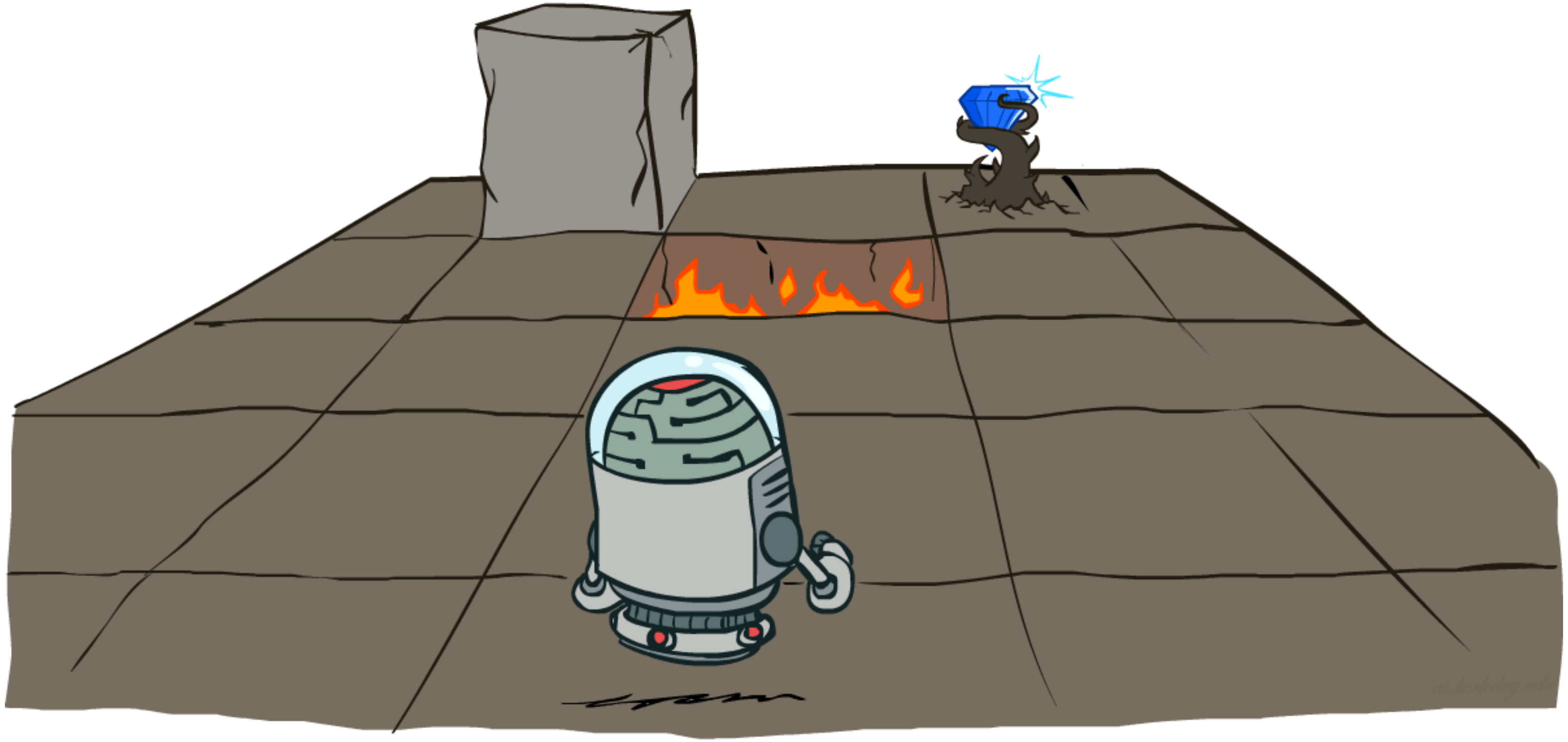
COE 4213564

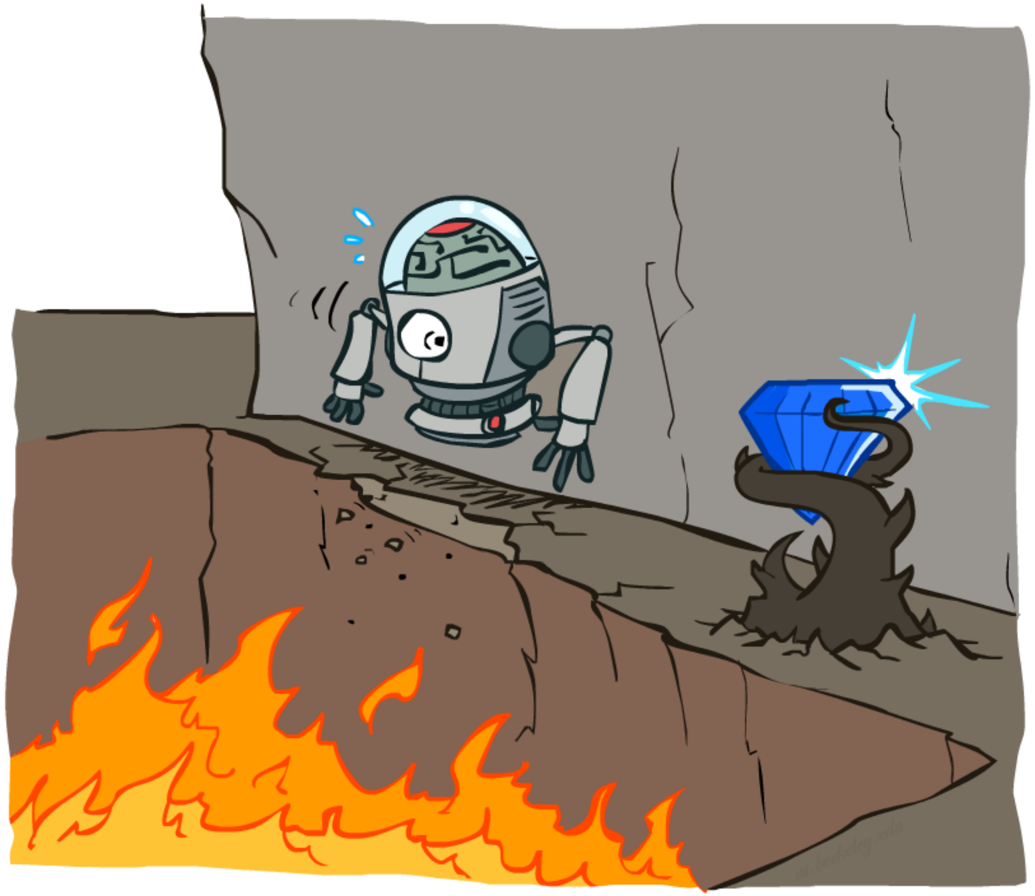
Introduction to Artificial Intelligence

Markov Decision Processes



Many slides are adapted from CS 188 (http://ai.berkeley.edu), CS 322, CIS 521, CS 221, CS182, CS4420.

Non-Deterministic Search

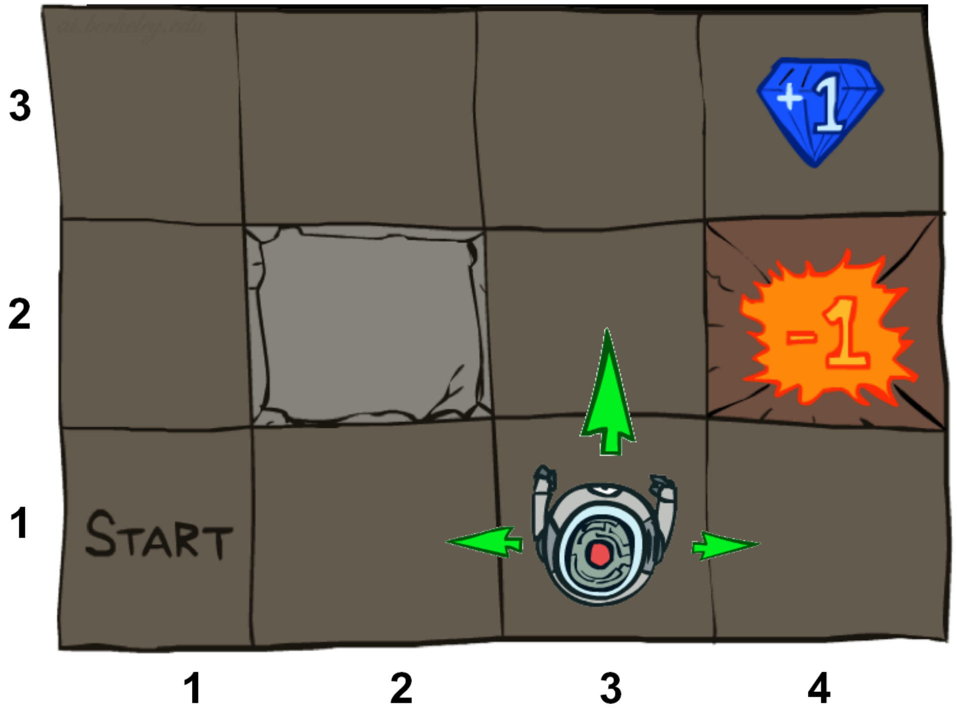


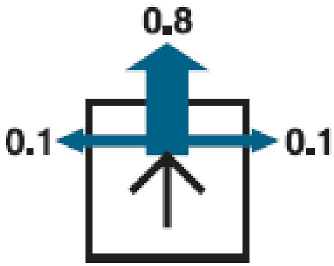
- Chapter 16 focuses on the computational issues involved in making decisions in a stochastic Environment.
- It works on sequential decision problems that incorporate utilities, uncertainty, and sensing, and include search and planning problems as special cases.
- A sequential decision problem for a fully observable, stochastic environment with a Markovian transition model and additive rewards is called a Markov decision process.
- Markov decision Process (MDP) consists of a set of states (with an initial state s_0); a set ACTIONS(s) of actions in each state; a transition model P(s' | s;a); and a reward function R(s,a, s').
- Transitions are Markovian that means the probability of reaching state s' from s depends only on s and not on the history of earlier states.
- MDPs are non-deterministic search problems.

Example: Grid World

- A maze-like problem
  - The agent lives in a grid
  - Walls block the agent's path
- The interaction with the environment terminates when the agent reaches one of the goal states, marked +1 or –1.
- The actions available to the agent in each state are given by ACTIONS(s), sometimes abbreviated to A(s).
- In the 4x3 environment, the actions in every state are Up (North), Down (South), Left (West), and Right (East).
- If the environment were deterministic, a solution would be easy:

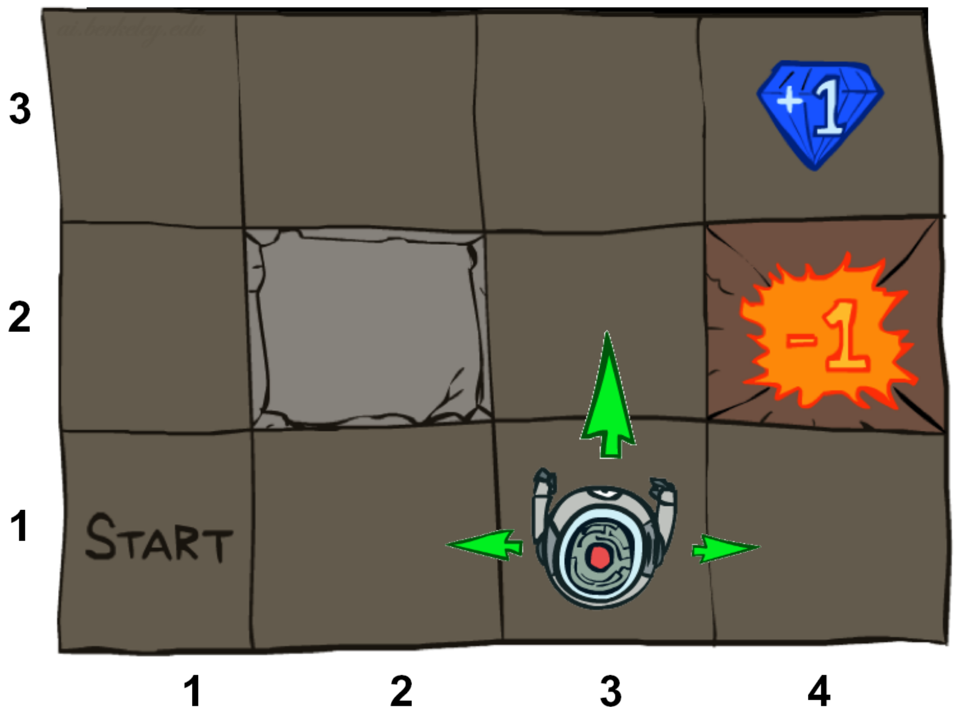
  [Up, Up, Right, Right, Right].
- Unfortunately, the environment won't always go along with this solution, because the actions are unreliable (non-deterministic)

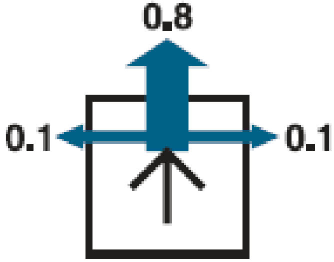




Example: Grid World

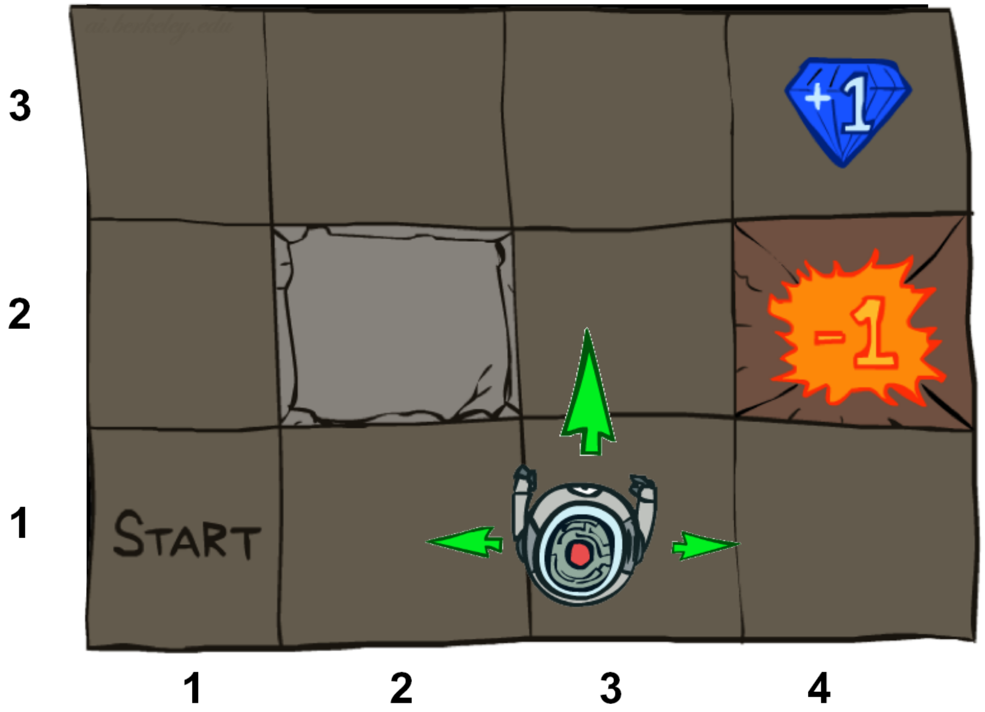
- We are in a non-deterministic, stochastic or noisy environment.
- Noisy movement: actions do not always go as planned
  - With 80% of the time, the action Up (North) takes place (if there is no wall there)
  - With 10% of the time, the agent moves Left (West) or Right (East)
  - If there is a wall in the direction the agent would have been taken, the agent stays there
- The transition model (or just “model,” when the meaning is clear) describes the outcome of each action in each state.
- Here, the outcome is stochastic, so we write transition functions P(s’ | s, a) (or T(s ,a, s’)) for the probability of reaching state s’ if action a is done in state s.
- We will assume that transitions are Markovian: the probability of reaching s’ from s depends only on s and not on the history of earlier states.

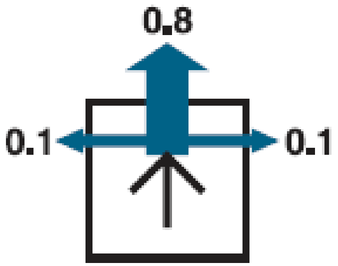




Example: Grid World

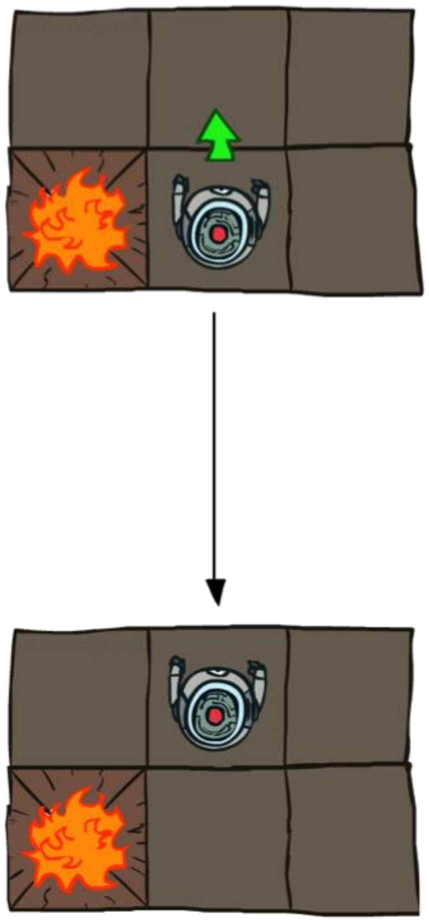
- The agent receives rewards each time step
  - Small “living” reward each step (can be negative)
  - Big rewards come at the end (good or bad)
- To complete the definition of the task environment, we must specify the utility function for the agent. Because the decision problem is sequential, the utility (reward) function will depend on a sequence of states and actions.
- For every transition from s to s’ via action a, the agent receives a reward Reward R(s, a, s’). The rewards may be positive or negative, but they are bounded by -Rmax and +Rmax.
- For our particular example, the reward is -0.04 for all transitions except those entering terminal states (which have rewards +1 and –1). The utility of an environment history is just (for now) the sum of the rewards received.
- For example, if the agent reaches the +1 state after 10 steps, its total utility will be (9 x -0.04)+1=0.64. The negative reward of –0.04 gives the agent an incentive to reach (4,3) quickly, so our environment is a stochastic generalization of the search problems of Chapter 3.
- Goal: maximize sum of rewards



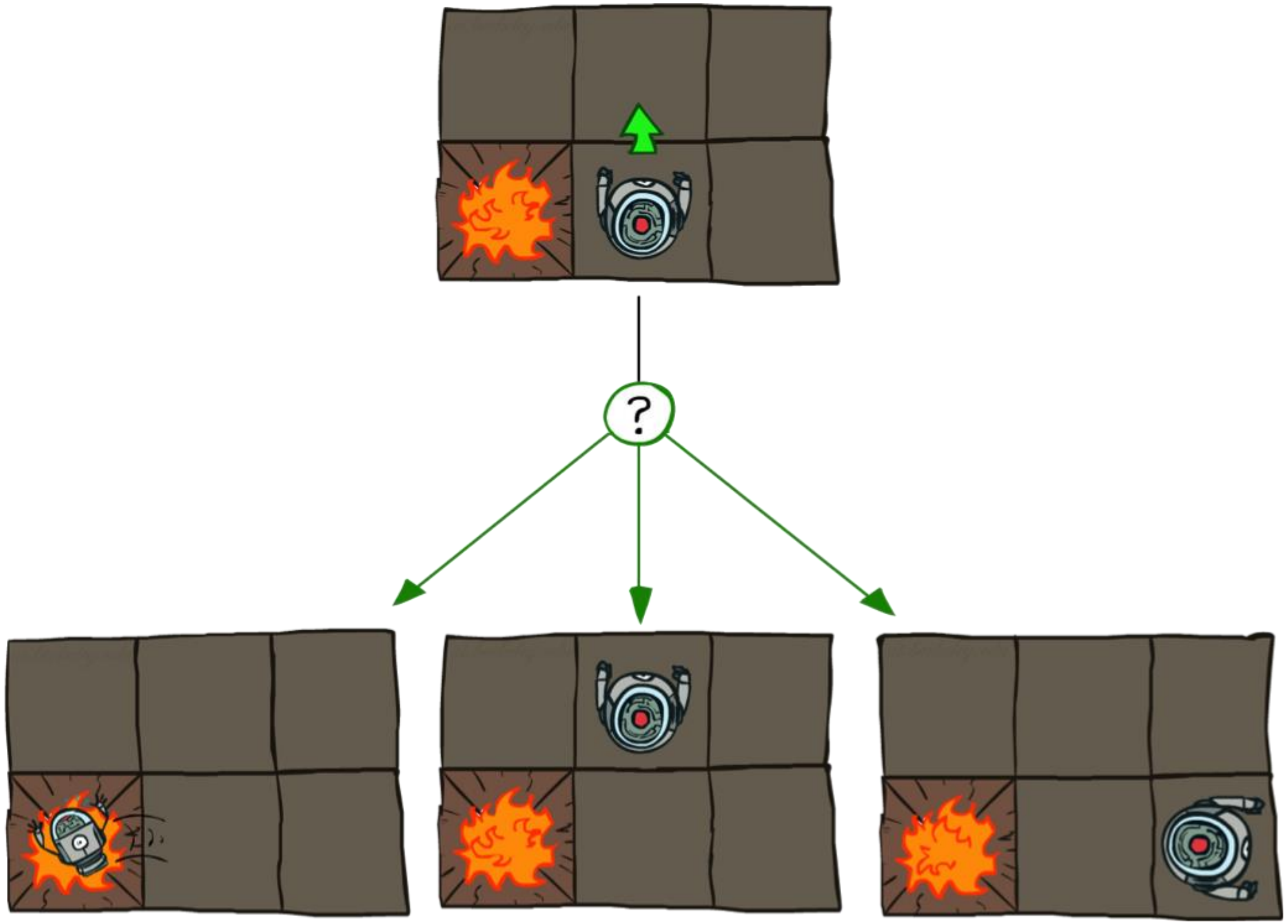


Grid World Actions

Deterministic Grid World

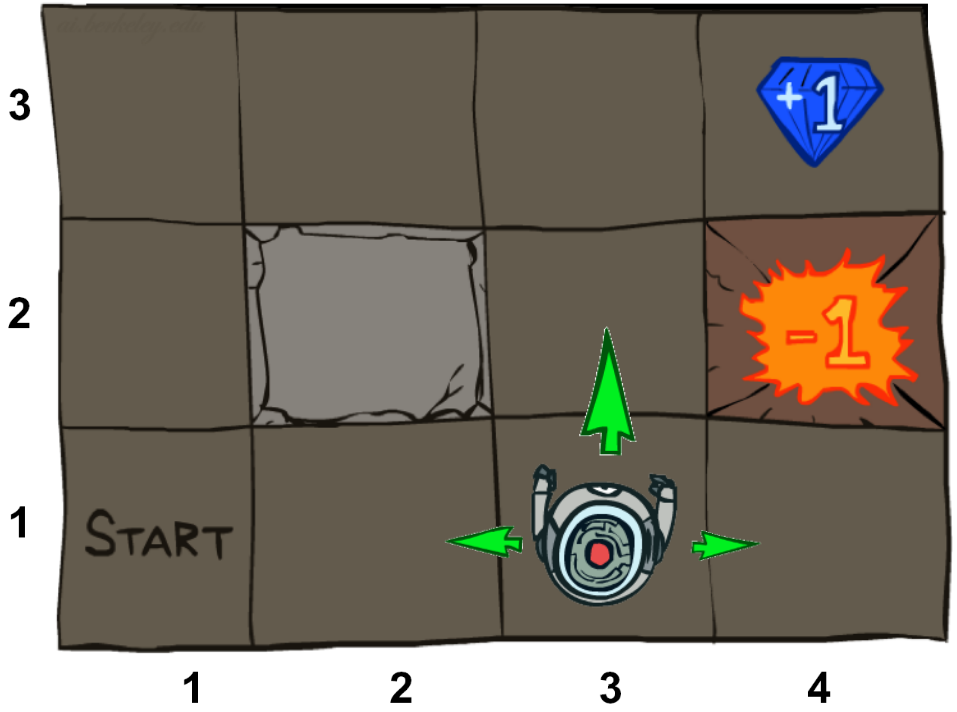


Stochastic Grid World



Markov Decision Processes

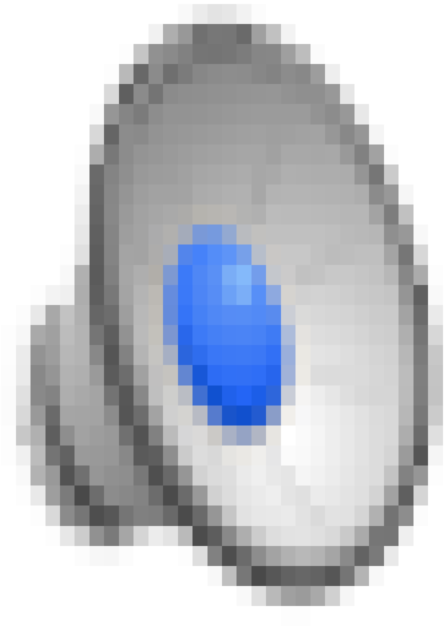
- An MDP is defined by:
  - A set of states $s \in S$
  - A set of actions $a \in A$
  - A transition function T(s, a, s')
    - Probability that a from s leads to s', i.e., P(s'| s, a)
    - Also called the model or the dynamics
  - A reward function R(s, a, s')
    - Sometimes just R(s) or R(s')
 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

Video of Demo Gridworld Manual Intro



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

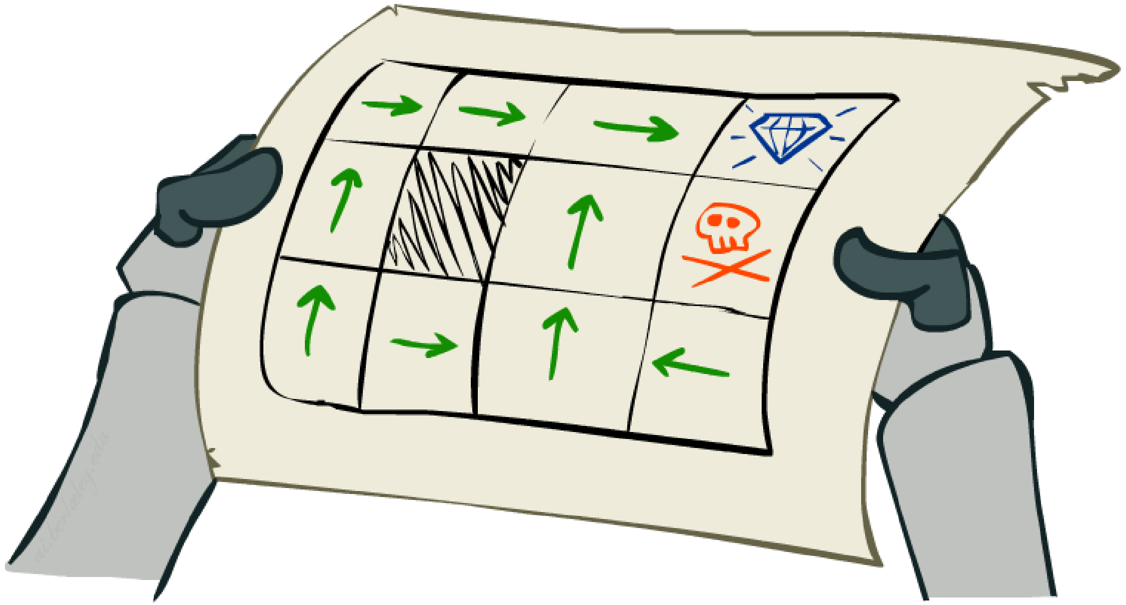
$$P(S_{t+1} = s' | S_t = s_t, A_t = a_t, S_{t-1} = s_{t-1}, A_{t-1}, \dots S_0 = s_0)$$
$$=$$
$$P(S_{t+1} = s' | S_t = s_t, A_t = a_t)$$

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

Andrey Markov
(1856-1922)

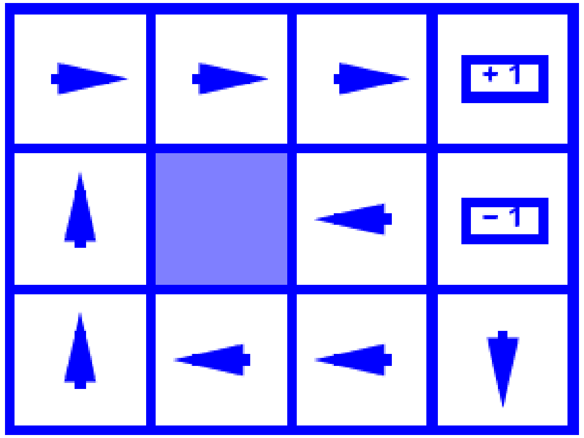
Policies

- In deterministic single-agent search problems, we wanted an optimal plan, or sequence of actions, from start to a goal as a solution.
- In MDPs, a solution is called a policy that will take the agent from start state to goal state.
- It is traditional to denote a policy by π,
- and π (s) is the action recommended by the policy π for state s.
- 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

