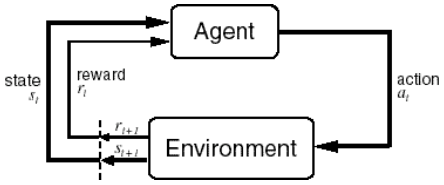
Chapter 3: The Reinforcement Learning Problem

Objectives of this chapter:

- describe the RL problem we will be studying for the remainder of the course
- present idealized form of the RL problem for which we have precise theoretical results;
- introduce key components of the mathematics: value functions and Bellman equations;
- describe trade-offs between applicability and mathematical tractability.

The Agent-Environment Interface



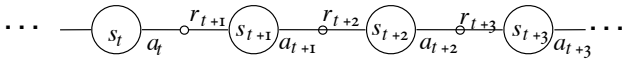
Agent and environment interact at discrete time steps : $t = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$

Agent observes state at step t: $s_t \in S$

produces action at step t: $a_t \in A(s_t)$

gets resulting reward : $r_{t+1} \in \Re$

and resulting next state : s_{t+1}



The Agent Learns a Policy

Policy at step t, π_t :

a mapping from states to action probabilities

$\pi_t(s, a) =$ probability that $a_t = a$ when $s_t = s$

- Reinforcement learning methods specify how the agent changes its policy as a result of experience.
- Roughly, the agent's goal is to get as much reward as it can over the long run.

Getting the Degree of Abstraction Right

- Time steps need not refer to fixed intervals of real time.
- Actions can be low level (e.g., voltages to motors), or high level (e.g., accept a job offer), "mental" (e.g., shift in focus of attention), etc.
- States can be low-level "sensations", or they can be abstract, symbolic, based on memory, or subjective (e.g., the state of being "surprised" or "lost").
- An RL agent is not like a whole animal or robot, which consist of many RL agents as well as other components.
- The environment is not necessarily unknown to the agent, only incompletely controllable.
- Reward computation is in the agent's environment because the agent cannot change it arbitrarily.

Goals and Rewards

- Is a scalar reward signal an adequate notion of a goal?—maybe not, but it is surprisingly flexible.
- A goal should specify **what** we want to achieve, not **how** we want to achieve it.
- A goal must be outside the agent's direct control—thus outside the agent.
- The agent must be able to measure success:
  - explicitly;
  - frequently during its life-span.

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Returns

Suppose the sequence of rewards after step t is :

$r_{t+1}, r_{t+2}, r_{t+3}, \ldots$

What do we want to maximize?

In general,

we want to maximize the **expected return**, $E\{R_t\}$, for each step t.

Episodic tasks: interaction breaks naturally into episodes, e.g., plays of a game, trips through a maze.

$$R_t = r_{t+1} + r_{t+2} + \cdots + r_T,$$

where T is a final time step at which a **terminal state** is reached, ending an episode.

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Returns for Continuing Tasks

Continuing tasks: interaction does not have natural episodes.

Discounted return:

$$R_t = r_{t+1} + \gamma r_{t+2} + \gamma^2 r_{t+3} + \cdots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k r_{t+k+1},$$

where $\gamma, 0 \le \gamma \le 1$, is the **discount rate**

shortsighted $0 \leftarrow \gamma \rightarrow 1$ farsighted

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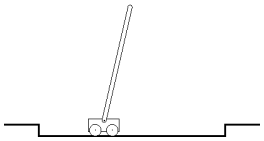
An Example



Avoid **failure:** the pole falling beyond a critical angle or the cart hitting end of track.

As an **episodic task** where episode ends upon failure:

reward = +1 for each step before failure

$\Rightarrow$ return = number of steps before failure

As a **continuing task** with discounted return:

reward = –1 upon failure; 0 otherwise

$\Rightarrow$ return is related to $-\gamma^k$, for k steps before failure

In either case, return is maximized by avoiding failure for as long as possible.

