## Planning and models

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## Recap

In the previous lectures:

- **Bandits**: how to trade-off exploration and exploitation.
- Dynamic Programming: how to solve prediction and control given full knowledge of the environment.
- Model-free prediction and control: how to solve prediction and control from interacting with the environment.
- **Function approximation**: how to generalise what you learn in large state spaces.

## Dynamic Programming and Model-Free RL

#### Dynamic Programming

- Assume a model
- Solve model, no need to interact with the world at all.

#### Model-Free RL

- No model
- Learn value functions from experience.

### Model-Based RL



- Learn a model from experience
- Plan value functions using the learned model.

## Model-Free RL



### Model-Based RL



### Model-Based RL



## Why should we even consider this?

One clear disadvantage:

First learn a model, then construct a value function
 two sources of approximation error

Learn a value function directly

 $\Rightarrow$  only one source of approximation error

However:

- Models can efficiently be learned by supervised learning methods
- Reason about model uncertainty (better exploration?)
- Reduce the interactions in the real world (data efficiency? faster/cheaper?).

## Learning a Model

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### What is a Model?

A model  $\mathcal{M}_{\eta}$  is an approximate representation of an MDP  $\langle S, \mathcal{A}, \hat{p} \rangle$ ,

- ▶ For now, we will assume the states and actions are the same as in the real problem
- $\blacktriangleright$  That the dynamics ,  $\hat{p}_\eta$  is parametrised by some set of weights  $\eta$
- ▶ The model directly approximates the state transitions and rewards  $\hat{p}_{\eta} \approx p$ :

 $R_{t+1}, S_{t+1} \sim \hat{p}_{\eta}(r, s' \mid S_t, A_t)$ 

### Model Learning - I

Goal: estimate model M<sub>η</sub> from experience {S<sub>1</sub>, A<sub>1</sub>, R<sub>2</sub>, ..., S<sub>T</sub>}
► This is a supervised learning problem

$$S_1, A_1 \rightarrow R_2, S_2$$
  
 $\vdots$   
 $S_{T-1}, A_{T-1} \rightarrow R_T, S_T$ 

over a dataset of state transitions observed in the environment.

How do we learn a suitable function  $f_{\eta}(s, a) = r, s'$ ?

- Choose a functional form for f
- Pick loss function (e.g. mean-squared error),
- Find parameters  $\eta$  that minimise empirical loss
- This would give an expectation model
- ▶ If  $f_{\eta}(s, a) = r, s'$ , then we would hope  $s' \approx \mathbb{E}[S_{t+1} \mid s = S_t, a = A_t]$

### **Expectation Models**

- Expectation models can have disadvantages:
  - Image that an action randomly goes left or right past a wall
  - Expectation models can interpolate and put you in the wall
- But with linear values, we are mostly alright:
  - Consider an expectation model  $f_{\eta}(\phi_t) = \mathbb{E}[\phi_{t+1}]$  and value function  $v_{\theta}(\phi_t) = \theta^{\top} \phi_t$

$$\mathbb{E}[v_{\theta}(\phi_{t+1}) \mid S_t = s] = \mathbb{E}[\theta^{\top}\phi_{t+1} \mid S_t = s]$$
$$= \theta^{\top}\mathbb{E}[\phi_{t+1} \mid S_t = s]$$
$$= v_{\theta}(\mathbb{E}[\phi_{t+1} \mid S_t = s])$$

- If the model is also linear:  $f_{\eta}(\phi_t) = P\phi_t$  for some matrix P.
  - ▶ then we can even unroll an expectation model even multiple steps into the future, ▶ and still have  $\mathbb{P}[v_{1}(f_{1}, ..., v_{n})] \in \mathbb{P}_{n}$  and  $\mathbb{P}[v_{1}(f_{1}, ..., v_{n})] \in \mathbb{P}_{n}$
  - ► and still have  $\mathbb{E}[v_{\theta}(\phi_{t+n}) | S_t = s] = v_{\theta}(\mathbb{E}[\phi_{t+n} | S_t = s])$

