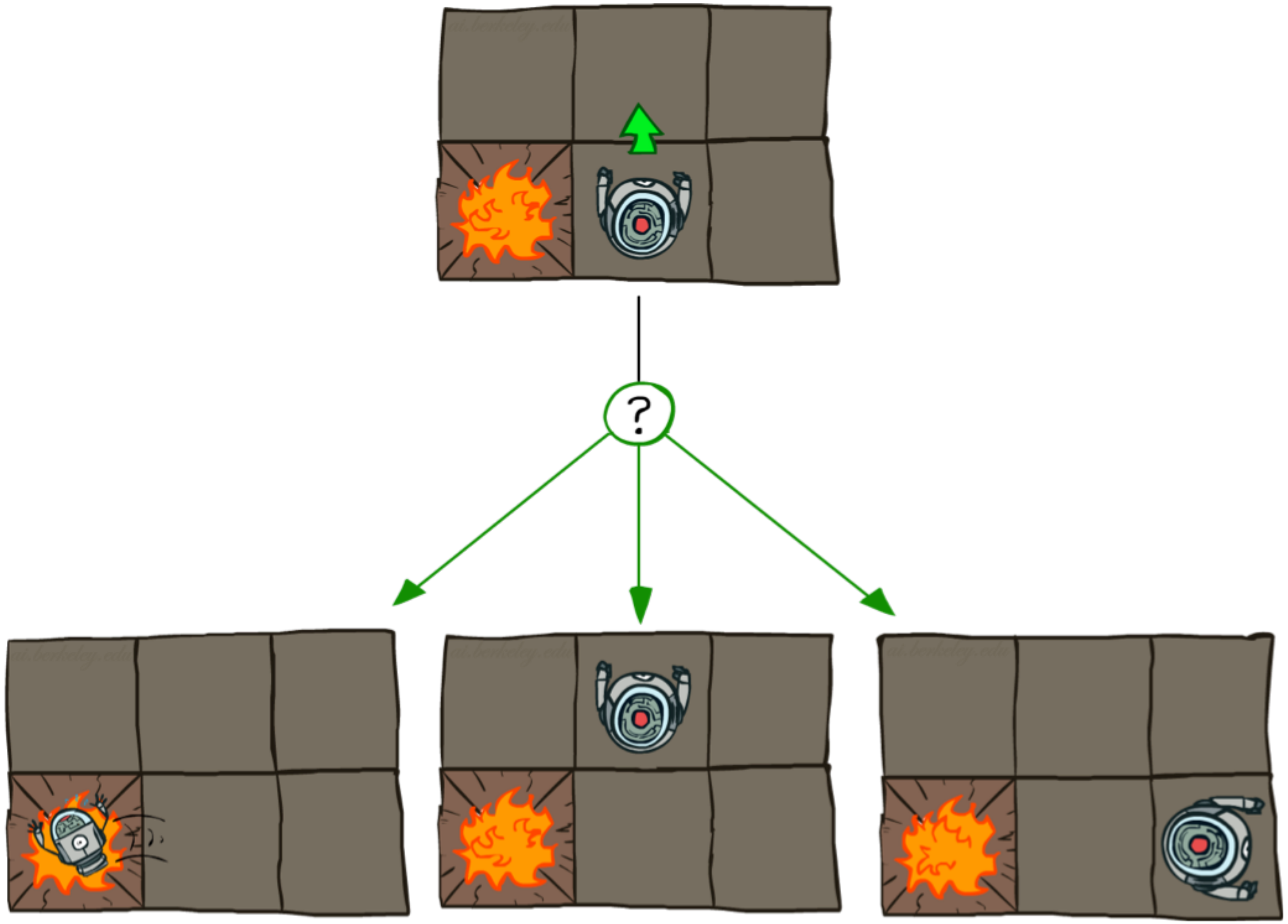


Grid World Actions

Deterministic Grid World



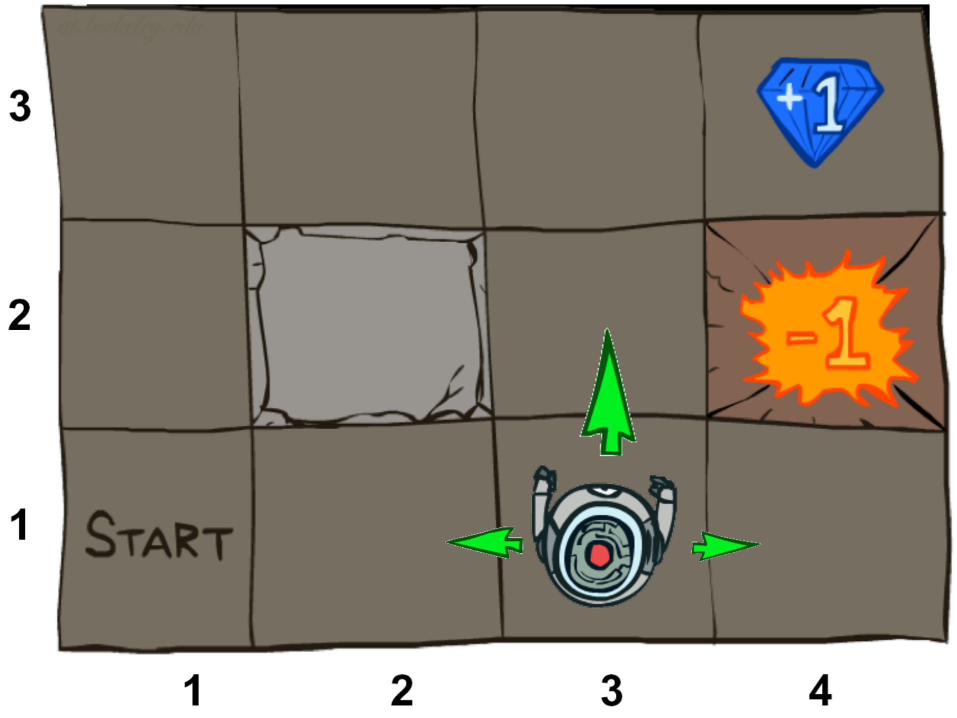
Stochastic Grid World



Markov Decision Processes

- An MDP is defined by:
  - A set of states $s \in S$
  - A set of actions $a \in A$
  - A transition function $T(s, a, s')$
    - Probability that a from s leads to s', i.e., $P(s' | s, a)$
    - Also called the model or the dynamics
  - A reward function $R(s, a, s')$
    - Sometimes just $R(s)$ or $R(s')$
  - A start state
  - Maybe a terminal state

- MDPs are non-deterministic search problems
  - One way to solve them is with expectimax search
  - We'll have a new tool soon



[Demo – gridworld manual intro (L8D1)]

What is Markov about MDPs?

- “Markov” generally means that given the present state, the future and the past are independent

- For Markov decision processes, “Markov” means action outcomes depend only on the current state

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

$$=$$

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

- This is just like search, where the successor function could only depend on the current state (not the history)

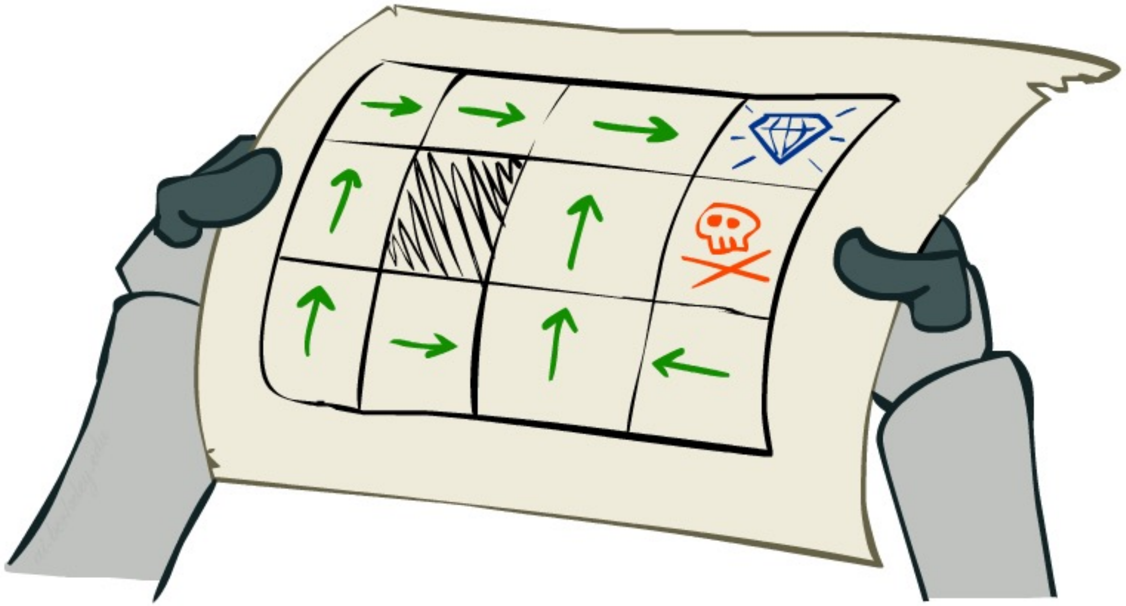
Andrey Markov
(1856-1922)

Policies

- In deterministic single-agent search problems, we wanted an optimal plan, or sequence of actions, from start to a goal

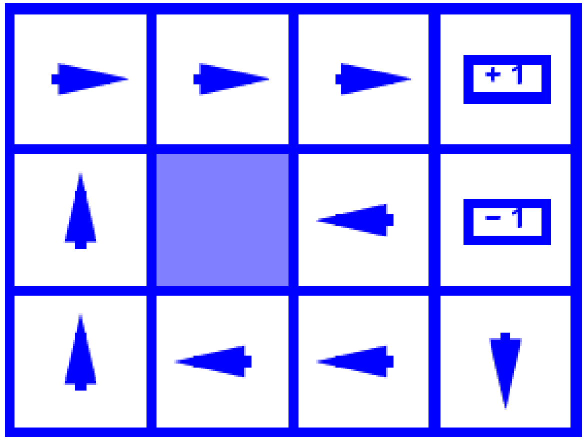
- For MDPs, we want an optimal policy $\pi^*: S \rightarrow A$
  - A policy π gives an action for each state
  - An optimal policy is one that maximizes expected utility if followed
  - An explicit policy defines a reflex agent

- Expectimax didn't compute entire policies
  - It computed the action for a single state only

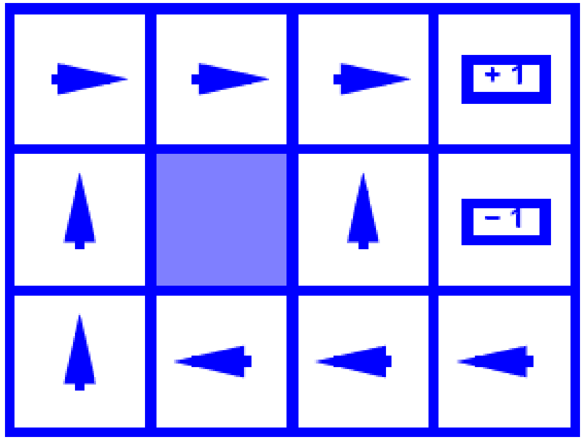


Optimal policy when R(s, a, s') = -0.03 for all non-terminals s

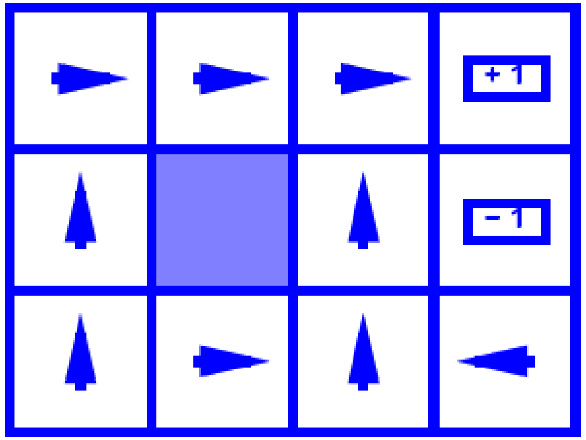
Optimal Policies



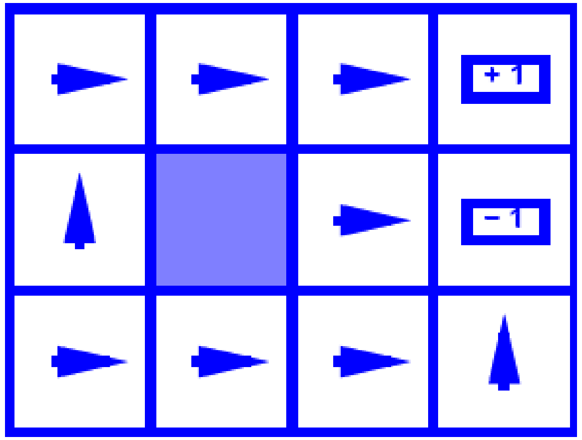
R(s) = -0.01



R(s) = -0.03

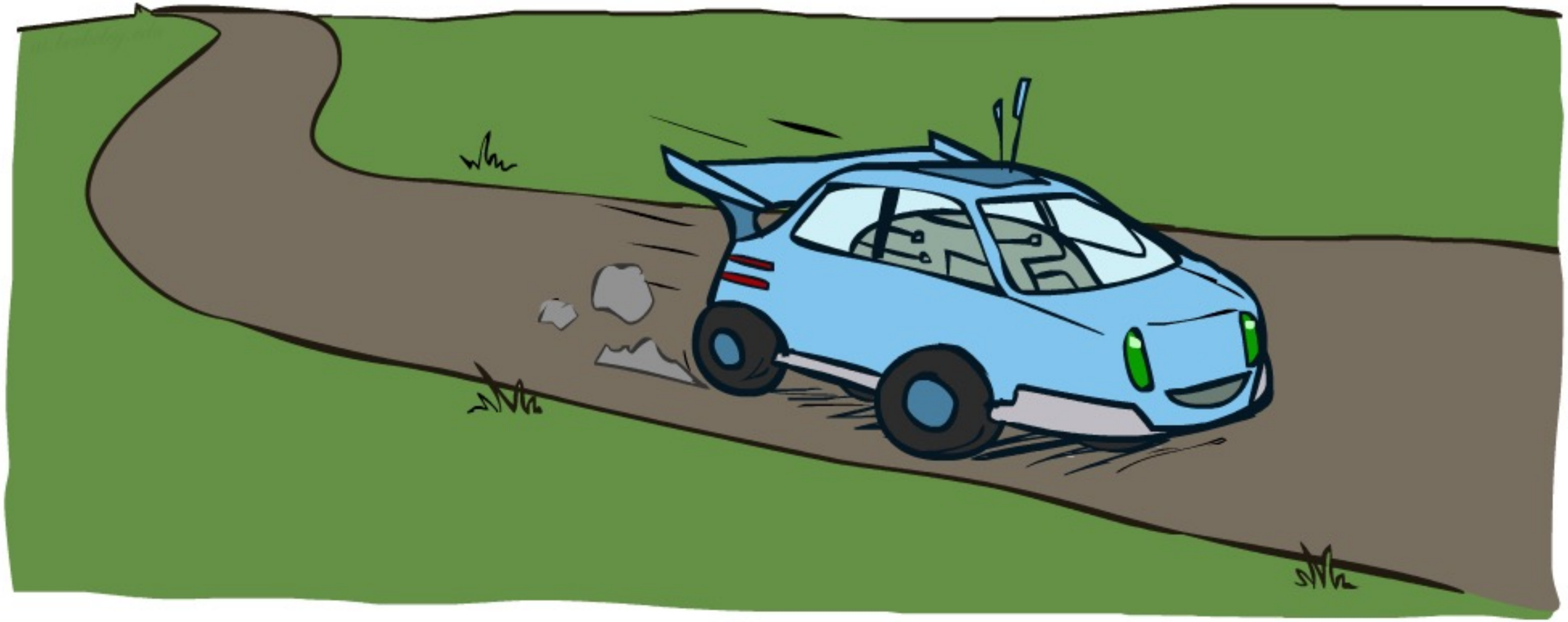


R(s) = -0.4



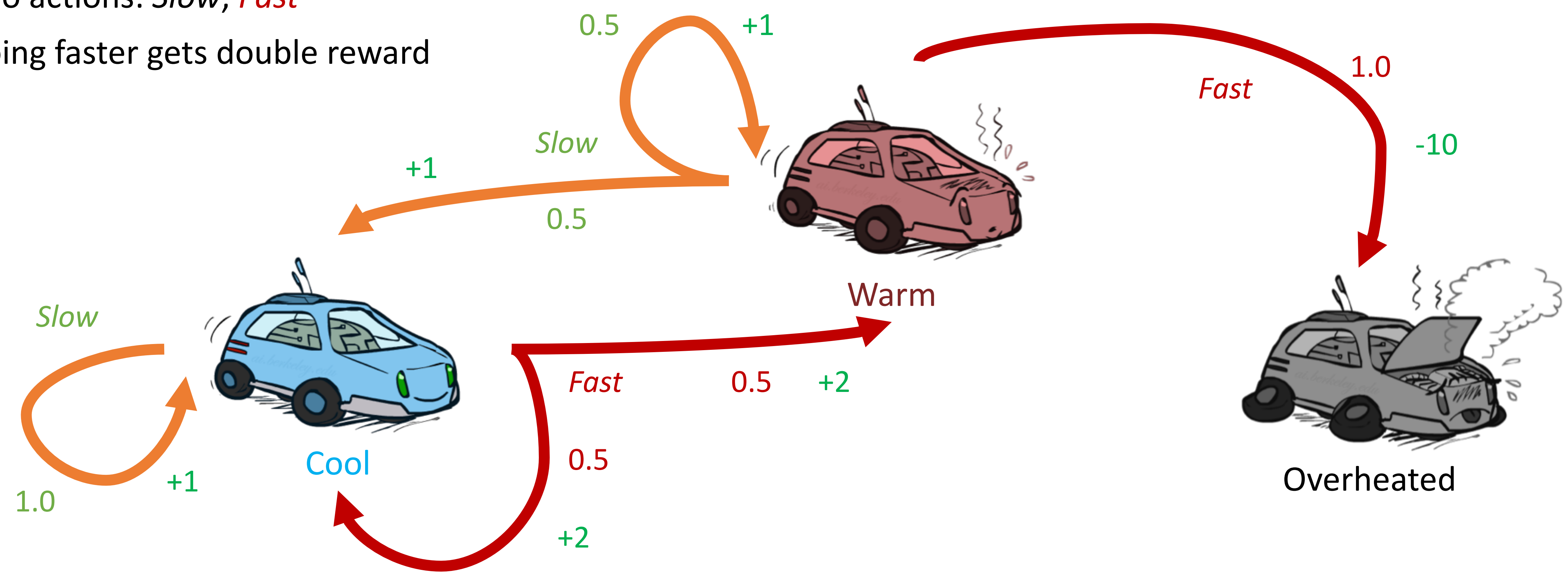
R(s) = -2.0

Example: Racing

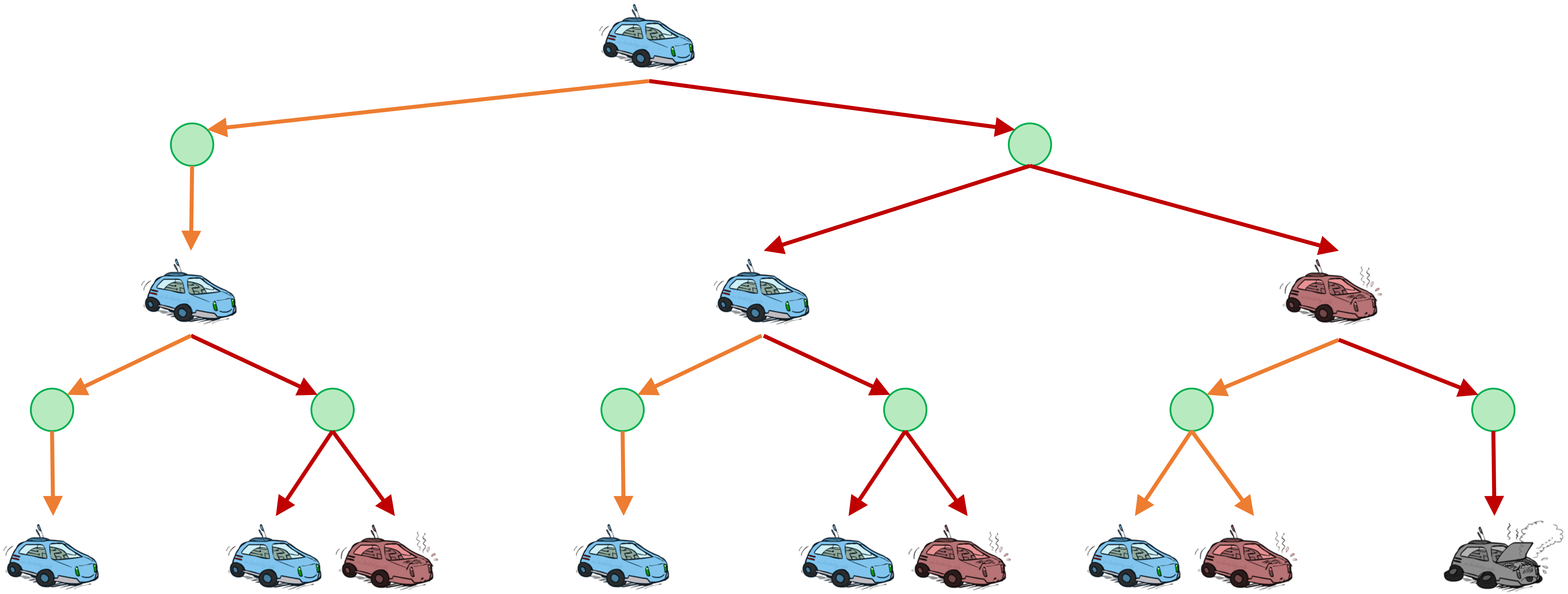


Example: Racing

- A robot car wants to travel far, quickly
- Three states: Cool, Warm, Overheated
- Two actions: *Slow*, *Fast*
- Going faster gets double reward

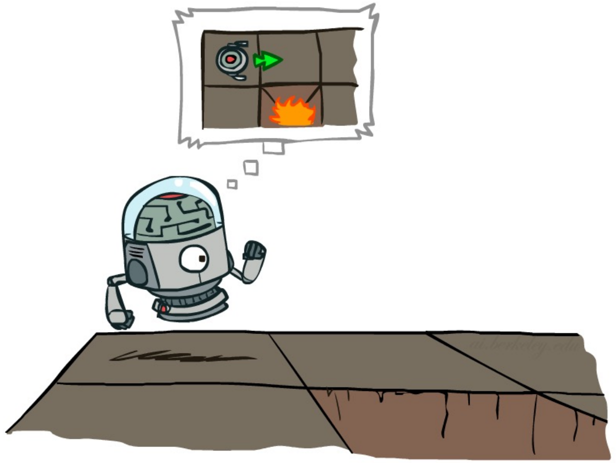


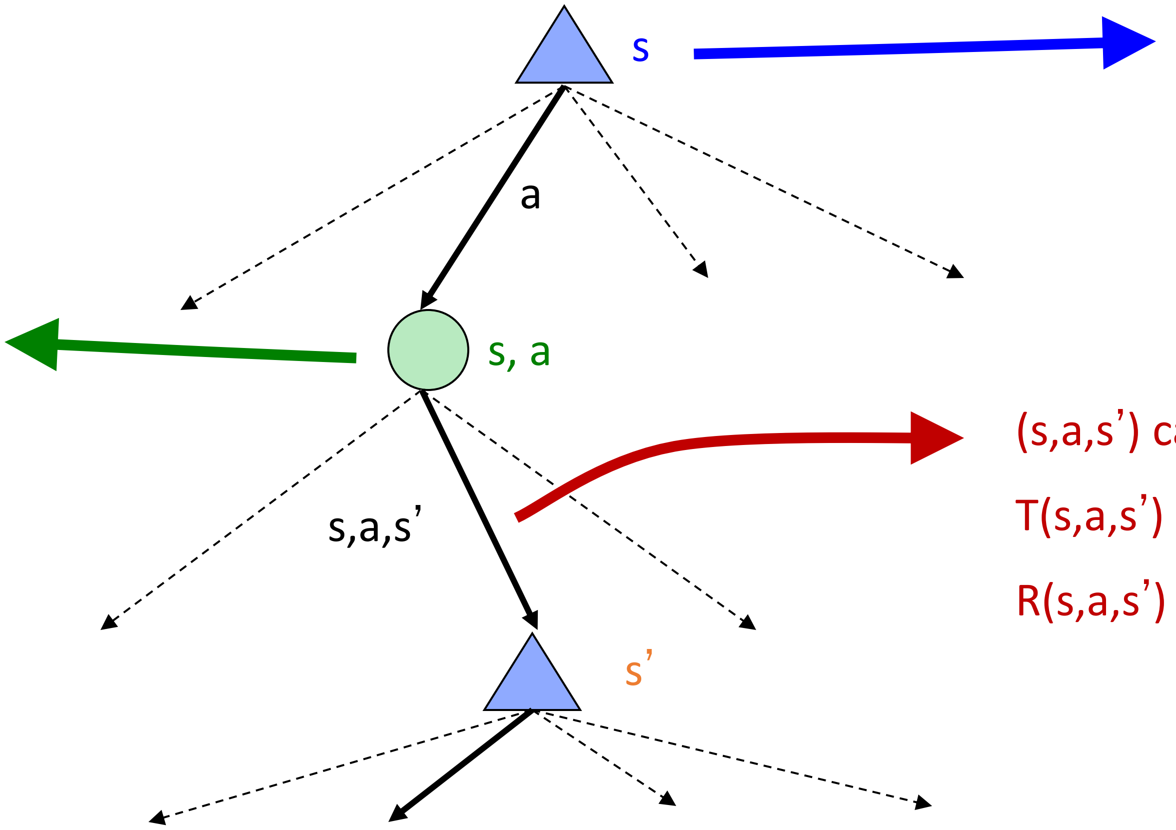
Racing Search Tree



MDP Search Trees

- Each MDP state projects an expectimax-like search tree





s is a *state*

(s,a,s') called a *transition*

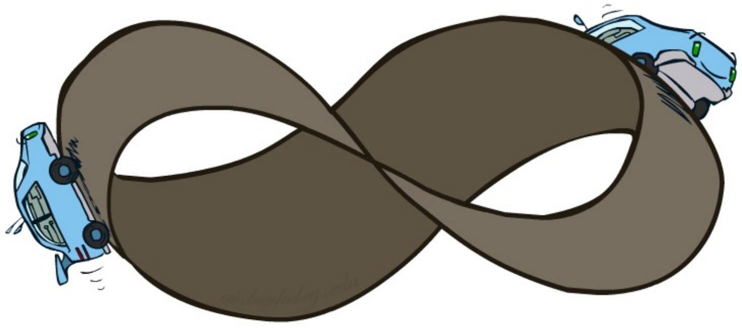
T(s,a,s') = P(s'|s,a)

R(s,a,s')

Infinite Utilities?!

- Problem: What if the game lasts forever? Do we get infinite rewards?

- Solutions:
  - Finite horizon: (similar to depth-limited search)
    - Terminate episodes after a fixed T steps (e.g. life)
    - Gives nonstationary policies (π depends on time left)



  - Discounting: use $0 < \gamma < 1$

$$U([r_0, \ldots r_\infty]) = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t r_t \leq R_{\max}/(1-\gamma)$$

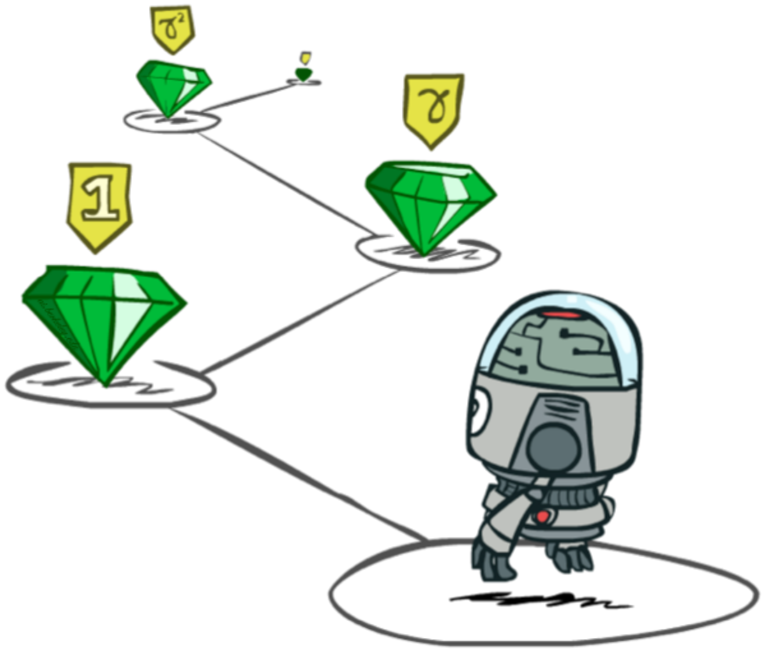
    - Smaller γ means smaller "horizon" – shorter term focus

  - Absorbing state: guarantee that for every policy, a terminal state will eventually be reached (like "overheated" for racing)

Stationary Preferences

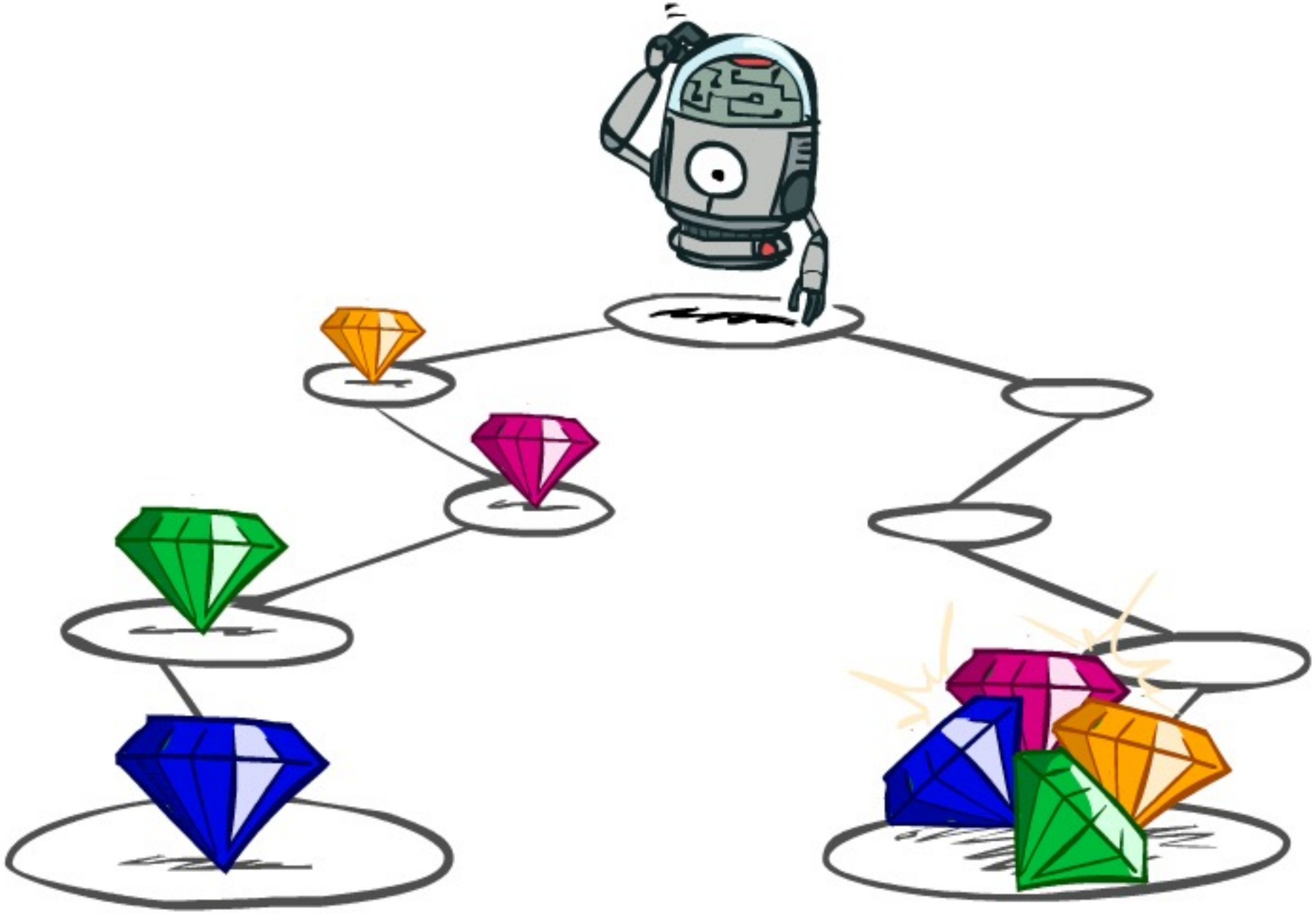
- Theorem: if we assume stationary preferences:

$$[a_1, a_2, \ldots] \succ [b_1, b_2, \ldots]$$
$$\Updownarrow$$
$$[r, a_1, a_2, \ldots] \succ [r, b_1, b_2, \ldots]$$



- Then: there are only two ways to define utilities
  - Additive utility: $U([r_0, r_1, r_2, \ldots]) = r_0 + r_1 + r_2 + \cdots$
  - Discounted utility: $U([r_0, r_1, r_2, \ldots]) = r_0 + \gamma r_1 + \gamma^2 r_2 \cdots$

Utilities of Sequences

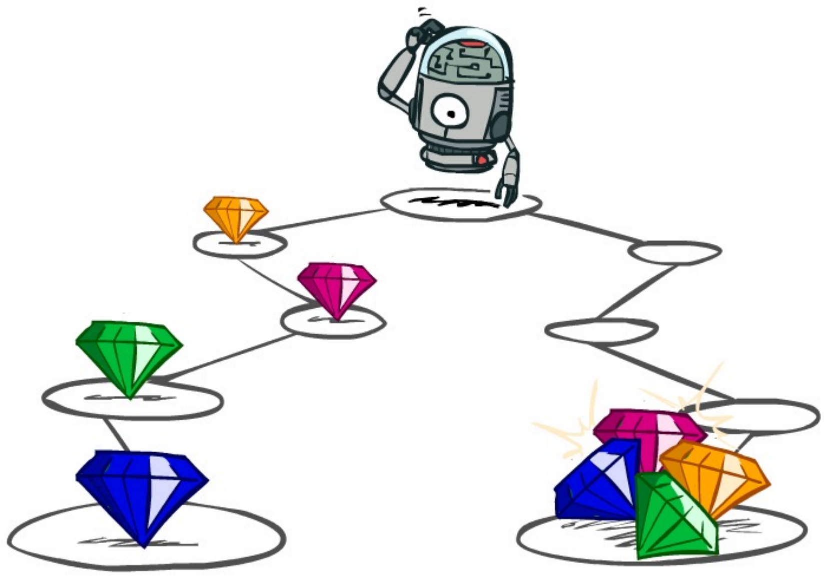


Utilities of Sequences

- What preferences should an agent have over reward sequences?

- More or less? [2, 3, 4] or [1, 2, 2]

- Now or later? [1, 0, 0] or [0, 0, 1]



Discounting

- It’s reasonable to maximize the sum of rewards
- It’s also reasonable to prefer rewards now to rewards later
- One solution: values of rewards decay exponentially

1

Worth Now

γ

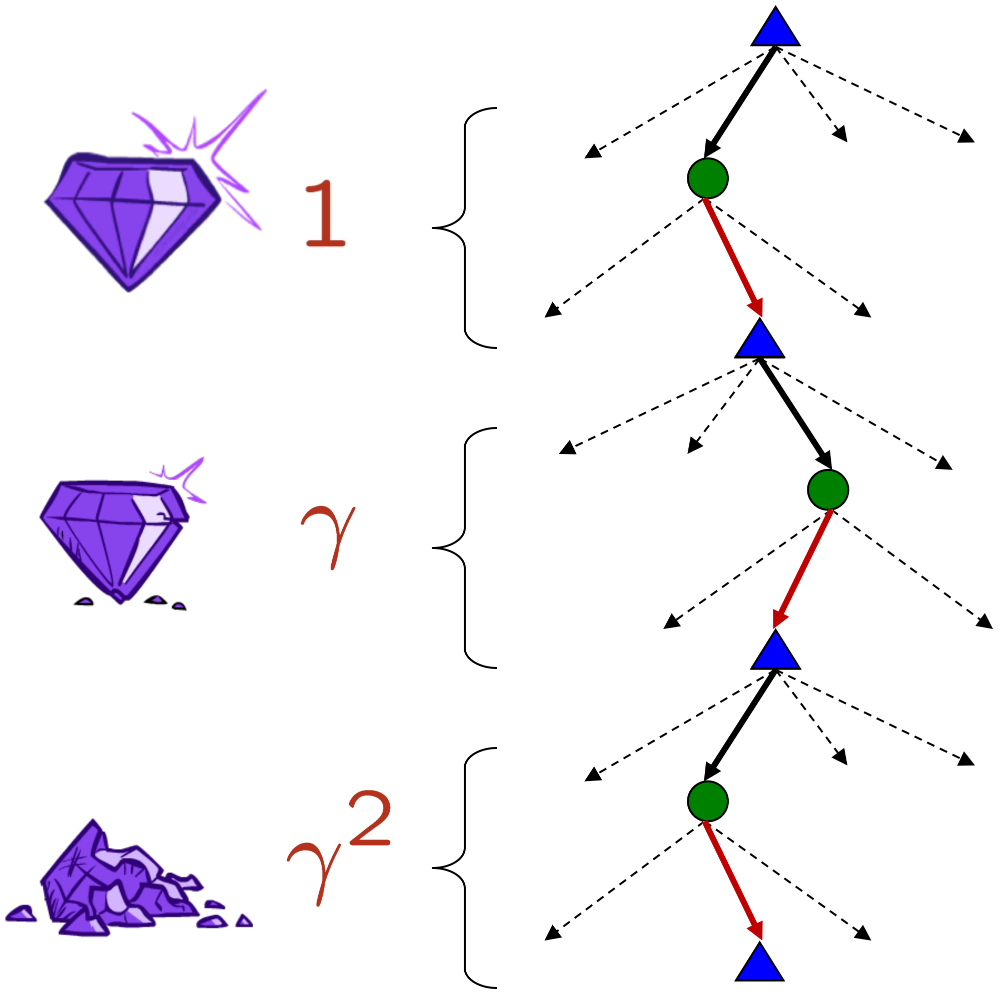
Worth Next Step

γ^2

Worth In Two Steps

Discounting

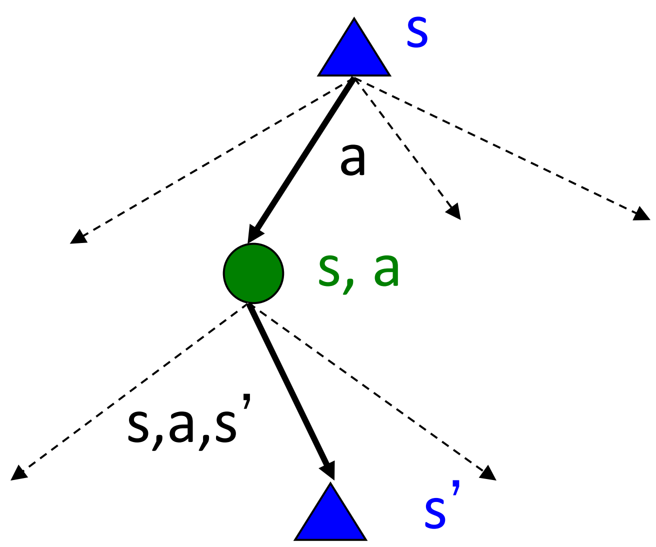
- How to discount?
  - Each time we descend a level, we multiply in the discount once
- Why discount?
  - Sooner rewards probably do have higher utility than later rewards
  - Also helps our algorithms converge
- Example: discount of 0.5
  - U([1,2,3]) = 1*1 + 0.5*2 + 0.25*3
  - U([1,2,3]) < U([3,2,1])



