Markov Decision Process, Value Iteration, and Reinforcement Learning

Anna Helena Reali Costa

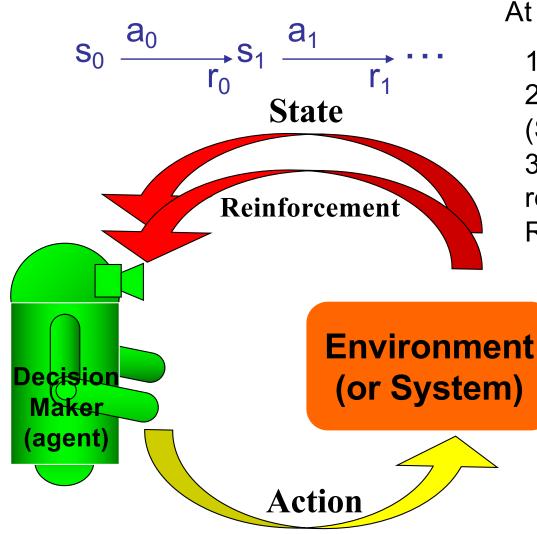
Lecture slides partially extracted from: <u>http://aima.eecs.berkeley.edu/instructors.html</u> <u>http://ocw.mit.edu/</u> (course 6.825) <u>http://www.laas.fr/planning/</u> Chapter 13: Machine Learning, Tom Mitchell

Characteristics of the RL problem

- The agent has a set of **sensors** to observe the *state* of its environment
- The agent has a set of *actions* it can perform to alter this state
- The agent perceives a **reward** (or penalty) to indicate the desirability of the resulting state
- The task of the agent is to learn from this <u>indirect</u>, <u>delayed</u> reward, to choose sequences of actions that produce the greatest cumulative reward

→ it is a *sequential decision problem*

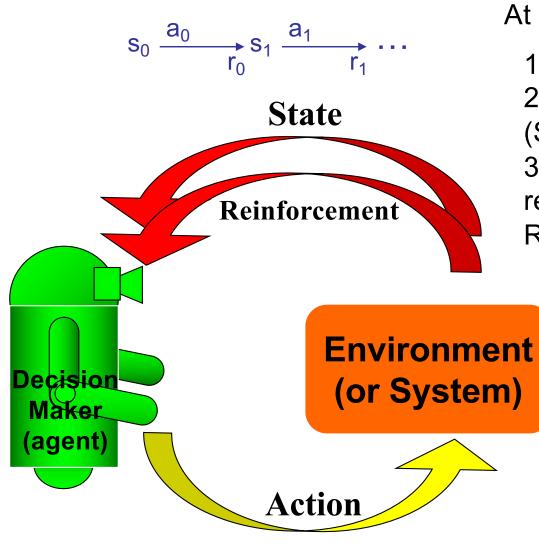
Sequential decision problem



At each time step the decision maker:

Observes the state of the system;
 Chooses an action and applies it;
 (System evolves to a new state)
 Observes an immediate
 reinforcement (reward or penalty);
 Repeat 1 – 3

Sequential decision problem



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Observes the state of the system;
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 reinforcement;
 Repeat 1 – 3

This assumes <u>discrete time</u>.

Decisions are made at points of time referred to as *decision epochs.*

The set of decision epochs can be **finite or infinite**: T = $\{0, 1, 2, ..., N\}$, N $\leq \infty$.

Example

- 4×3 discrete fully-observed environment
- Actions: Up, Down, Left and Right
- Initial state: (1,1)

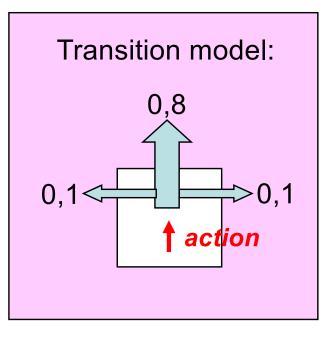
.

• Sequence [U, U, R, R, R]:

(i) goes up around the barrier and reaches the goal state (4,3) with probability

(ii) there is also a chance of accidentally reaching the goal by going $(1,1) \rightarrow (2,1) \rightarrow (3,1) \rightarrow (3,2) \rightarrow (3,3) \rightarrow (4,3)$ with probability

| | | +1 |
|-------|--|------|
| | | goal |
| | | -1 |
| | | Ĩ |
| start | | |
| | | |



Example

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. . .

• Sequence [U, U, R, R, R]:

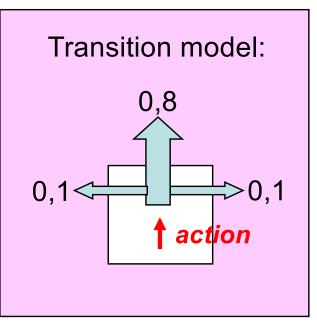
(i) goes up around the barrier and reaches the goal state (3,4) with probability

 $0,8^5 = 0.32768.$

(ii) there is also a chance of accidentally reaching the goal by going $(1,1) \rightarrow (2,1)$ $\rightarrow (3,1) \rightarrow (3,2) \rightarrow (3,3) \rightarrow (4,3)$ with probability

 $0,1^4 \times 0,8 = 0.00008$

| | | +1 |
|-------|--|------|
| | | goal |
| | | —1 |
| | | 1 |
| start | | |
| | | |



Utility function

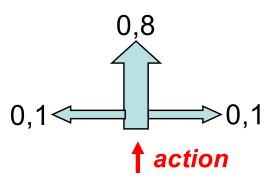
- Utility function for the agent depends on a sequence of states (environment *history*)
- In each state s, the agent receives a reinforcement r(s), which may be positive or negative, but must be bounded.
- Utility = sum of the rewards received

Example

- Utility function for the agent depends on a sequence of states (environment *history*)
- In each state s, the agent receives a reinforcement r(s), which may be positive or negative, but must be bounded.
- Utility = sum of the rewards received
- Here: r(s) = -0.04 $\forall s$ except r(4,3) = +1 and r(4,2) = -1
- → reach goal after 10 steps (avoiding (4,2)): utility =

| -0,04 | -0,04 | -0,04 | +1 |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| | | | goal |
| -0,04 | | -0,04 | 1 |
| | | | -1 |
| -0,04 | -0,04 | -0,04 | -0,04 |
| start | | | |

Transition model:



Ex: (1,1),U,(1,2),D,(1,1),U,(1,2),U,(1,3),L,(1,3),R,(2,3),R,(3,3),L,(2,3),R,(3,3),R,(4,3)

Example

Utility function for the agent depends on a sequence of states (environment *history*)

In each state **s**, the agent receives a **reinforcement r(s)**, which may be positive or negative, but must be **bounded**.