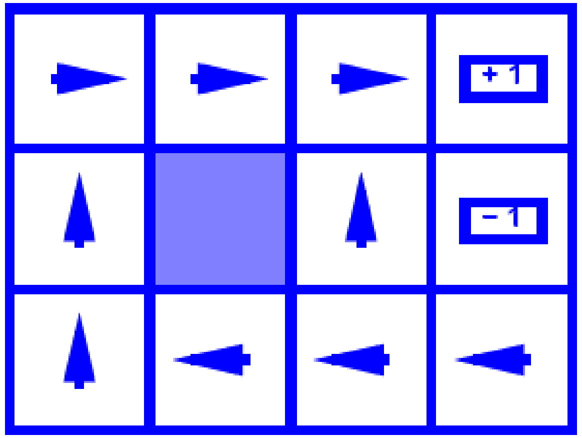


Optimal policy when R(s, a, s') = -0.03 for all non-terminals s

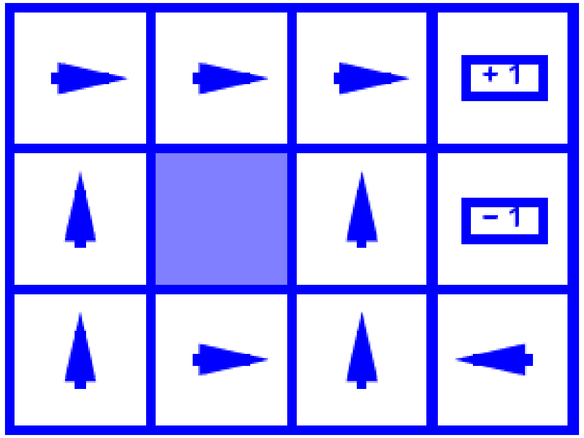
Optimal Policies



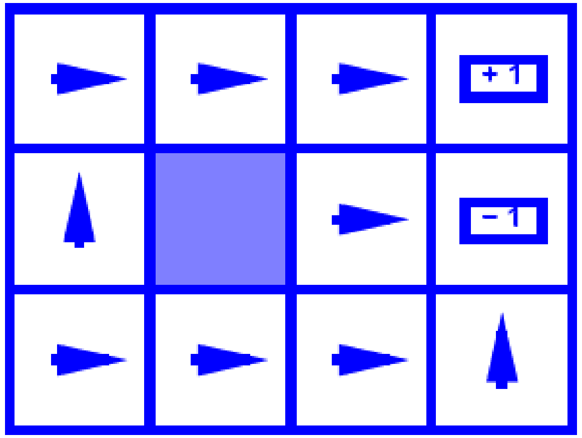
R(s) = -0.01



R(s) = -0.03

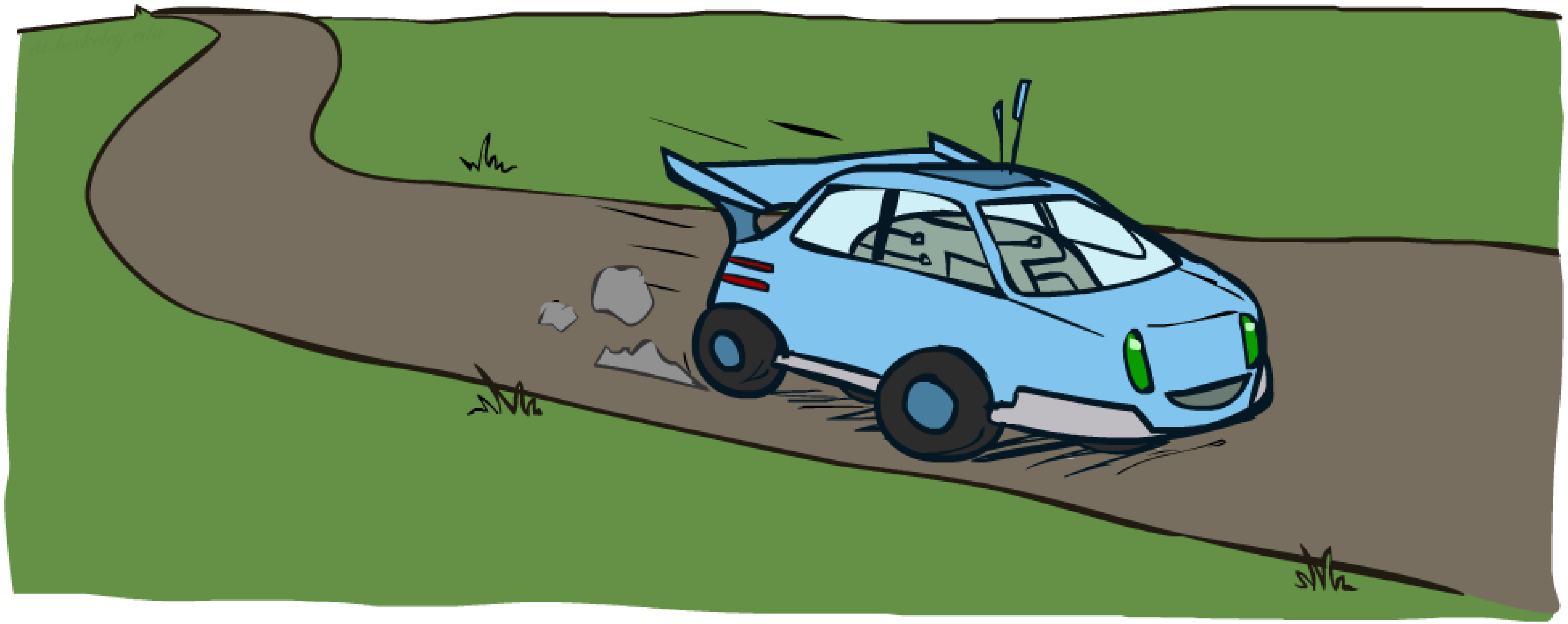


R(s) = -0.4



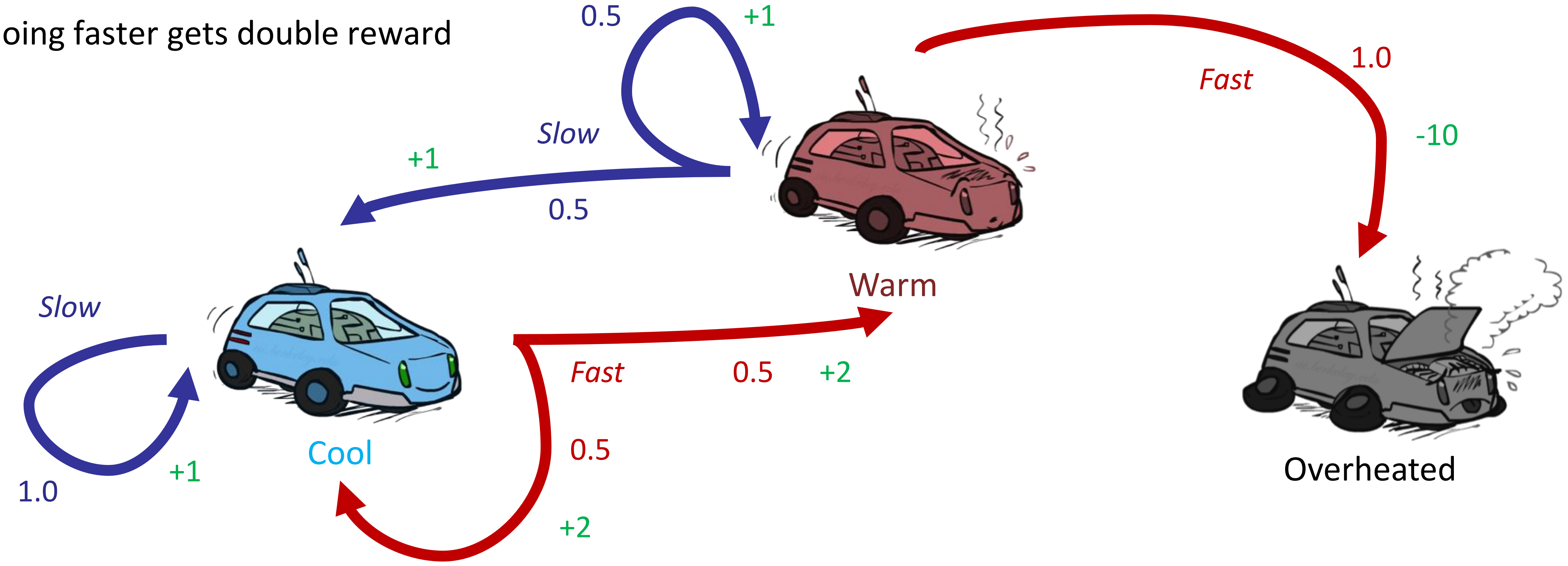
R(s) = -2.0

Example: Racing

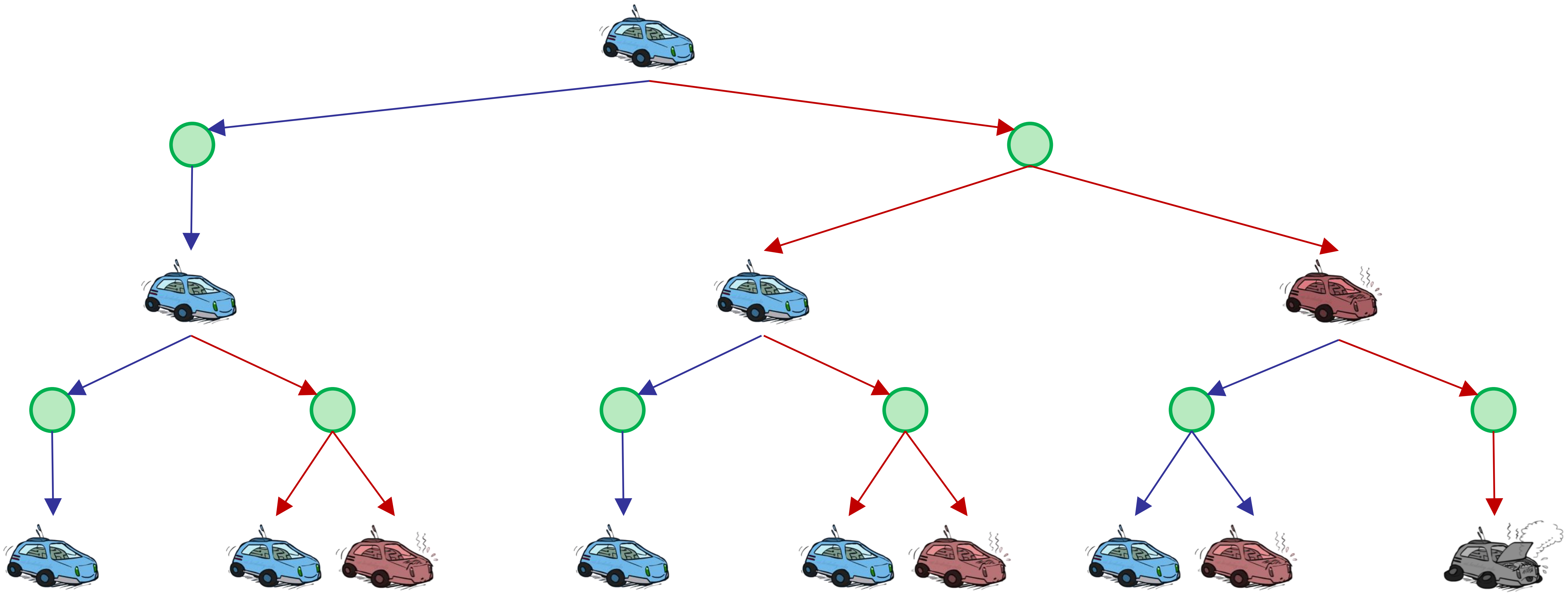


Example: Racing

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

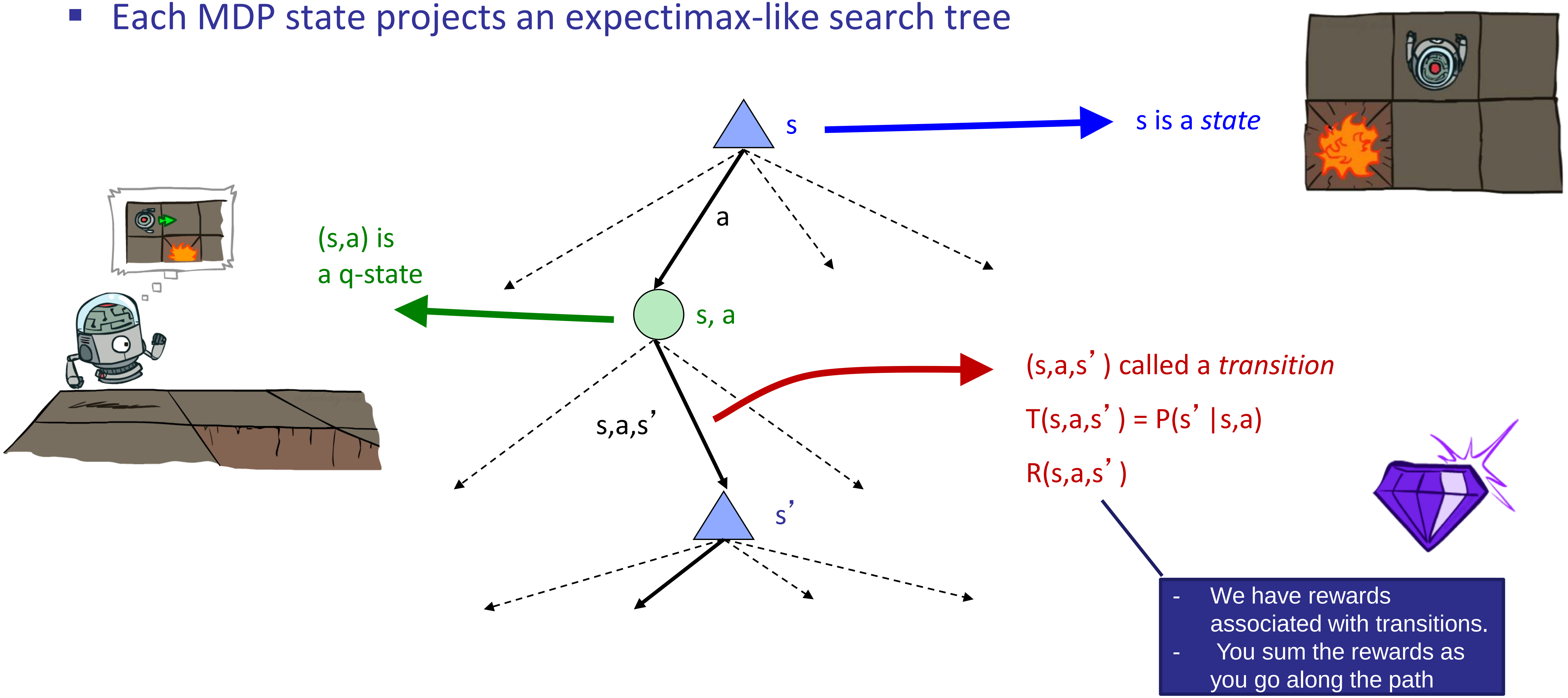


Racing Search Tree

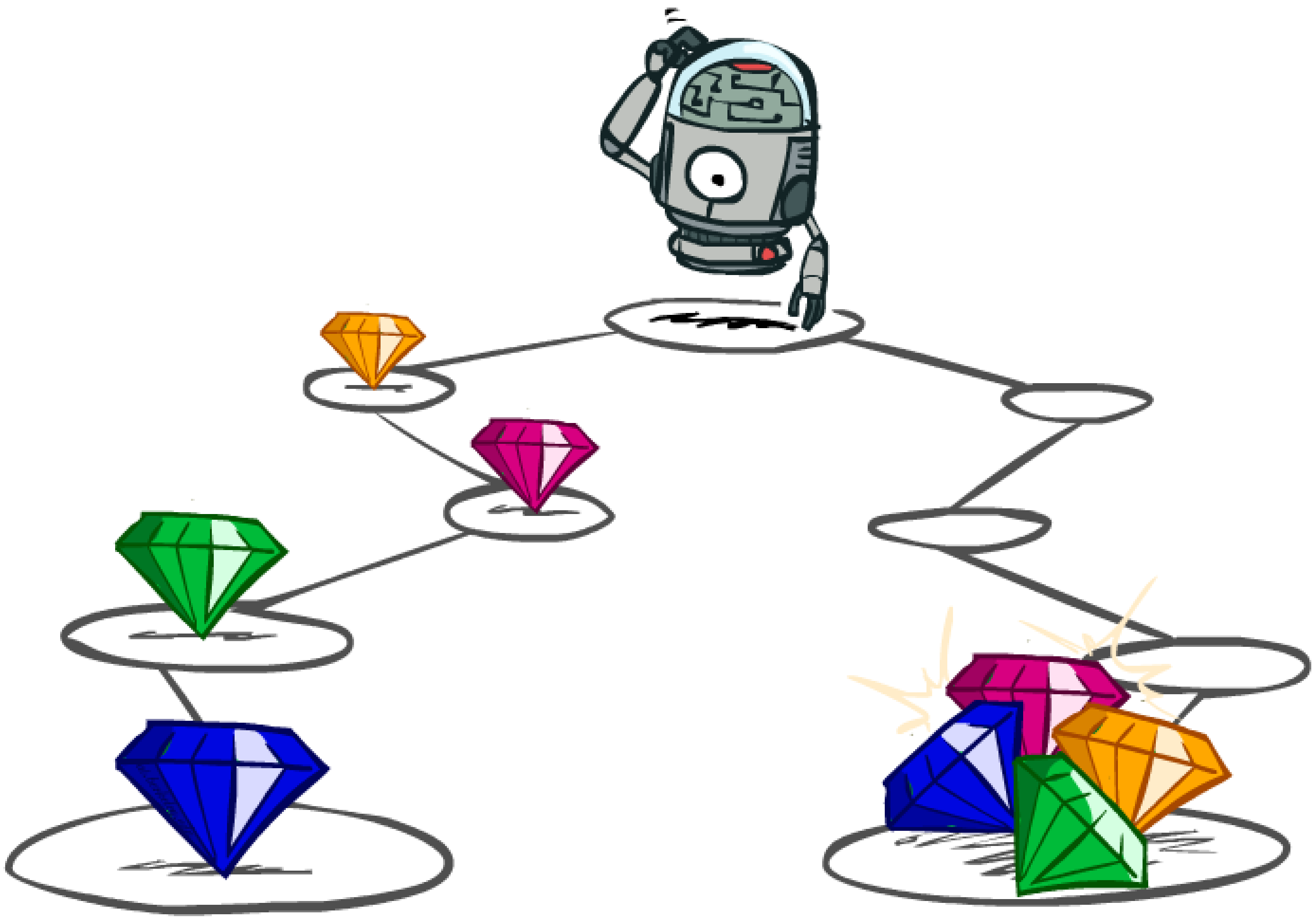


MDP Search Trees

- Each MDP state projects an expectimax-like search tree

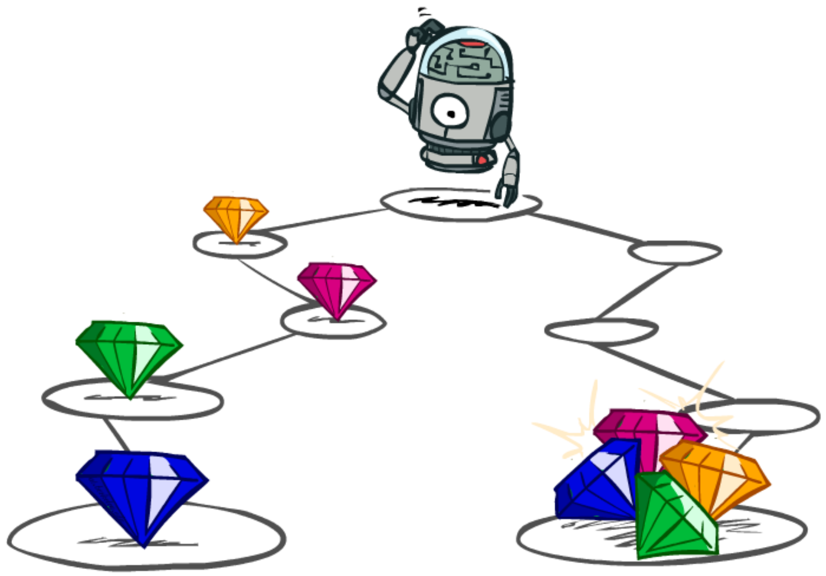


Utilities of Sequences



Utilities of Sequences

- What preferences should an agent have over reward sequences?
- More or less? [1, 2, 2] or [2, 3, 4]
- Now or later? [0, 0, 1] or [1, 0, 0]
- Sooner is better



Discounting

- It's reasonable to maximize the sum of rewards
- It's also reasonable to prefer rewards now to rewards later. We use a discount factor γ which is a number between 0 and 1.
- One solution: values of rewards decay exponentially

1

Worth Now

γ

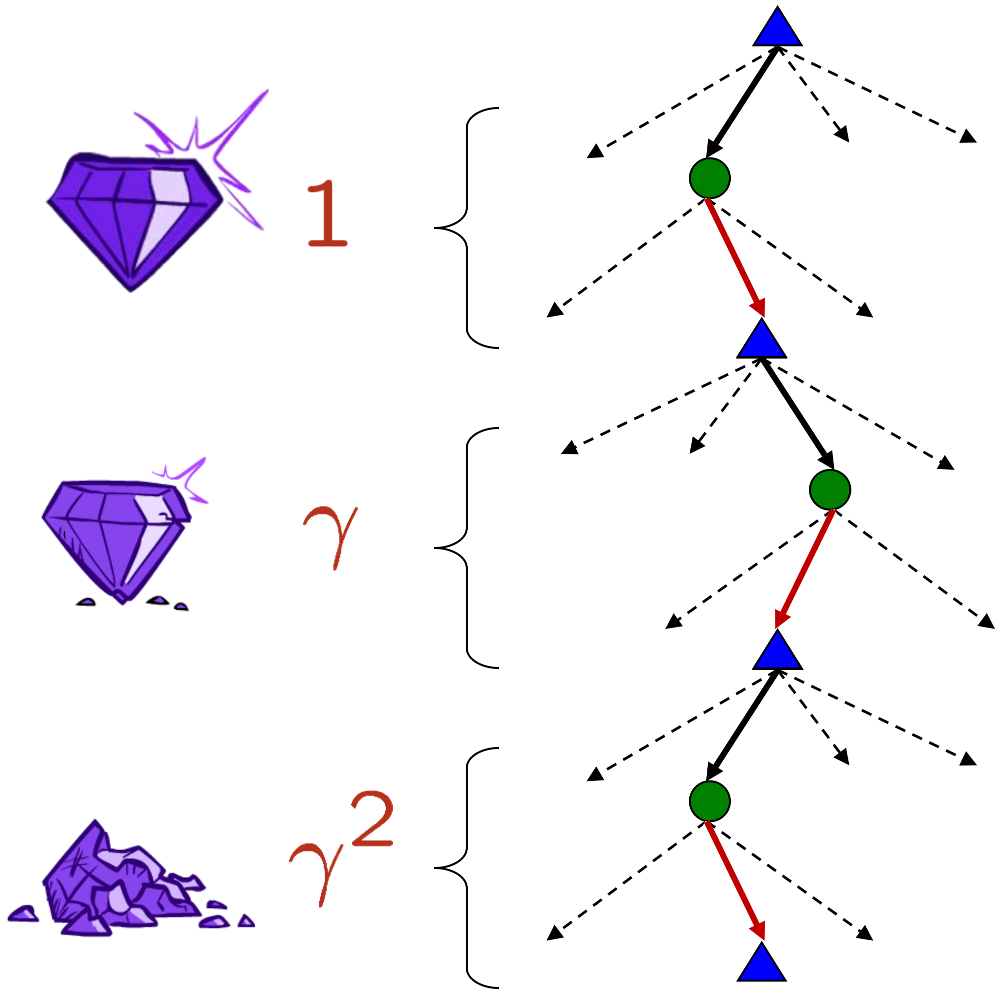
Worth Next Step

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
  - Reward 1 at 1st step, 2 at the 2nd, 3 at the 3rd steps
  - U([1,2,3]) = 1*1 + 0.5*2 + 0.25*3
  - U([1,2,3]) < U([3,2,1])

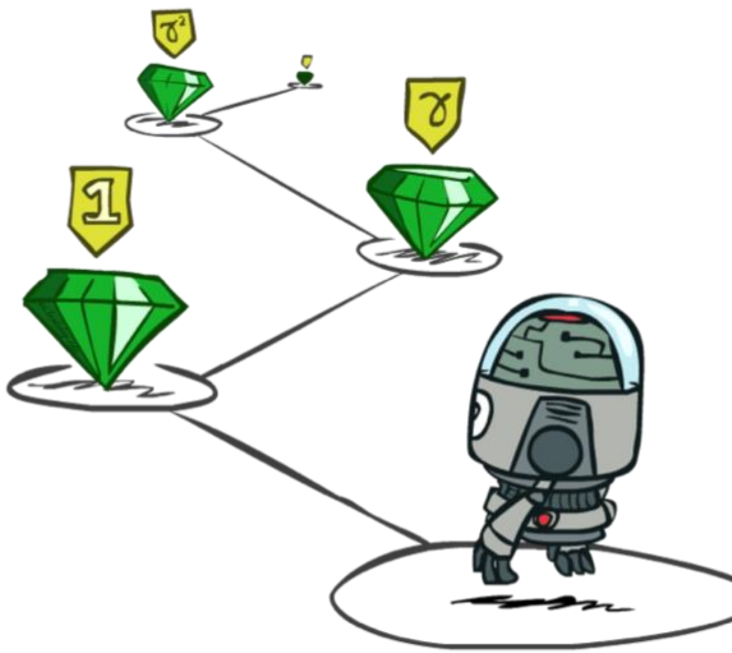


Stationary Preferences

- A policy that depends on the time is called nonstationary.
- An optimal action depends only on the current state, and then an the optimal policy is stationary.
- Theorem: if we assume stationary preferences over a sequence of rewards:

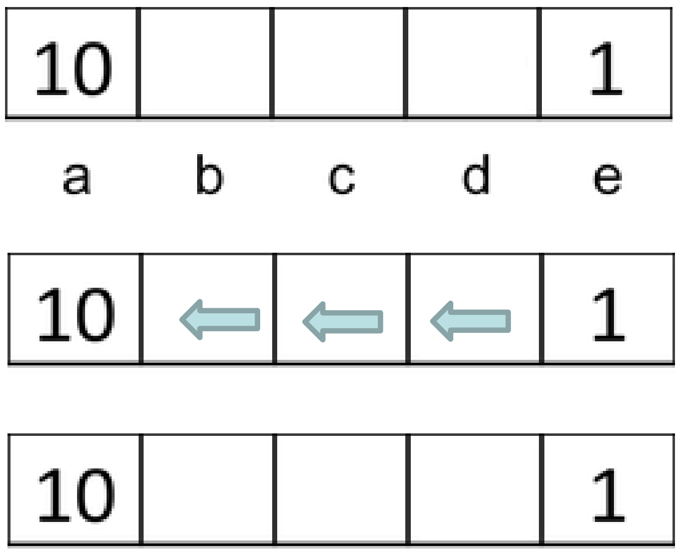
$$[a_1, a_2, \ldots] \succ [b_1, b_2, \ldots]$$
$$\Updownarrow$$
$$[r, a_1, a_2, \ldots] \succ [r, b_1, b_2, \ldots]$$

Reward sequences of a's are better sequences of b's. Add a new reward r to sequences



- Where r is the additional reward
- 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: $U([r_0, r_1, r_2, \ldots]) = r_0 + \gamma r_1 + \gamma^2 r_2 \cdots$

Quiz: Discounting



- Given:
  - Actions: East, West, and Exit (only available in exit states a, e)
  - There is a reward of 10 at state a and 1 at state.
  - Transitions: deterministic

- Quiz 1: For $\gamma = 1$, what is the optimal policy?

- Quiz 2: For $\gamma = 0.1$, what is the optimal policy?

For Quiz 2 on state d:

- Sum rewards
- Go to east : $0 + \gamma * 1 = 0.1$ from d.
- Go to west : $0 + \gamma * 0 + \gamma^2 * 0 + \gamma^3 * 10 = 0.01$ from d.
- So it is better to go to east in you are in state d
- In other states b and c, go to west

- Quiz 3: For which γ are West and East equally good when in state d?

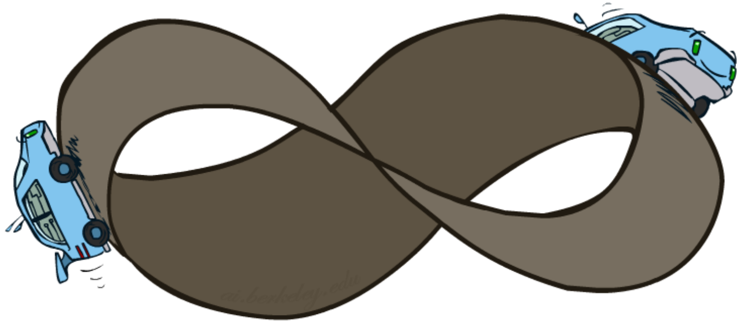
  $\gamma = 1 / \text{sqrt}(10)$

Infinite Utilities?!

- Problem: What if the game lasts forever? Do we get infinite rewards?
- if the environment does not contain a terminal state, or if the agent never reaches one, then all environment histories will be infinitely long, and utilities with additive undiscounted rewards will generally be infifinite
- 3 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 $0 < \gamma < 1$

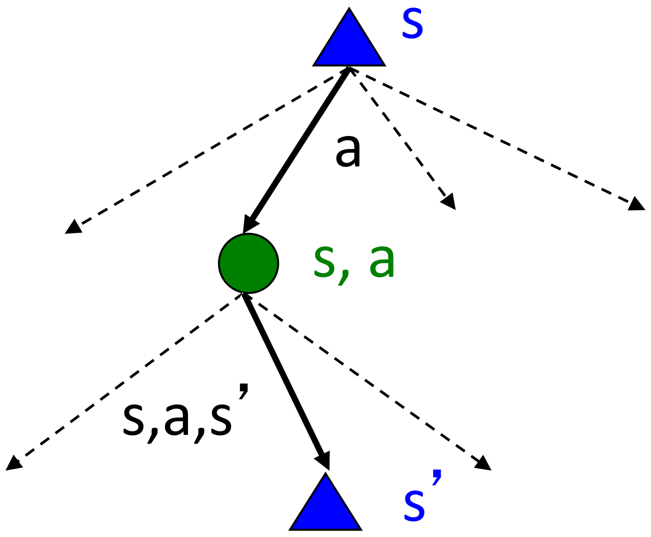
$$U([r_0, \ldots r_\infty]) = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t r_t \leq R_{\max}/(1-\gamma)$$

    - Sum of rewards are bounded (R_{max} : Maximum reward)
    - 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)



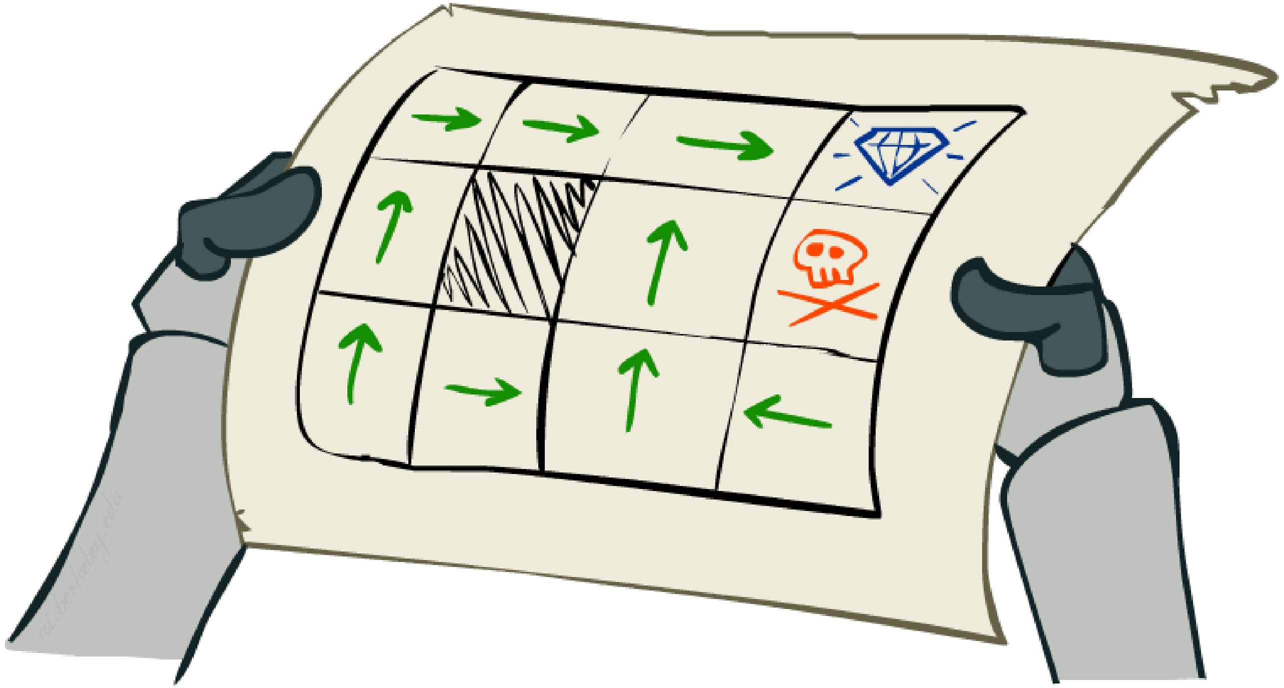
Recap: Defining MDPs

- 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



In this section, we present two different algorithms for solving MDPs:

- value iteration, and
- policy iteration.