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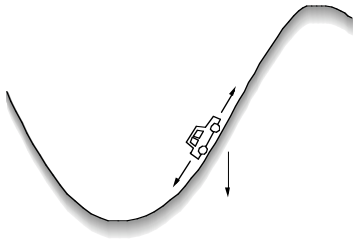
Another Example



Get to the top of the hill as quickly as possible.

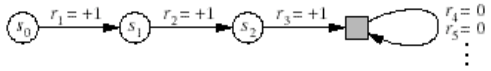
reward = –1 for each step where **not** at top of hill

⇒ return = – number of steps before reaching top of hill

Return is maximized by minimizing number of steps reach the top of the hill.

A Unified Notation

- In episodic tasks, we number the time steps of each episode starting from zero.
- We usually do not have to distinguish between episodes, so we write s_t instead of $s_{t,j}$ for the state at step t of episode j.
- Think of each episode as ending in an absorbing state that always produces reward of zero:



- We can cover all cases by writing

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

where γ can be 1 only if a zero reward absorbing state is always reached.

The Markov Property

- By "the state" at step t, the book means whatever information is available to the agent at step t about its environment.
- The state can include immediate "sensations," highly processed sensations, and structures built up over time from sequences of sensations.
- Ideally, a state should summarize past sensations so as to retain all "essential" information, i.e., it should have the **Markov Property**:

$$\Pr\left\{s_{t+1} = s', r_{t+1} = r \mid s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t-1}, a_{t-1}, \ldots, r_1, s_0, a_0\right\} =$$
$$\Pr\left\{s_{t+1} = s', r_{t+1} = r \mid s_t, a_t\right\}$$

for all s', r, and histories $s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t-1}, a_{t-1}, \ldots, r_1, s_0, a_0$.

Markov Decision Processes

- If a reinforcement learning task has the Markov Property, it is basically a **Markov Decision Process (MDP)**.
- If state and action sets are finite, it is a **finite MDP**.
- To define a finite MDP, you need to give:
  - **state and action sets**
  - one-step "dynamics" defined by **transition probabilities**

$$P^a_{ss'} = \Pr\left\{s_{t+1} = s' \mid s_t = s, a_t = a\right\} \quad \text{for all } s, s' \in S,\ a \in A(s).$$

  - **reward expectations**:

$$R^a_{ss'} = E\left\{r_{t+1} \mid s_t = s, a_t = a, s_{t+1} = s'\right\} \quad \text{for all } s, s' \in S,\ a \in A(s).$$

An Example Finite MDP

Recycling Robot

- At each step, robot has to decide whether it should (1) actively search for a can, (2) wait for someone to bring it a can, or (3) go to home base and recharge.
- Searching is better but runs down the battery; if runs out of power while searching, has to be rescued (which is bad).
- Decisions made on basis of current energy level: `high`, `low`.

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Recycling Robot MDP

$S = \{\texttt{high}, \texttt{low}\}$

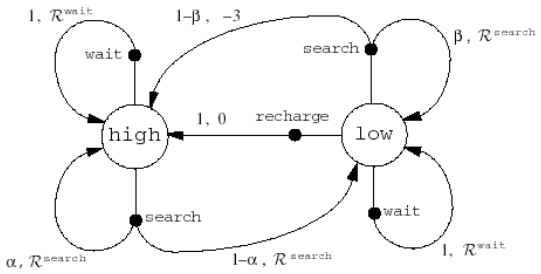
$A(\texttt{high}) = \{\texttt{search}, \texttt{wait}\}$

$A(\texttt{low}) = \{\texttt{search}, \texttt{wait}, \texttt{recharge}\}$

$R^{\texttt{search}}$ = expected no. of cans while searching

$R^{\texttt{wait}}$ = expected no. of cans while waiting

$R^{\texttt{search}} > R^{\texttt{wait}}$



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Value Functions

- The **value of a state** is the expected return starting from that state; depends on the agent's policy:

