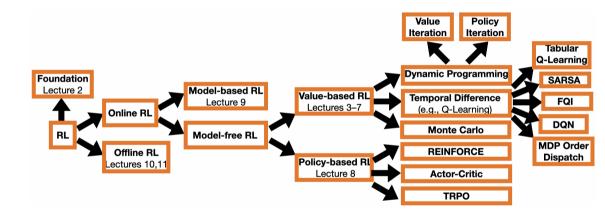
LSE ST455: Reinforcement Learning

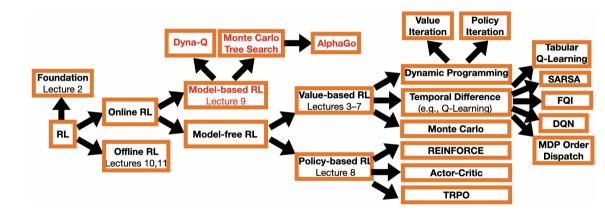
Lecture 9: Model-based Reinforcement Learning

Chengchun Shi

Roadmap



Roadmap (Cont'd)



- 1. What is Model-based RL
- 2. How to Implement Model-based RL
- 3. Mastering the Game of Go

1. What is Model-based RL

2. How to Implement Model-based RL

3. Mastering the Game of Go

Two fundamental problems in sequential decision making

- Planning
 - A model of the environment (e.g., state transition, reward function) is known
 - The agent performs computations with its model, without any external interaction
 - a.k.a. deliberation, reasoning, introspection, pondering, thought, search

• Learning

- The environment is initially unknown
- The agent interacts with the environment
- The agent learns the optimal policy from experience

RL Algorithms We Have Covered So Far

- Dynamic Programming (Lecture 3): learn value from model (planning)
- MC, TD (Lectures 3 7): learn value from experience (learning)
- Policy Gradient (Lecture 8): learn policy from experience (learning)
- Today's lecture: Model-based RL
 - learn model from experience
 - use both learned model and experience to construct a value function or policy
 - combine learning with planning

- A model \mathcal{M} is a **representation** of an MDP $\langle \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{R}, \gamma \rangle$
- The state space ${\mathcal S}$ and action space ${\mathcal A}$ are usually known to us
- The discounted factor γ is user-specified
- Only need to learn the state transition ${\cal P}$

$$\mathcal{P}^{a}_{ss'} = \Pr(\mathbf{S}_{t+1} = s' | \mathbf{S}_{t} = s, \mathbf{A}_{t} = a)$$

and reward function ${\cal R}$

$$\mathcal{R}_s^a = \mathbb{E}(R_t | S_t = s, A_t = a)$$

- Model-based RL
 - Learn the model (e.g., reward \mathcal{R}^a_s and transition $\mathcal{P}^a_{ss'}$) from experience
 - Plan value or policy from model or integrate planning with learning
- Model-free RL
 - Learn value or policy without learning the reward and transition function
 - Rely on Bellman optimality equation
 - Examples: MC, TD, Policy gradient

Model-free v.s. Model-based RL (Cont'd)

- Pros of model-based RL
- In some applications, we have a **perfect** model (e.g., Go, chess)
- Can handle **offline** data (more in the next lecture)

- Pros of model-free RL
- Dimensional reduction
- Easier to learn value than model
- # of parameters of $Q^{\pi^{\text{opt}}}$: $|\mathcal{S}||\mathcal{A}|$
- # of parameters of \mathcal{R}_s^a : $|\mathcal{S}||\mathcal{A}|$
- # of parameters of $\mathcal{P}^{a}_{ss'}$: $|\mathcal{S}|^{2}|\mathcal{A}|$

1. What is Model-based RL

2. How to Implement Model-based RL

3. Mastering the Game of Go

How to Implement Model-Based RL

- First, we learn a model (reward and state transition functions) based on data
- Next, we can implement **planning** based on the learned model
- Alternatively, we can integrate planning with learning (Dyna)
- Finally, we can implement Monte Carlo tree search for decision-time planning

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Model Learning

- Goal: estimate \mathcal{R}_{s}^{a} and $\mathcal{P}_{ss'}^{a}$ from experience $\{S_{0}, A_{0}, R_{0}, \cdots, S_{T}\}$
- Using supervised learning

$$S_0, A_0 \rightarrow R_0, S_1$$

$$S_1, A_1 \rightarrow R_1, S_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$S_{T-1}, A_{T-1} \rightarrow R_{T-1}, S_T$$