Optimal Quantities

- The value (utility) of a state s:

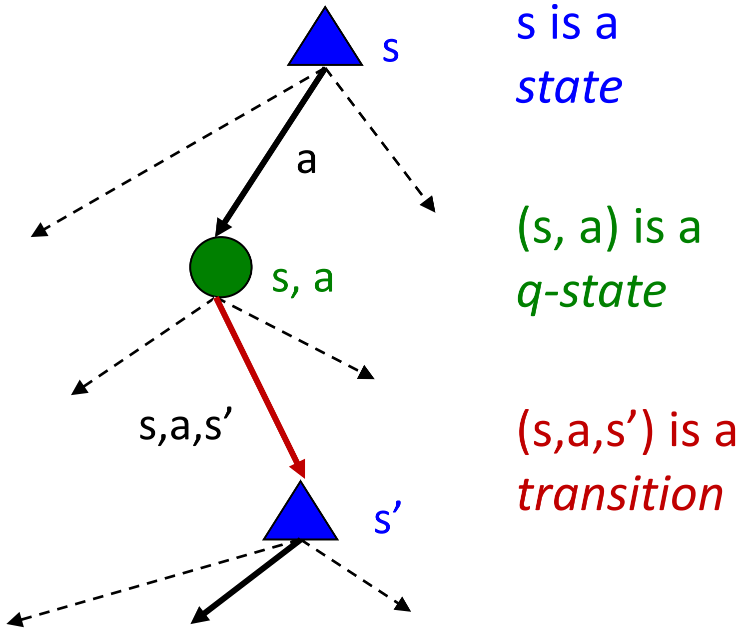
  $V^*(s)$ = expected utility starting in s and acting optimally

- 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

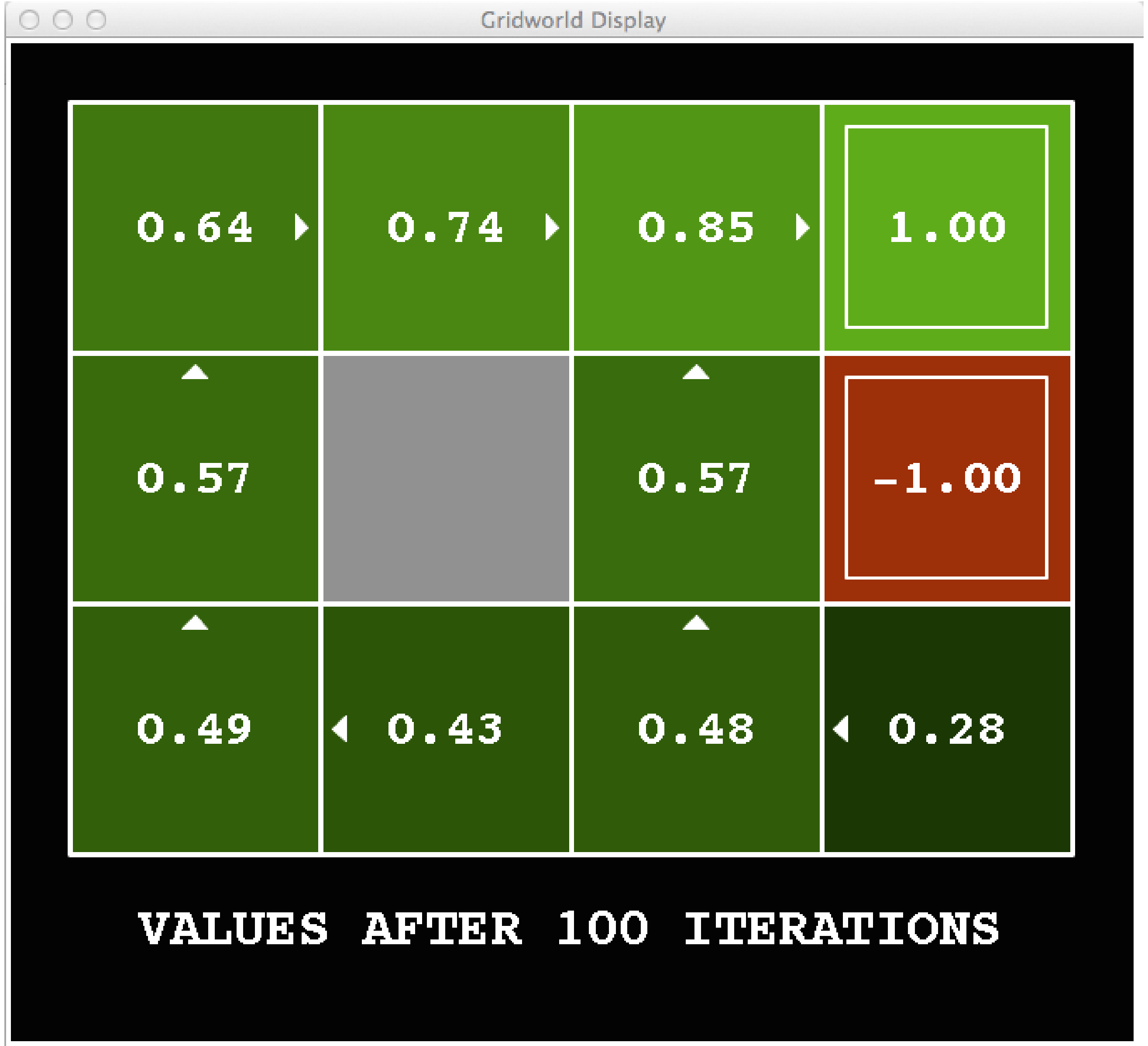
- The optimal policy:

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



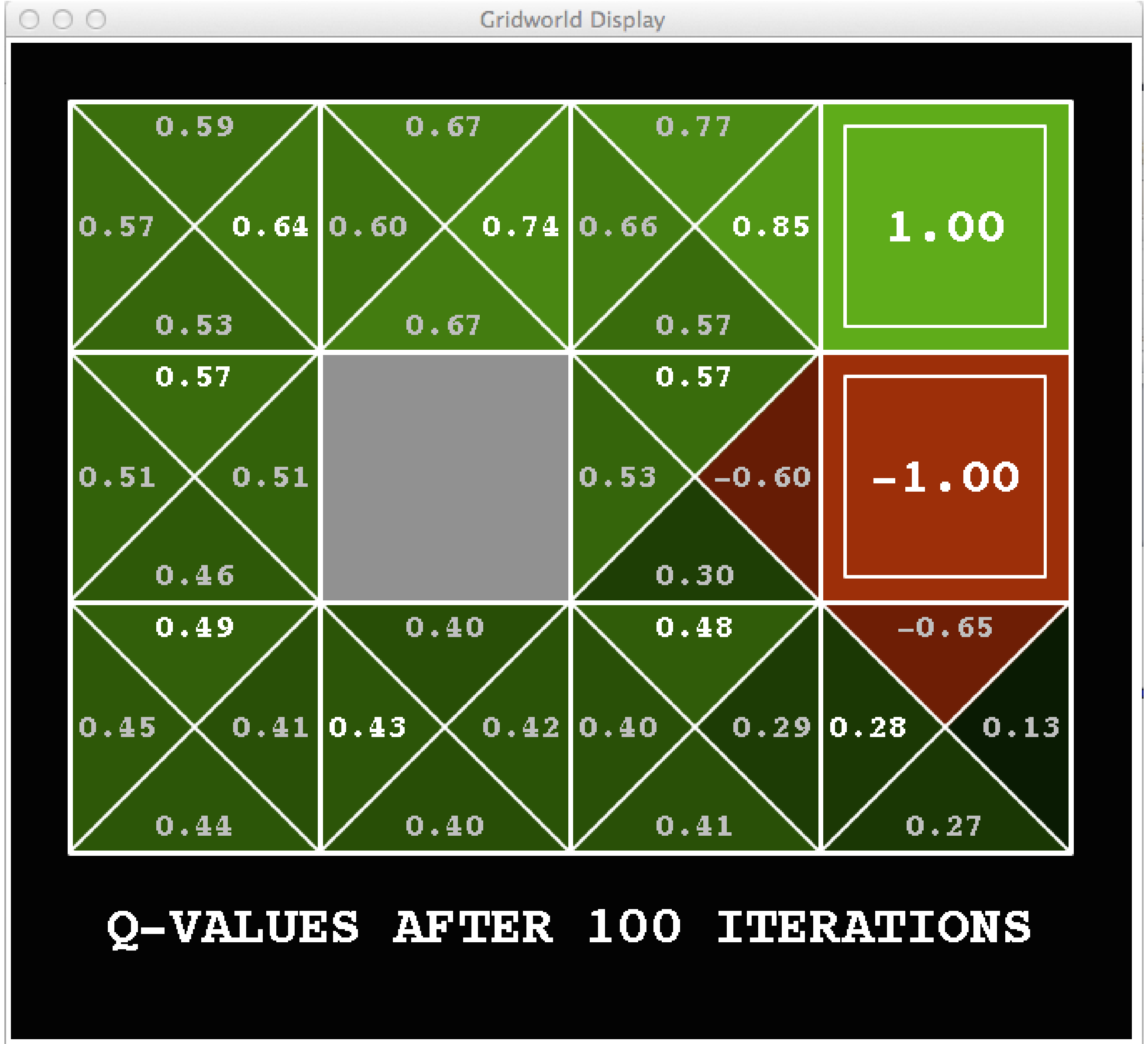
[Demo – gridworld values (L8D4)]

Snapshot of Demo – Gridworld V Values



Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

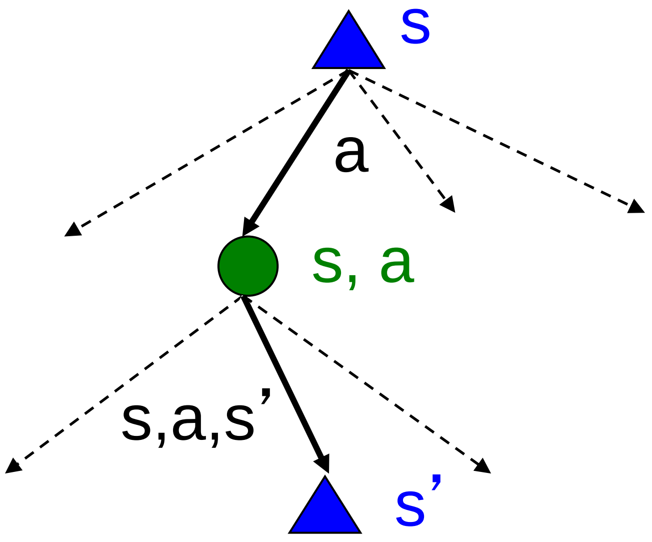
Snapshot of Demo – Gridworld Q Values



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:

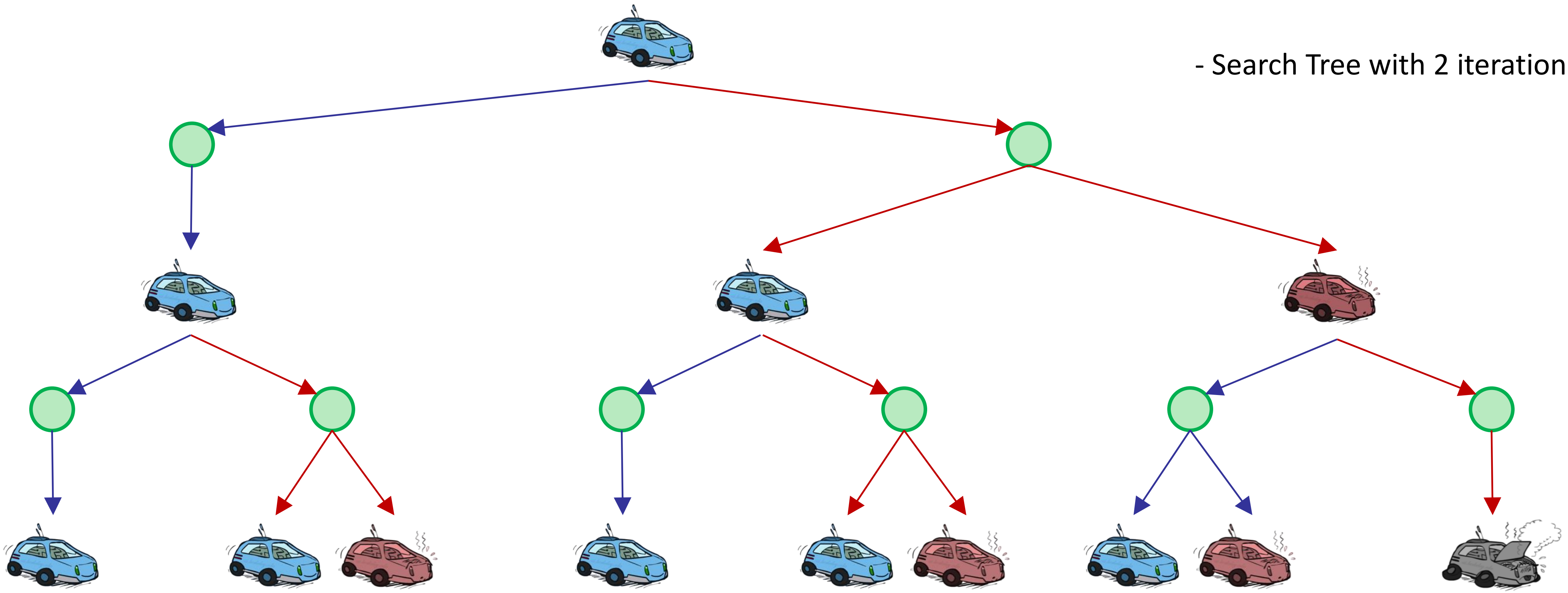
$$V^*(s) = \max_a Q^*(s,a)$$

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

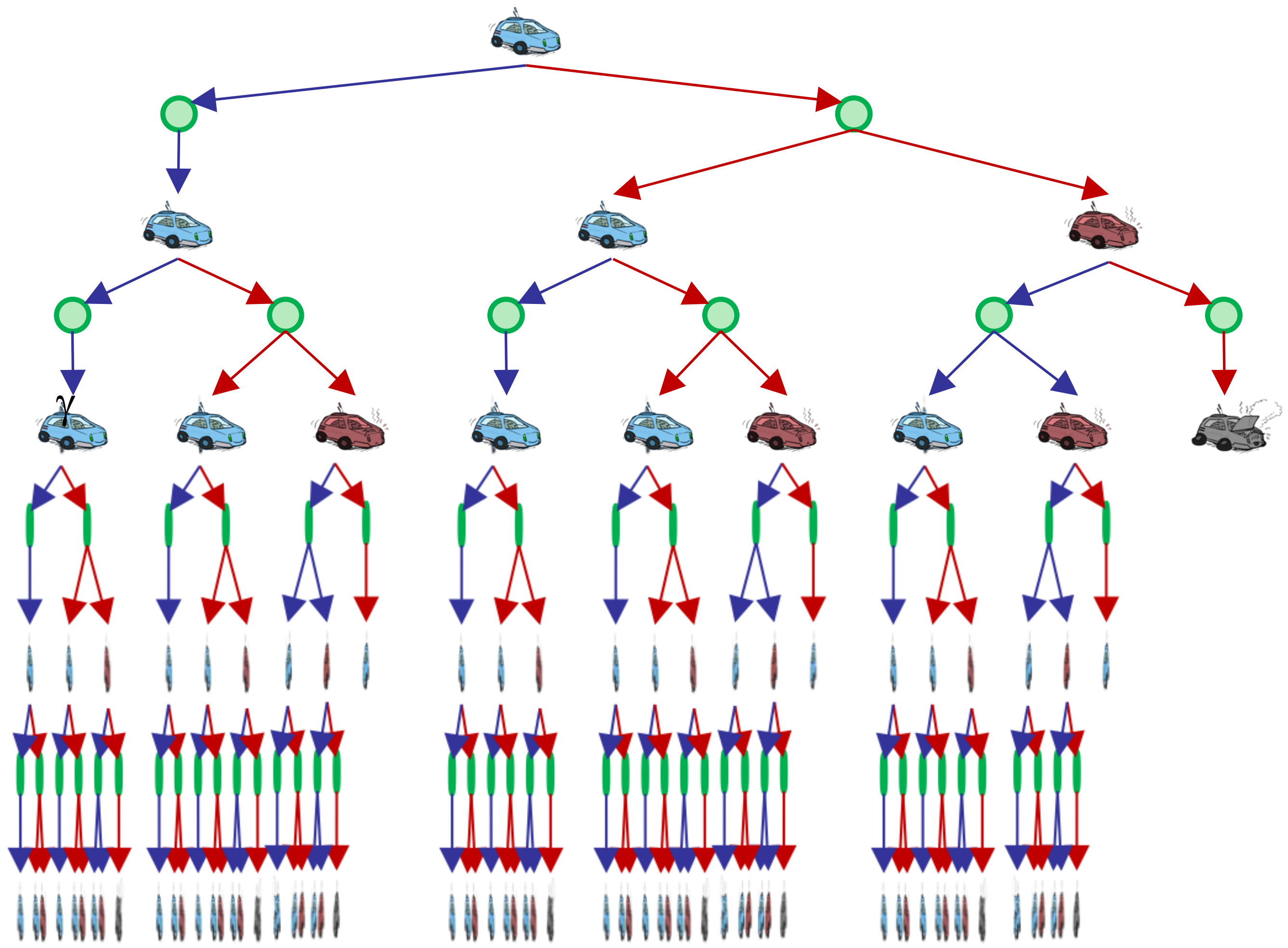
$$V^*(s) = \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma V^*(s')\right]$$

Racing Search Tree

- Search Tree with 2 iterations



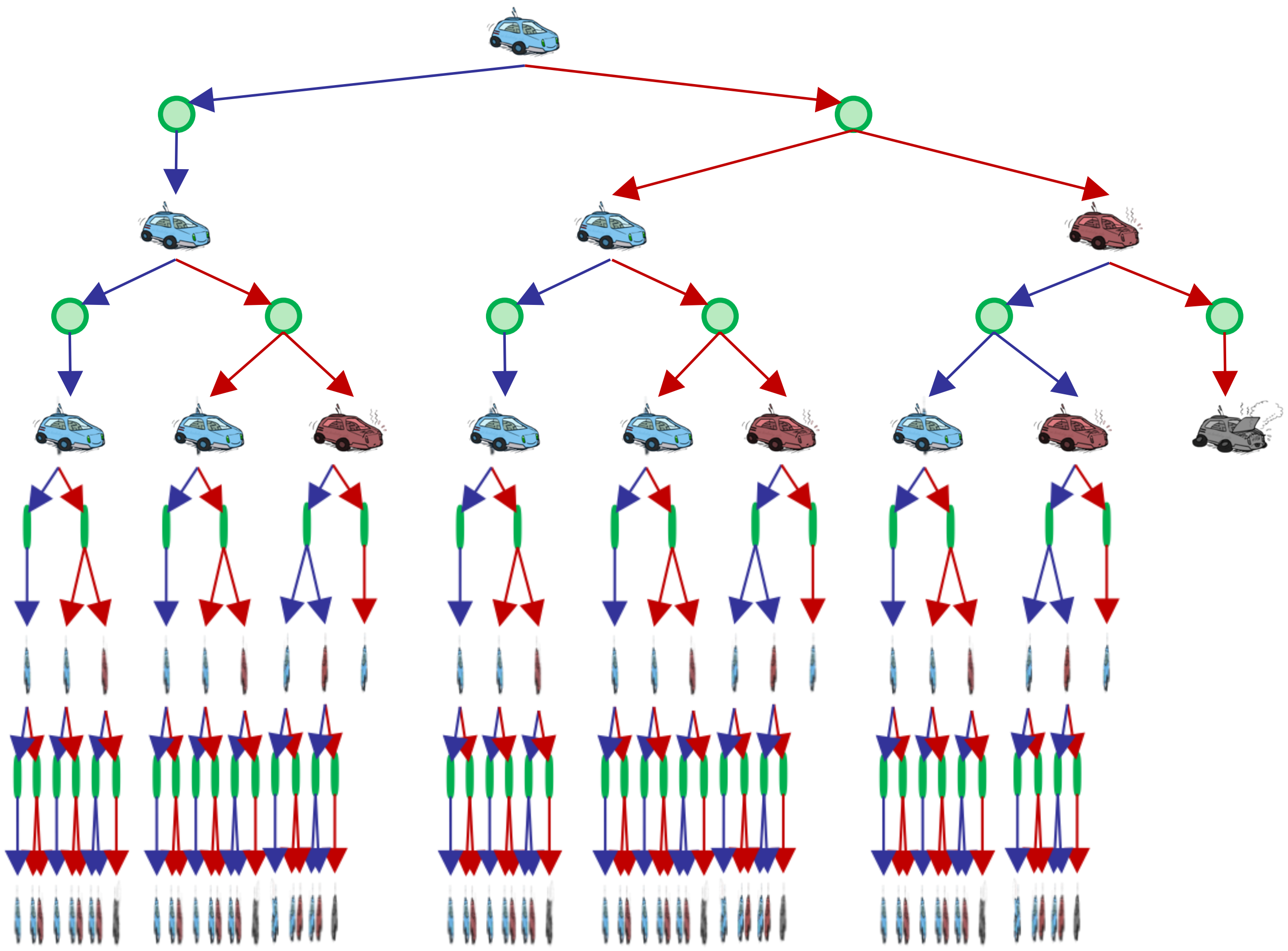
Racing Search Tree



- We play the game long time, not stop after 2 iterations
- Some branches are the same (repetitions)
- Use caching or bottom-up dynamic programming

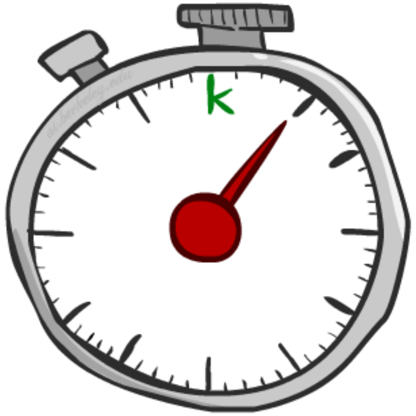
Racing Search Tree

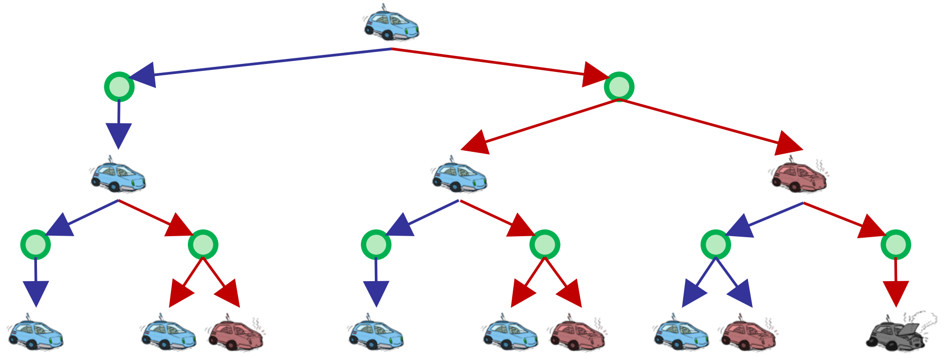
- We're doing way too much work with expectimax!
- Problem: States are repeated
  - Idea: Only compute needed quantities once
- Problem: Tree goes on forever
  - Idea: Do a depth-limited computation, but with increasing depths until change is small
  - Note: deep parts of the tree eventually don't matter if $\gamma < 1$

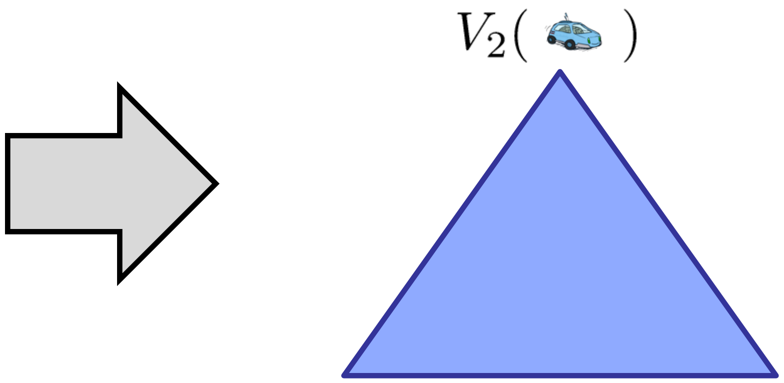


Time-Limited Values

- Key idea: time-limited values
- Define $V_k(s)$ to be the optimal value of s if the game ends in k more time steps
  - Equivalently, it's what a depth-k expectimax would give from s

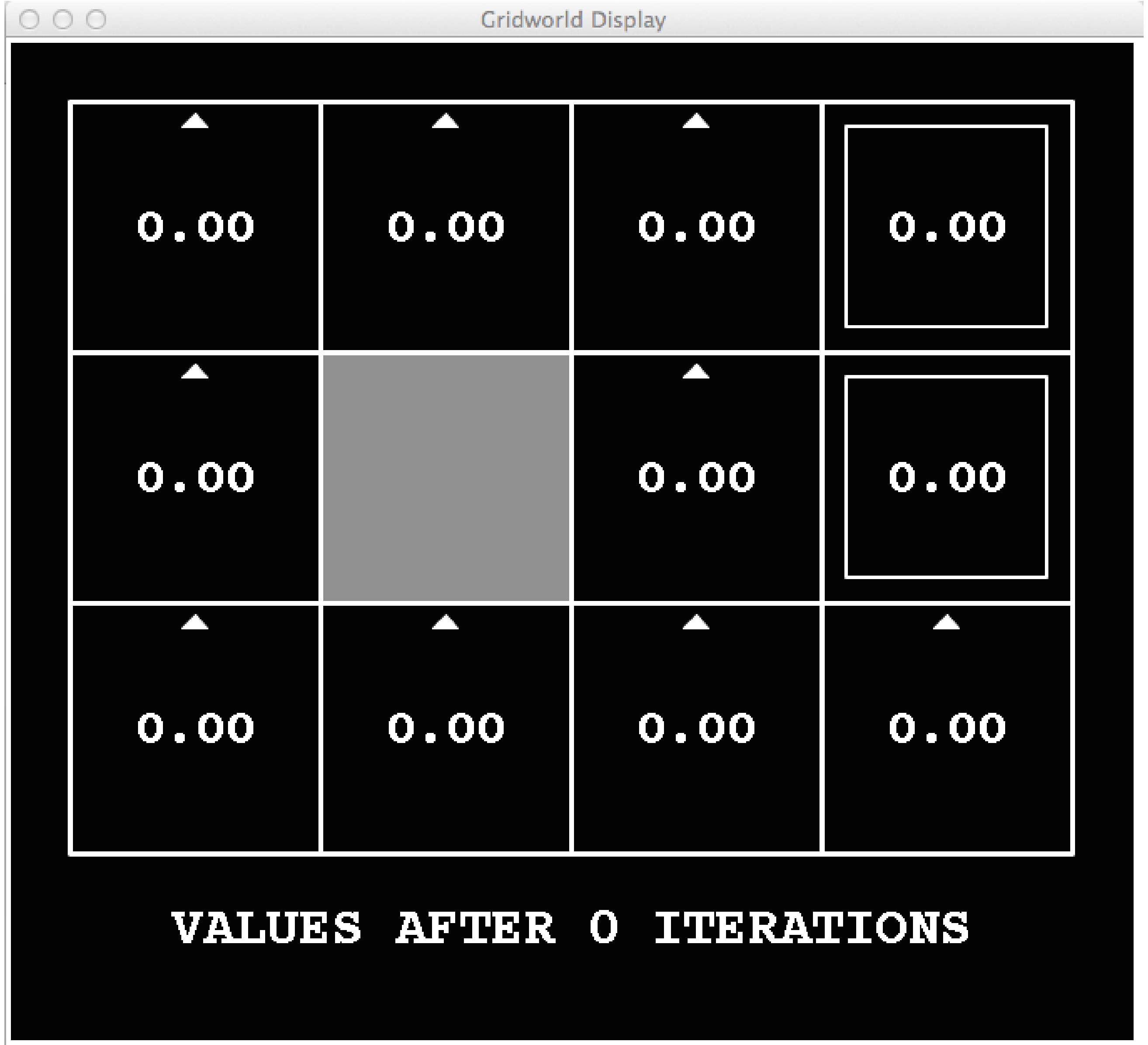






[Demo – time-limited values (L8D6)]

k=0



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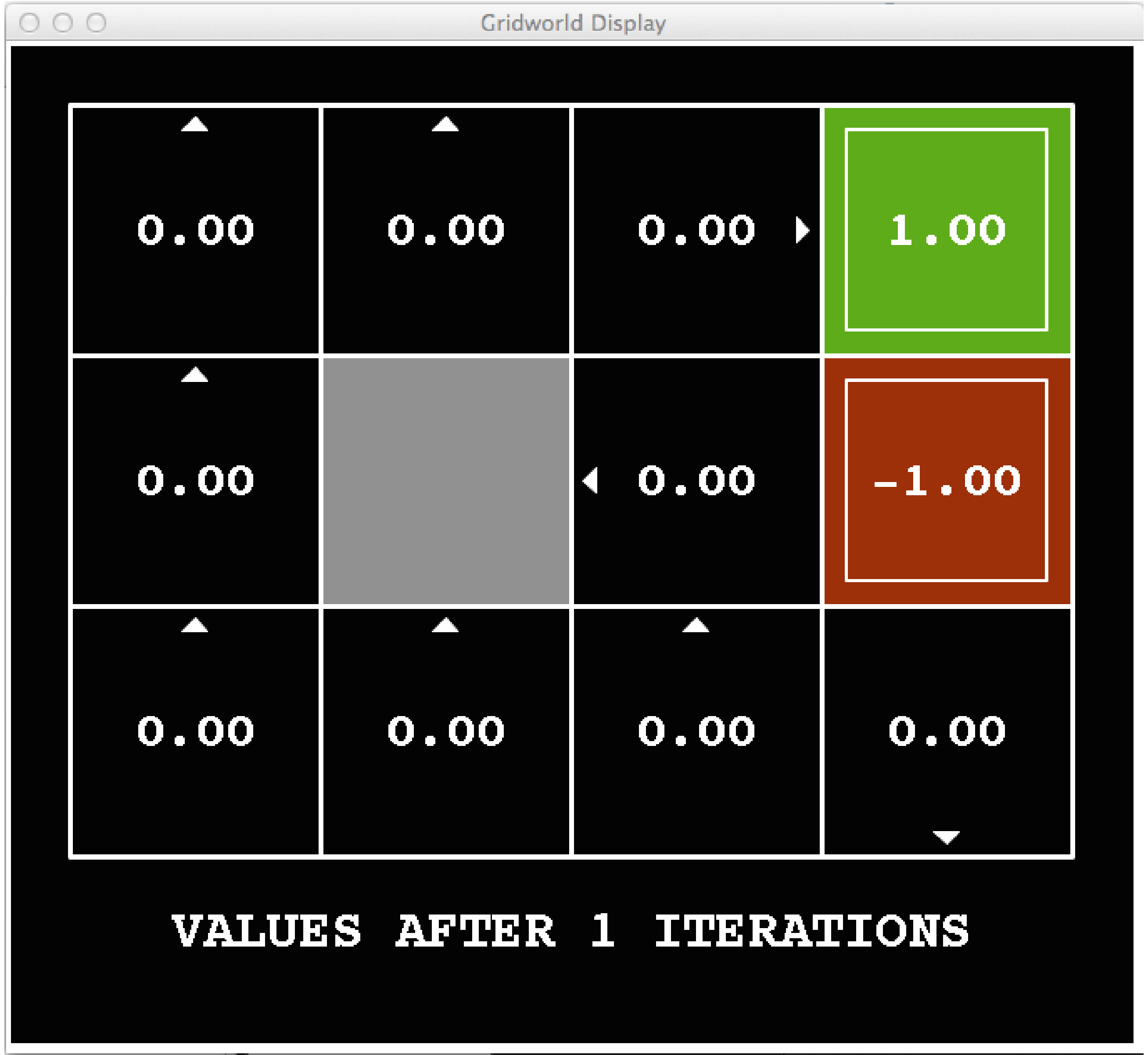
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=1



Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

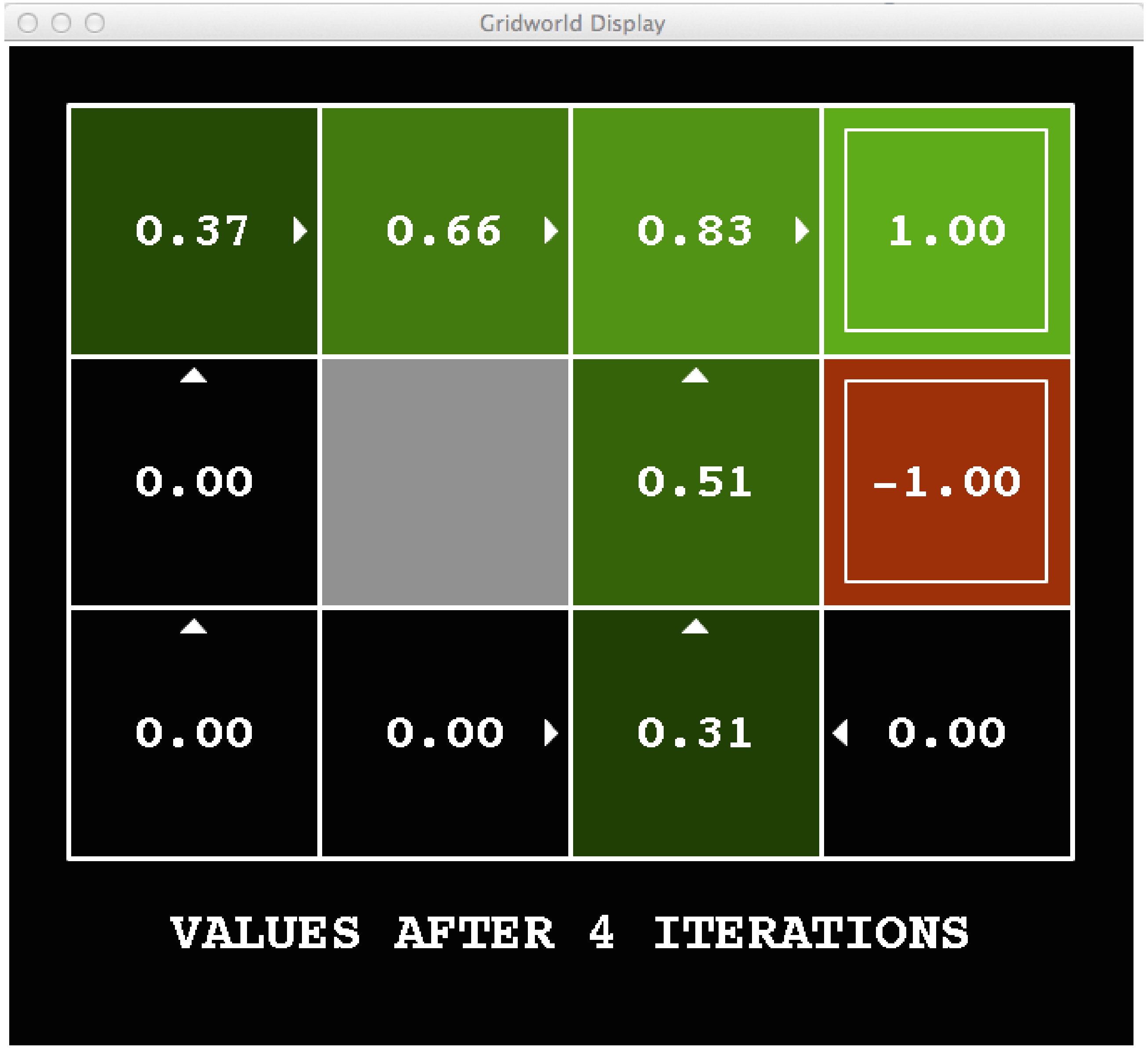
k=2

Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=3

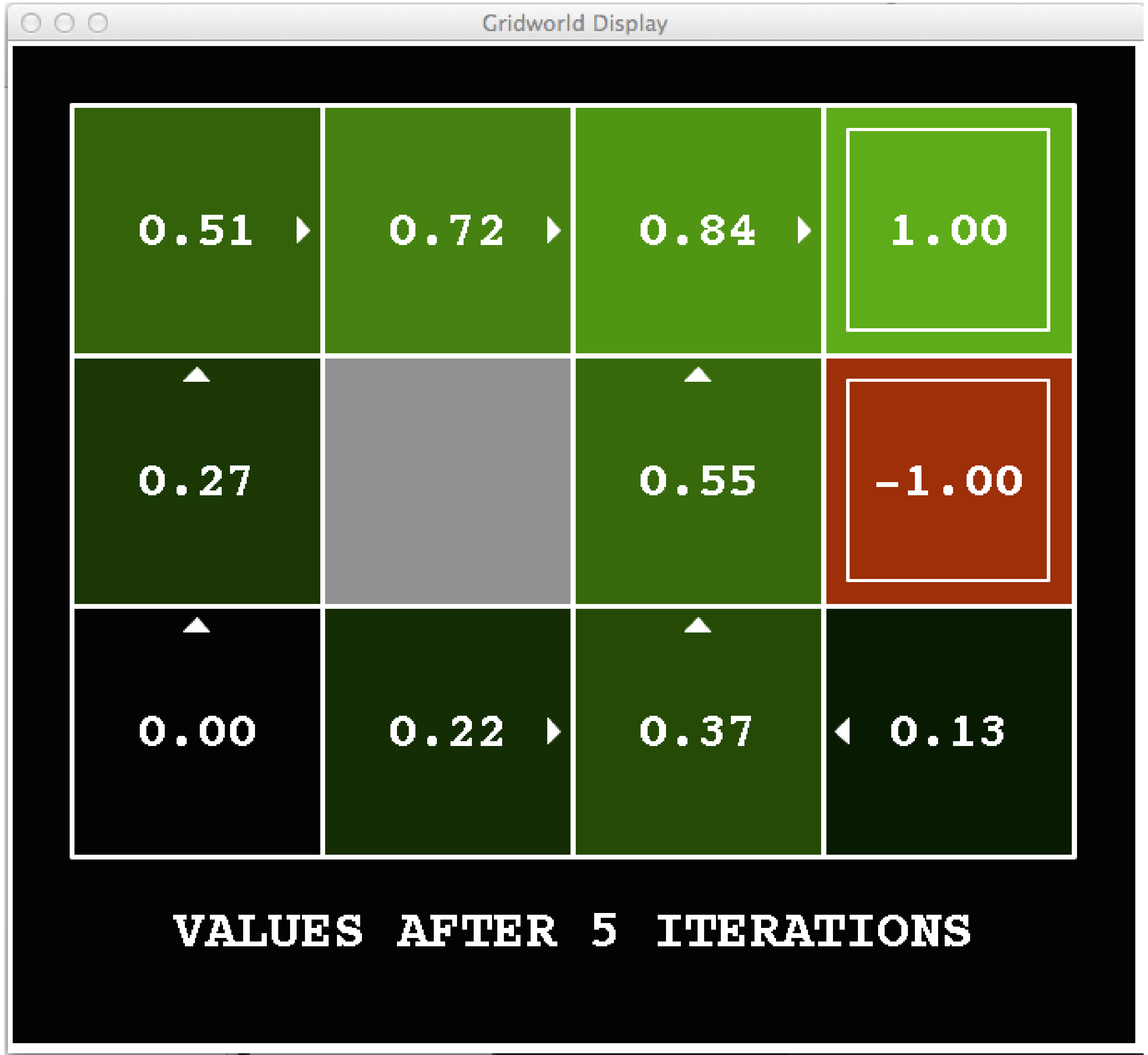
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=4



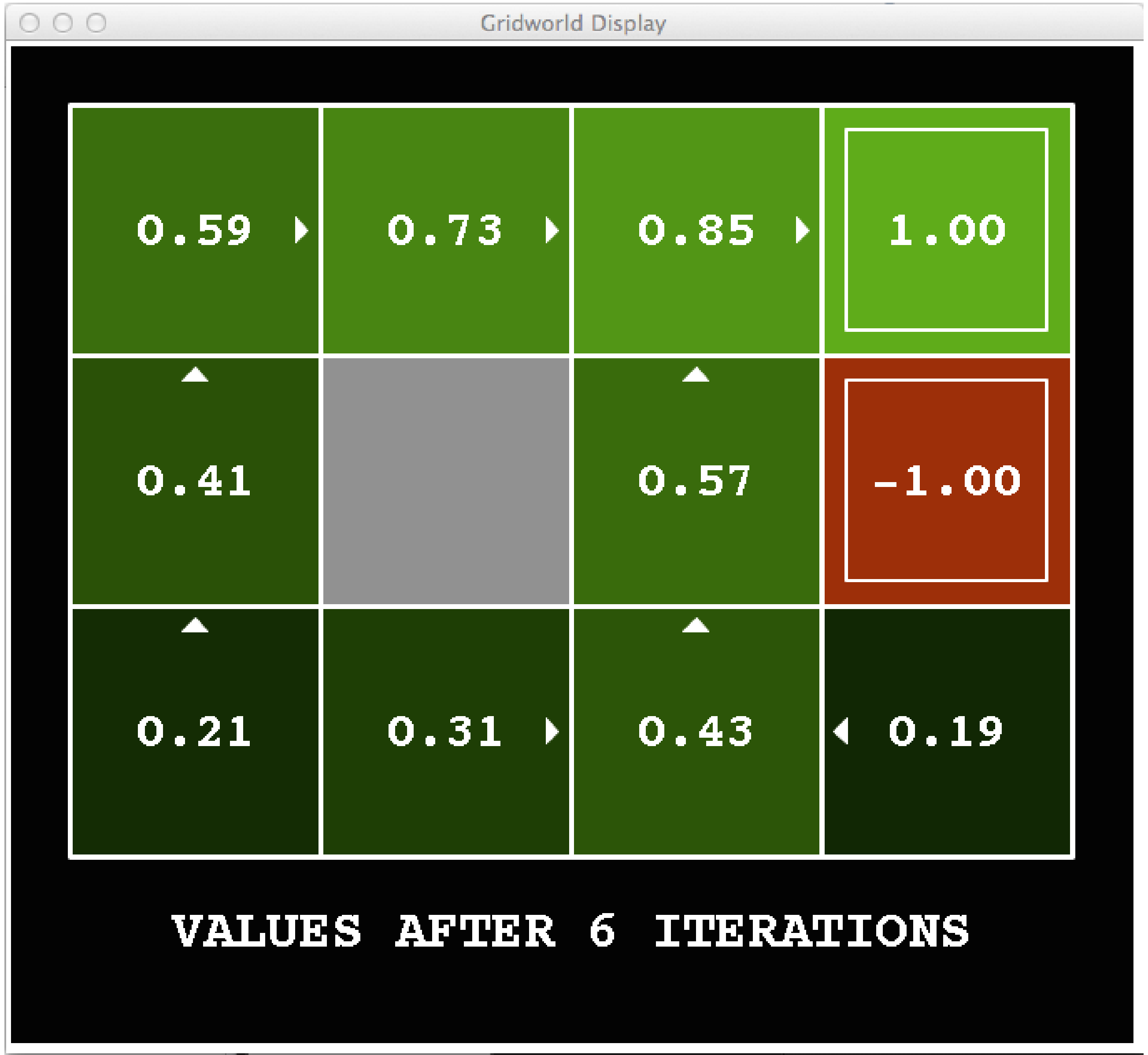
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=5



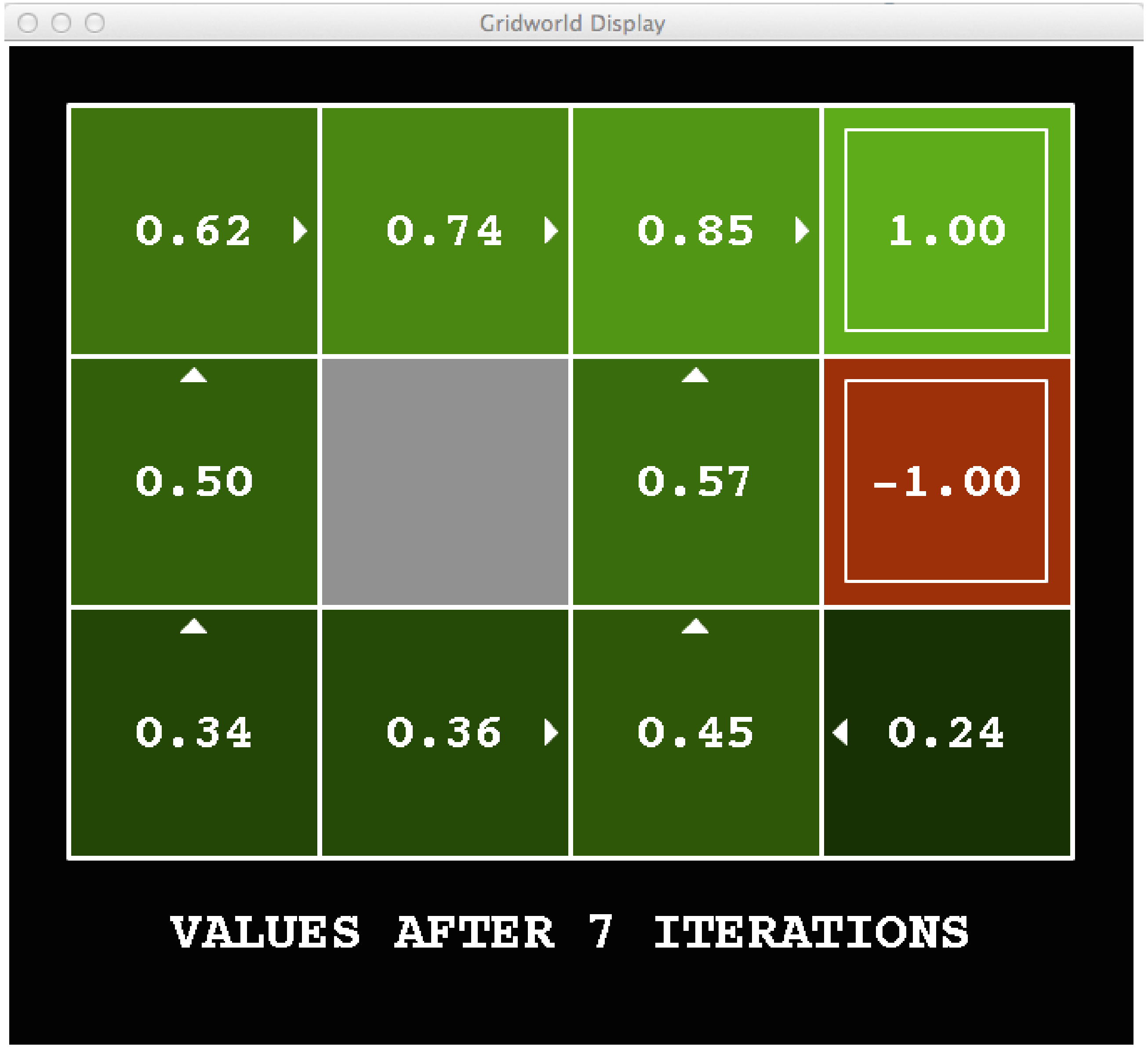
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=6



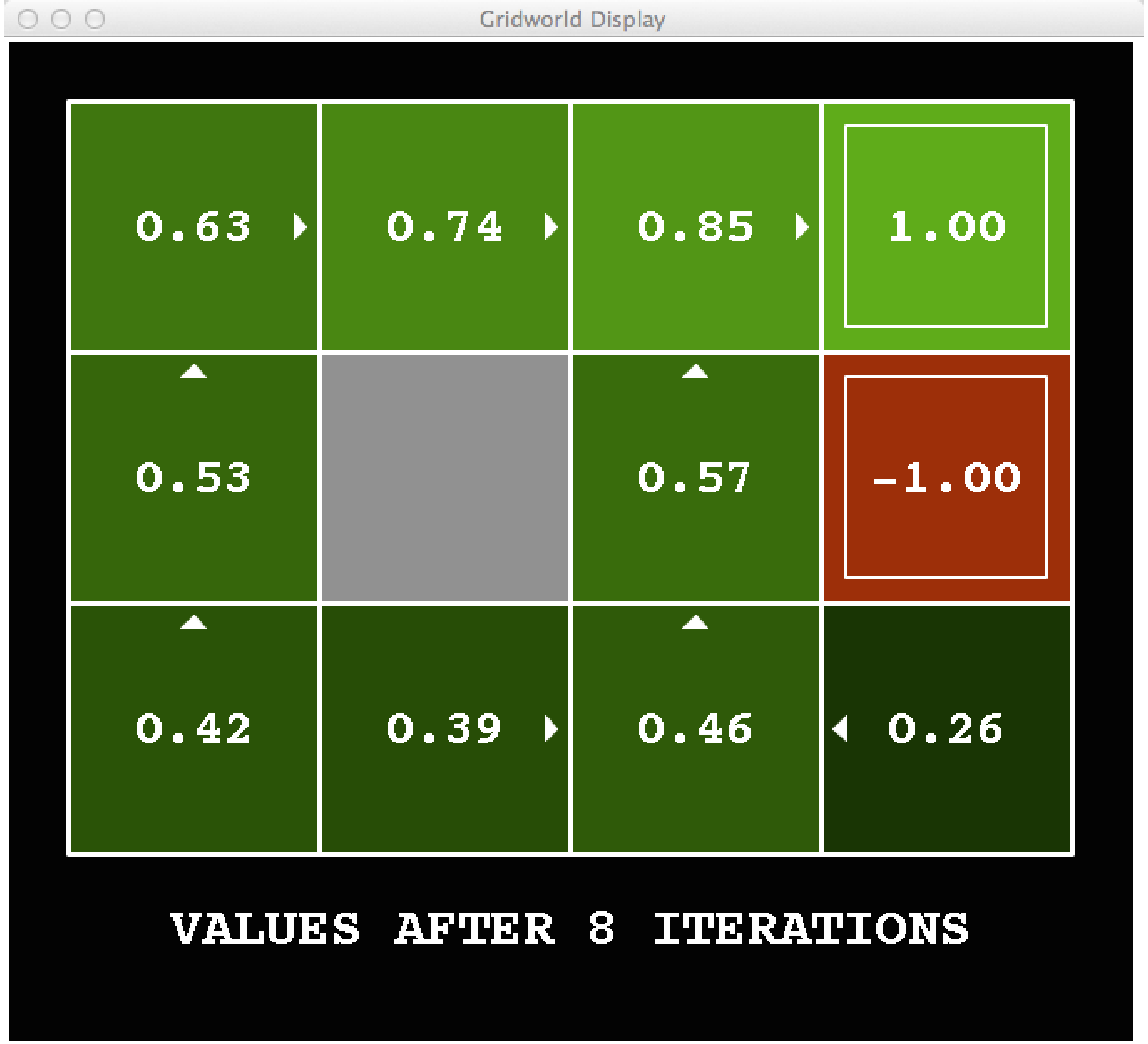
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=7



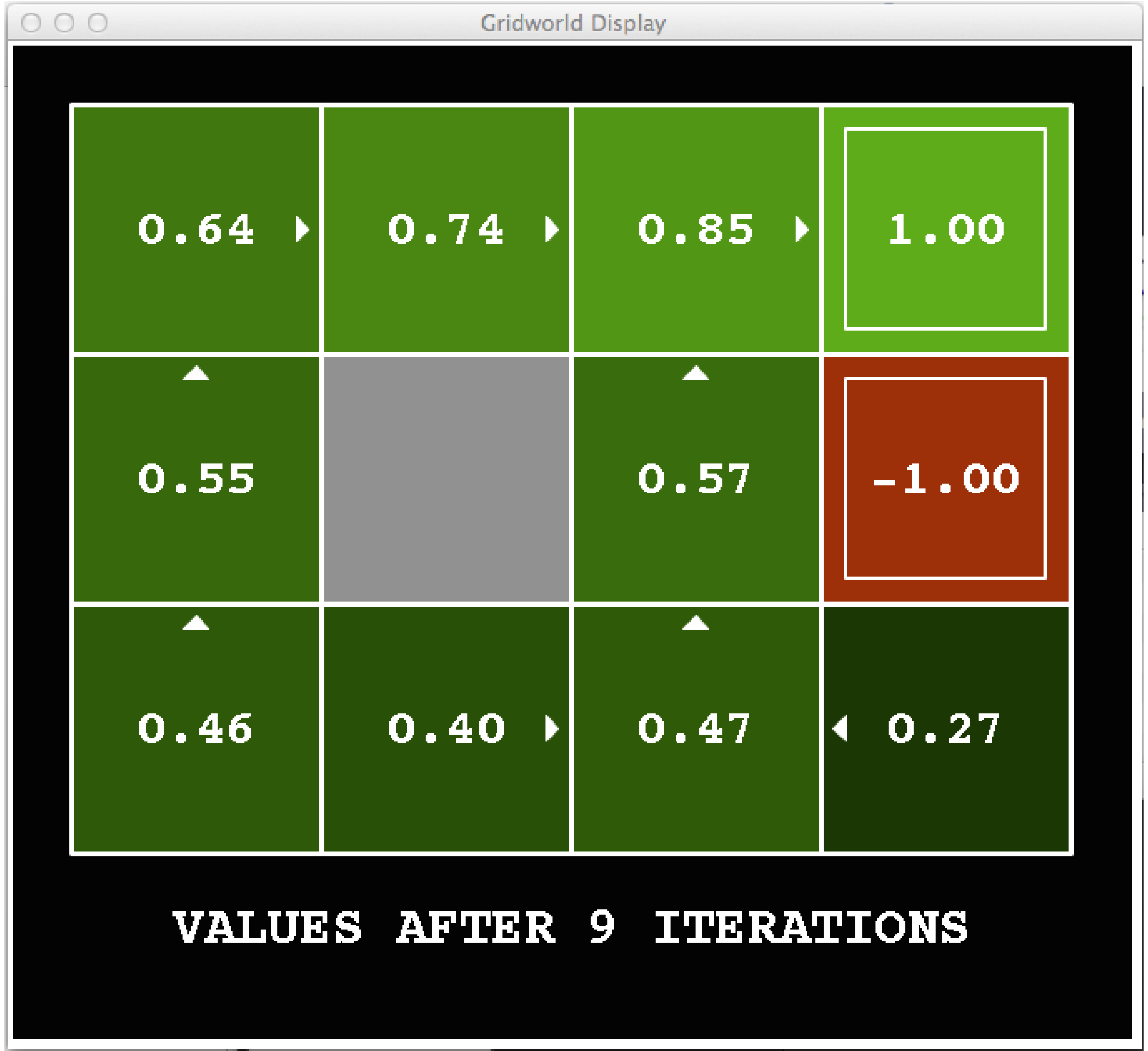
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=8



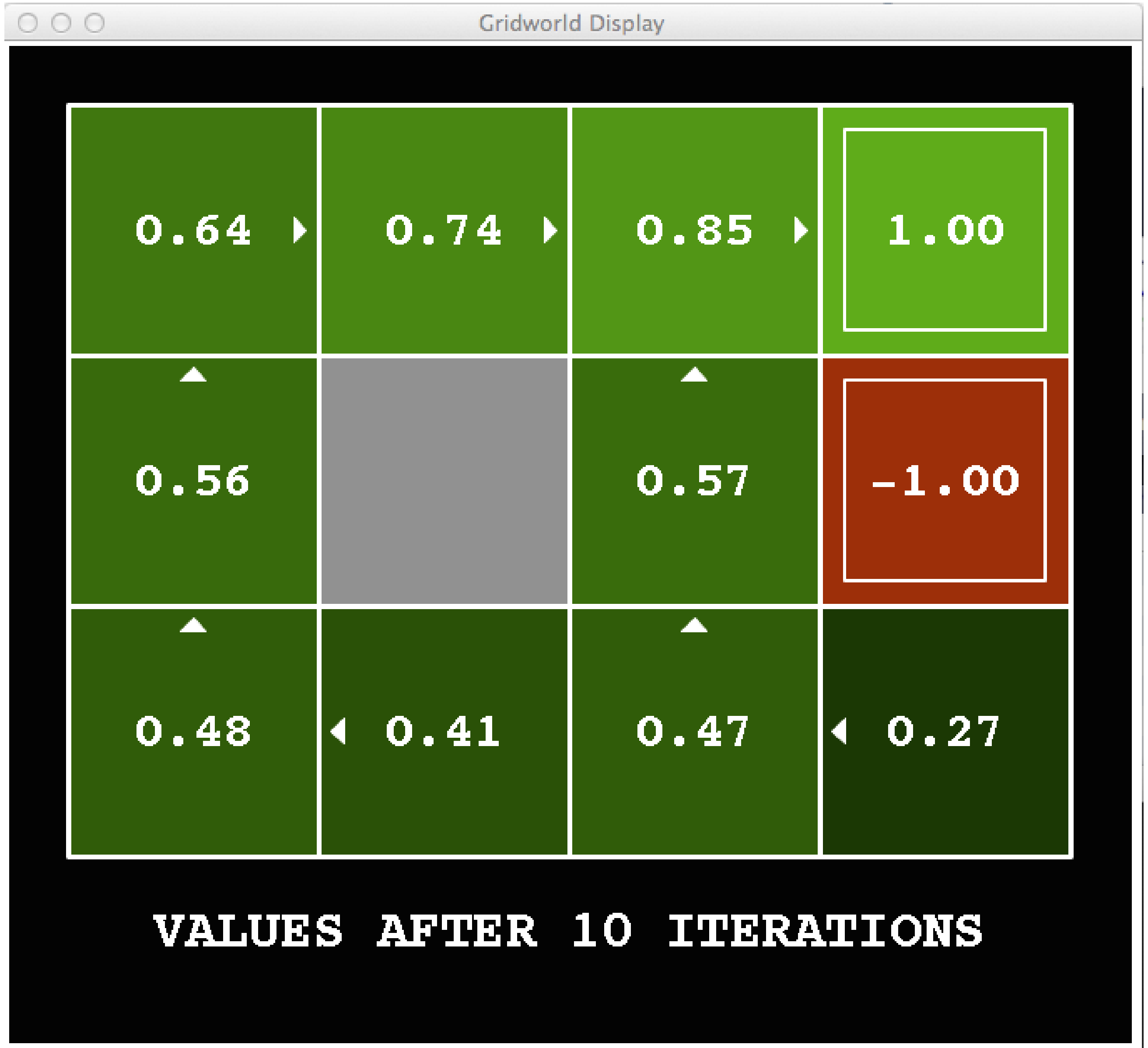
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=9



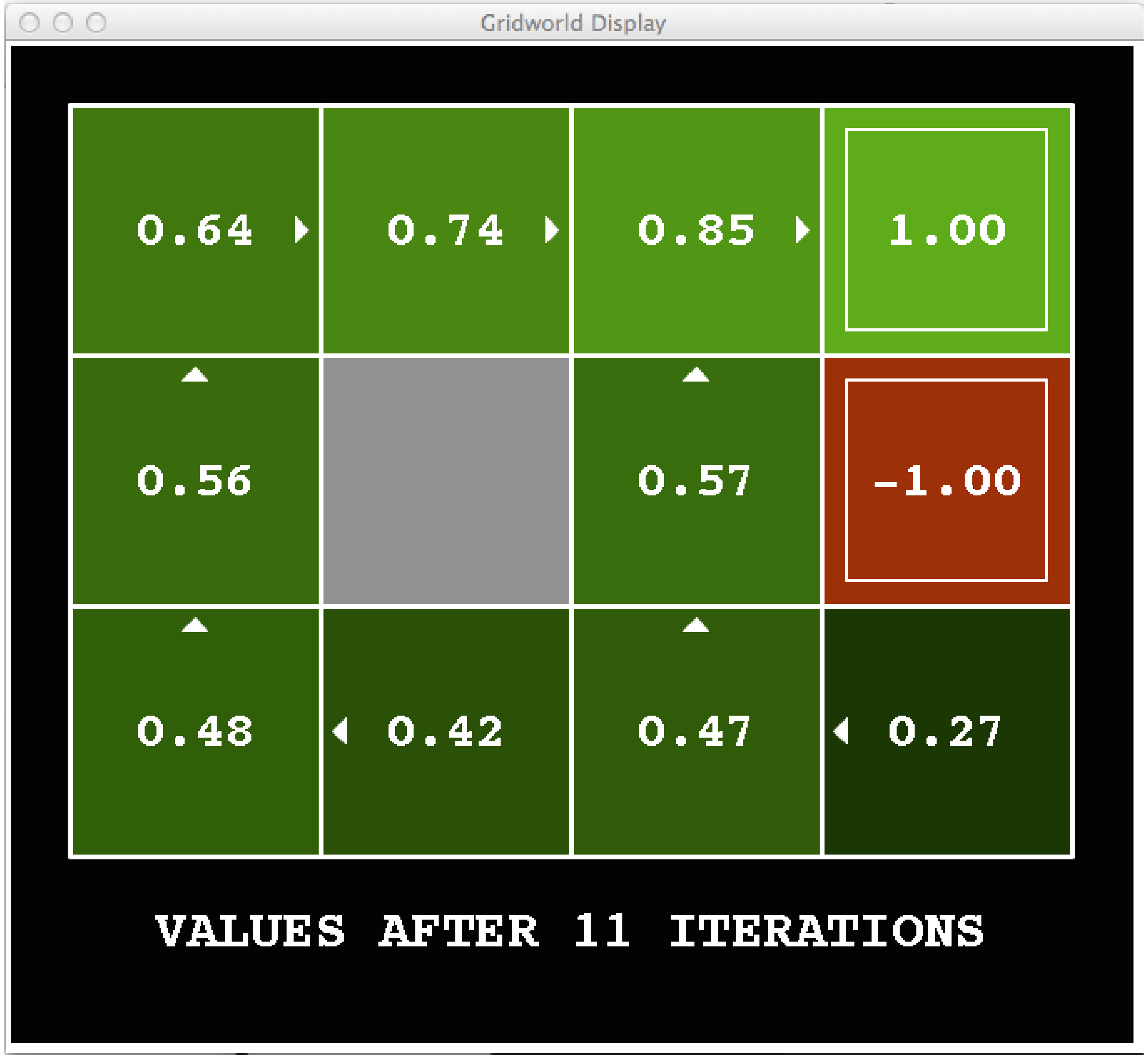
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=10



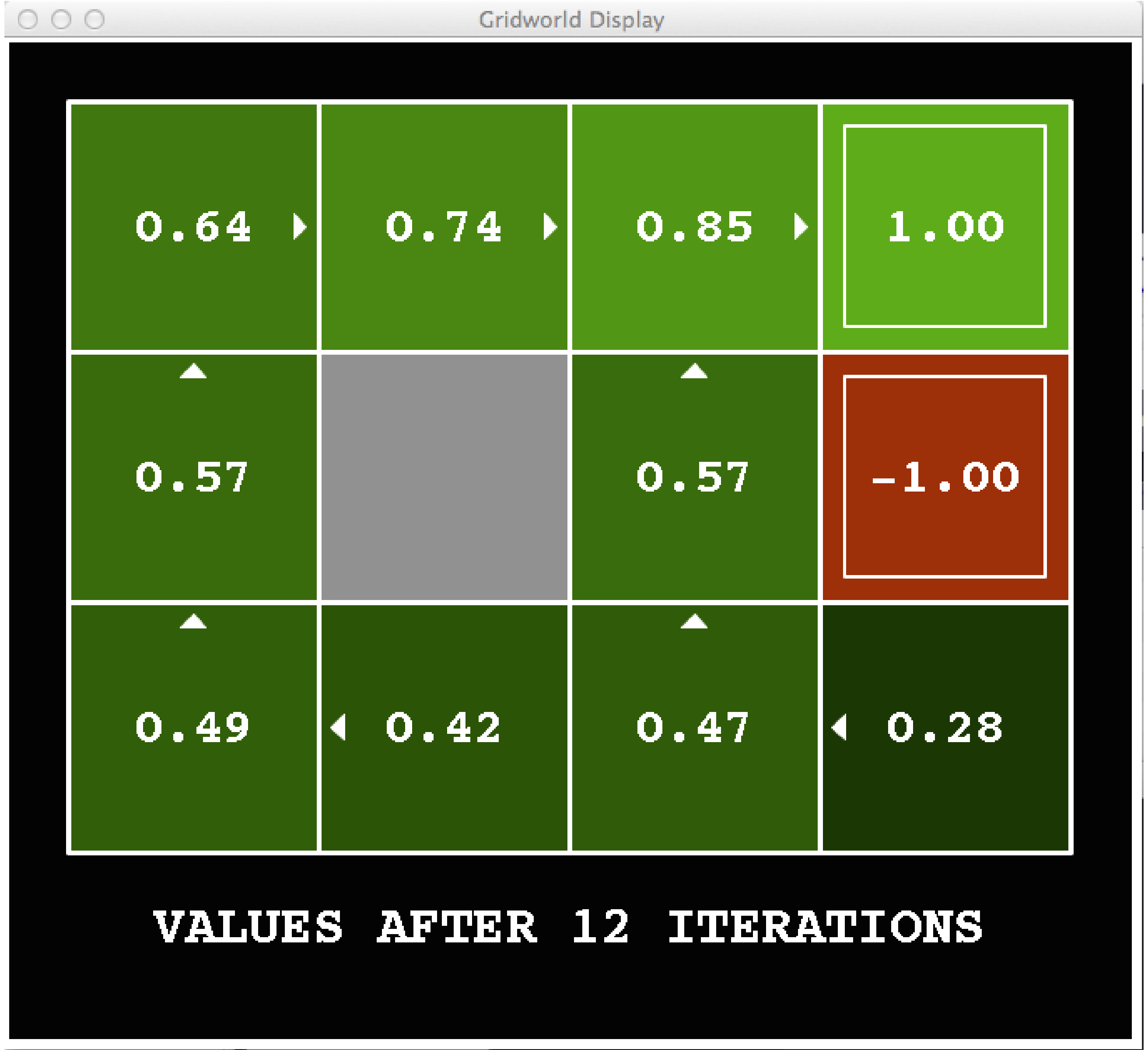
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=11