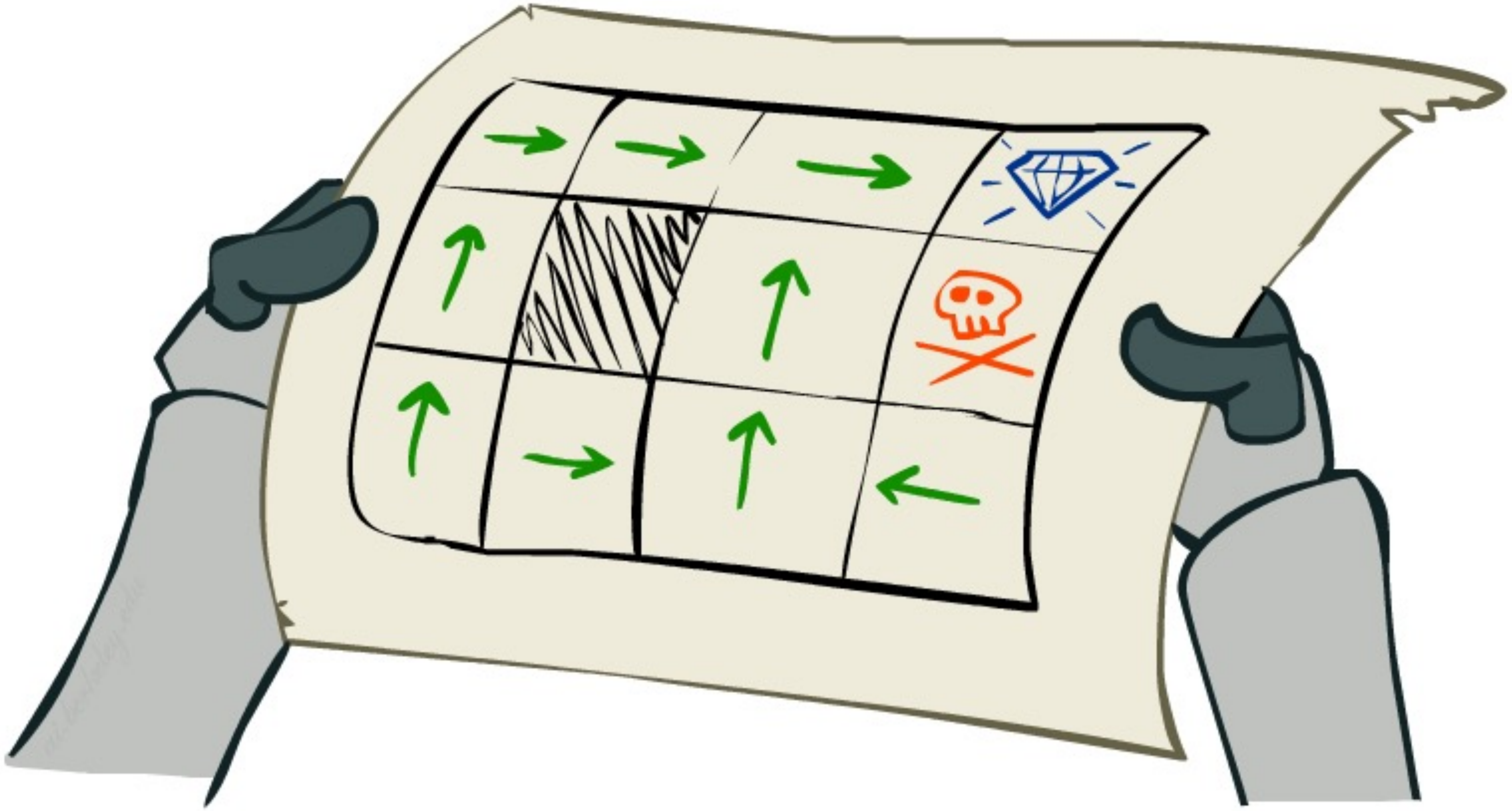
Recap: Defining MDPs

- Markov decision processes:
  - Set of states S
  - Start state s_0
  - Set of actions A
  - Transitions P(s'|s,a) (or T(s,a,s'))
  - Rewards R(s,a,s') (and discount γ)

- MDP quantities so far:
  - Policy = Choice of action for each state
  - Utility = sum of (discounted) rewards



Solving MDPs



Optimal Quantities

- The value (utility) of a state s:

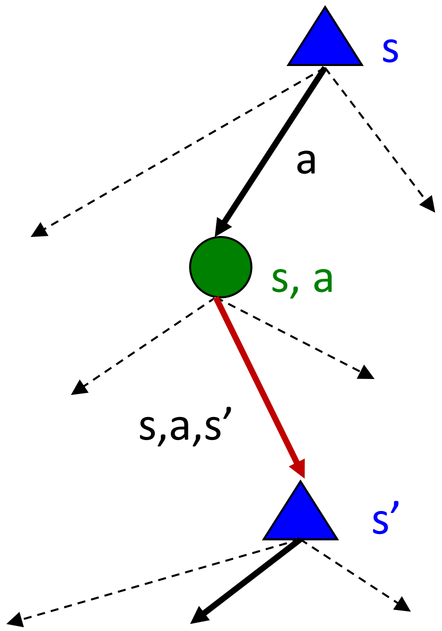
  $V^*(s)$ = expected utility starting in s and acting optimally

- The value (utility) of a q-state (s,a):

  $Q^*(s,a)$ = expected utility starting out having taken action a from state s and (thereafter) acting optimally

- The optimal policy:

  $\pi^*(s)$ = optimal action from state s



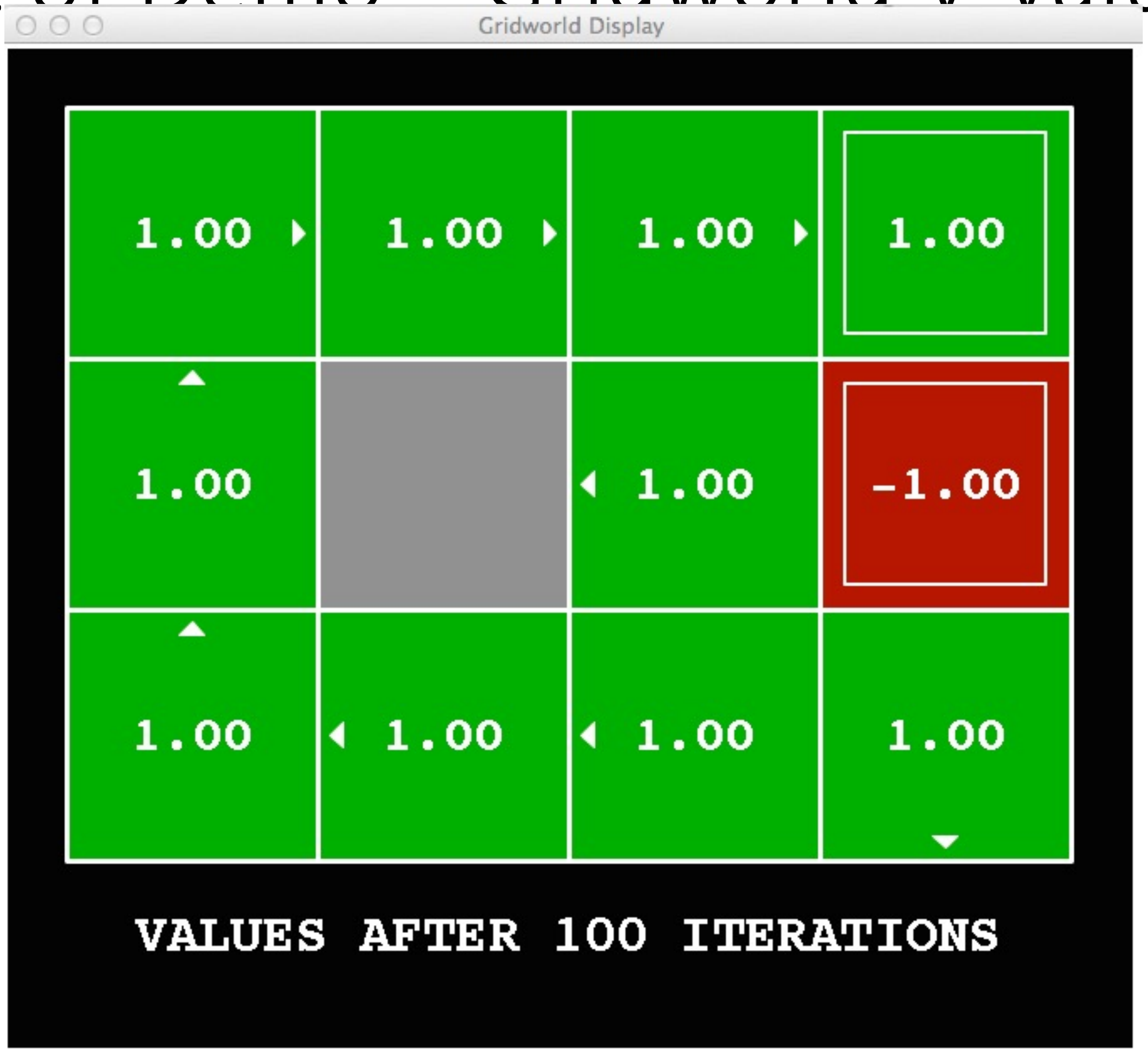
s is a *state*

(s, a) is a *q-state*

(s,a,s') is a *transition*

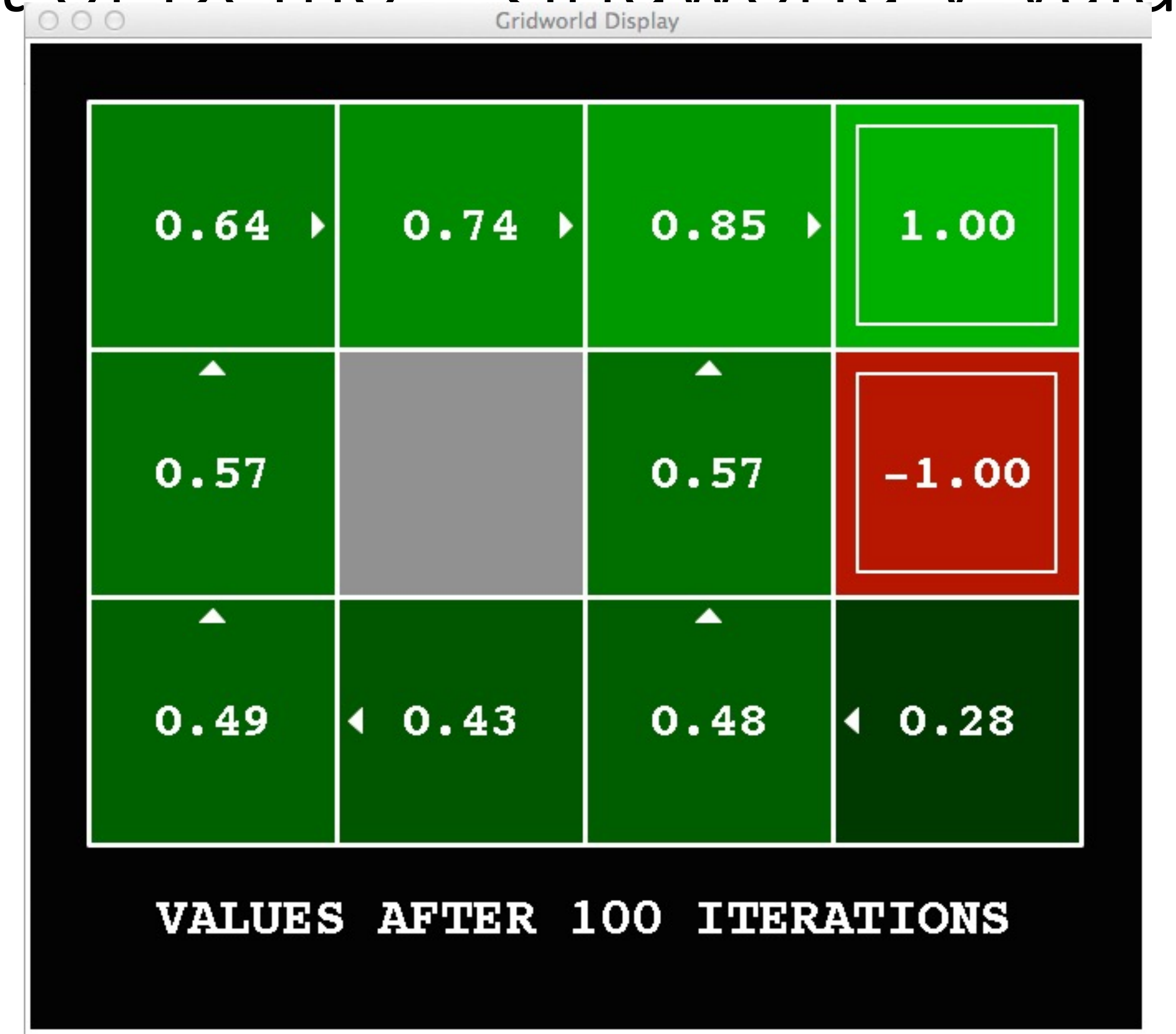
[Demo – gridworld values (L8D4)]

Snapshot of Demo – Gridworld V Values



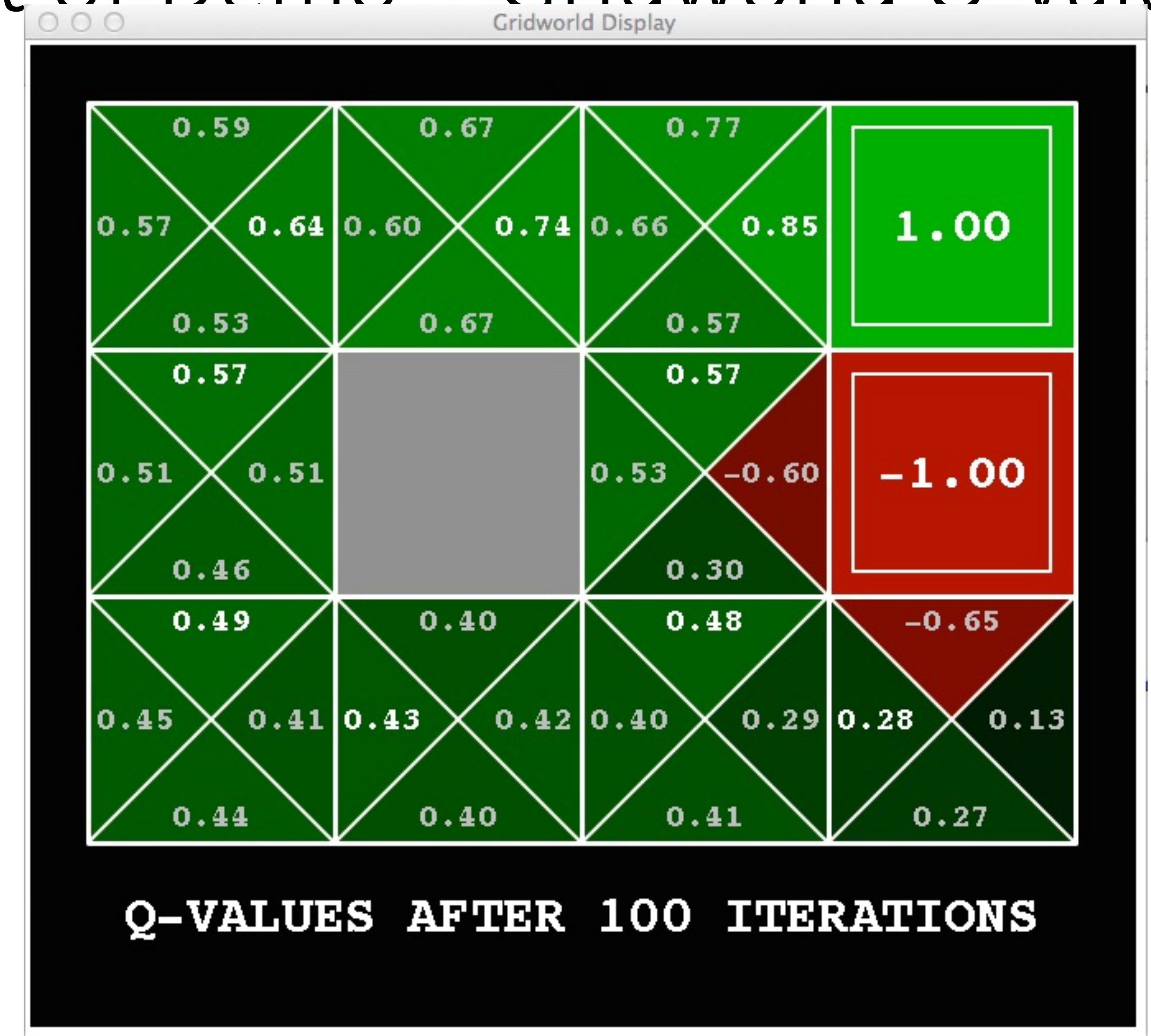
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 1
Living reward = 0

Snapshot of Demo – Gridworld V Values



Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

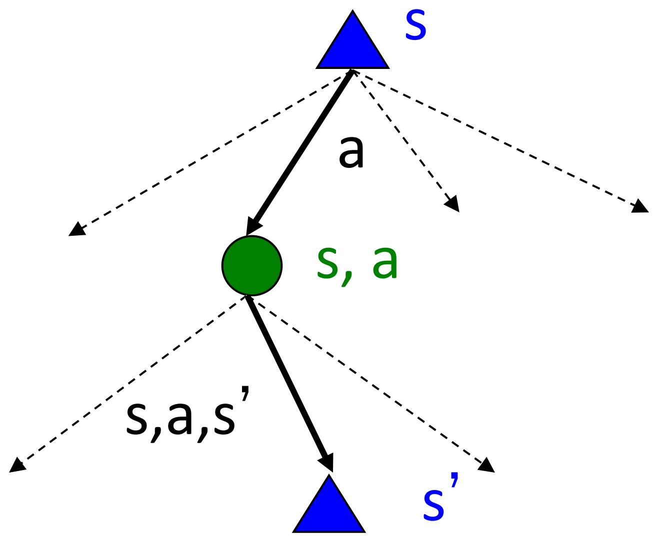
Snapshot of Demo – Gridworld Q Values



Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

Values of States

- Fundamental operation: compute the (expectimax) value of a state
  - Expected utility under optimal action
  - Average sum of (discounted) rewards
  - This is just what expectimax computed!



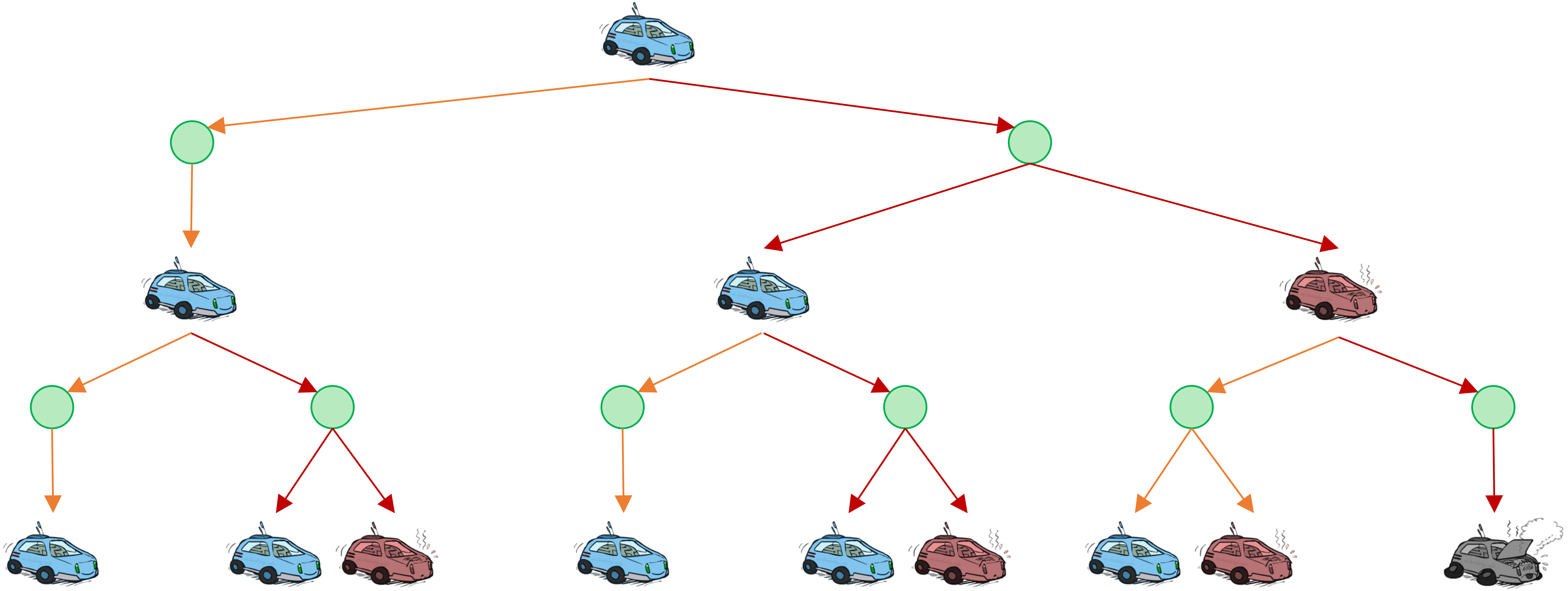
- Recursive definition of value:

$$V^*(s) = \max_a Q^*(s,a)$$

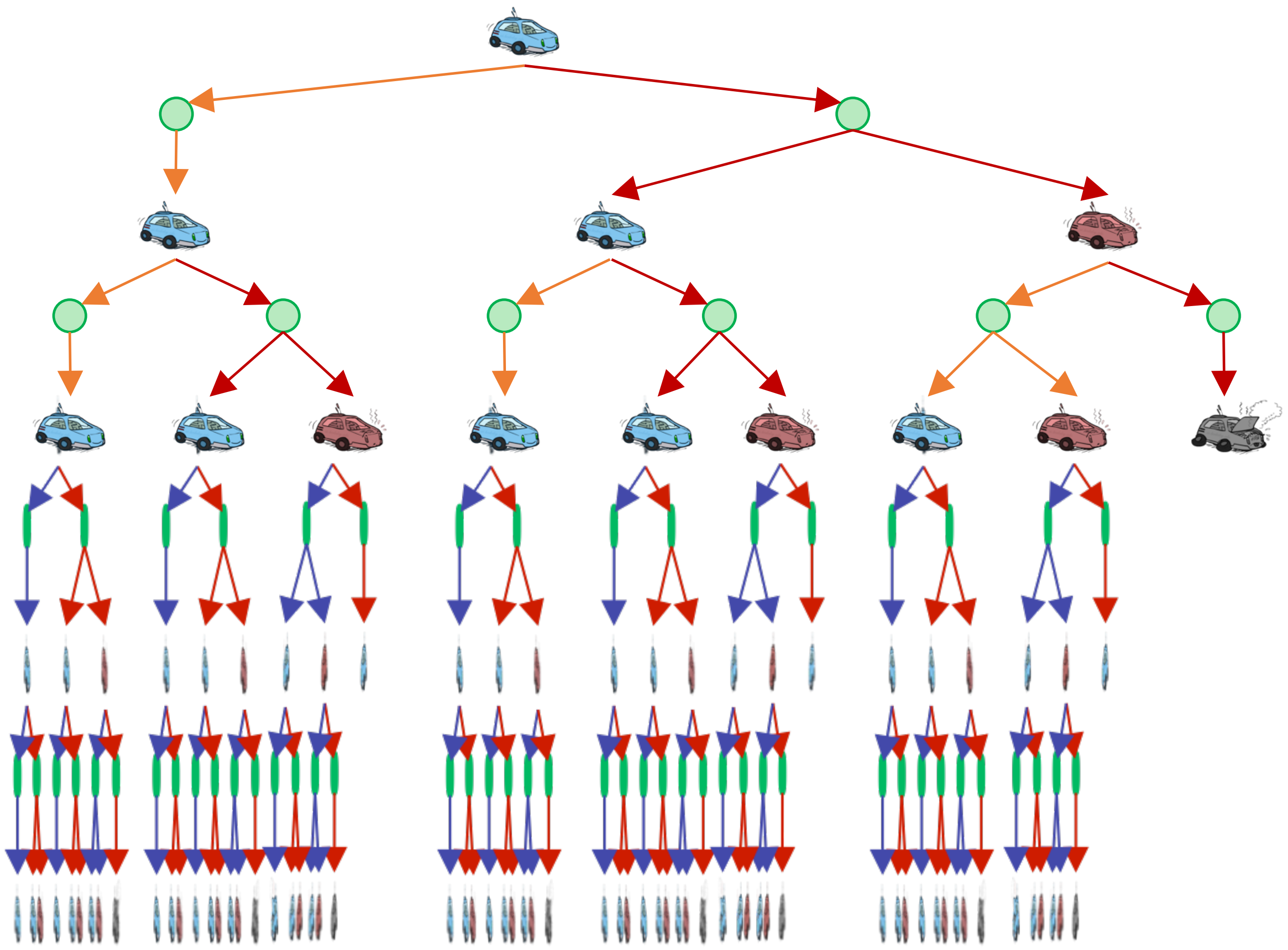
$$Q^*(s,a) = \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma V^*(s') \right]$$

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

Racing Search Tree



Racing Search Tree

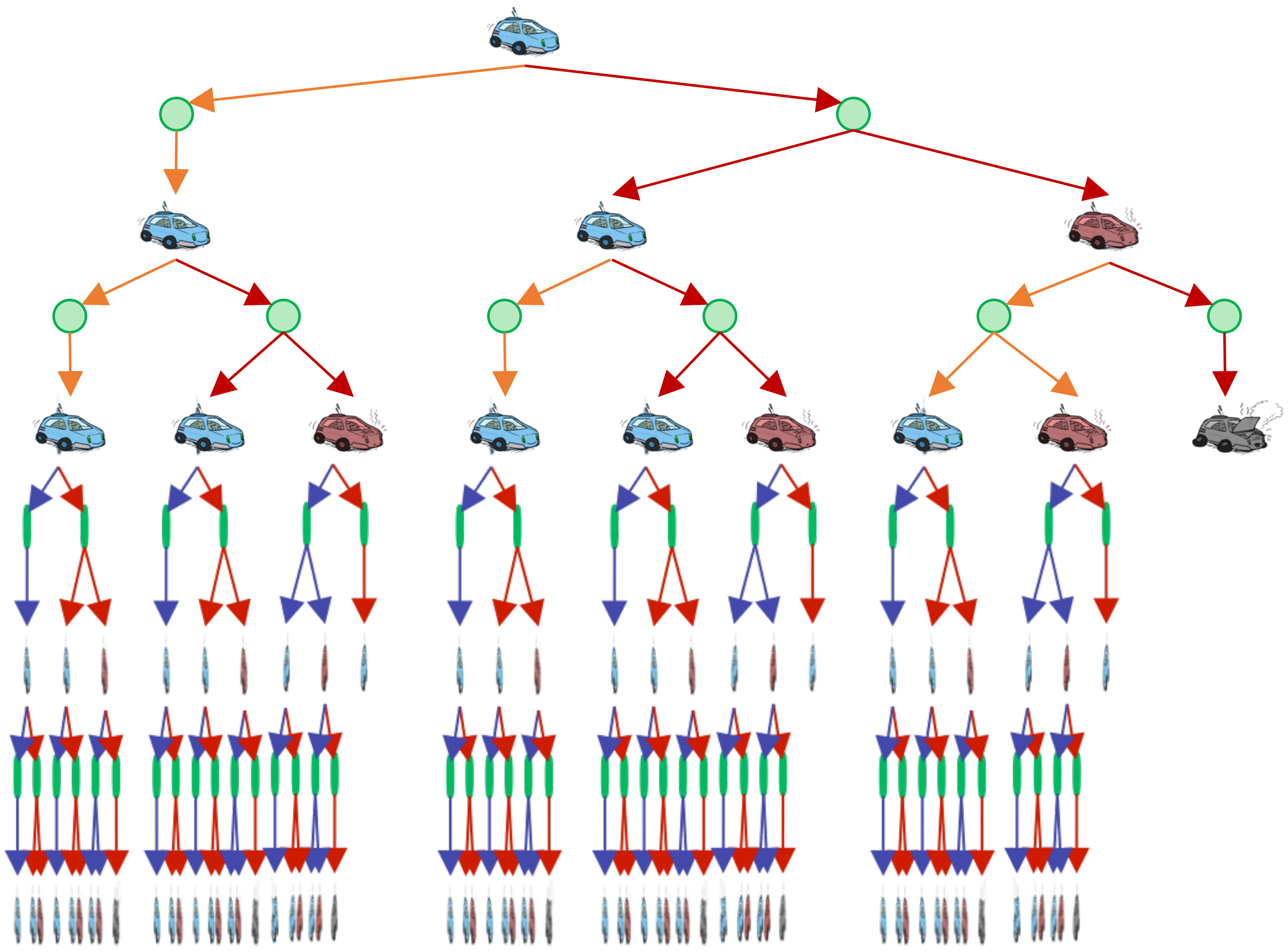


Racing Search Tree

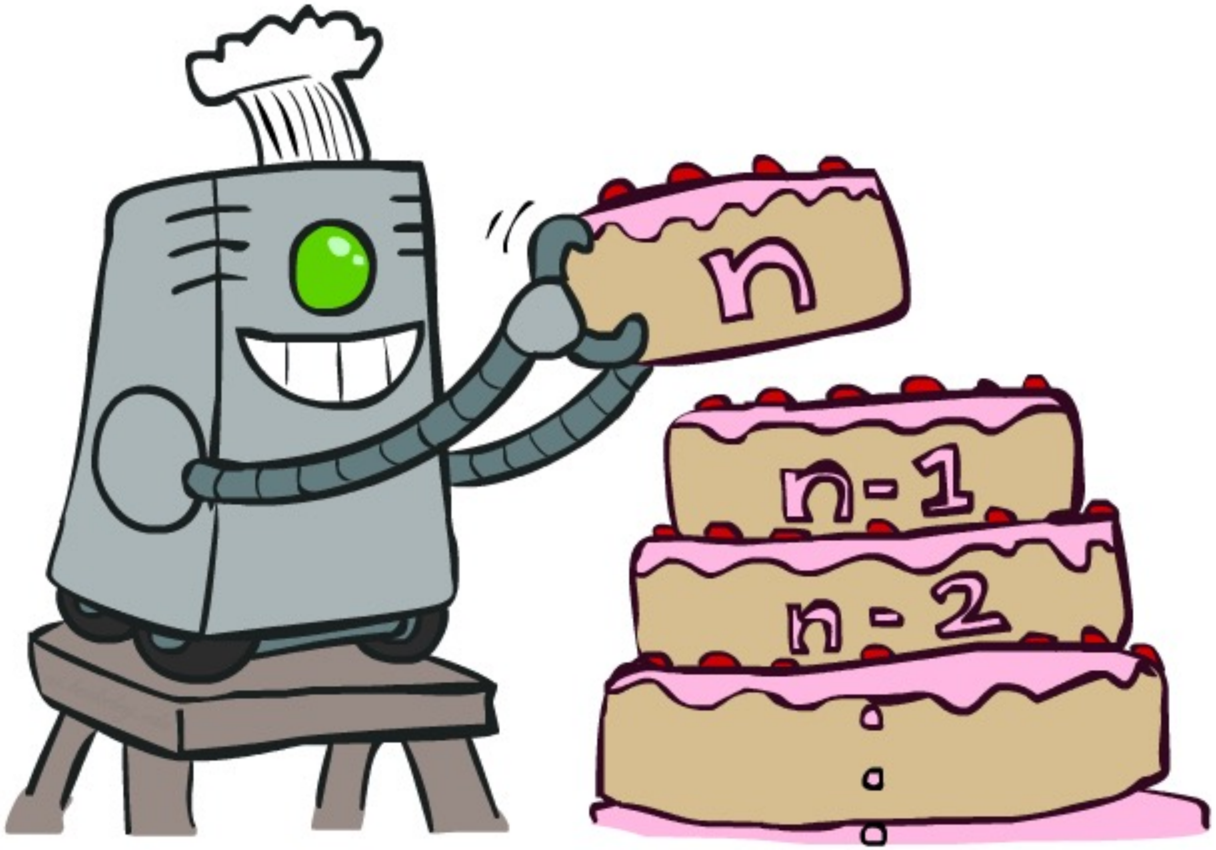
- We're doing way too much work with expectimax!

- Problem: States are repeated
  - Idea: Only compute needed quantities once

- Problem: Tree goes on forever
  - Idea: Do a depth-limited computation, but with increasing depths until change is small
  - Note: deep parts of the tree eventually don't matter if $\gamma < 1$



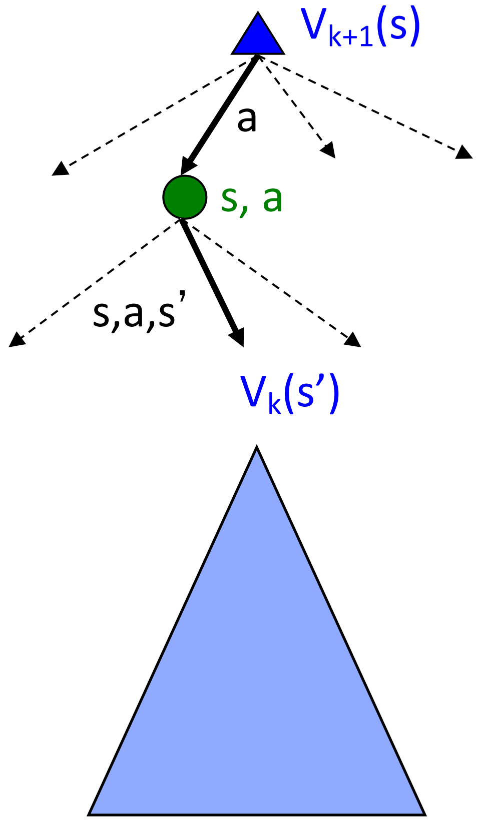
Value Iteration



Value Iteration

- Start with $V_0(s) = 0$: no time steps left means an expected reward sum of zero
- Given vector of $V_k(s)$ values, do one ply of expectimax from each state:

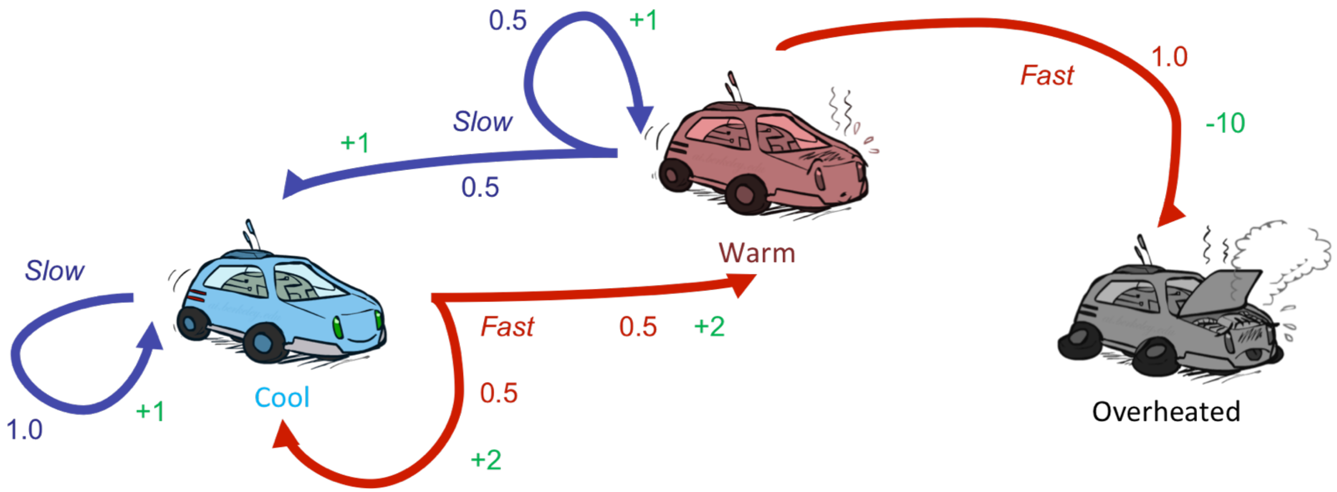
$$V_{k+1}(s) \leftarrow \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma V_k(s') \right]$$



- Repeat until convergence
- Complexity of each iteration: $O(S^2A)$
- Theorem: will converge to unique optimal values
  - Basic idea: approximations get refined towards optimal values
  - Policy may converge long before values do

Example: Value Iteration

V_2			
V_1			
V_0	0	0	0



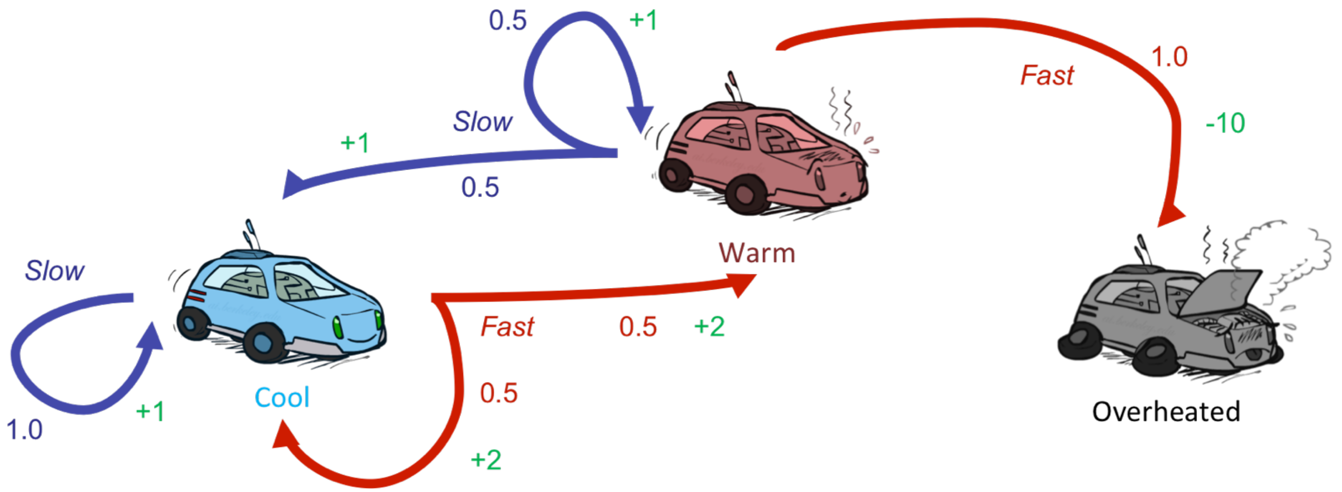
Assume no discount!

$$V_{k+1}(s) \leftarrow \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma V_k(s')\right]$$

$$V_{k+1}(s) \leftarrow \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma V_k(s') \right]$$

Example: Value Iteration

V_2			
V_1	2	1	0
V_0	0	0	0



Assume no discount!

V_1() = max((1*1+0), (0.5 *2 + 0 + 0.5*2 + 0)) = 2

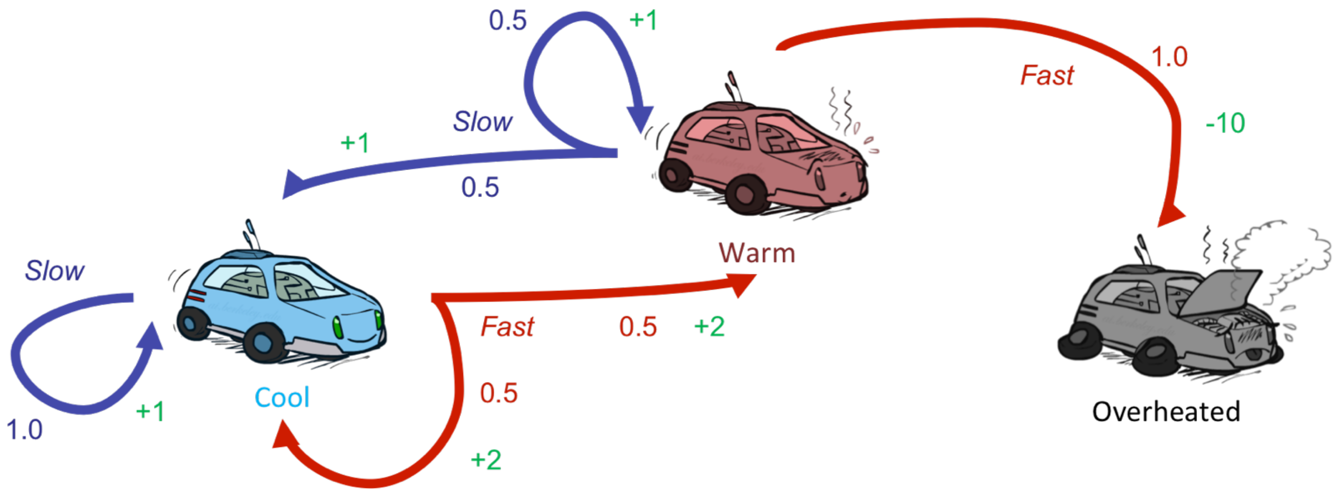
V_1() = max((0.5 * 1 + 0 + 0.5 * 1 +0), (1* -10)) = 1

V_1() = max (0) = 0

$$V_{k+1}(s) \leftarrow \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma V_k(s') \right]$$

Example: Value Iteration

V_2	3.5	2.5	0
V_1	2	1	0
V_0	0	0	0



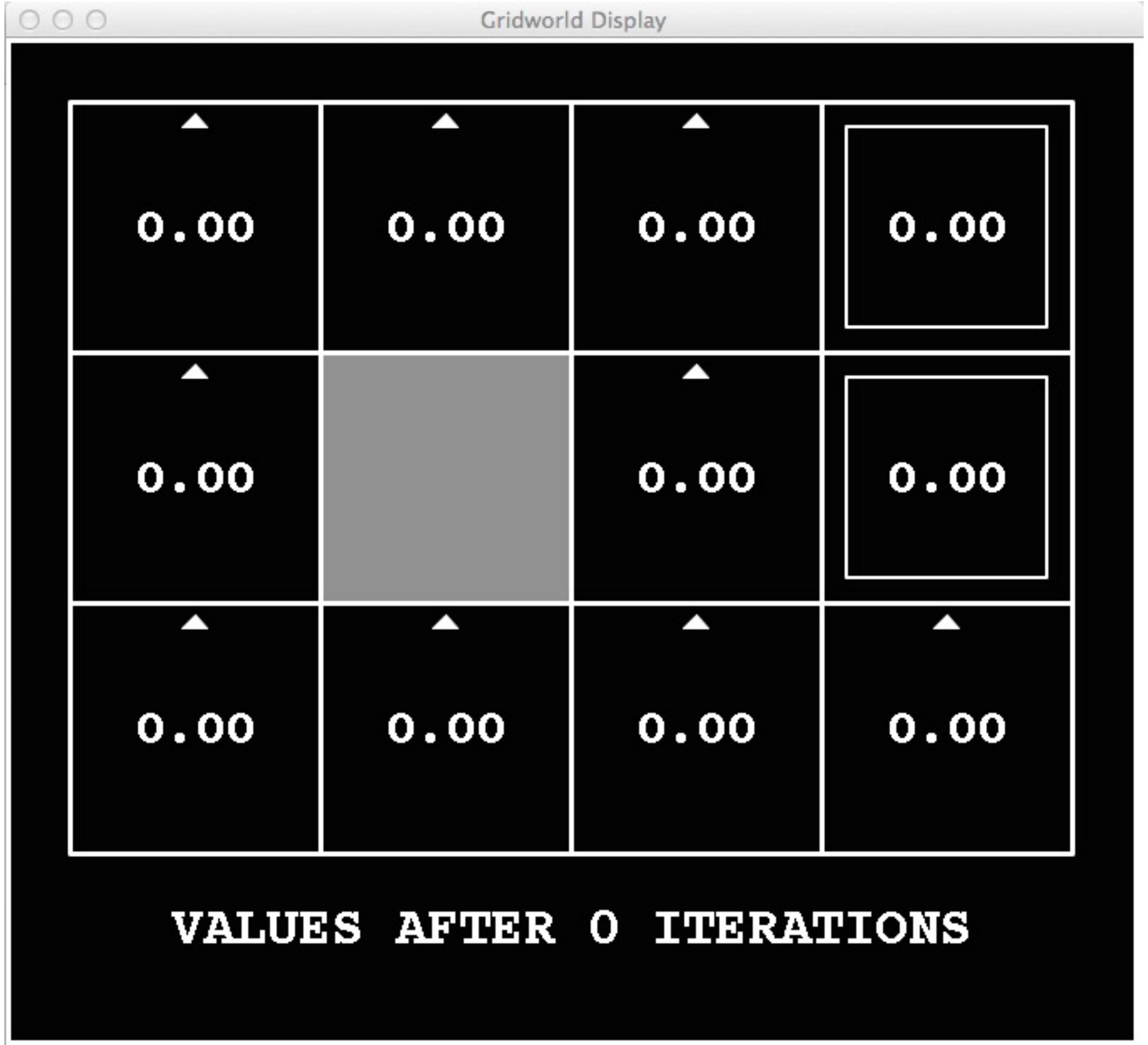
Assume no discount!

