Announcements

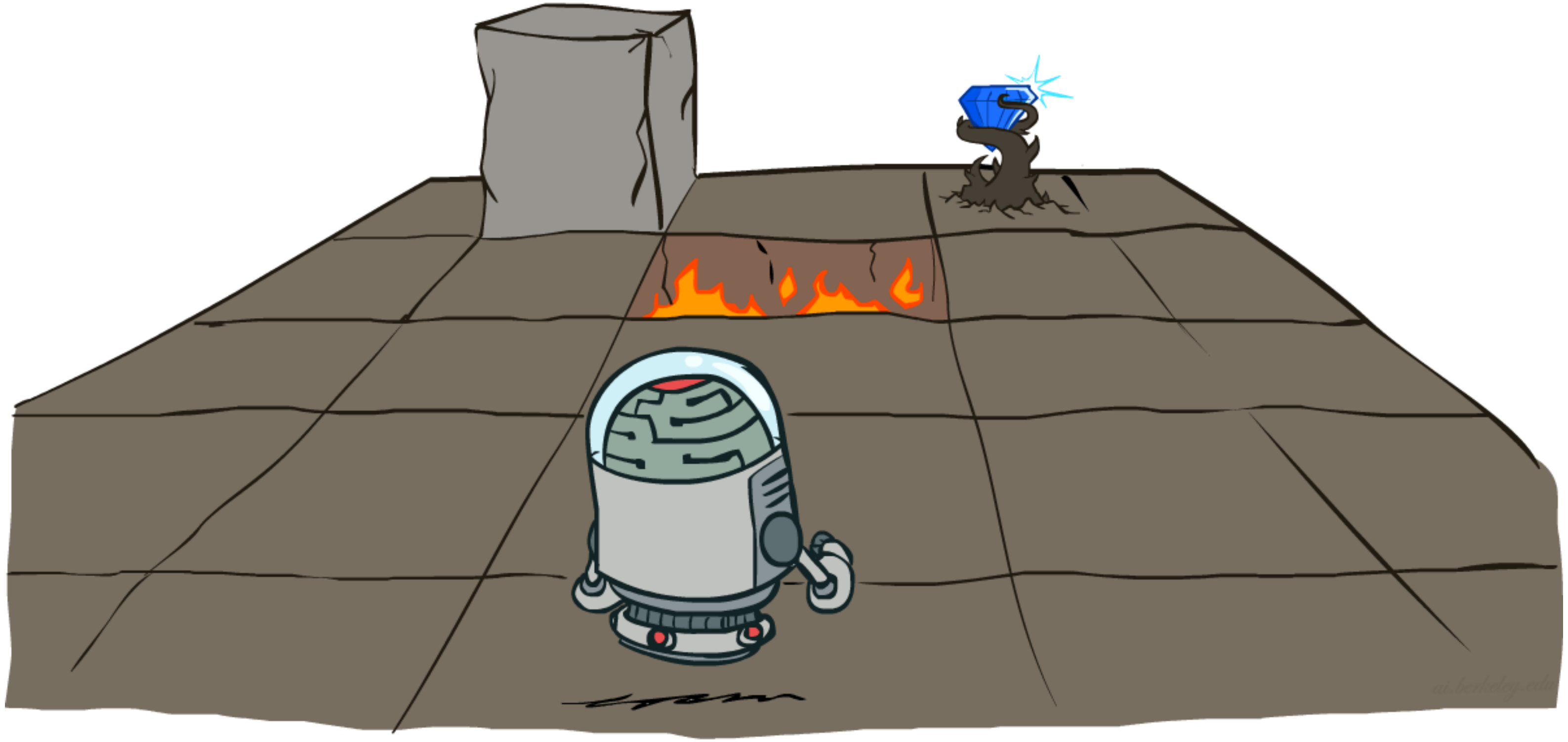
- Homework 2
  - Due **2/11** at 11:59pm
    - Electronic HW2
    - Written HW2
- Project 1
  - Due Friday 2/8 at 4:00pm
- Mini-contest 1 (optional)
  - Due **2/11** at 11:59pm

Week 1 (week of 1/28)

Start Time	Section		
Tues 9:00 a.m.	Wheeler 130 (Katie)		
	12		
Tues 11:00 a.m.	Dwinelle 182 (Mesut)	Moffitt 103 (Laura)	
	35	20	
Tues 12:00 p.m.	Etcheverry 3105 (Ellen)	Moffitt 150D (Avi)	Soda 310 (Rachel)
	8	13	
Tues 2:00 p.m.	Etcheverry 3105 (Tony)	Wheeler 130 (Aditya)	
	30	50	
Tues 3:00 p.m.	Barrows 185 (Ronghang/Dequan)	Etcheverry 3113 (Murtaza)	
	15	6	
Tues 4:00 p.m.	Moffitt 150D (Wilson)	Wheeler 224 (Ronghang/Dequan)	Soda 405 (Micah)
	1	30	15
Wed 9:00 a.m.	Dwinelle 242 (Frederik)	Wheeler 30 (Michael)	Hearst Annex B1 (Austen)
	11	10	6
Wed 10:00 a.m.	Etcheverry 3113 (Simin)		
	30		
Wed 2:00 p.m.	Moffitt 150D (Rishi)	Latimer 105 (Henry)	
	25	15	
Wed 3:00 p.m.	Hearst Annex B1 (Adam)	Evans 3 (Dennis)	Etcheverry 3119 (Charles)
	25	20	20
Wed 4:00 p.m.	Evans 9 (Alex)	Wheeler 130 (Jason)	
	36	63	

CS 188: Artificial Intelligence

Expectimax & Markov Decision Processes

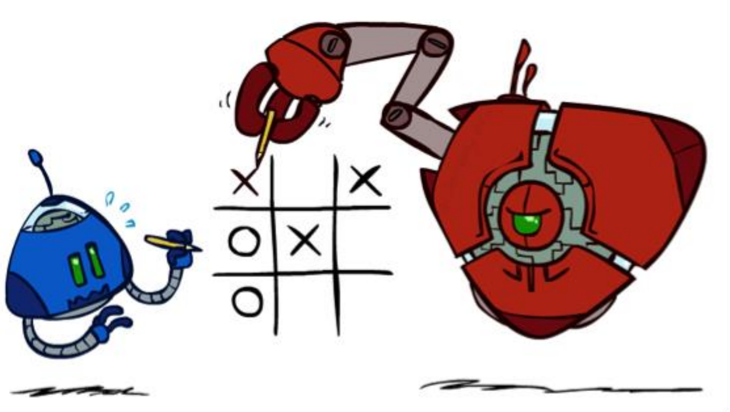


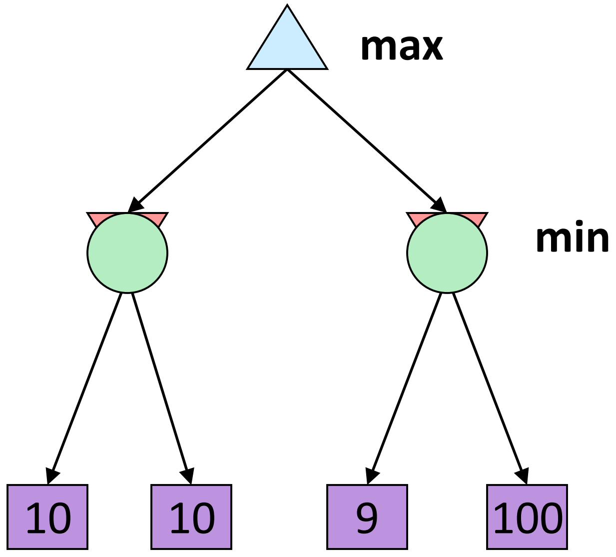
Instructors: Sergey Levine and Stuart Russell

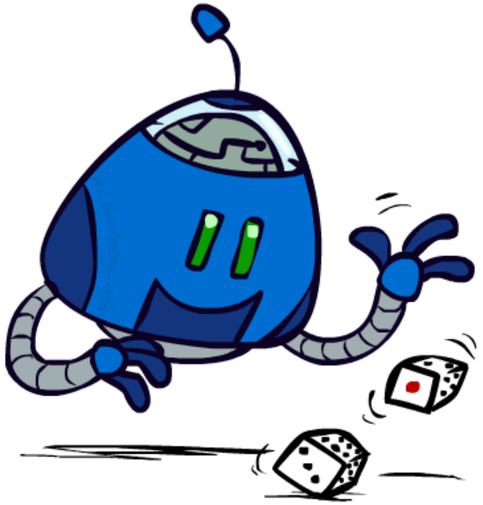
University of California, Berkeley

[slides adapted from Dan Klein and Pieter Abbeel http://ai.berkeley.edu.]

Worst-Case vs. Average Case







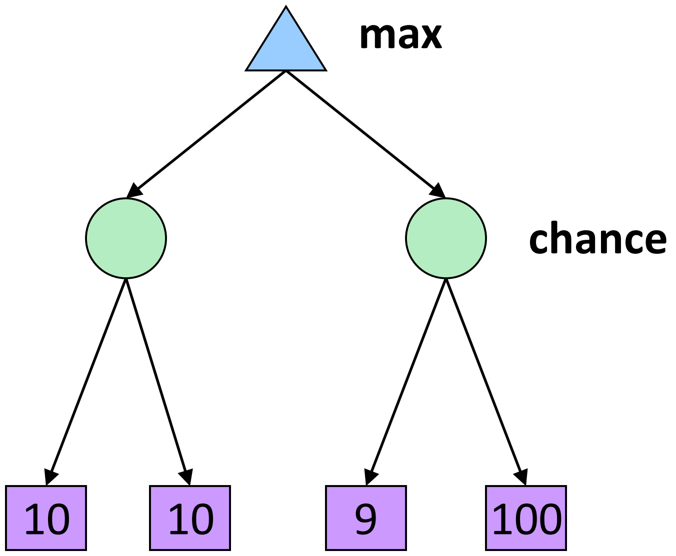
Expectimax Search

- Why wouldn't we know what the result of an action will be?
  - Explicit randomness: rolling dice
  - Unpredictable opponents: the ghosts respond randomly
  - Actions can fail: when moving a robot, wheels might slip

- Values should now reflect average-case (expectimax) outcomes, not worst-case (minimax) outcomes

- Expectimax search: compute the average score under optimal play
  - Max nodes as in minimax search
  - Chance nodes are like min nodes but the outcome is uncertain
  - Calculate their expected utilities
  - I.e. take weighted average (expectation) of children

- Later, we'll learn how to formalize the underlying uncertain-result problems as Markov Decision Processes



Expectimax Pseudocode

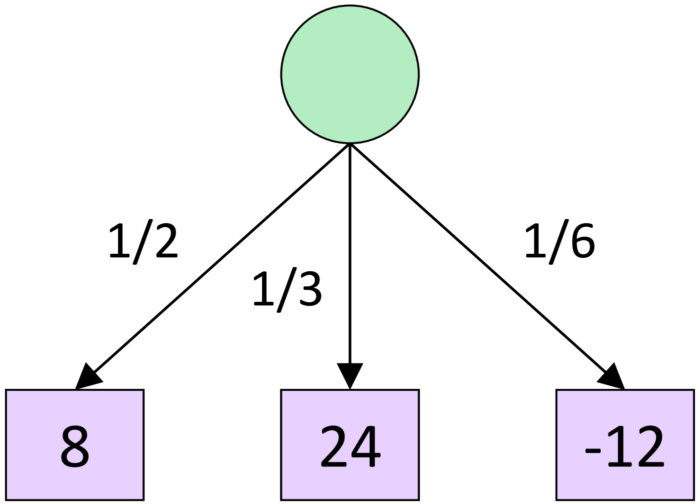
```
def value(state):
    if the state is a terminal state: return the state's utility
    if the next agent is MAX: return max-value(state)
    if the next agent is EXP: return exp-value(state)
```

```
def max-value(state):
    initialize v = -∞
    for each successor of state:
        v = max(v, value(successor))
    return v
```

```
def exp-value(state):
    initialize v = 0
    for each successor of state:
        p = probability(successor)
        v += p * value(successor)
    return v
```

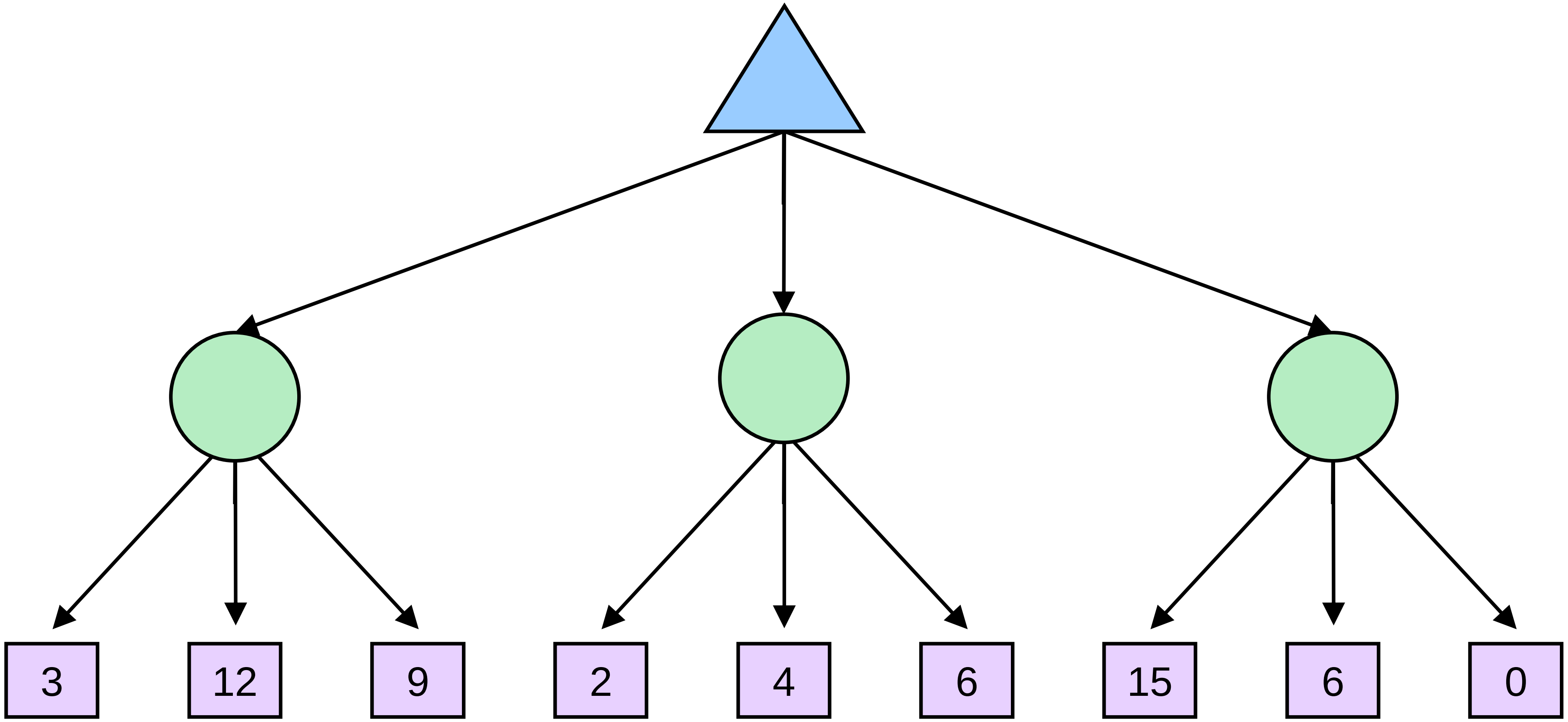
Expectimax Pseudocode

```
def exp-value(state):
    initialize v = 0
    for each successor of state:
        p = probability(successor)
        v += p * value(successor)
    return v
```

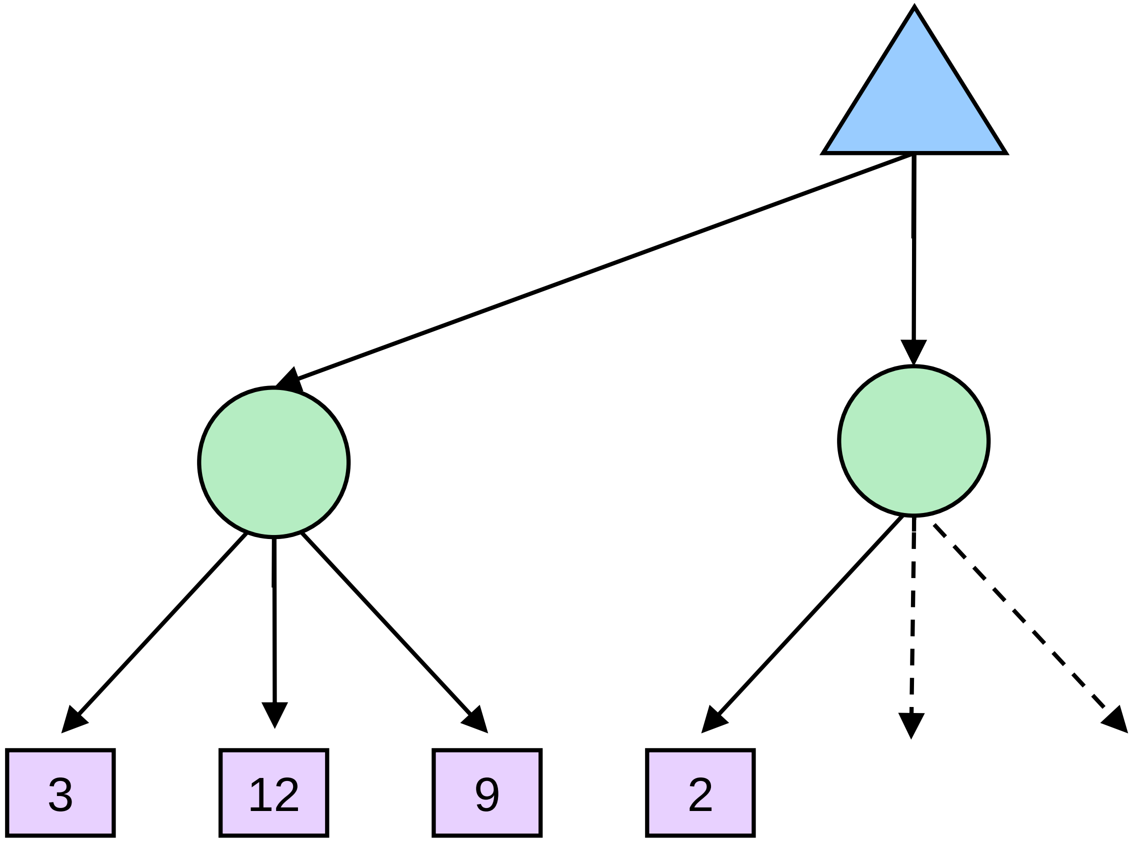


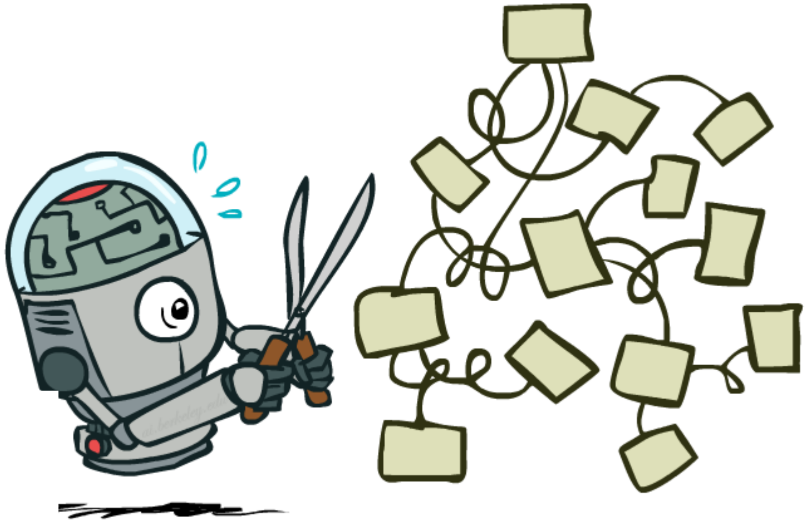
$$v = (1/2)\ (8) + (1/3)\ (24) + (1/6)\ (-12) = 10$$