- Learning $s, a \rightarrow r$ is a **regression** problem
- Learning $s, a \rightarrow s'$ is a conditional density estimation problem
- Loss function: least square/Huber loss, KL divergence
- Compute parameter that minimizes empirical loss

Models for Conditional Density Estimation

- Table lookup model
- Conditional kernel density estimation
- Gaussian process model [Williams and Rasmussen, 2006]
- Deep conditional generative learning¹
 - mixture density network [Rothfuss et al., 2019]
 - normalising flows [Trippe and Turner, 2018]

¹https://deepgenerativemodels.github.io/notes/index.html

Table Lookup Model

- Finite MDP model
- Count visits $N(s, a) = \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \mathbb{I}(S_t = s, A_t = a)$ to each state-action pair

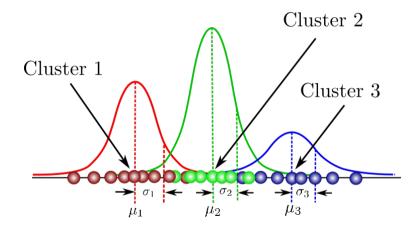
$$\widehat{\mathcal{P}}_{ss'}^{a} = \frac{1}{N(s,a)} \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \mathbb{I}(S_t = s, A_t = a, S_{t+1} = s')$$

$$\widehat{\mathcal{R}}_{s}^{a} = \frac{1}{N(s,a)} \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \mathbb{I}(S_t = s, A_t = a) R_t$$

- Alternatively
 - At each time step t, record experience tuple $\langle S_t, A_t, R_t, S_{t+1} \rangle$
 - To sample model, based on a state-action pair (*s*, *a*), randomly pick tuple matching $\langle s, a, \bullet, \bullet \rangle$

- Learn a generic conditional probability mass/density function of Y given X = x, f(y|x) ($Y = S_{t+1}$ and $X = (S_t, A_t)$ in our RL setting)
- Combine Gaussian mixture model with deep neural networks
- Gaussian mixture model has universal approximation property to approximate any **density** function
- Deep neural networks have universal approximation property to approximate any **mean and variance** functions in Gaussian distribution

What is a Gaussian Mixture Model



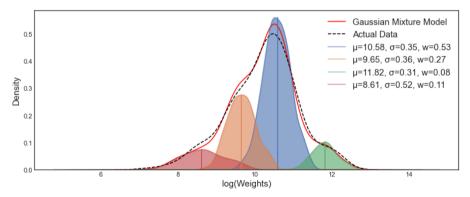
Taken from https: //towardsdatascience.com/gaussian-mixture-models-explained-6986aaf5a95 Model a probability density function f(y) by

$$f(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \omega_k \phi(\mathbf{y}; \mu_k, \sigma_k^2),$$

where $\phi(\bullet; \mu, \sigma^2)$ denotes the probability density function of a Gaussian variable with mean μ and variance σ^2 , and ω_k denotes the probability the variable belongs to the *k*th cluster

Universal Approximation Property

Gaussian mixture model approximates any probability density function as the number of clusters $\pmb{K}\to\infty$



Mixture Density Network

• Model a probability density function f(y) by

$$f(\mathbf{y}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \omega_k \phi(\mathbf{y}; \mu_k, \sigma_k^2)$$

- We want to model a **conditional** probability density function f(y|x)
- Can be modelled via a conditional Gaussian mixture model

$$f(\mathbf{y}|\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \omega_k(\mathbf{x}) \phi(\mathbf{y}; \mu_k(\mathbf{x}), \sigma_k^2(\mathbf{x}))$$

• Use deep neural networks to parametrize $\omega_k(\bullet)$, $\mu_k(\bullet)$ and $\sigma_k^2(\bullet)$

How to Implement Model-based RL

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Planning with Dynamic Programming

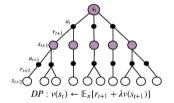
- Give a model $\langle \widehat{\mathcal{R}}, \widehat{\mathcal{P}} \rangle$
- Use dynamic programming algorithm
 - Policy iteration