  State-value function for policy π:

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

- The **value of taking an action in a state under policy** π is the expected return starting from that state, taking that action, and thereafter following π:

  Action-value function for policy π:

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

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Bellman Equation for a Policy π

The basic idea:

$$\begin{aligned} R_t &= r_{t+1} + \gamma r_{t+2} + \gamma^2 r_{t+3} + \gamma^3 r_{t+4} \cdots \\ &= r_{t+1} + \gamma\left(r_{t+2} + \gamma r_{t+3} + \gamma^2 r_{t+4} \cdots\right) \\ &= r_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+1} \end{aligned}$$

So:

$$\begin{aligned} V^{\pi}(s) &= E_{\pi}\left\{R_t \mid s_t = s\right\} \\ &= E_{\pi}\left\{r_{t+1} + \gamma V^{\pi}(s_{t+1}) \mid s_t = s\right\} \end{aligned}$$

Or, without the expectation operator:

$$V^{\pi}(s) = \sum_a \pi(s,a) \sum_{s'} P^a_{ss'}\left[R^a_{ss'} + \gamma V^{\pi}(s')\right]$$

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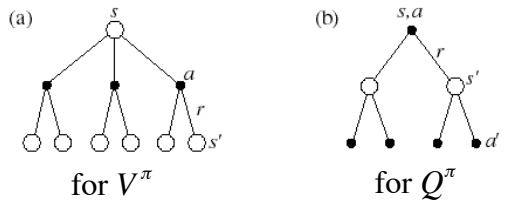
More on the Bellman Equation

$$V^{\pi}(s) = \sum_{a} \pi(s,a) \sum_{s'} P^{a}_{ss'} \left[R^{a}_{ss'} + \gamma V^{\pi}(s') \right]$$

This is a set of equations (in fact, linear), one for each state.
The value function for π is its unique solution.

Backup diagrams:



for V^{π} for Q^{π}

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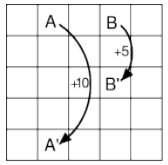
Gridworld

- Actions: `north`, `south`, `east`, `west`; deterministic.
- If would take agent off the grid: no move but reward = −1
- Other actions produce reward = 0, except actions that move agent out of special states A and B as shown.



(a)

Actions

3.3	8.8	4.4	5.3	1.5
1.5	3.0	2.3	1.9	0.5
0.1	0.7	0.7	0.4	-0.4
-1.0	-0.4	-0.4	-0.6	-1.2
-1.9	-1.3	-1.2	-1.4	-2.0

(b)

State-value function for equiprobable random policy;
γ = 0.9

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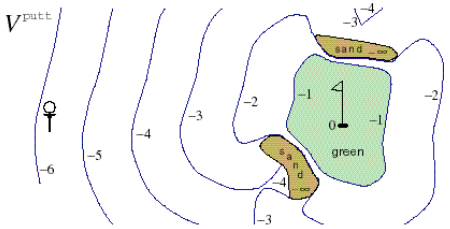
Golf

- State is ball location
- Reward of −1 for each stroke until the ball is in the hole
- Value of a state?
- Actions:
  - `putt` (use putter)
  - `driver` (use driver)
- `putt` succeeds anywhere on the green



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Optimal Value Functions

- For finite MDPs, policies can be **partially ordered**:

  $\pi \geq \pi'$ if and only if $V^{\pi}(s) \geq V^{\pi'}(s)$ for all $s \in S$
- There is always at least one (and possibly many) policies that is better than or equal to all the others. This is an **optimal policy**. We denote them all π^*.
- Optimal policies share the same **optimal state-value function**:

$$V^{*}(s) = \max_{\pi} V^{\pi}(s) \quad \text{for all } s \in S$$

- Optimal policies also share the same **optimal action-value function**:

$$Q^{*}(s,a) = \max_{\pi} Q^{\pi}(s,a) \quad \text{for all } s \in S \text{ and } a \in A(s)$$

This is the expected return for taking action a in state s and thereafter following an optimal policy.