Expectimax Example

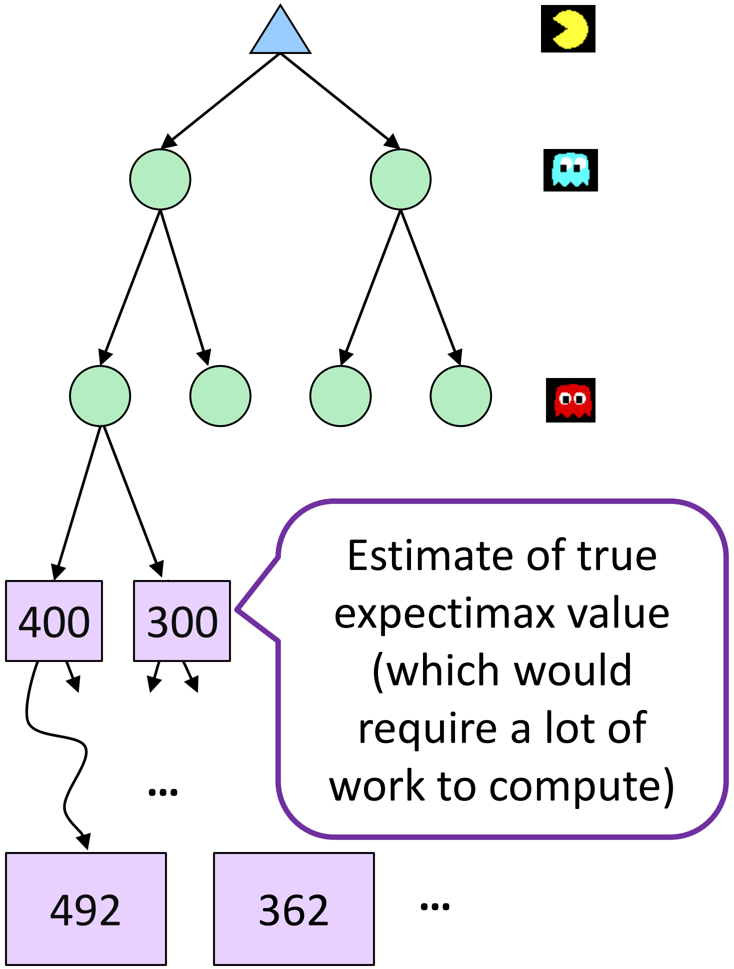


Expectimax Pruning?

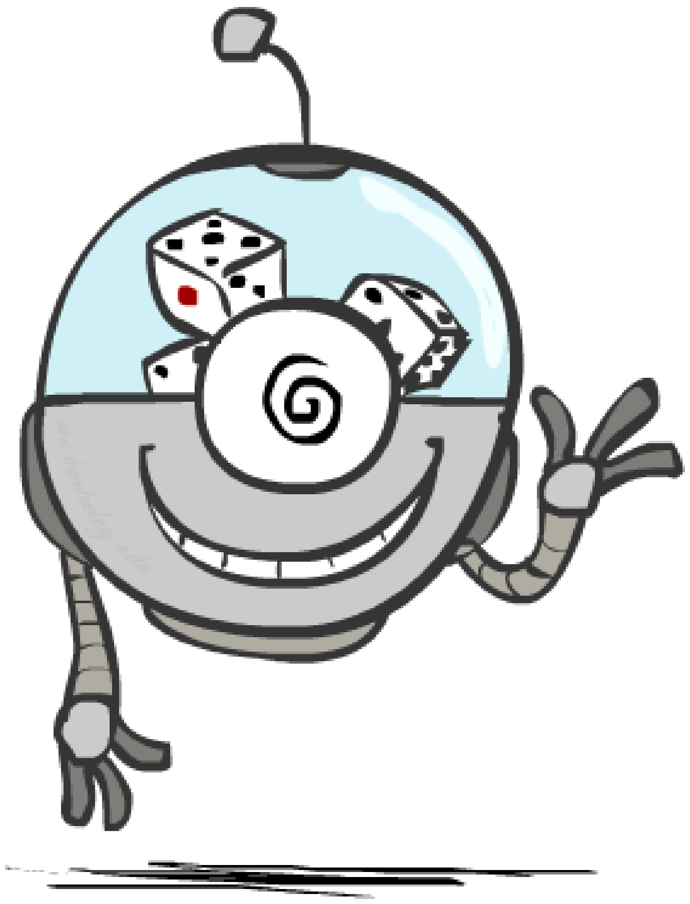




Depth-Limited Expectimax



Probabilities

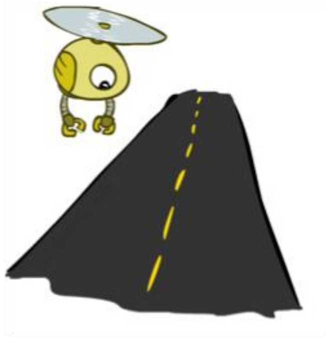


Reminder: Probabilities

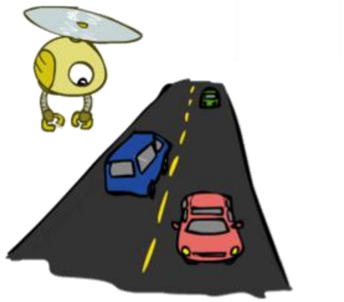
- A random variable represents an event whose outcome is unknown
- A probability distribution is an assignment of weights to outcomes

- Example: Traffic on freeway
  - Random variable: T = whether there’s traffic
  - Outcomes: T in {none, light, heavy}
  - Distribution: P(T=none) = 0.25, P(T=light) = 0.50, P(T=heavy) = 0.25

- Some laws of probability:
  - Probabilities are always non-negative
  - Probabilities over all possible outcomes sum to one



0.25

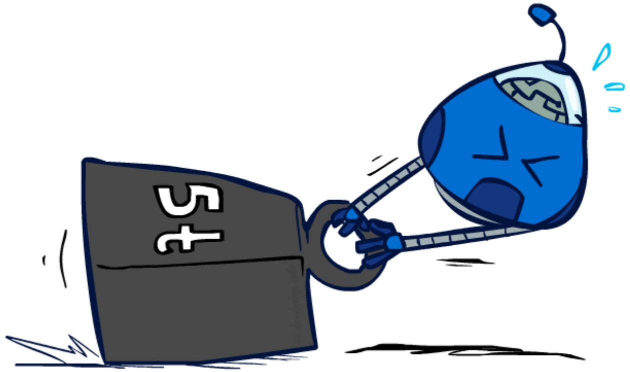


0.50

0.25

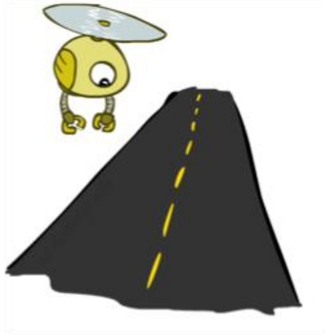
Reminder: Expectations

- The expected value of a function of a random variable is the average, weighted by the probability distribution over outcomes



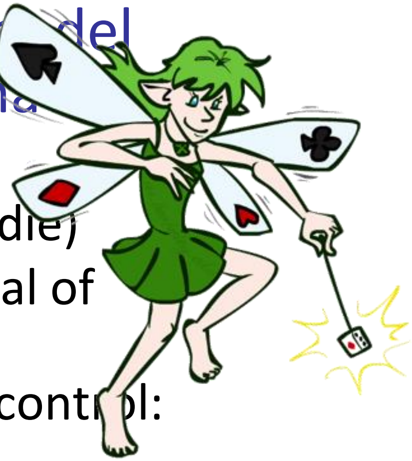
- Example: How long to get to the airport?

Time:	20 min		30 min		60 min		
	x	+	x	+	x	⇒	35 min
Probability:	0.25		0.50		0.25		

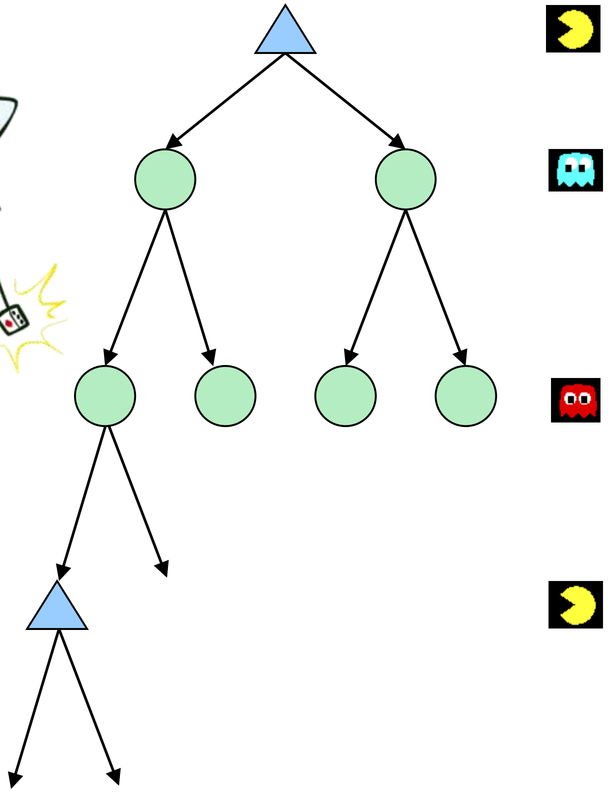


What Probabilities to Use?

- In expectimax search, we have a probabilistic model of how the opponent (or environment) will behave in any state
  - Model could be a simple uniform distribution (roll a die)
  - Model could be sophisticated and require a great deal of computation
  - We have a chance node for any outcome out of our control: opponent or environment
  - The model might say that adversarial actions are likely!



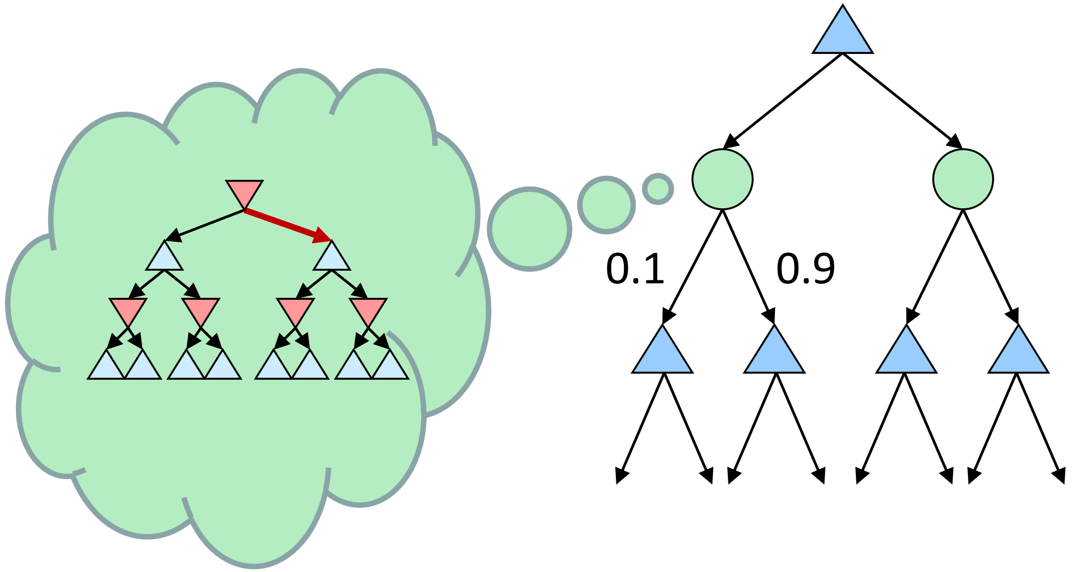
- For now, assume each chance node magically comes along with probabilities that specify the distribution over its outcomes



Having a probabilistic belief about another agent's action does not mean that the agent is flipping any coins!

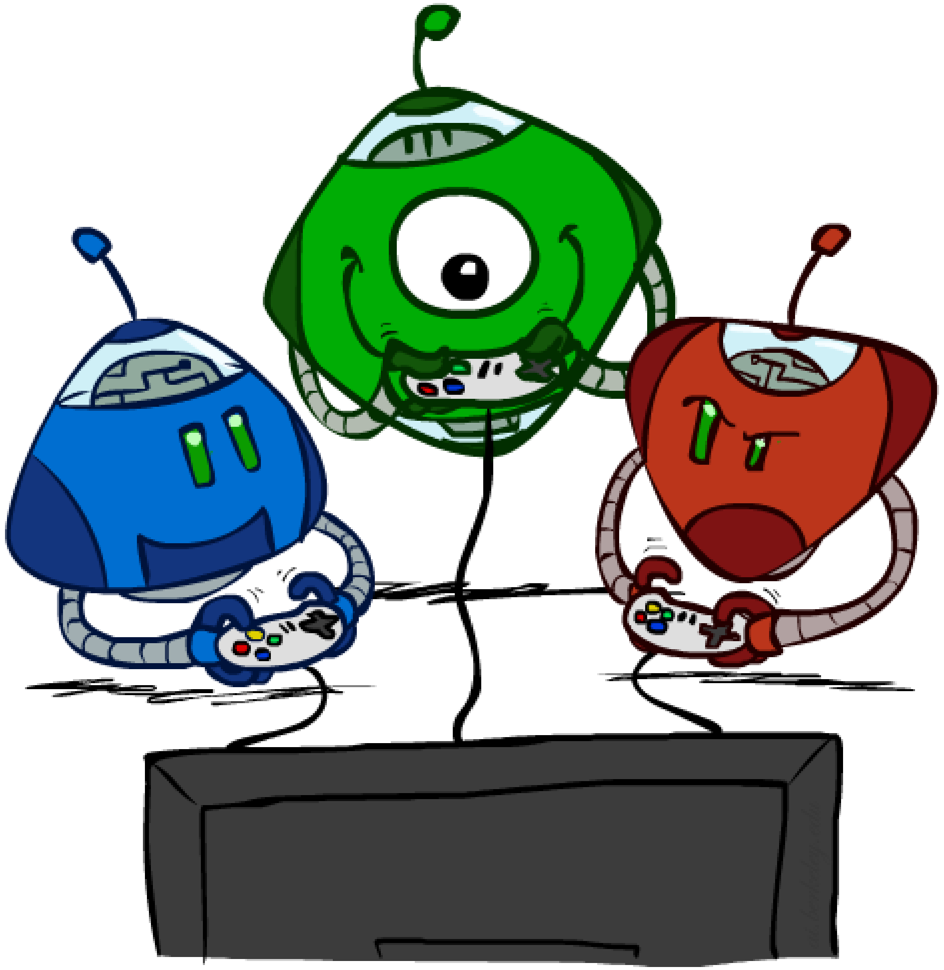
Quiz: Informed Probabilities

- Let's say you know that your opponent is actually running a depth 2 minimax, using the result 80% of the time, and moving randomly otherwise
- Question: What tree search should you use?