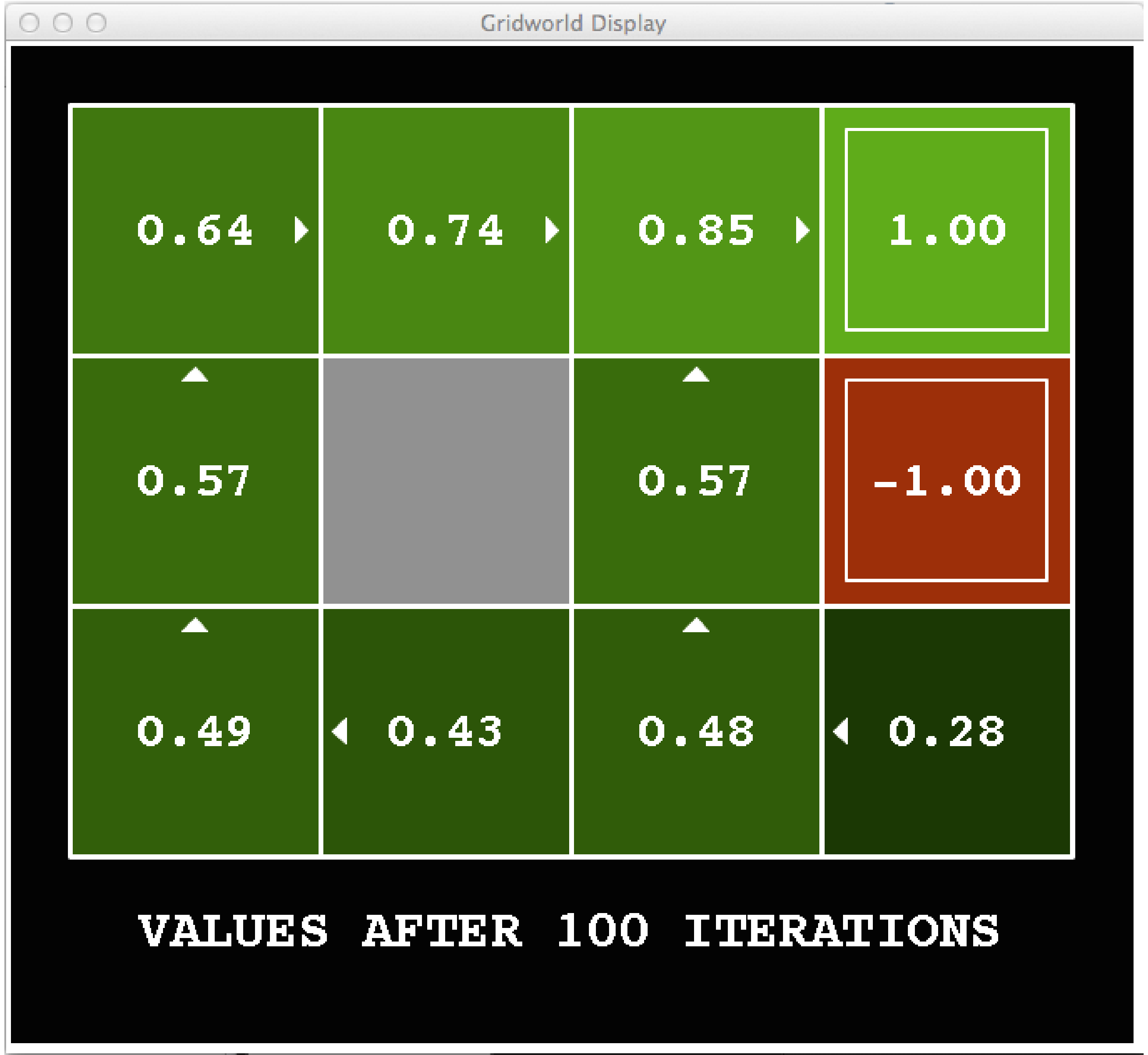
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=12



Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

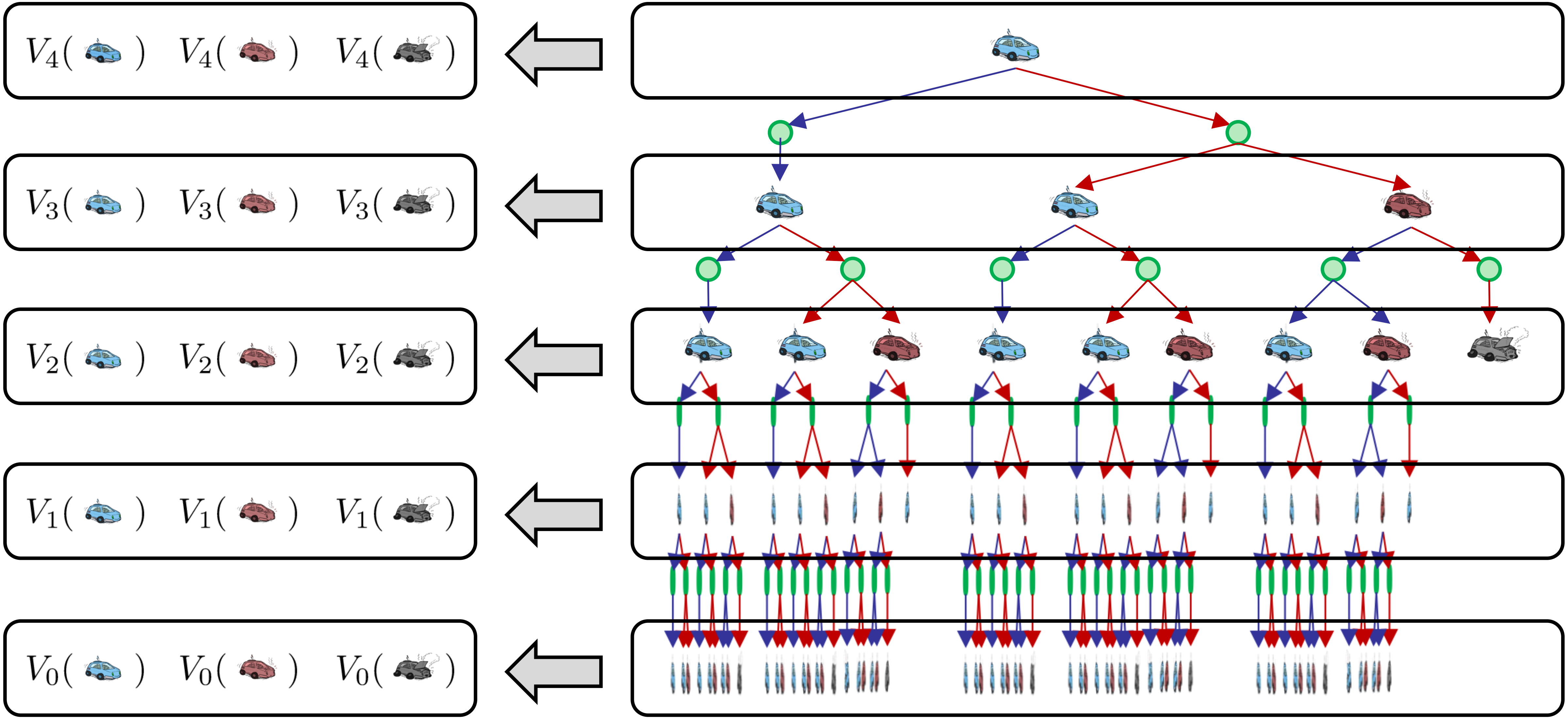
k=100



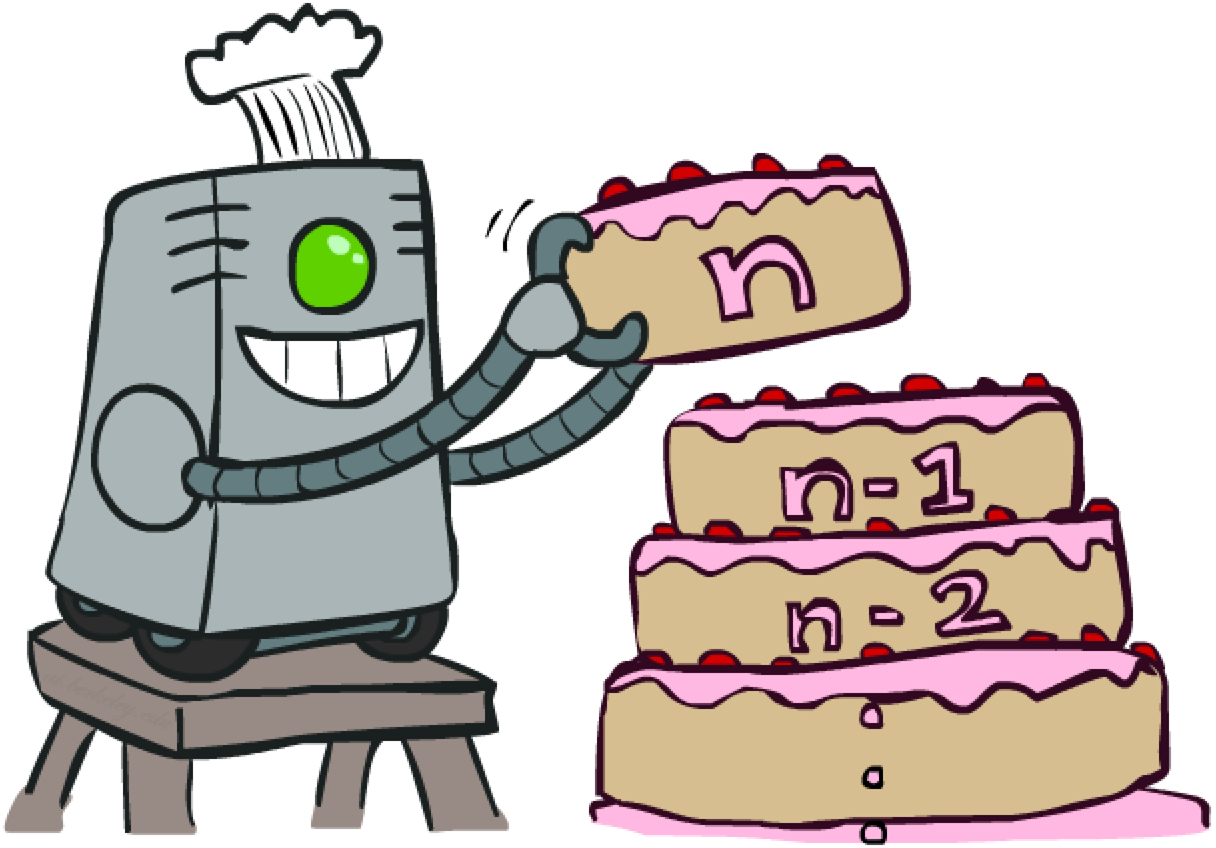
- Values converge and
- don’t change much after certain number of iterations

Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

Computing Time-Limited Values (Compute $v_0, v_1, v_2, \ldots$)



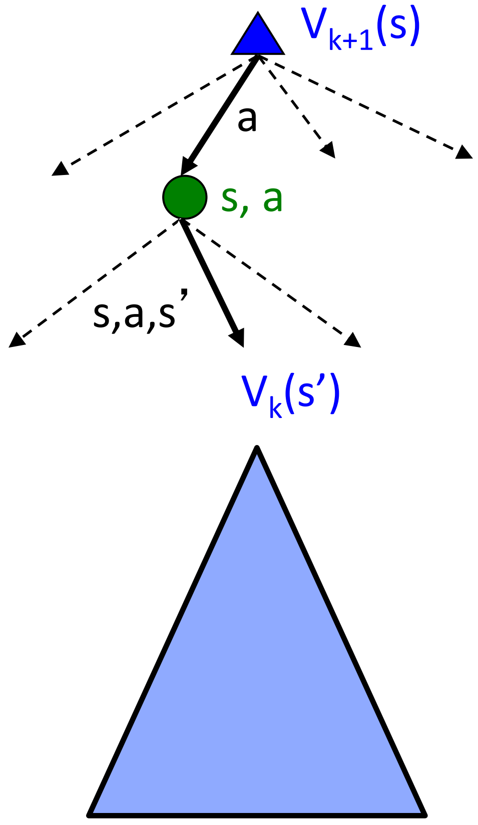
Value Iteration



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:

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

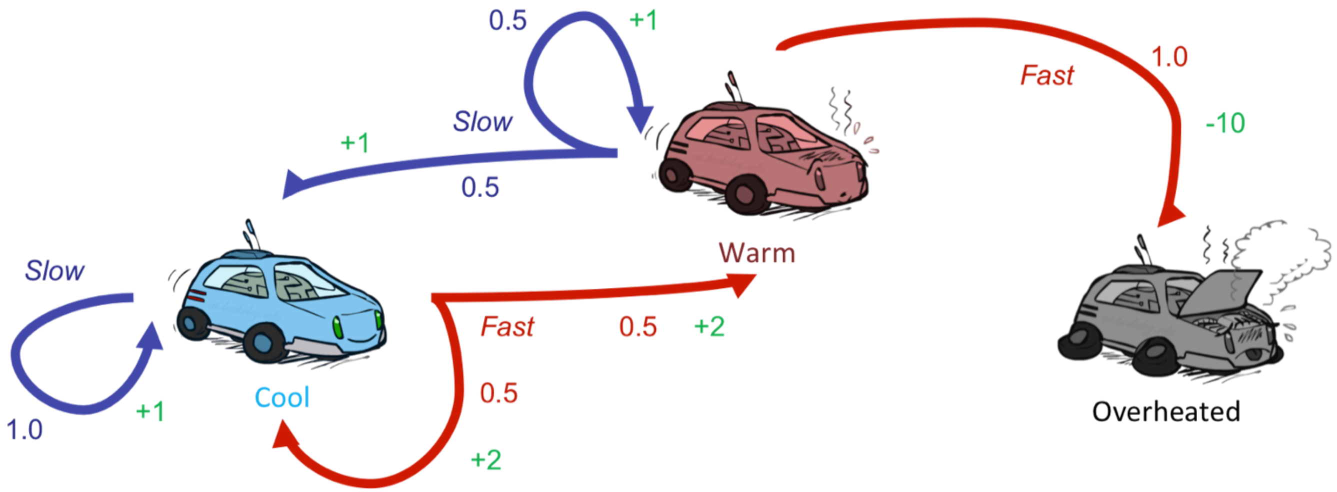


- Repeat until convergence
- Complexity of each iteration: $O(S^2A)$
- Theorem: will converge to unique optimal values
  - Basic idea: approximations get refined towards optimal values
  - Policy may converge long before values do

Example: Value Iteration

Max (Q2(cool, slow) = 1+2, Q2(cool,fast) = ((2+2)+(2+1))/2=3.5)

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



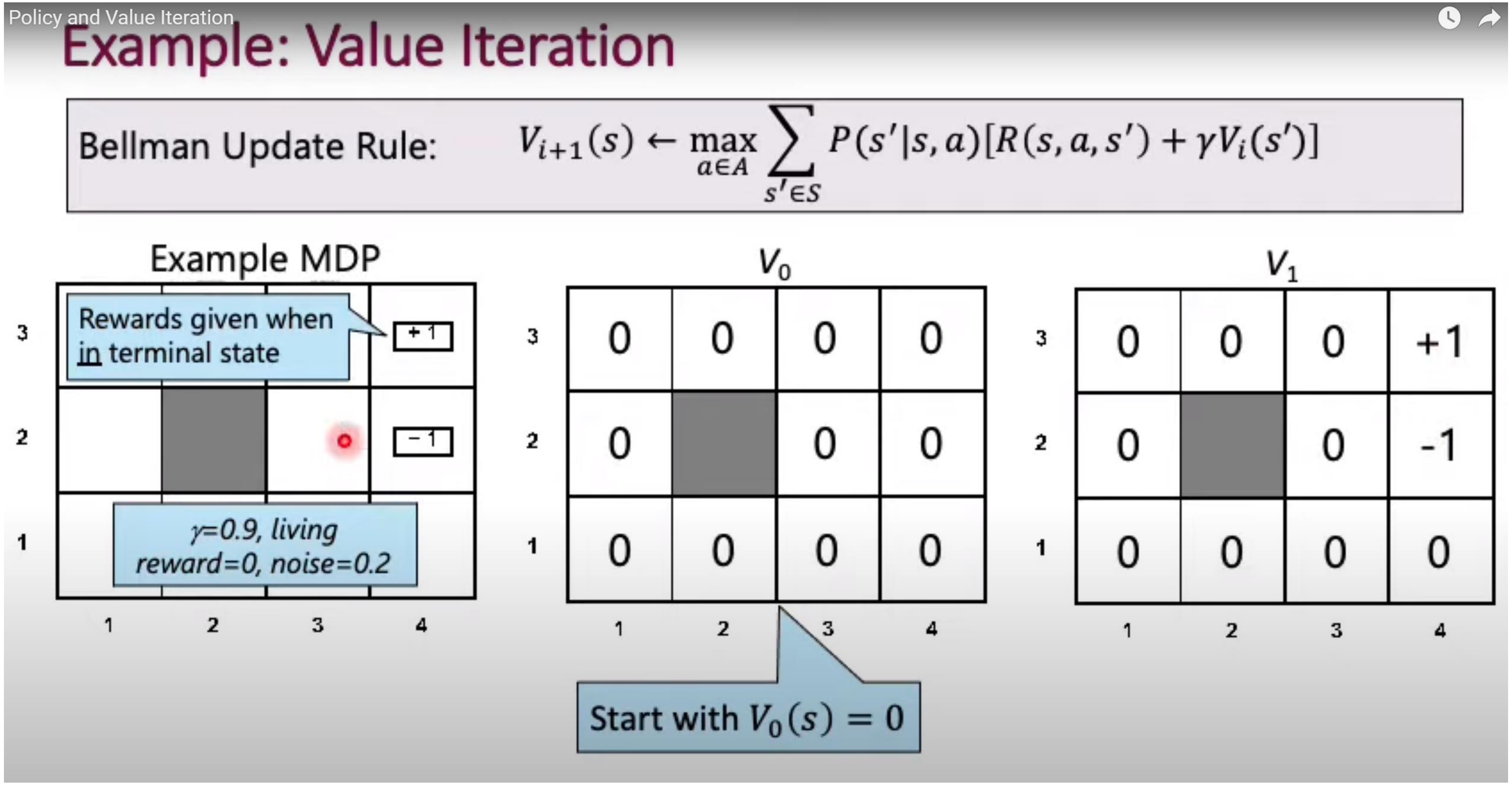
Assume no discount!

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

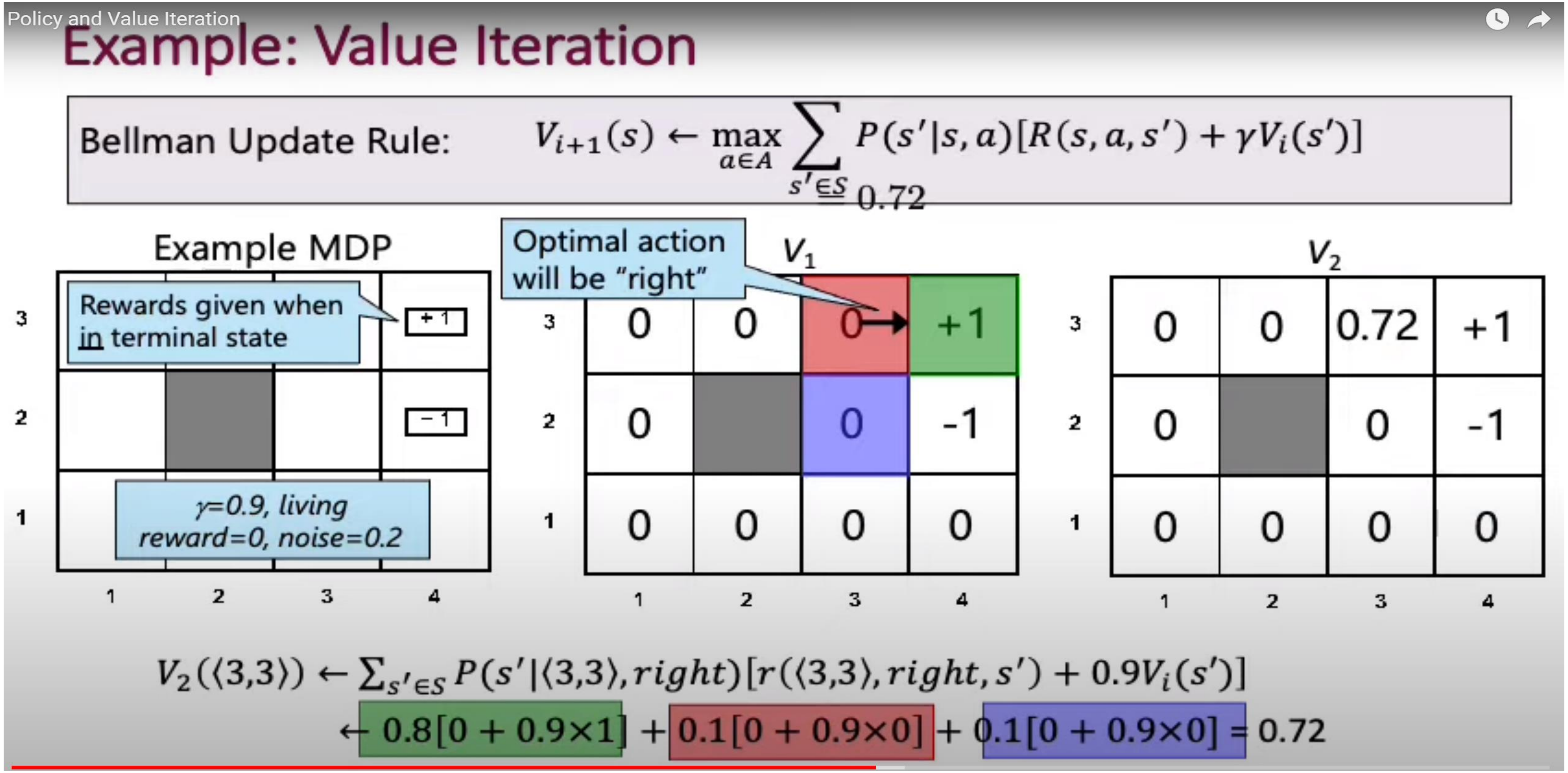
Max (Q1(cool, slow) = 1, Q1(cool,fast) = 2))

Max (Q1(warm, slow) = 1, Q1(warm,fast) = -10))

Example: Value Iteration



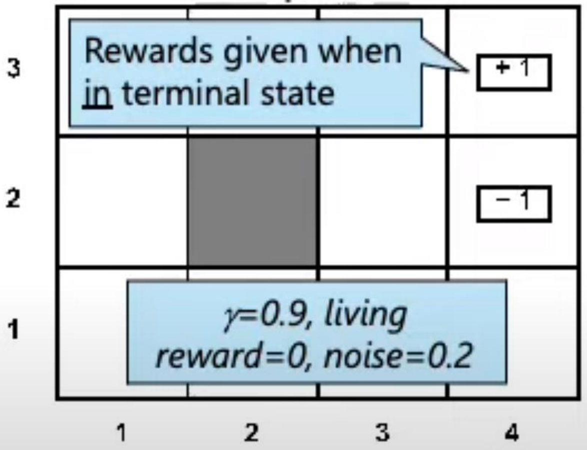
Example: Value Iteration



Example: Value Iteration

Bellman Update Rule: $V_{i+1}(s) \leftarrow \max_{a \in A} \sum_{s' \in S} P(s'|s,a)[R(s,a,s') + \gamma V_i(s')]$

Example MDP



V_2

	1	2	3	4
3	0	0	0.72	+1
2	0		0	-1
1	0	0	0	0

V_3

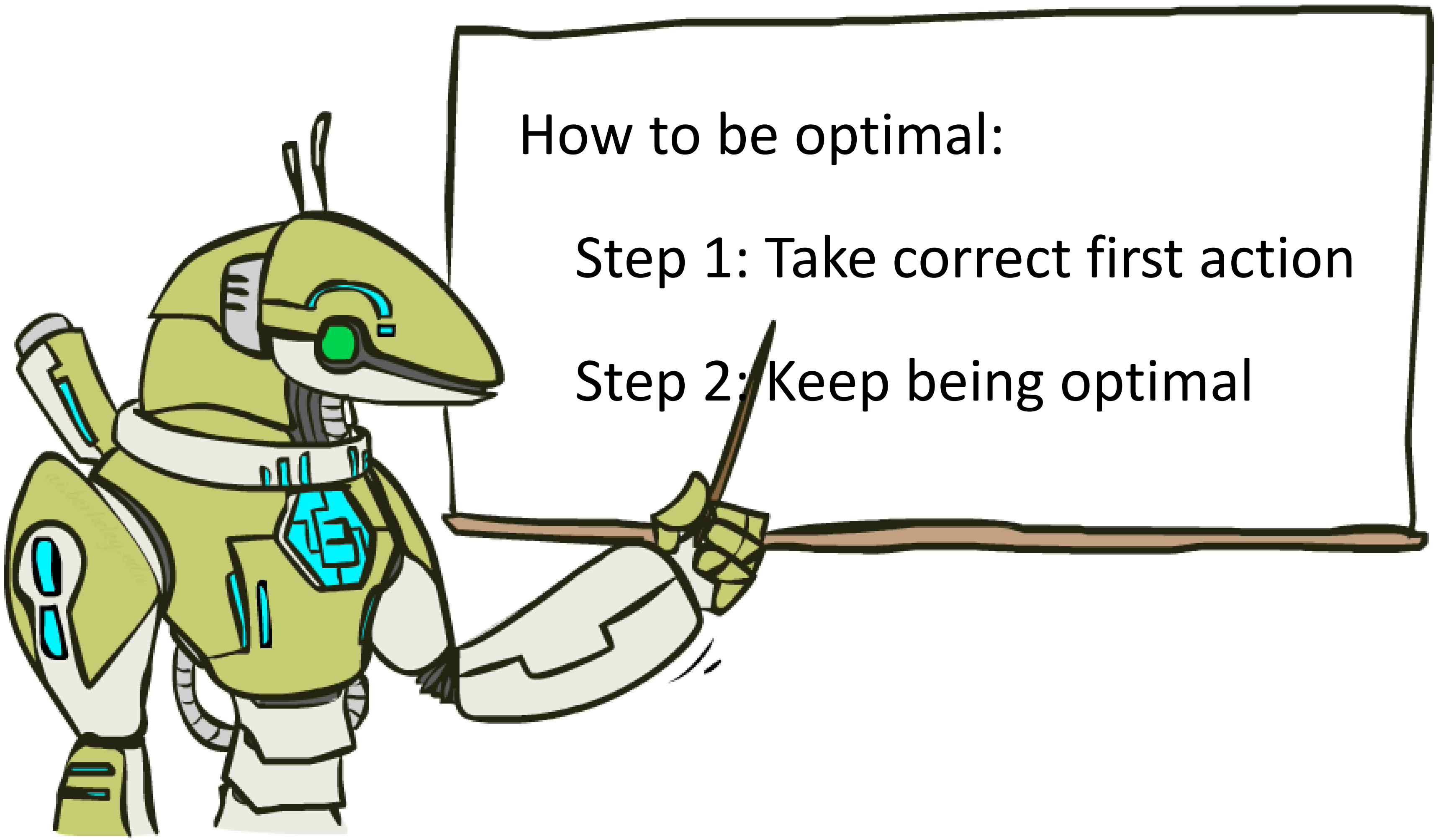
	1	2	3	4
3	0	0.52	0.78	+1
2	0		0.43	-1
1	0	0	0	0

- Information propagates outward from terminal states

GridWorld: Dynamic Programming Demo

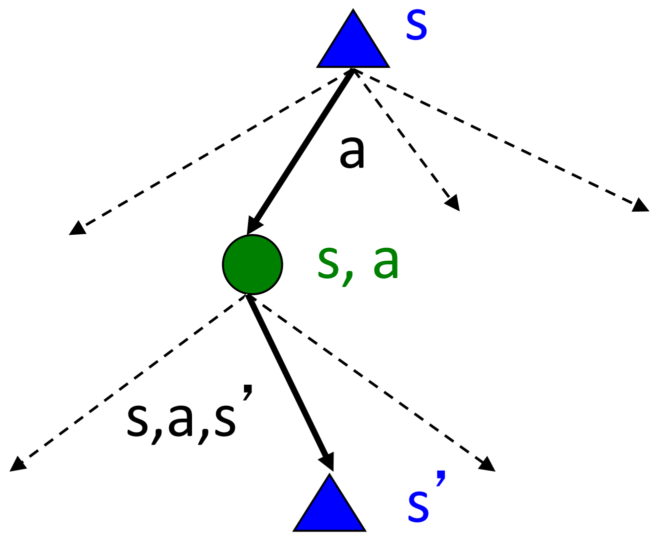
- https://cs.stanford.edu/people/karpathy/reinforcejs/gridworld_dp.html

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.
- The Bellman equation is the basis of the value iteration algorithm for solving MDPs.