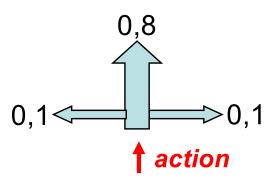
Utility = sum of the rewards received

Here: r(s) = -0.04 $\forall s$ except r(4,3) = +1 and r(4,2) = -1

→ reach goal after 10 steps (avoiding (4,2)): utility = 10 × -0,04 + 1 = 0,6

| -0,04 | -0,04 | -0,04 | +1 |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| | | | goal |
| -0,04 | | -0,04 | 1 |
| | | | -1 |
| -0,04 | -0,04 | -0,04 | -0,04 |
| start | | | |

Transition model:



Ex: (1,1),U,(1,2),D,(1,1),U,(1,2),U,(1,3),L,(1,3),R,(2,3),R,(3,3),L,(2,3),R,(3,3),R,(4,3)

Modeling sequential decision problems as Markov Decision Processes

MDP – Model Formulation

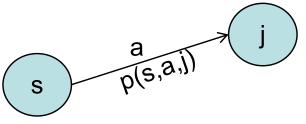
An MDP is defined as $\langle S, A, p, r \rangle$:

- S is the set of possible system states (arbitrary finite set);
- A is the set of allowable actions (arbitrary finite set);
- p: S×A×S → [0,1] is the transition probability function;
- r: $S \times A \rightarrow \Re$ is the reinforcement function;

MDP

- The set A of allowable actions:
 - ♦ A = $\bigcup_{s \in S} A_s$ where A_s is the set of allowable actions in state $s \in S$
 - Or we might restrict the model: $A = A_s$ for all $s \in S$
- The transition probability function **p**:
 - ◆ p(j | s, a) --- or p(s, a, j) --- denotes the probability that the system is in state $j \in S$ at time t+1, when the decision maker performs action $a \in A_s$ in state $s \in S$ at time t.

$$\bigstar \sum_{j \in S} p(j \mid s, a) = 1$$



MDP

• The reinforcement function **r**:

- ♦r(s,a), denotes the value of the reward (or reinforcement or cost) received when performing $a \in A_s$ in $s \in S$ at time t.
- When positive, r(s,a) is an *income*, and when negative it is a *cost*.
- Can be:
 - r(s);
 - r(s,a);

r(s,a,j) with $r(s,a) = \sum_{j \in S} r(s,a,j) p(j | s, a)$

Why "Markov"?

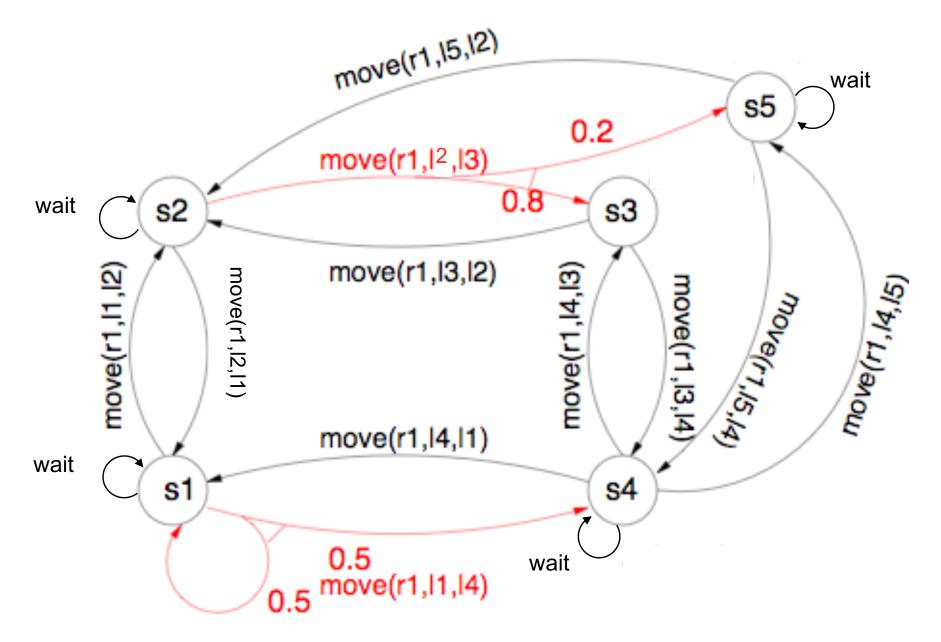
• The qualifier *Markov* is used because the transition probability function **p** and the reinforcement function **r** depend on the past through the current state of the system and the action selected by the decision maker in that state.

Notation:
$$X_{a:b} = X_a, X_{a+1}, ..., X_{b-1}, X_b$$

Markov assumption: X_t depends on <u>bounded</u> subset of $X_{0:t-1}$

• First-order Markov process: $p(X_t|X_{0:t-1}) = p(X_t|X_{t-1})$

Example of an MDP



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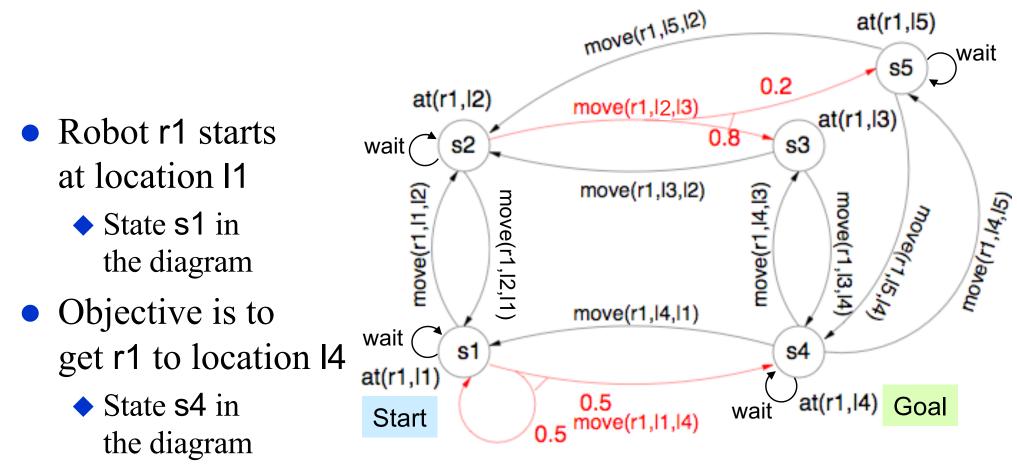
Example of an MDP

- A = {move(r1,l1,l2), move(r1,l2,l1), move(r1,l4,l1), move(r1,l1,l4), move(r1,l3,l2), move(r1,l2,l3), move(r1,l5,l2), move(r1,l4,l3), move(r1,l3,l4), move(r1,l5,l4), move(r1,l4,l5), wait}
- $S = \{s1, s2, s3, s4, s5\}$
- p(s1,move(r1,l1,l4),s4)=0.5; p(s1,move(r1,l1,l4),s1)=0.5; p(s2,move(r1,l2,l3),s3)=0.8; p(s2,move(r1,l2,l3),s5)=0.2; All others p(.) have a value of 1.
- r(s1,wait) = r(s2,wait) = -1; r(s4,wait)=0; r(s5,wait)= -100; r(s1,move(r1,11,12))=r(s2,move(r1,12,11))= -100; r(s3,move(r1,13,14))=r(s4,move(r1,14,13))= -100; r(s4,move(r1,14,15))=r(s5,move(r1,15,14))= -100; r(s1,move(r1,11,14))=r(s4,move(r1,14,11))= -1; r(s2,move(r1,12,13))=r(s3,move(r1,13,12))= -1; r(s5,move(r1,15,12))= -1; r(s1)=r(s2)=r(s3)=r(s5)=0; r(s4)=100