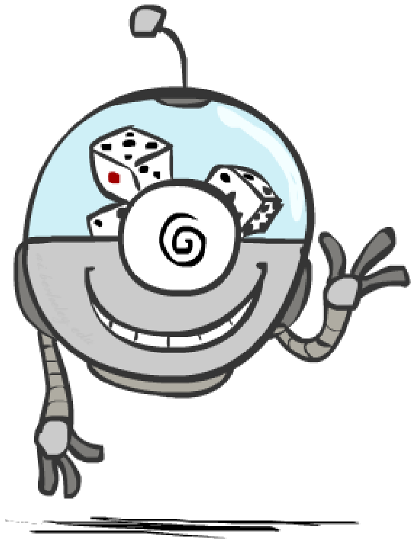
- Answer: Expectimax!
  - To figure out EACH chance node's probabilities, you have to run a simulation of your opponent
  - This kind of thing gets very slow very quickly
  - Even worse if you have to simulate your opponent simulating you…
  - … except for minimax, which has the nice property that it all collapses into one game tree

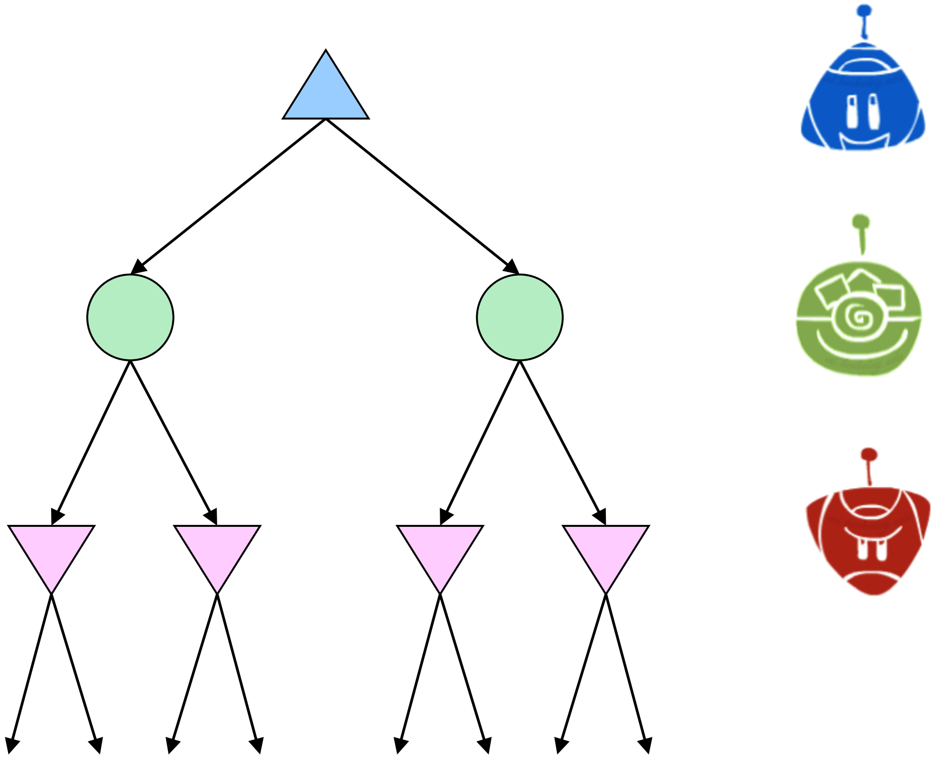
Other Game Types



Mixed Layer Types

- E.g. Backgammon
- Expectiminimax
  - Environment is an extra “random agent” player that moves after each min/max agent
  - Each node computes the appropriate combination of its children



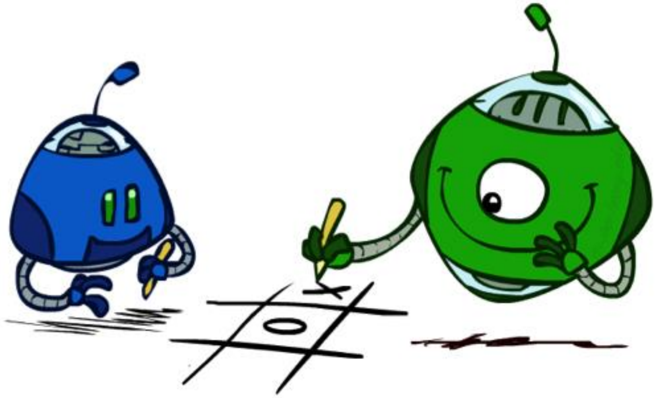


Example: Backgammon

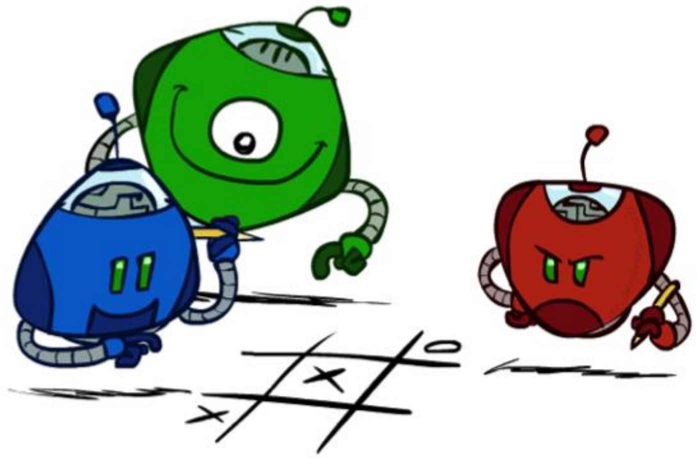
- Dice rolls increase *b*: 21 possible rolls with 2 dice
  - Backgammon ≈ 20 legal moves
  - Depth 2 = 20 x (21 x 20)^3 = 1.2 x 10^9
- As depth increases, probability of reaching a given search node shrinks
  - So usefulness of search is diminished
  - So limiting depth is less damaging
  - But pruning is trickier…
- Historic AI: TDGammon uses depth-2 search + very good evaluation function + reinforcement learning: world-champion level play
- 1st AI world champion in any game!

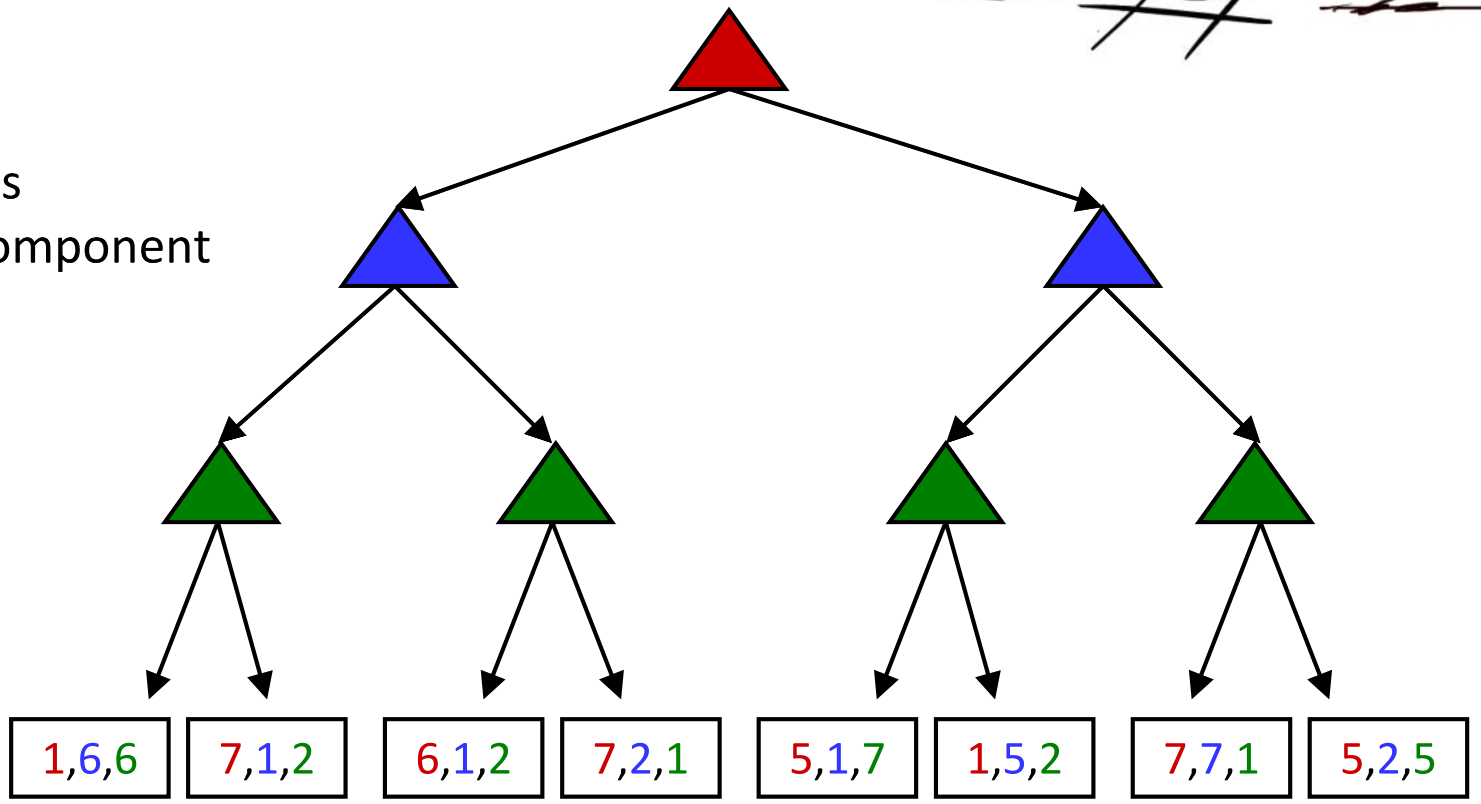
Image: Wikipedia

Multi-Agent Utilities

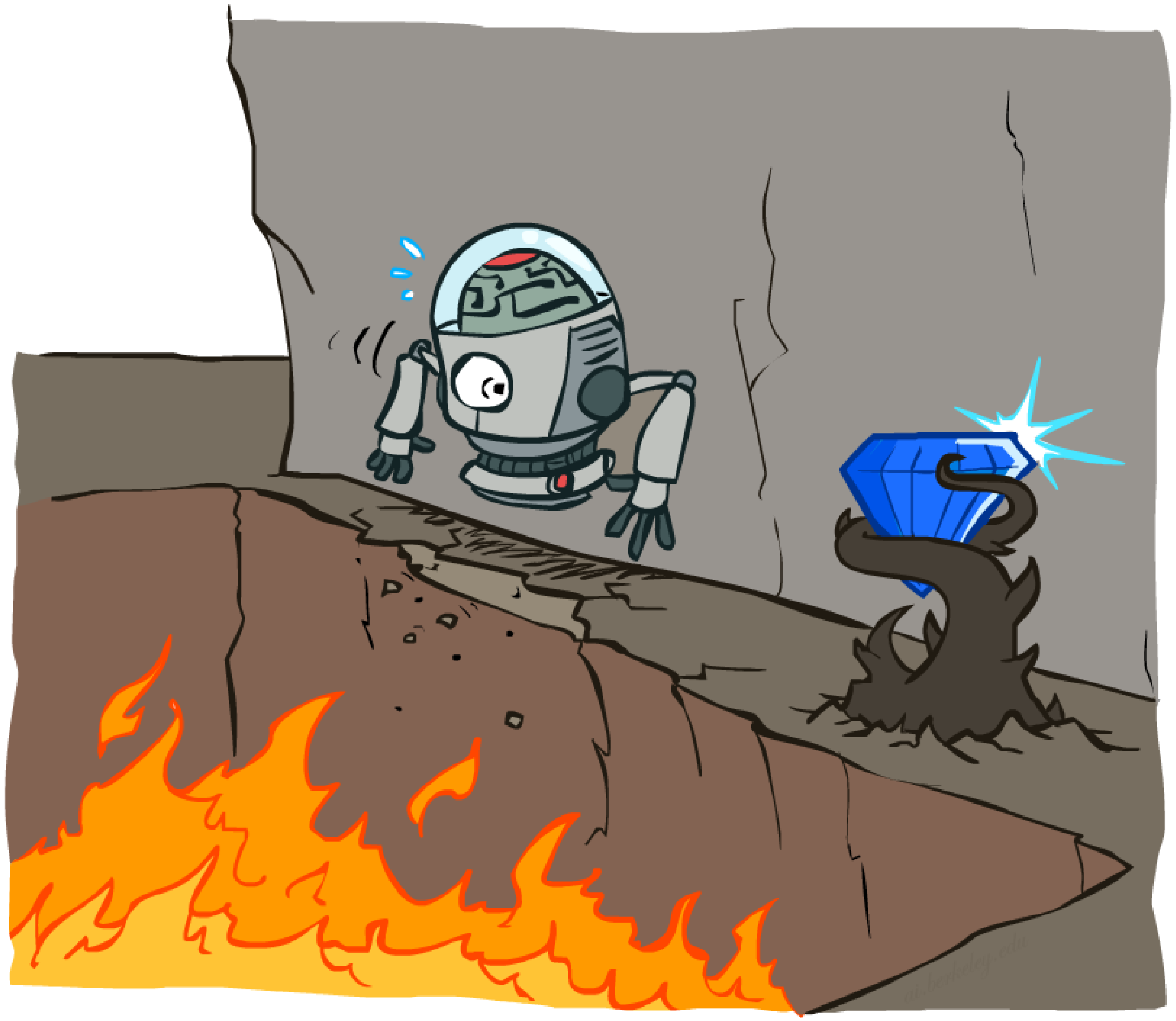


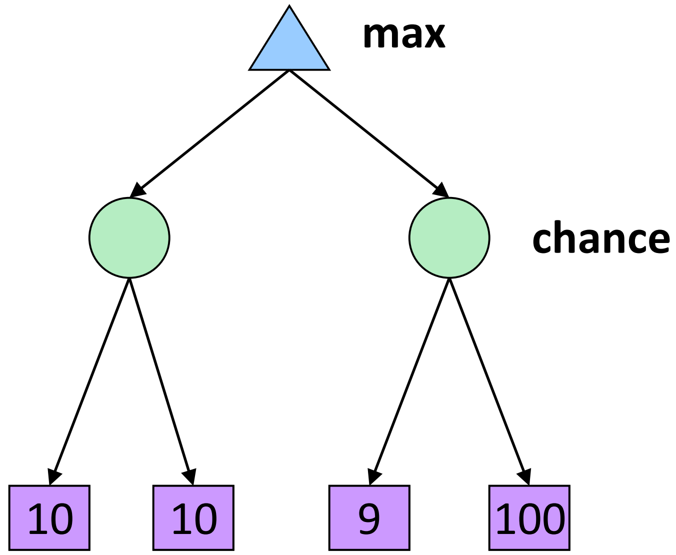
- What if the game is not zero-sum, or has multiple players?
- Generalization of minimax:
  - Terminals have utility tuples
  - Node values are also utility tuples
  - Each player maximizes its own component
  - Can give rise to cooperation and competition dynamically…





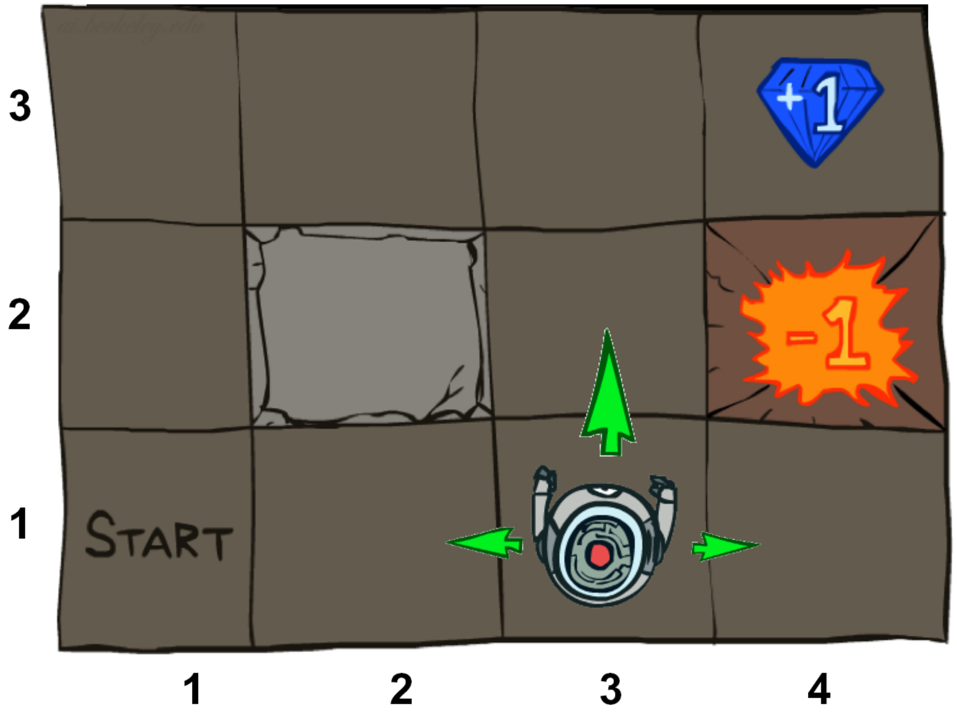
Non-Deterministic Search





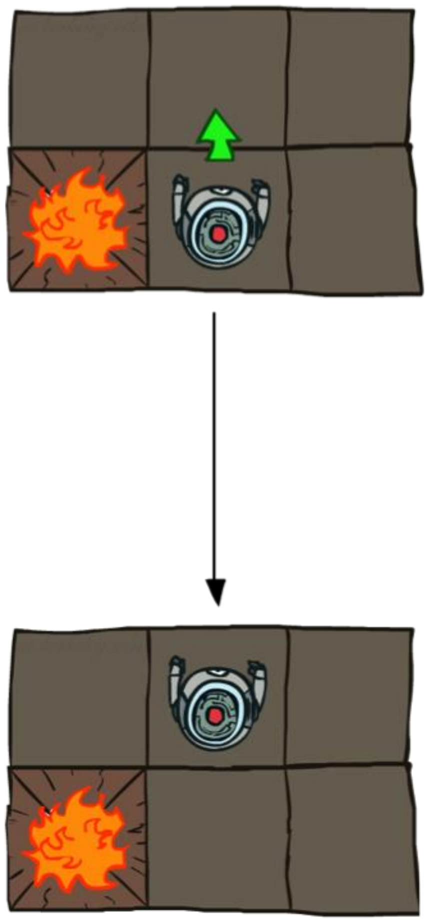
Example: Grid World

- A maze-like problem
  - The agent lives in a grid
  - Walls block the agent's path
- Noisy movement: actions do not always go as planned
  - 80% of the time, the action North takes the agent North (if there is no wall there)
  - 10% of the time, North takes the agent West; 10% East
  - If there is a wall in the direction the agent would have been taken, the agent stays put
- The agent receives rewards each time step
  - Small "living" reward each step (can be negative)
  - Big rewards come at the end (good or bad)
- Goal: maximize sum of rewards