### Stochastic Models

- We may not want to assume everything is linear
- Then, expected states may not be right they may not correspond to actual states, and iterating the model may do weird things
- Alternative: stochastic models (also known as generative models)

$$\hat{R}_{t+1}, \hat{S}_{t+1} = \hat{p}(S_t, A_t, \omega)$$

where  $\omega$  is a noise term

- Stochastic models can be chained, even if the model is non-linear
- But they do add noise

### Full Models

We can also try to model the complete transition dynamics

It can be hard to iterate these, because of branching:

$$\mathbb{E}[v(S_{t+1}) \mid S_t = s] = \sum_{a} \pi(a \mid s) \sum_{s'} \hat{p}(s, a, s')(\hat{r}(s, a, s') + \gamma v(s'))$$

$$\mathbb{E}[v(S_{t+n}) \mid S_t = s] = \sum_{a} \pi(a \mid s) \sum_{s'} \hat{p}(s, a, s') \left( \hat{r}(s, a, s') + \gamma \sum_{a'} \pi(a' \mid s') \sum_{s''} \hat{p}(s', a', s'') \left( \hat{r}(s', a', s'') + \gamma^2 \sum_{a''} \pi(a'' \mid s'') \sum_{s'''} \hat{p}(s'', a'', s''') \left( \hat{r}(s'', a'', s''') + \dots \right) \right) \right)$$

We typically decompose the dynamics  $p_\eta$  into separate parametric functions

► for transition and reward dynamics

For each of these we can then consider different options:

- Table Lookup Model
- Linear Expectation Model
- Deep Neural Network Model

### Table Lookup Models

Model is an explicit MDP

• Count visits N(s, a) to each state action pair

$$\hat{p}_t(s' \mid s, a) = rac{1}{N(s, a)} \sum_{k=0}^{t-1} I(S_k = s, A_k = a, S_{k+1} = s')$$
 $\mathbb{E}_{\hat{p}_t}[R_{t+1} \mid S_t = s, A_t = a] = rac{1}{N(s, a)} \sum_{k=0}^{t-1} I(S_k = s, A_k = a)R_{k+1}$ 

## AB Example



We have constructed a table lookup model from the experience

In linear expectation models

- $\blacktriangleright$  we assume some feature representation  $\phi$  is given
- so that we can encode any state s as  $\phi(s)$
- we then parametrise separately rewards and transitions
- each as a linear function of the features

#### Linear expectation models

 $\blacktriangleright$  expected next states are parametrised by a square matrix  $T_a$ , for each action a

$$\hat{s'}(s,a)=T_a\phi(s)$$

 $\blacktriangleright$  the rewards are parametrised by a vector  $w_a$ , for each action a

$$\hat{r}(s,a) = w_a^T \phi(s)$$

On each transition (s, a, r, s') we can then apply a gradient descent step
 to update w<sub>a</sub> and T<sub>a</sub> so as to minimise the loss:

$$L(s,a,r,s') = (s' - T_a\phi(s))^2 + (r - w_a^T\phi(s))^2$$

## Planning for Credit Assignment

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# Planning

In this section we investigate planning

- This concept means different things to different communities
- ► For us planning is the process of investing compute to improve values and policies
- Without the need to interact with the environment
- Dynamic programming is the best example we have seen so far
- We are interested in planning algorithms that don't require privileged access to a perfect specification of the environment
- Instead, the planning algorithms we discuss today use learned models

# Dynamic Programming with a learned Model

Once learned a model  $\hat{p}_{\eta}$  from experience:

- ▶ Solve the MDP  $\langle S, A, \hat{p}_{\eta} \rangle$
- Using favourite dynamic programming algorithm
  - Value iteration
  - Policy iteration
  - ...

## Sample-Based Planning with a learned Model

A simple but powerful approach to planning:

- Use the model only to generate samples
- Sample experience from model

$$S, R \sim \hat{p}_\eta(\cdot \mid s, a)$$

- Apply model-free RL to samples, e.g.:
  - Monte-Carlo control
  - Sarsa
  - Q-learning

### Back to the AB Example

Construct a table-lookup model from real experience

Apply model-free RL to sampled experience



e.g. Monte-Carlo learning: V(A) = 1, V(B) = 0.75

## Limits of Planning with an Inaccurate Model - I

Given an imperfect model  $\hat{p}_{\eta} \neq p$ :

- The planning process may compute a suboptimal policy
- Performance is limited to optimal policy for approximate MDP  $\langle S, A, \hat{p}_{\eta} \rangle$
- Model-based RL is only as good as the estimated model

## Limits of Planning with an Inaccurate Model - II

How can we deal with the inevitable inaccuracies of a learned model?