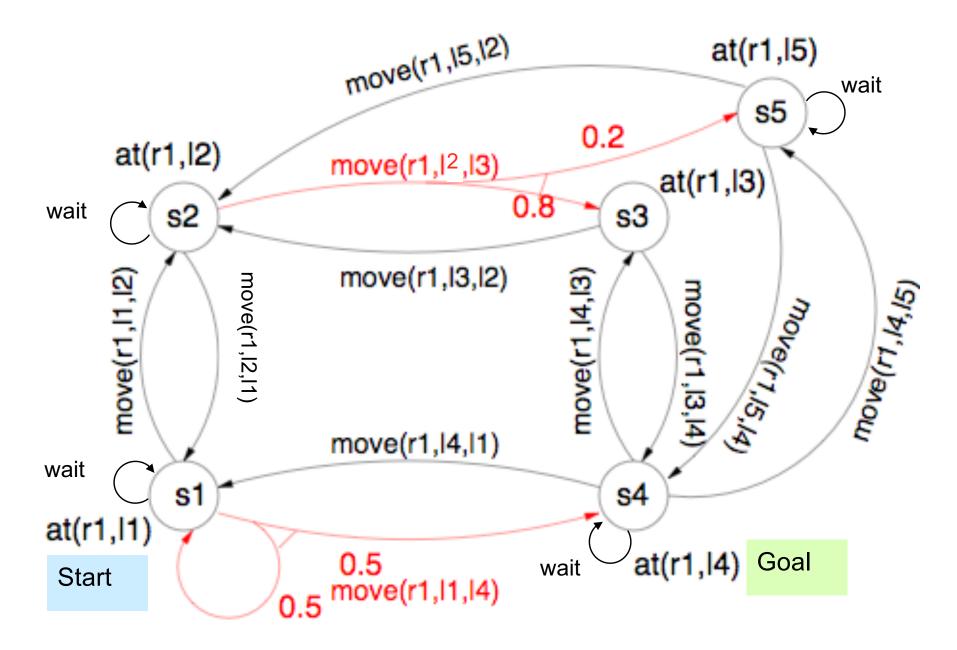
What is a Solution?

What does a solution to the problem look like?
 Any fixed action sequence will not solve the problem!

Example

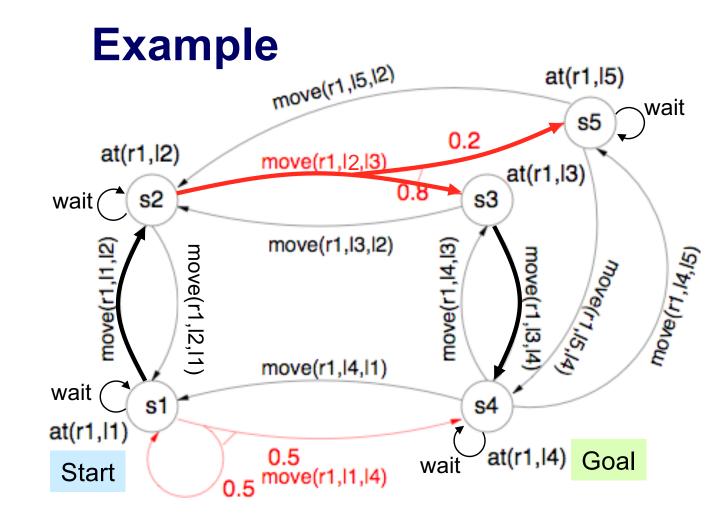


Is there a plan that will guarantee the solution?



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• No fixed sequence of actions can be a solution, because we can not guarantee we will be in a state where the next action is applicable

◆ e.g.,

Robot r1 starts

◆ State s1 in

◆ State s4 in

the diagram

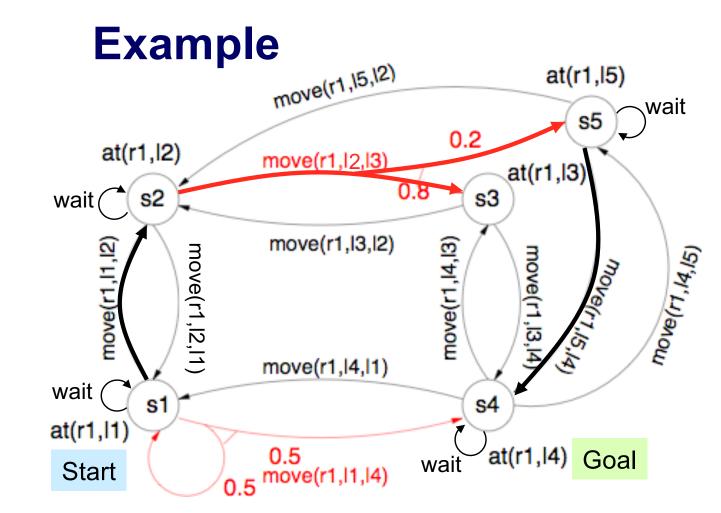
get r1 to location I4

the diagram

at location 1

• Objective is to

Plan 1: $\langle move(r1,I1,I2), move(r1,I2,I3), move(r1,I3,I4) \rangle$

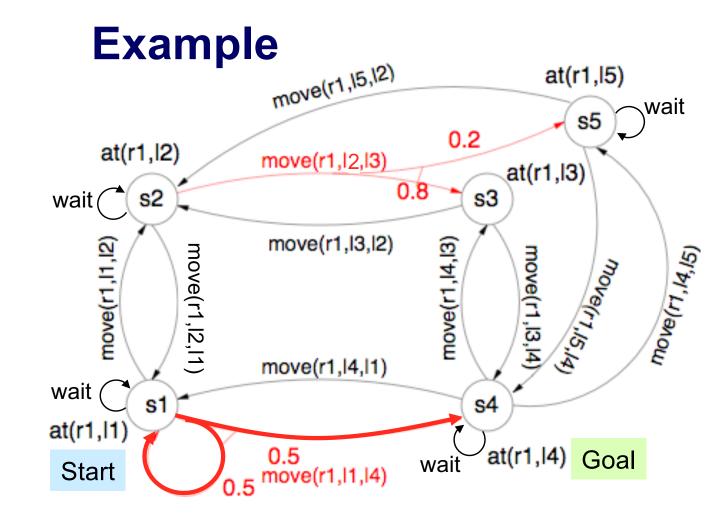


- Robot r1 starts at location l1
 - State s1 in the diagram
- Objective is to get r1 to location I4
 - State s4 in the diagram

◆ e.g.,

• No fixed sequence of actions can be a solution, because we can not guarantee we will be in a state where the next action is applicable

Plan 2: (move(r1,I1,I2), move(r1,I2,I3), move(r1,I5,I4))



- Robot r1 starts at location l1
 - State s1 in the diagram
- Objective is to get r1 to location I4
 - State s4 in the diagram