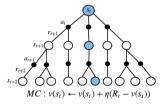
$$\pi_0 \longrightarrow V^{\pi_0} \longrightarrow \pi_1 \longrightarrow V^{\pi_1} \longrightarrow \cdots \longrightarrow \pi^{opt} \longrightarrow V^{\pi^{opt}}$$

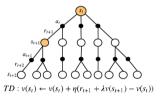
• Value iteration

$$V^{\pi_0} \longrightarrow V^{\pi_1} \longrightarrow V^{\pi_2} \longrightarrow \cdots \longrightarrow V^{\pi^{opt}} \pi^{opt}$$

Difference From Model-Free Methods







Dynamic Programming (DP)

Monte Carlo (MC)

Temporal Difference (TD)

Planning with Model-free RL

- A simple but powerful approach to planning
- Use the model only to generate samples
- **Sample** experience from model:

$$\mathbf{S}' \sim \widehat{\mathbf{\mathcal{P}}}_{\mathbf{S},\bullet}^{\mathbf{A}}$$
 and $\mathbf{R} = \widehat{\mathbf{\mathcal{R}}}_{\mathbf{S}}^{\mathbf{A}}$

- Apply model-free RL to samples
 - MC control
 - SARSA
 - Q-learning
- This is often more efficient than dynamic programming-based method

Planning with an Inaccurate Model

- Model-based RL computes π^{opt} with respect to the model $\langle S, \mathcal{A}, \hat{\mathcal{R}}, \hat{\mathcal{P}}, \gamma \rangle$
- Quality of the estimated policy depends heavily on the accuracy of the model
- When model is inaccurate, planning yields a suboptimal policy
- Solution 1: when model is wrong, using model-free RL
- Solution 2: integrate planning with learning

How to Implement Model-based RL

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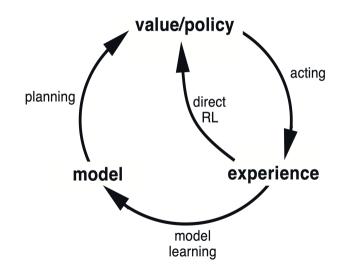
- We consider two sources of experience
- Real experience: Sampled from environment (true MDP)

 $\{S_0, A_0, R_0, \dots, S_T\}$

• **Simulated experience**: Sampled from model (estimated MDP)

$$\mathbf{S}' \sim \widehat{\mathcal{P}}_{\mathbf{S},\bullet}^{\mathbf{A}}$$
 and $\mathbf{R} = \widehat{\mathcal{R}}_{\mathbf{S}}^{\mathbf{A}}$

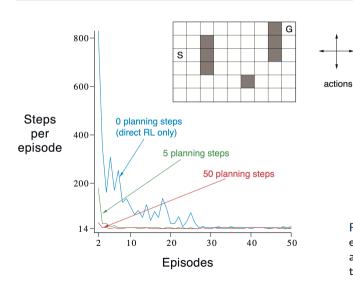
Dyna



Dyna-Q Algorithm

- Initialize Q(s, a) and model(s, a) for all s and a
- do forever:
 - (a) s ← current (non-terminal) state
 (b) a ← ε-greedy(s, Q)
 (c) Execute action a; observe reward r and next state s'
 (d) Q(s, a) ← Q(s, a) + α[r + γ max_{a'} Q(s', a') Q(s, a)]
 (e) model(s, a) ← (r, s')
 (f) Repeat n times: s ← random previously observed state a ← random action previously taking in s (r, s') ~ model(s, a) Q(s, a) ← Q(s, a) + α[r + γ max_{a'} Q(s', a') - Q(s, a)]

Dyna-Q on a Simple Maze



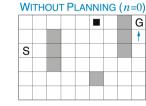


Figure: Policies found through 2nd episode. The arrows indicate greedy action; if no arrow is shown for a state, then all of its action values were equal.