- Approach 1: when model is wrong, use model-free RL
- > Approach 2: reason about model uncertainty over  $\eta$  (e.g. Bayesian methods)
- > Approach 3: Combine model-based and model-free methods in a single algorithm.

We consider two sources of experience

Real experience Sampled from environment (true MDP)

 $r,s'\sim p$ 

Simulated experience Sampled from model (approximate MDP)

$$r,s'\sim \hat{p}_\eta$$

# Integrating Learning and Planning

- Model-Free RL
  - No model
  - Learn value function (and/or policy) from real experience
- Model-Based RL (using Sample-Based Planning)
  - Learn a model from real experience
  - Plan value function (and/or policy) from simulated experience
- Dyna
  - Learn a model from real experience
  - Learn AND plan value function (and/or policy) from real and simulated experience
  - Treat real and simulated experience equivalently. Conceptually, the updates from learning or planning are not distinguished.

### Dyna Architecture



# Dyna-Q Algorithm

Initialize Q(s, a) and Model(s, a) for all  $s \in S$  and  $a \in A(s)$ Do forever:

# Advantages of combining learning and planning.

What are the advantages of this architecture?

- We can sink in more compute in order to learn more efficiently.
- This is especially important when collecting real data is
  - expensive / slow (e.g. robotics)
  - unsafe (e.g. autonomous driving)

## Dyna-Q on a Simple Maze



### Dyna-Q on a Simple Maze



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## Dyna-Q with an Inaccurate Model

The changed environment is harder



# Dyna-Q with an Inaccurate Model (2)

► The changed environment is easier


## Planning and Experience Replay

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Traditional RL algorithms did not explicitly store their experiences, It was easy to place them into one of two groups.

- Model-free methods update the value function and/or policy and do not have explicit dynamics models.
- Model-based methods update the transition and reward models, and compute a value function or policy from the model.

### Moving beyond model-based and model-free labels

The sharp distinction between model-based and model-free is now less useful:

- 1. Often agents store transitions in an experience replay buffer
- 2. Model-free RL is then applied to experience sampled from the replay buffer,
- 3. This is just Dyna, with the experience replay as a non-parametric model
  - we plan by sampling an entire transition (s, a, r, s'),
  - instead of sampling just a state-action (s, a) and inferring r, s' from the model.
  - we can still sink in compute to make learning more efficient,
  - by making many updates on past data for every new step we take in the environment.

Scalability



The maze



Comparing parametric model and experience replay - I

- For tabular RL there is an exact output equivalence between some conventional model-based and model free algorithms.
- If the model is perfect, it will give the same output as a non-parametric replay system for every (s, a) pair
- ▶ In practice, the model is not perfect, so there will be differences
- Could model inaccuracies lead to better learning?
- Unlikely if we only use the model to sample imagined transitions from the actual past state-action pairs.
- But a parametric model is more flexible than a replay buffer

Comparing parametric model and experience replay - II

- Plan for action-selection!
  - query a model for action that you \*could\* take in the future
- Counterfactual planning.
  - query a model for action that you \*could\* have taken in the past, but did not

### Comparing parametric model and experience replay - III

#### Backwards planning

- model the inverse dynamics and assign credit to different states that \*could\* have led to a certain outcome
- Jumpy planning for long-term credit assignment,
  - plan at different timescales

Comparing parametric model and experience replay - IV

Computation:

- Querying a replay buffer is very cheap!
- Generating a sample from a learned model can be very expensive
- E.g. if the model is large neural network based generative model.