◆ e.g.,

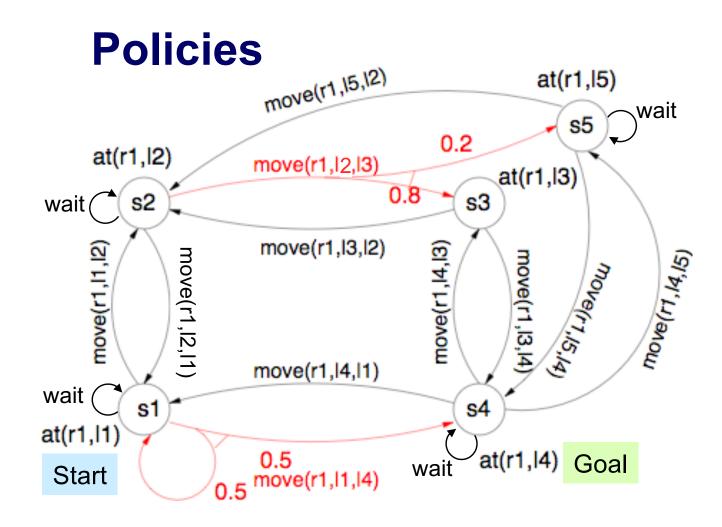
• No fixed sequence of actions can be a solution, because we can not guarantee we will be in a state where the next action is applicable

Plan 3: (move(r1,l1,l4))

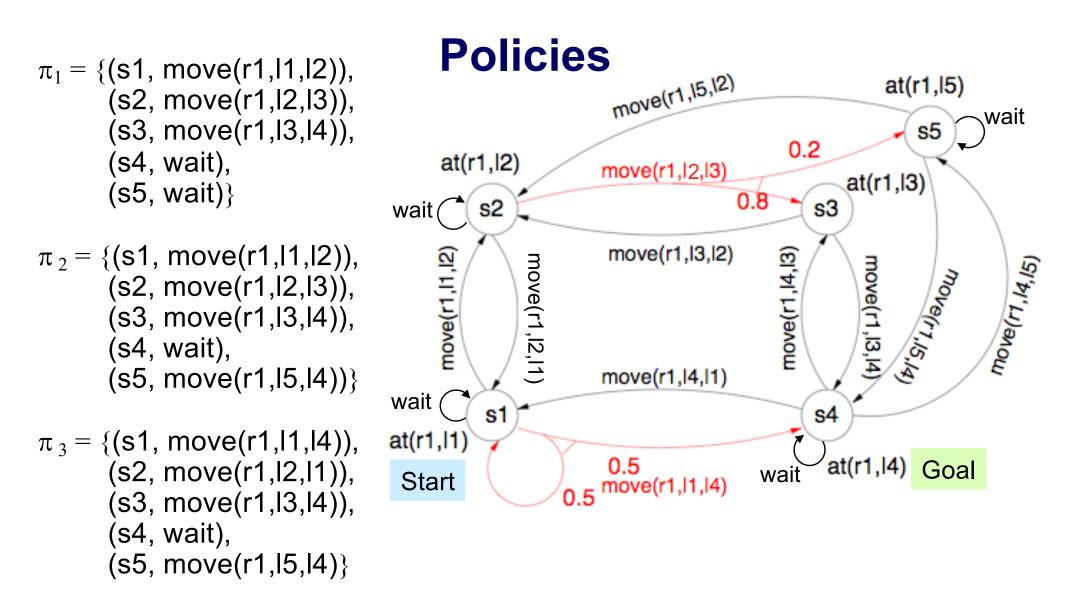
What is a Solution?

A solution must specify what the agent should do for *any* state that the agent might reach
 → *policy* π

$$\Pi: S \to A, \quad \pi(s) = a \in A$$



- Policy: a function that maps states into actions
- Write it as a set of state-action pairs



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Initial States

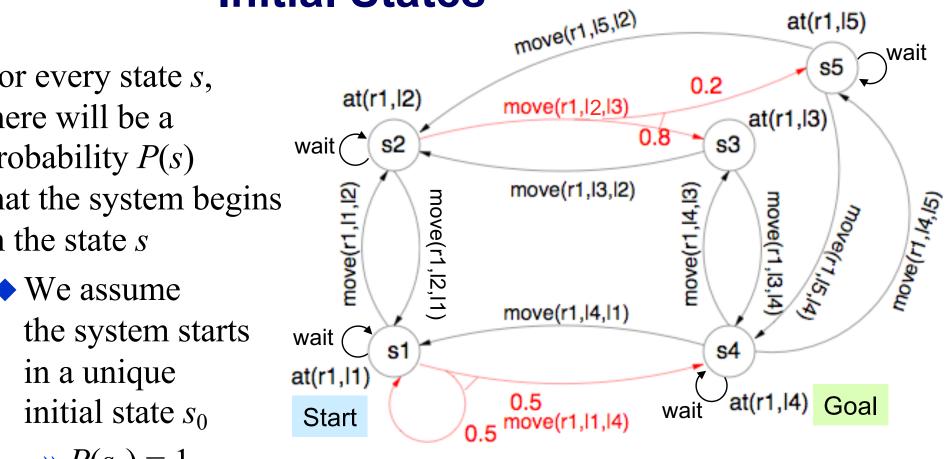
For every state *s*, there will be a probability P(s)that the system begins in the state s

 $P(s_0) = 1$

 $P(s_i) = 0$ for $i \neq 0$

In the example, $P(s_1) = 1$, and P(s) = 0 for all other states

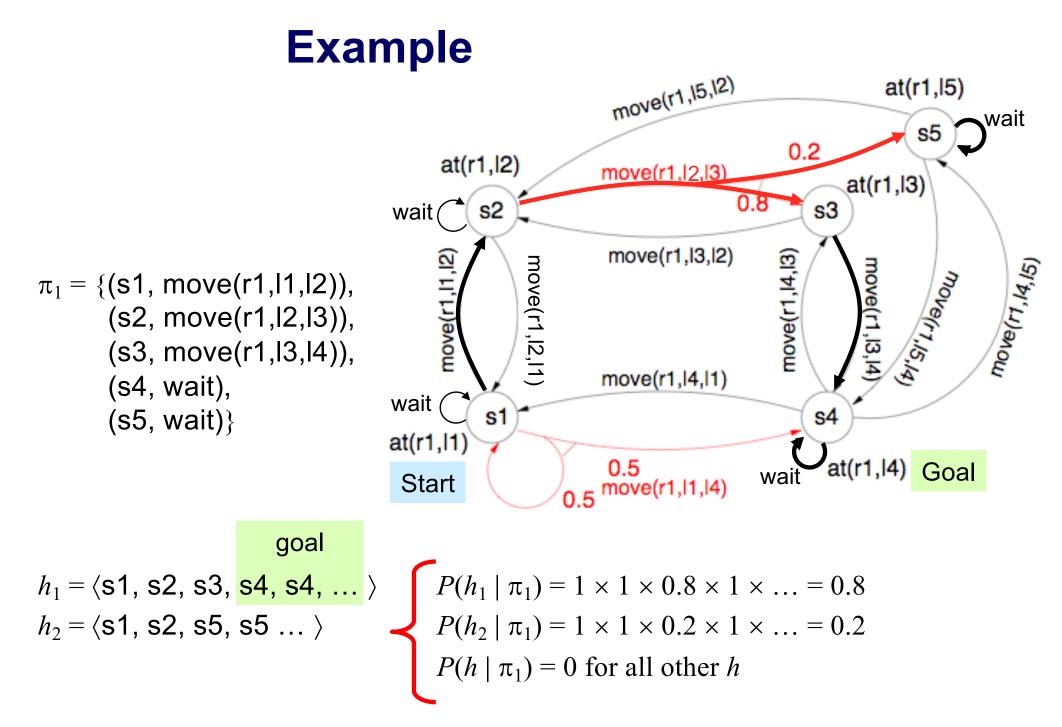
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Histories

• Each time a given policy is executed starting from the initial state, the stochastic nature of the environment will lead to a different environment <u>history</u>.