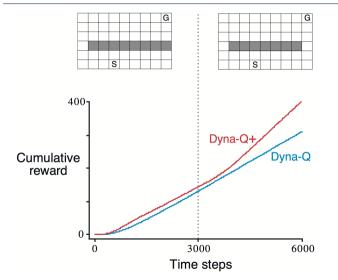


- Motivation: models maybe incorrect; leads to sub-optimal policies
 - Limited sample size for a given state-action pair
 - the environment changes and new behavior has not been observed
- Idea: encourage long-untried actions
 - For each state-action pair, check how many times have elapsed since it was last tried
 - Use **bonus reward** in action selection:

$$\boldsymbol{a} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} - \operatorname{greedy}(\boldsymbol{s}, \boldsymbol{Q} + \kappa \sqrt{\tau}),$$

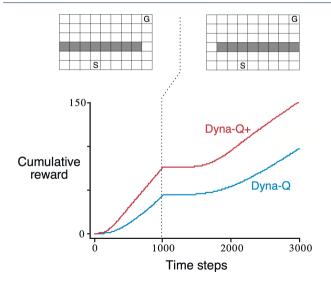
for some small $\kappa > 0$. $\tau(s, a)$ denotes the times have elapsed since (s, a) was last tried

Dyna-Q with an Inaccurate Model



- The changed environment is easier
- The left environment was used for the first 3000 steps
- The right environment was used for the rest

Dyna-Q with an Inaccurate Model (Cont'd)



- The changed environment is harder
- The left environment was used for the first 1000 steps
- The right environment was used for the rest

- First, we learn a model (reward and state transition functions) based on data
- Next, we can implement **planning** based on the learned model
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Two Ways of Planning

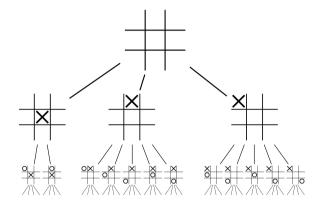
• Background planning

- Planning is used well **before** an action is selected
- Need to select actions fo each state, not current state
- Examples: policy iteration and value iteration in Lecture 3

• Decision-time planning

- Planning is started and completed after encountering each new state S_t
- As a computation to **determine** A_t
- On the next step planning begins a new with S_{t+1} to produce A_{t+1} , and so no

Game Trees



- Game trees: data structures to represent a game
- Exhaustive search can be computationally intensive
- Solutions bought by Monte Carlo tree search

Monte-Carlo Tree Search (Evaluation)

- Given a model ${\cal M}$
- Simulate **K** episodes from current states S_t using current policy π

$$\left\{\boldsymbol{S}_{t}, \boldsymbol{A}_{t}^{k}, \boldsymbol{R}_{t}^{k}, \boldsymbol{S}_{t+1}^{k}, \boldsymbol{A}_{t+1}^{k}, \boldsymbol{R}_{t+1}^{k}, \cdots, \boldsymbol{S}_{T}^{k}\right\}_{k=1}^{K} \sim \mathcal{M}, \pi$$

- Build a search tree containing visited states and actions
- Evaluate states Q(s, a) by mean return of episodes from s, a

$$Q(s, a) = \frac{1}{N(s, a)} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{u=t}^{T} \mathbb{I}(S_u = s, A_u = a) G_u \to Q^{\pi}(s, a)$$

• After search is finished, select current action with maximum value in search tree

$$A_t = \arg \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} Q(S_t, a)$$

Monte-Carlo Tree Search (Simulation)

- In MCTS, the simulation policy (rollout policy) π that simulates data **improves**
- Repeat (each simulation)
 - Evaluate states Q(s, a) by Monte-Carlo evaluation
 - Improve simulation policy, e.g., by ε -greedy($m{Q}$)
 - Monte-Carlo control applied to simulated experience
- Converges to the optimal search tree, $Q(s,a)
 ightarrow Q^{\pi^{\mathrm{opt}}}(s,a)$

1. What is Model-based RL

2. How to Implement Model-based RL

3. Mastering the Game of Go

Case Study: the Game of Go



- Invented in China over 2500 years ago
- The hardest classic board game
- Much harder than chess:
 - Go has larger number of legal moves than chess (≈250 v.s. ≈35)
 - Go involve more moves than chess (\approx 150 v.s. \approx 80)
 - Traditional game-tree search fails in Go

Rules of Go

- Two players place down white and black stones alternately
- Stones are **captured** according to simple rules

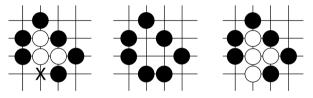


Figure: Left: the three white stones are not surrounded because point X is unoccupied. Middle: if black places a stone on X, the three white stones are captured and removed from the board. Right: if white places a stone on point X first, the capture is blocked.