Value Iteration

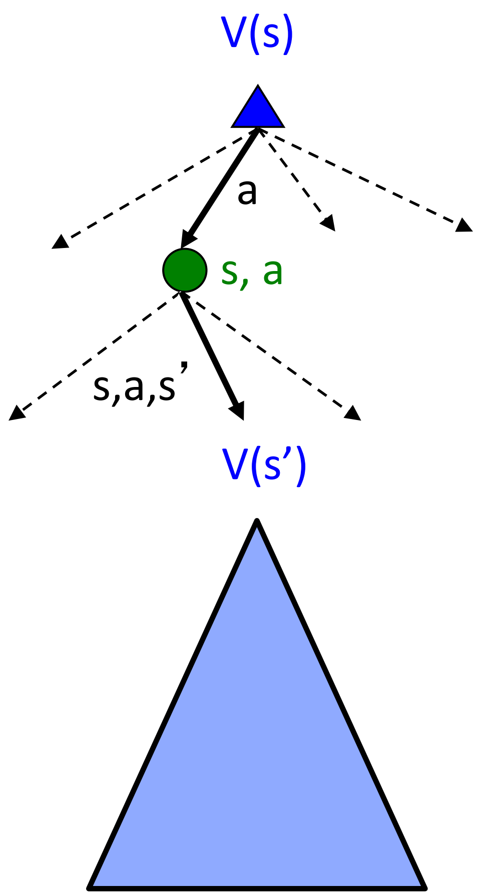
- Bellman equations characterize the optimal values:

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

- 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

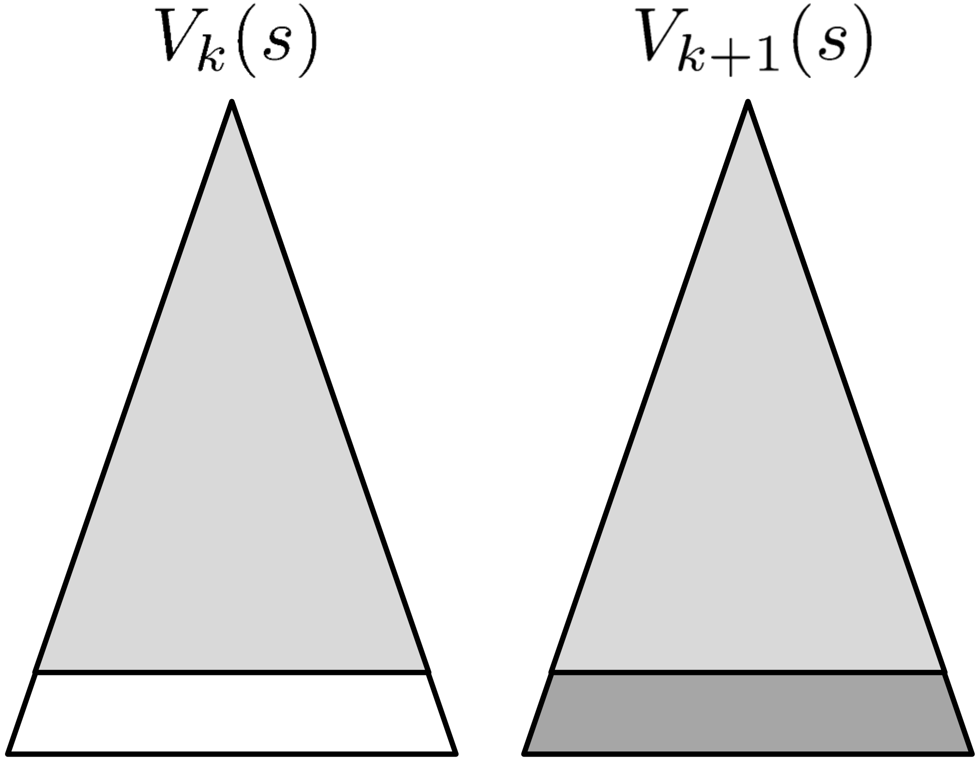


Convergence*

- How do we know the V_k vectors are going to converge?

- Case 1: If the tree has maximum depth M, then V_M holds the actual untruncated values

- Case 2: If the discount is less than 1
  - Sketch: For any state V_k and V_{k+1} can be viewed as depth k+1 expectimax results in nearly identical search trees
  - The difference is that on the bottom layer, V_{k+1} has actual rewards while V_k has zeros
  - That last layer is at best all R_{MAX}
  - It is at worst R_{MIN}
  - But everything is discounted by γ^k that far out
  - So V_k and V_{k+1} are at most (γ^k * max|R|) different
  - So as k increases, the values converge



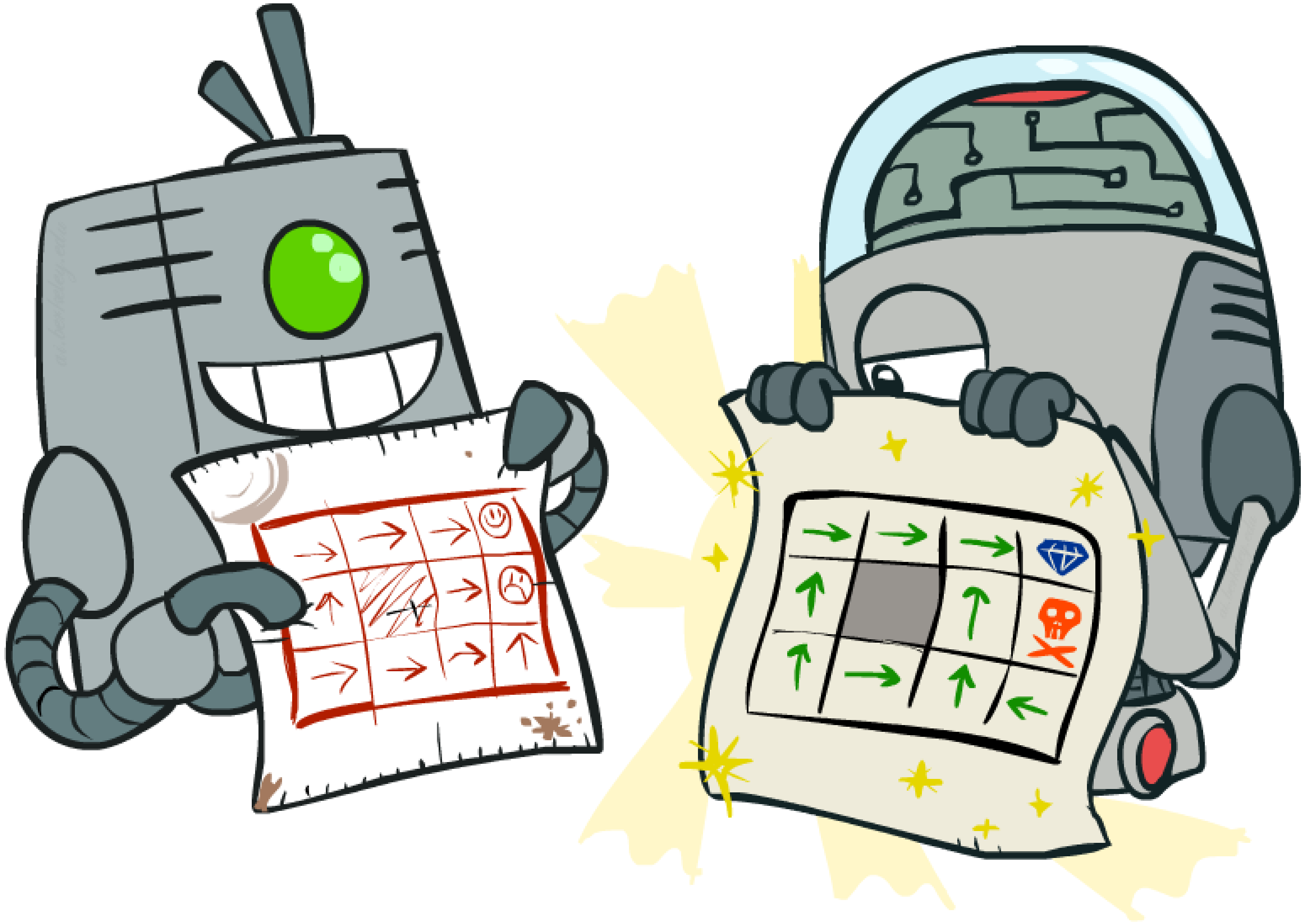
Value iteration algorithm

function VALUE-ITERATION(mdp, ϵ) **returns** a utility function
  inputs: mdp, an MDP with states S, actions $A(s)$, transition model $P(s' \mid s, a)$,
    rewards $R(s, a, s')$, discount γ
    ϵ, the maximum error allowed in the utility of any state
  local variables: U, U', vectors of utilities for states in S, initially zero
    δ, the maximum relative change in the utility of any state

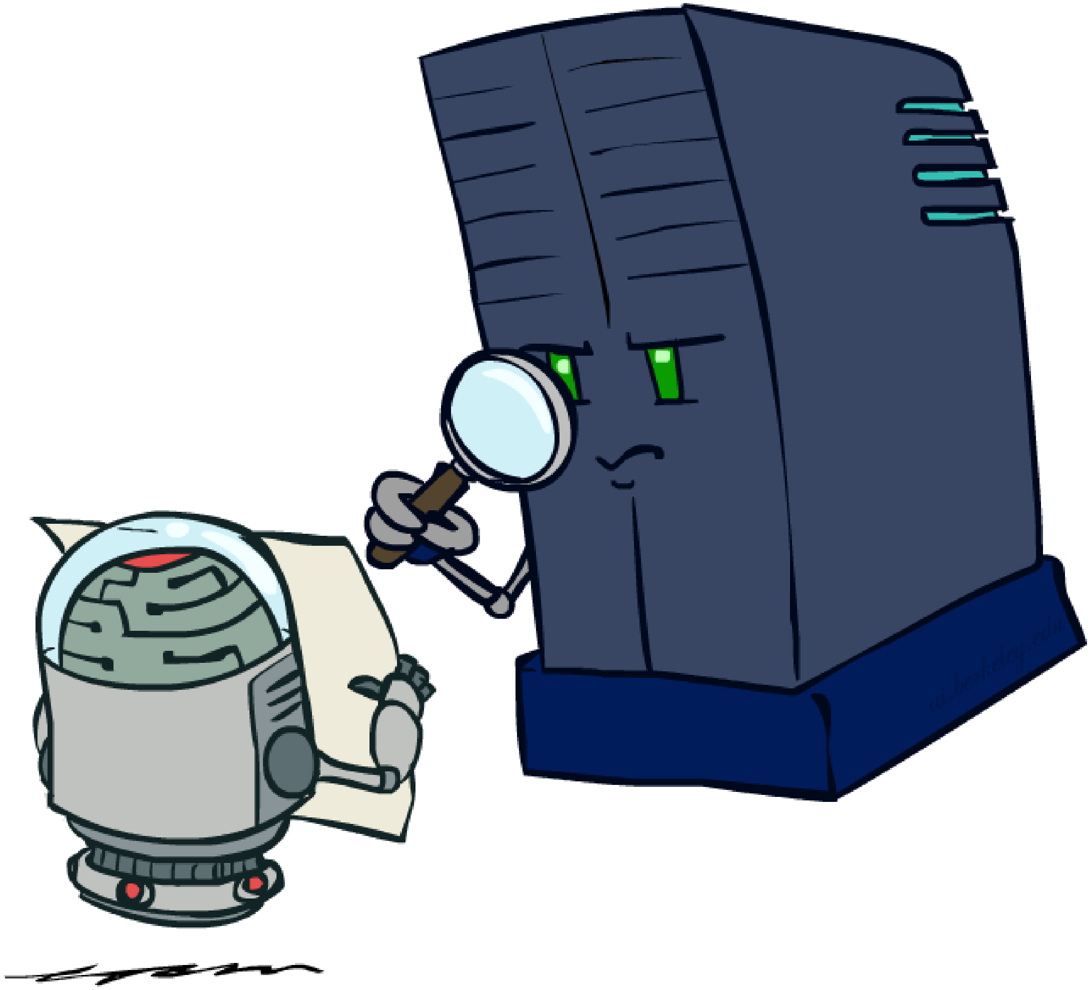
  repeat
    $U \leftarrow U'$; $\delta \leftarrow 0$
    for each state s **in** S **do**
      $U'[s] \leftarrow \max_{a \in A(s)}$ Q-VALUE(mdp, s, a, U)
      if $|U'[s] - U[s]| > \delta$ **then** $\delta \leftarrow |U'[s] - U[s]|$
  until $\delta \le \epsilon(1-\gamma)/\gamma$
  return U

Figure 16.6 The value iteration algorithm for calculating utilities of states. The termination condition is from Equation (16.12).

Policy Methods

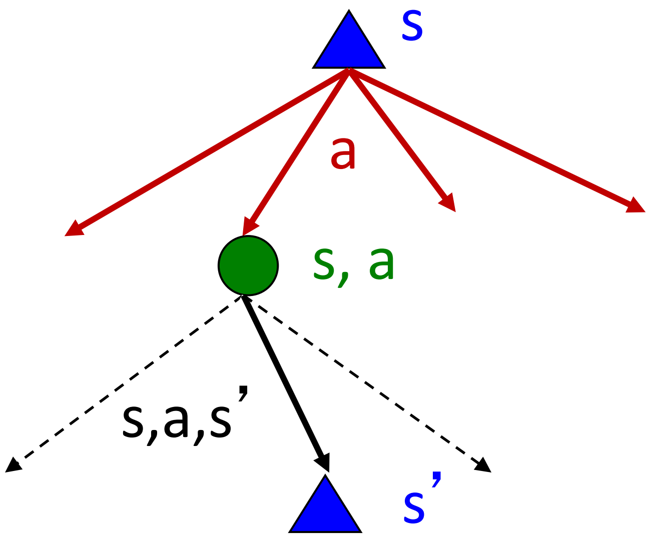


Policy Evaluation

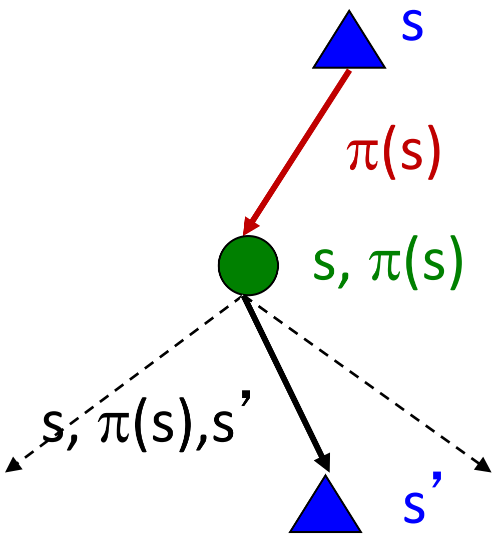


Fixed Policies

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 π(s), then the tree would be simpler – only one action per state
  - … though the tree’s value would depend on which policy we fixed

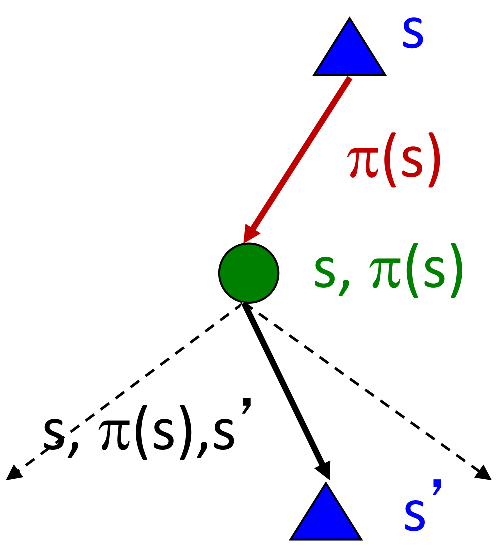
Utilities for a Fixed Policy

- 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

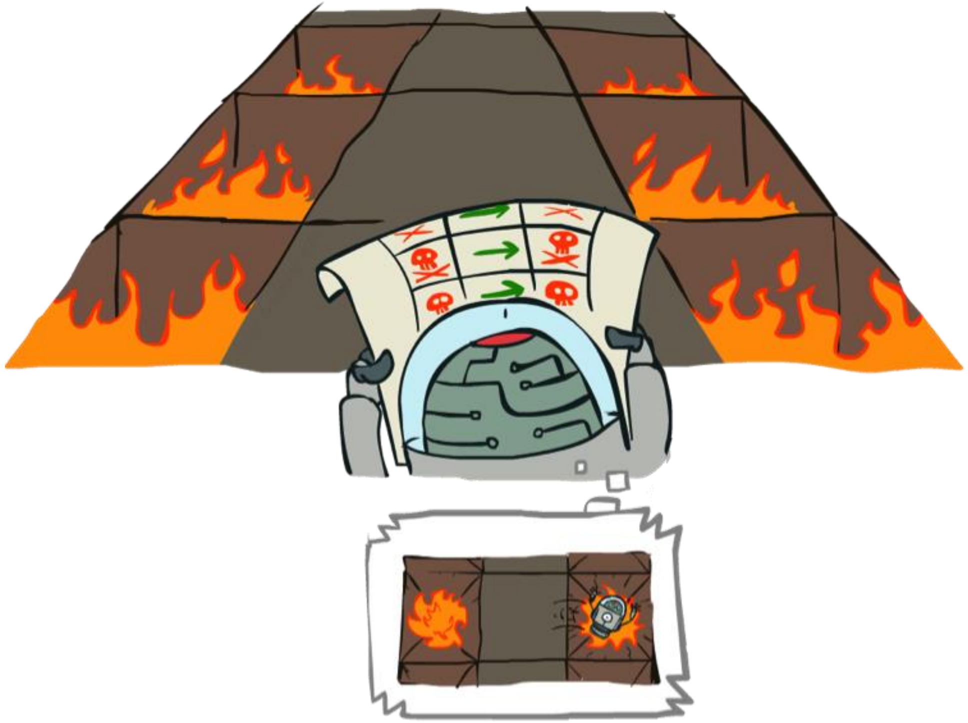
- Recursive relation (one-step look-ahead / Bellman equation):



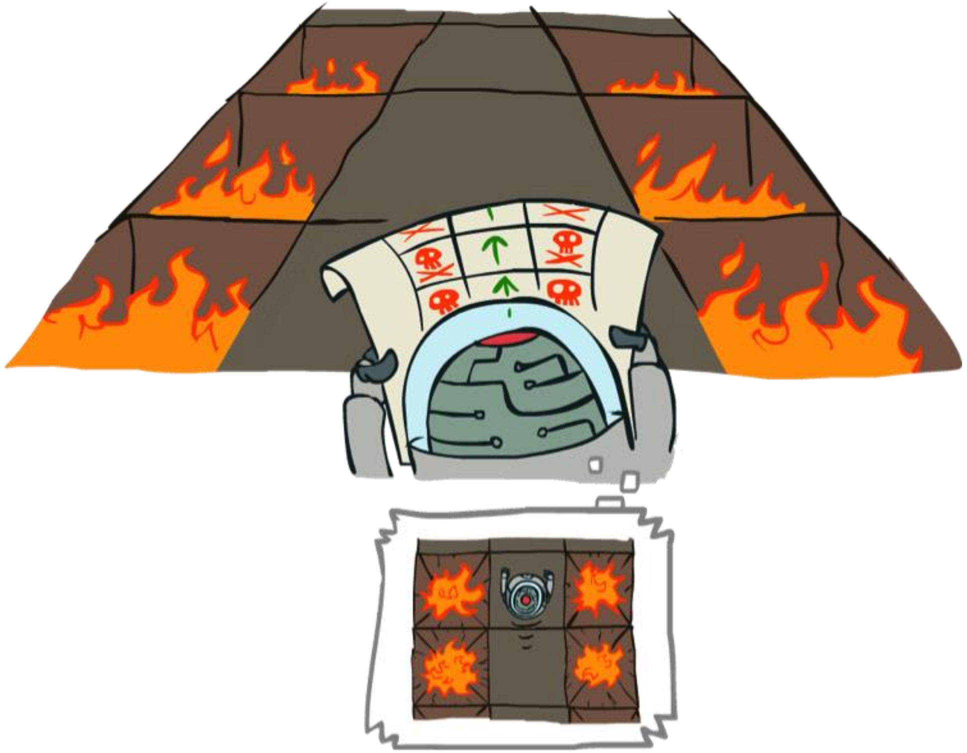
$$V^{\pi}(s) = \sum_{s'} T(s, \pi(s), s')[R(s, \pi(s), s') + \gamma V^{\pi}(s')]$$

Example: Policy Evaluation

Always Go Right



Always Go Forward

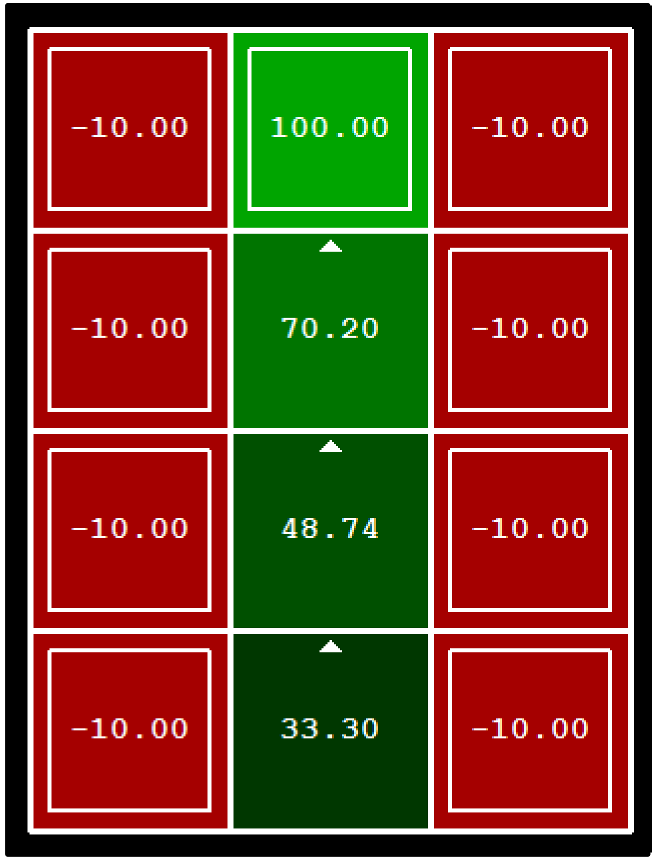


Example: Policy Evaluation

Always Go Right

Bad Policy

Always Go Forward



Good Policy

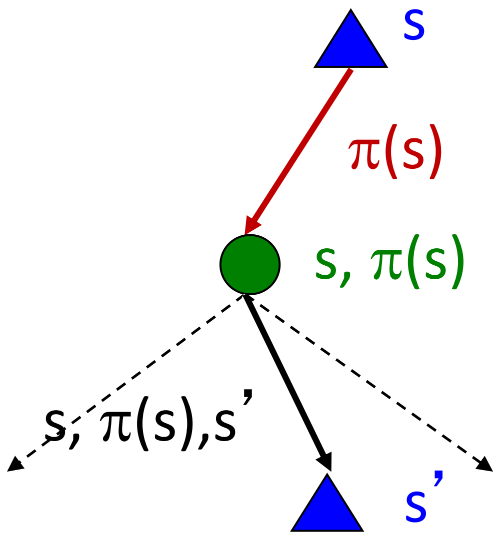
Policy Evaluation

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

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

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

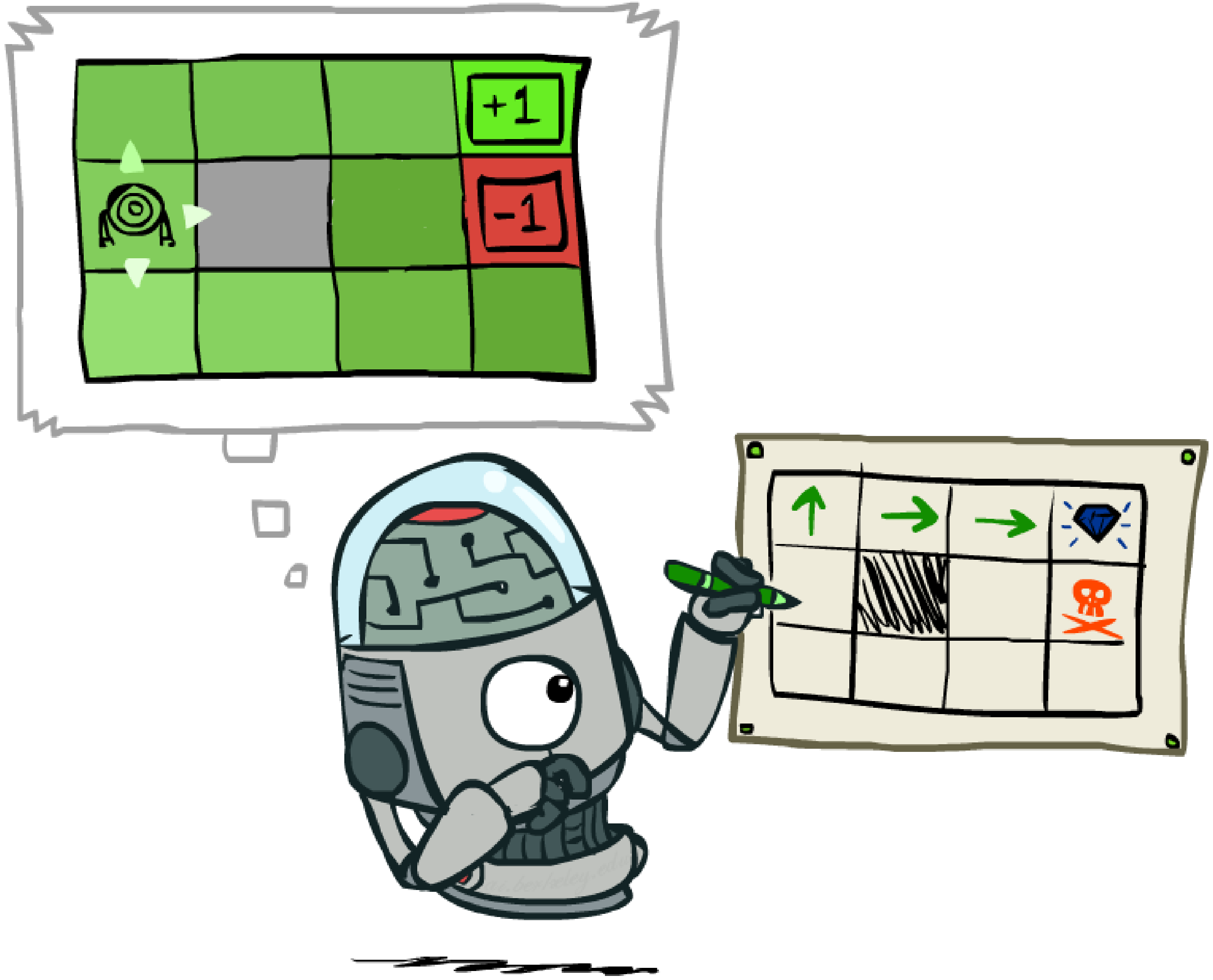
$$V_{k+1}^{\pi}(s) \leftarrow \sum_{s'} T(s, \pi(s), s')[R(s, \pi(s), s') + \gamma V_k^{\pi}(s')]$$



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

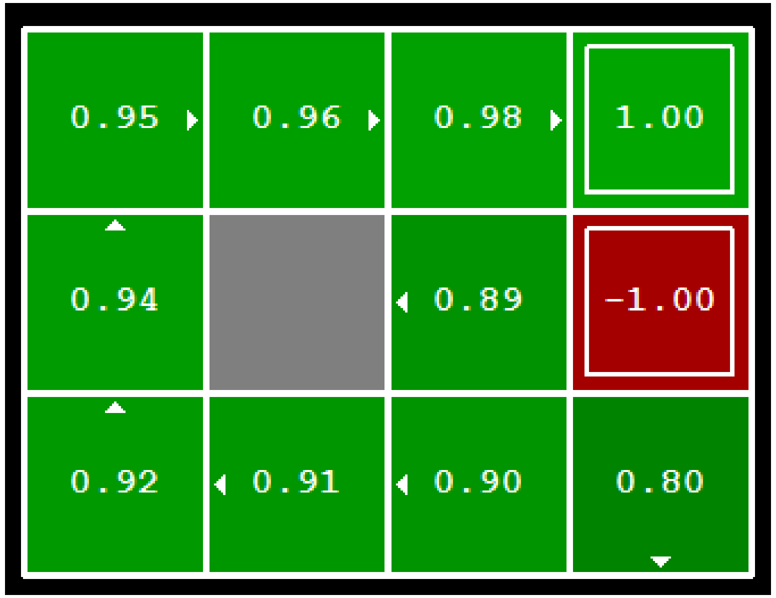
- Idea 2: Without the maxes, the Bellman equations are just a linear system
  - Solve with Matlab (or your favorite linear system solver)

Policy Extraction



Computing Actions from Values

- Let's imagine we have the optimal values V*(s)



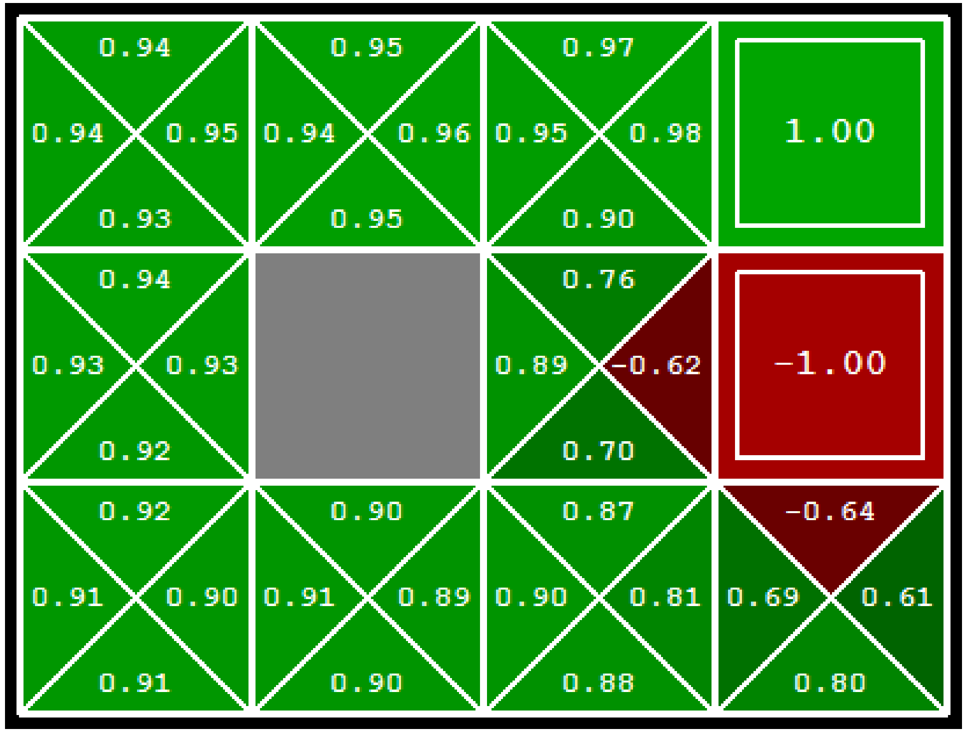
- How should we act?
  - It's not obvious!
- We need to do a mini-expectimax (one step)

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

- 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:

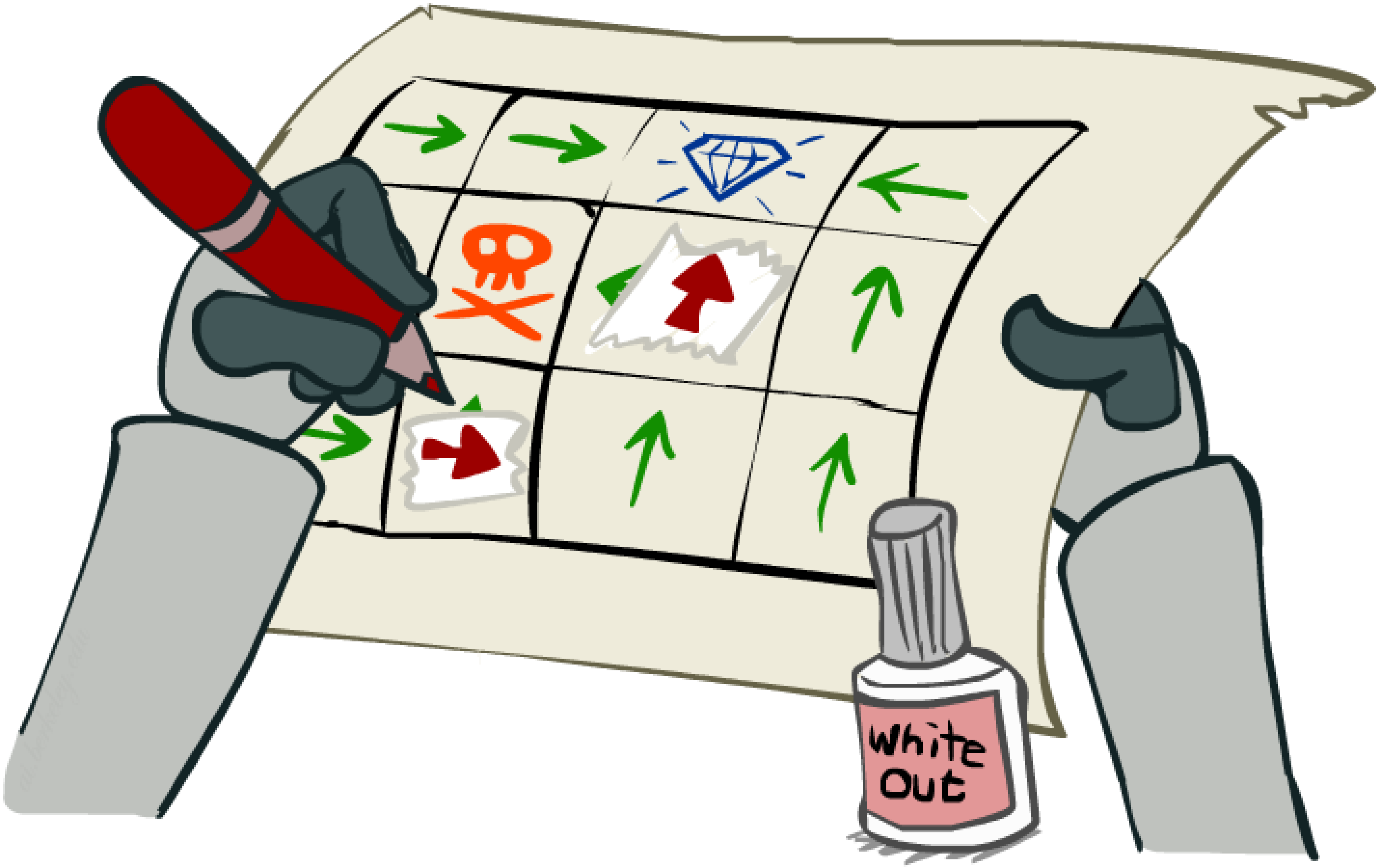


- How should we act?
  - Completely trivial to decide!