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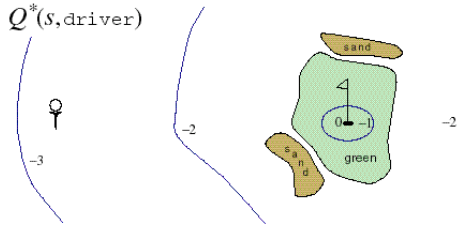
Optimal Value Function for Golf

- We can hit the ball farther with `driver` than with `putter`, but with less accuracy
- $Q^*(s,$`driver`$)$ gives the value or using `driver` first, then using whichever actions are best



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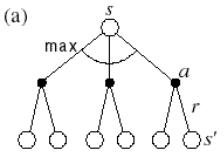
Bellman Optimality Equation for V^*

The value of a state under an optimal policy must equal the expected return for the best action from that state:

$$\begin{aligned} V^*(s) &= \max_{a \in A(s)} Q^{\pi^*}(s,a) \\ &= \max_{a \in A(s)} E\left\{ r_{t+1} + \gamma V^*(s_{t+1}) \,\middle|\, s_t = s, a_t = a \right\} \\ &= \max_{a \in A(s)} \sum_{s'} P^a_{ss'} \left[R^a_{ss'} + \gamma V^*(s') \right] \end{aligned}$$

The relevant backup diagram:



V^* is the unique solution of this system of nonlinear equations.

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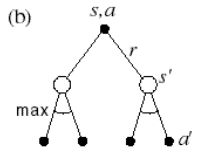
Bellman Optimality Equation for Q^*

$$\begin{aligned} Q^*(s,a) &= E\left\{ r_{t+1} + \gamma \max_{a'} Q^*(s',a') \,\middle|\, s_t = s, a_t = a \right\} \\ &= \sum_{s'} P^a_{ss'} \left[R^a_{ss'} + \gamma \max_{a'} Q^*(s',a') \right] \end{aligned}$$

The relevant backup diagram:



Q^* is the unique solution of this system of nonlinear equations.

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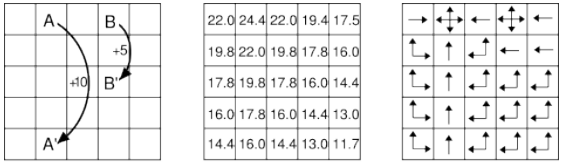
Why Optimal State-Value Functions are Useful

Any policy that is greedy with respect to V^* is an optimal policy.

Therefore, given V^*, one-step-ahead search produces the long-term optimal actions.

E.g., back to the gridworld:



a) gridworld b) V^* c) π^*

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What About Optimal Action-Value Functions?

Given Q^*, the agent does not even have to do a one-step-ahead search:

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

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Solving the Bellman Optimality Equation

- Finding an optimal policy by solving the Bellman Optimality Equation requires the following:
  - accurate knowledge of environment dynamics;
  - we have enough space and time to do the computation;
  - the Markov Property.
- How much space and time do we need?
  - polynomial in number of states (via dynamic programming methods; Chapter 4),
  - BUT, number of states is often huge (e.g., backgammon has about 10**20 states).
- We usually have to settle for approximations.
- Many RL methods can be understood as approximately solving the Bellman Optimality Equation.

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Summary

- Agent-environment interaction
  - States
  - Actions
  - Rewards
- Policy: stochastic rule for selecting actions
- Return: the function of future rewards agent tries to maximize
- Episodic and continuing tasks
- Markov Property
- Markov Decision Process
  - Transition probabilities
  - Expected rewards
- Value functions
  - State-value function for a policy
  - Action-value function for a policy
  - Optimal state-value function
  - Optimal action-value function
- Optimal value functions
- Optimal policies
- Bellman Equations
- The need for approximation

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