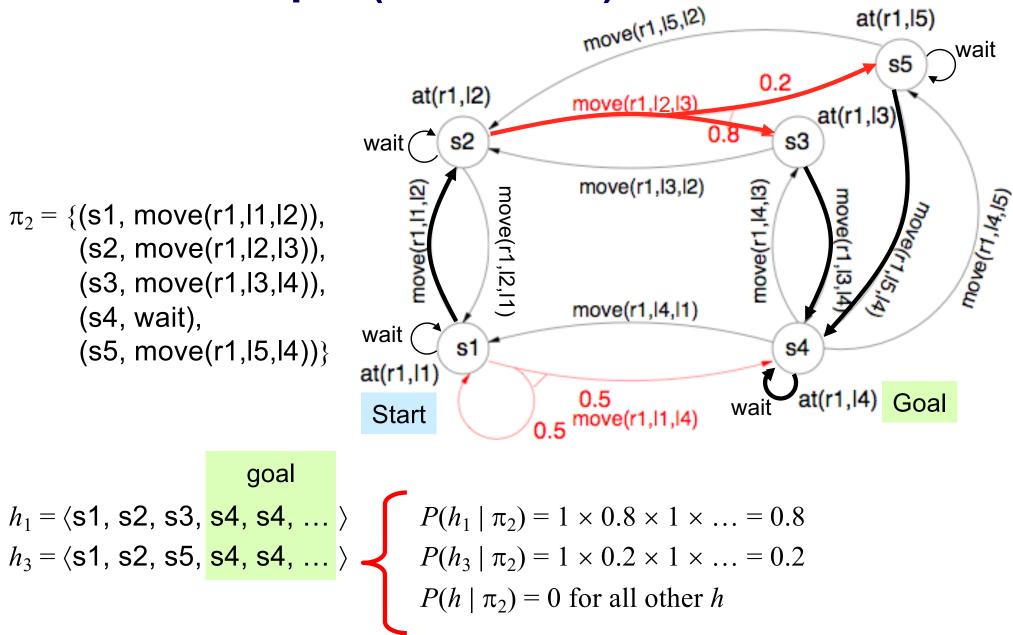
• Each policy induces a probability distribution over histories • If $h = \langle s_0, s_1, ... \rangle$ then $P(h | \pi) = P(s_0) \prod_{i \ge 0} p_{\pi(s_i)}(s_{i+1} | s_i, a_i)$



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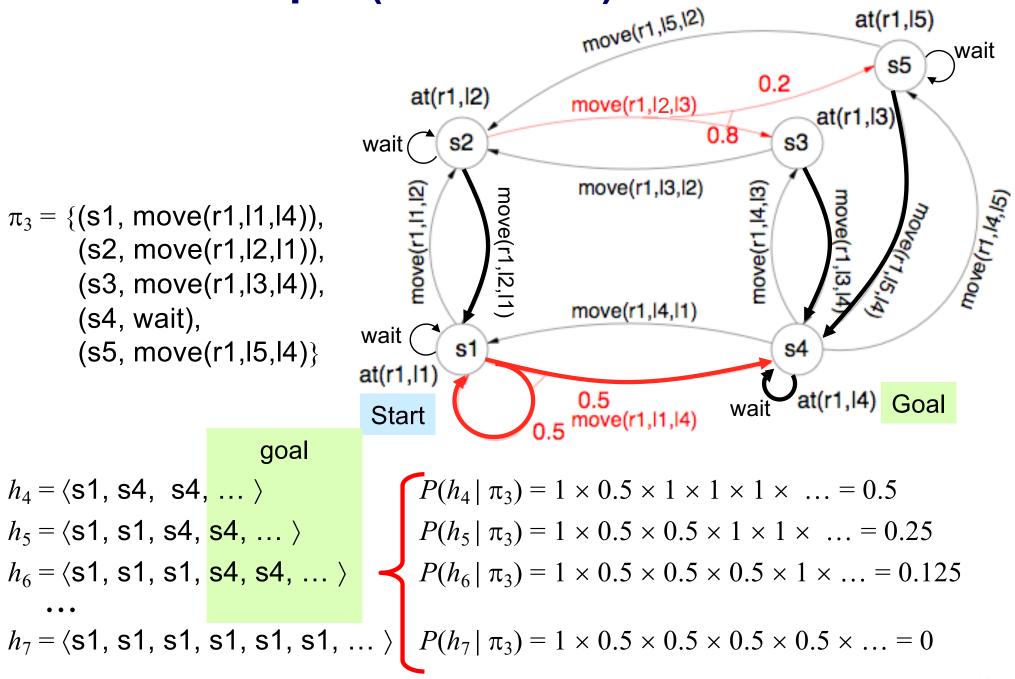
Example (continued)



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Example (continued)



Quality of a policy

• The quality of the policy is measured by the *expected utility* (or *value*) of the possible environment histories generated by that policy:

$$E[V_{\pi}(h)] = \sum_{h} P(h|\pi) V_{\pi}(h)$$

• An optimal policy π^* is a policy that yields the highest expected utility.

Discounted reinforcements:

$$V_{\pi}(h) = \mathbf{r}(s_0) + \gamma \mathbf{r}(s_1) + \gamma^2 \mathbf{r}(s_2) + \gamma^3 \mathbf{r}(s_3) + \dots$$

• A discount factor γ : $0 \le \gamma \le 1$

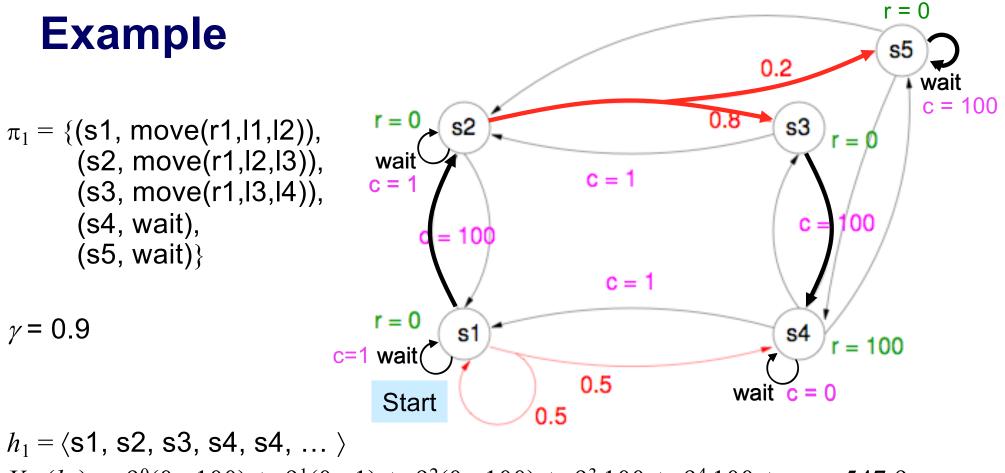
Utility Functions

- 0.2 🕻 wait Reinforcement r(s)c = 100r = 0 0.8 s2 s3 for each state s: $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{0}$ wait \bullet -: cost C(s,a) c = 1c = 1 \diamond +: reward R(s) 00 C = c = 100 • Example: c = 1 \bullet C(s,a) = 1 for each $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{0}$ **s1** s4 = 100"horizontal" action c=1 wait(0.5 wait c = 0• C(s,a) = 100 for Start 0.5 each "vertical" action
 - ♦ $C(s_1, wait) = 1; C(s_2, wait) = 1; C(s_4, wait) = 0; C(s_5, wait) = 100$
 - R as shown: $r(s_1) = r(s_2) = r(s_3) = r(s_5) = 0$; $r(s_4) = 100$
- <u>Utility function</u>: generalization of a goal (additive rewards)