V_1() = max((1*(1+2)), (0.5 *(2 + 2) + 0.5*(2 + 1))) = 3.5

V_1() = max((0.5 *(1 + 2) + 0.5 *(1 +1)), (1* -10)) = 2.5

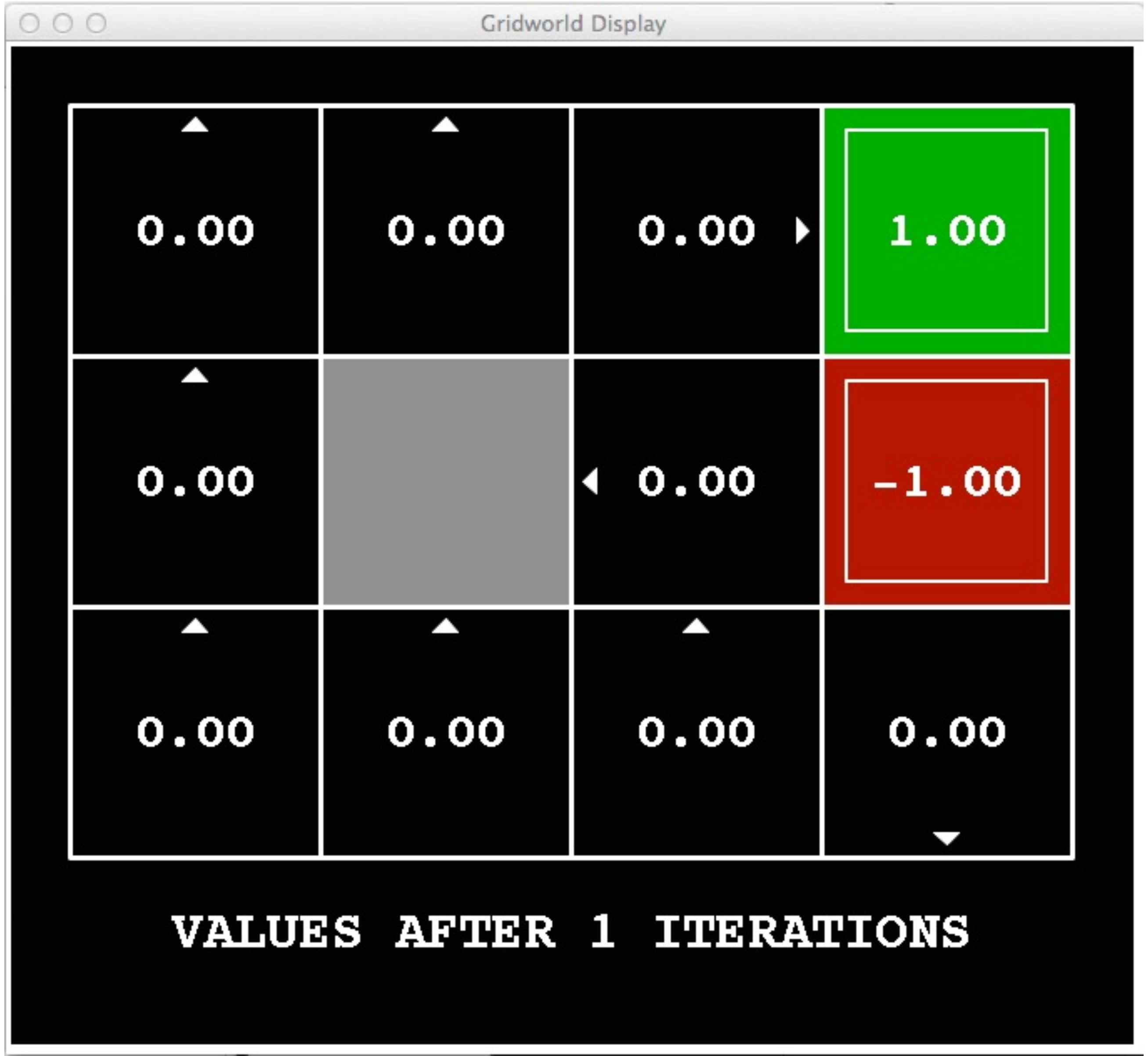
V_1() = max (0) = 0

k=0



Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=1



Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

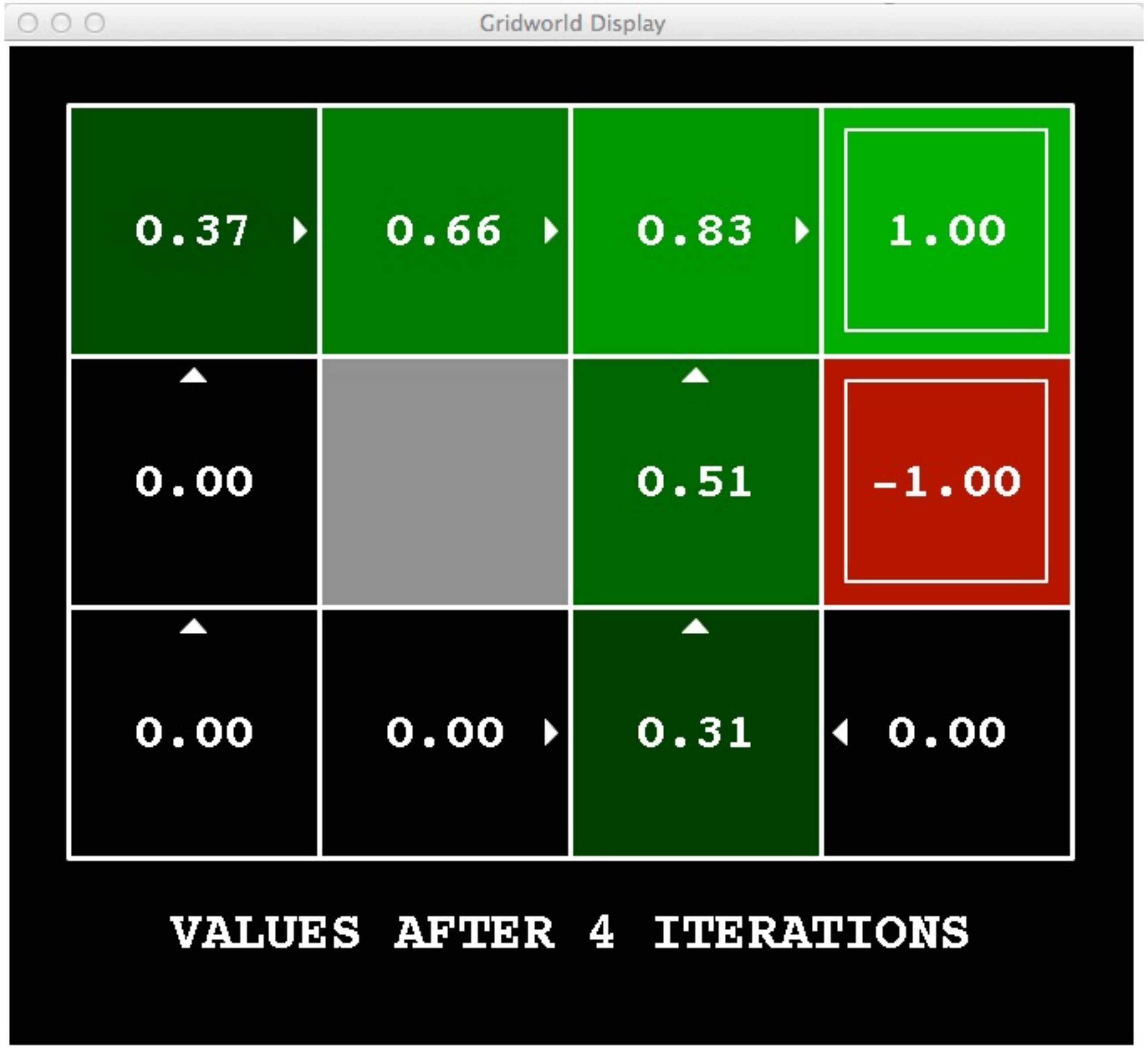
k=2

Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=3

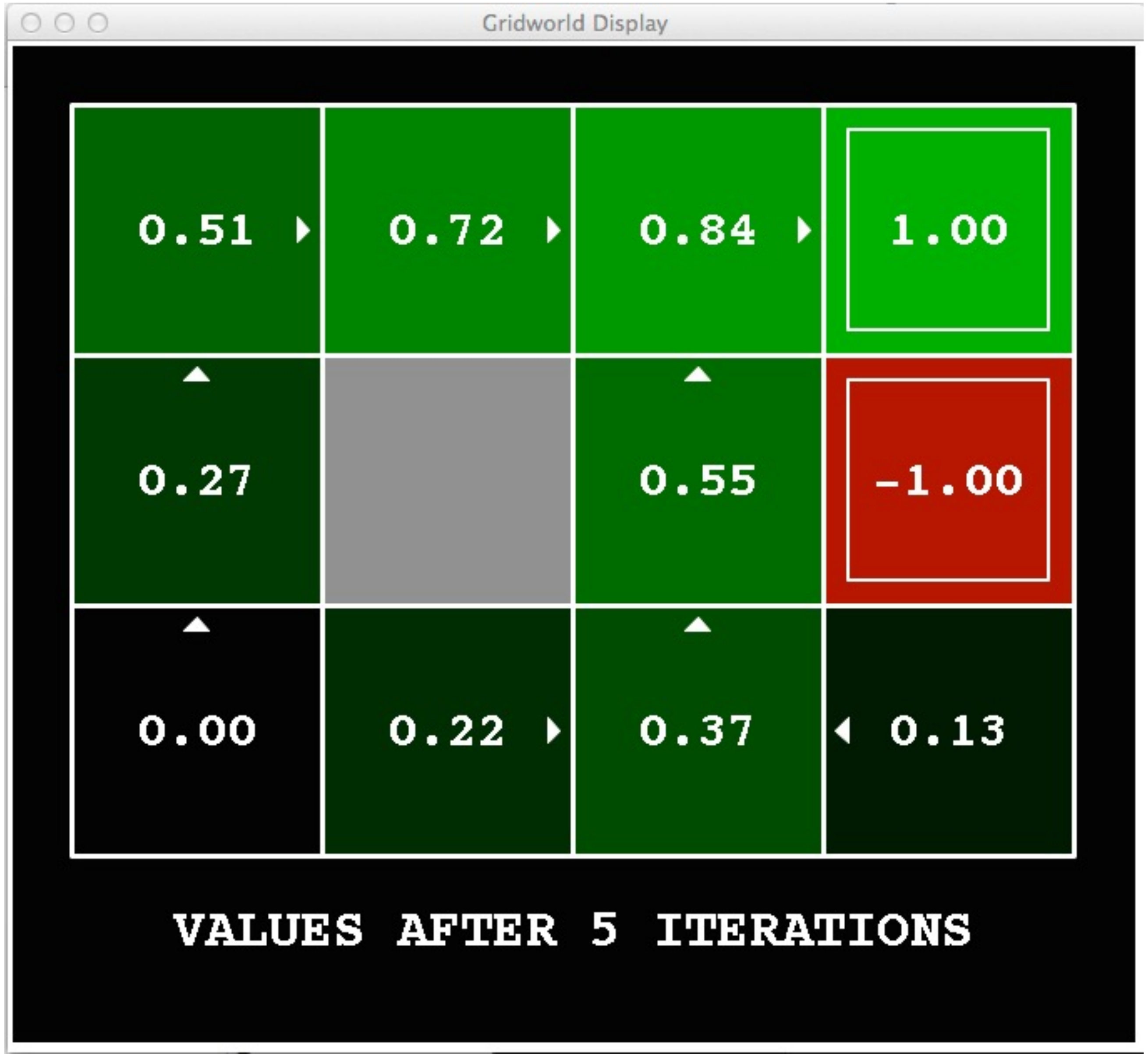
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=4



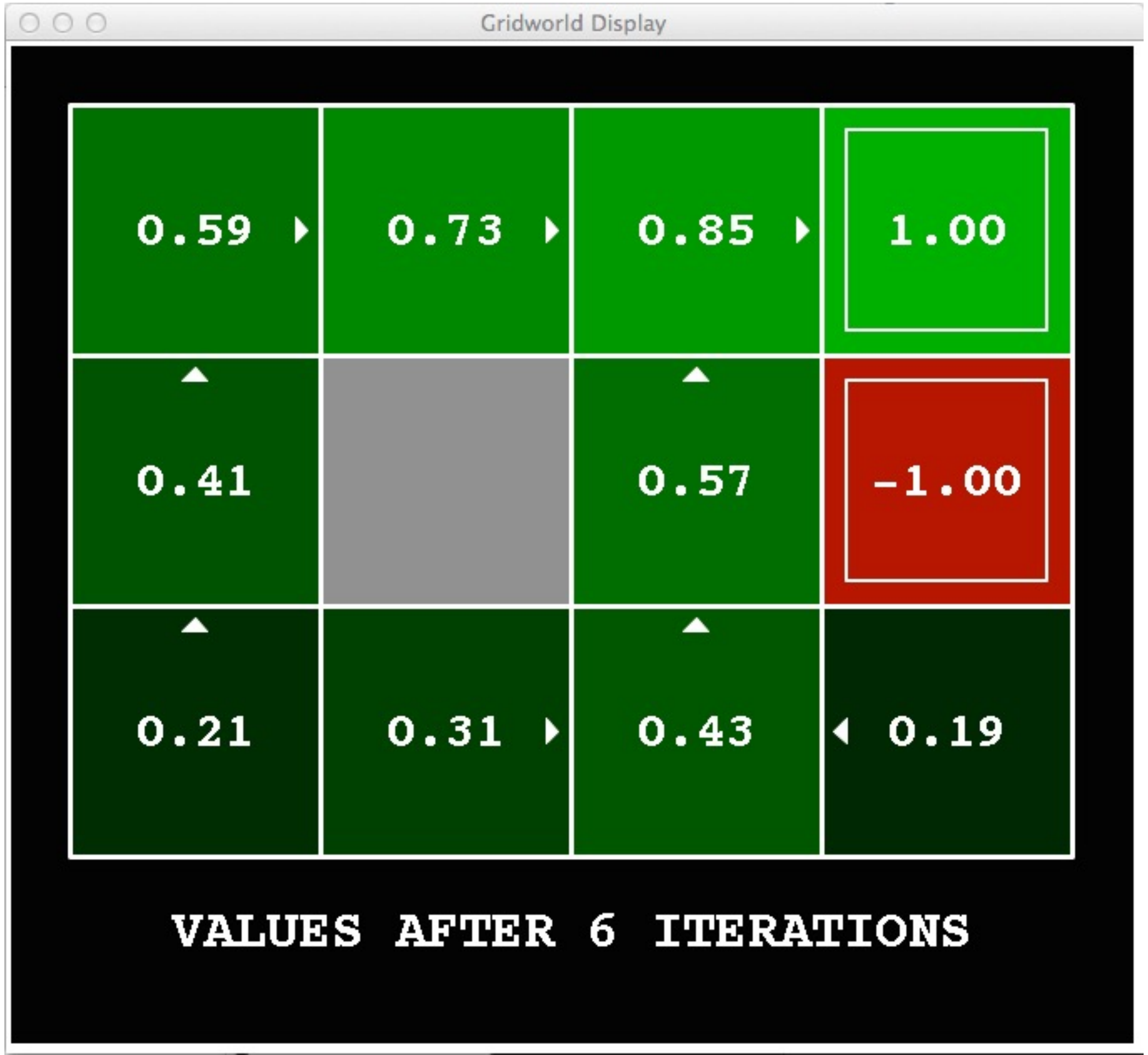
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=5



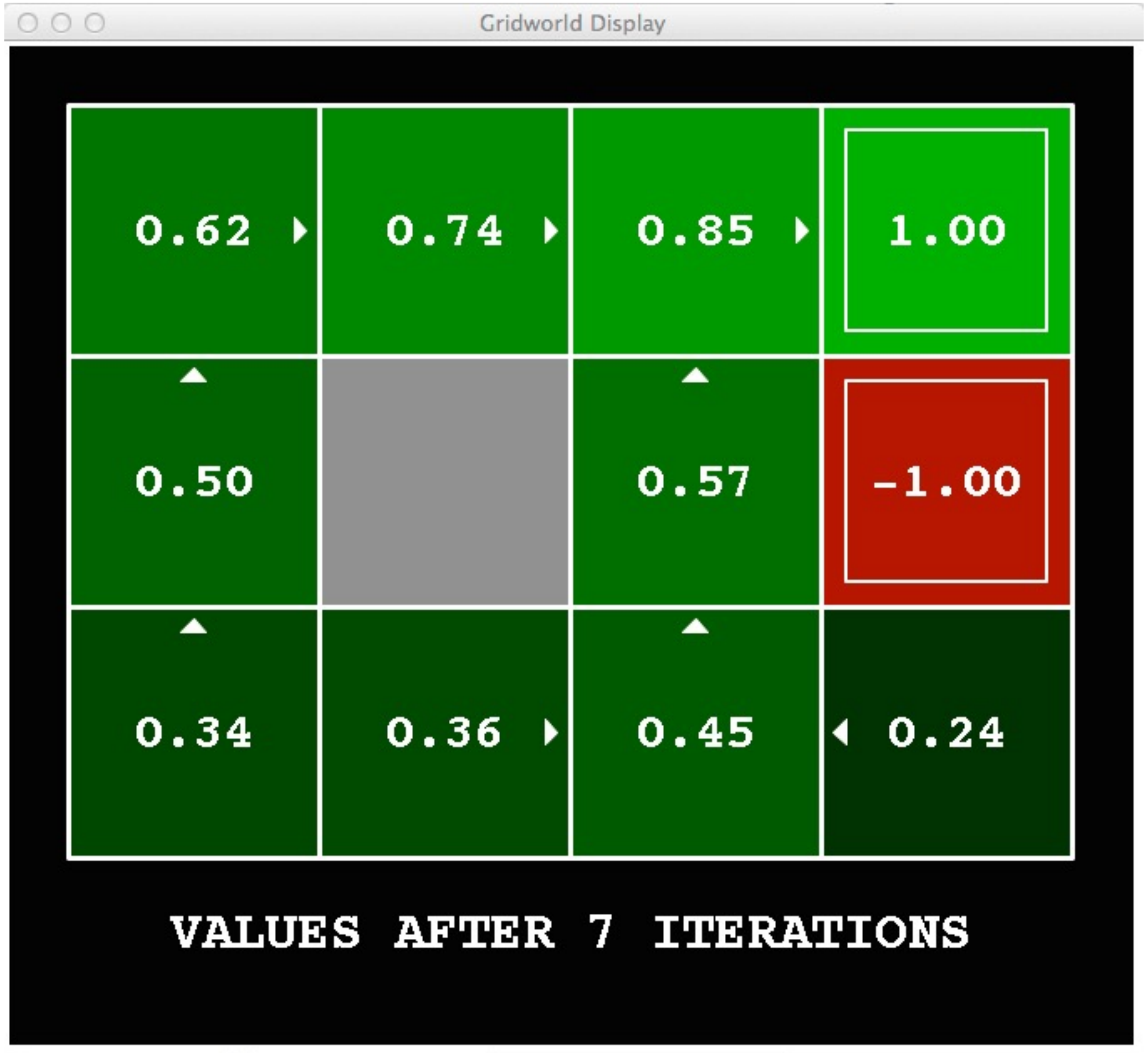
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=6



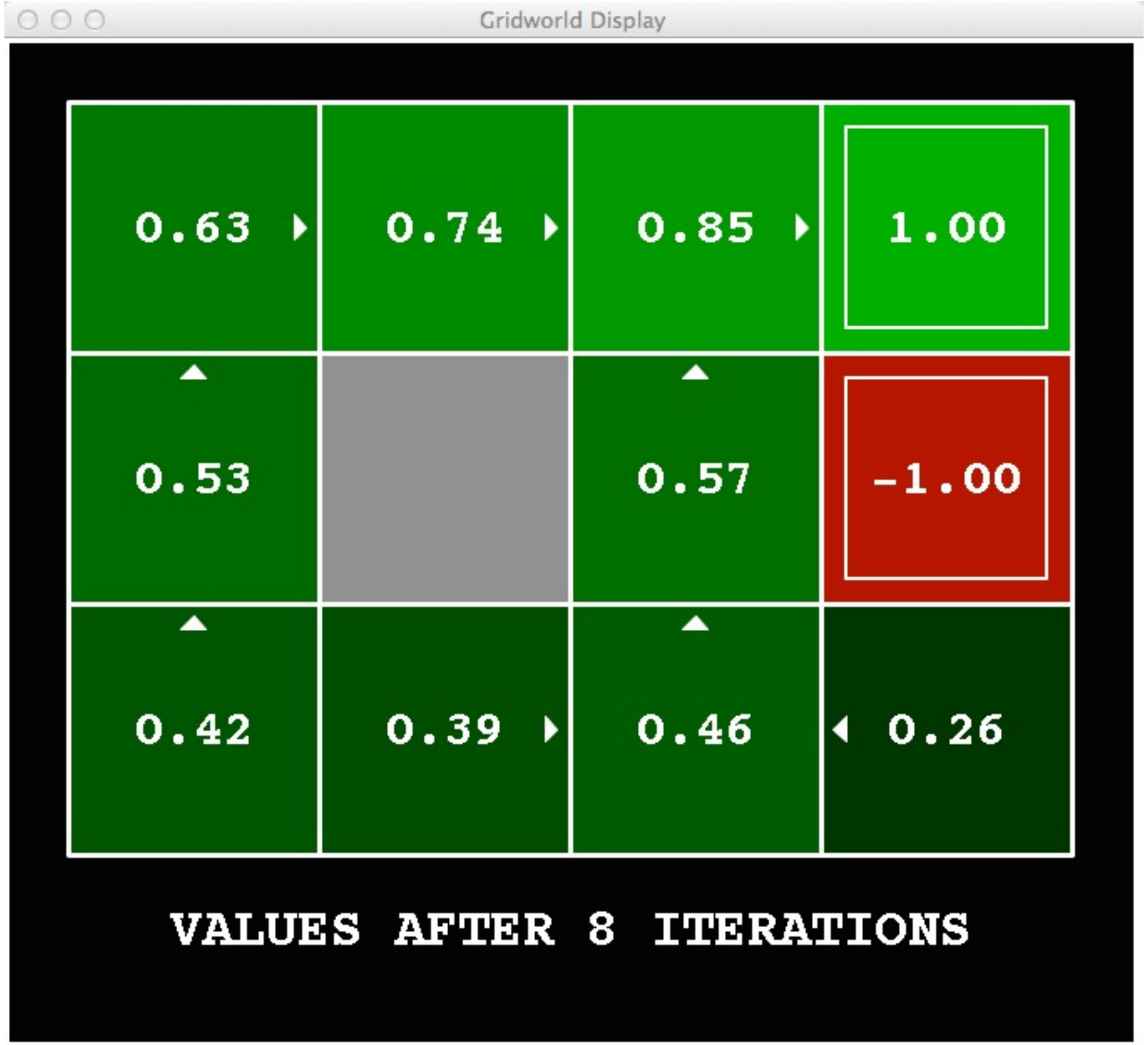
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=7



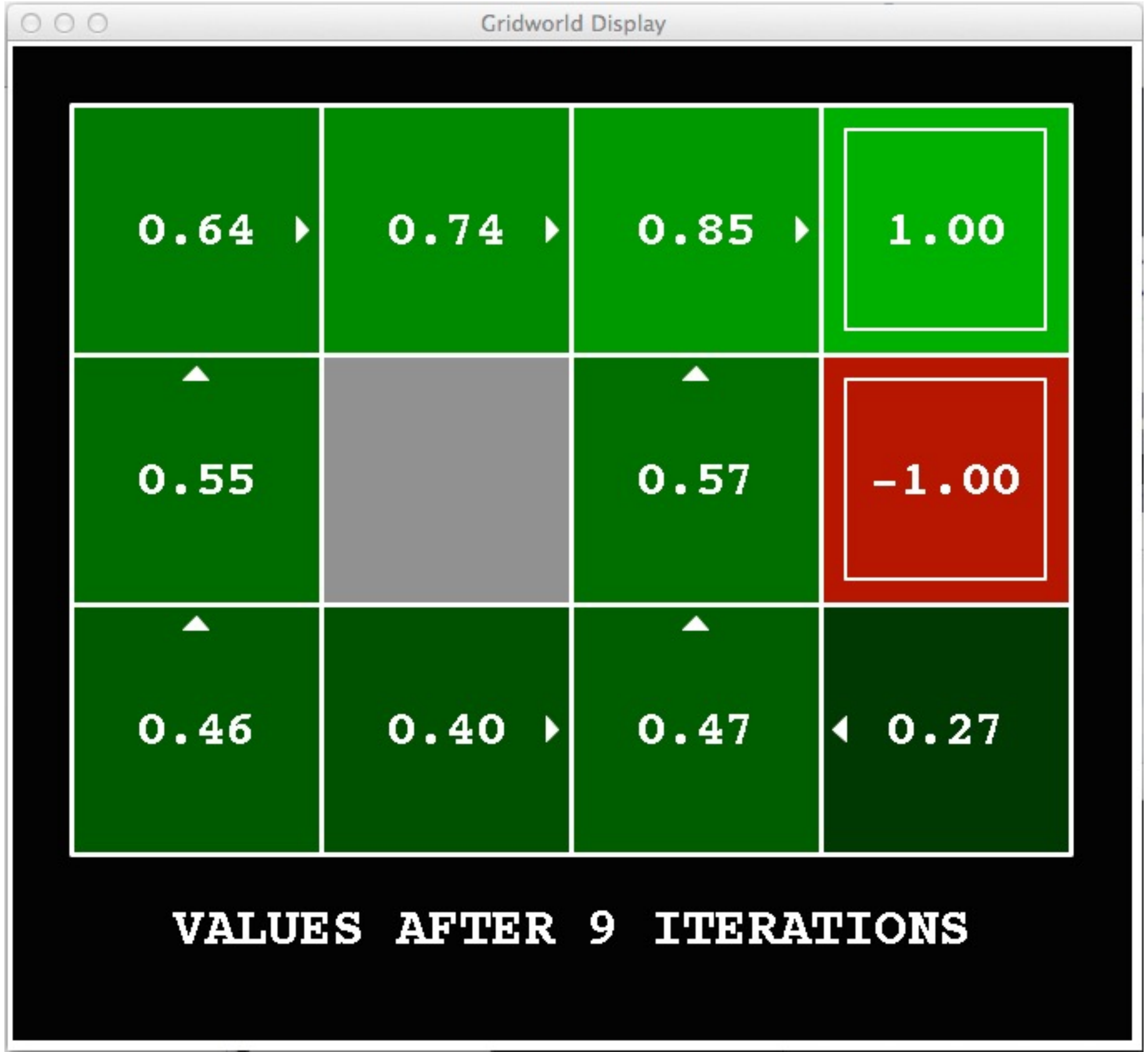
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=8



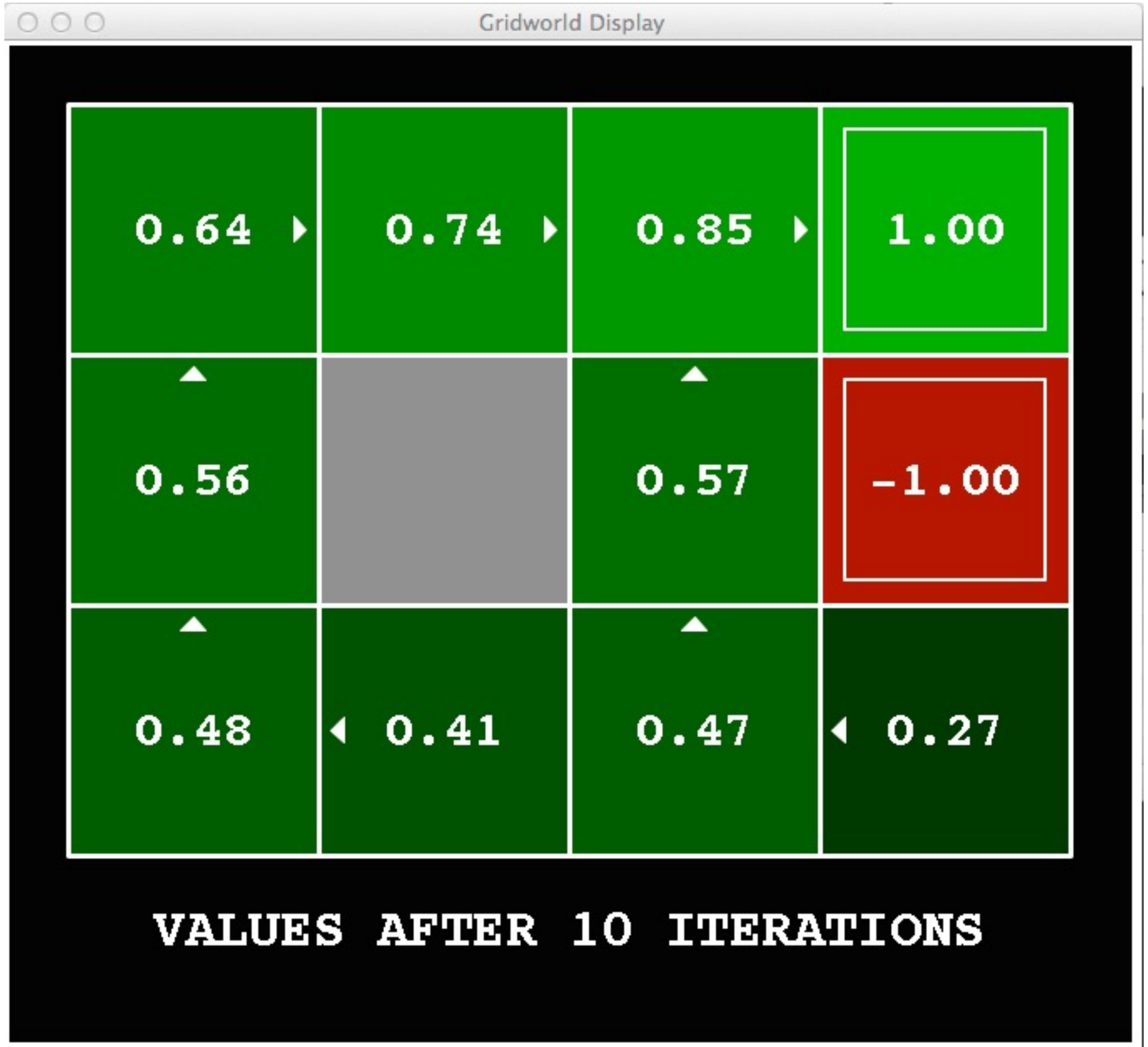
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=9



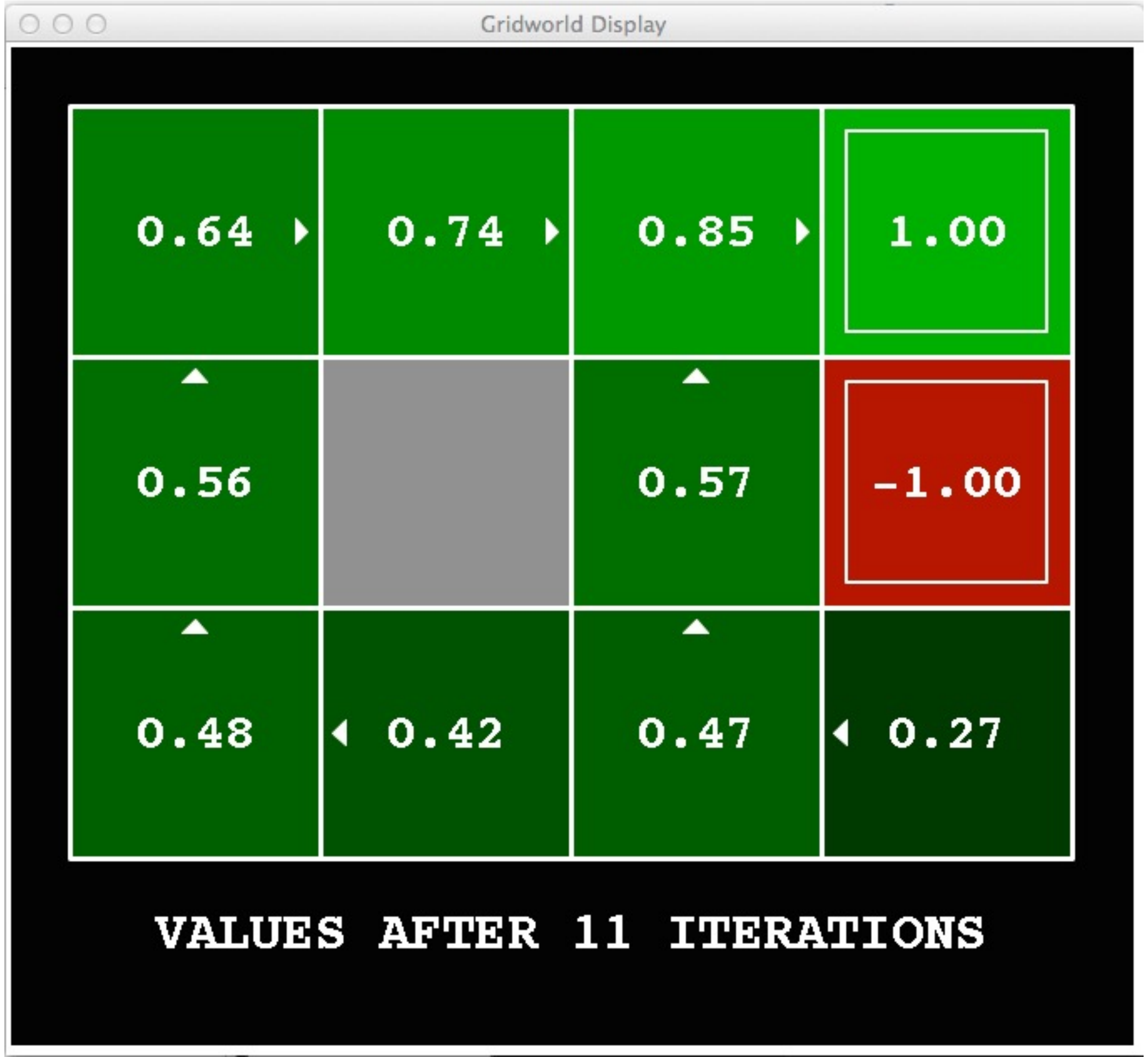
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=10



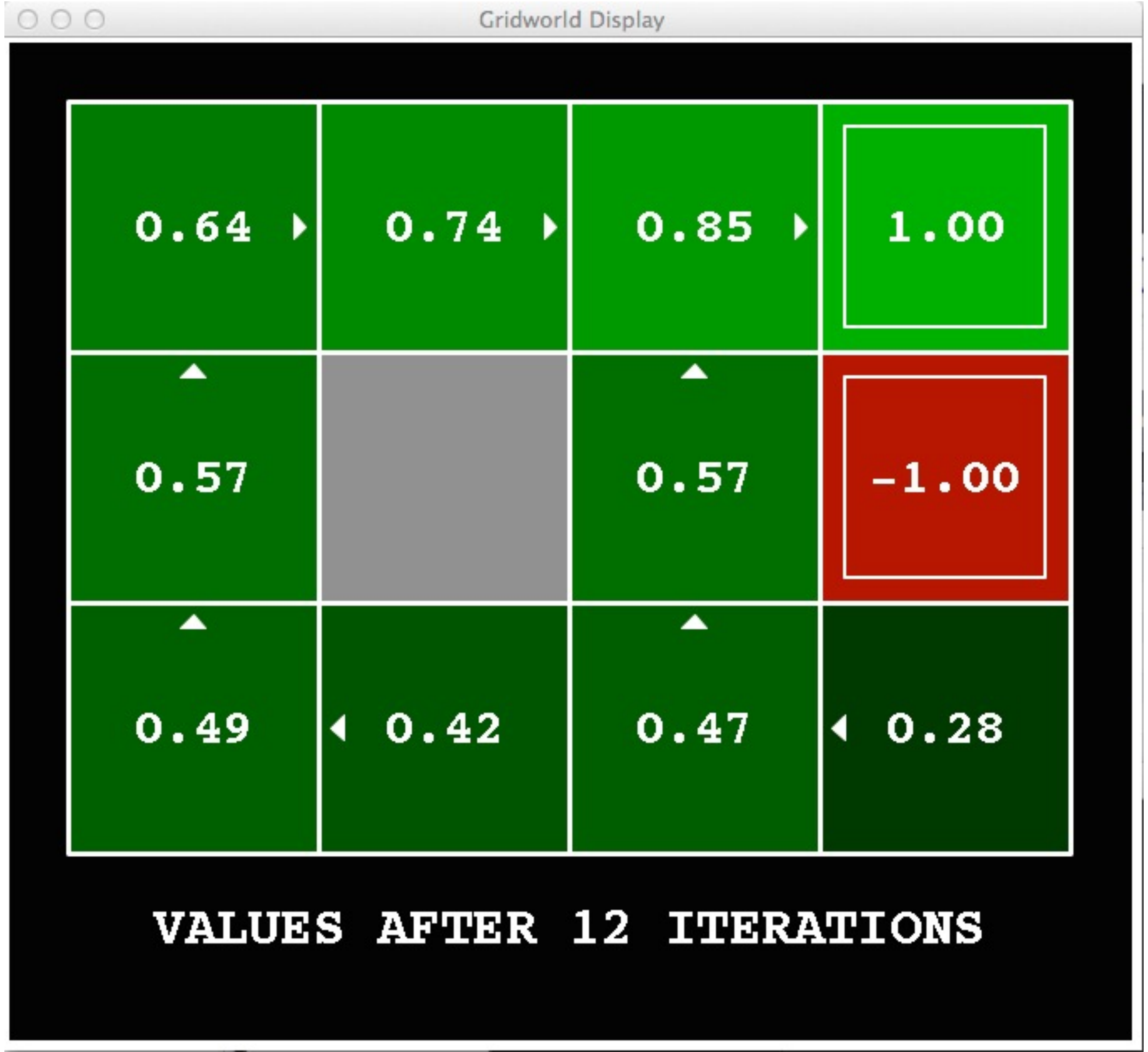
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=11