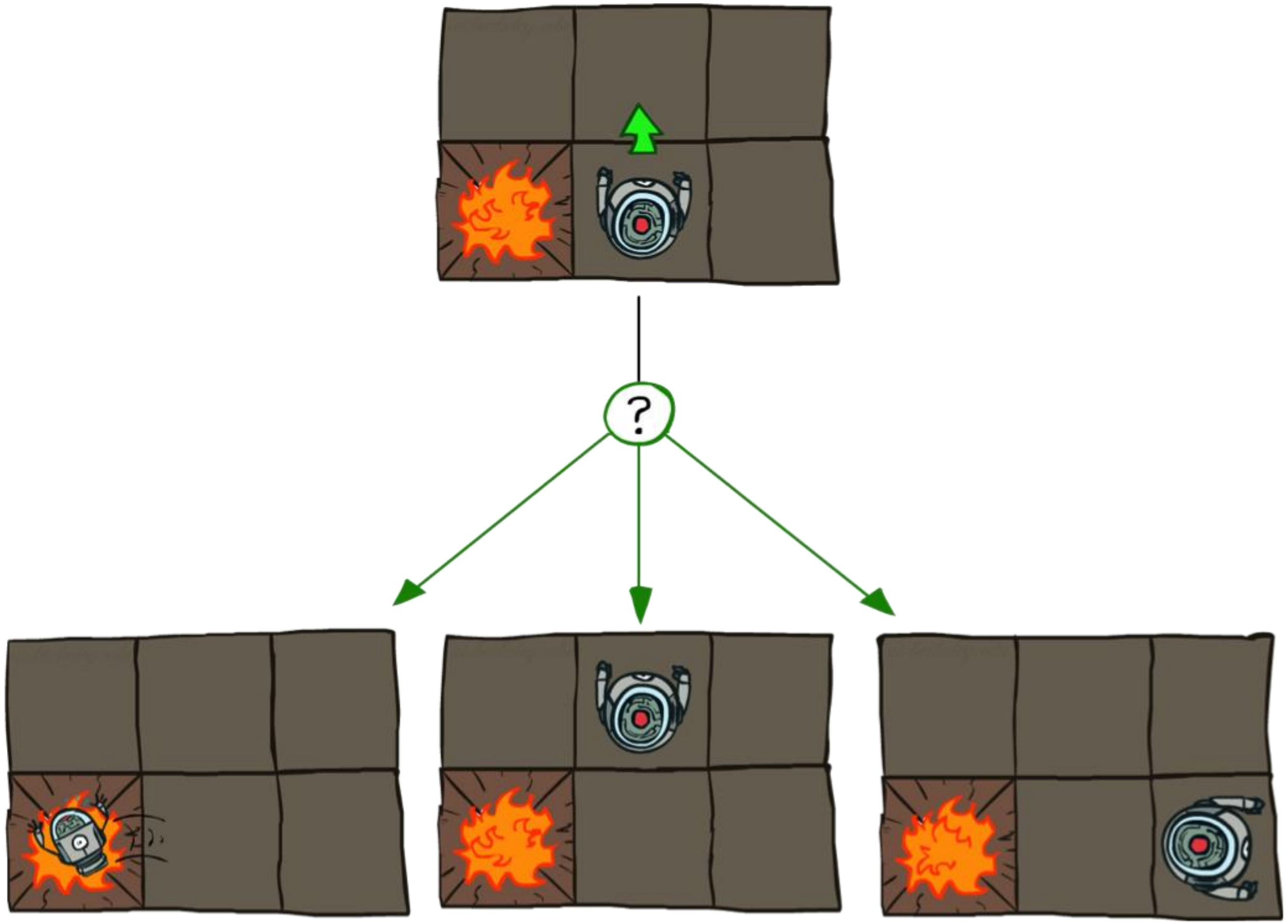


Grid World Actions

Deterministic Grid World

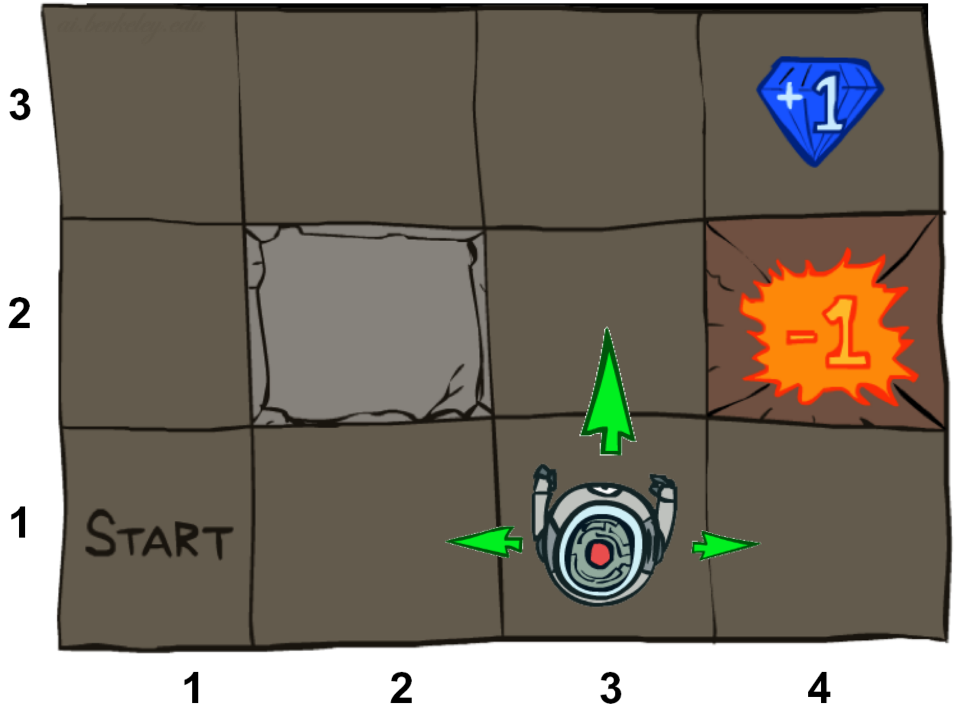


Stochastic Grid World



Markov Decision Processes

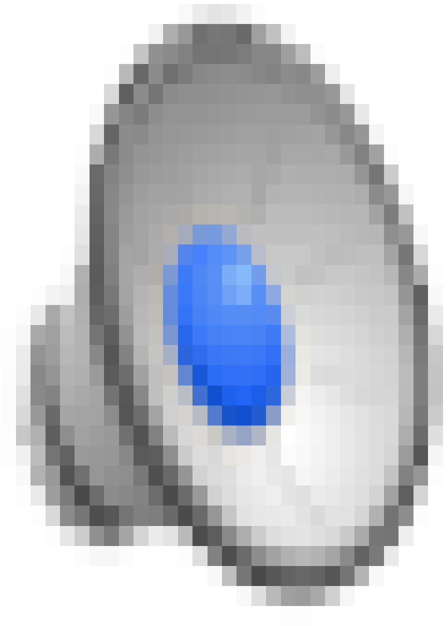
- An MDP is defined by:
  - A set of states $s \in S$
  - A set of actions $a \in A$
  - A transition function T(s, a, s')
    - Probability that a from s leads to s', i.e., P(s'| s, a)
    - Also called the model or the dynamics
  - A reward function R(s, a, s')
    - Sometimes just R(s) or R(s')
 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

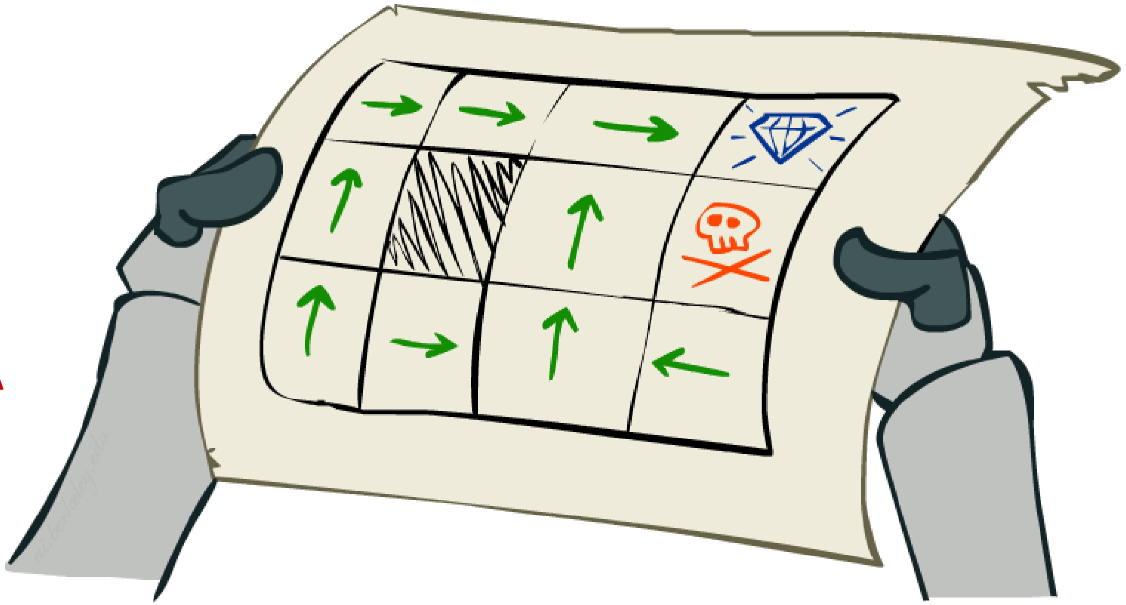
$$P(S_{t+1} = s' | S_t = s_t, A_t = a_t, S_{t-1} = s_{t-1}, A_{t-1}, \dots S_0 = s_0)$$
$$=$$
$$P(S_{t+1} = s' | S_t = s_t, A_t = a_t)$$

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

Andrey Markov
(1856-1922)

Policies

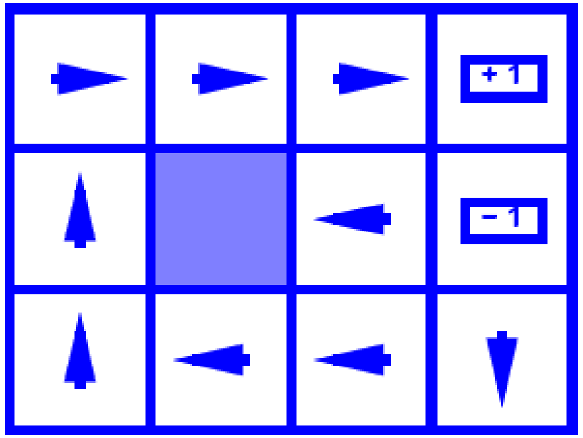
- In deterministic single-agent search problems, we wanted an optimal plan, or sequence of actions, from start to a goal



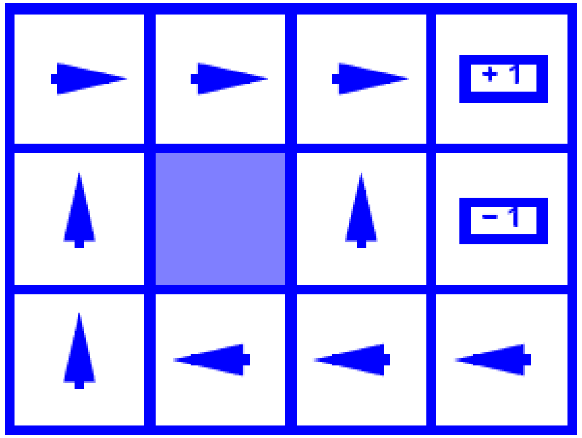
- For MDPs, we want an optimal policy $\pi^*: S \to A$
  - A policy π gives an action for each state
  - An optimal policy is one that maximizes expected utility if followed
  - An explicit policy defines a reflex agent

- Expectimax didn't compute entire policies
  - It computed the action for a single state only