• If
$$h = \langle s_0, s_1, \dots \rangle$$
, then $V_{\pi}(h) = \sum_{i \ge 0} \gamma^i (\mathbf{R}(s_i) - \mathbf{C}(s_i, \pi(s_i)))$

 $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{0}$

s5



 $V_{\pi 1}(h_1) = .9^0(0 - 100) + .9^1(0 - 1) + .9^2(0 - 100) + .9^3 \cdot 100 + .9^4 \cdot 100 + \dots = 547.9$

 $h_2 = \langle s1, s2, s5, s5 \dots \rangle$ $V_{\pi 1}(h_2) = .9^0(0 - 100) + .9^1(0 - 1) + .9^2(-100) + .9^3(-100) + \dots = -910.1$

 $E[V_{\pi 1}(h)] = 0.8 \times 547.9 + 0.2 \times (-910.1) = 256.3$

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Optimal Policy

• Utility of a state – defined in terms of the utility of state sequences:

$$V_{\pi}(s) = E\left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{t} r(s_{t}) \, \big| \, \pi, s_{0} = s\right]$$

The true utility of a state, V(s), is just $V_{\pi*}(s)$, which allows the agent to choose the action that <u>maximizes</u> the expected utility of the *subsequent* state:

$$\pi^*(s) = \arg\max_{a} \sum_{s'} p(s' | s, a) V^*(s')$$

If we know V*, then it's easy to find the optimal policy.

Computing V* Approaches

- Value iteration
- Policy iteration
- Linear programming

Value Iteration

- 1. Initialize $V_0(s) = 0$, for all s.
- 2. Loop until a stop criterion is met:
 - Loop for all s:

$$V^{t+1}(s) \leftarrow r(s) + \max_{a} \gamma \sum_{s'} p(s' | s, a) V^{t}(s')$$

This algorithm is guaranteed to converge to V^{*}. The influence of **r** and **p**, which we know, drives the successive Vs to get closer and closer to V^{*}.

Função Valor: exemplo

- Ambiente discreto 4x4, com obstáculos.
- Agente deve alcançar posição destino D a partir de qualquer lugar do ambiente.
- D é um estado absorvente: $V^*(D) = 0$
- Ações que o agente pode realizar: N, S, L, O
- Penalidade por executar uma ação (qualquer) = -1
 Melhor política => caminho mais curto
- Exemplo para $\gamma = 1$ e MDP determinístico (p=1)

Exemplo: algoritmo de iteração de valor para MDP determinístico

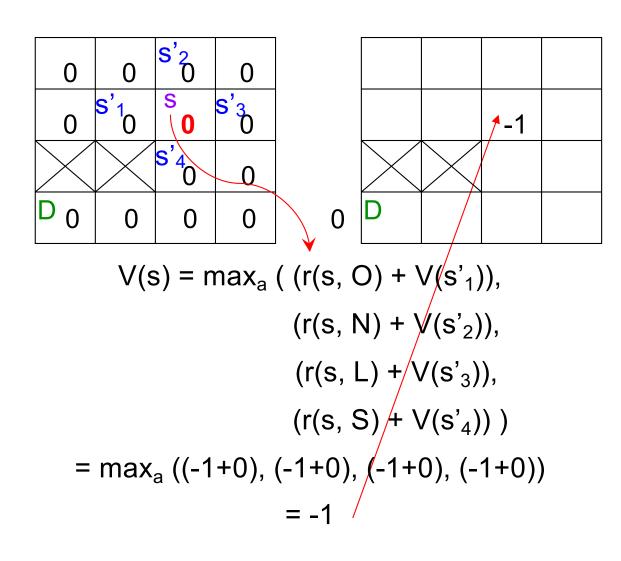
Cálculo iterativo da função valor ótima.
 V(s) ← r_{s,a} + max_a (V(s'))

Repetir até V(s) estabilizar.

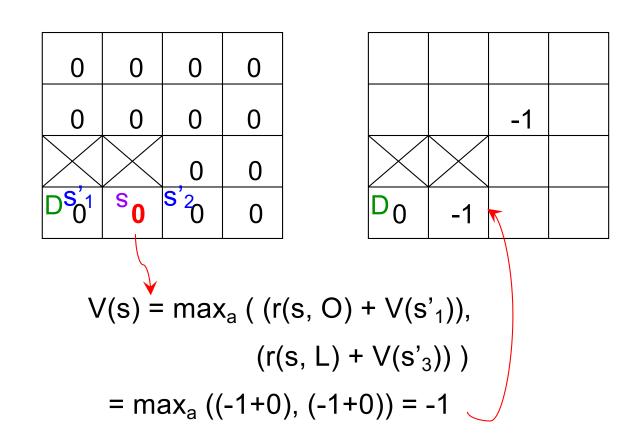
Sendo:

s – estado atual, s' – próximo estado, $r_{s,a}$ – reforço recebido por executar a em s V(.) – valor do estado

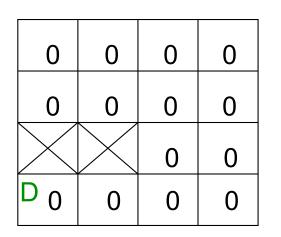
Exemplo de cálculo de V(s)

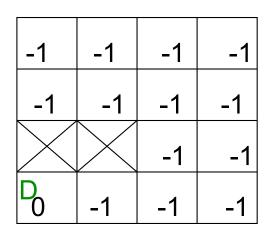


Exemplo de cálculo de V(s)



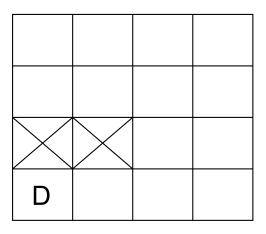
Exemplo de cálculo de V(s)



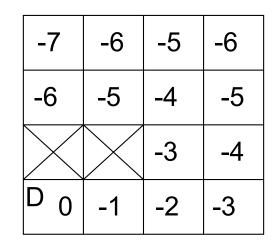


Ao final da 1a. iteração do "Loop for all s:" do algoritmo VI

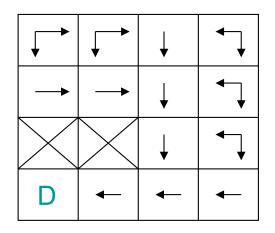
Função valor: exemplo



Ambiente exemplo



Função valor ótima: indica as penalidades esperadas até atingir o destino, seguindo uma política ótima.



Políticas ótimas obtidas a partir da função valor ótima (melhores ações, para cada estado).