Memory:

- ► The memory requirements of a replay buffer scale linearly with its capacity
- A parametric model can achieve goods accuracy with a fixed and comparably small memory footprint

### Planning for Action Selection

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### Planning for Action Selection

- ▶ We considered the case where planning is used to improve a global value function
- Now consider planning for the near future, to select the next action
- The distribution of states that may be encountered from now can differ from the distribution of states encountered from a starting state
- The agent may be able to make a more accurate local value function (for the states that will be encountered soon) than the global value function
- Inaccuracies in the model may result in interesting exploration rather than in bad updates.

### Forward Search

- Forward search algorithms select the best action by lookahead
- They build a search tree with the current state s<sub>t</sub> at the root
- Using a model of the MDP to look ahead



No need to solve whole MDP, just sub-MDP starting from now

### Simulation-Based Search

- Sample-based variant of Forward search
- Simulate episodes of experience from now with the model
- Apply model-free RL to simulated episodes



#### Prediction via Monte-Carlo Simulation

 $\blacktriangleright$  Given a parameterized model  $\mathcal{M}_\eta$  and a simulation policy  $\pi$ 

Simulate K episodes from current state  $S_t$ 

$$\{S_{t}^{k} = S_{t}, A_{t}^{k}, R_{t+1}^{k}, S_{t+1}^{k}, ..., S_{T}^{k}\}_{k=1}^{K} \sim \hat{\rho}_{\eta}, \pi$$

Evaluate state by mean return (Monte-Carlo evaluation)

$$v(S_t) = rac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K G_t^k \! 
ightarrow \! v_{\pi}(S_t)$$

#### Control via Monte-Carlo Simulation

- Given a model  $\mathcal{M}_{\eta}$  and a simulation policy  $\pi$
- For each action  $a \in A$ 
  - Simulate K episodes from current (real) state s

$$\{S_t^k = s, A_t^k = a, R_{t+1}^k, S_{t+1}^k, A_{t+1}^k, ..., S_T^k\}_{k=1}^K \sim \mathcal{M}_{\nu}, \pi$$

Evaluate actions by mean return (Monte-Carlo evaluation)

$$q(oldsymbol{s},oldsymbol{a}) = rac{1}{K}\sum_{k=1}^K G_t^k {\leadsto} q_\pi(s,oldsymbol{s},oldsymbol{a})$$

Select current (real) action with maximum value

$$A_t = \operatorname*{argmax}_{a \in \mathcal{A}} q(S_t, a)$$

#### Monte-Carlo Tree Search - I

In MCTS, we incrementally build a search tree containing visited states and actions, Together with estimated action values q(s, a) for each of these pairs

- Repeat (for each simulated episode)
  - Select Until you reach a leaf node of the tree, pick actions according to q(s, a).
  - Expand search tree by one node
  - Rollout until episode termination with a fixed simulation policy
  - Update action-values q(s,a) for all state-action pairs in the tree

$$q(s,a) = rac{1}{N(s,a)} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{u=t}^{T} \mathbf{1}(S_u^k, A_u^k = s, a) G_u^k {\scriptstyle 
ightarrow} q_\pi(s,a)$$

• Output best action according to q(s, a) in the root node when time runs out.

Note that we effectively have two simulation policies:

- ► a Tree policy that improves during search.
- > a Rollout policy that is held fixed: often this may just be picking actions randomly.

# Applying Monte-Carlo Tree Search (1)



# Applying Monte-Carlo Tree Search (2)



# Applying Monte-Carlo Tree Search (3)



# Applying Monte-Carlo Tree Search (4)



# Applying Monte-Carlo Tree Search (5)



### Advantages of Monte-Carlo Tree Search

- Highly selective best-first search
- Evaluates states dynamically (unlike e.g. DP)
- Uses sampling to break curse of dimensionality
- Works for "black-box" models (only requires samples)
- Computationally efficient, anytime, parallelisable

Search tree and value function approximation - I

- Search tree is a table lookup approach
- Based on a partial instantiation of the table
- ▶ For model-free reinforcement learning, table lookup is naive
  - Can't store value for all states
  - Doesn't generalise between similar states
- For simulation-based search, table lookup is less naive
  - Search tree stores value for easily reachable states
  - But still doesn't generalise between similar states
  - In huge search spaces, value function approximation is helpful