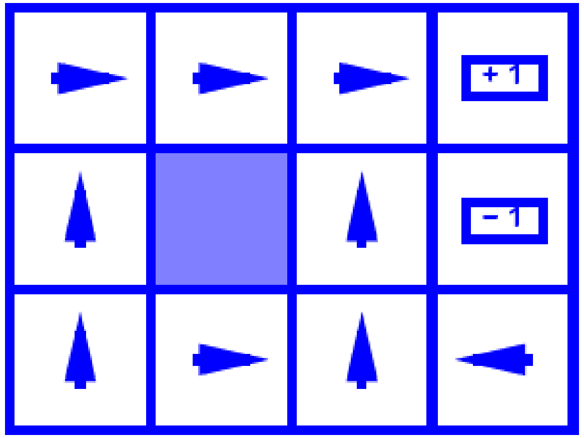
Optimal Policies



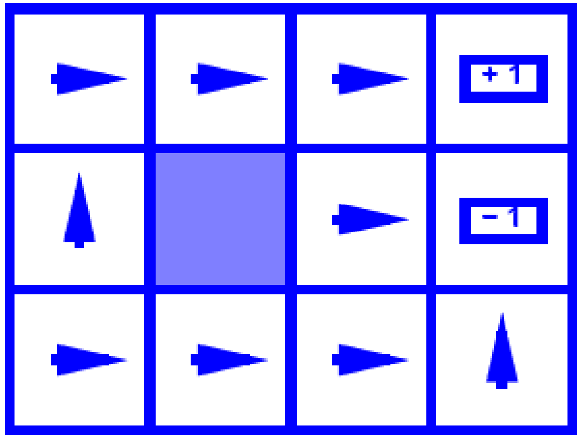
R(s) = -0.01



R(s) = -0.03

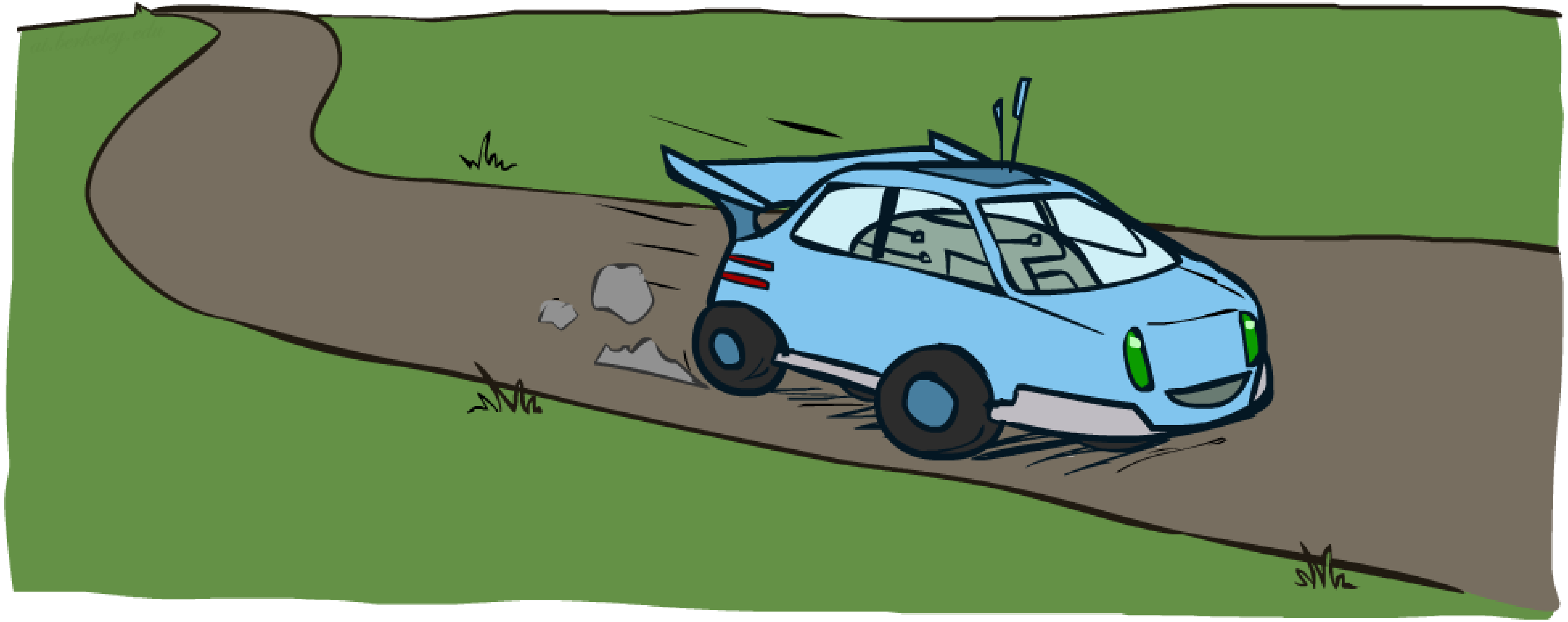


R(s) = -0.4



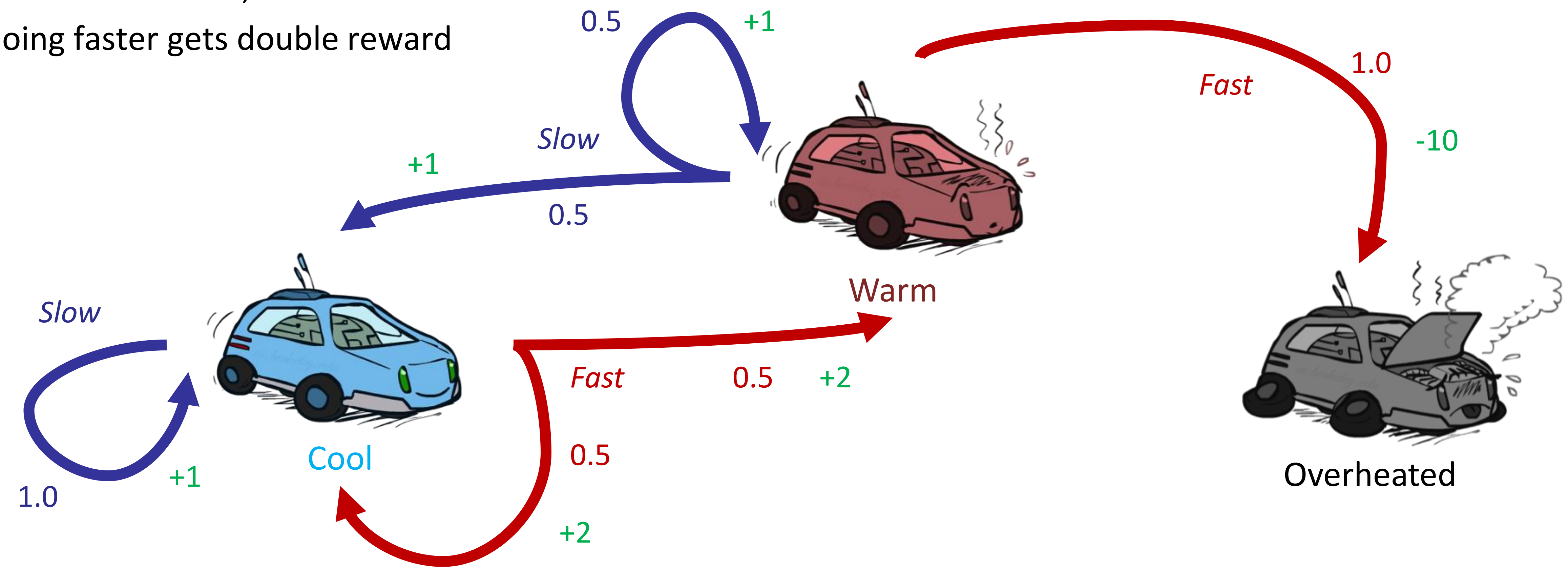
R(s) = -2.0

Example: Racing

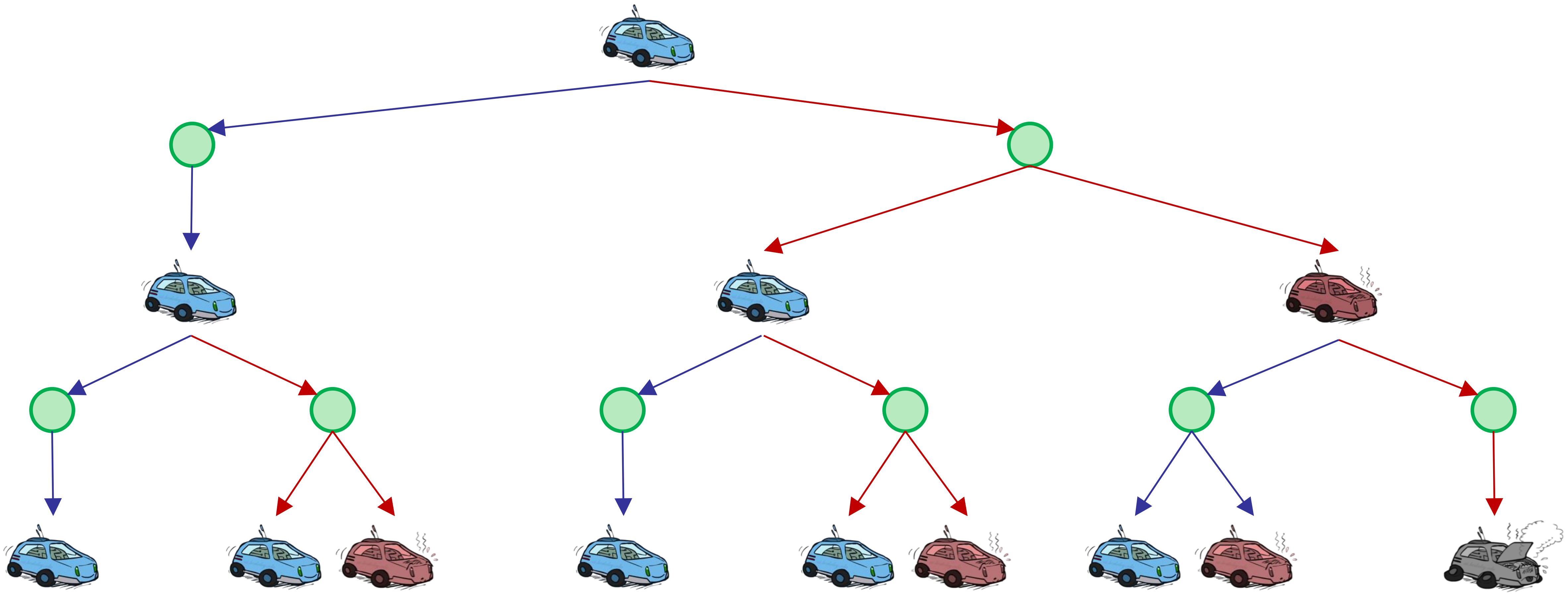


Example: Racing

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

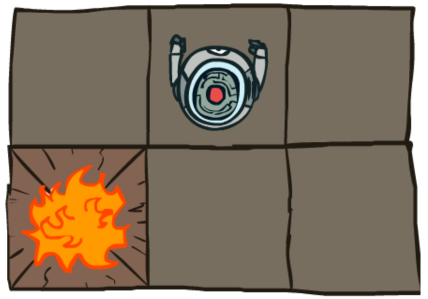


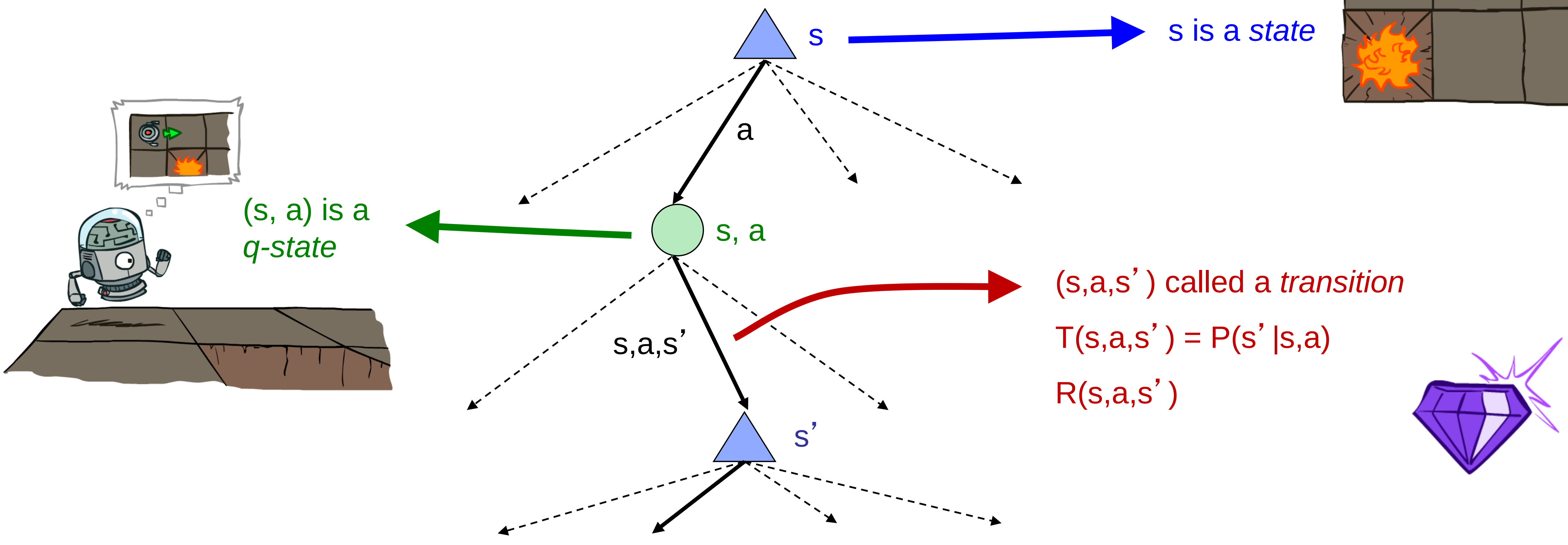
Racing Search Tree



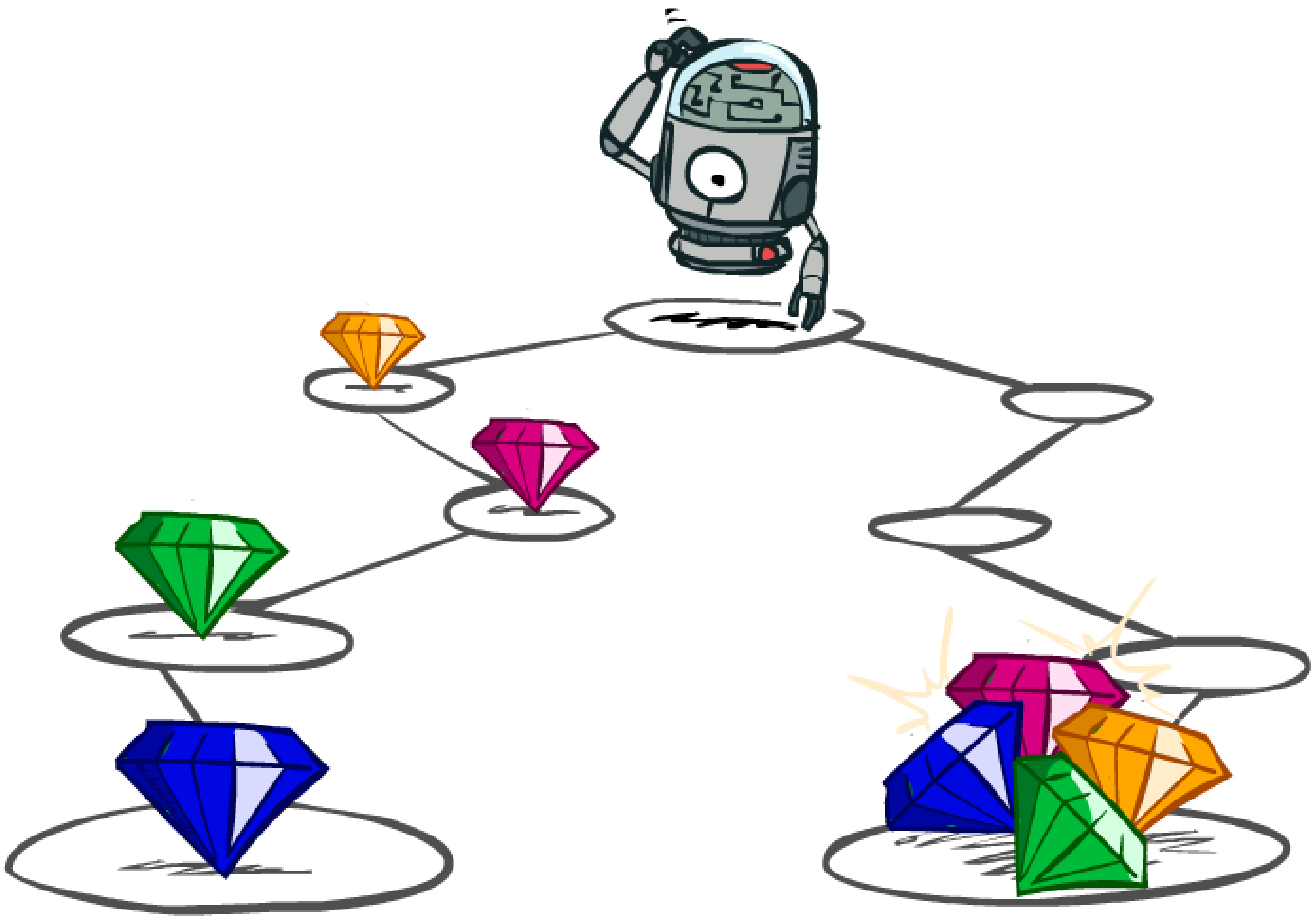
MDP Search Trees

- Each MDP state projects an expectimax-like search tree





Utilities of Sequences

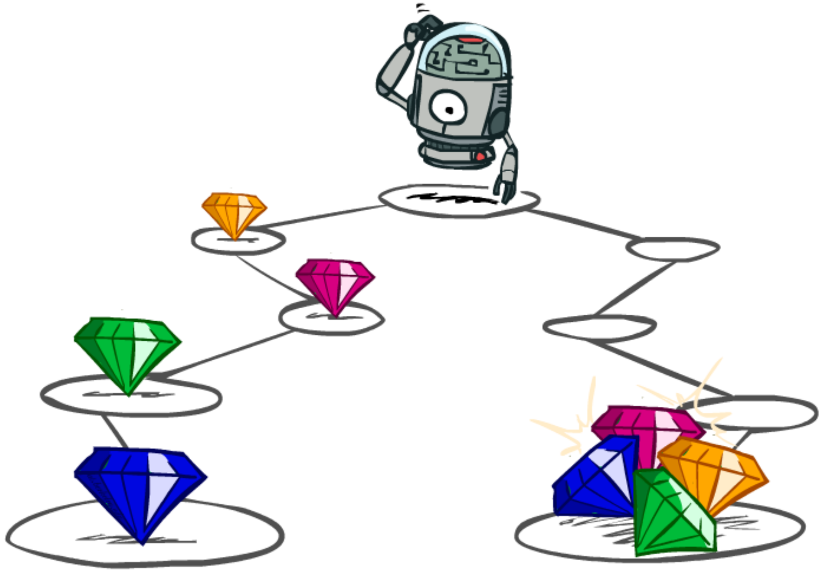


Utilities of Sequences

- 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]



Discounting

- It’s reasonable to maximize the sum of rewards
- It’s also reasonable to prefer rewards now to rewards later
- One solution: values of rewards decay exponentially

1

Worth Now

γ

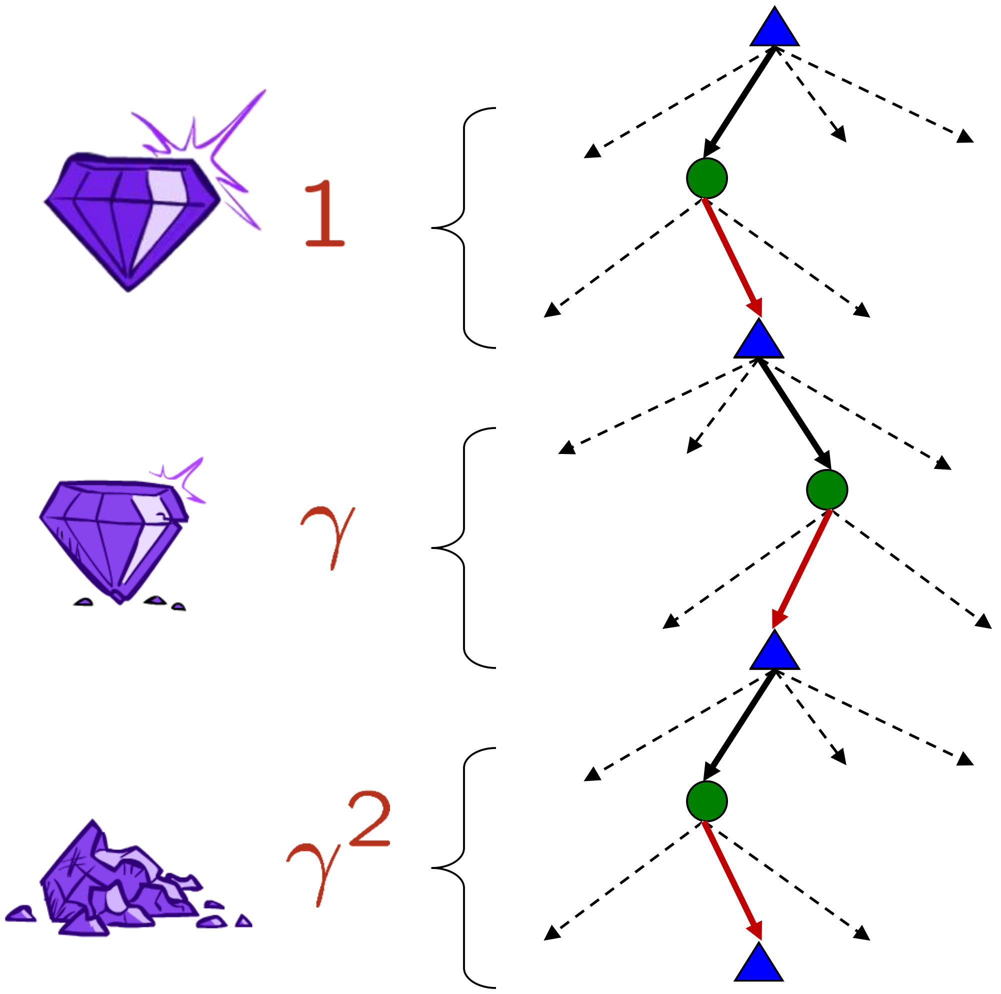
Worth Next Step

γ^2

Worth In Two Steps

Discounting

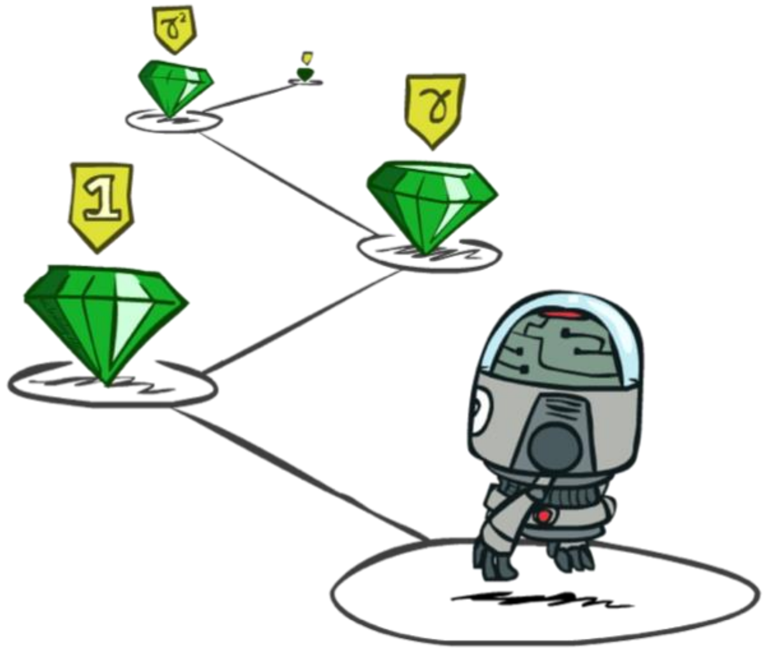
- How to discount?
  - Each time we descend a level, we multiply in the discount once
- Why discount?
  - Sooner rewards probably do have higher utility than later rewards
  - Also helps our algorithms converge
- Example: discount of 0.5
  - U([1,2,3]) = 1*1 + 0.5*2 + 0.25*3
  - U([1,2,3]) < U([3,2,1])



Stationary Preferences

- Theorem: if we assume stationary preferences:

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



- 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:

10				1
a	b	c	d	e

  - Actions: East, West, and Exit (only available in exit states a, e)
  - Transitions: deterministic

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

10				1

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

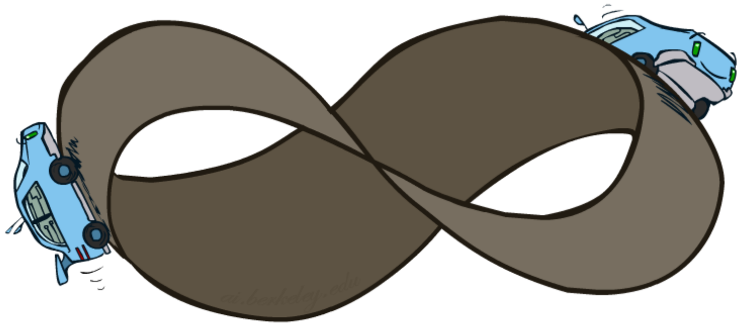
10				1

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

Infinite Utilities?!

- Problem: What if the game lasts forever? Do we get infinite rewards?