VI: Discussion

- VI computes new values in each iteration, and chooses a policy based on those values
- This algorithm converges in a polynomial number of iterations
 - But the variable in the polynomial is the number of states
 - The number of states is usually huge
- Need to examine the entire state space in each iteration
 - Thus, this algorithm takes huge amounts of time and space

MDP and RL

In *Reinforcement Learning* (RL), we would like an agent to **learn** to behave well in an **MDP** world, but **without knowing** anything about **r** or **p** when it starts out

What do you do when you do not know how the world works?

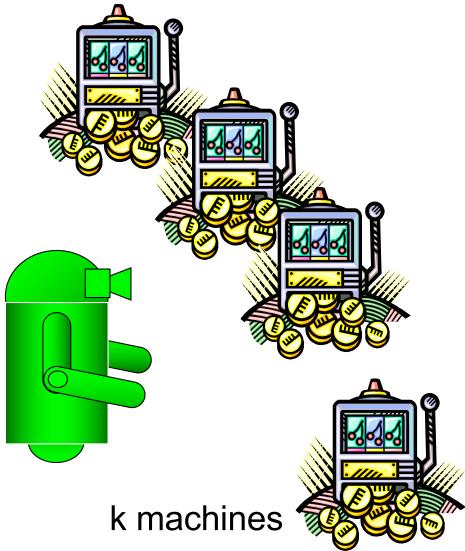
→ We'll investigate an algorithm for doing that.

RL and the learning agent

- How the agent should choose its actions?
 - There are <u>two</u>, possibly opposing reasons for the agent to choose an action:
 - 1. because it thinks the action will have a good result in the world (*exploitation*), or
 - because it thinks the action will give it more information about how the world works (*exploration*).

→ an example: *k*-armed bandit

k-Armed Bandit



- Every time you pull an arm on a machine, it either pays off a dollar or nothing.
- Assume that each machine has a **hidden probability of paying off**, and that whenever you pull an arm, the outcome is independent of previous outcomes and is determined by the hidden payoff probability

What should you do to make as much money as possible during a given time?

k-Armed Bandit: Strategies

Behave at random

- Switch on a loser: pick one arm; as long as it keeps paying off, you should keep pulling it; as soon as it loses, go to the next arm, and so on. → better than random, but it's not optimal!
- Always choose the apparent best: keep estimates of the payoff probabilities of each arm (by counting). Then, always choose the arm with the highest estimated probability of paying off → greedy
- **Combined**: choose the apparent best 90% of the time; choose randomly the other 10% ... etc....

k-Armed Bandit: Strategies

• Ultimately, the best strategies spend

- some time exploring: trying all the arms to see what their probabilities are like, and
- some time exploiting: doing the apparently best action to try to get reward.
- In general, the longer you expect to live, the more time you should devote to exploration.

→ ε-greedy strategy
$$\begin{cases} \varepsilon: \text{ Exploration} \\ 1-\varepsilon: \text{ Exploitation} \end{cases}$$

MDP

• Cumulative value $V^{\pi}(s_t)$ achieved by following an arbitrary policy π from an arbitrary initial state s_t

$$V^{\pi}(s_{t}) = \mathbf{r}(s_{t}) + \gamma \mathbf{r}(s_{t+1}) + \gamma^{2} \mathbf{r}(s_{t+2}) + \gamma^{3} \mathbf{r}(s_{t+3}) + \dots$$

 $=\sum_{i=0..\infty} \gamma^{i} r(s_{t+i})$

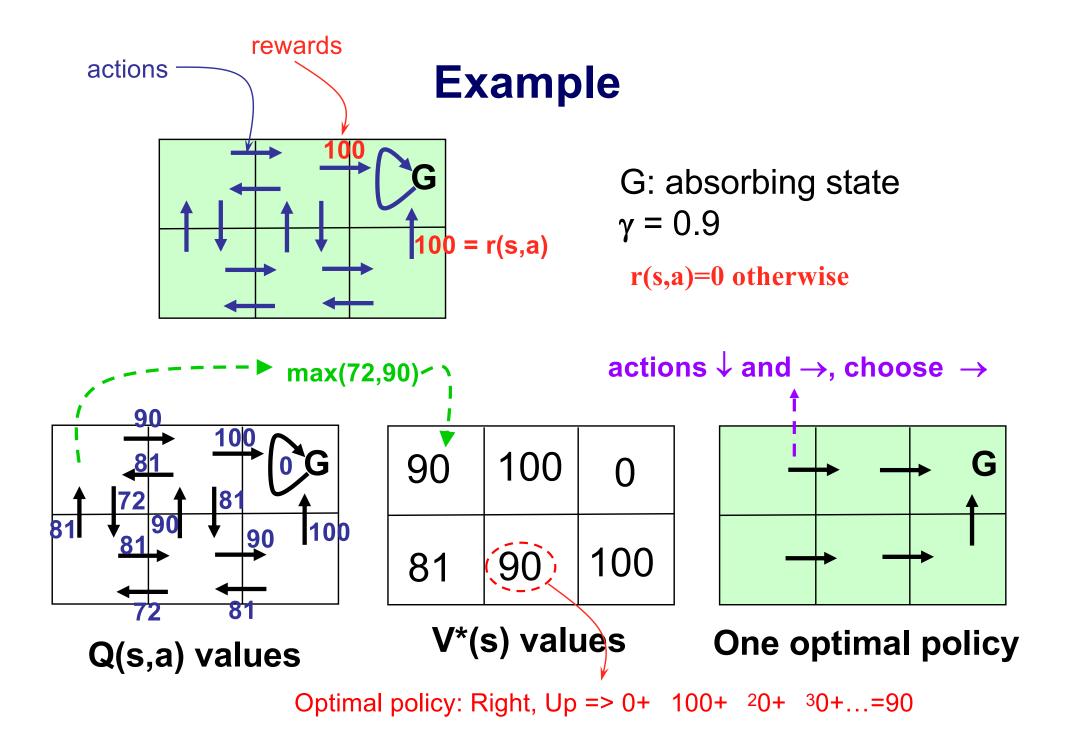
• Optimal policy:

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

$$\pi = \arg \max_{\pi} V^{\pi}(s), \forall s \in S$$

$$\pi^* = \arg \max_{a} [r(s,a) + \gamma V^*(s')], \forall s, s' \in S, \forall a \in A$$

$$Q^*(s,a)$$



Q values

 Q(s,a) is the expected discounted future reward for starting in state *s*, taking *a* as our first action, and then continuing <u>optimally</u>.

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

- The agent only needs to consider each available action *a* in its current state *s* and chooses the action that maximizes Q(s,a).
- ♦ Q(s,a) summarizes all the information needed to determine the discounted cumulative reward that will be gained in the future if *a* is selected in *s*.