- The game ends when neither player wishes to place another stone
- The player with more territory wins the game

Two-Player Zero-Sum Markov Games

- Simplest extension of MDP $\langle \boldsymbol{\mathcal{S}}, \boldsymbol{\mathcal{A}}, \boldsymbol{\mathcal{B}}, \boldsymbol{\mathcal{P}}, \boldsymbol{\mathcal{R}}, \boldsymbol{\gamma} \rangle$
- ${\mathcal A}$ and ${\mathcal B}$ are actions spaces of first and second players
- ${\cal R}$ is reward function. In Go,
 - $R_t = 0$ for all non-terminal steps
 - $R_{T} = 1$ if Black wins and -1 otherwise
- Let π and u be policies of the first and second players
- The state-value function depends on both π and u

$$oldsymbol{V}^{\pi,
u}(s) = \mathbb{E}\left[\left.\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t R_t \right| oldsymbol{S}_0 = s, oldsymbol{A}_t \sim \pi, oldsymbol{B}_t \sim
u
ight]$$

Nash Equilibrium

• At each state *s*, the two players aim to solve two minimax problems

$$\arg \max_{\pi} \boldsymbol{V}^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{s}) = \arg \max_{\pi} \min_{\nu} \boldsymbol{V}^{\pi,\nu}(\boldsymbol{s})$$
$$\arg \min_{\nu} \boldsymbol{V}^{\nu}(\boldsymbol{s}) = \arg \min_{\nu} \max_{\pi} \boldsymbol{V}^{\pi,\nu}(\boldsymbol{s})$$

• Under Markov and time-homogeneity assumptions, there exist stationary policies π^* (ν^*) whose values are no worse (better) than any history dependent policy

$$oldsymbol{V}^{\pi^*,
u^*}(oldsymbol{s}) = rg\max_{\pi} \min_{
u} oldsymbol{V}^{\pi,
u}(oldsymbol{s}) = rg\min_{
u} \max_{\pi} oldsymbol{V}^{\pi,
u}(oldsymbol{s})$$

similar to the existence of the optimal stationary policy theorem in Lecture 2

• These policies reach a **Nash equilibrium** [Morgenstern and Von Neumann, 1953], i.e., no player can play better by changing his/her own policy

	Prisoner B stays silent (cooperates)	Prisoner B betrays (defects)
Prisoner A stays silent (cooperates)	Each serves 1 year	Prisoner A: 3 years Prisoner B: goes free
Prisoner A betrays (defects)	Prisoner A: goes free Prisoner B: 3 years	Each serves 2 years

Mutual defection is the only Nash equilibrium

Bellman Optimally Equation

• Bellman optimal equation for the state value

$$\boldsymbol{V}^{\pi^*,\nu^*}(\boldsymbol{S}_t) = \max_{\boldsymbol{a}} \min_{\boldsymbol{b}} \mathbb{E}\left[\left.\boldsymbol{R}_t + \gamma \boldsymbol{V}^{\pi^*,\nu^*}(\boldsymbol{S}_{t+1})\right| \boldsymbol{S}_t, \boldsymbol{A}_t = \boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{B}_t = \boldsymbol{b}\right]$$

• Bellman optimal equation for the state-action value

$$\boldsymbol{Q}^{\pi^*,\nu^*}(\boldsymbol{S}_t,\boldsymbol{A}_t,\boldsymbol{B}_t) = \mathbb{E}\left[\left.\boldsymbol{R}_t + \gamma \max_{\boldsymbol{a}} \min_{\boldsymbol{b}} \boldsymbol{Q}^{\pi^*,\nu^*}(\boldsymbol{S}_{t+1},\boldsymbol{a},\boldsymbol{b})\right| \boldsymbol{S}_t, \boldsymbol{A}_t = \boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{B}_t = \boldsymbol{b}\right]$$

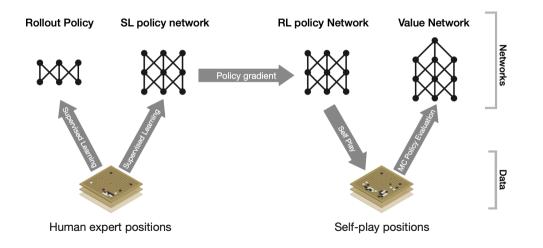
 The values can be learned similarly to standard TD/Q learning algorithms for MDP [see e.g., Fan et al., 2020]

