

## Machine Learning

#### C. Reinforcement Learning C.2. Markov Decision Process

#### Lars Schmidt-Thieme

Information Systems and Machine Learning Lab (ISMLL) Institute for Computer Science University of Hildesheim, Germany

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## Outline



- 1. Introduction
- 2. Dynamic Programming and Reinforcement Learning
- 3. Monte Carlo Method
- 4. Temporal-Difference Prediction
- 5. Partially Observable Markov Decision Processes

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# Syllabus



Tue. 21.10.	(1)	0. Introduction
Wed. 22.10. Tue. 28.10. Wed. 29.10.	(2) (3) (4)	<b>A. Supervised Learning</b> A.1 Linear Regression A.2 Linear Classification A.3 Regularization
Tue. 4.11.	(5)	A.4 High-dimensional Data
Wed. 5.11.	(6)	A.5 Nearest-Neighbor Models
Tue. 11.11.	(7)	A.6 Decision Trees
Wed. 12.12.	(8)	A.7 Support Vector Machines
Tue. 18.11.	(9)	A.8 A First Look at Bayesian and Markov Networks
		B. Unsupervised Learning
Wed. 19.11.	(10)	B.1 Clustering
Tue. 25.11.	(11)	B.2 Dimensionality Reduction
Wed. 26.11.	(12)	B.3 Frequent Pattern Mining
Tue 0.10	(12)	C. Reinforcement Learning
Tue. 2.12.	(13)	
vved. 3.12.	(14)	C.2 Markov Decision Processes
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## Agent-Environment Interaction





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## Agent-Environment Interaction





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## Agent-Environment Interaction





- learner and decisionmaker is called agent
- the agent interacts with the environment (everything outside the agent)
- the agents selects actions and the environment responds with new situations and rewards
- ▶ the agents tries to maximize the rewards over time

[SB98, fig. 3.1]



Markov Decision Process (MDP)

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- Markov Decision Process (MDP)
- ► An MDP consists of States S (fully observed), actions A, rewards  $r_a(s) = R(s, a, s')$  and transition probabilities  $T_a(s, s')$

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- Markov Decision Process (MDP)
- An MDP consists of States S (fully observed), actions A, rewards  $r_a(s) = R(s, a, s')$  and transition probabilities  $T_a(s, s')$
- Our System is Markovian, so the transition function depends just on the current state:

$$P(s_{t+1} \mid s_t, a_t, s_{t-1}, a_{t-1}, \ldots) = P(s_{t+1} \mid s_t, a_t) = T_{a_t}(s, s')$$



• A **policy**  $\pi$  describes how actions are picked at each state:

Overview



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- We can find  $V^{\pi}$  by solving a linear system of equations
- Policy iteration gives a greedy local search procedure based on the value of policies

#### Markov Decision Process





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[Mur12, fig. 10.13 (b)]

#### Markov Decision Process





► influence diagram of an MDP

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- ► influence diagram of an MDP
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## Markov Decision Process





- ► influence diagram of an MDP
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- ► assume Markov Property holds as nearly as possible

[Mur12, fig. 10.13 (b)]

## Action-Value Function





Similarly to the Value function we define the value of taking action a in state s under a policy  $\pi$ , denoted as  $Q^{\pi}(s, a)$ 



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expected return starting from s, taking action a and following policy  $\pi$ 

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expected return starting from s, taking action a and following policy  $\pi$ We call  $Q^{\pi}$  action-value function for policy  $\pi$ return means a function of future rewards that the agent seeks to maximize

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Machine Learning 2. Dynamic Programming and Reinforcement Learning

## Dynamic Programming (DP)



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- assume the environment is a finite MDP, state and action sets are finite

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## **Optimal Policies and Optimal Value Functions**

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► the best value that can be achieved at each state

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- both policy iteration and value iteration can be used

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Update rule with recursive Bellman equations

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- Similar update for policy evaluation
- more efficient: instead of updating every state on every iteration, focus on important states

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derive optimal policy without explicitly learning the model



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Model-free:

- derive optimal policy without explicitly learning the model
- ► useful when model is difficult to represent and/or learn

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- e.g. generate trajectories through the MDP and update states whenever they appear on such a trajectory

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- ► asynchronous algorithms allow great flexibility in selecting states
- e.g. generate trajectories through the MDP and update states whenever they appear on such a trajectory or: important states like: visited often during a game/procedure