Requirements for an RL algorithm

We need:

- Decision on what constitutes an **internal state** (e.g. Q values, etc)
- Decision on what constitutes a **world state**
- Sensing of a world state
- Action-choice mechanism (**policy**) based usually on an **evaluation function** (of internal and world state)
- A means of **executing** the action
- A way of **updating** the internal state

Q-learning Algorithm

• Estimates the Q* function directly, without estimating the transition probabilities

```
Initialize Q(s,a) arbitrarily

Observe the current state s_t

do forever

<u>select</u> an action a_t and execute it in s_t

receive immediate reward r(s_t, a_t)

observe the new state s_{t+1}

update Q(s,a) as follows:

Q_{t+1}(s_t, a_t) \leftarrow (1-\alpha) Q_t(s_t, a_t) + \alpha [r(s_t, a_t) + \gamma \max_a Q_t(s_{t+1}, a_t)]

s_t \leftarrow s_{t+1}
```

a: learning rate

Learning rate

• The basic form of the update looks like this:

 $X_{t+1} \leftarrow (1 - \alpha) X_t + \alpha New_t$

 α is a learning rate; usually it is something like 0.1 or 0.2.

- So, we are updating our estimate of X to be mostly like our old value of X, but adding in a new term *New*
 - » This kind of update is essentially a **running average** of the new terms received on each step.
- The smaller alpha is, the longer term the average is. With a small alpha, the system will be slow to converge, but the estimates will not fluctuate very much.
- It is quite typical (and, in fact, required for convergence), to start with a large alpha, and then decrease it over time.

Q-learning Algorithm

- There are **two iterative processes** going on:
 - One is the usual kind of averaging we do, when we collect a lot of samples and try to estimate their mean (using the learning rate)
 - 2. The other is the **dynamic programming iteration** done by value iteration, updating the value of a state based on the estimated values of its successors.

Q-learning – notes

- Session: at the beginning of each session, start the Q-table with zeros or random values
- Episode: each learning restart, without restarting the Q-table (it stops when reaching the target or timeout).
 - Typically, one presents the result as the average of sessions (each session comprising a number of episodes) in different iterations.

Q-learning Algorithm

Guaranteed to converge to Q*

The optimal Q function is achieved if the world is really an MDP, if we manage the learning rate correctly, and if we explore the world in such a way that we never completely ignore some actions and states.



Applications

- TD Gammon: starts out not knowing anything about backgammon. It plays more than 2 million games of backgammon against itself. It can now draw the human worldchampion backgammon player.
- Elevator scheduling: in a building with many floors and many elevators, there is a serious control problem in deciding which elevators to send to which floors next. The input to the system is the locations of the elevators and the set of all buttons that have been pressed. The output is a direction for each elevator so that the throughput of people could be maximized. The learned policies are considerably more effective that the ones that are standardly built in by the elevator companies.
- Atari, AlphaGo

Applications

Resources management in computer clusters

 H.Mao, Alizadeh, M. Alizadeh, Menache, I.Menache, and S.Kandula. Resource Management With deep Reinforcement Learning. In ACM Workshop on Hot Topics in Networks, 2016.

Traffic Light Control

◆ I. Arel, C. Liu, T. Urbanik, and A. Kohls, "Reinforcement learning-basedmulti-agent system for network traffic signal control,"IET IntelligentTransport Systems, 2010.

• Robotics

 J. Kober, J. A. D. Bagnell, J. Peters. Reinforcement Learning in Robotics: A survey. *Int. J. Robot. Res.* Jul. 2013.

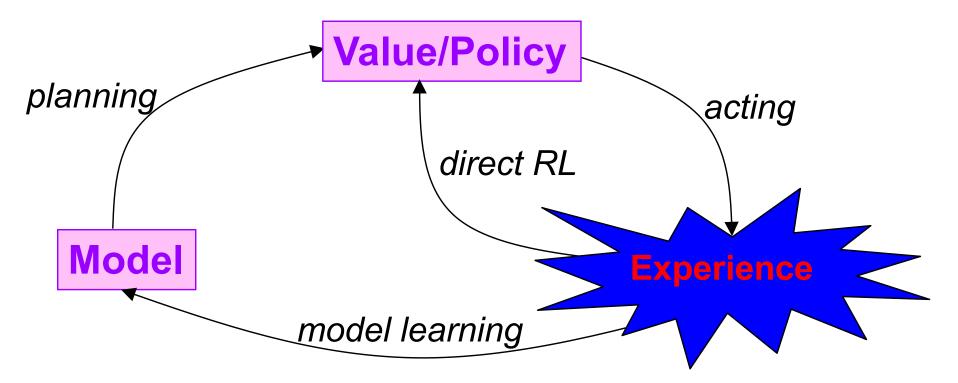
Personalized Recommendations

◆ G. Zheng, F. Zhang, Z. Zheng, Y. Xiang, Ni. J. Yuan, X. Xie, and Z. Li. DRN: A Deep Reinforcement Learning Frameworkfor News Recommendation. 2018.

• etc, etc...

RL and Planning

- Planning vs. Learning: planning uses a <u>model</u>
- Planning in RL interleaves cycles of learning based on experience in the world and experience gained via using the model to predict what will happen.



Q-learning Algorithm: Problems

• Large or continuous state spaces

- It requires that S and A be drawn from a small enough set that we can store the Q function in a table.
- <u>Possible solutions</u>: use of function approximations
 E.g. neural network (DL), regression trees, factored representations (represent p(s'|s,a) using Bayes net), etc to store the Q function.
 Such approaches are no longer theoretically guaranteed to work, and they can be a bit tricky, but sometimes they work very well.

Q-learning Algorithm: Problems

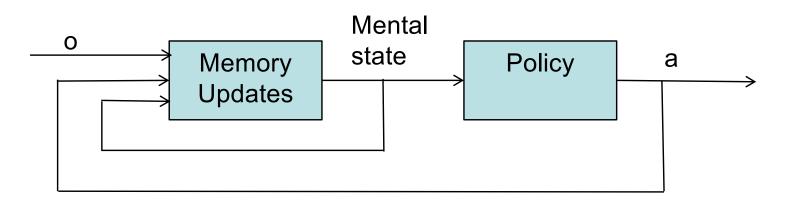
Slow convergence

Because of this, most of the applications of Q learning have been in very large domains for which we actually know a model:

- 1. we use the known model to build a simulation.
- 2. then, using Q learning plus a function approximation technique, we learn to behave in the simulated environment, which yields a good control policy for the original problem
- Hot topics: batch-RL, transfer learning!

Q-learning Algorithm: Problems

- MDPs assume **complete observability** (can always tell what state the agent is in)
 - POMDP (Partially Observable MDP)
 - ◆Observation: Pr(O|s,a) [O is observation]



Optimal solution: intractable computationally. Current research topic: how to approximately solve POMDPs

Conclusion

- Reinforcement learning is a promising technology!
- There are a lot of possible refinements that are being made to have a truly widespread application of RL.
- References:

http://www.cs.ualberta.ca/~sutton/book/ebook/index.html http://ocw.mit.edu/ (course 6.825) Chapter 13: Machine Learning, Tom Mitchell

Q-learning: exercício

- Ambiente 2x2, MDP determinístico
- Meta: estado 0.
- Ações: $A = \{ N, S, L, O \}$
- Estados: $S = \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$
- Reforços: +10 atingir meta
 - -10 bater nas bordas

0 - outros casos

Considerar $\alpha = 1$, $\gamma = 0,9$. Zerar a tabela Q no início da

sessão. Efetuar 2 episódios: 1. $s_0 = 3$, ações: <SNNO> 2. $s_0 = 2$, ações: <LNNLO>

Fornecer a tabela Q após o término do 1º. Episódio e a política aprendida até então.