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

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

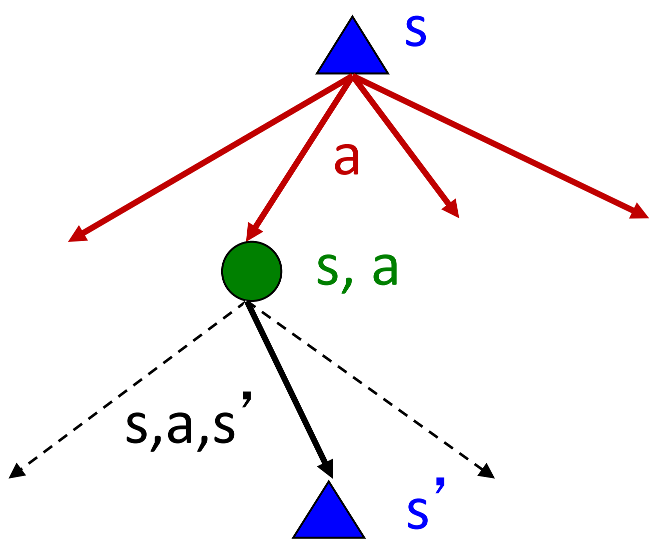
Policy Iteration



Problems with Value Iteration

- Value iteration repeats the Bellman updates:

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



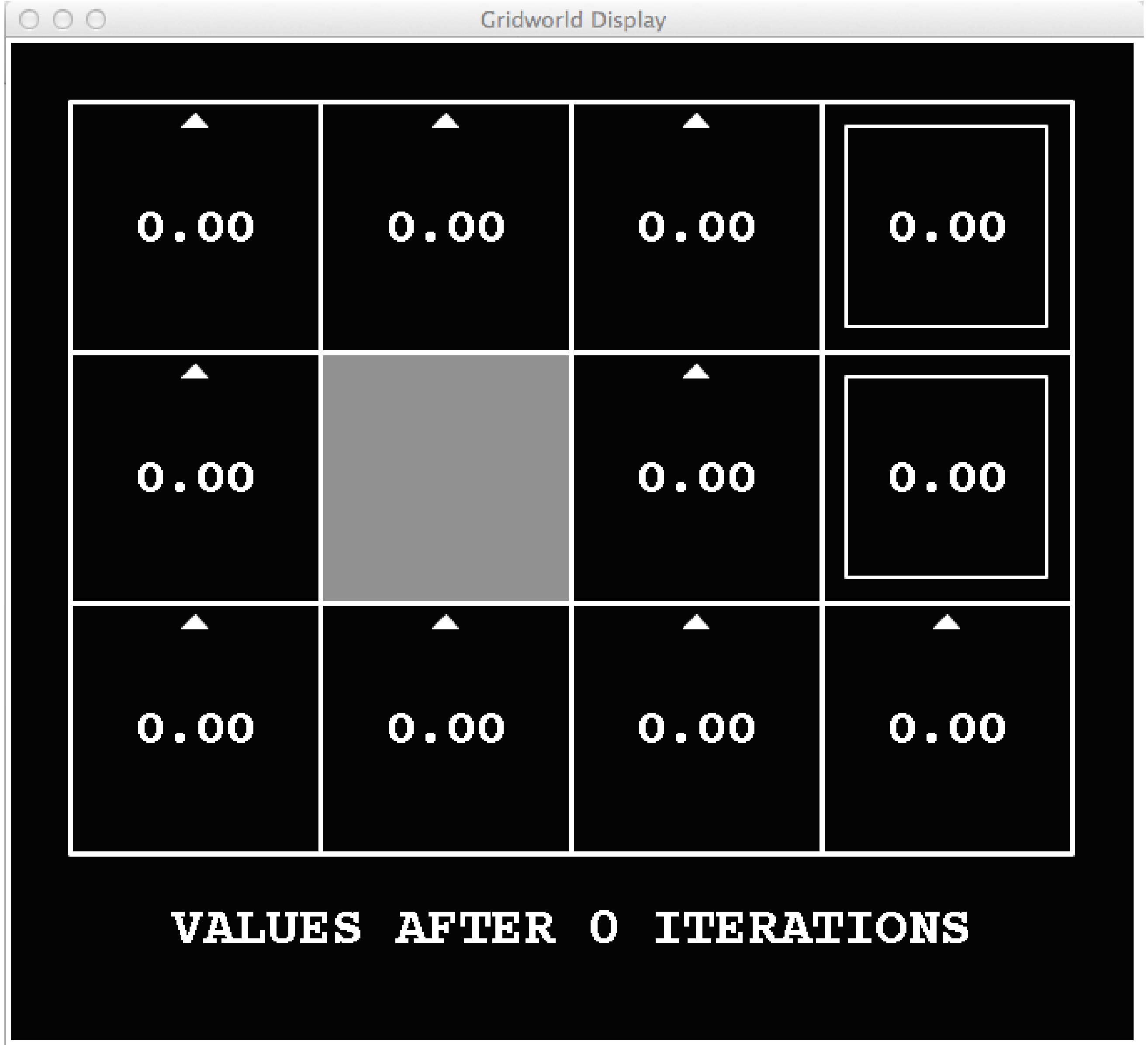
- Problem 1: It's slow – $O(S^2A)$ per iteration

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

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

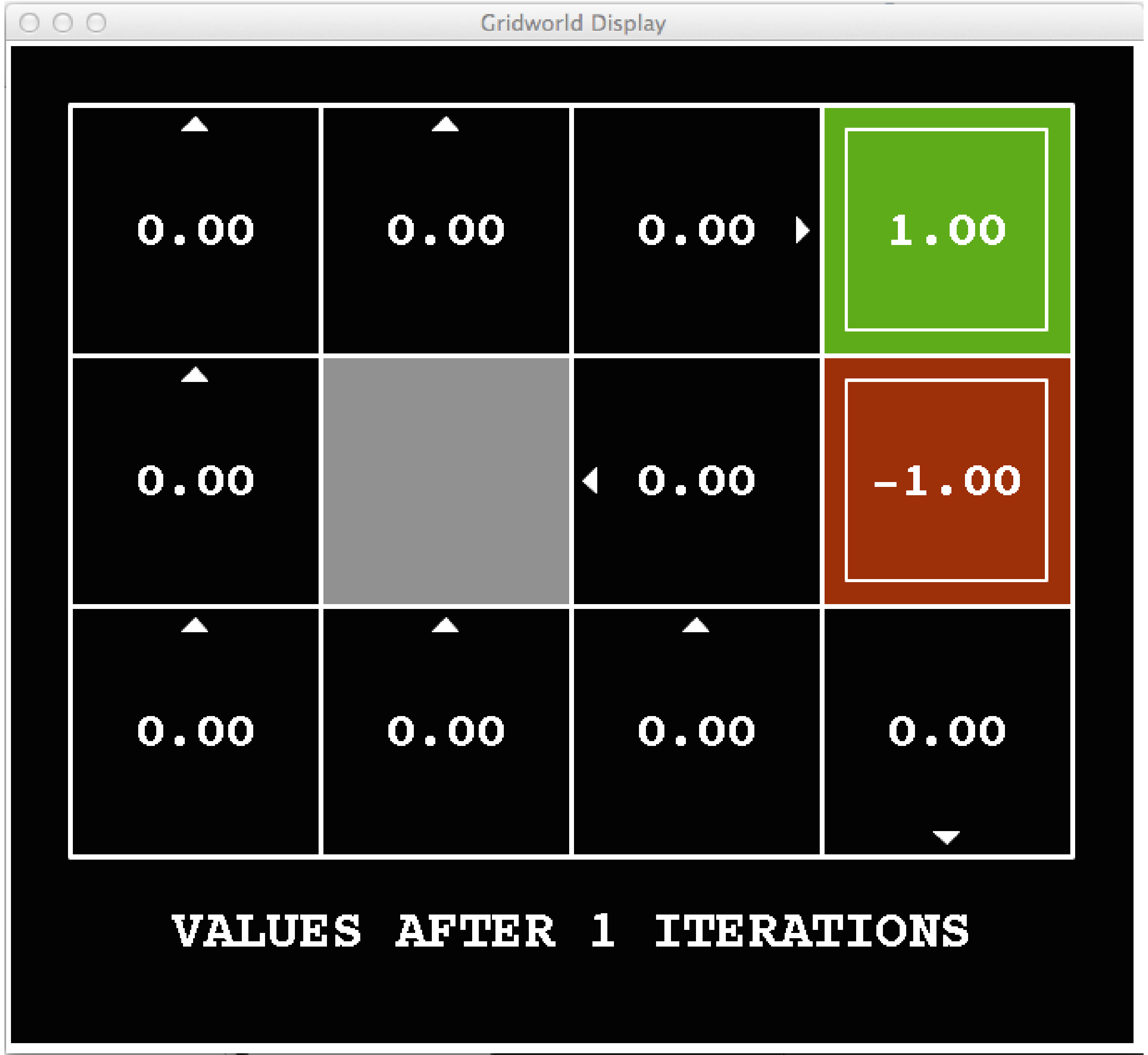
[Demo: value iteration (L9D2)]

k=0



Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=1



Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

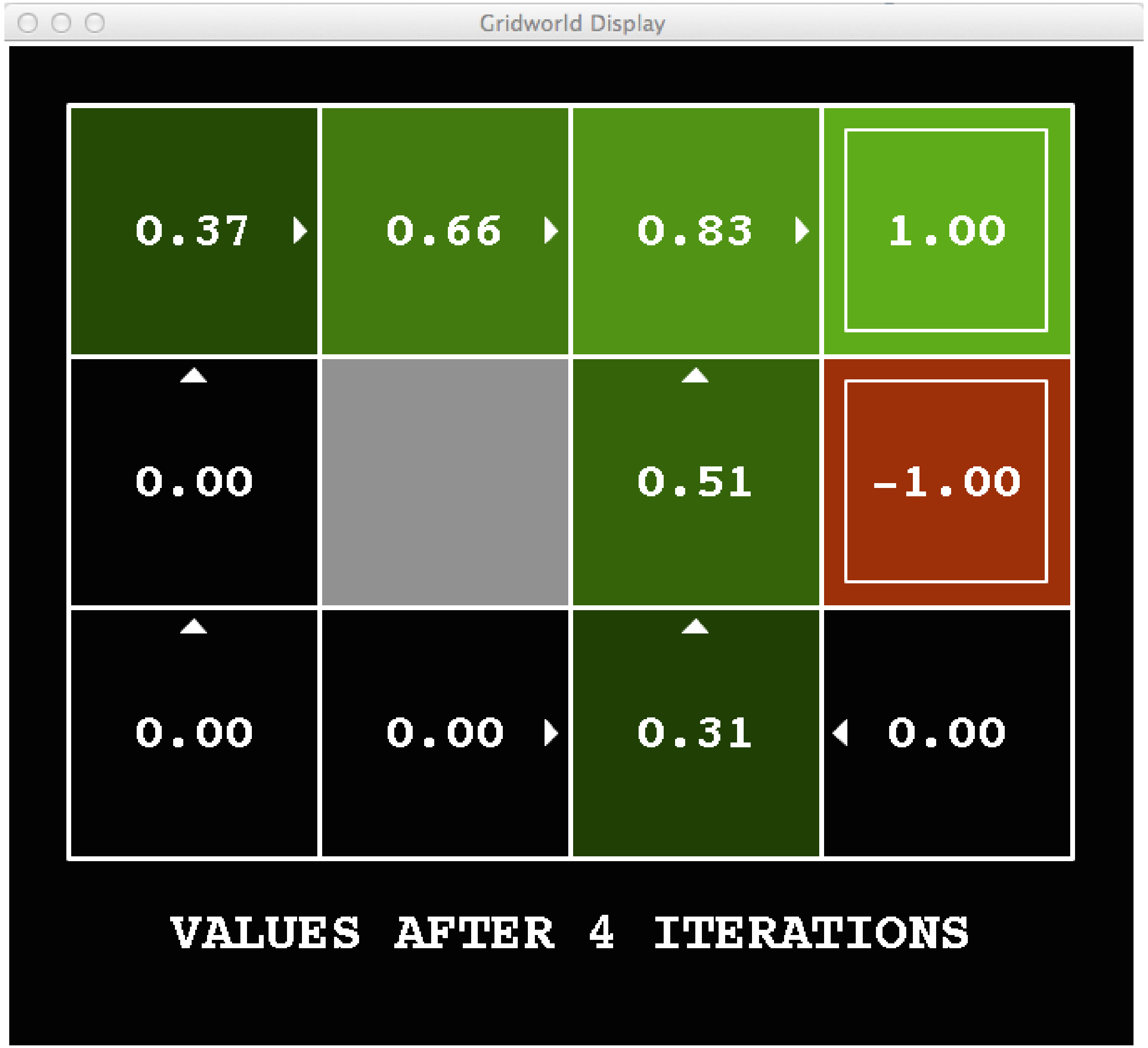
k=2

Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=3

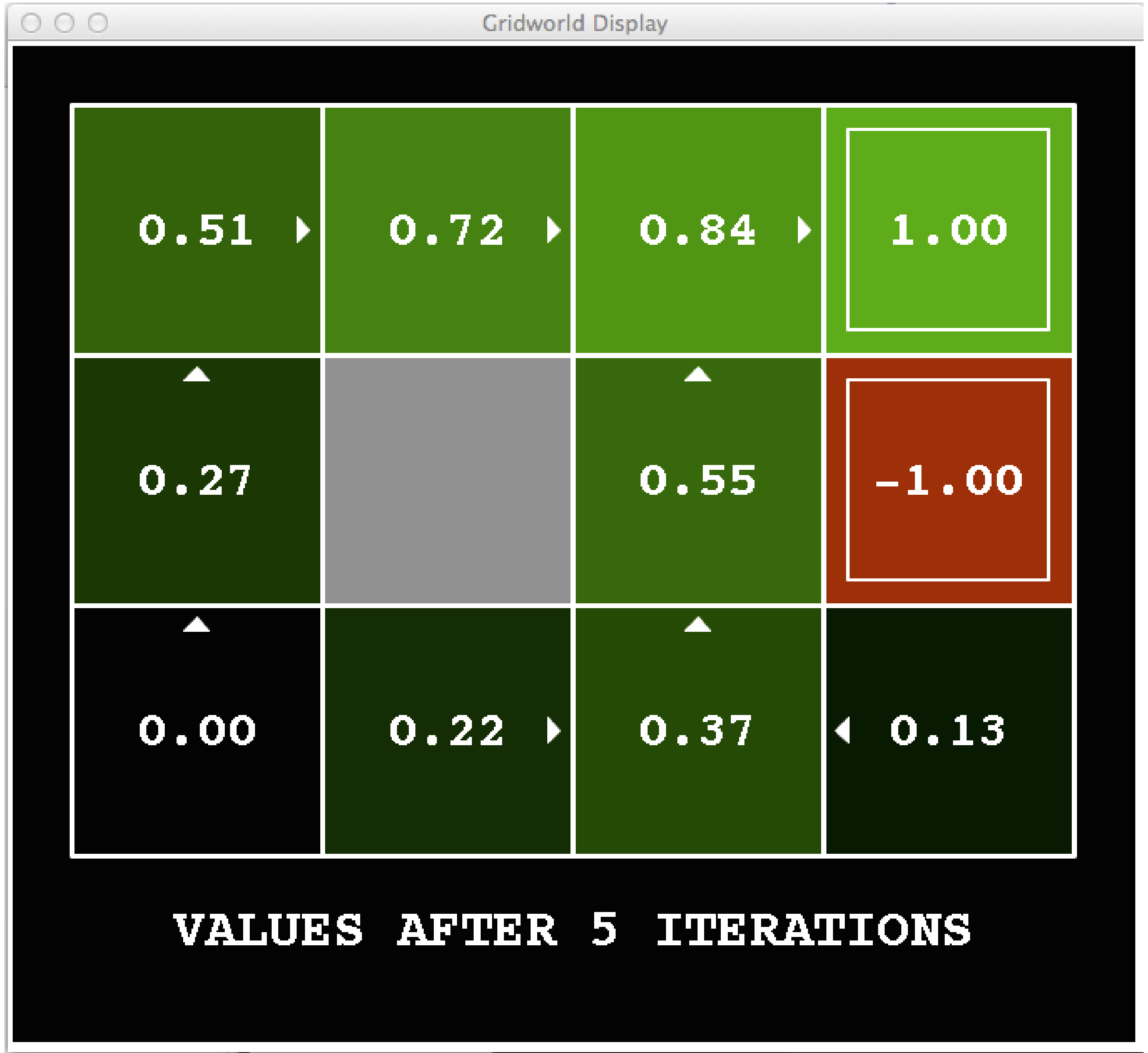
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=4



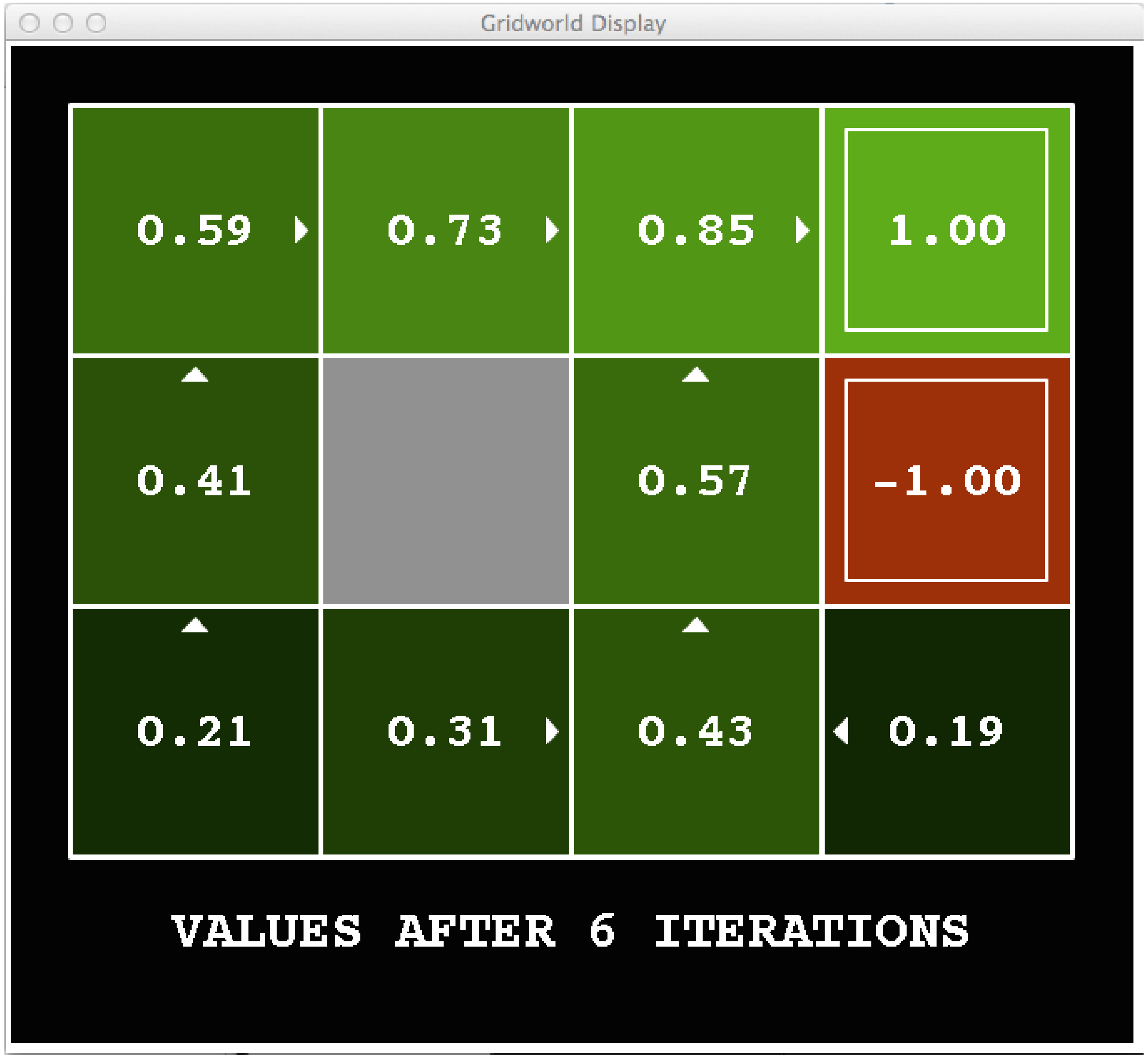
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=5



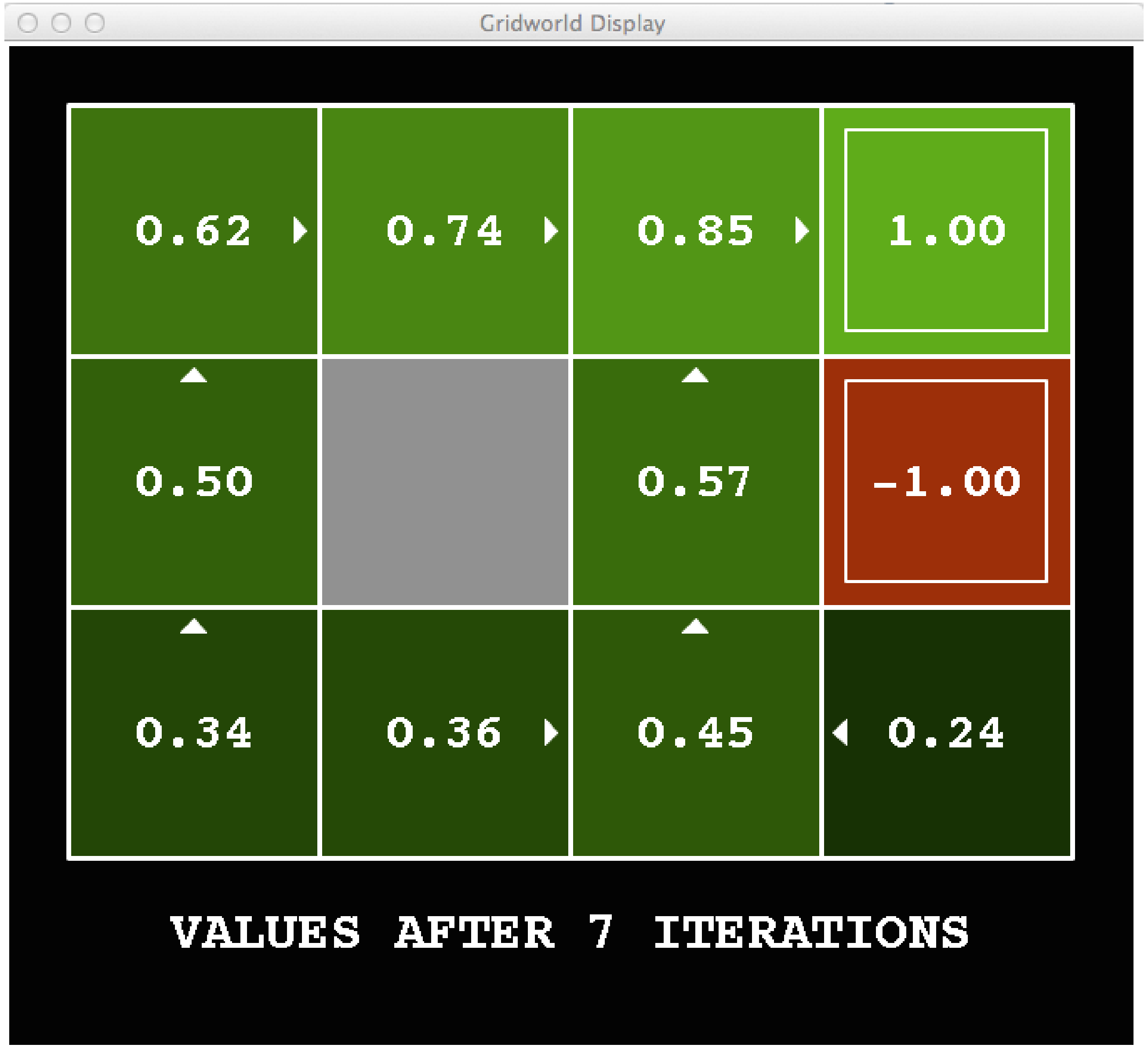
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=6



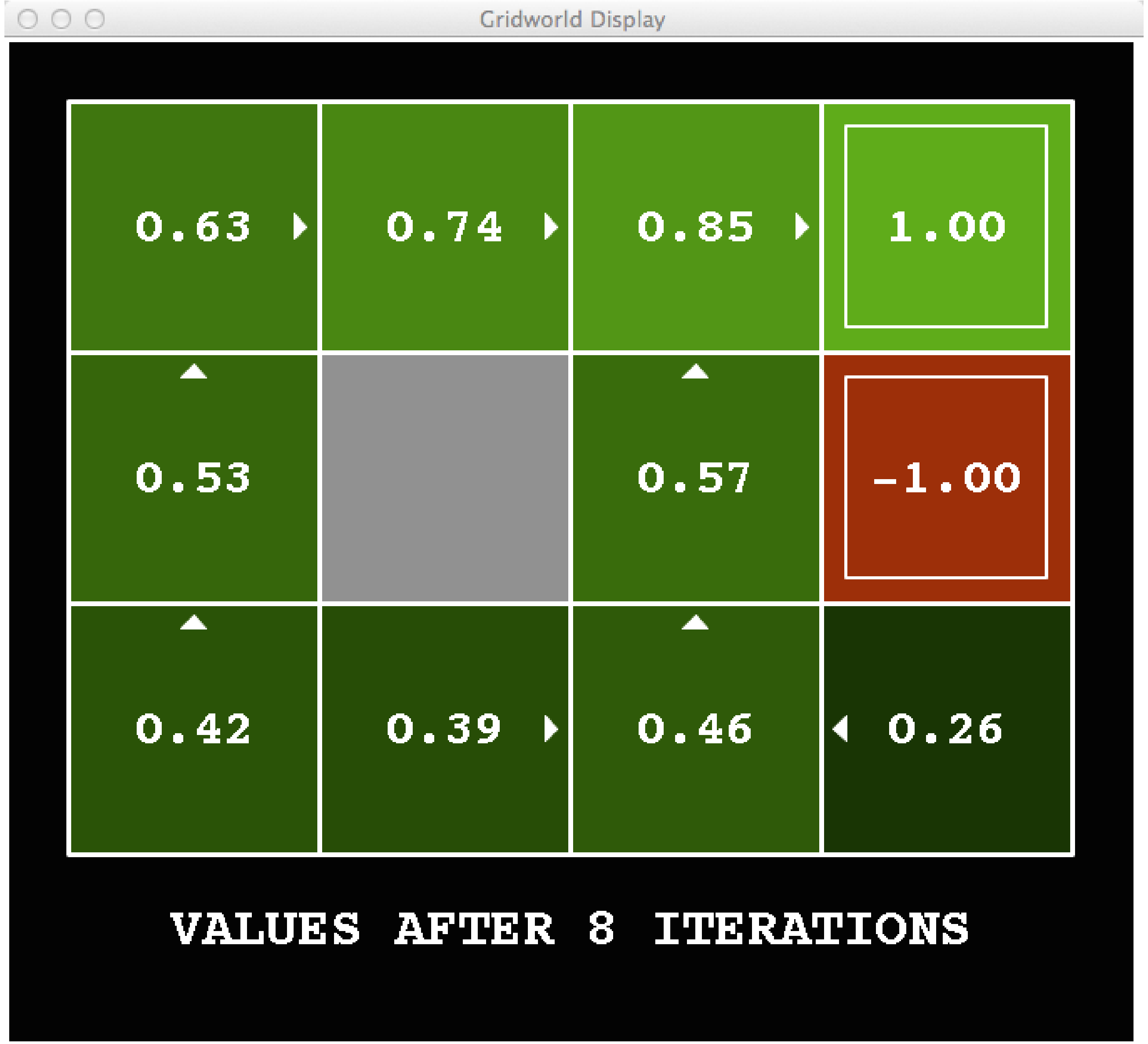
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=7



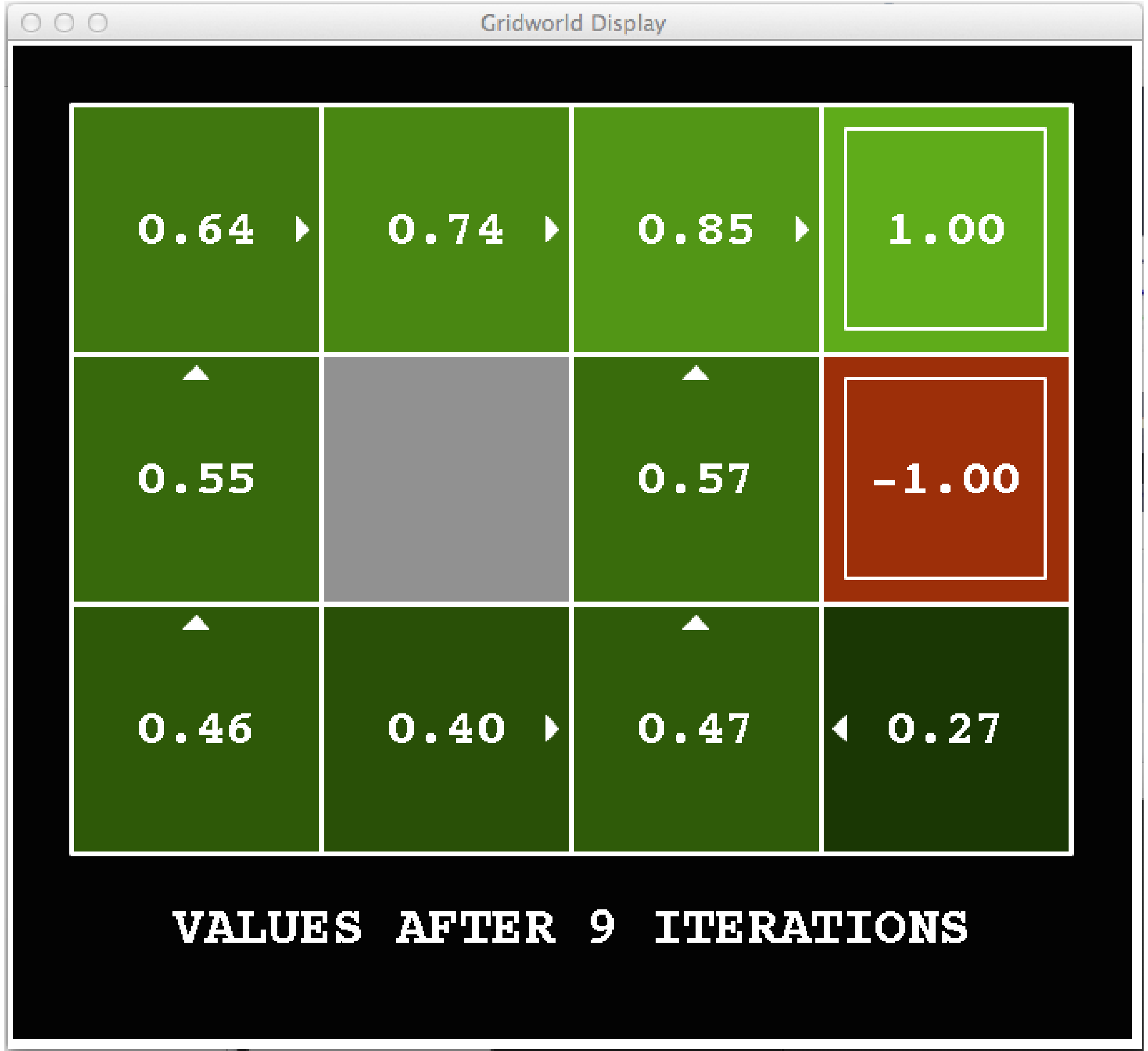
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=8