- 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 $0 < \gamma < 1$

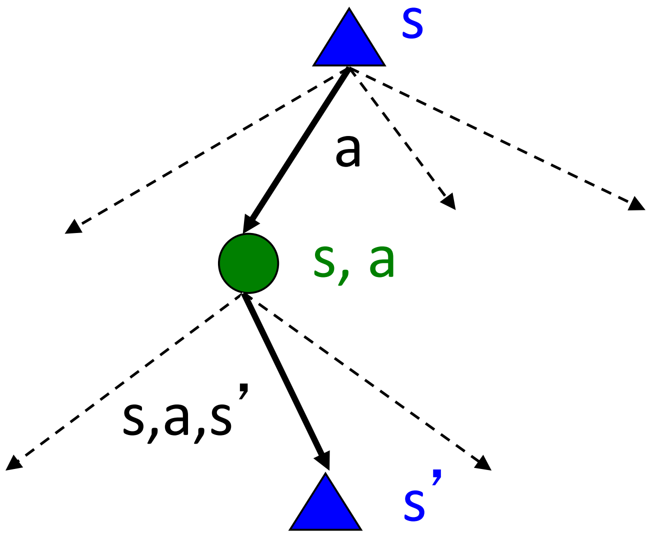
$$U([r_0, \ldots r_\infty]) = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t r_t \leq R_{\max}/(1-\gamma)$$

    - 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)

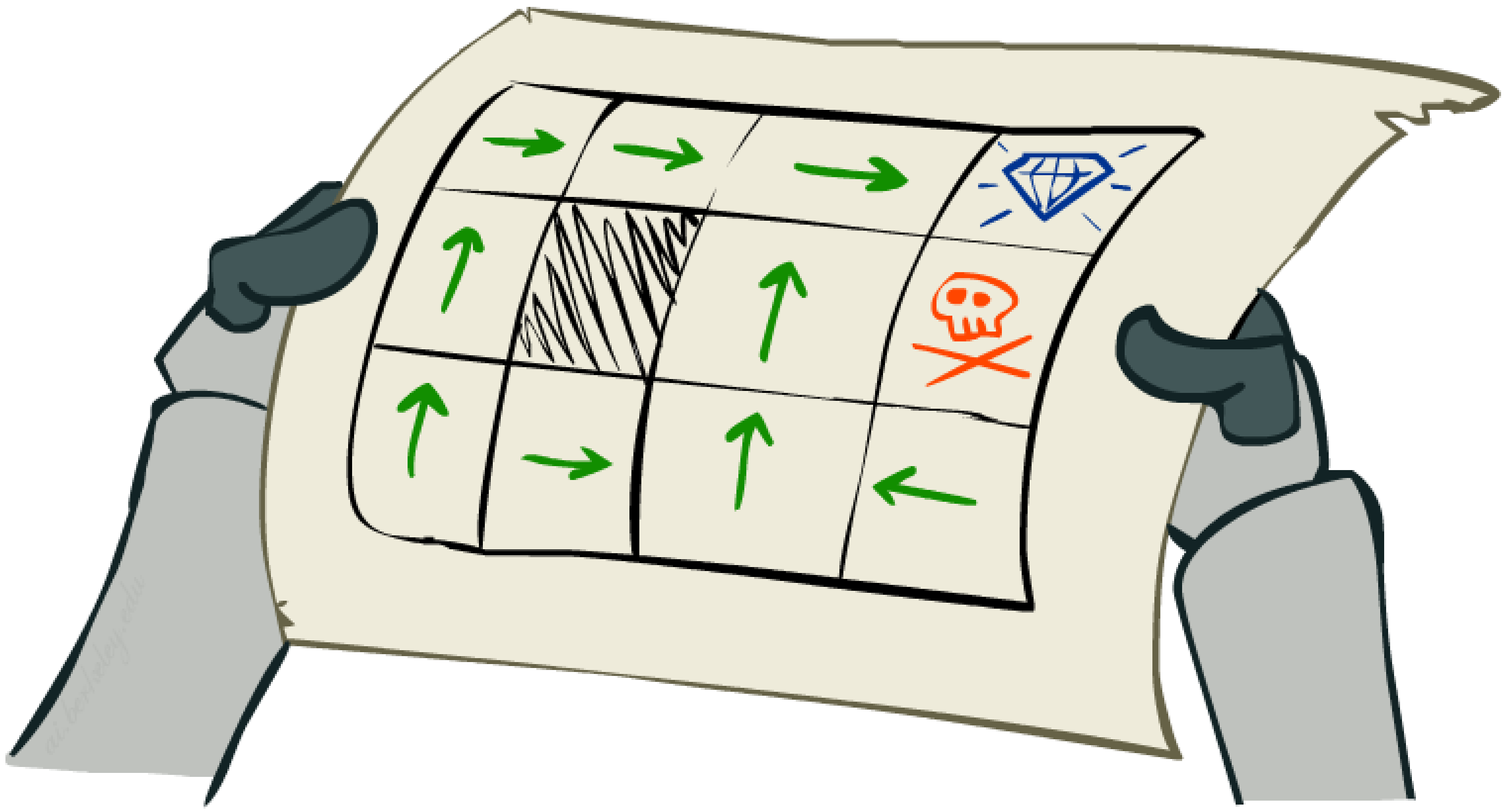
Recap: Defining MDPs

- 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



Optimal Quantities

- The value (utility) of a state s:

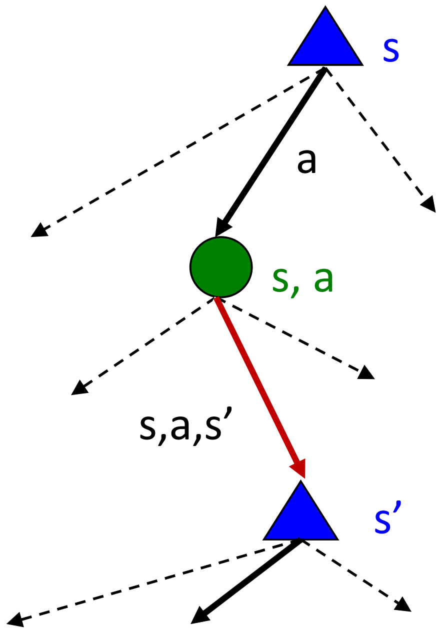
  $V^*(s)$ = expected utility starting in s and acting optimally

- 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



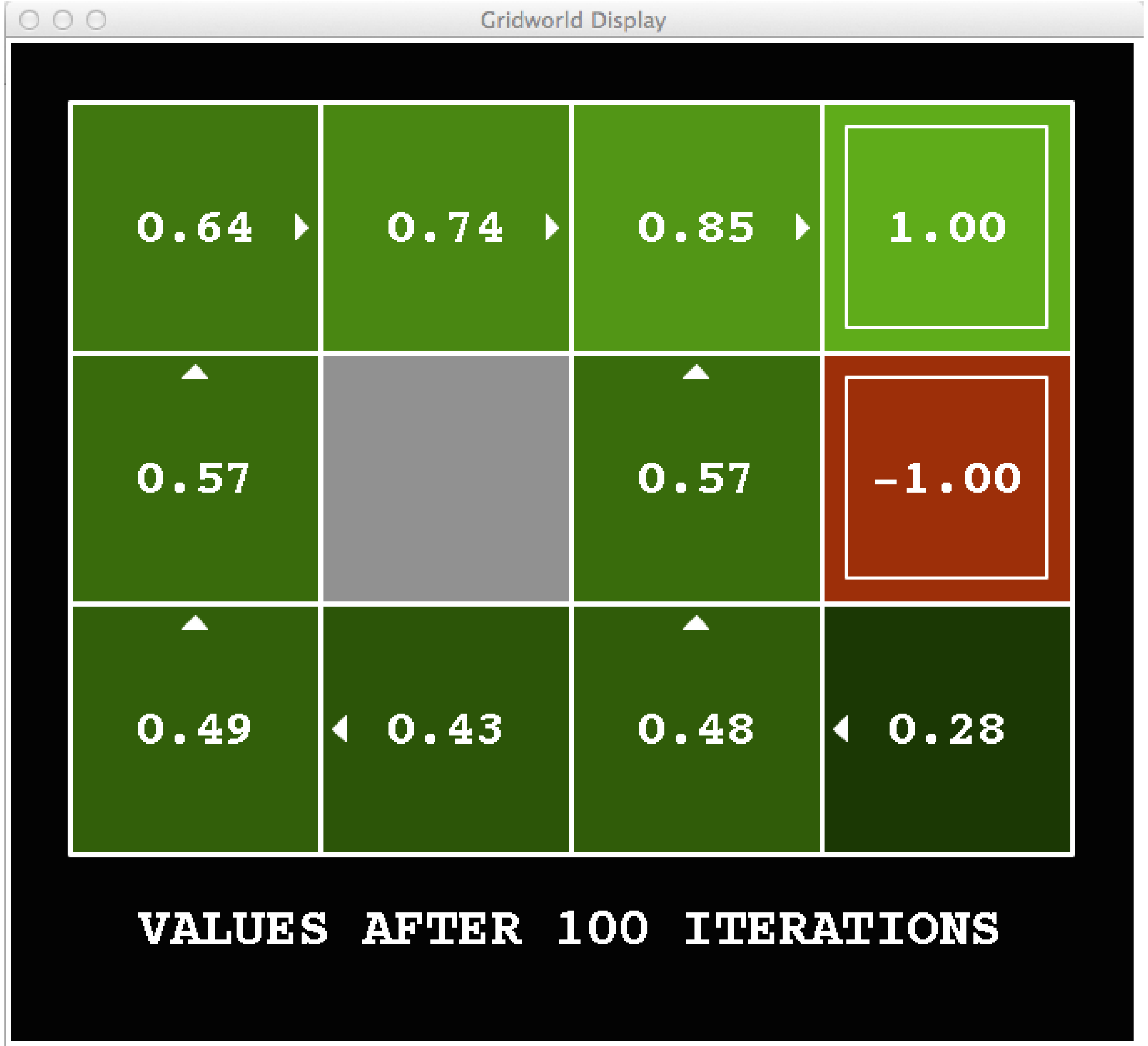
s is a *state*

(s, a) is a *q-state*

(s,a,s') is a *transition*

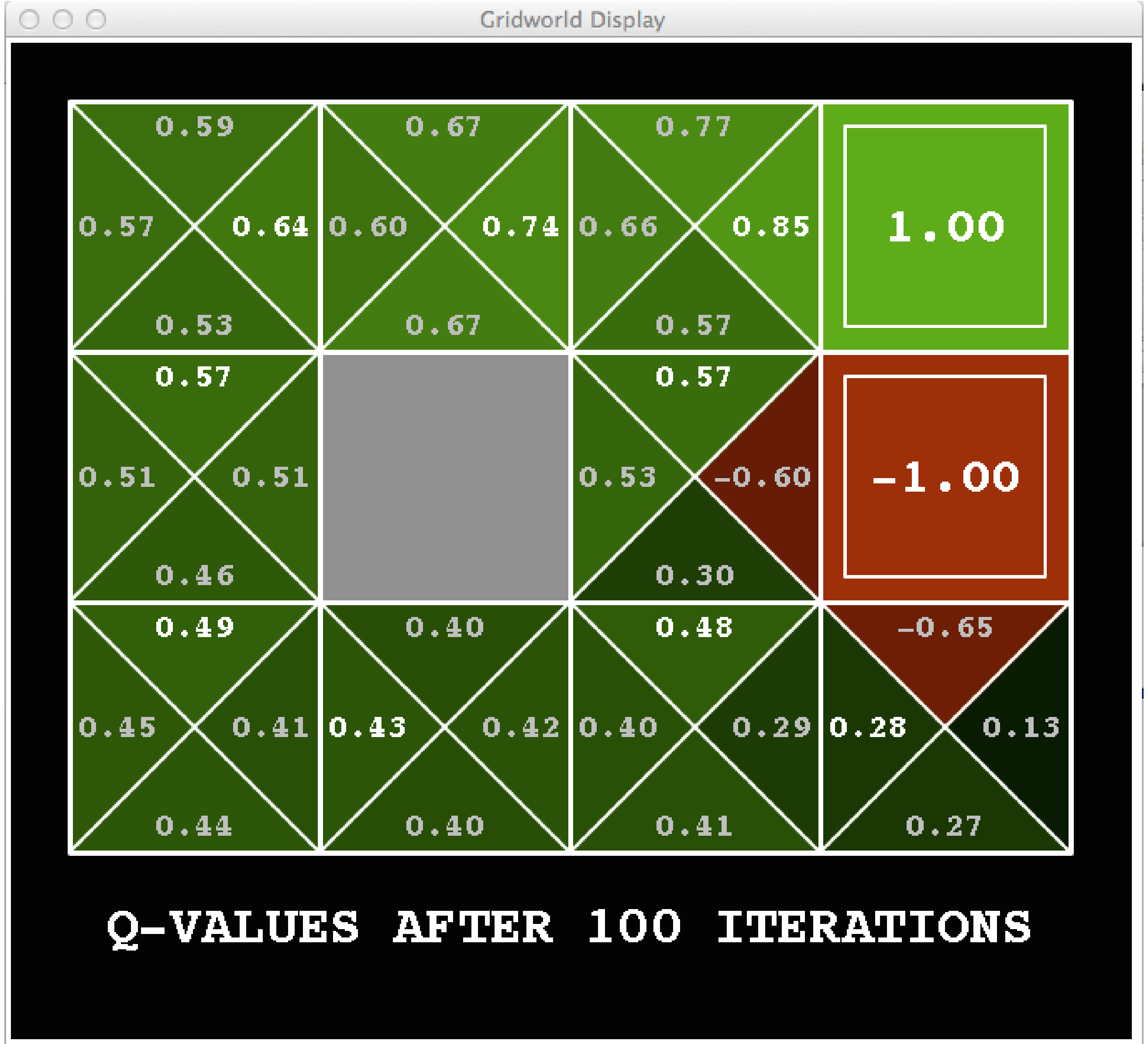
[Demo – gridworld values (L8D4)]

Snapshot of Demo – Gridworld V Values



Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

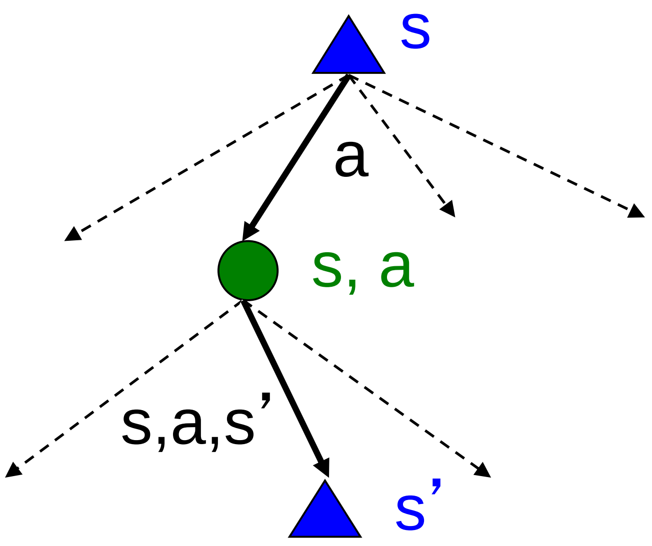
Snapshot of Demo – Gridworld Q Values



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!



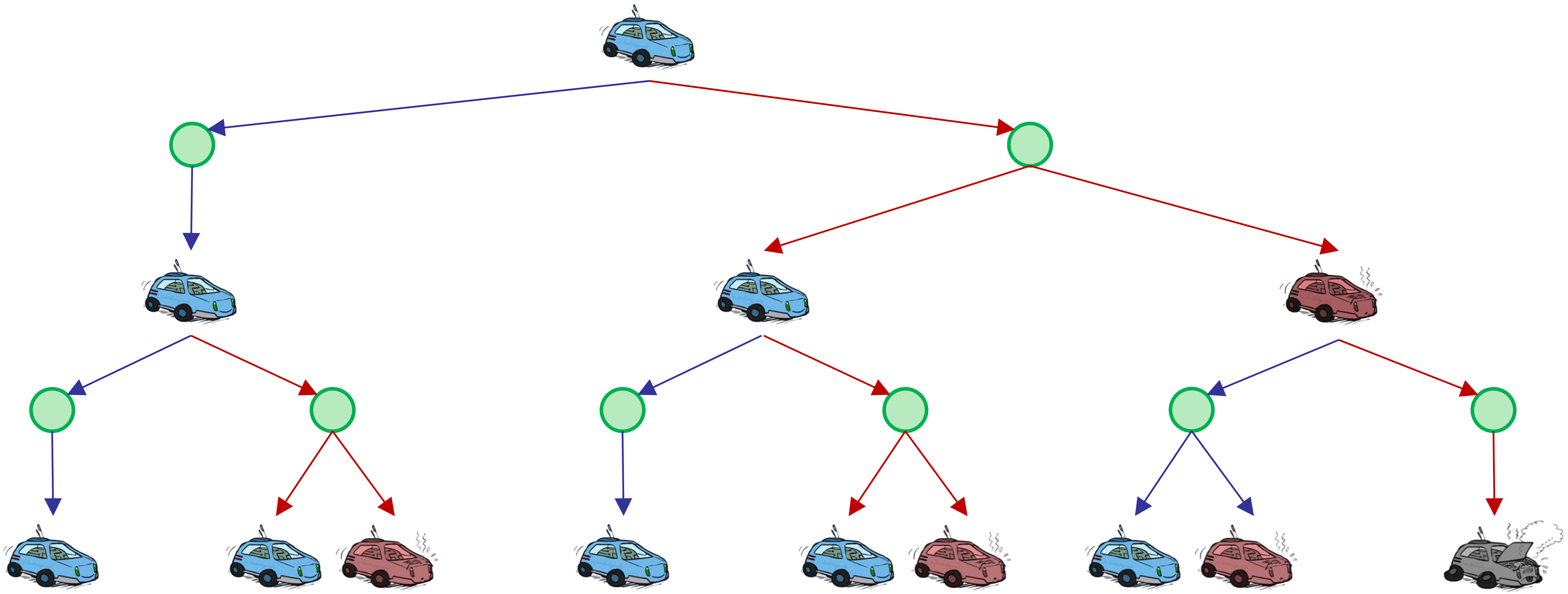
- Recursive definition of value:

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

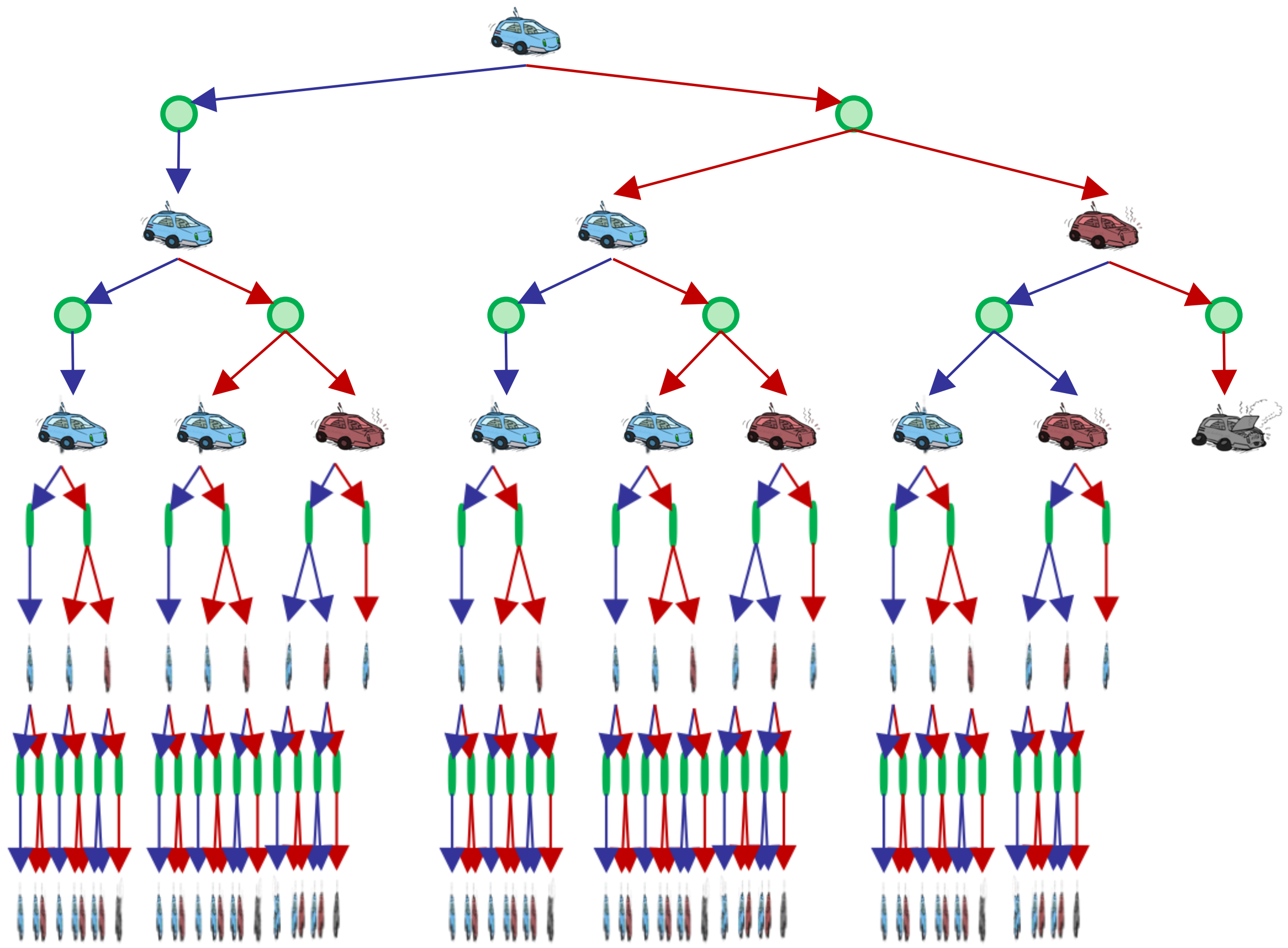
$$Q^*(s,a) = \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s')\left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma V^*(s')\right]$$

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

Racing Search Tree



Racing Search Tree

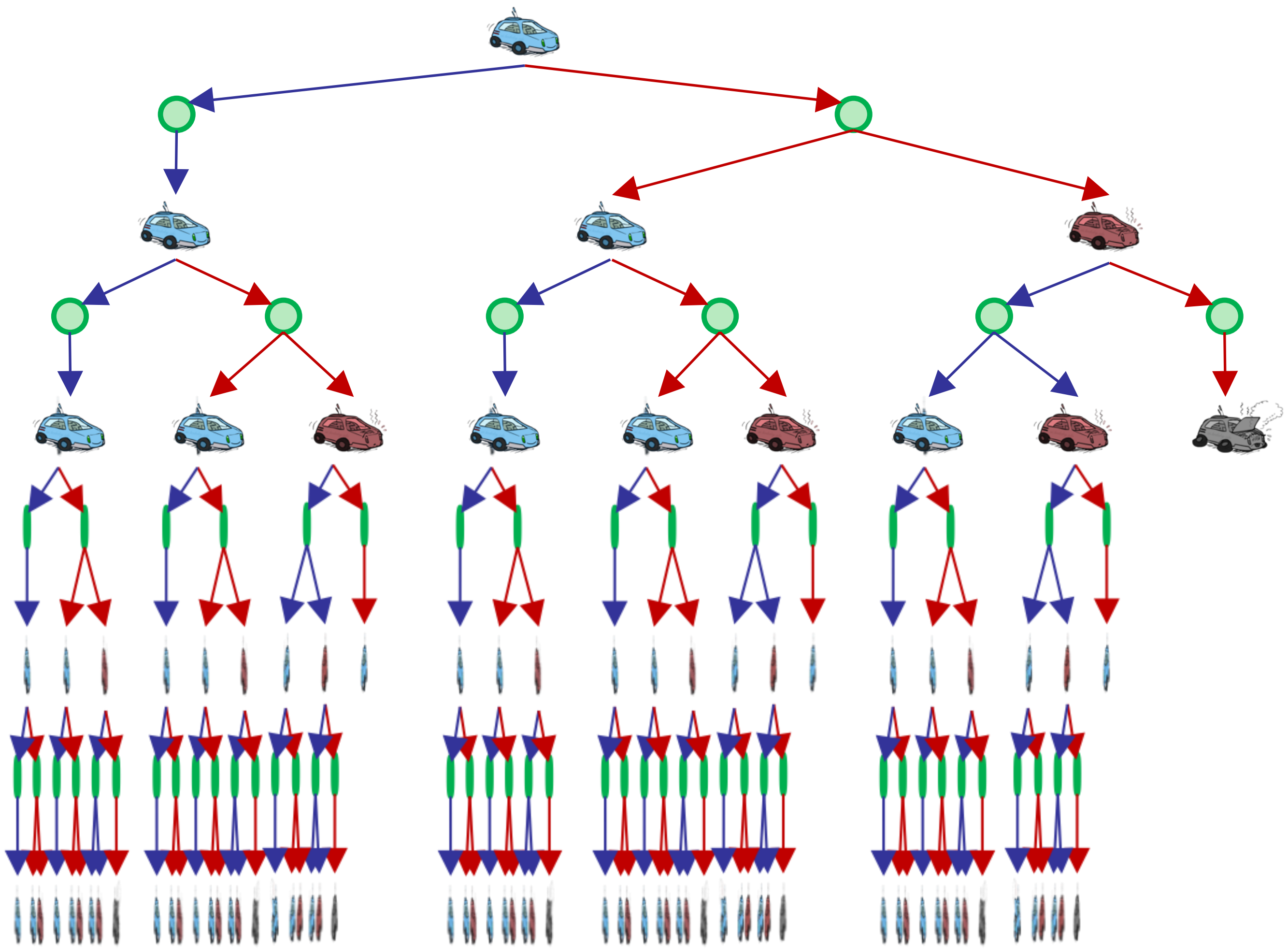


Racing Search Tree

- We're doing way too much work with expectimax!

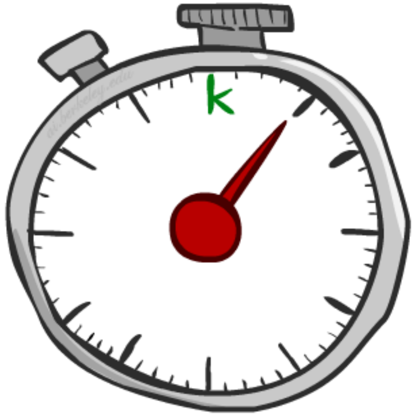
- Problem: States are repeated
  - Idea: Only compute needed quantities once

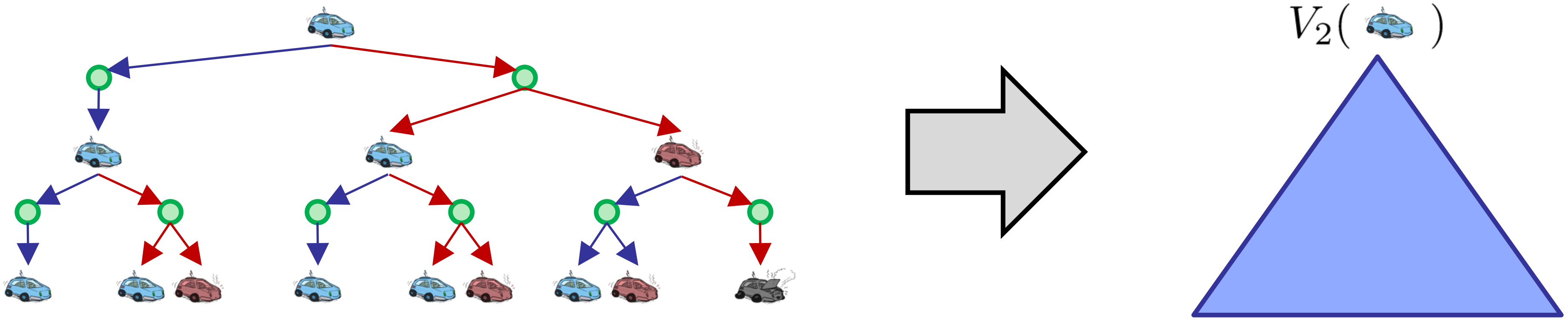
- Problem: Tree goes on forever
  - Idea: Do a depth-limited computation, but with increasing depths until change is small
  - Note: deep parts of the tree eventually don't matter if $\gamma < 1$



Time-Limited Values

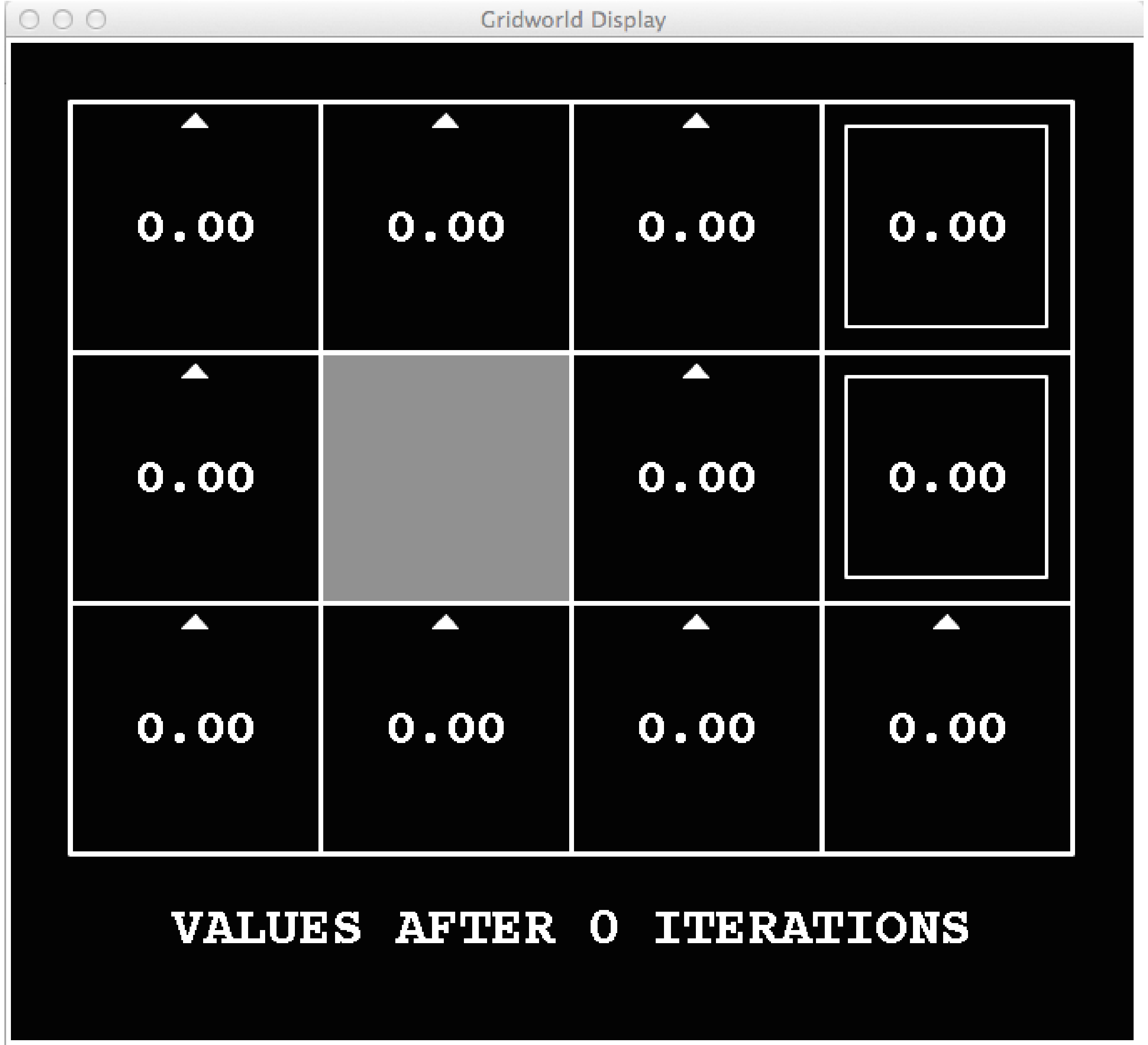
- Key idea: time-limited values
- Define $V_k(s)$ to be the optimal value of s if the game ends in k more time steps
  - Equivalently, it's what a depth-k expectimax would give from s





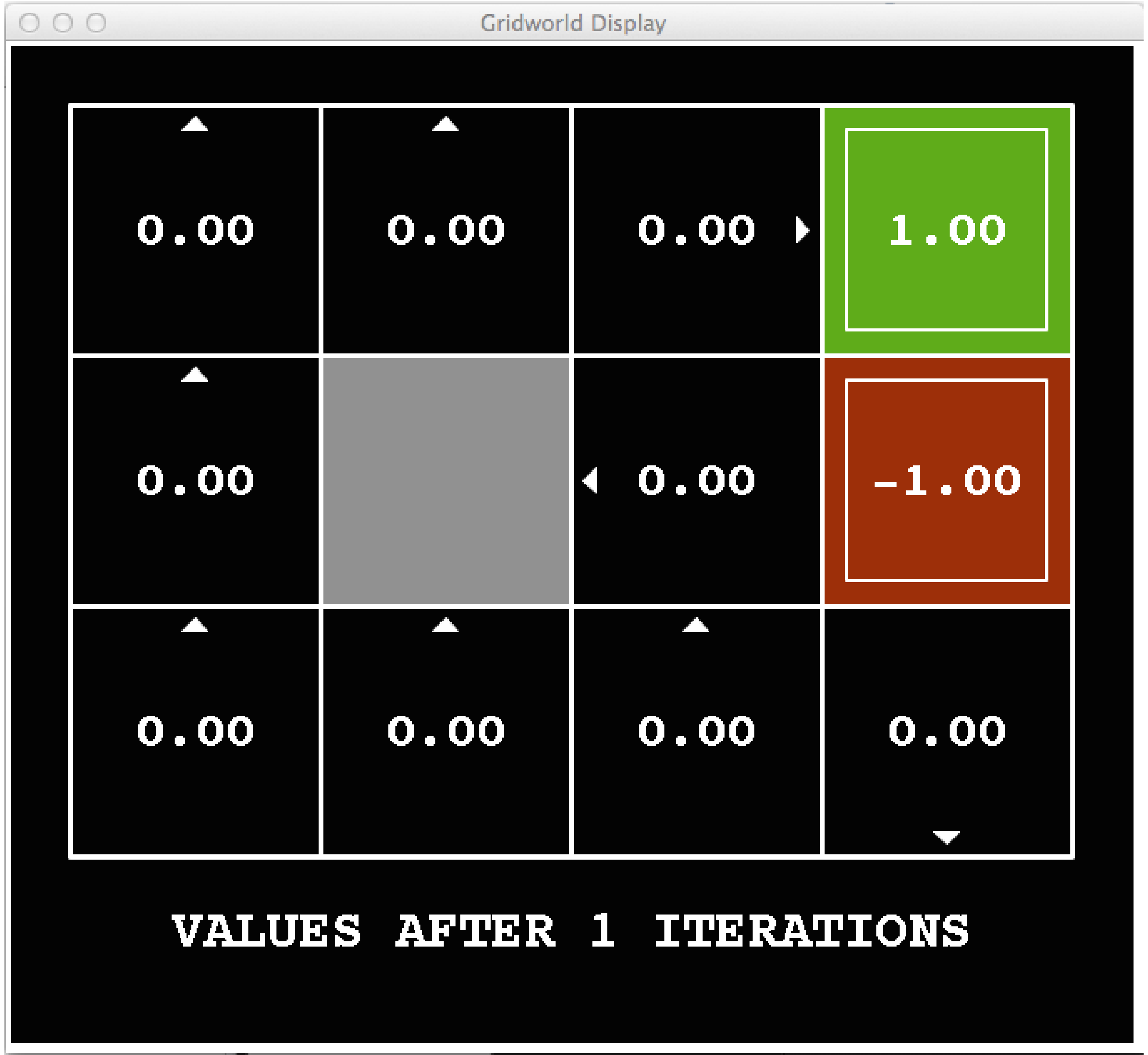
[Demo – time-limited values (L8D6)]