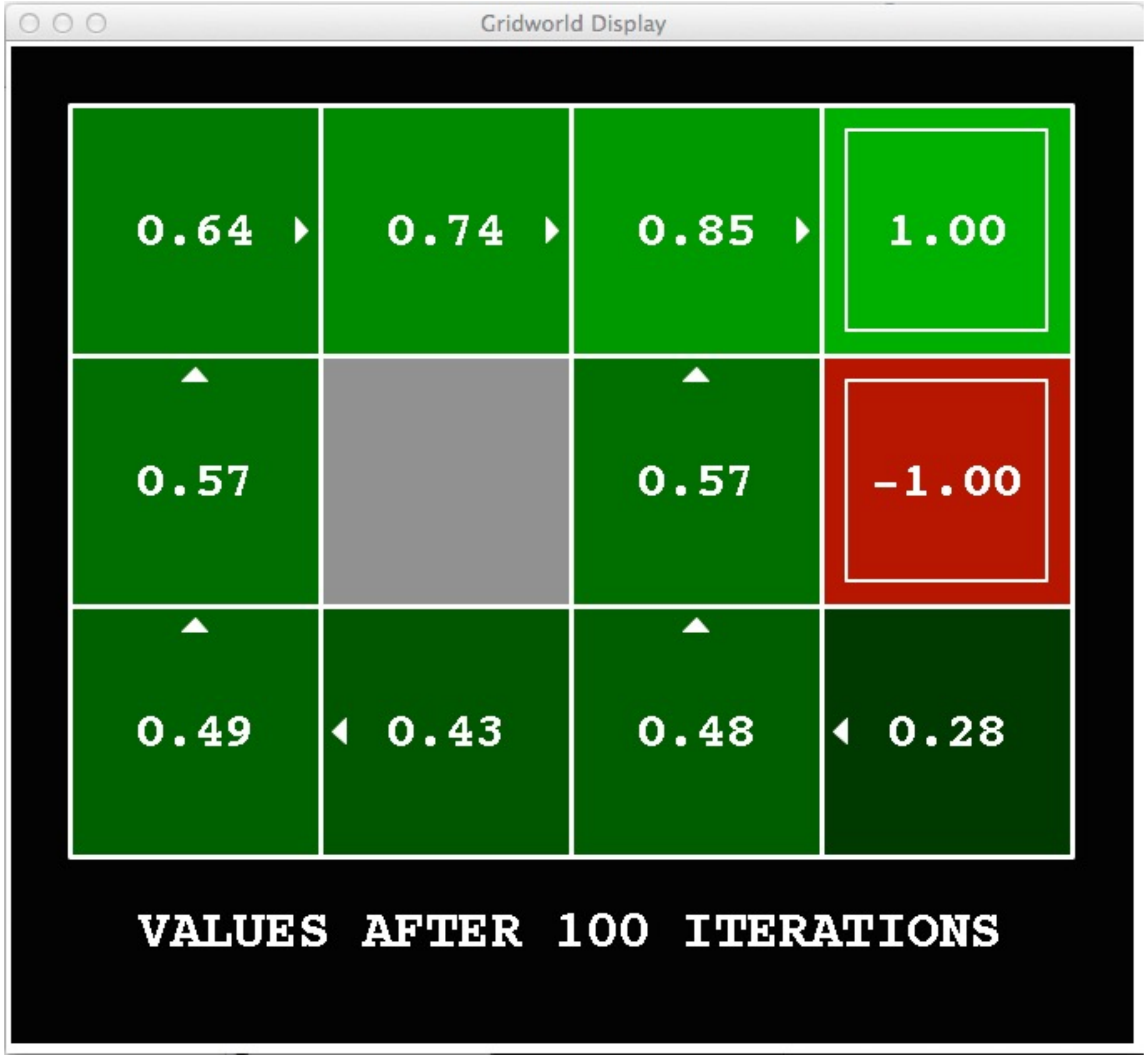
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=12



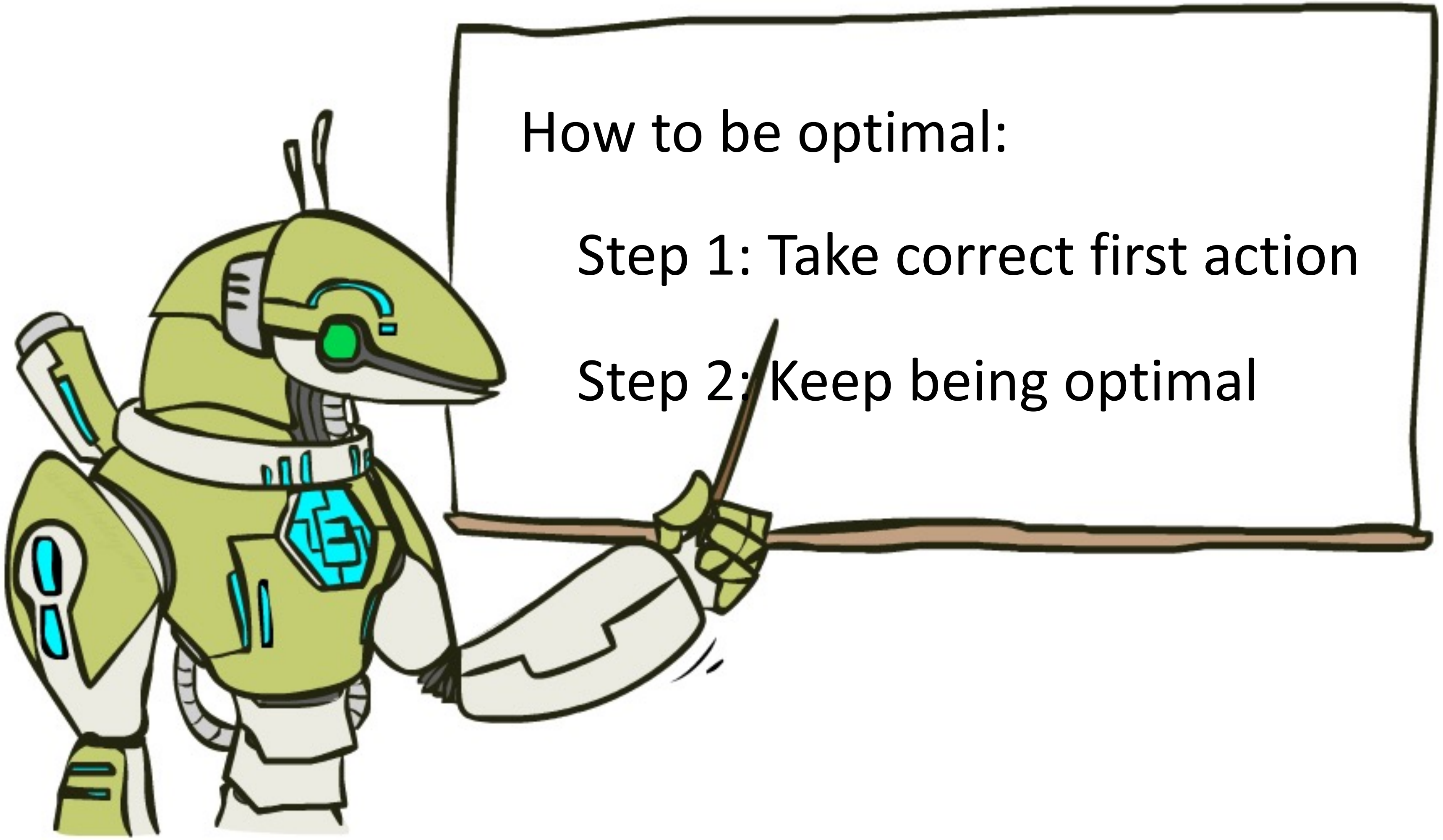
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=100



Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

The Bellman Equations



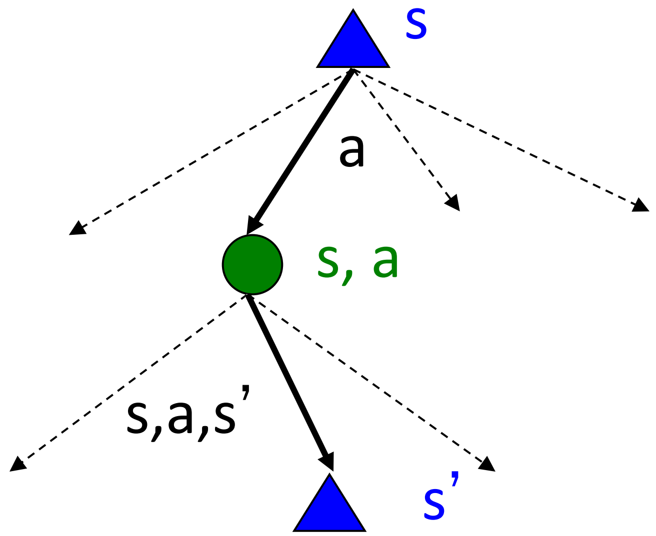
The Bellman Equations

- Definition of “optimal utility” via expectimax recurrence gives a simple one-step lookahead relationship amongst optimal utility values

$$V^*(s) = \max_a Q^*(s,a)$$

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

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



- These are the Bellman equations, and they characterize optimal values in a way we’ll use over and over

Value Iteration

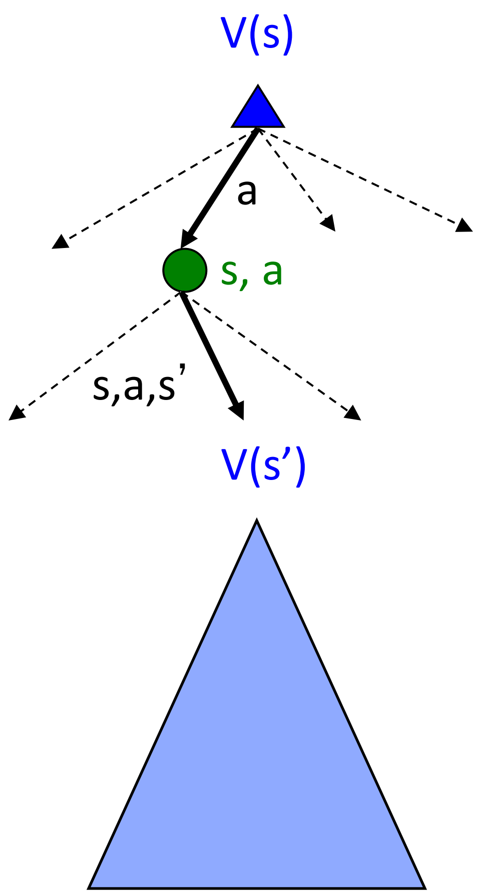
- Bellman equations characterize the optimal values:

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

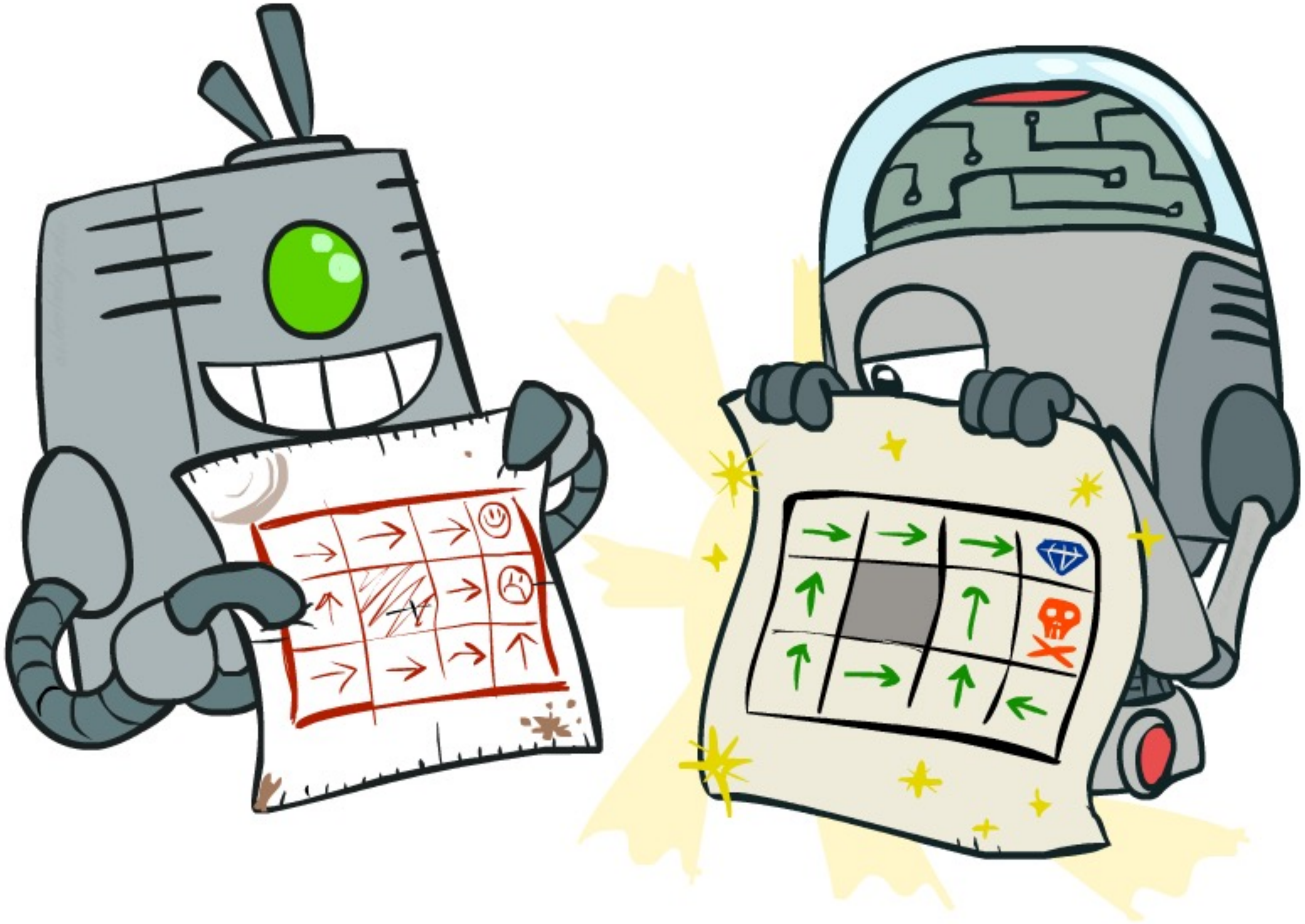
- Value iteration computes them:

$$V_{k+1}(s) \leftarrow \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma V_k(s') \right]$$

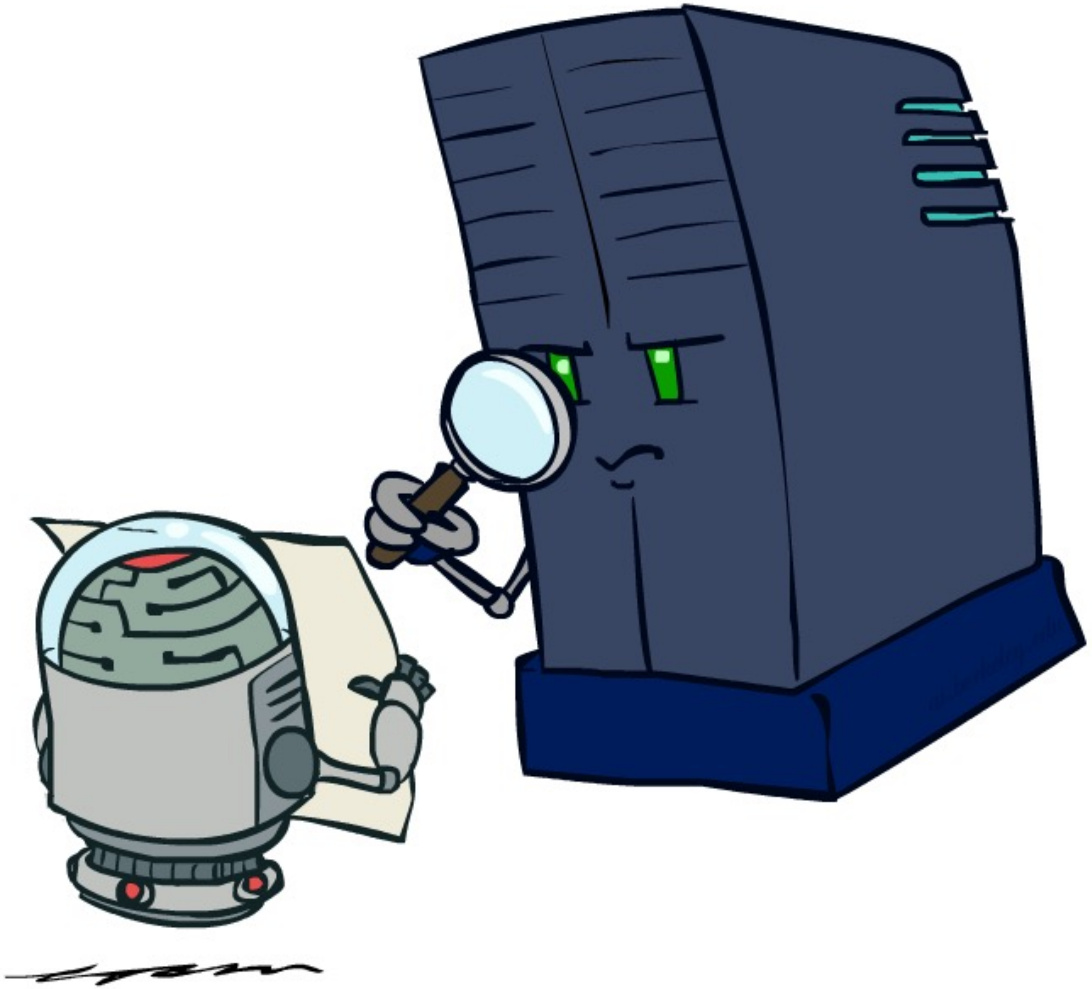
- Value iteration is just a fixed point solution method
  - … though the V_k vectors are also interpretable as time-limited values



Policy Methods

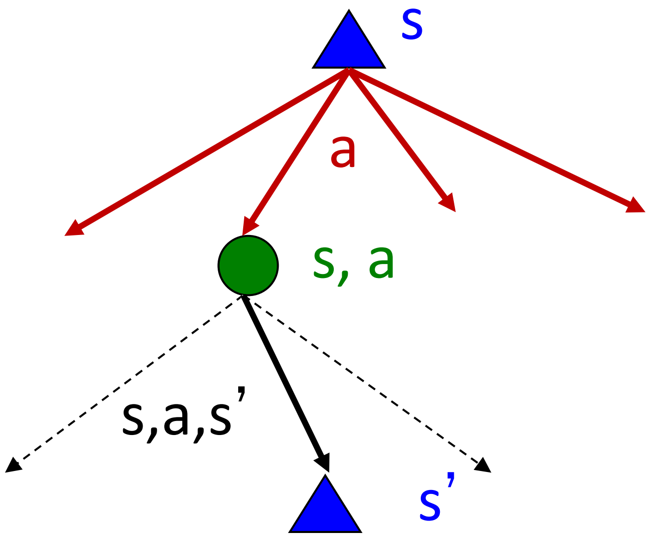


Policy Evaluation

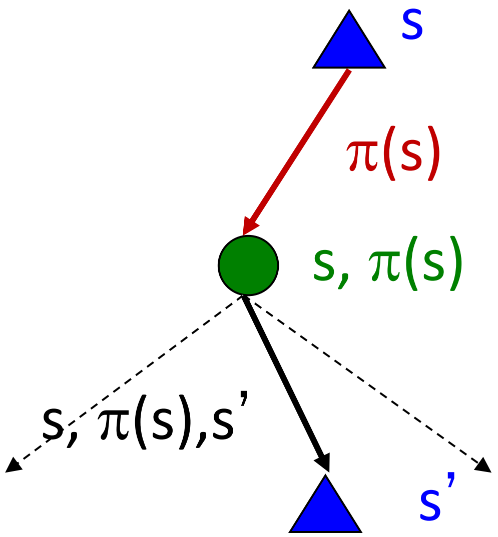


Fixed Policies

Do the optimal action



Do what π says to do



- Expectimax trees max over all actions to compute the optimal values
- If we fixed some policy $\pi(s)$, then the tree would be simpler – only one action per state
  - … though the tree's value would depend on which policy we fixed

Utilities for a Fixed Policy

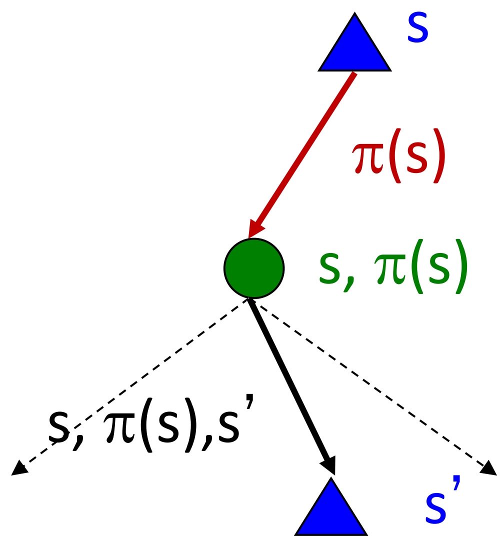
- Another basic operation: compute the utility of a state s under a fixed (generally non-optimal) policy

- Define the utility of a state s, under a fixed policy π:

  $V^{\pi}(s)$ = expected total discounted rewards starting in s and following π

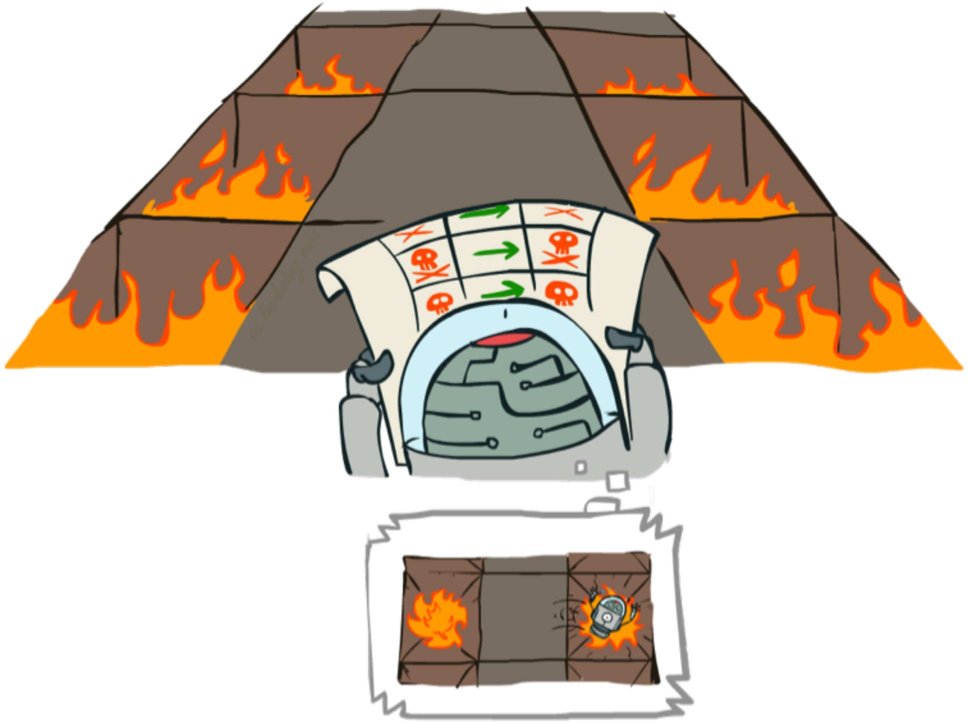
- Recursive relation (one-step look-ahead / Bellman equation):

$$V^{\pi}(s) = \sum_{s'} T(s, \pi(s), s')[R(s, \pi(s), s') + \gamma V^{\pi}(s')]$$

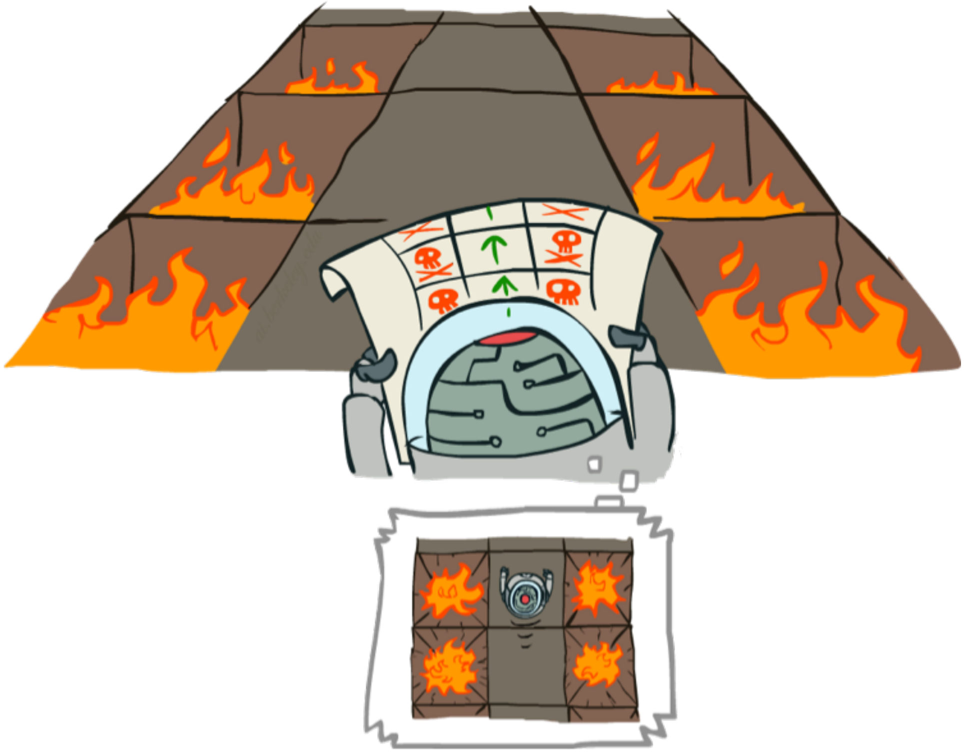


Example: Policy Evaluation

Always Go Right



Always Go Forward



Example: Policy Evaluation

Always Go Right

Always Go Forward

Policy Evaluation

- How do we calculate the V's for a fixed policy π?

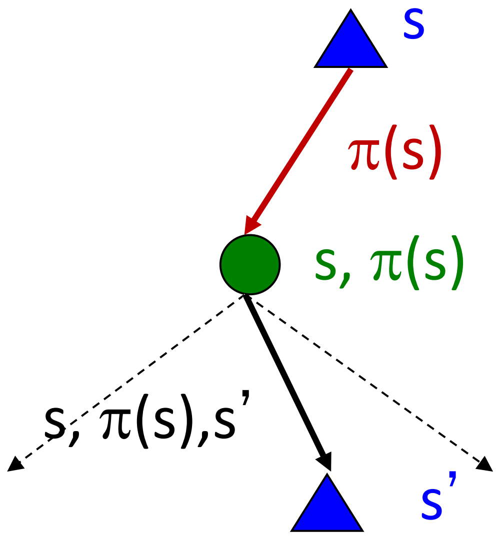
- Idea 1: Turn recursive Bellman equations into updates (like value iteration)

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

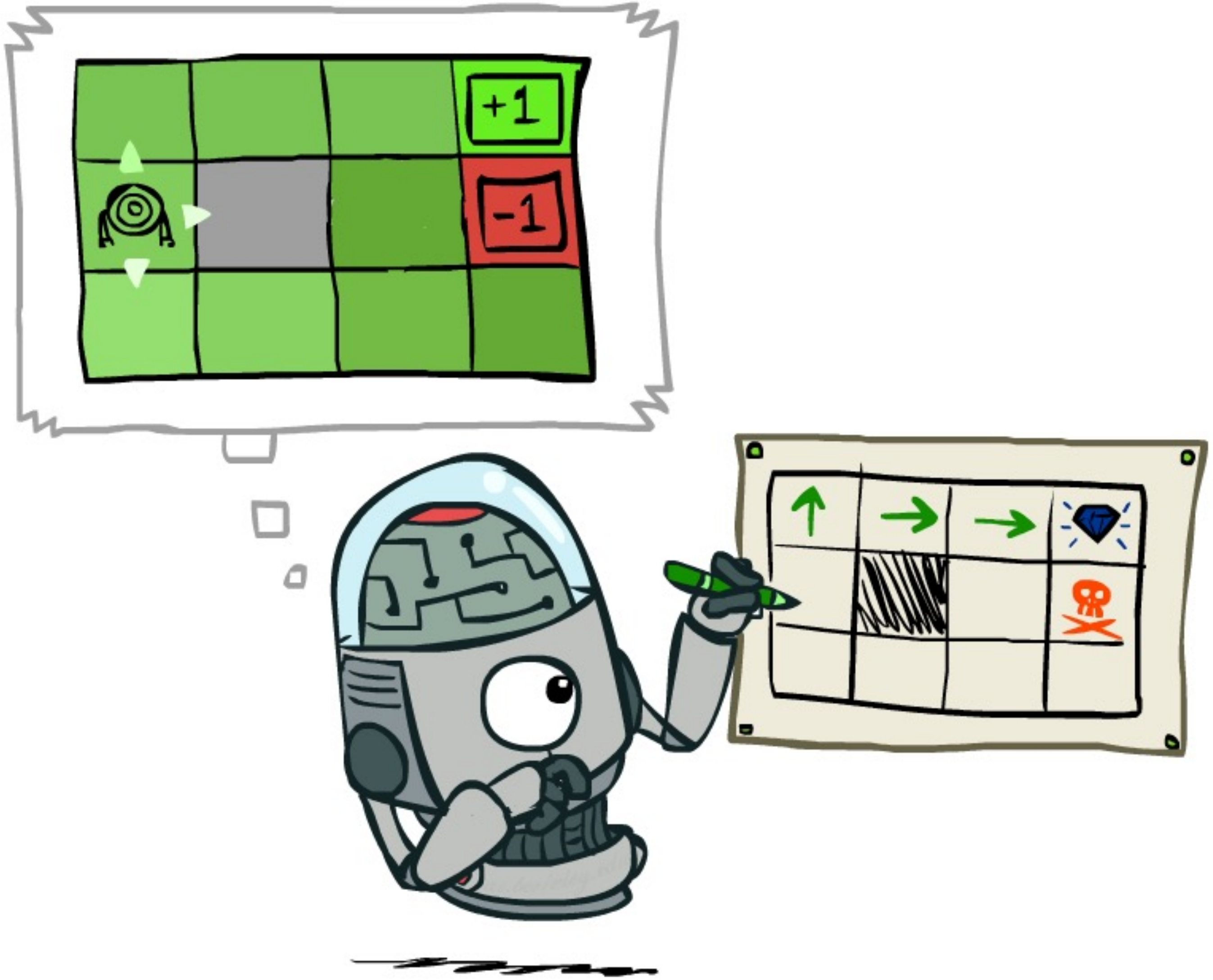
$$V_{k+1}^\pi(s) \leftarrow \sum_{s'} T(s,\pi(s),s')[R(s,\pi(s),s') + \gamma V_k^\pi(s')]$$

- Efficiency: $O(S^2)$ per iteration

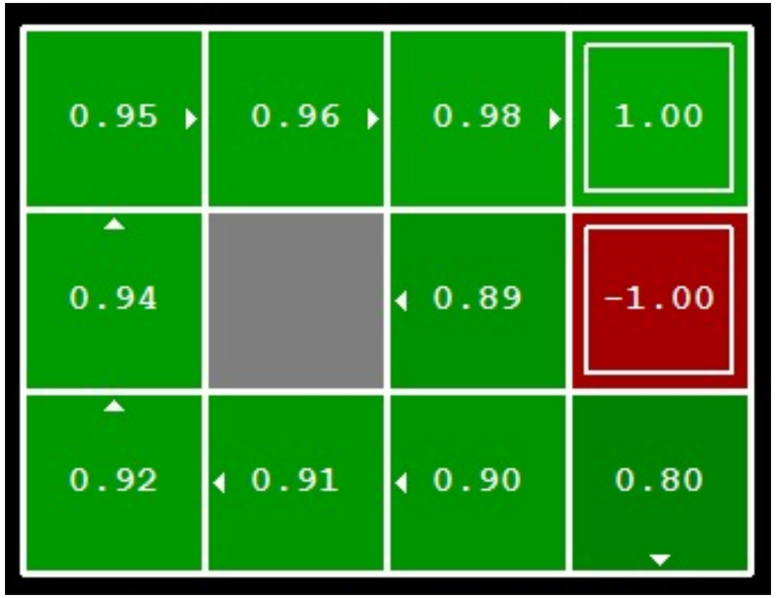
- Idea 2: Without the maxes, the Bellman equations are just a linear system
  - Solve with Matlab (or your favorite linear system solver)



Policy Extraction



Computing Actions from Values



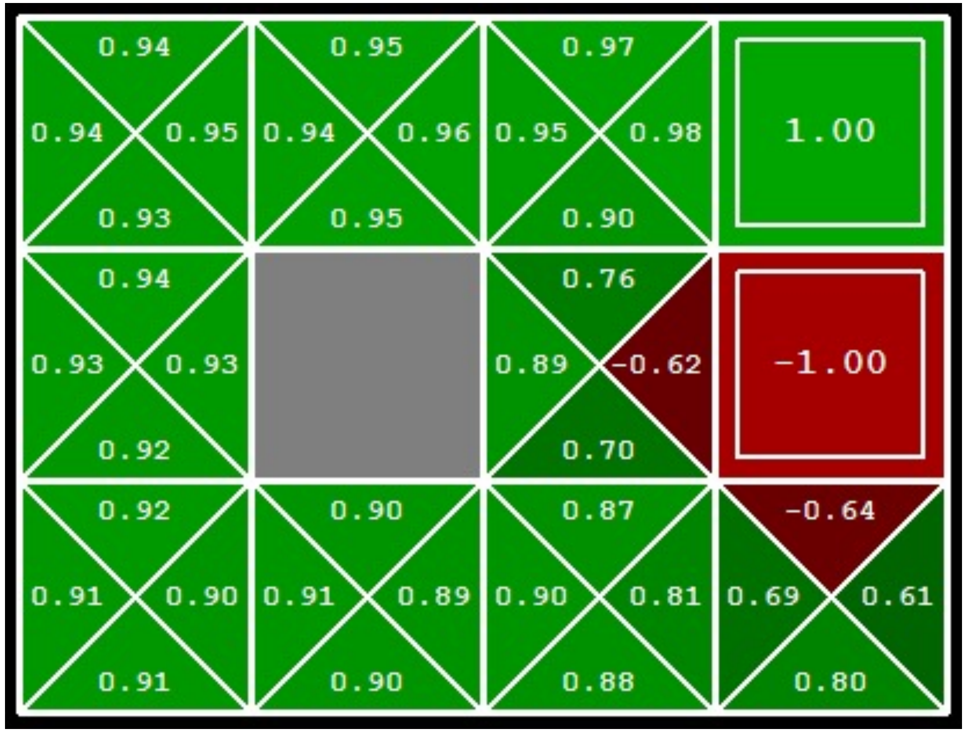
- Let's imagine we have the optimal values V*(s)
- How should we act?
  - It's not obvious!
- We need to do a mini-expectimax (one step)

$$\pi^*(s) = \arg\max_a \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s')[R(s,a,s') + \gamma V^*(s')]$$

- This is called policy extraction, since it gets the policy implied by the values

Computing Actions from Q-Values

- Let's imagine we have the optimal q-values:

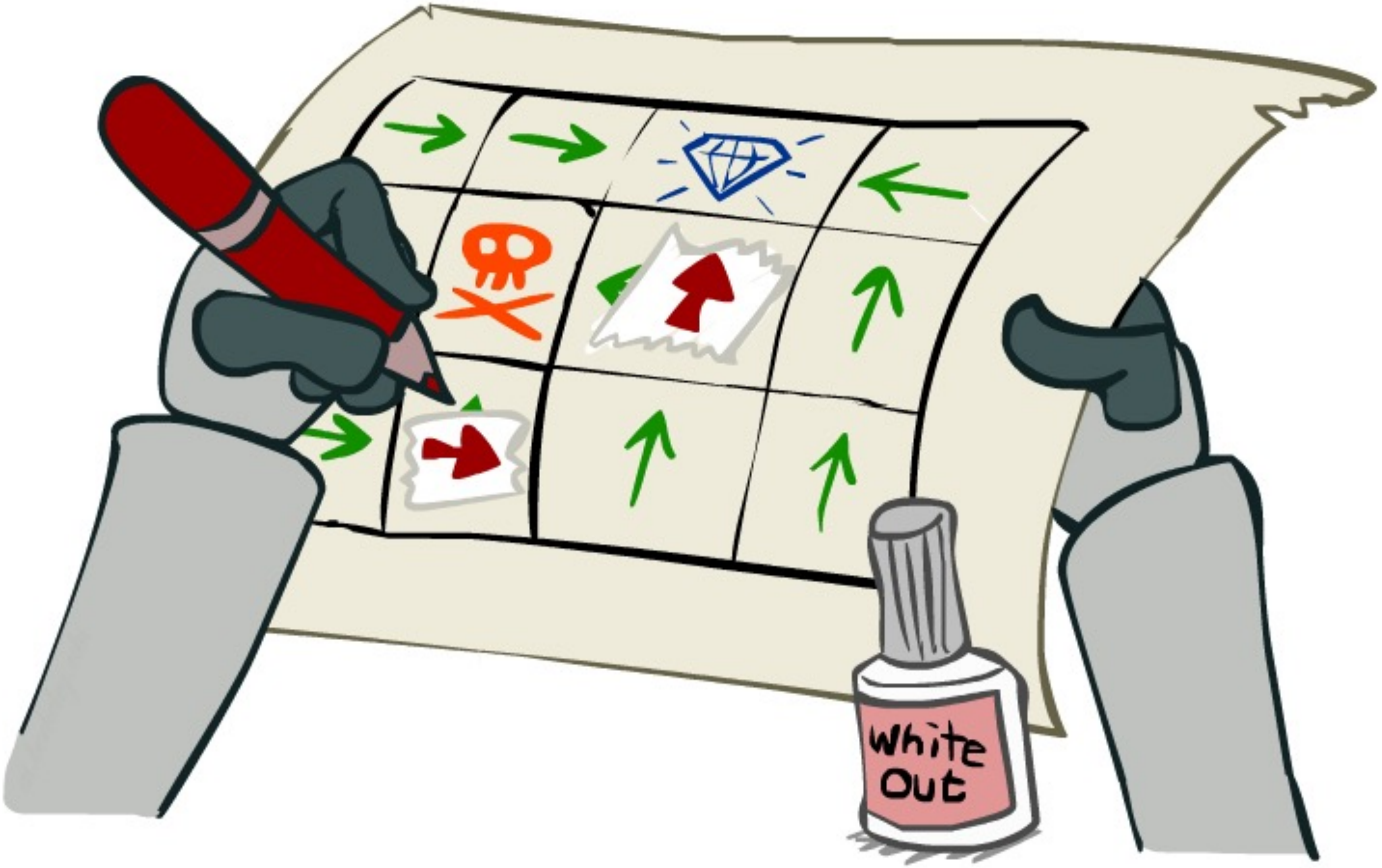


- How should we act?
  - Completely trivial to decide!

$$\pi^*(s) = \arg\max_a Q^*(s,a)$$

- Important lesson: actions are easier to select from q-values than values!