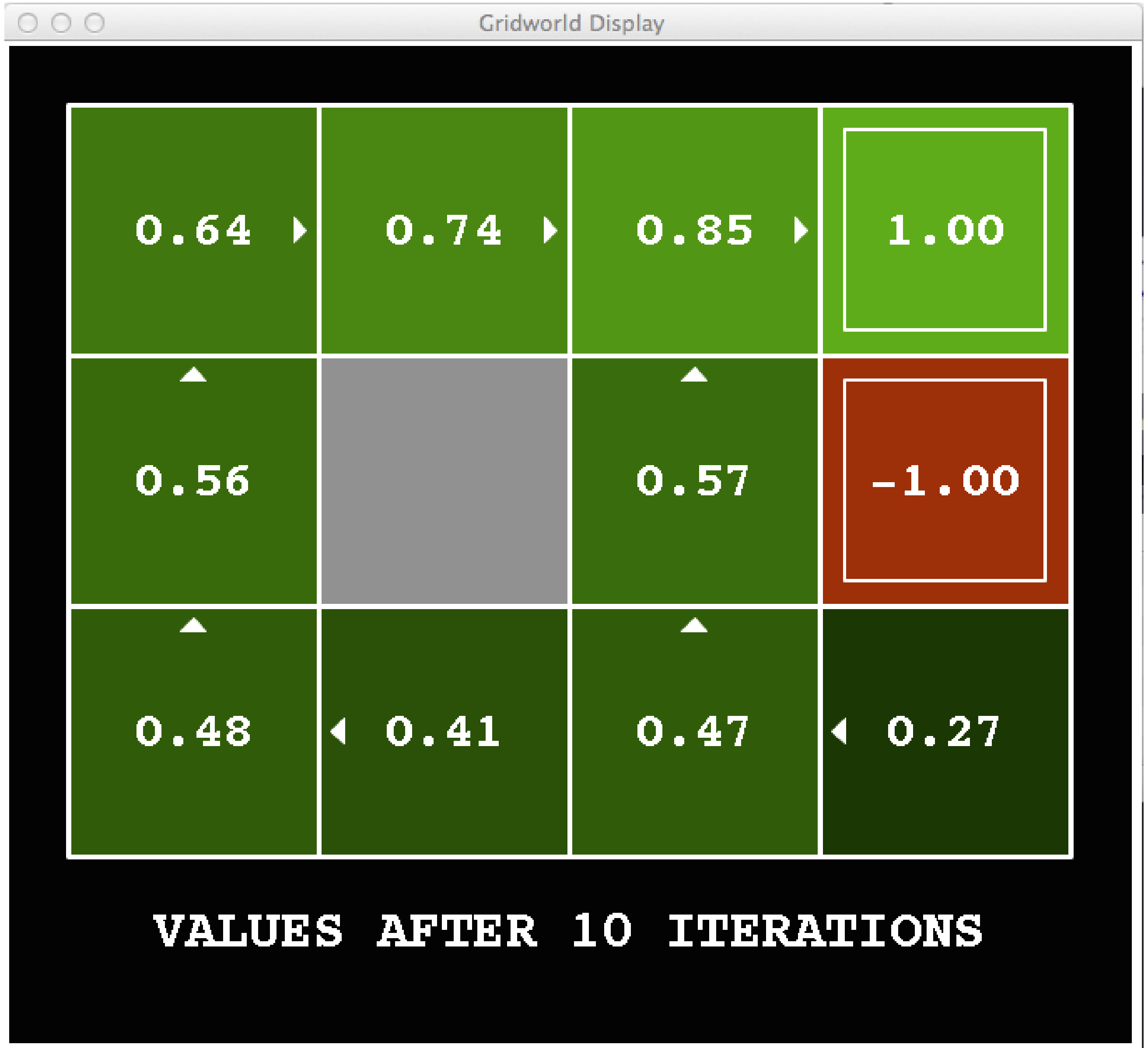
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=9



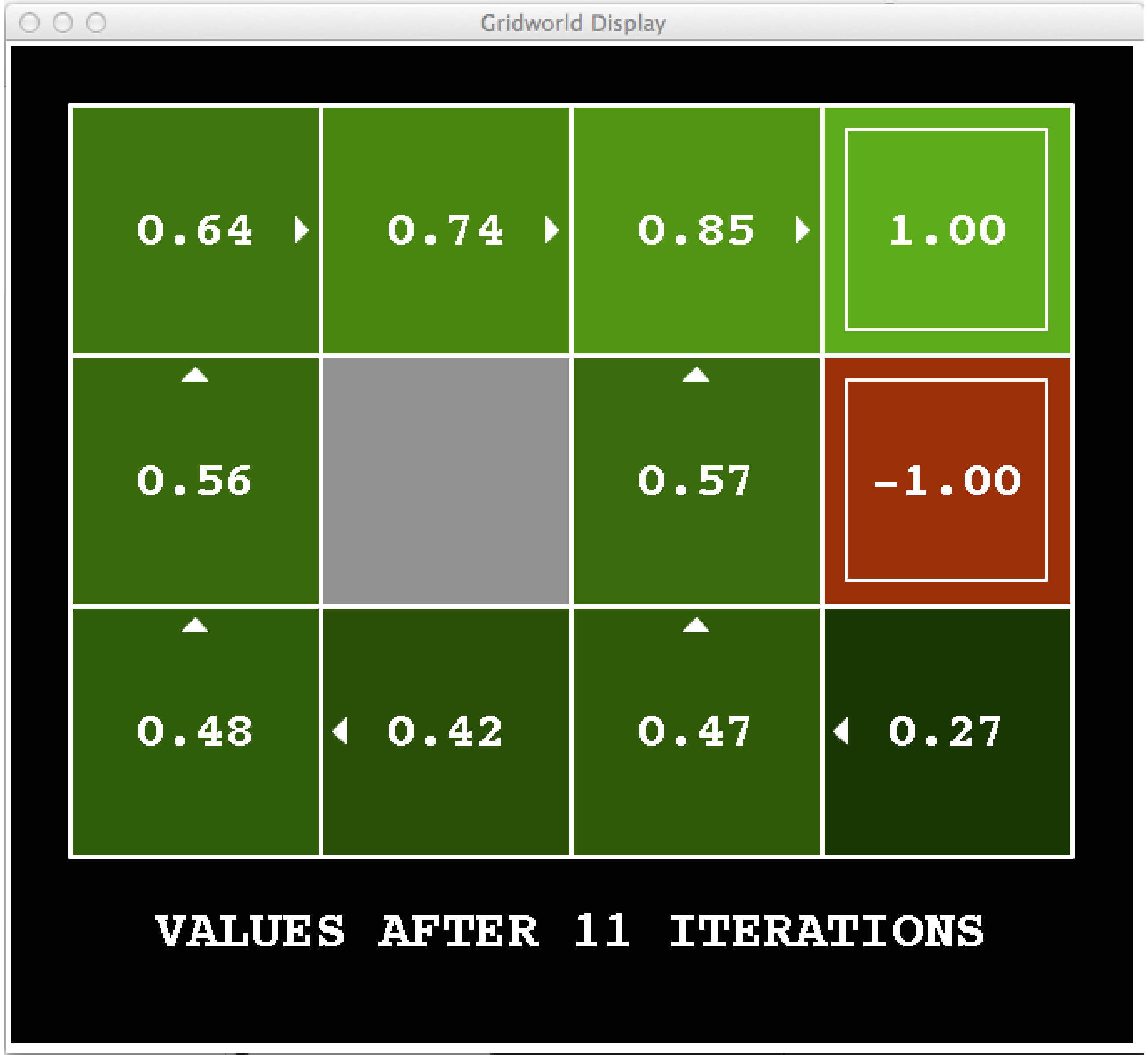
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=10



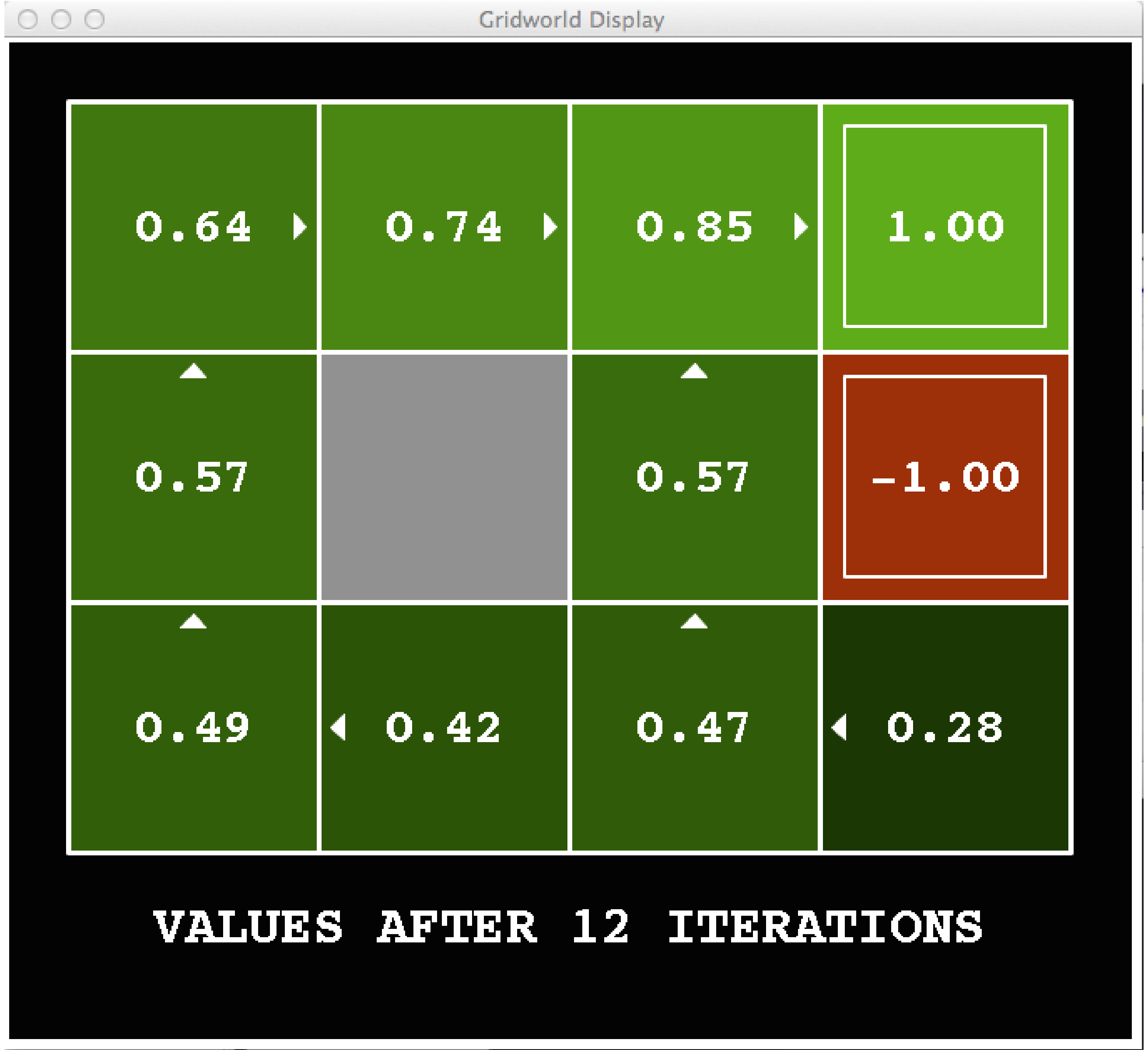
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=11



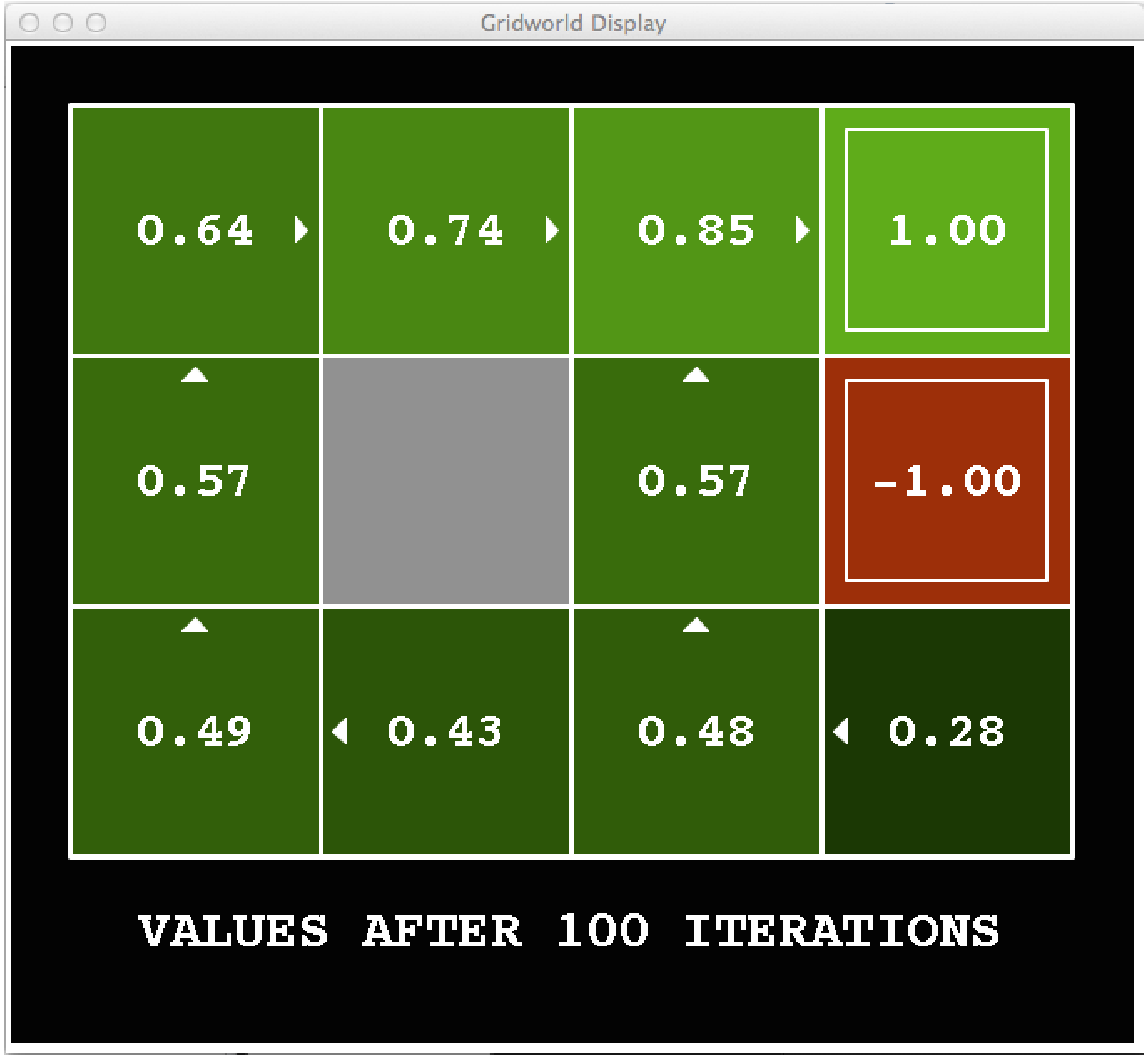
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

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:

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

Policy iteration algorithm

function POLICY-ITERATION(*mdp*) **returns** a policy
  inputs: *mdp*, an MDP with states S, actions $A(s)$, transition model $P(s' \mid s, a)$
  local variables: U, a vector of utilities for states in S, initially zero
    π, a policy vector indexed by state, initially random

  repeat
    $U \leftarrow$ POLICY-EVALUATION(π, U, mdp)
    unchanged? $\leftarrow$ true
    for each state s **in** S **do**
      $a^* \leftarrow \underset{a \in A(s)}{\operatorname{argmax}}$ Q-VALUE(mdp, s, a, U)
      if Q-VALUE(mdp, s, a^*, U) $>$ Q-VALUE($mdp, s, \pi[s], U$) **then**
        $\pi[s] \leftarrow a^*$; *unchanged?* $\leftarrow$ false
  until *unchanged?*
  return π

Figure 16.9 The policy iteration algorithm for calculating an optimal policy.

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

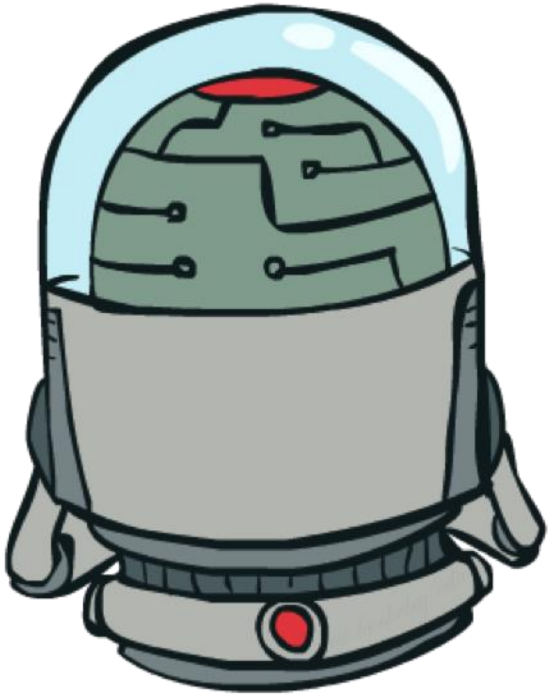
Summary: MDP Algorithms

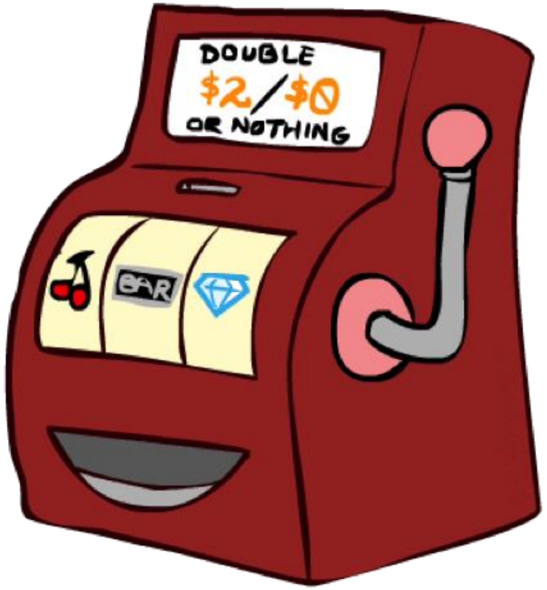
- So you want to….
  - Compute optimal values: use value iteration or policy iteration
  - Compute values for a particular policy: use policy evaluation
  - Turn your values into a policy: use policy extraction (one-step lookahead)

- 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

Blue slot machine gives you $1 when you pull the lever





Red slot machine gives you $0 or $2 when you pull the lever

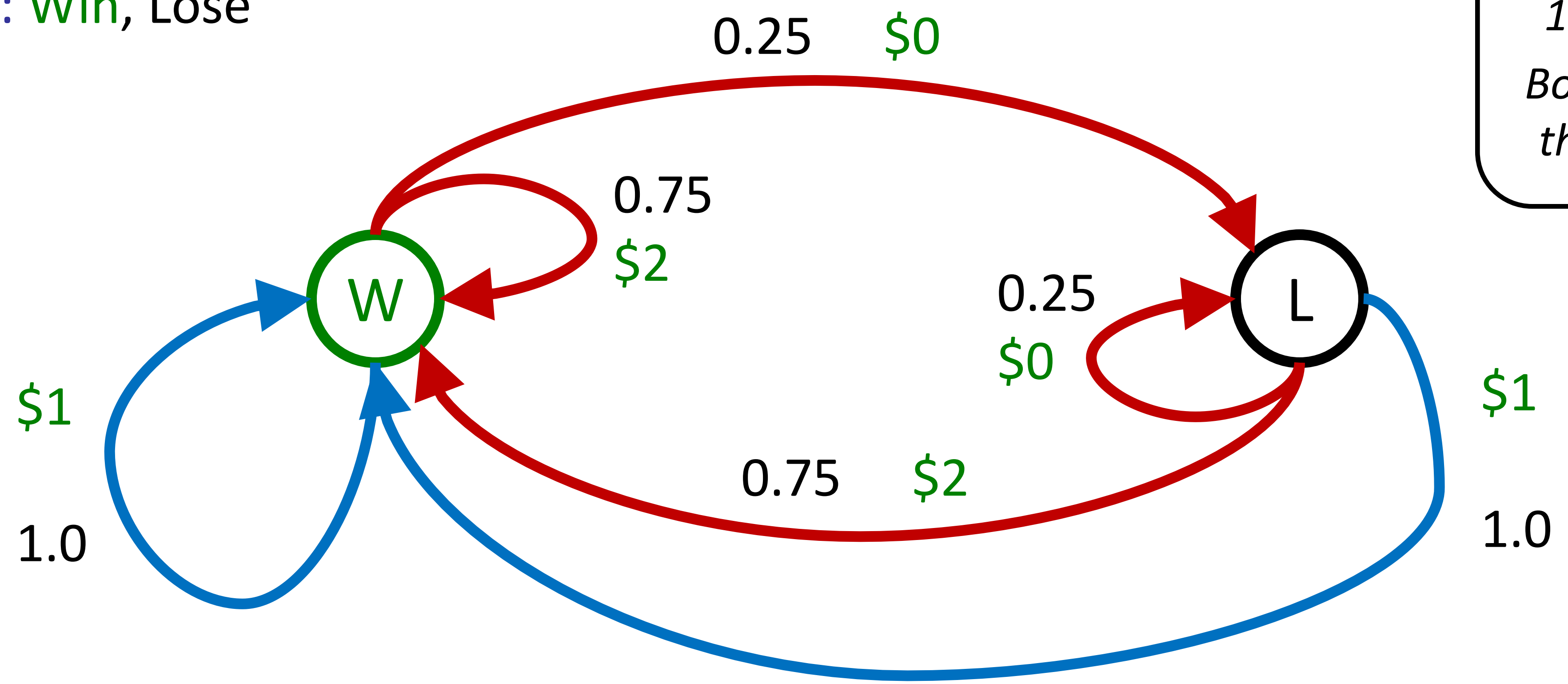
Double-Bandit MDP

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

No discount

100 time steps

Both states have the same value

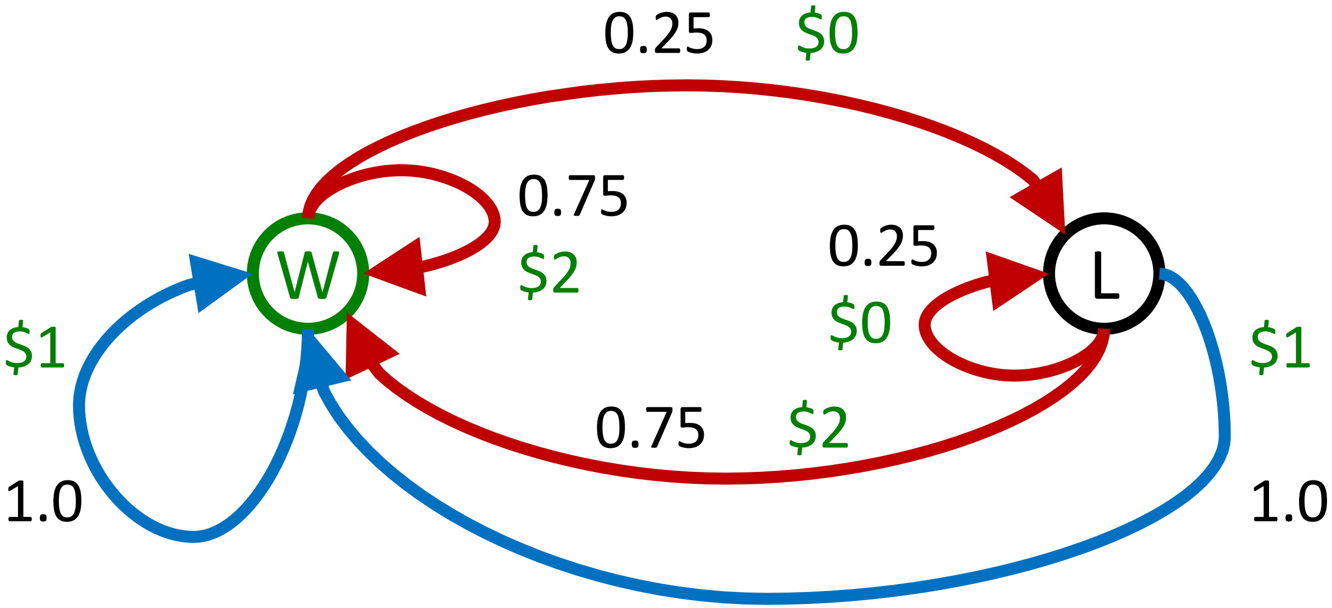


Offline Planning

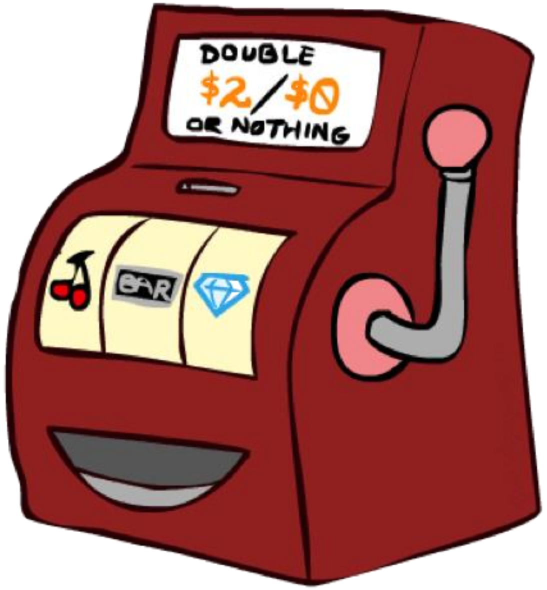
- Solving MDPs is offline planning
  - You determine all quantities through computation
  - You need to know the details of the MDP
  - You do not actually play the game!

No discount
100 time steps
Both states have the same value

	Value
Play Red	150
Play Blue	100



Let’s Play!

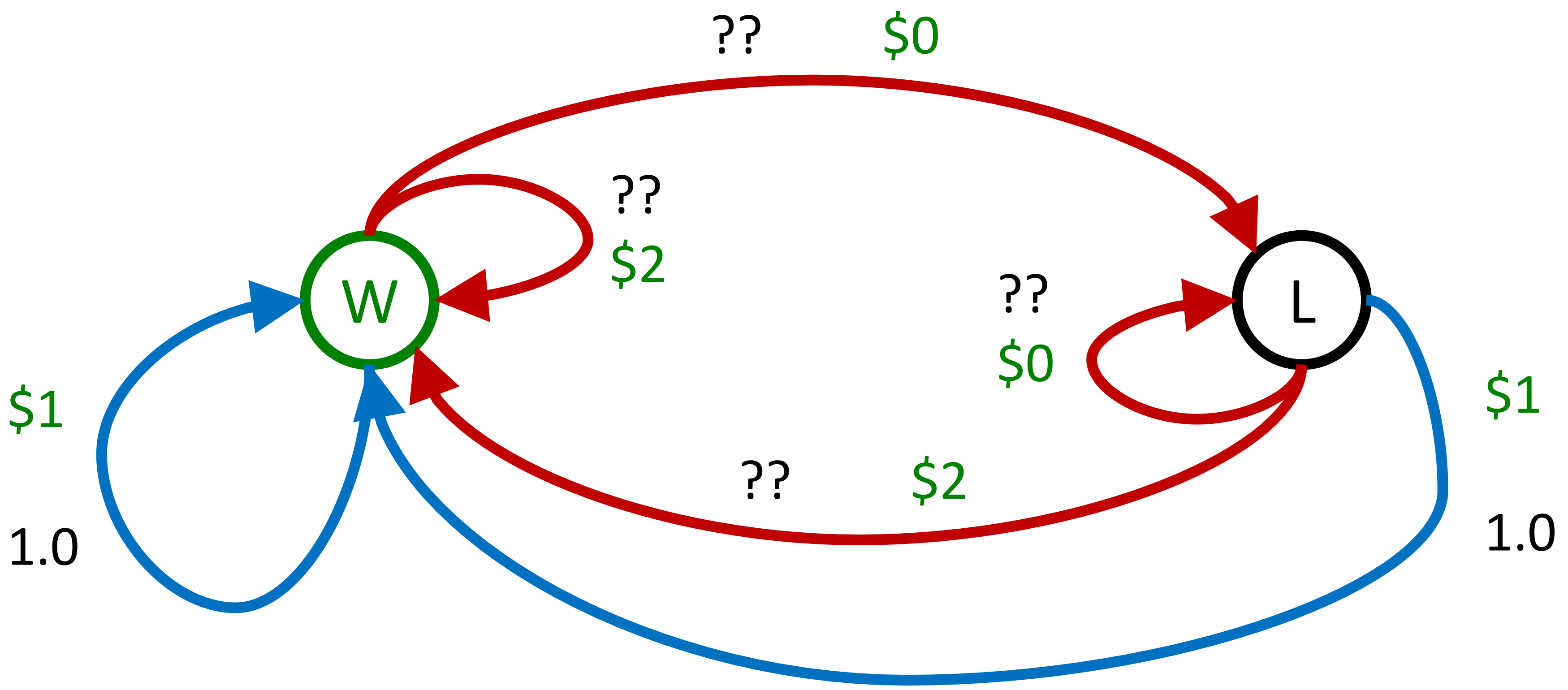


$2 $2 $0 $2 $2

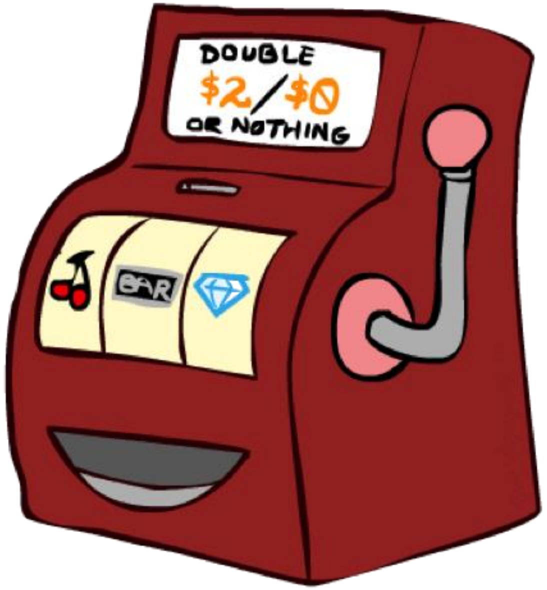
$2 $2 $0 $0 $0

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

Next Time: Reinforcement Learning!