AlphaGo



- Based on a novel version of **Monte-Carlo tree search** (MCTS)
- Combined with a **policy** and a **value function** learned by RL with function approximation provided by deep CNN
- Simulate trajectories and generate the search tree using the rollout policy
- Expand search tree by selecting unexplored actions according to a policy network
- Policy network trained previously via supervised learning to predict moves contained in a database of nearly 30 million human expert moves
- Evaluate state-action value based on simulated returns (MC) and a value network
- Value network trained previously via RL

AlphaGo Pipeline (Cont'd)



Feature	# of planes	Description
Stone colour	3	Player stone / opponent stone / empty
Ones	1	A constant plane filled with 1
Turns since	8	How many turns since a move was played
Liberties	8	Number of liberties (empty adjacent points)
Capture size	8	How many opponent stones would be captured
Self-atari size	8	How many of own stones would be captured
Liberties after move	8	Number of liberties after this move is played
Ladder capture	1	Whether a move at this point is a successful ladder capture
Ladder escape	1	Whether a move at this point is a successful ladder escape
Sensibleness	1	Whether a move is legal and does not fill its own eyes
Zeros	1	A constant plane filled with 0
Player color	1	Whether current player is black

Extended Data Table 2 | Input features for neural networks

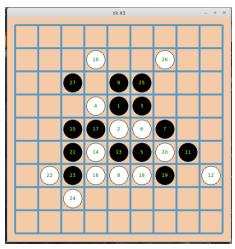
- Training the **SL policy network** took approximately 3 weeks using distributed implementation of SGD on 50 processors
- The SL policy network achieved 57% accuracy; best accuracy achieved by other methods 44%
- The **RL policy network** is trained on a million games in a single day
- The final RL policy won more than ${\bf 80\%}$ of games played against the SL policy
- It won **85**% of games played against a Go program using MCTS that simulated 100,000 games per move

- The value network used Monte Carlo policy evaluation based on data obtained from a large number of self-play games played using the RL policy
- To avoid overfitting and instability, and to reduce the strong correlations between positions encountered in self-play, the dataset consists of **30** million positions, each chosen randomly from a unique self-play game
- Training was done using **50** million mini-batches each of **32** positions drawn from this data set
- Training took one week on **50** GPUs

- The **rollout policy** was learned prior to play by a simple linear network trained by supervised learning from a corpus of **8** million human moves
- In principle, the SL or RL policy networks could have been used in the rollouts, but the forward propagation through these deep networks took **too much time** for either of them to be used in rollout simulations
- The rollout policy network allowed approximately 1,000 complete game simulations per second to be run on each of the processing threads

AlphaGo Zero on Gomoku

https://github.com/initial-h/AlphaZero_Gomoku_MPI



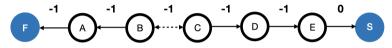


- Model-based/Model free learning
- Integrating planning and learning
- Dyna-Q/Dyna-Q⁺
- Simulation-based search
- Background/Decision-time planning

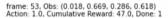
- Monte Carlo Tree Search
- Two-player zero-sum Markov games
- Nash equilibrium
- AlphaGo

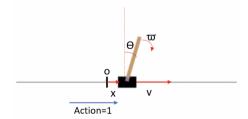
Seminar Exercise

• Solution to HW8 (Deadline: Wed 12:00 pm)



• Advantage Actor-Critic (with deep neural networks) to CartPole





• Implementation of Dyna-Q algorithm

- Jianqing Fan, Zhaoran Wang, Yuchen Xie, and Zhuoran Yang. A theoretical analysis of deep q-learning. In *Learning for Dynamics and Control*, pages 486–489. PMLR, 2020.
 Oskar Morgenstern and John Von Neumann. *Theory of games and economic behavior*. Princeton university press, 1953.
- Jonas Rothfuss, Fabio Ferreira, Simon Walther, and Maxim Ulrich. Conditional density estimation with neural networks: Best practices and benchmarks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1903.00954*, 2019.
- Brian L Trippe and Richard E Turner. Conditional density estimation with bayesian normalising flows. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1802.04908*, 2018.
- Christopher K Williams and Carl Edward Rasmussen. *Gaussian processes for machine learning*, volume 2. MIT press Cambridge, MA, 2006.

Questions