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#### Introduction



#### Introduction



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- only for episodic tasks, i.e. we assume experience is divided into episodes
- only after completition of an episode value estimates and policies are changed

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#### Monte Carlo Method (simple)



# Monte Carlo Method (simple)

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- suppose we have episodic tasks
- $\blacktriangleright$  the agent behaves according to some policy  $\pi$  for a while, generating several trajectories

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## Monte Carlo Method (simple)

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- ► Compute V<sup>π</sup>(s) by averaging the observed returns after s on the trajectories in which s was visited
- Every-Visit MC: average returns for every time s is visited in an episode

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## Monte Carlo Method (simple)

- suppose we have episodic tasks
- $\blacktriangleright$  the agent behaves according to some policy  $\pi$  for a while, generating several trajectories
- ► Compute V<sup>π</sup>(s) by averaging the observed returns after s on the trajectories in which s was visited
- Every-Visit MC: average returns for every time s is visited in an episode
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- ▶ do the computation incrementally: after received return  $R_t$ , update

$$V(s_t) \leftarrow V(s_t) + lpha(R_t - V(s_t)), lpha \in (0,1)$$
 learning rate

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#### First-visit Monte Carlo policy evaluation



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[SB98, fig. 5.1]

#### Example: Blackjack



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• object: card sum to be greater than the dealers, not exceeding 21

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#### Example: Blackjack

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- $\blacktriangleright$  Dealer's fixed strategy: stick if  $\leq 17$  and hit if < 17

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## Example: Blackjack/approximate value functions





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#### Monte Carlo Estimation of Action Values



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#### Monte Carlo Estimation of Action Values

 If a model is not available, then it is particularly useful to estimate action values rather than the values

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- ► estimate Q<sup>π</sup>(s, a), he expected return when starting in state s, taking action a and following policy π

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  e.g. every state-action pair has a non-zero proability of being starting pair



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is done by making the policy greedy with respect to the current value function  $% \left( {{{\left[ {{{\left[ {{{c_{1}}} \right]}} \right]}_{i}}}} \right)$ 



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

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policy improvement can then be done by constructing each  $\pi_{k+1}$  as the greedy policy with respect to  $Q^{\pi_k}$ 

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$$Q^{\pi_k}(s,\pi_{k+1}(s)) = Q^{\pi_k}(s,rg\max_a Q^{\pi_k}(s,a))$$

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#### Outline



- 1. Introduction
- 2. Dynamic Programming and Reinforcement Learning
- 3. Monte Carlo Method
- 4. Temporal-Difference Prediction
- 5. Partially Observable Markov Decision Processes

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Machine Learning 4. Temporal-Difference Prediction

# Temporal-Difference (TD)





• Monte Carlo uses actual return  $R_t$  for estimating the value function:

$$V(s_t) \leftarrow V(s_t) + \alpha [R_t - V(s_t)]$$

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• if  $V(s_{t+1})$  were correct, this would be like dynamic programming

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# TD Learning Algorithm



Initialize V(s) arbitrarily,  $\pi$  to the policy to be evaluated Repeat (for each episode): Initialize sRepeat (for each step of episode):  $a \leftarrow$  action given by  $\pi$  for sTake 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

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No model of the environment

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- No model of the environment
- ► TD only needs experience with the environment

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- Online, incremental learning:

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  - less memory required

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- No model of the environment
- TD only needs experience with the environment
- ► Online, incremental learning:
  - can learn before knowing the final outcome
  - less memory required
- ► both TD and MC converge, but TD usually learns faster

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- we want to find a mapping from probability distributions (over states) to actions
- ► a probability distributions over state are called **belief states** b and the entire probability space the **belief space**
- ► so agent needs to update its belief upon taking action a and observation o, b' = \(\tau(b, a, o)\), wth \(\tau\) belief state transition function

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#### Policy and Value Function

▶ policy  $\pi$  and action  $a = \pi(b)$  for any belief,  $b_0$  initial belief state

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## Policy and Value Function

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optimal value function

$$V^*(b) = \max_{a} \left[ r(b,a) + \gamma \sum_{o \in O} \Omega(o \mid b, a) V^*(\tau(b, a, o)) \right]$$

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# Further Readings

- ► [SB98, chapter 5,6,7].
- ► [WvO12].

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