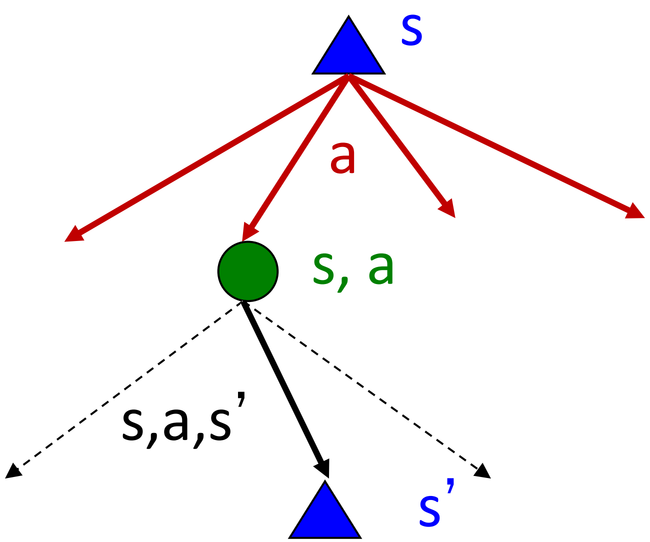
Policy Iteration



Problems with Value Iteration

- Value iteration repeats the Bellman updates:

$$V_{k+1}(s) \leftarrow \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma V_k(s') \right]$$



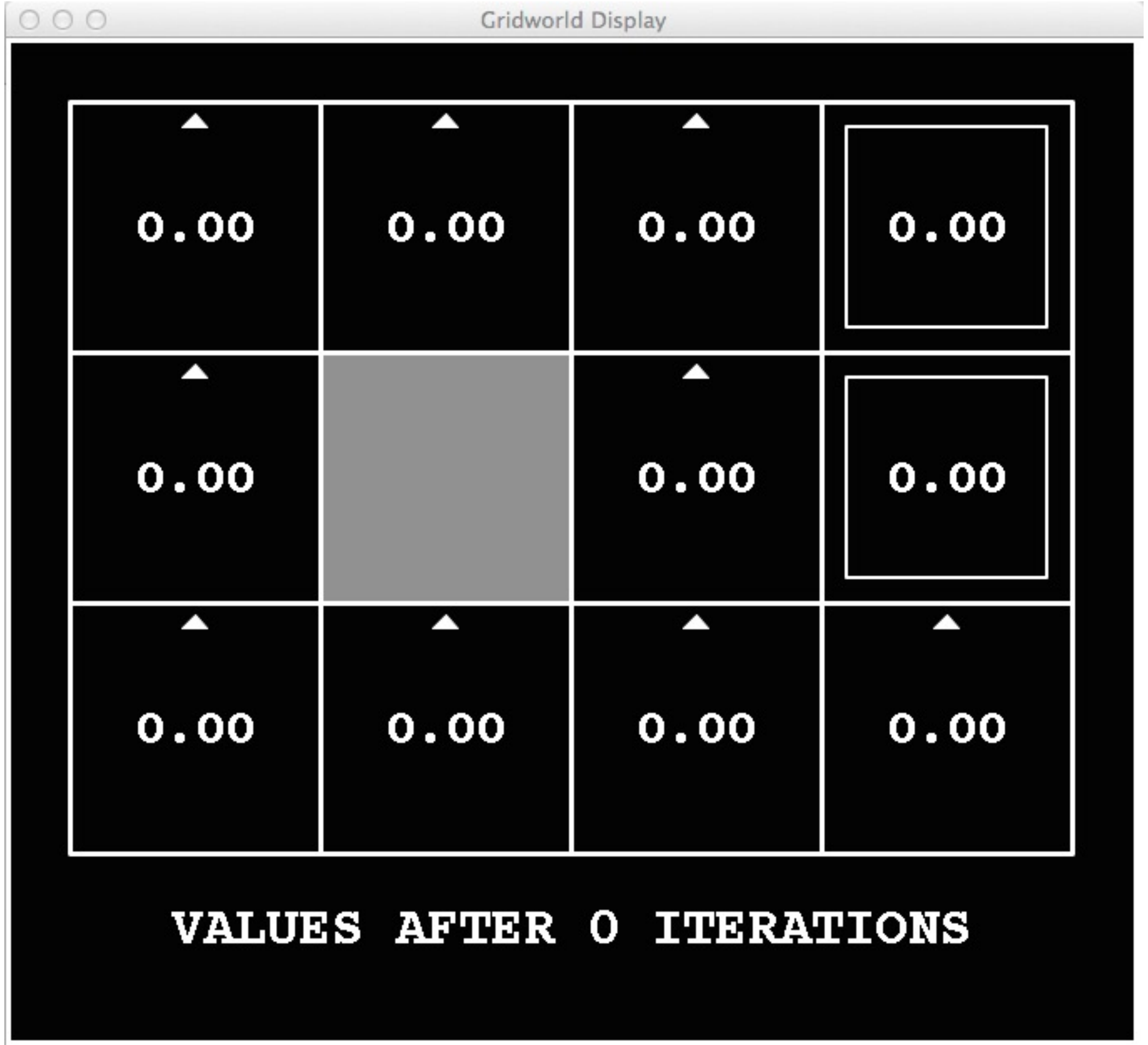
- Problem 1: It's slow – $O(S^2A)$ per iteration

- Problem 2: The "max" at each state rarely changes

- Problem 3: The policy often converges long before the values

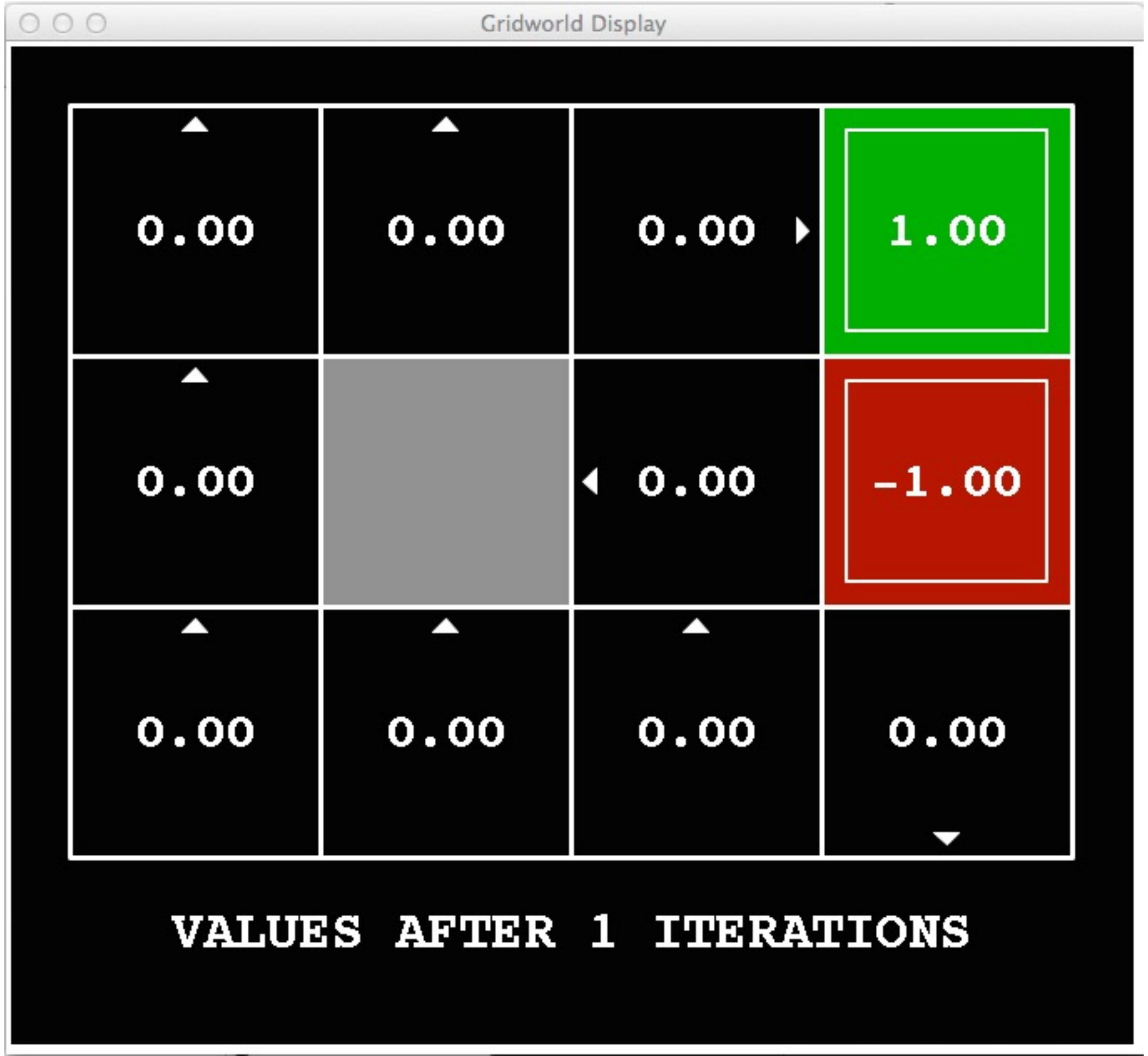
[Demo: value iteration (L9D2)]

k=0



Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=1



Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

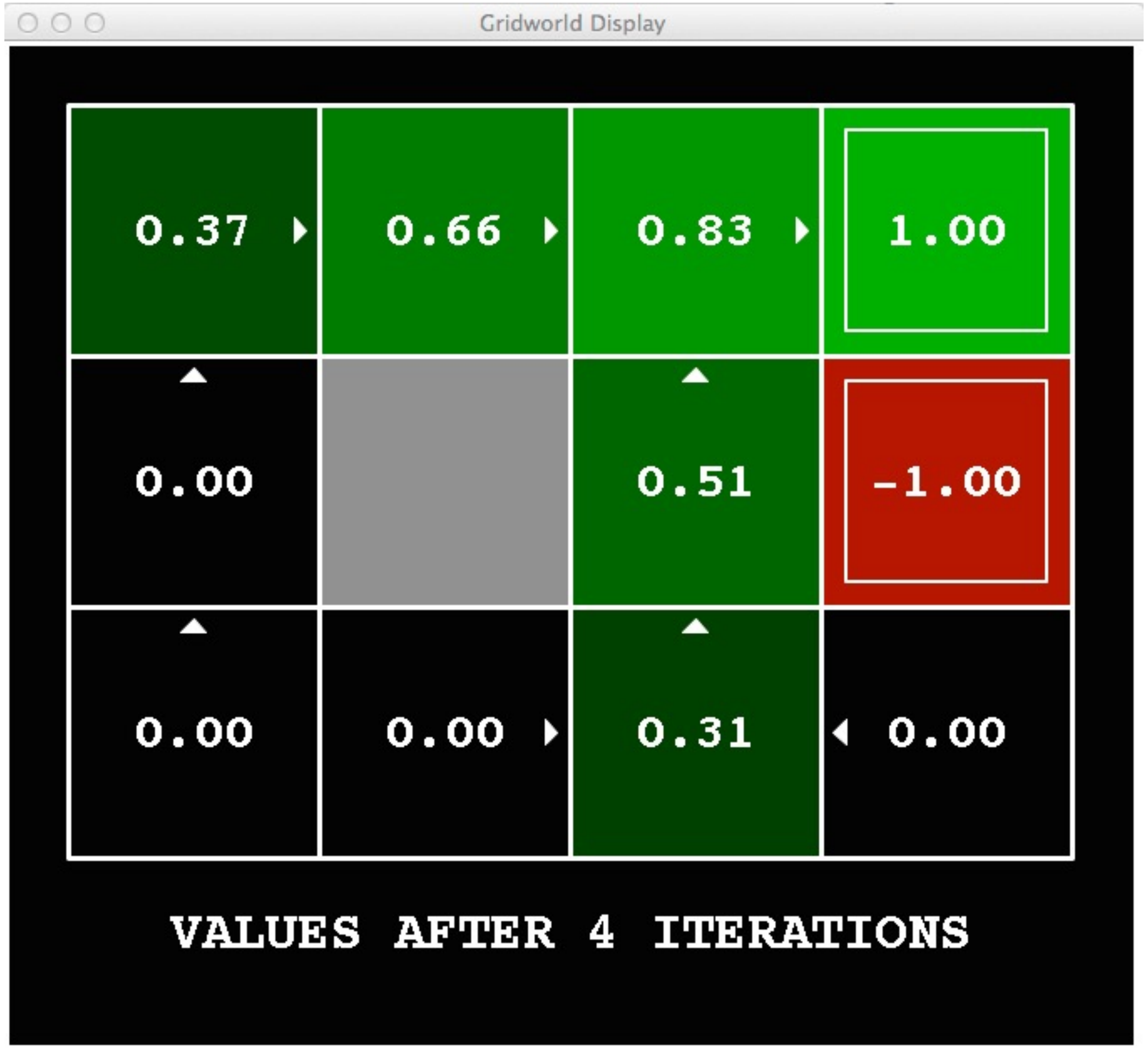
k=2

Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=3

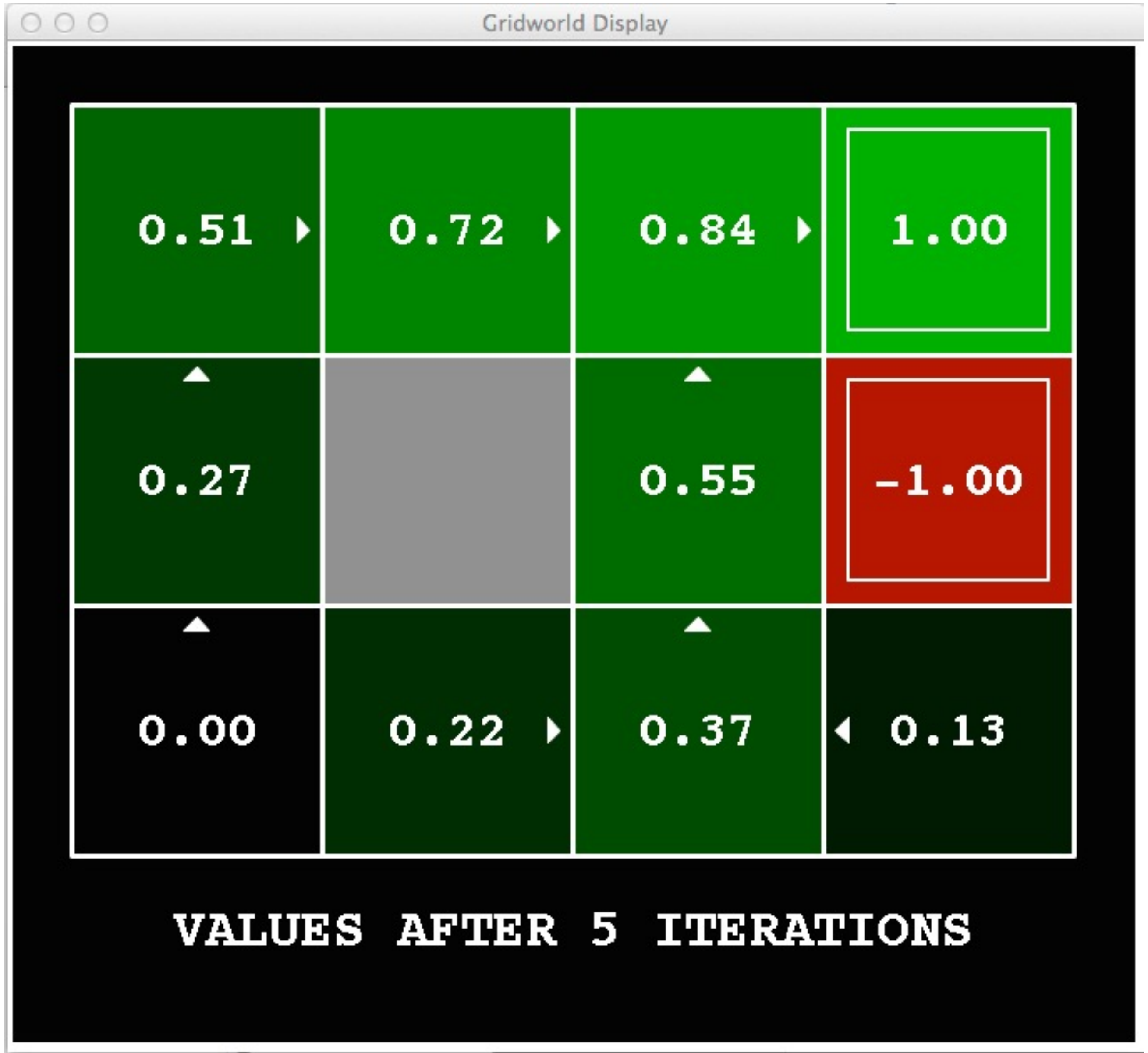
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=4



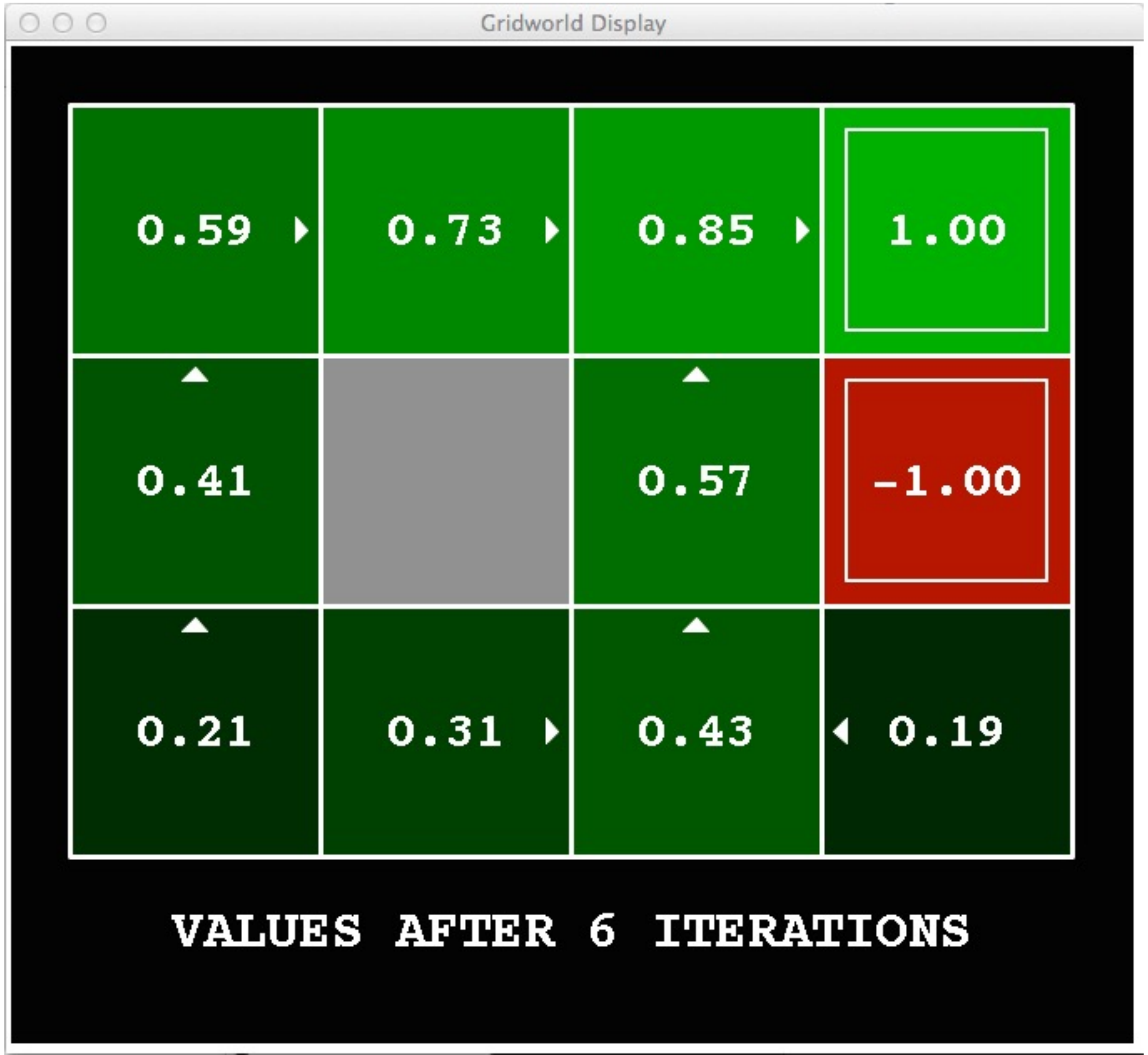
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=5



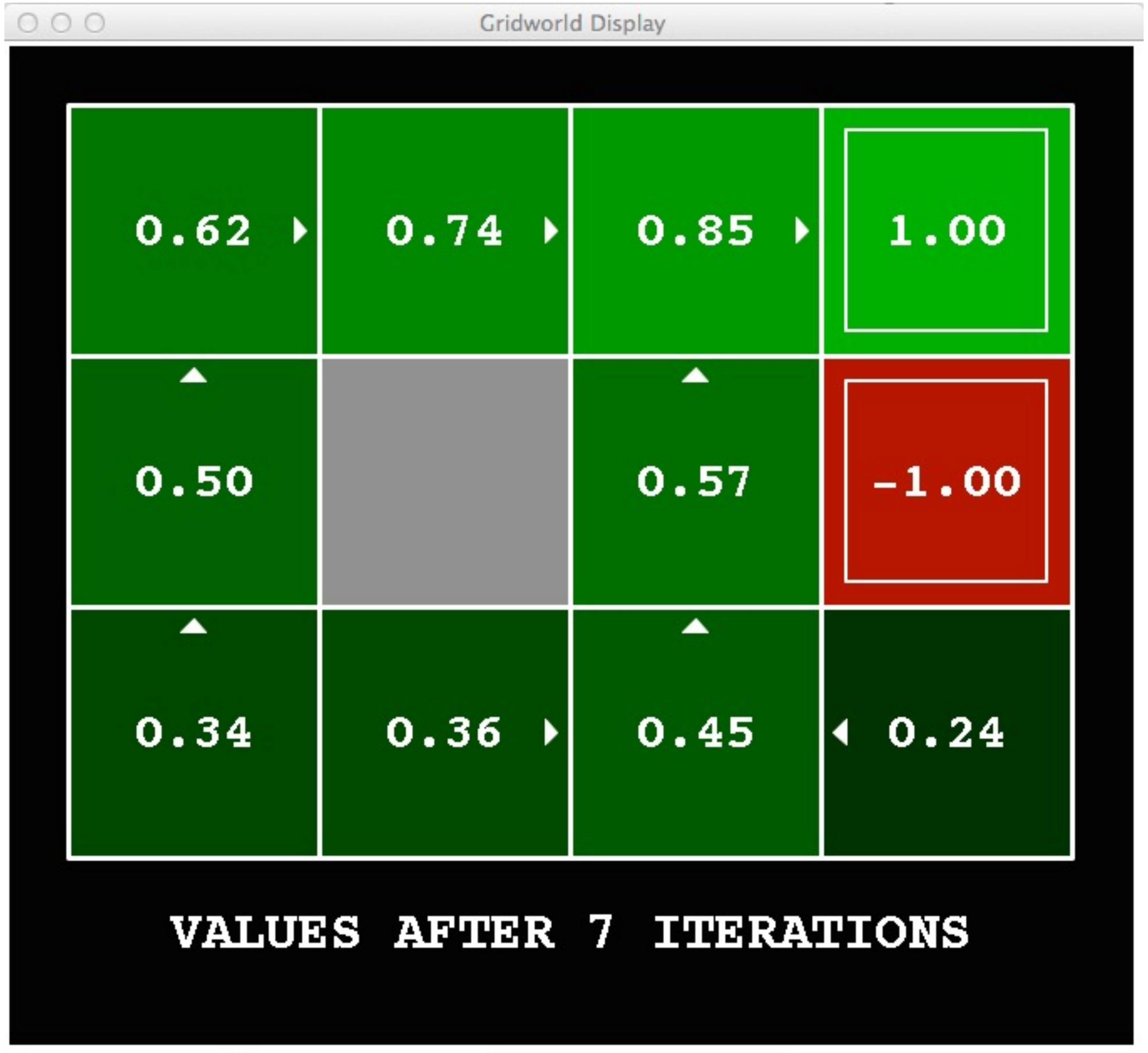
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=6



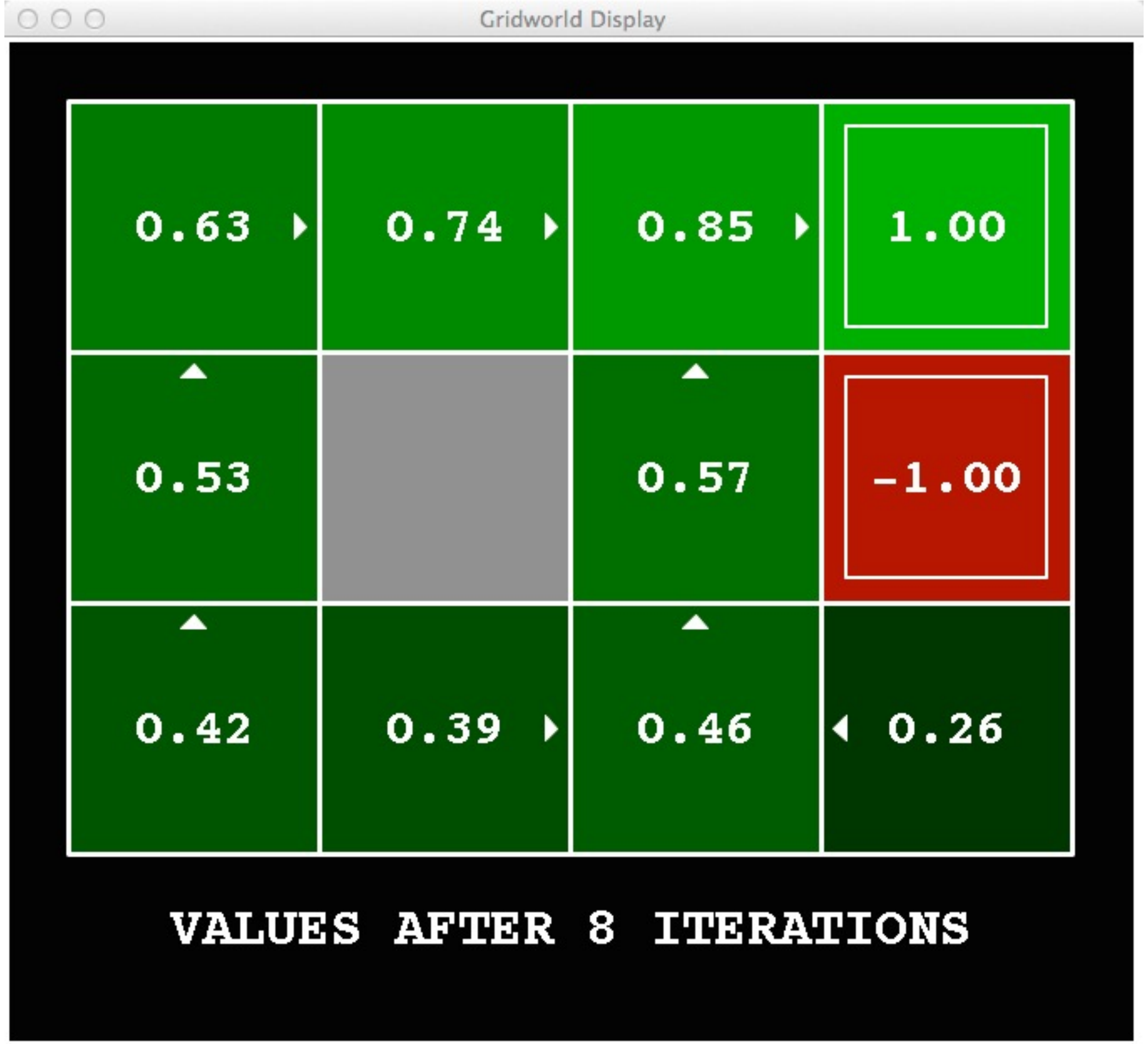
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=7



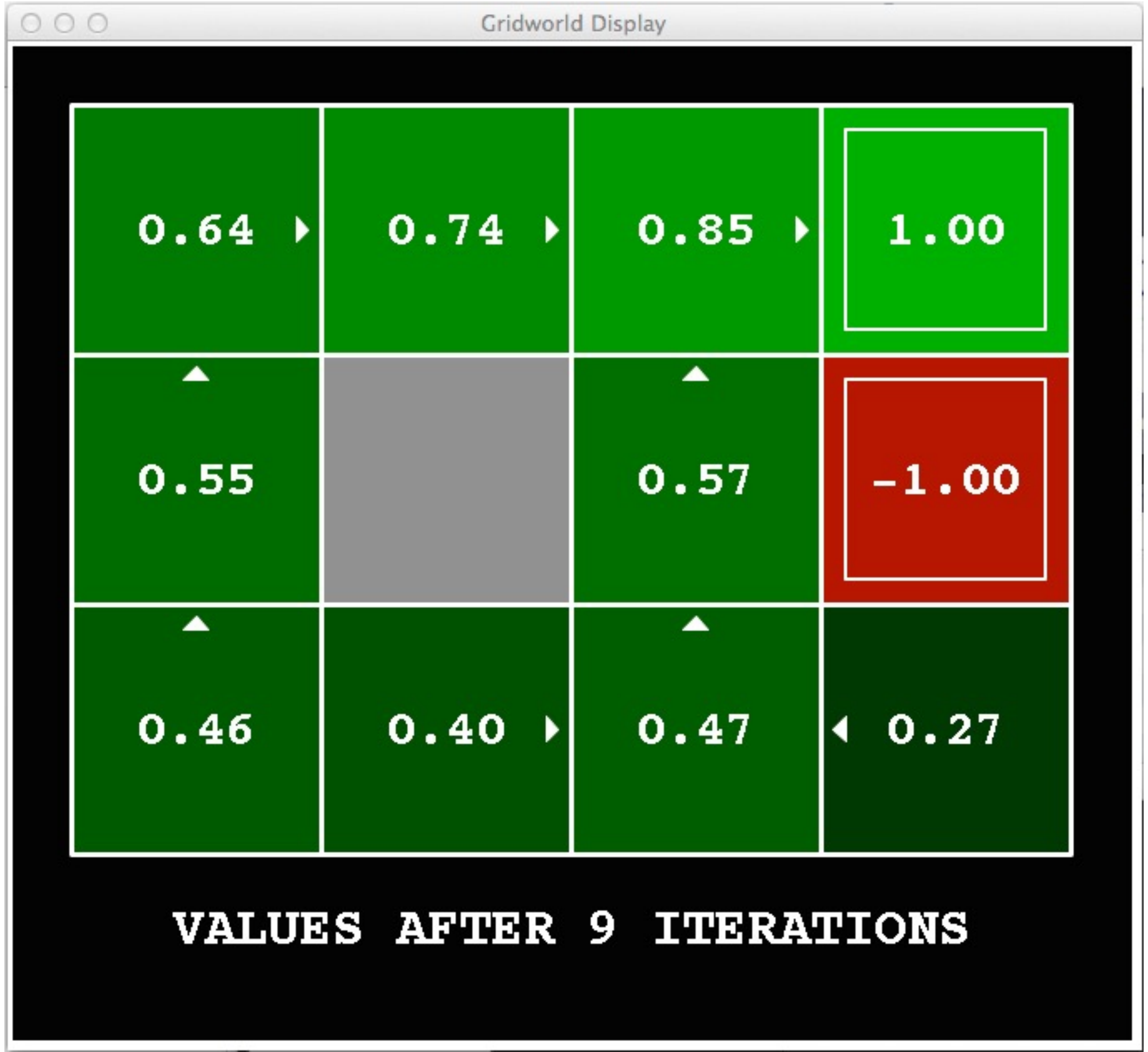
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=8



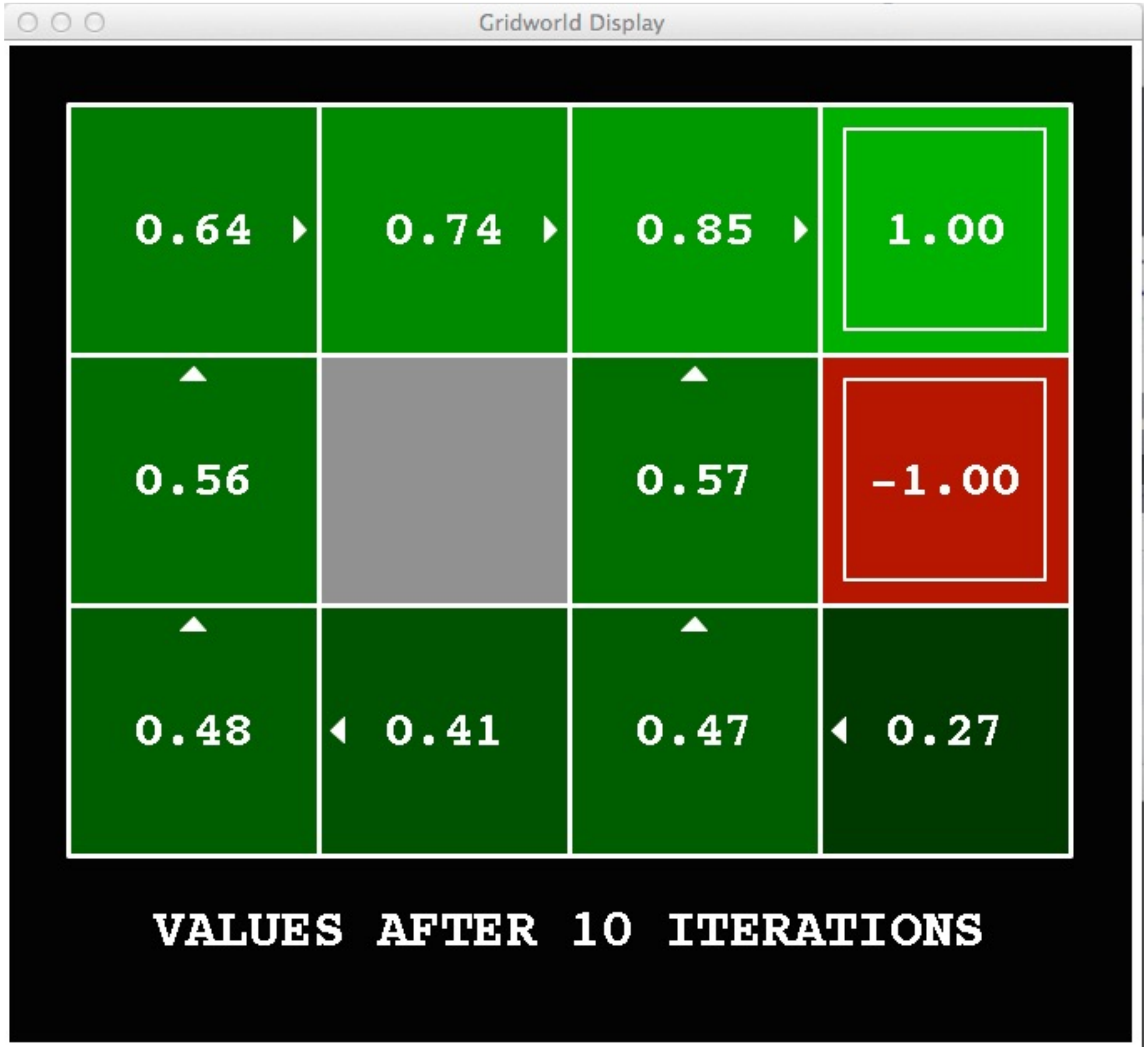
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=9



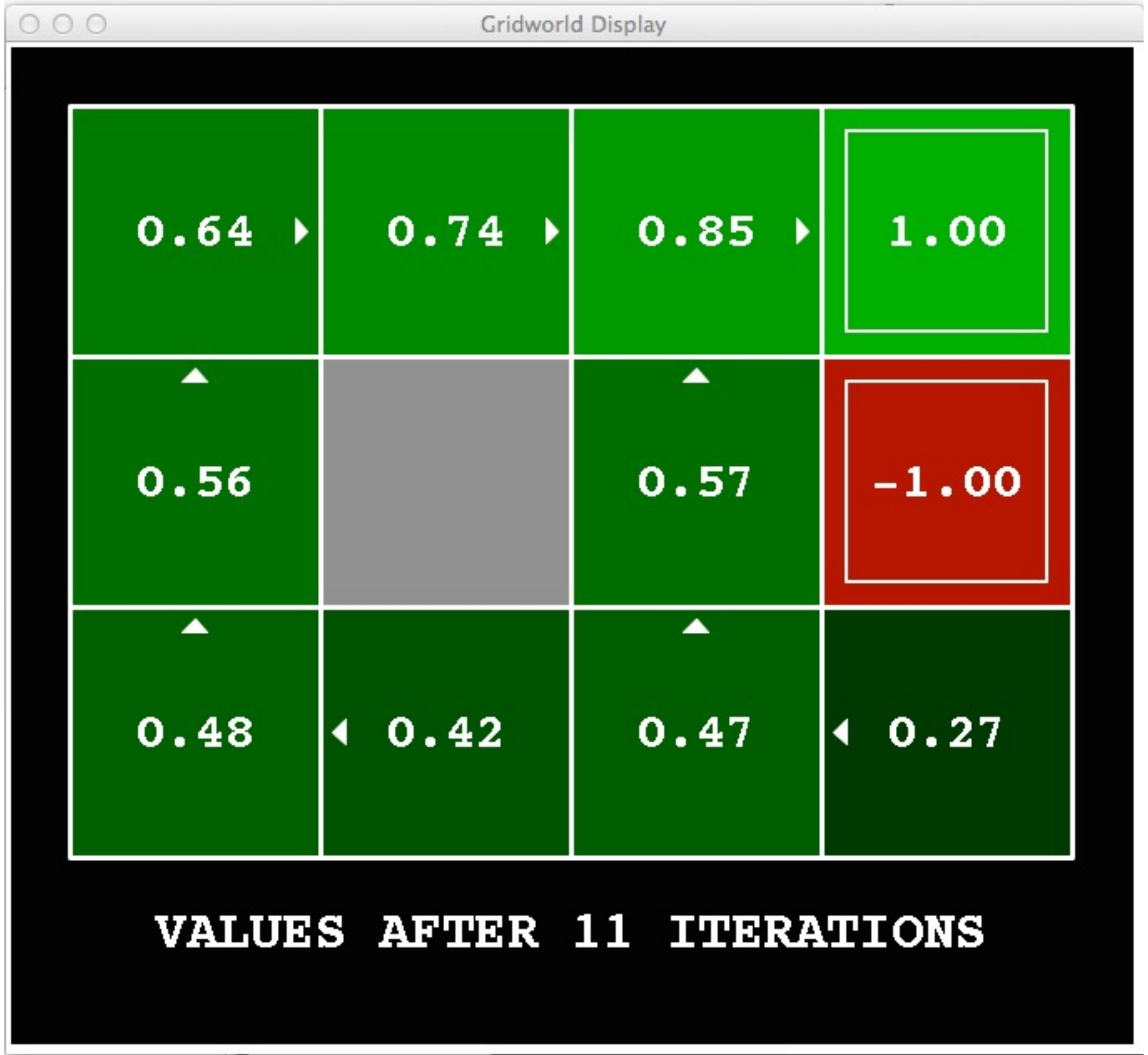
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=10



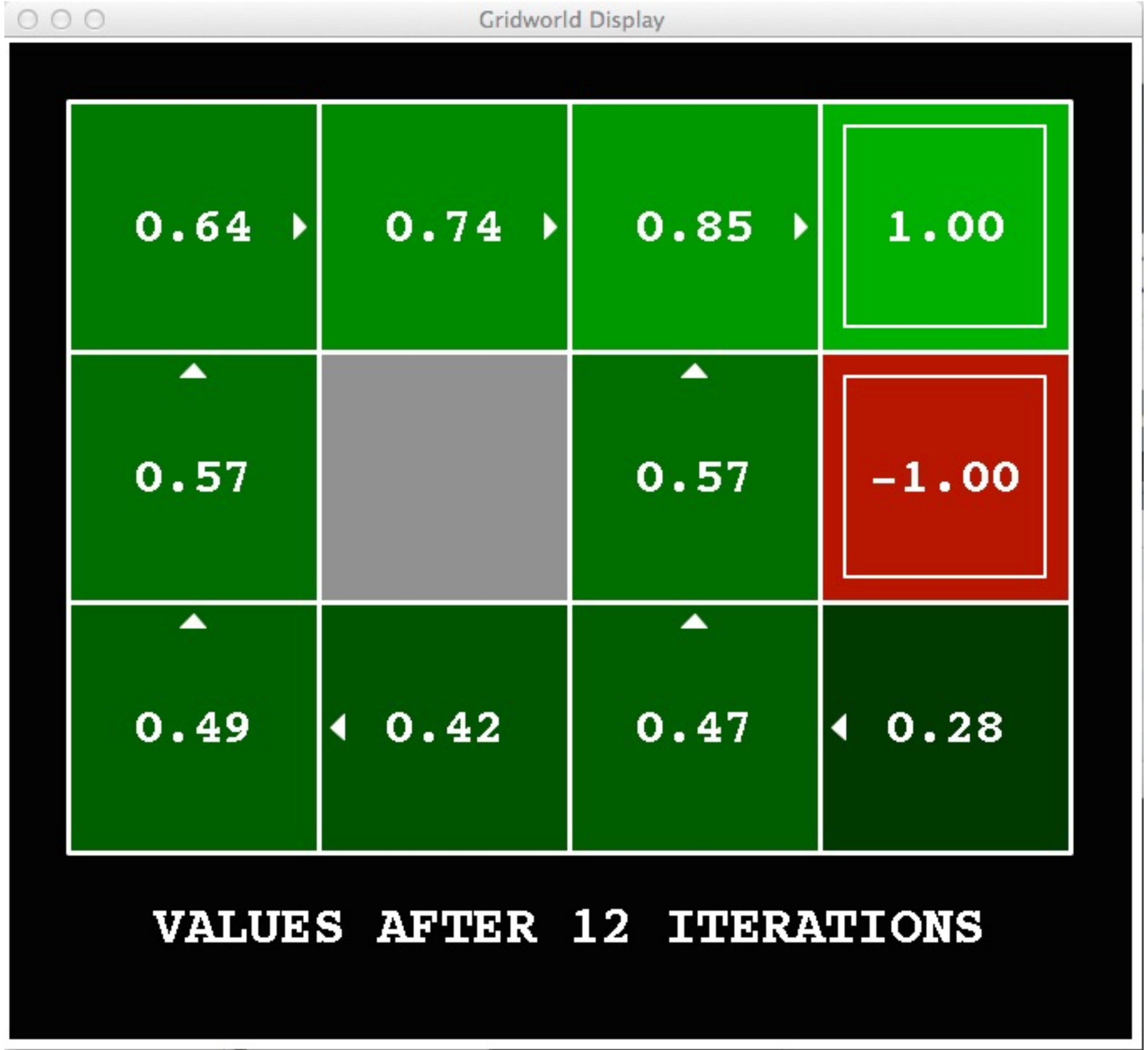
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=11



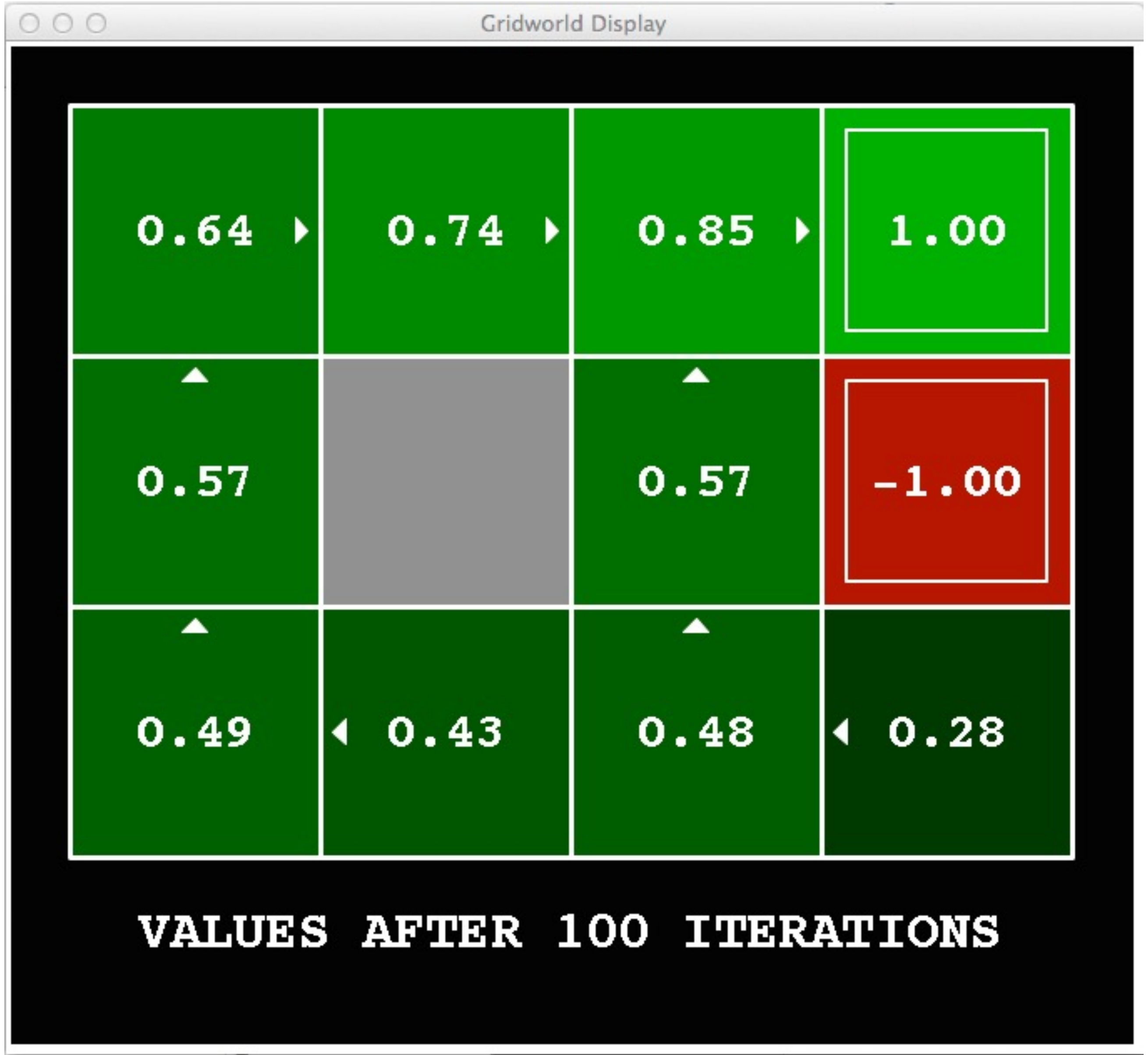
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=12



Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=100



Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

Policy Iteration

- Alternative approach for optimal values:
  - Step 1: Policy evaluation: calculate utilities for some fixed policy (not optimal utilities!) until convergence
  - Step 2: Policy improvement: update policy using one-step look-ahead with resulting converged (but not optimal!) utilities as future values
  - Repeat steps until policy converges

- This is policy iteration
  - It’s still optimal!
  - Can converge (much) faster under some conditions

Policy Iteration

- Evaluation: For fixed current policy π, find values with policy evaluation:
  - Iterate until values converge:

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

- Improvement: For fixed values, get a better policy using policy extraction
  - One-step look-ahead:

$$\pi_{i+1}(s) = \arg\max_a \sum_{s'} T(s, a, s') \left[R(s, a, s') + \gamma V^{\pi_i}(s')\right]$$

Comparison

- Both value iteration and policy iteration compute the same thing (all optimal values)

- In value iteration:
  - Every iteration updates both the values and (implicitly) the policy
  - We don’t track the policy, but taking the max over actions implicitly recomputes it

- In policy iteration:
  - We do several passes that update utilities with fixed policy (each pass is fast because we consider only one action, not all of them)
  - After the policy is evaluated, a new policy is chosen (slow like a value iteration pass)
  - The new policy will be better (or we’re done)

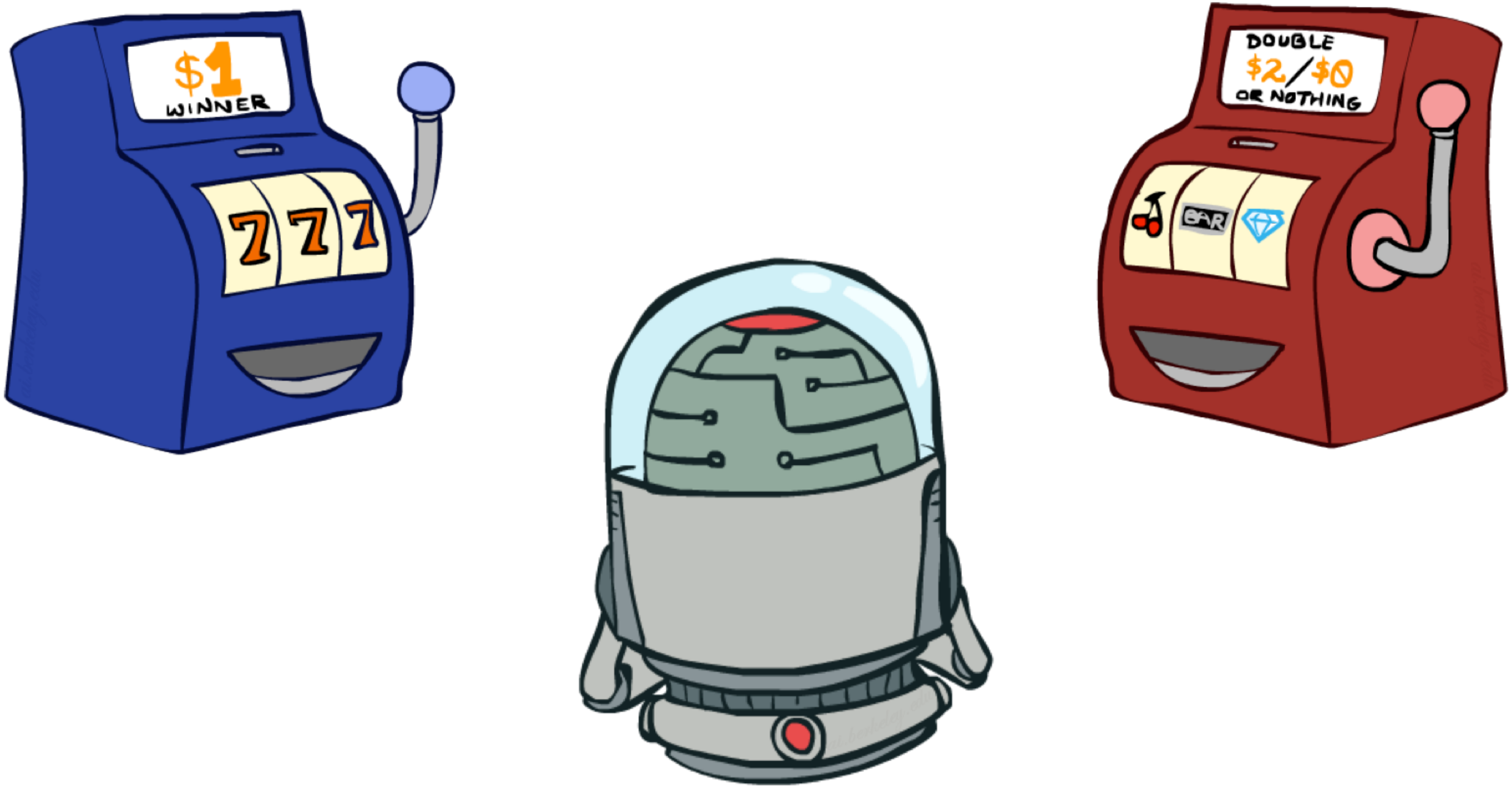
- Both are dynamic programs for solving MDPs

Summary: MDP Algorithms

- So you want to….
  - Compute optimal values: use value iteration or policy iteration
  - Compute values for a particular policy: use policy evaluation
  - Turn your values into a policy: use policy extraction (one-step lookahead)

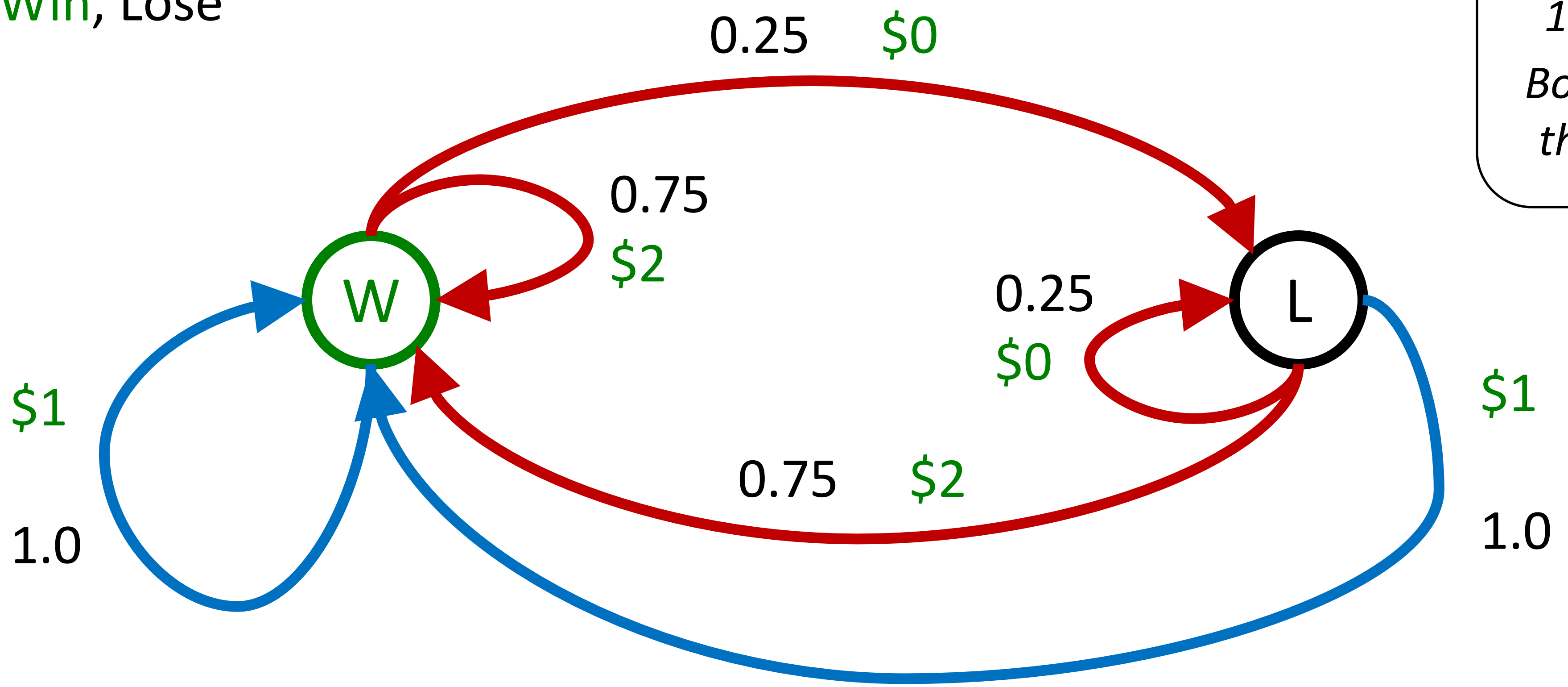
- These all look the same!
  - They basically are – they are all variations of Bellman updates
  - They all use one-step lookahead expectimax fragments
  - They differ only in whether we plug in a fixed policy or max over actions

Double Bandits



Double-Bandit MDP

- Actions: *Blue*, *Red*
- States: Win, Lose



No discount

100 time steps

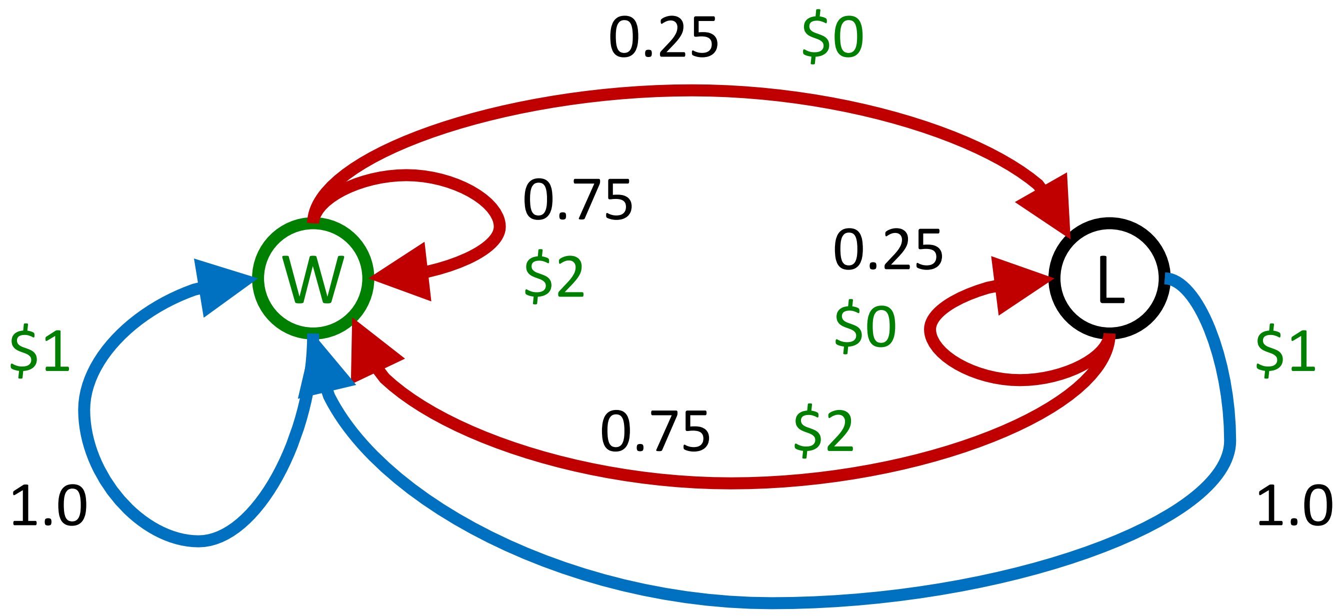
Both states have the same value

Offline Planning

- Solving MDPs is offline planning
  - You determine all quantities through computation
  - You need to know the details of the MDP
  - You do not actually play the game!

No discount
100 time steps
Both states have the same value

	Value
Play Red	150
Play Blue	100



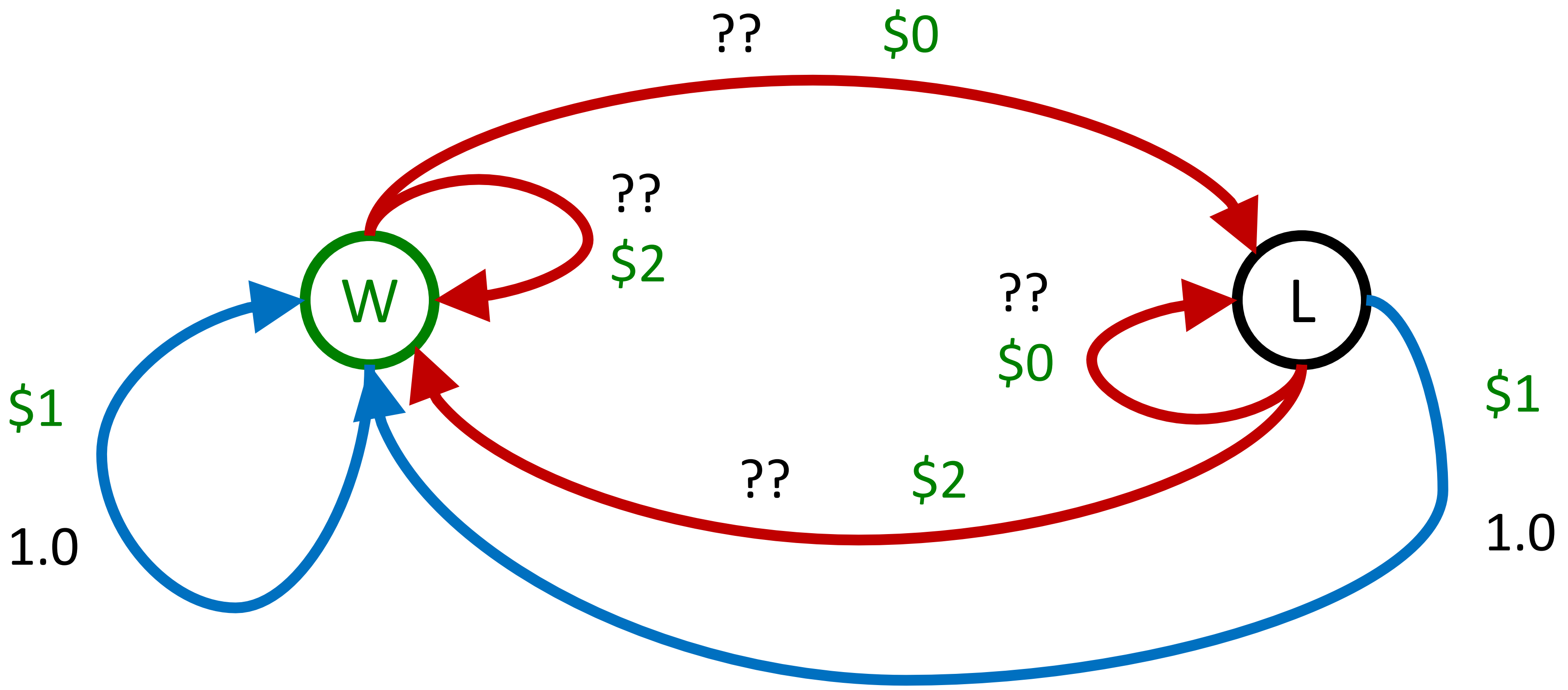
Let’s Play!

$2 $2 $0 $2 $2

$2 $2 $0 $0 $0

Online Planning

- Rules changed! Red's win chance is different.



Let’s Play!

$0 $0 $0 $2 $0

$2 $0 $0 $0 $0

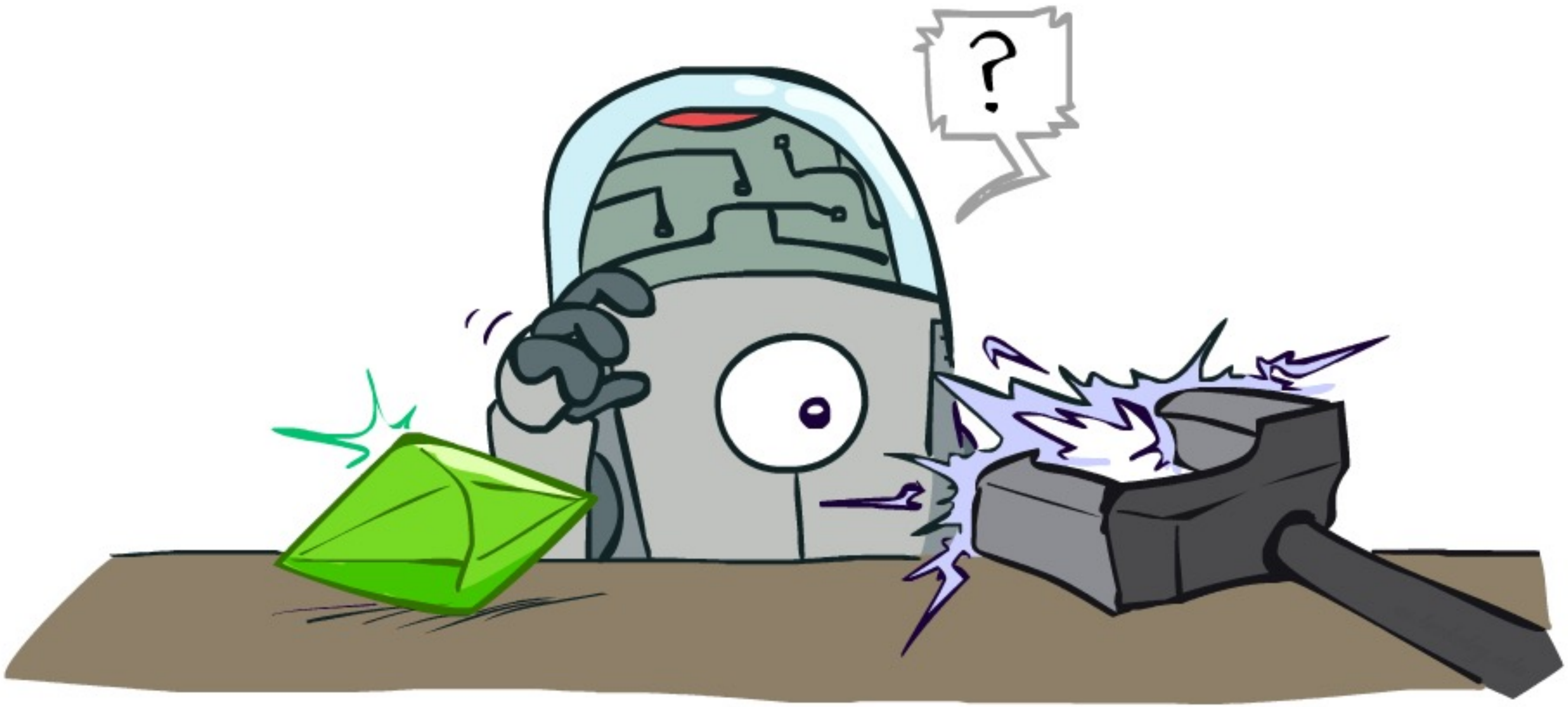
What Just Happened?

- That wasn't planning, it was learning!
  - Specifically, reinforcement learning
  - There was an MDP, but you couldn't solve it with just computation
  - You needed to actually act to figure it out

- Important ideas in reinforcement learning that came up
  - Exploration: you have to try unknown actions to get information
  - Exploitation: eventually, you have to use what you know
  - Regret: even if you learn intelligently, you make mistakes
  - Sampling: because of chance, you have to try things repeatedly
  - Difficulty: learning can be much harder than solving a known MDP

CS 188: Artificial Intelligence

Reinforcement Learning

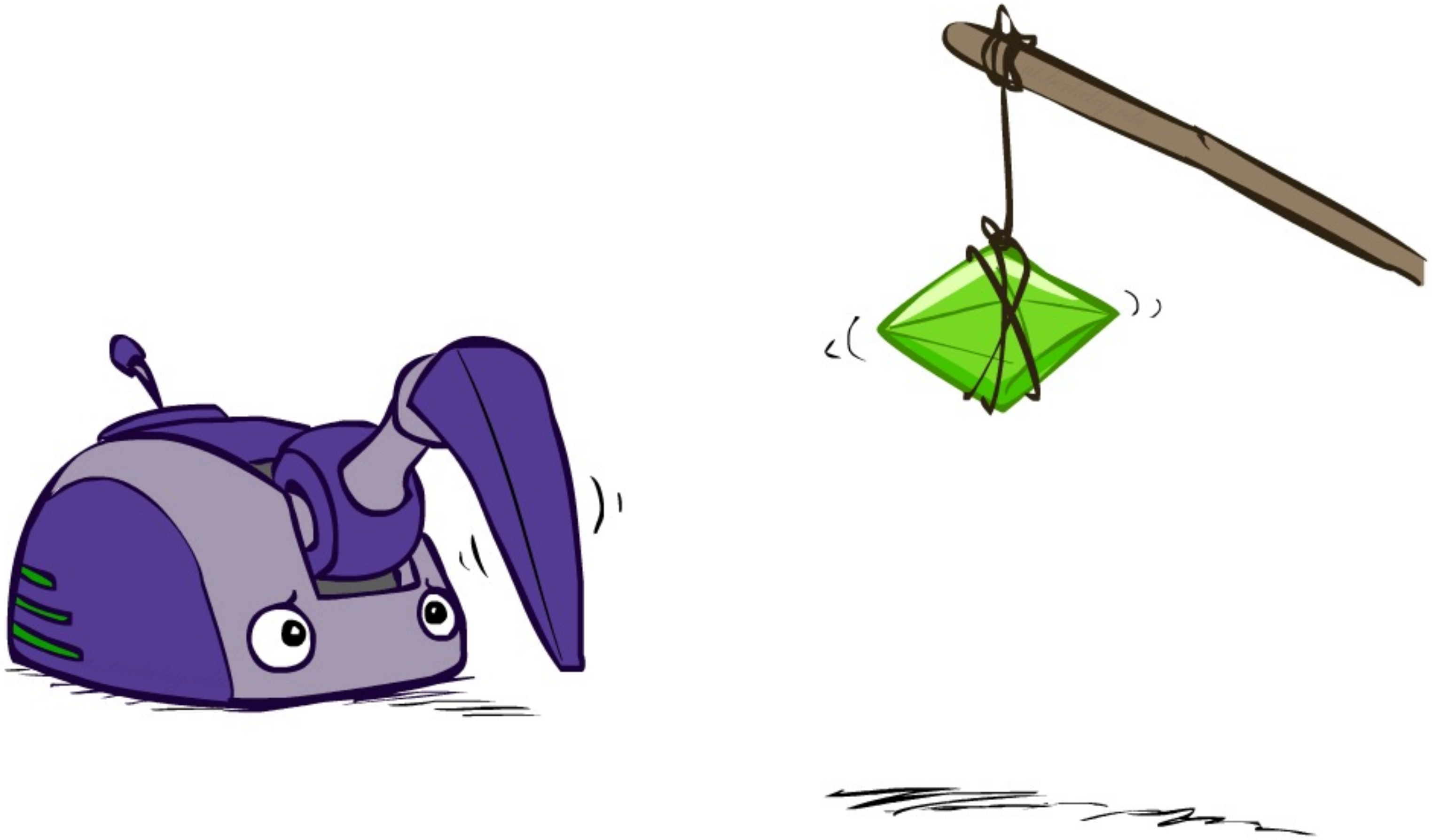


Instructors: Dan Klein and Pieter Abbeel

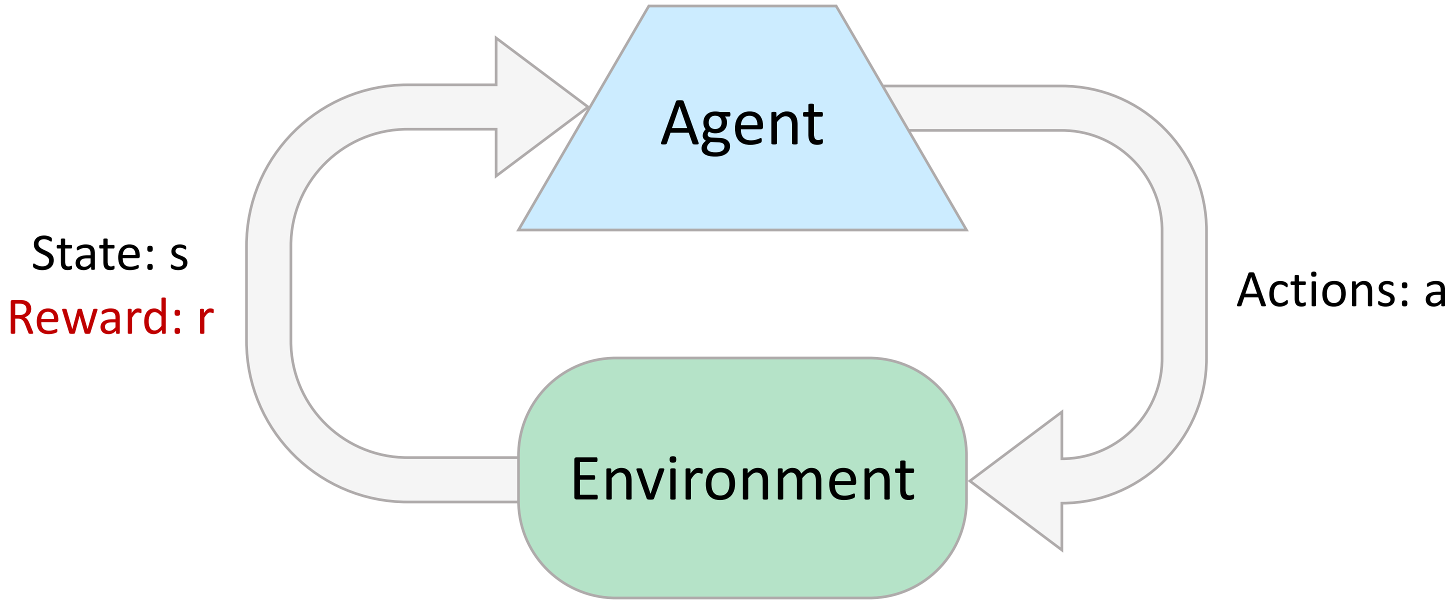
University of California, Berkeley

[These slides were created by Dan Klein and Pieter Abbeel for CS188 Intro to AI at UC Berkeley. All CS188 materials are available at http://ai.berkeley.edu.]

Reinforcement Learning



Reinforcement Learning



- Basic idea:
  - Receive feedback in the form of rewards
  - Agent’s utility is defined by the reward function
  - Must (learn to) act so as to maximize expected rewards
  - All learning is based on observed samples of outcomes!

Example: Learning to Walk

Initial

A Learning Trial

After Learning [1K Trials]

[Kohl and Stone, ICRA 2004]

Example: Learning to Walk

Initial

[Kohl and Stone, ICRA 2004]

[Video: AIBO WALK – initial]

Example: Learning to Walk

Training

[Kohl and Stone, ICRA 2004]

[Video: AIBO WALK – training]

Example: Learning to Walk

Finished

[Kohl and Stone, ICRA 2004]

[Video: AIBO WALK – finished]

Reinforcement Learning

- Still assume a Markov decision process (MDP):
  - A set of states $s \in S$
  - A set of actions (per state) A
  - A model $T(s,a,s')$
  - A reward function $R(s,a,s')$
- Still looking for a policy $\pi(s)$

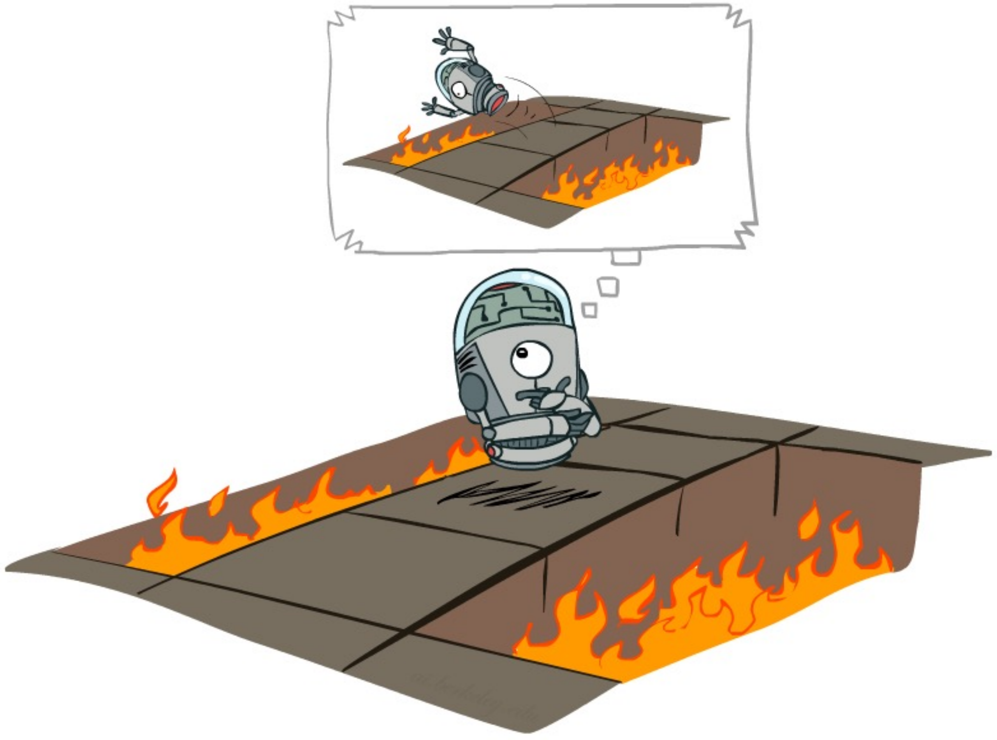

Warm


Cool


Overheated

- New twist: don't know T or R
  - I.e. we don't know which states are good or what the actions do
  - Must actually try actions and states out to learn

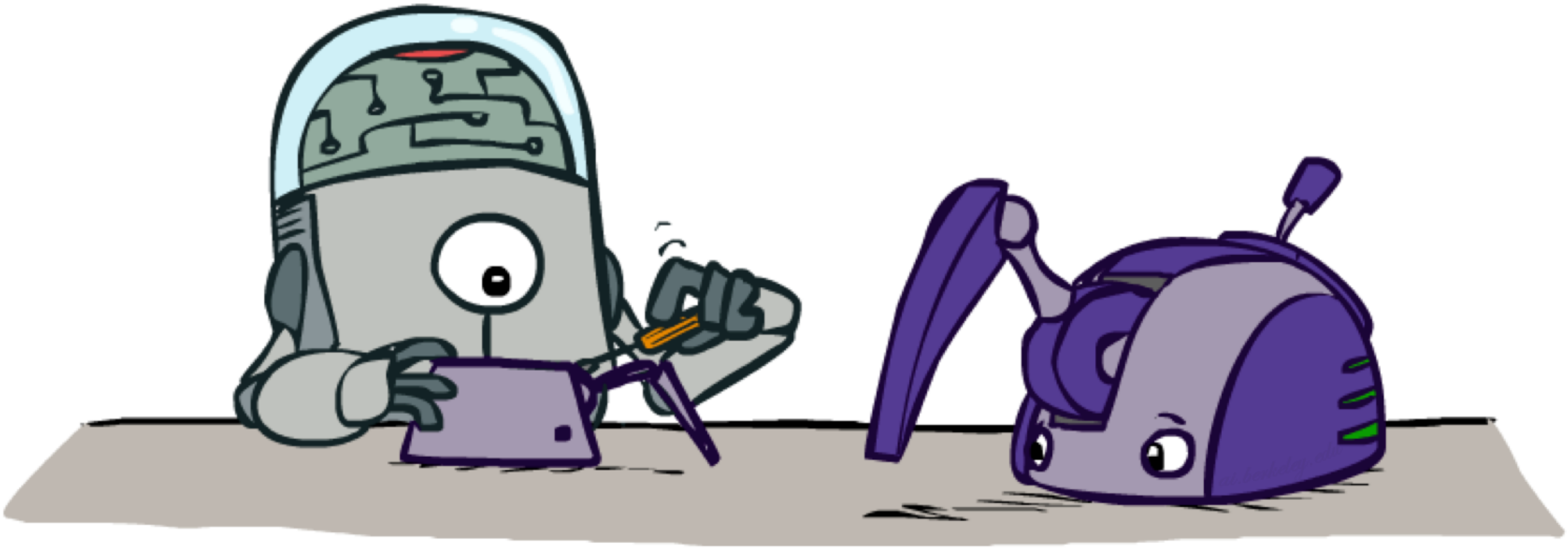
Offline (MDPs) vs. Online (RL)



Offline Solution

Online Learning

Model-Based Learning



Model-Based Learning

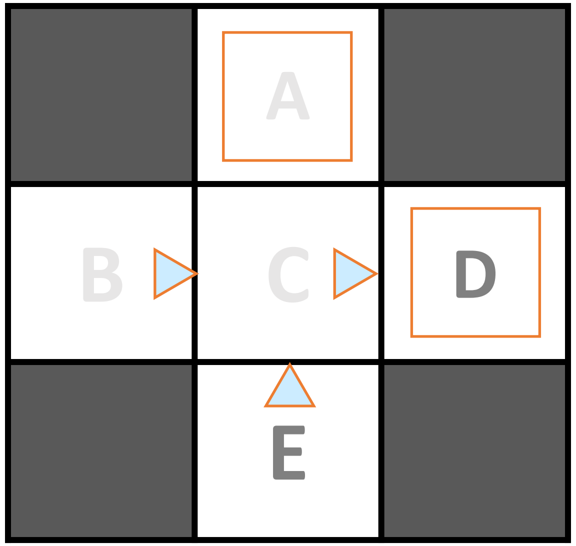
- Model-Based Idea:
  - Learn an approximate model based on experiences
  - Solve for values as if the learned model were correct

- Step 1: Learn empirical MDP model
  - Count outcomes s' for each s, a $\hat{T}(s, a, s')$
  - Normalize to give an estimate of
  - Discover each $\hat{R}(s, a, s')$ when we experience (s, a, s')

- Step 2: Solve the learned MDP
  - For example, use value iteration, as before

Example: Model-Based Learning

Input Policy π



Assume: $\gamma = 1$

Observed Episodes (Training)

Episode 1

B, east, 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 3

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

Episode 4

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

Learned Model

$$\hat{T}(s, a, s')$$

T(B, east, C) = 1.00
T(C, east, D) = 0.75
T(C, east, A) = 0.25
…

$$\hat{R}(s, a, s')$$

R(B, east, C) = -1
R(C, east, D) = -1
R(D, exit, x) = +10
…

Example: Expected Age

Goal: Compute expected age of cs188 students

Known P(A)

$$E[A] = \sum_a P(a) \cdot a \qquad = 0.35 \times 20 + \ldots$$

Without P(A), instead collect samples [a_1, a_2, … a_N]

Unknown P(A): “Model Based”

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

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

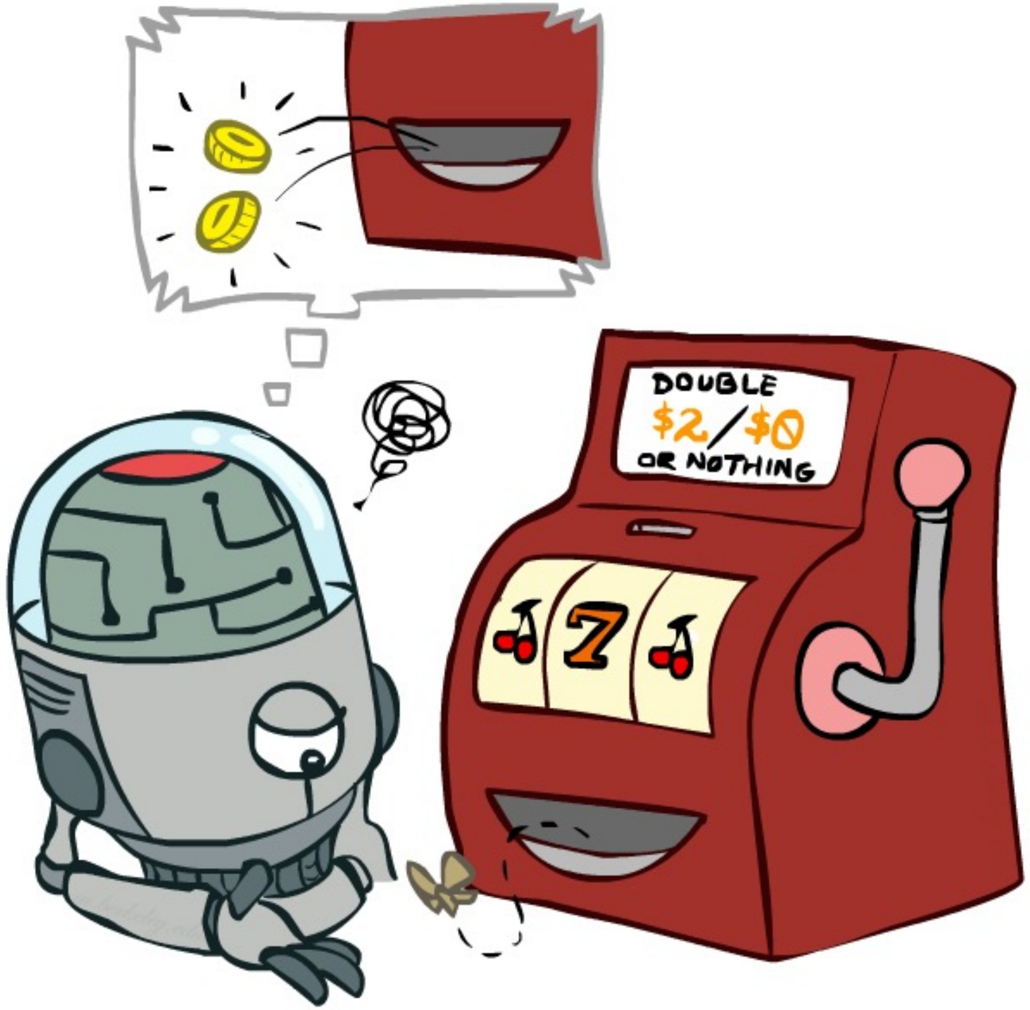
Why does this work? Because eventually you learn the right model.

Unknown P(A): “Model Free”

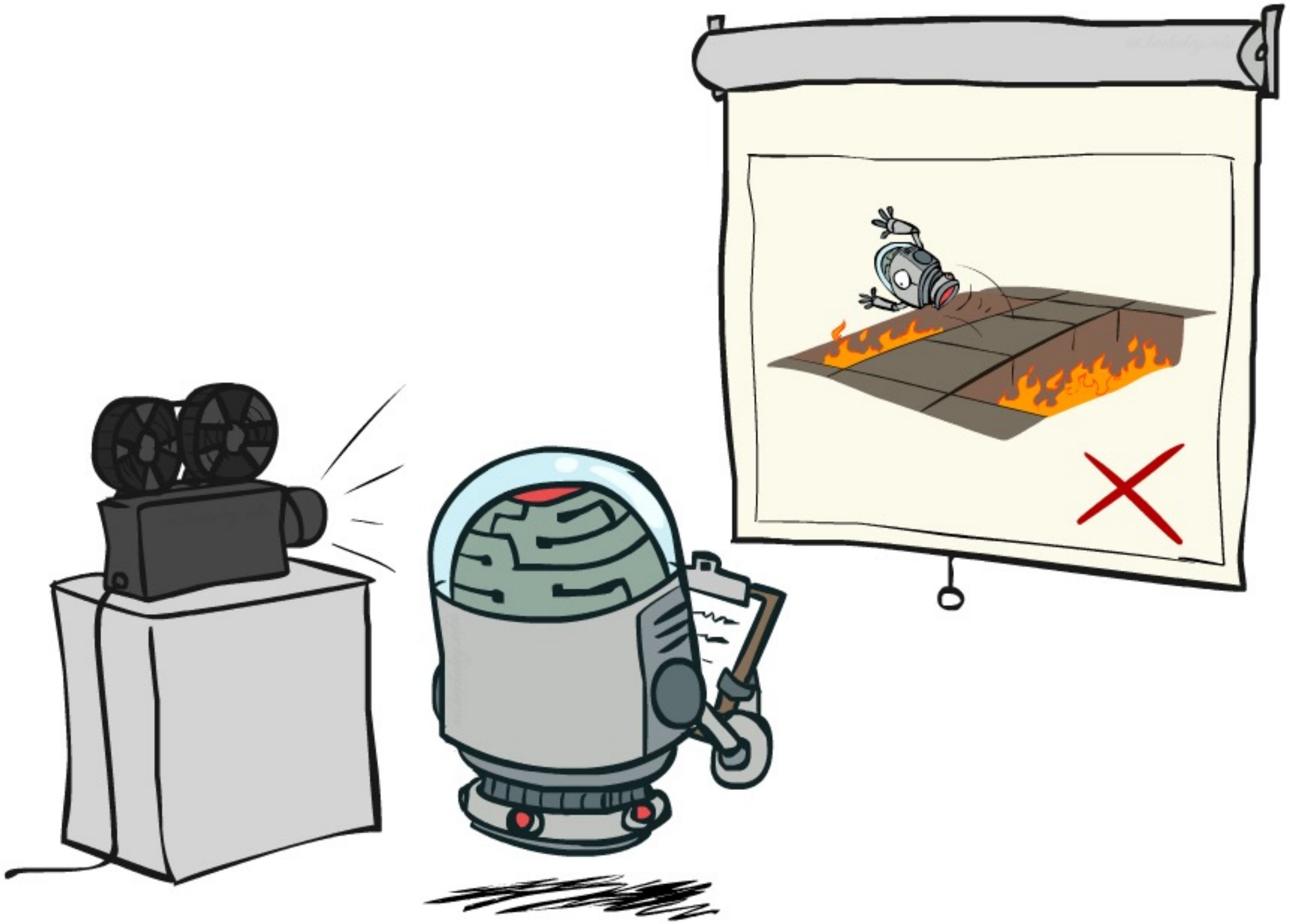
$$E[A] \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_i a_i$$

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

Model-Free Learning

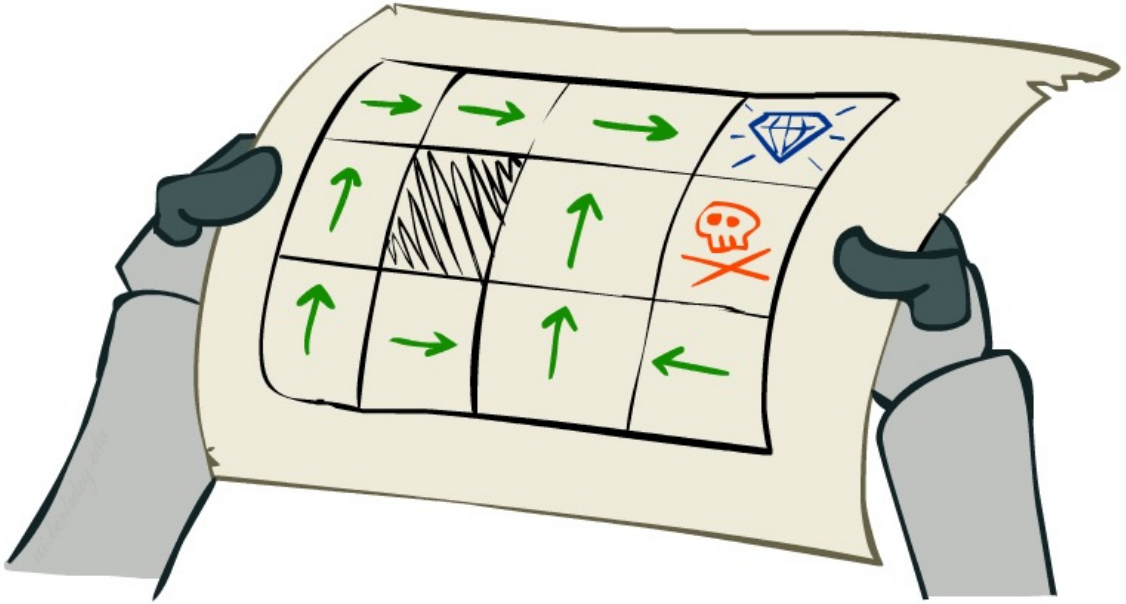


Passive Reinforcement Learning



Passive Reinforcement Learning

- Simplified task: policy evaluation
  - Input: a fixed policy $\pi(s)$
  - You don't know the transitions T(s,a,s')
  - You don't know the rewards R(s,a,s')
  - Goal: learn the state values



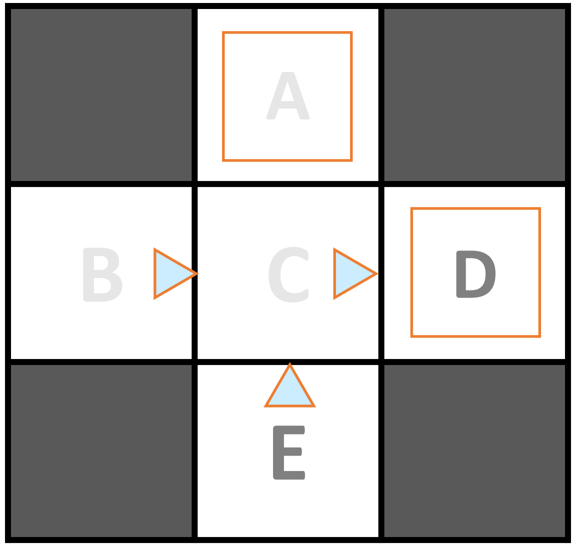
- In this case:
  - Learner is "along for the ride"
  - No choice about what actions to take
  - Just execute the policy and learn from experience
  - This is NOT offline planning! You actually take actions in the world.

Direct Evaluation

- Goal: Compute values for each state under π
- Idea: Average together observed sample values
  - Act according to π
  - Every time you visit a state, write down what the sum of discounted rewards turned out to be
  - Average those samples
- This is called direct evaluation

Example: Direct Evaluation

Input Policy π



Assume: $\gamma = 1$

Observed Episodes (Training)

Episode 1

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

Episode 2

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

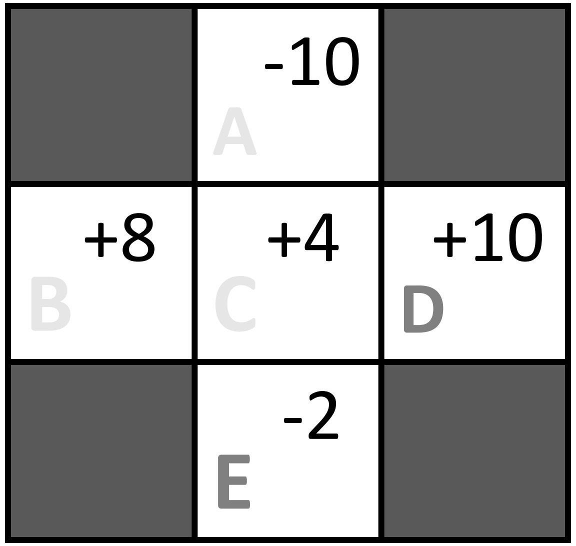
Episode 3

E, north, 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

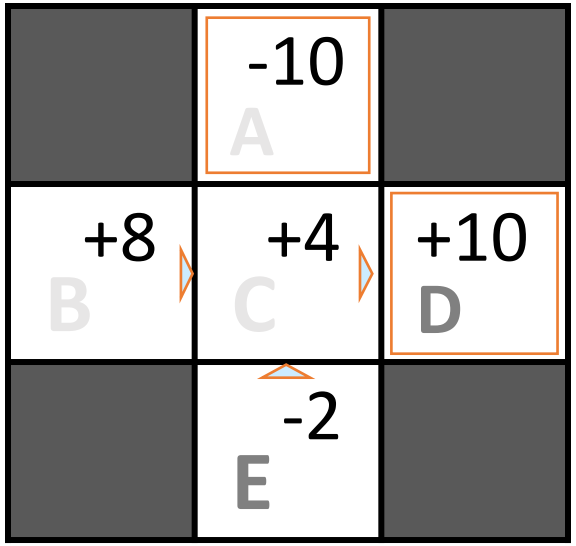


Problems with Direct Evaluation

- What's good about direct evaluation?
  - It's easy to understand
  - It doesn't require any knowledge of T, R
  - It eventually computes the correct average values, using just sample transitions

- What bad about it?
  - It wastes information about state connections
  - Each state must be learned separately
  - So, it takes a long time to learn

Output Values



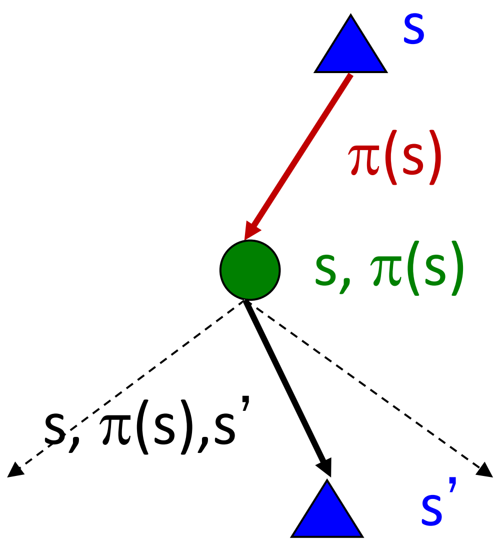
If B and E both go to C under this policy, how can their values be different?

Why Not Use Policy Evaluation?

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

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

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



  - 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?

Sample-Based Policy Evaluation?

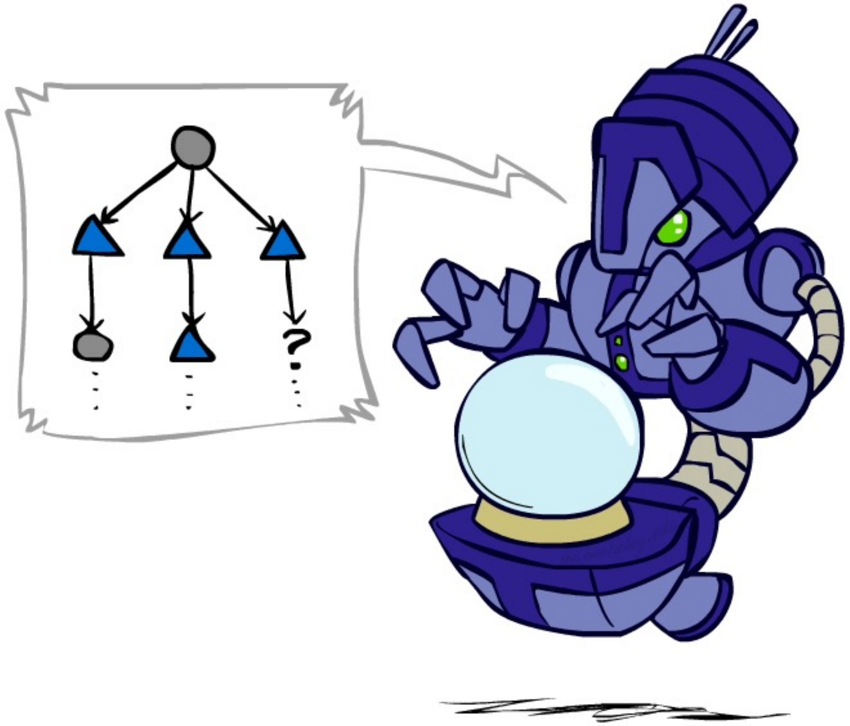
- We want to improve our estimate of V by computing these averages:

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

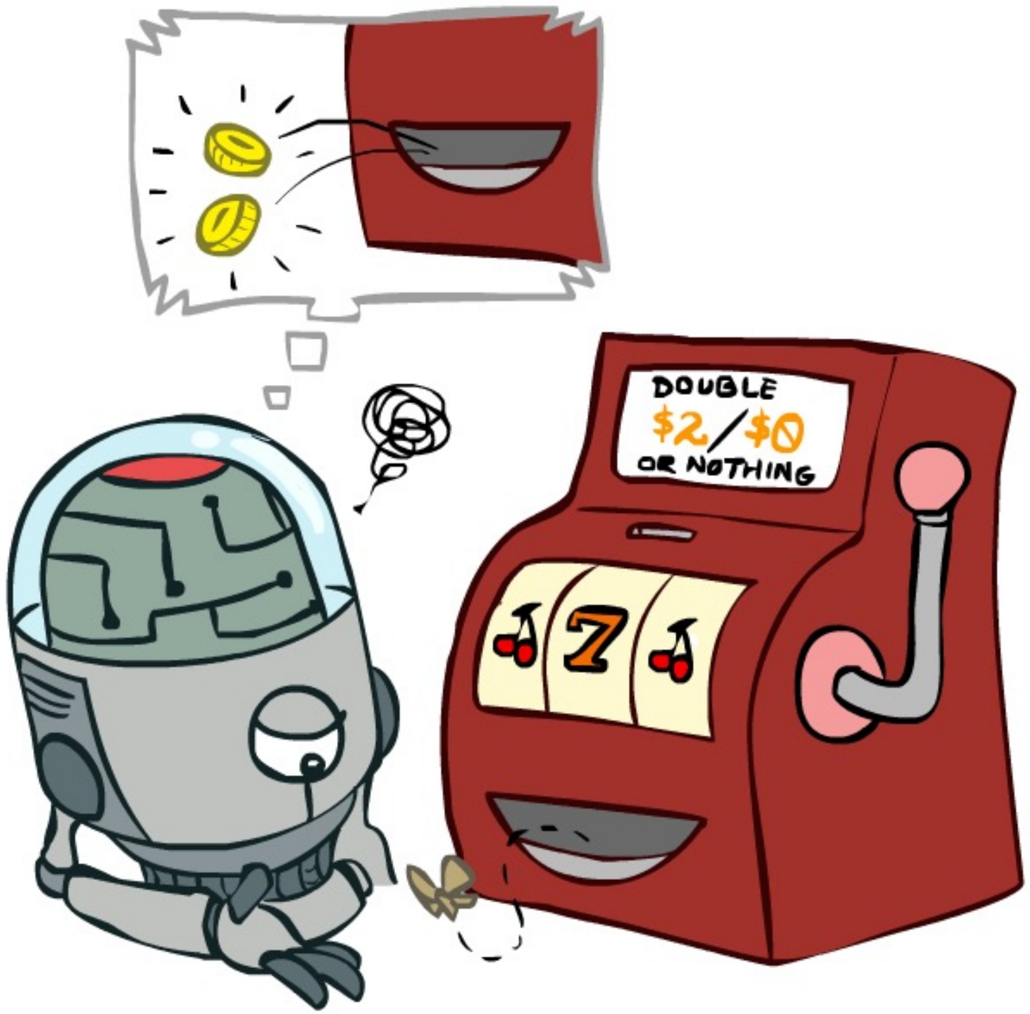
- Idea: Take samples of outcomes s' (by doing the action!) and average

$$sample_1 = R(s,\pi(s),s_1') + \gamma V_k^{\pi}(s_1')$$
$$sample_2 = R(s,\pi(s),s_2') + \gamma V_k^{\pi}(s_2')$$
$$\ldots$$
$$sample_n = R(s,\pi(s),s_n') + \gamma V_k^{\pi}(s_n')$$

$$V_{k+1}^{\pi}(s) \leftarrow \frac{1}{n}\sum_i sample_i$$



Temporal Difference Learning



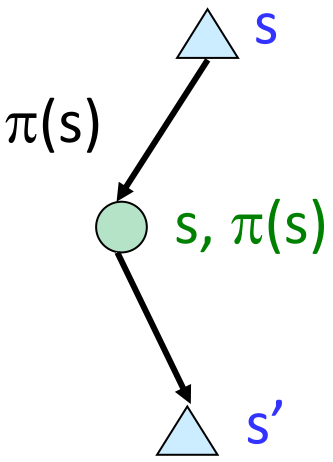
Temporal Difference Learning

Let suppose:

- V(1,3) = 0.84 and V(2,3) = 0.92

Any time the transition ((1,3), π((1,3)),(2,3)) occurs, we have

- V(1,3) = -0.04 + V(2,3) = 0.88



This entails that the current esteem is too small and it is better to increase it.

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

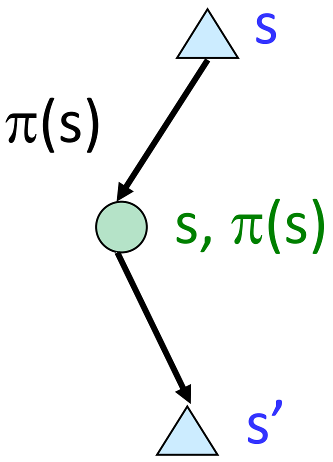
Update to V(s): $V^{\pi}(s) \leftarrow (1-\alpha)V^{\pi}(s) + (\alpha)sample$

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

Temporal Difference Learning

- 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

- Temporal difference learning of values
  - 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: $V^{\pi}(s) \leftarrow V^{\pi}(s) + \alpha(sample - V^{\pi}(s))$

Exponential Moving Average

- Exponential moving average
  - The running interpolation update: $\bar{x}_n = (1-\alpha)\cdot\bar{x}_{n-1} + \alpha\cdot x_n$
  - Makes recent samples more important:

$$\bar{x}_n = \frac{x_n + (1-\alpha)\cdot x_{n-1} + (1-\alpha)^2\cdot x_{n-2} + \dots}{1 + (1-\alpha) + (1-\alpha)^2 + \dots}$$

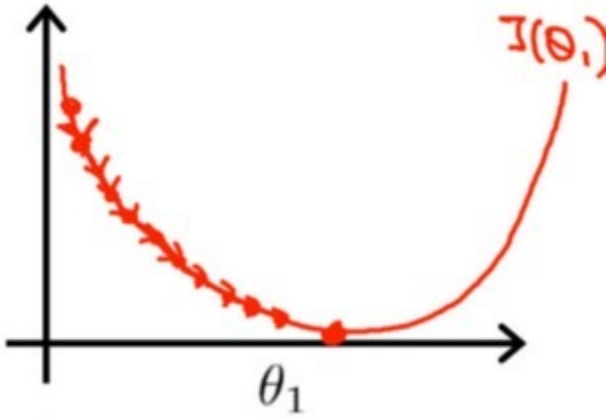
  - Forgets about the past (distant past values were wrong anyway)

- Decreasing learning rate (alpha) can give converging averages

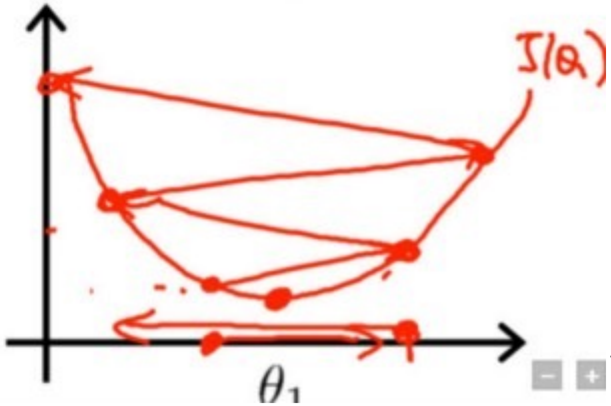
Similarly to the Gradient descent

$$\boxed{\theta_1 := \theta_1 - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_1} J(\theta_1)}$$

If α is too small, gradient descent can be slow.



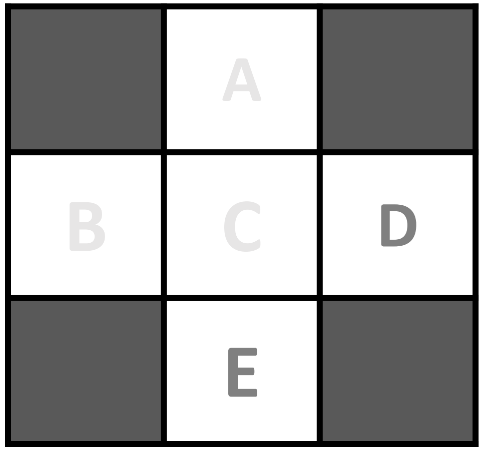
If α is too large, gradient descent can overshoot the minimum. It may fail to converge, or even diverge.



Andrew Ng’s course on Coursera

Example: Temporal Difference Learning

States

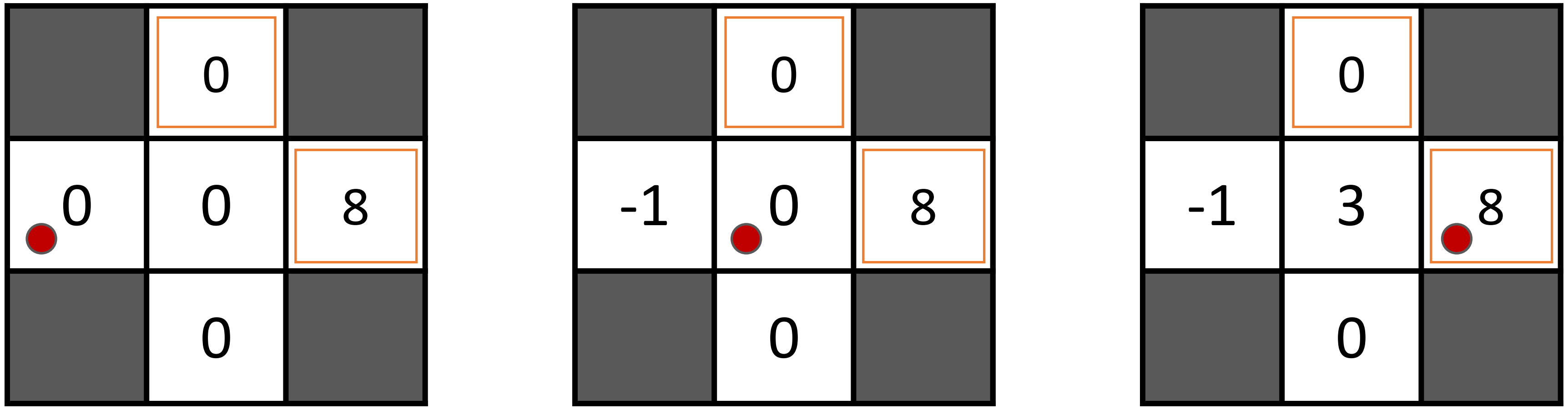


Assume: $\gamma = 1$, $\alpha = 1/2$

Observed Transitions

B, east, C, -2

C, east, D, -2



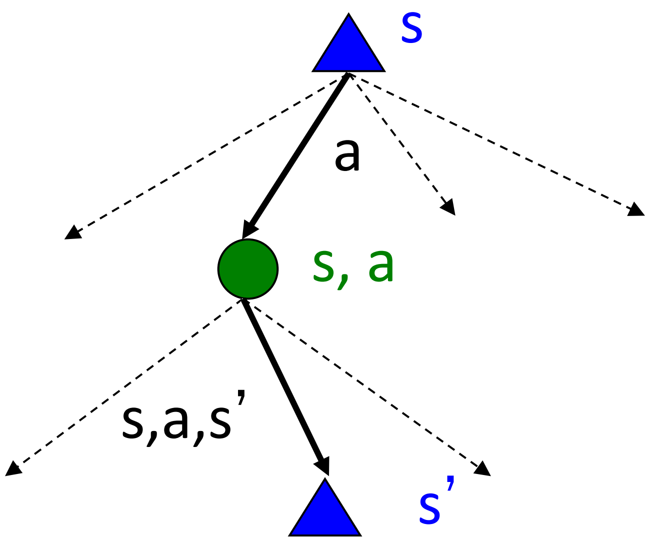
$$V^{\pi}(s) \leftarrow (1-\alpha)V^{\pi}(s) + \alpha\left[R(s,\pi(s),s') + \gamma V^{\pi}(s')\right]$$

Problems with TD Value Learning

- TD value leaning is a model-free way to do policy evaluation, mimicking Bellman updates with running sample averages
- However, if we want to turn values into a (new) policy, we're sunk:

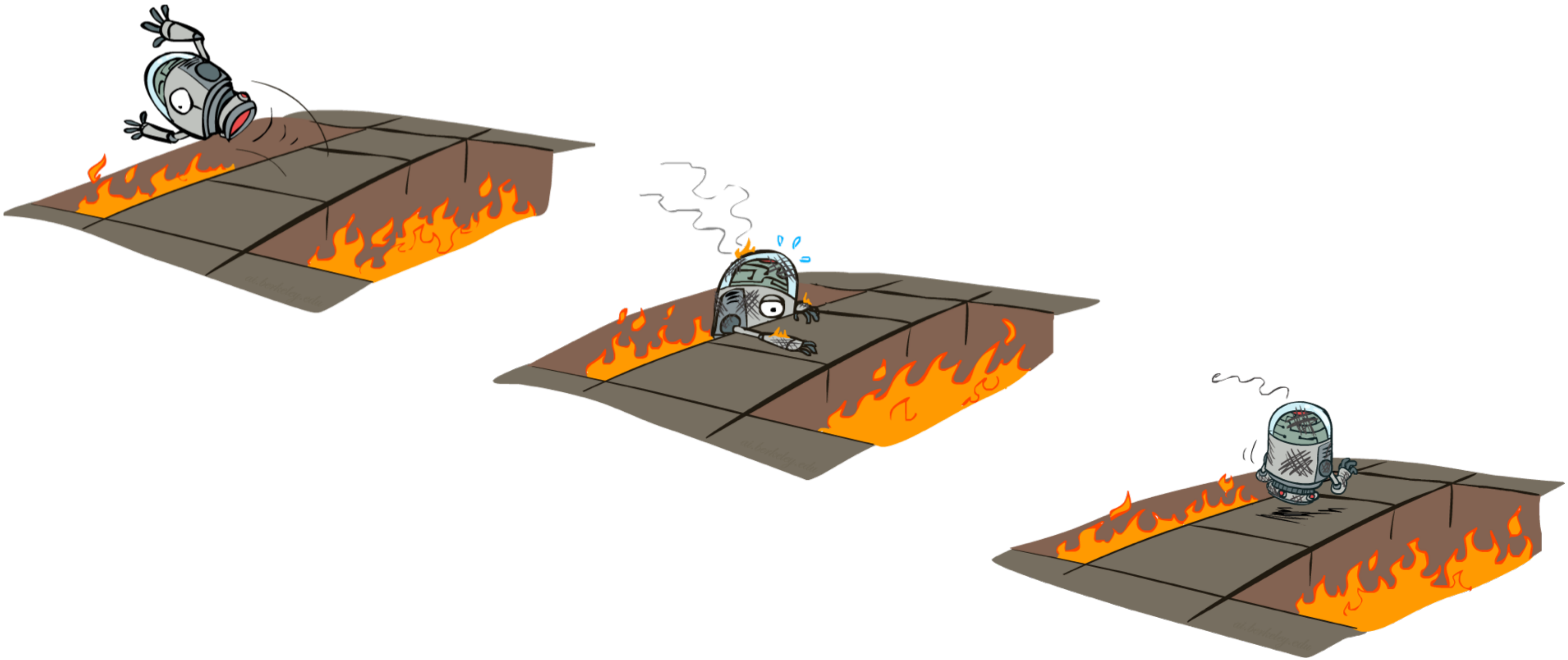
$$\pi(s) = \arg\max_a Q(s,a)$$

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



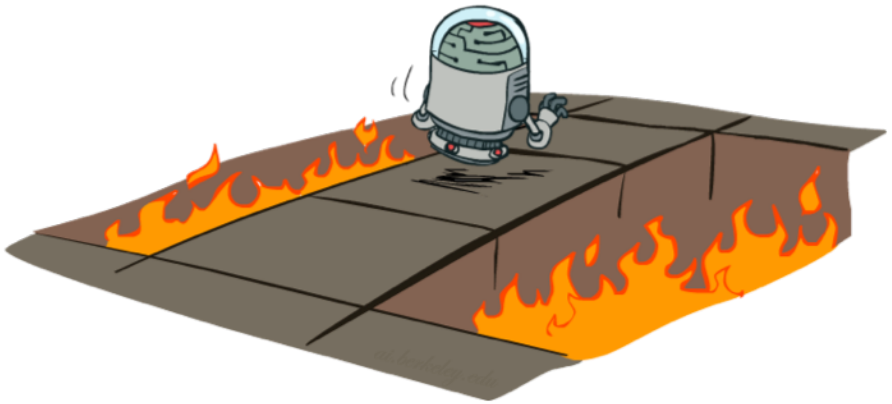
- Idea: learn Q-values, not values
- Makes action selection model-free too!

Active Reinforcement Learning



Active Reinforcement Learning

- Full reinforcement learning: optimal policies (like value iteration)
  - You don’t know the transitions T(s,a,s’)
  - You don’t know the rewards R(s,a,s’)
  - You choose the actions now
  - Goal: learn the optimal policy / values



- In this case:
  - Learner makes choices!
  - Fundamental tradeoff: exploration vs. exploitation
  - This is NOT offline planning! You actually take actions in the world and find out what happens…

Detour: Q-Value Iteration

- Value iteration: find successive (depth-limited) values
  - Start with $V_0(s) = 0$, which we know is right
  - Given V_k, calculate the depth k+1 values for all states:

$$V_{k+1}(s) \leftarrow \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma V_k(s')\right]$$

- But Q-values are more useful, so compute them instead
  - Start with $Q_0(s,a) = 0$, which we know is right
  - Given Q_k, calculate the depth k+1 q-values for all q-states:

$$Q_{k+1}(s,a) \leftarrow \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma \max_{a'} Q_k(s',a')\right]$$

Q-Learning

- Q-Learning: sample-based Q-value iteration

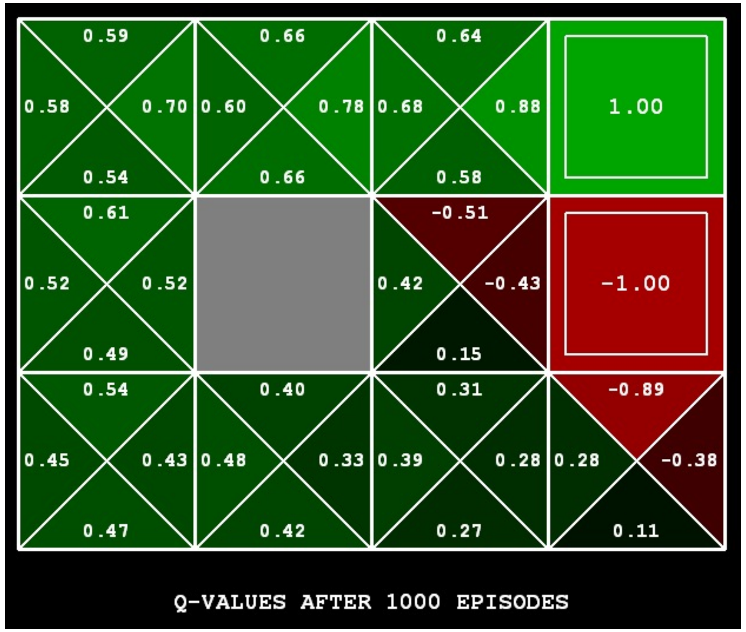
$$Q_{k+1}(s,a) \leftarrow \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma \max_{a'} Q_k(s',a')\right]$$

- 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:

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



[Demo: Q-learning – gridworld (L10D2)]
[Demo: Q-learning – crawler (L10D3)]

Video of Demo Q-Learning -- Gridworld

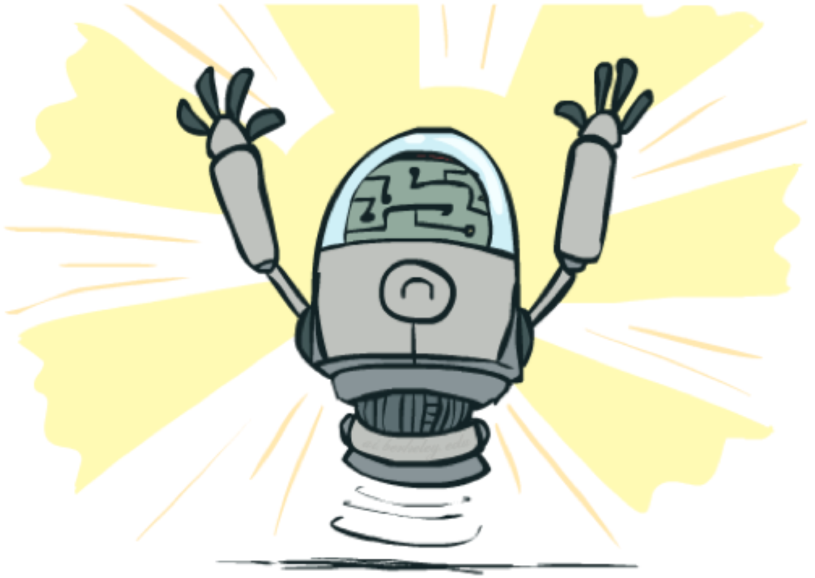
Video of Demo Q-Learning -- Crawler

Q-Learning Properties

- Amazing result: Q-learning converges to optimal policy -- even if you're acting suboptimally!

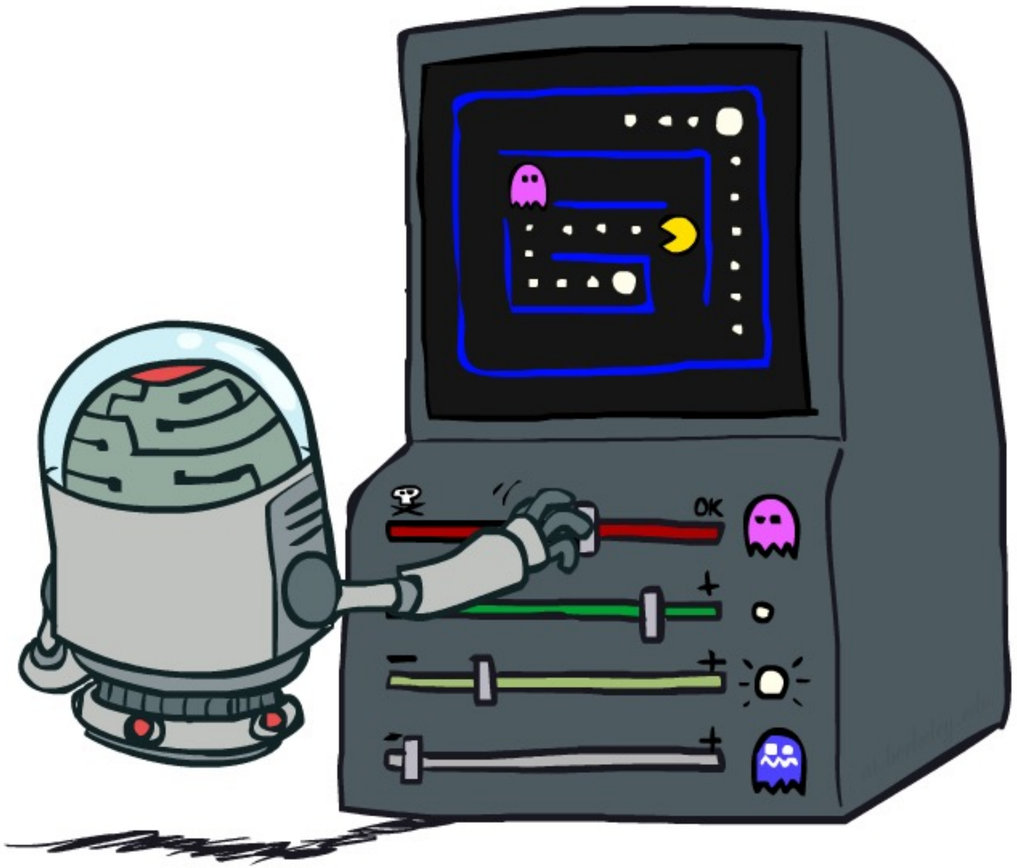
- This is called off-policy learning

- Caveats:
  - You have to explore enough
  - You have to eventually make the learning rate small enough
  - … but not decrease it too quickly
  - Basically, in the limit, it doesn't matter how you select actions (!)



CS 188: Artificial Intelligence

Reinforcement Learning II



Instructors: Dan Klein and Pieter Abbeel --- University of California, Berkeley

Reinforcement Learning

- We still assume an MDP:
  - A set of states $s \in S$
  - A set of actions (per state) A
  - A model $T(s,a,s')$
  - A reward function $R(s,a,s')$
- Still looking for a policy $\pi(s)$

- New twist: don't know T or R, so must try out actions

- Big idea: Compute all averages over T using sample outcomes

The Story So Far: MDPs and RL

Known MDP: Offline Solution

Goal	Technique
Compute V^*, Q^*, π^*	Value / policy iteration
Evaluate a fixed policy π	Policy evaluation

Unknown MDP: Model-Based

Goal	Technique
Compute V^*, Q^*, π^*	VI/PI on approx. MDP
Evaluate a fixed policy π	PE on approx. MDP

Unknown MDP: Model-Free

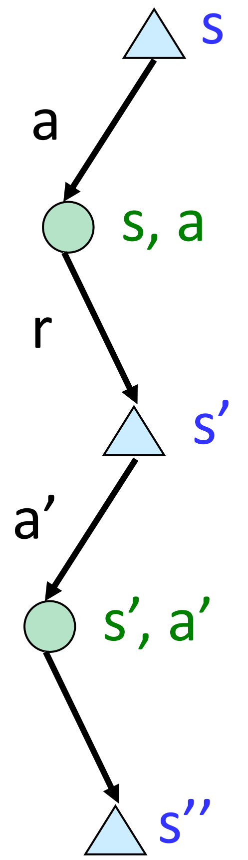
Goal	Technique
Compute V^*, Q^*, π^*	Q-learning
Evaluate a fixed policy π	Value Learning

Model-Free Learning

- Model-free (temporal difference) learning
  - Experience world through episodes

$$(s, a, r, s', a', r', s'', a'', r'', s'''' \ldots)$$

  - Update estimates each transition (s, a, r, s')
  - Over time, updates will mimic Bellman updates



Q-Learning

- We'd like to do Q-value updates to each Q-state:

$$Q_{k+1}(s,a) \leftarrow \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma \max_{a'} Q_k(s',a') \right]$$

  - But can't compute this update without knowing T, R

- Instead, compute average as we go
  - Receive a sample transition (s,a,r,s')
  - This sample suggests

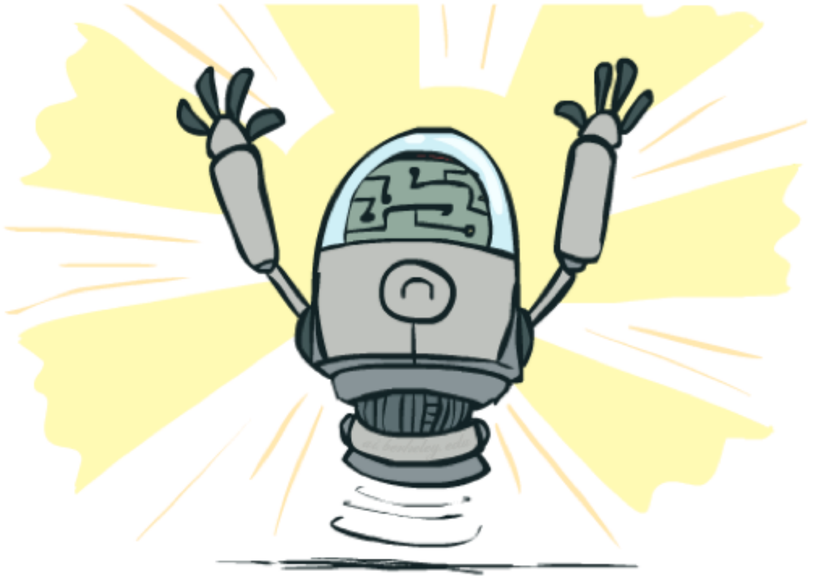
$$Q(s,a) \approx r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s',a')$$

  - But we want to average over results from (s,a) (Why?)
  - So keep a running average

$$Q(s,a) \leftarrow (1-\alpha)Q(s,a) + (\alpha) \left[r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s',a') \right]$$

Q-Learning Properties

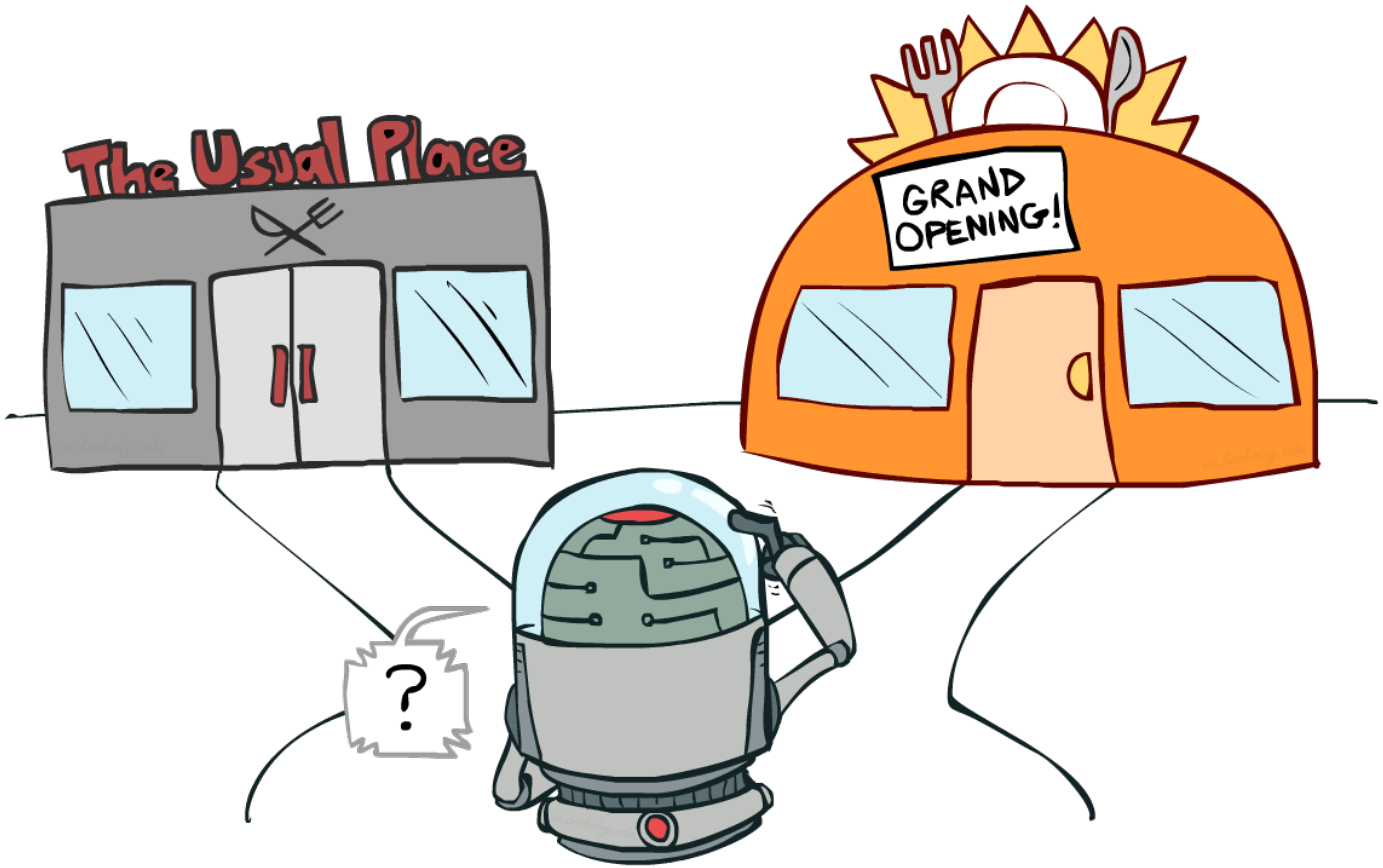
- Amazing result: Q-learning converges to optimal policy -- even if you're acting suboptimally!
- This is called off-policy learning
- Caveats:
  - You have to explore enough
  - You have to eventually make the learning rate small enough
  - … but not decrease it too quickly
  - Basically, in the limit, it doesn't matter how you select actions (!)



[Demo: Q-learning – auto – cliff grid (L11D1)]

Video of Demo Q-Learning Auto Cliff Grid

Exploration vs. Exploitation



How to Explore?

- Several schemes for forcing exploration
  - Simplest: random actions (ε-greedy)
    - Every time step, flip a coin
    - With (small) probability ε, act randomly
    - With (large) probability 1-ε, act on current policy
  - Problems with random actions?
    - You do eventually explore the space, but keep thrashing around once learning is done
    - One solution: lower ε over time
    - Another solution: exploration functions

[Demo: Q-learning – manual exploration – bridge grid (L11D2)]
[Demo: Q-learning – epsilon-greedy -- crawler (L11D3)]

Video of Demo Q-learning – Manual Exploration – Bridge Grid

Video of Demo Q-learning – Epsilon-Greedy – Crawler

Exploration Functions

- When to explore?
  - Random actions: explore a fixed amount
  - Better idea: explore areas whose badness is not (yet) established, eventually stop exploring

- Exploration function
  - Takes a value estimate u and a visit count n, and returns an optimistic utility, e.g.

$$f(u,n) = u + k/n$$

Regular Q-Update: $Q(s,a) \leftarrow_\alpha R(s,a,s') + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s',a')$

Modified Q-Update: $Q(s,a) \leftarrow_\alpha R(s,a,s') + \gamma \max_{a'} f(Q(s',a'),N(s',a'))$

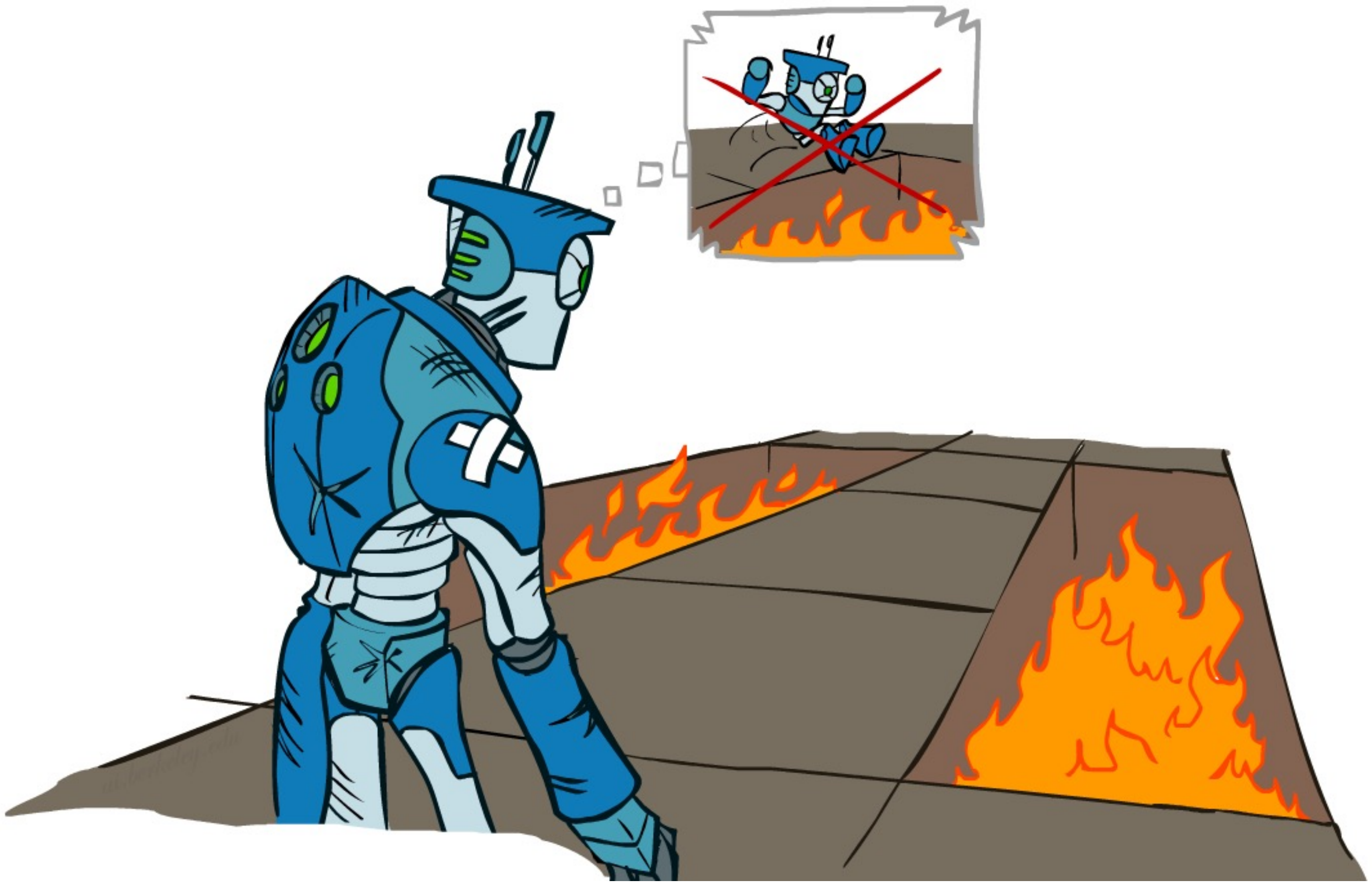
  - Note: this propagates the “bonus” back to states that lead to unknown states as well!

[Demo: exploration – Q-learning – crawler – exploration function (L11D4)]

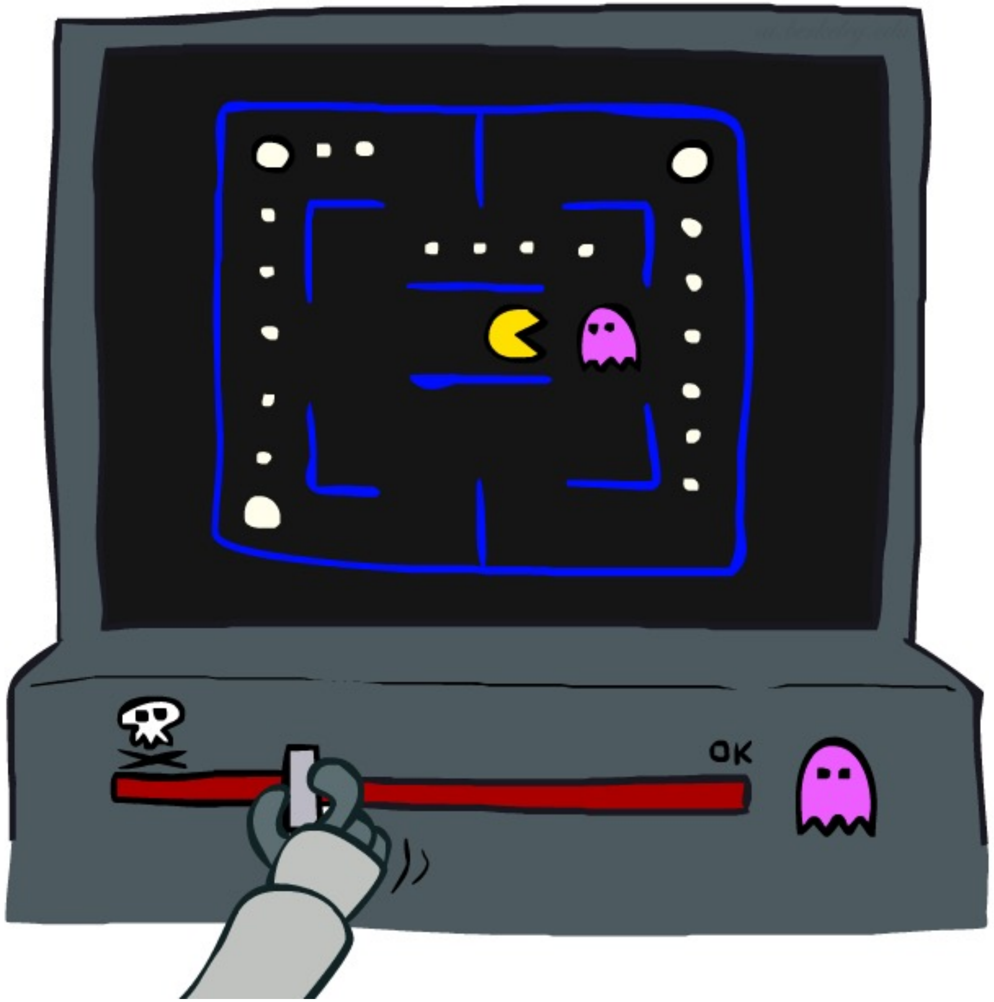
Video of Demo Q-learning – Exploration Function – Crawler

Regret

- Even if you learn the optimal policy, you still make mistakes along the way!
- Regret is a measure of your total mistake cost: the difference between your (expected) rewards, including youthful suboptimality, and optimal (expected) rewards
- Minimizing regret goes beyond learning to be optimal – it requires optimally learning to be optimal
- Example: random exploration and exploration functions both end up optimal, but random exploration has higher regret

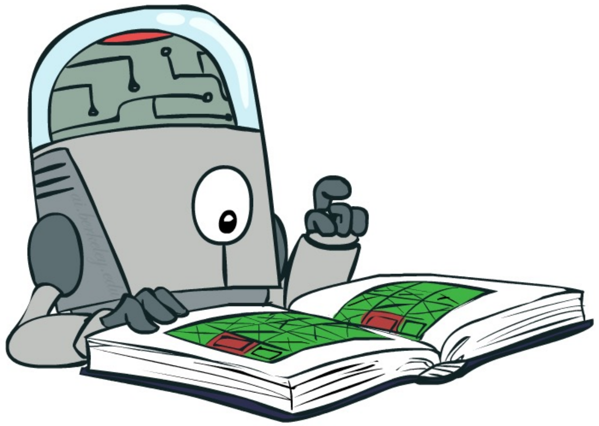


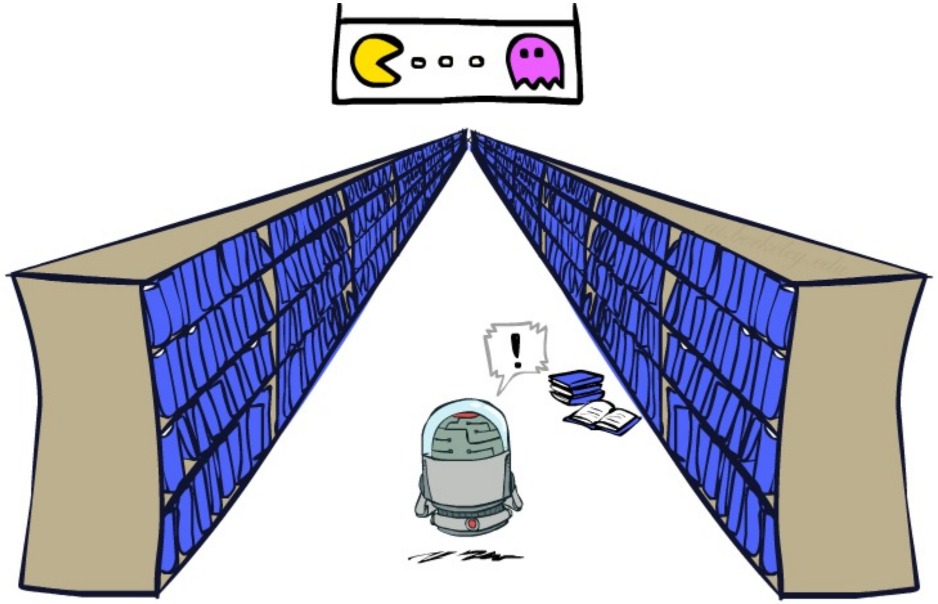
Approximate Q-Learning



Generalizing Across States

- Basic Q-Learning keeps a table of all q-values
- In realistic situations, we cannot possibly learn about every single state!
  - Too many states to visit them all in training
  - Too many states to hold the q-tables in memory
- Instead, we want to generalize:
  - Learn about some small number of training states from experience
  - Generalize that experience to new, similar situations
  - This is a fundamental idea in machine learning, and we'll see it over and over again

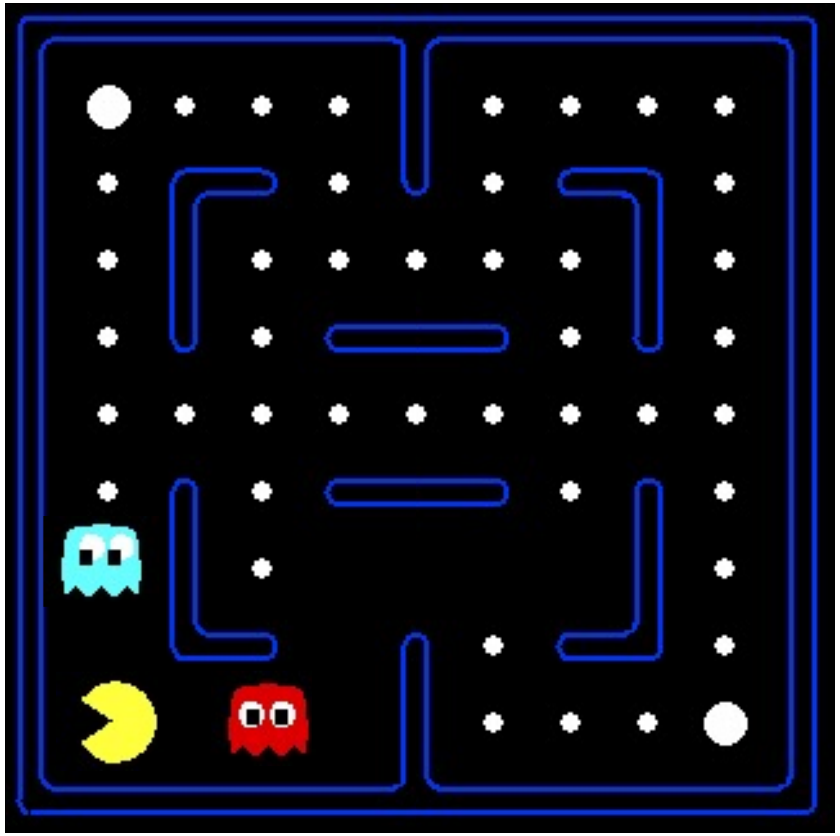




[demo – RL pacman]

Feature-Based Representations

- Solution: describe a state using a vector of features (properties)
  - Features are functions from states to real numbers (often 0/1) that capture important properties of the state
  - Example features:
    - Distance to closest ghost
    - Distance to closest dot
    - Number of ghosts
    - 1 / (dist to dot)^2
    - Is Pacman in a tunnel? (0/1)
    - …… etc.
    - Is it the exact state on this slide?
  - Can also describe a q-state (s, a) with features (e.g. action moves closer to food)



Linear Value Functions

- Using a feature representation, we can write a q function (or value function) for any state using a few weights:

$$V(s) = w_1 f_1(s) + w_2 f_2(s) + \ldots + w_n f_n(s)$$

$$Q(s,a) = w_1 f_1(s,a) + w_2 f_2(s,a) + \ldots + w_n f_n(s,a)$$

- Advantage: our experience is summed up in a few powerful numbers

- Disadvantage: states may share features but actually be very different in value!

Approximate Q-Learning

$$Q(s,a) = w_1 f_1(s,a) + w_2 f_2(s,a) + \ldots + w_n f_n(s,a)$$

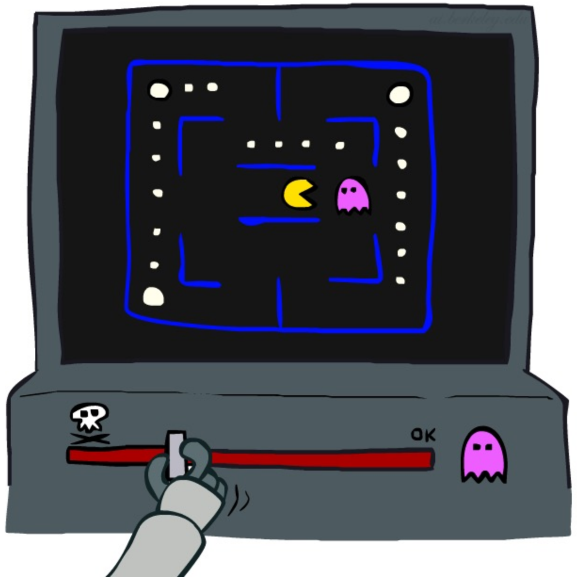
- Q-learning with linear Q-functions:

$$\text{transition } = (s, a, r, s')$$

$$\text{difference} = \left[r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a')\right] - Q(s,a)$$

$$Q(s,a) \leftarrow Q(s,a) + \alpha\,[\text{difference}] \qquad \text{Exact Q's}$$

$$w_i \leftarrow w_i + \alpha\,[\text{difference}]\, f_i(s,a) \qquad \text{Approximate Q's}$$

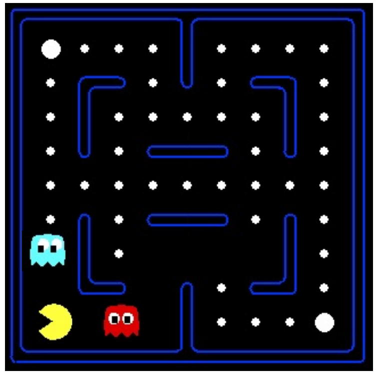


- Intuitive interpretation:
  - Adjust weights of active features
  - E.g., if something unexpectedly bad happens, blame the features that were on: disprefer all states with that state's features
- Formal justification: online least squares

Example: Q-Pacman

$$Q(s,a) = 4.0 f_{DOT}(s,a) - 1.0 f_{GST}(s,a)$$

s

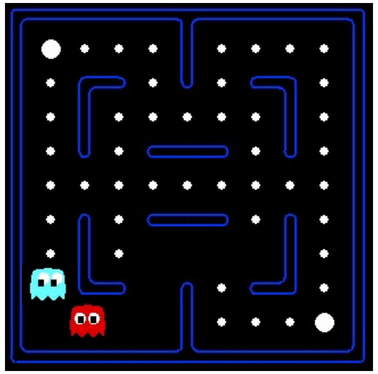


$f_{DOT}(s, \text{NORTH}) = 0.5$

$f_{GST}(s, \text{NORTH}) = 1.0$

$a = \text{NORTH}$
$r = -500$

s'



$Q(s, \text{NORTH}) = +1$

$Q(s', \cdot) = 0$

$$r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a') = -500 + 0$$

difference $= -501$

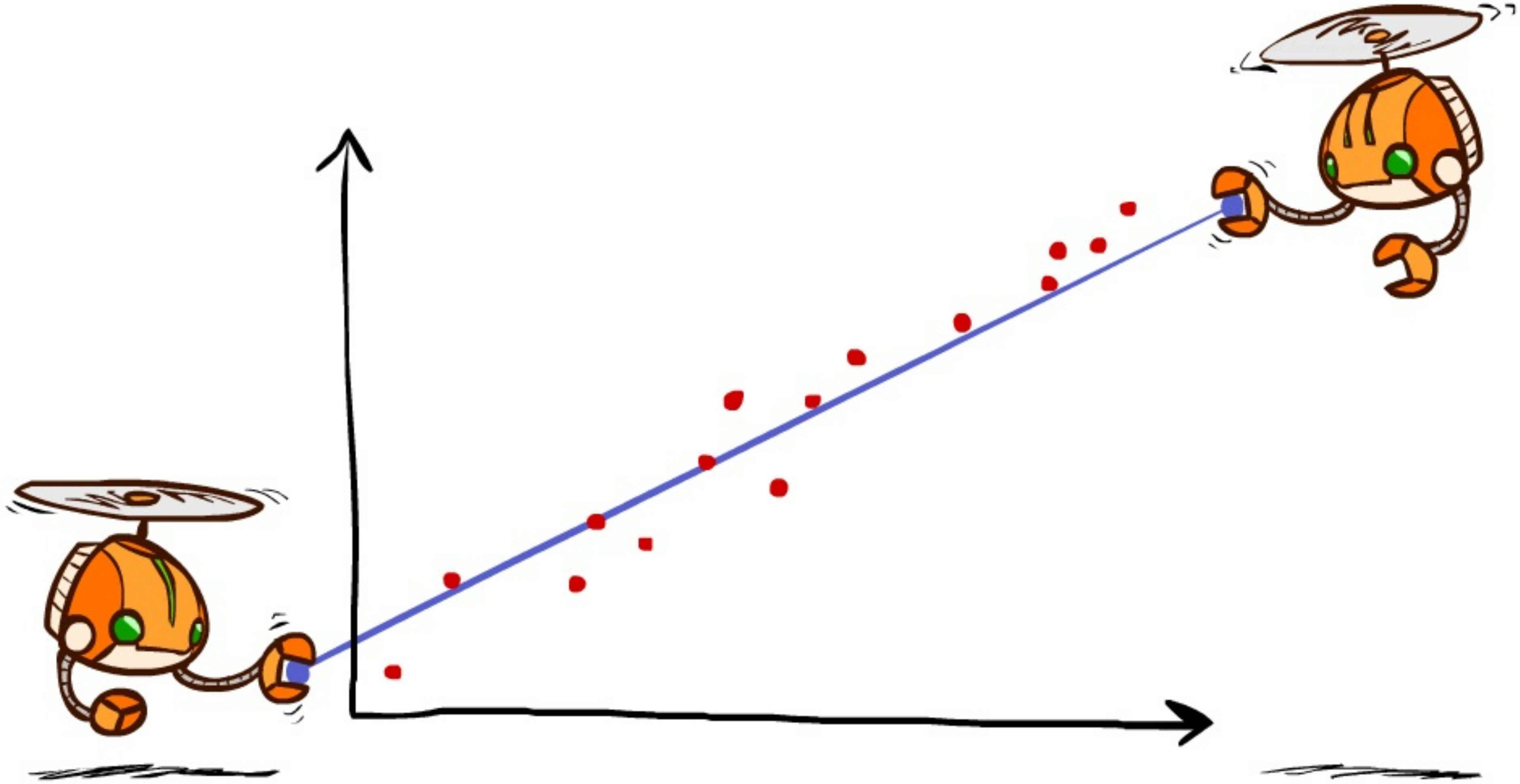
$$w_{DOT} \leftarrow 4.0 + \alpha \, [-501] \, 0.5$$
$$w_{GST} \leftarrow -1.0 + \alpha \, [-501] \, 1.0$$

$$Q(s,a) = 3.0 f_{DOT}(s,a) - 3.0 f_{GST}(s,a)$$

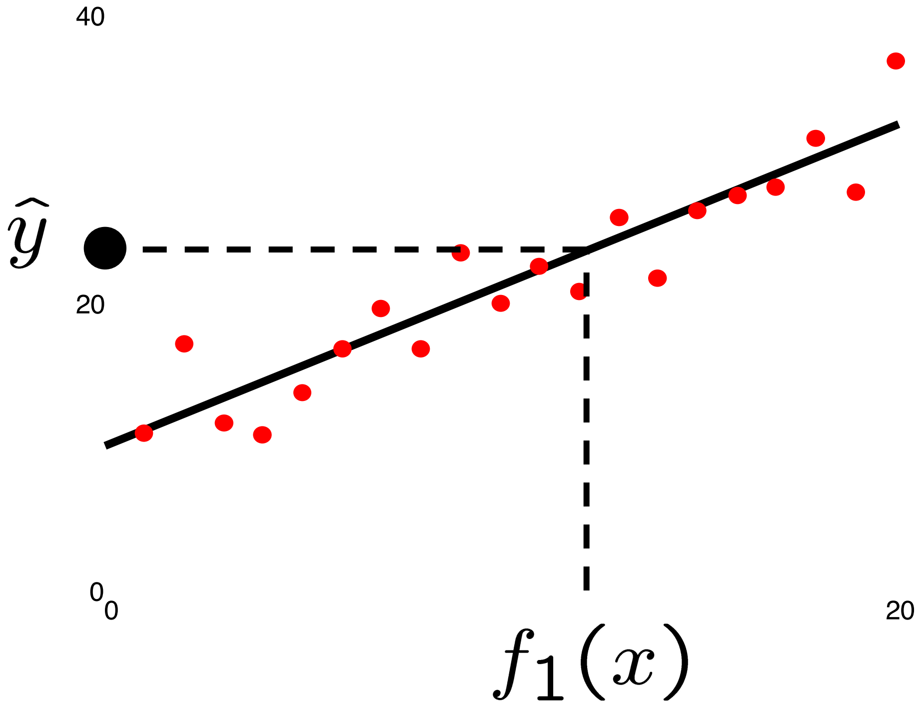
[Demo: approximate Q-learning pacman (L11D10)]

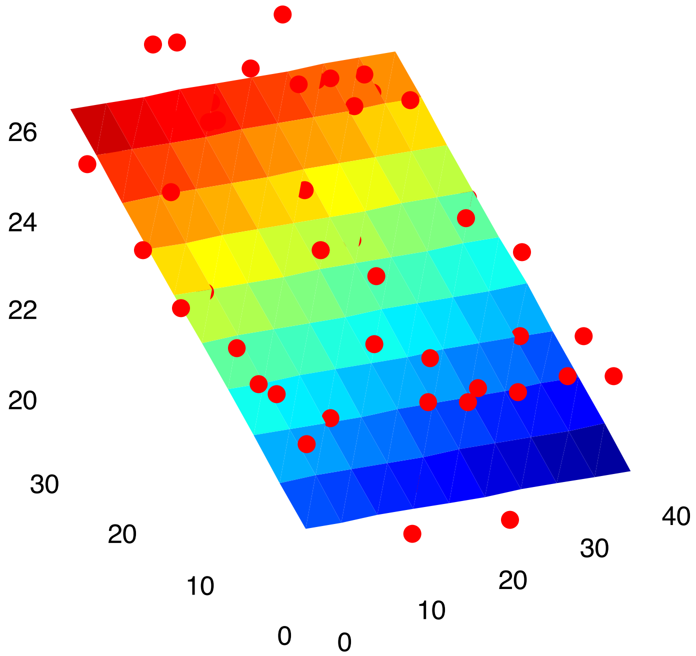
Video of Demo Approximate Q-Learning -- Pacman

Q-Learning and Least Squares



Linear Approximation: Regression*





Prediction:

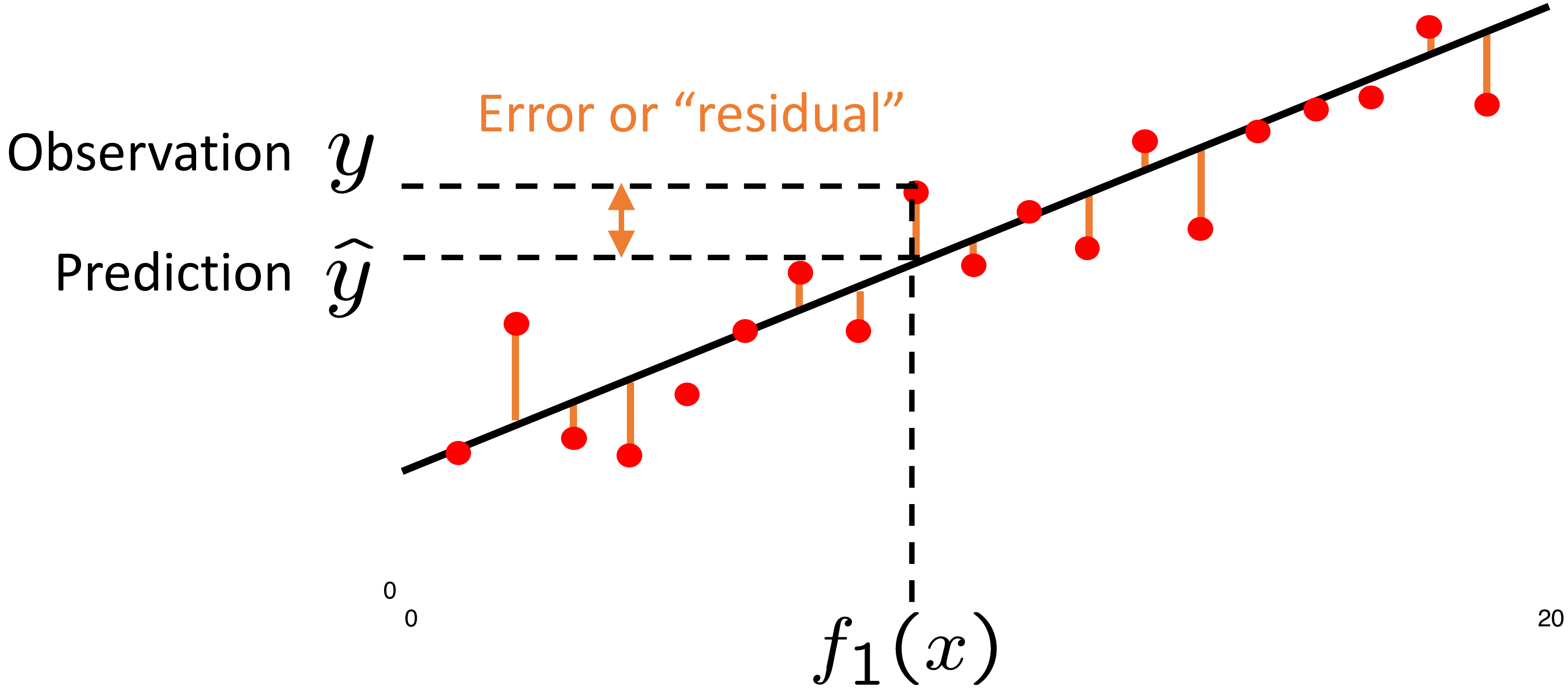
$$\hat{y} = w_0 + w_1 f_1(x)$$

Prediction:

$$\hat{y}_i = w_0 + w_1 f_1(x) + w_2 f_2(x)$$

Optimization: Least Squares*

$$\text{total error} = \sum_i (y_i - \widehat{y}_i)^2 = \sum_i \left(y_i - \sum_k w_k f_k(x_i) \right)^2$$



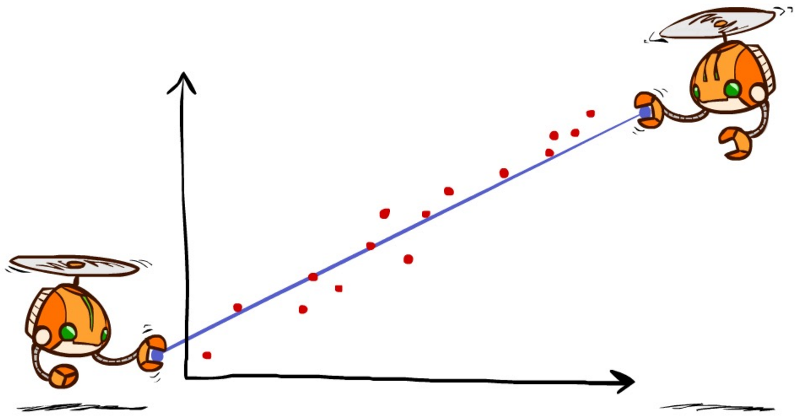
Minimizing Error*

Imagine we had only one point x, with features f(x), target value y, and weights w:

$$\text{error}(w) = \frac{1}{2}\left(y - \sum_k w_k f_k(x)\right)^2$$

$$\frac{\partial\, \text{error}(w)}{\partial w_m} = -\left(y - \sum_k w_k f_k(x)\right) f_m(x)$$

$$w_m \leftarrow w_m + \alpha \left(y - \sum_k w_k f_k(x)\right) f_m(x)$$

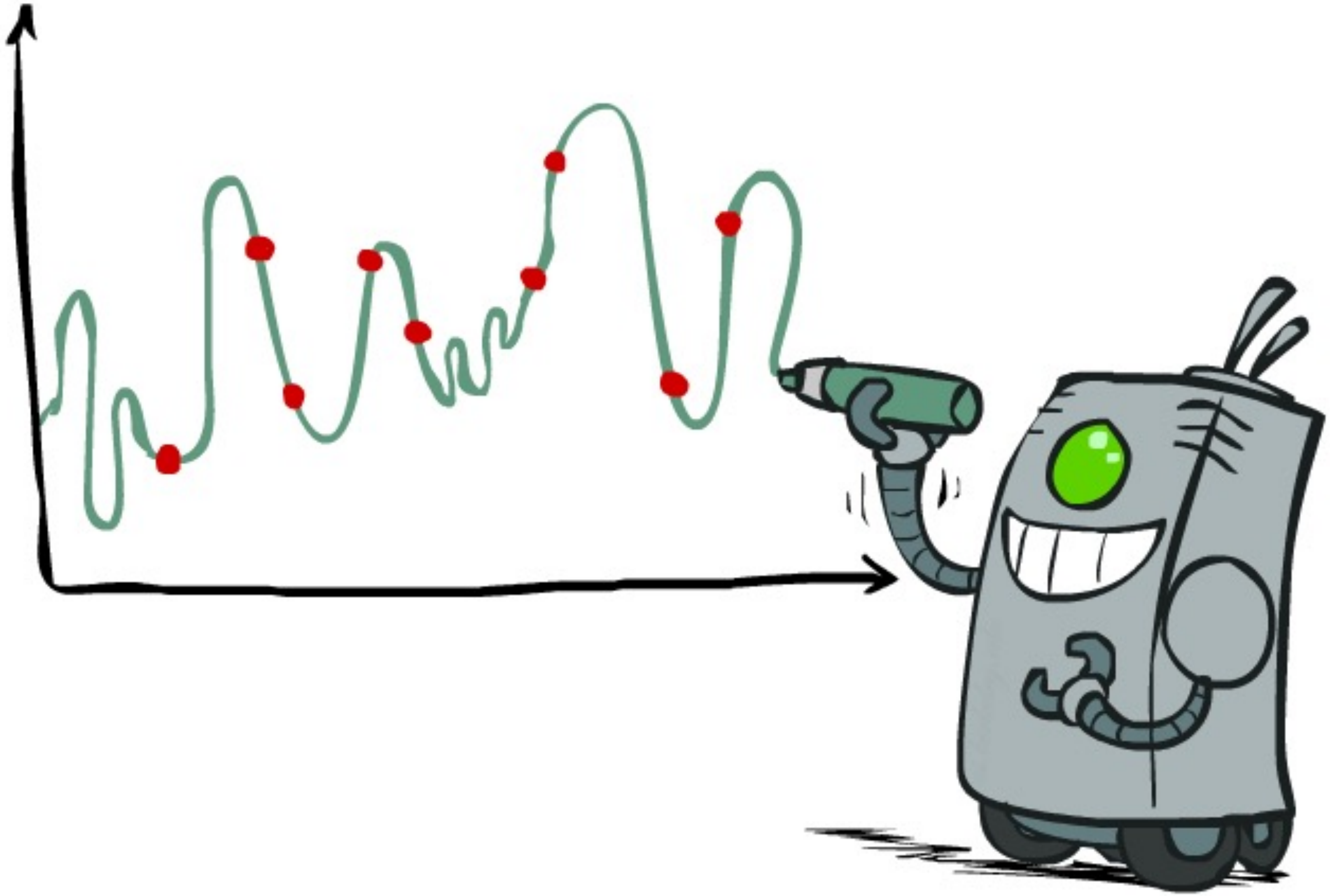


Approximate q update explained:

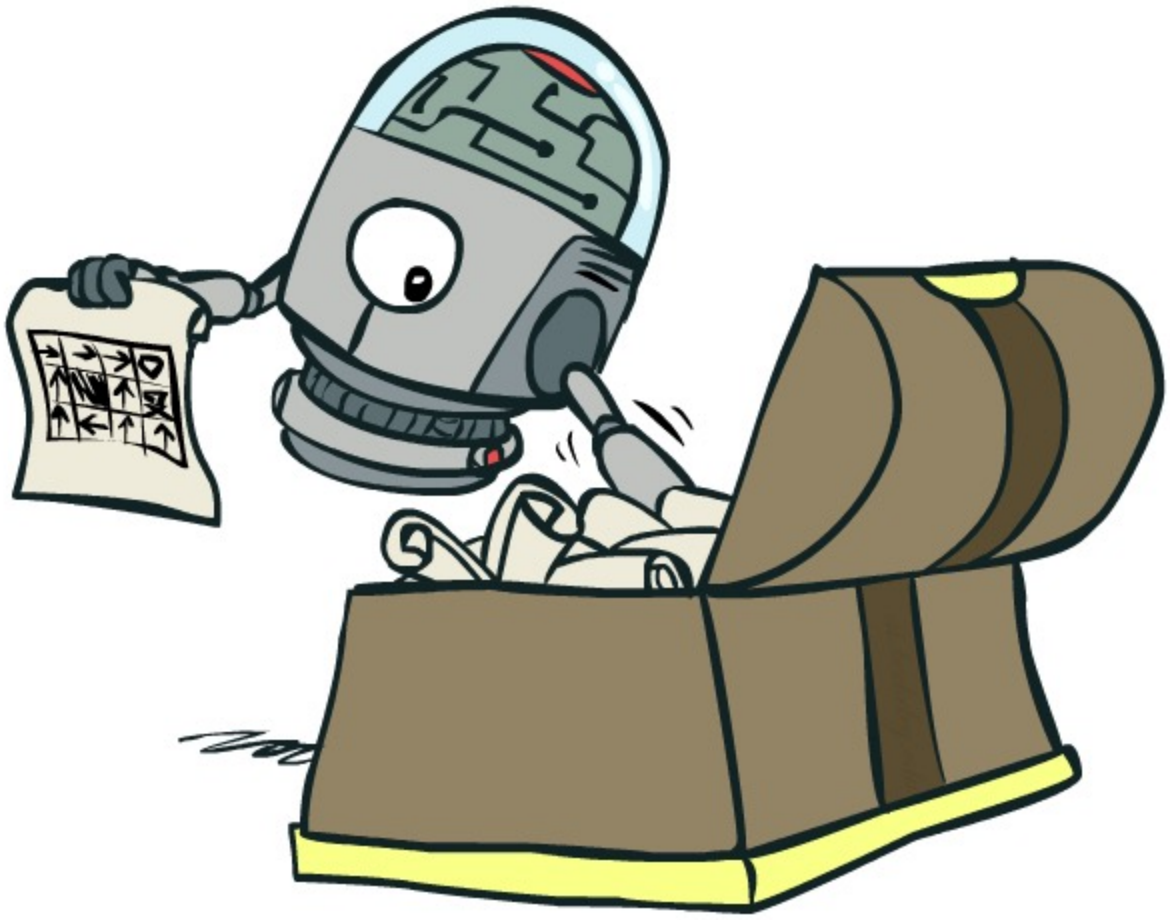
$$w_m \leftarrow w_m + \alpha \left[r + \gamma \max_a Q(s', a') - Q(s, a)\right] f_m(s, a)$$

"target" "prediction"

Overfitting: Why Limiting Capacity Can Help*



Policy Search



Policy Search

- Problem: often the feature-based policies that work well (win games, maximize utilities) aren't the ones that approximate V / Q best
  - E.g. your value functions from project 2 were probably horrible estimates of future rewards, but they still produced good decisions
  - Q-learning's priority: get Q-values close (modeling)
  - Action selection priority: get ordering of Q-values right (prediction)
  - We'll see this distinction between modeling and prediction again later in the course

- Solution: learn policies that maximize rewards, not the values that predict them

- Policy search: start with an ok solution (e.g. Q-learning) then fine-tune by hill climbing on feature weights

Policy Search

- Simplest policy search:
  - Start with an initial linear value function or Q-function
  - Nudge each feature weight up and down and see if your policy is better than before
- Problems:
  - How do we tell the policy got better?
  - Need to run many sample episodes!
  - If there are a lot of features, this can be impractical
- Better methods exploit lookahead structure, sample wisely, change multiple parameters…

Conclusion

- We're done with Part I: Search and Planning!
- We've seen how AI methods can solve problems in:
  - Search
  - Constraint Satisfaction Problems
  - Games
  - Markov Decision Problems
  - Reinforcement Learning
- Next up: Part II: Uncertainty and Learning!