k=0



Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=1



Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

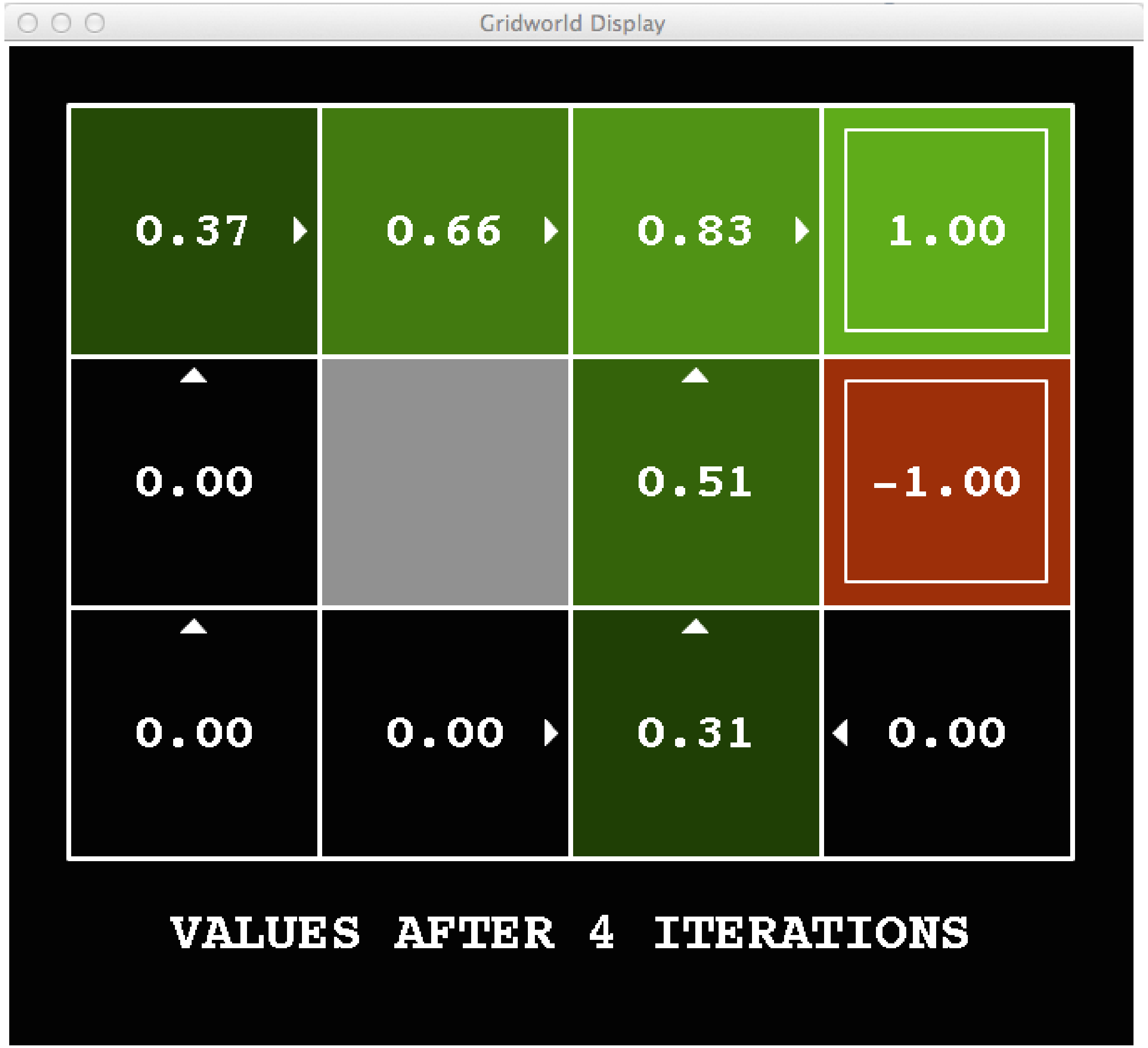
k=2

Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=3

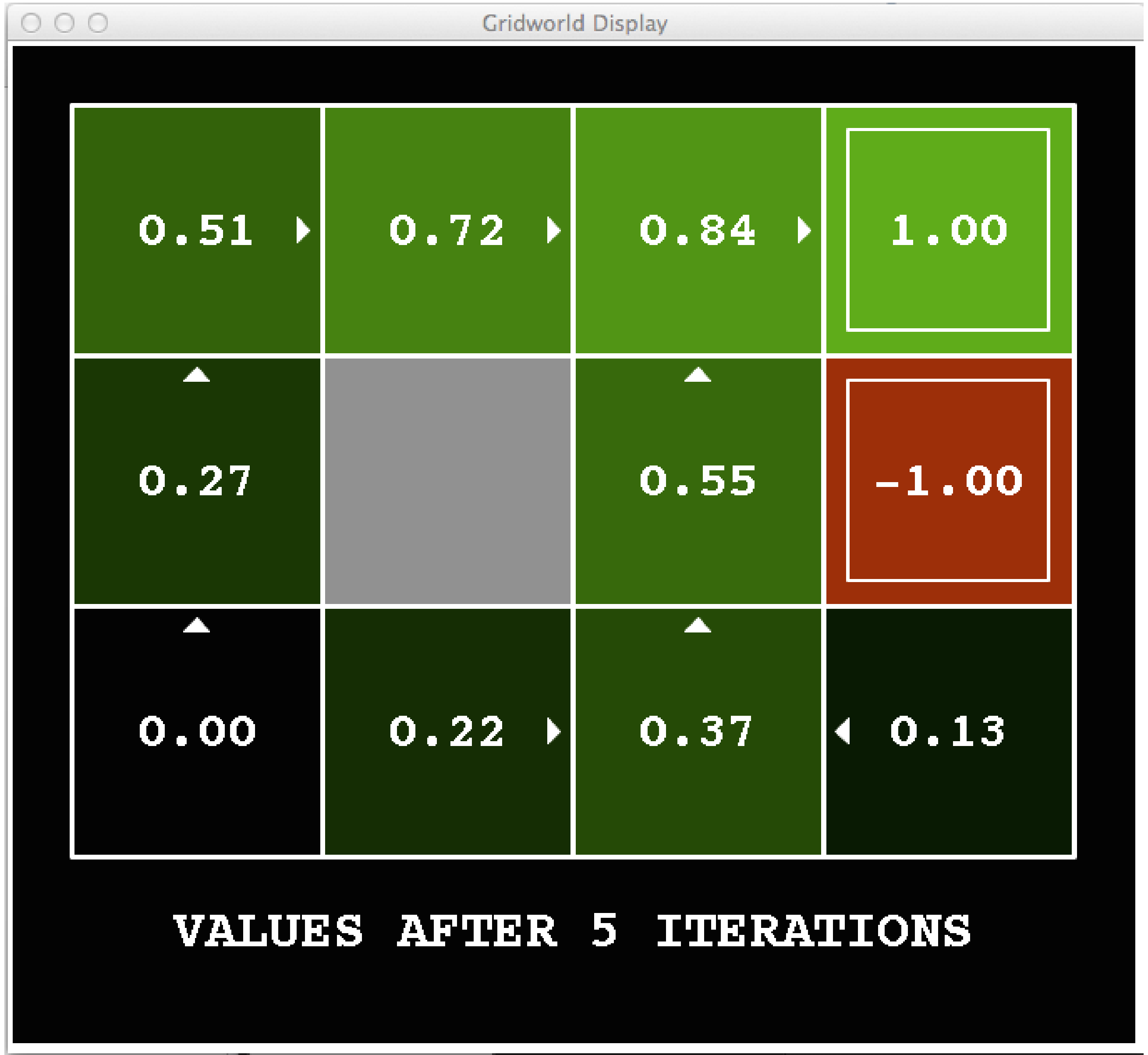
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=4



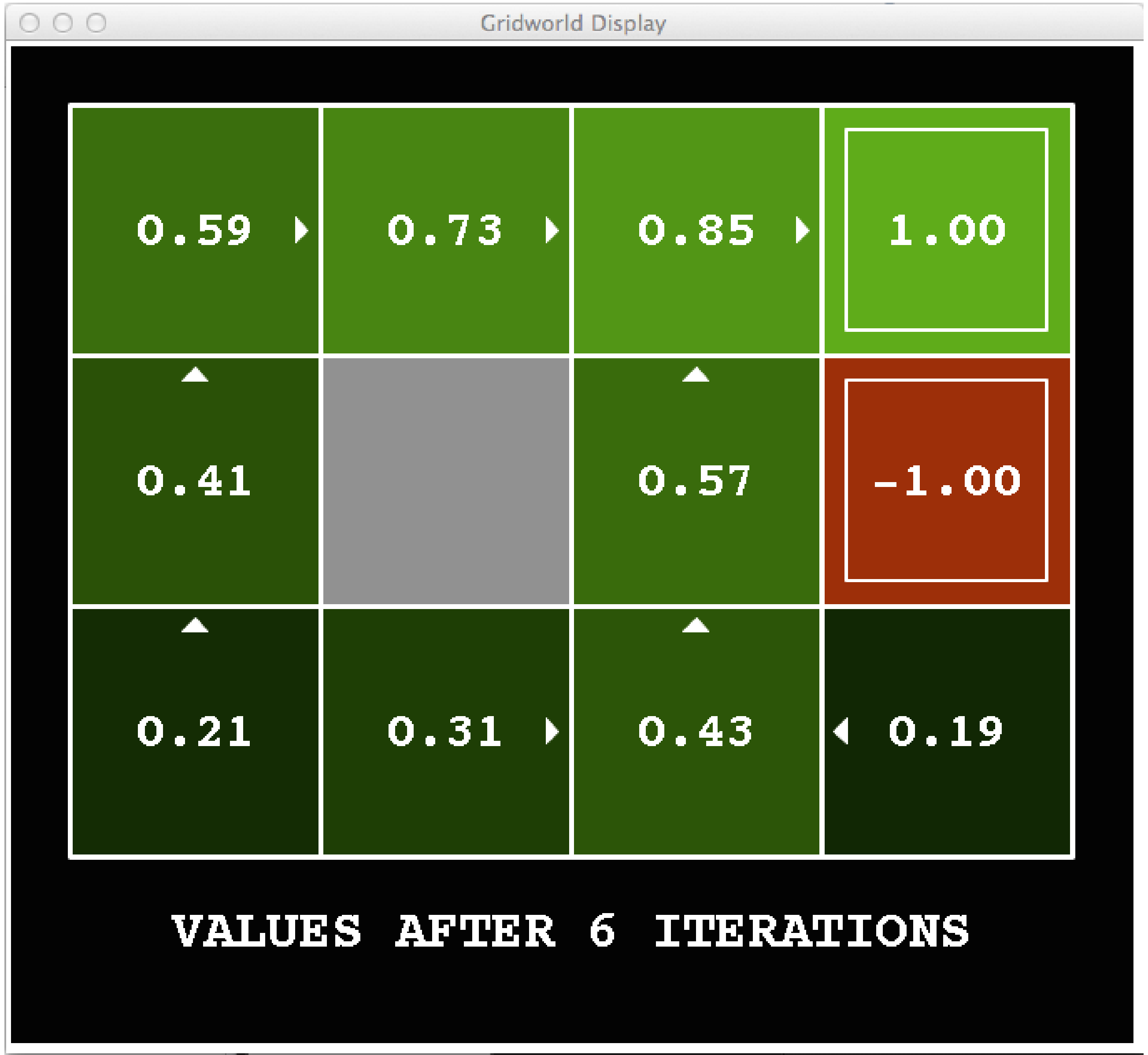
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=5



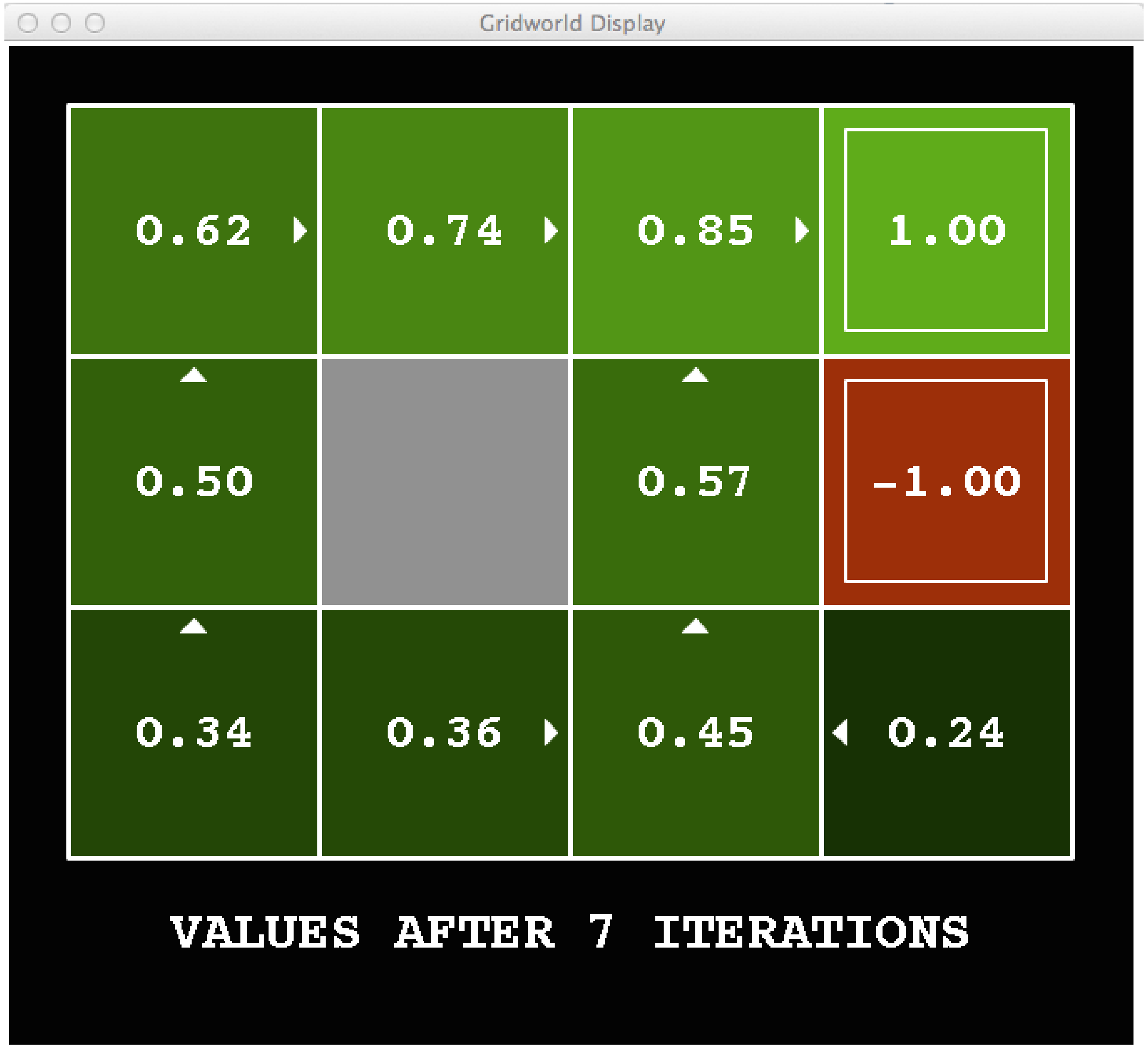
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=6



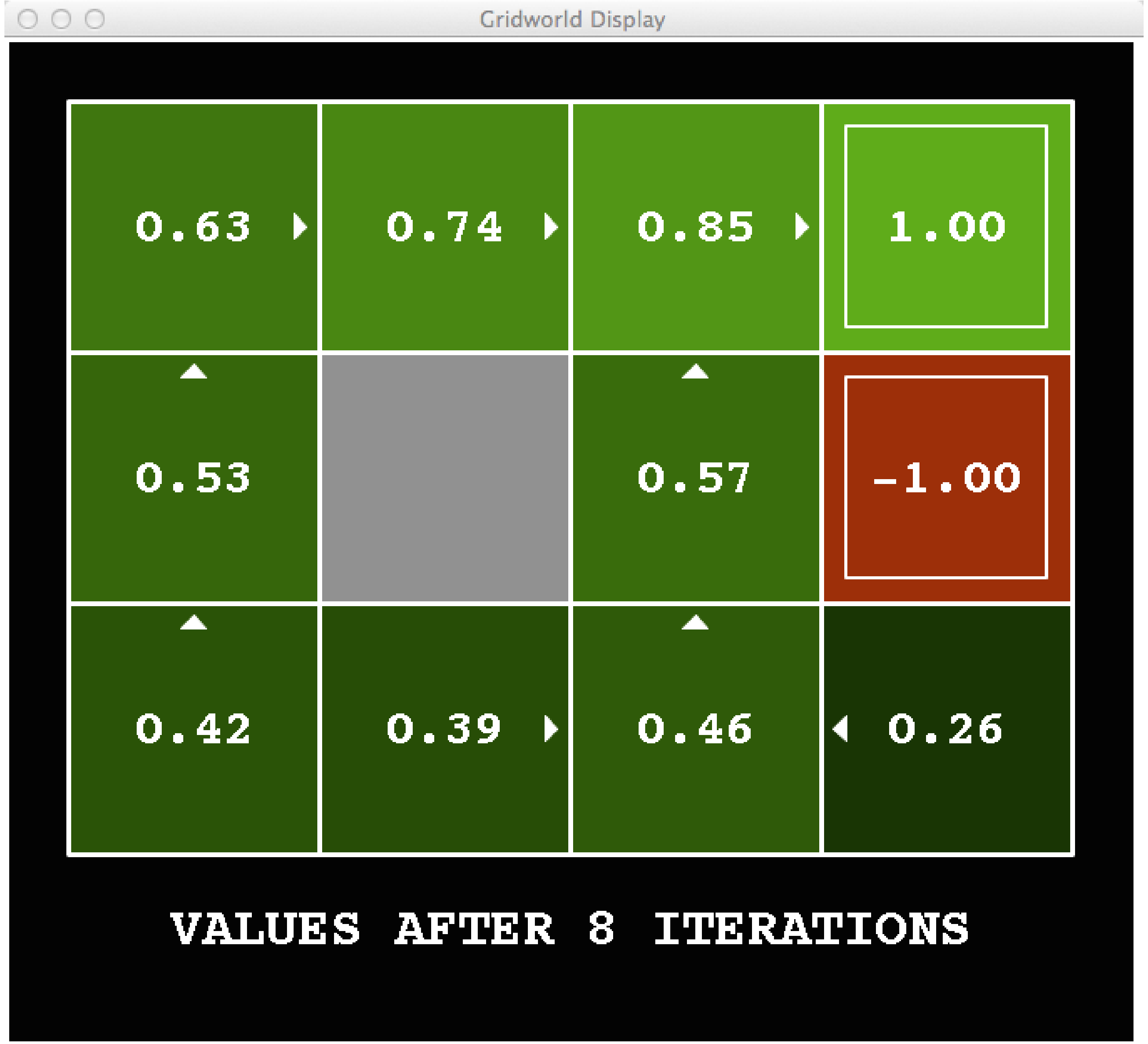
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=7



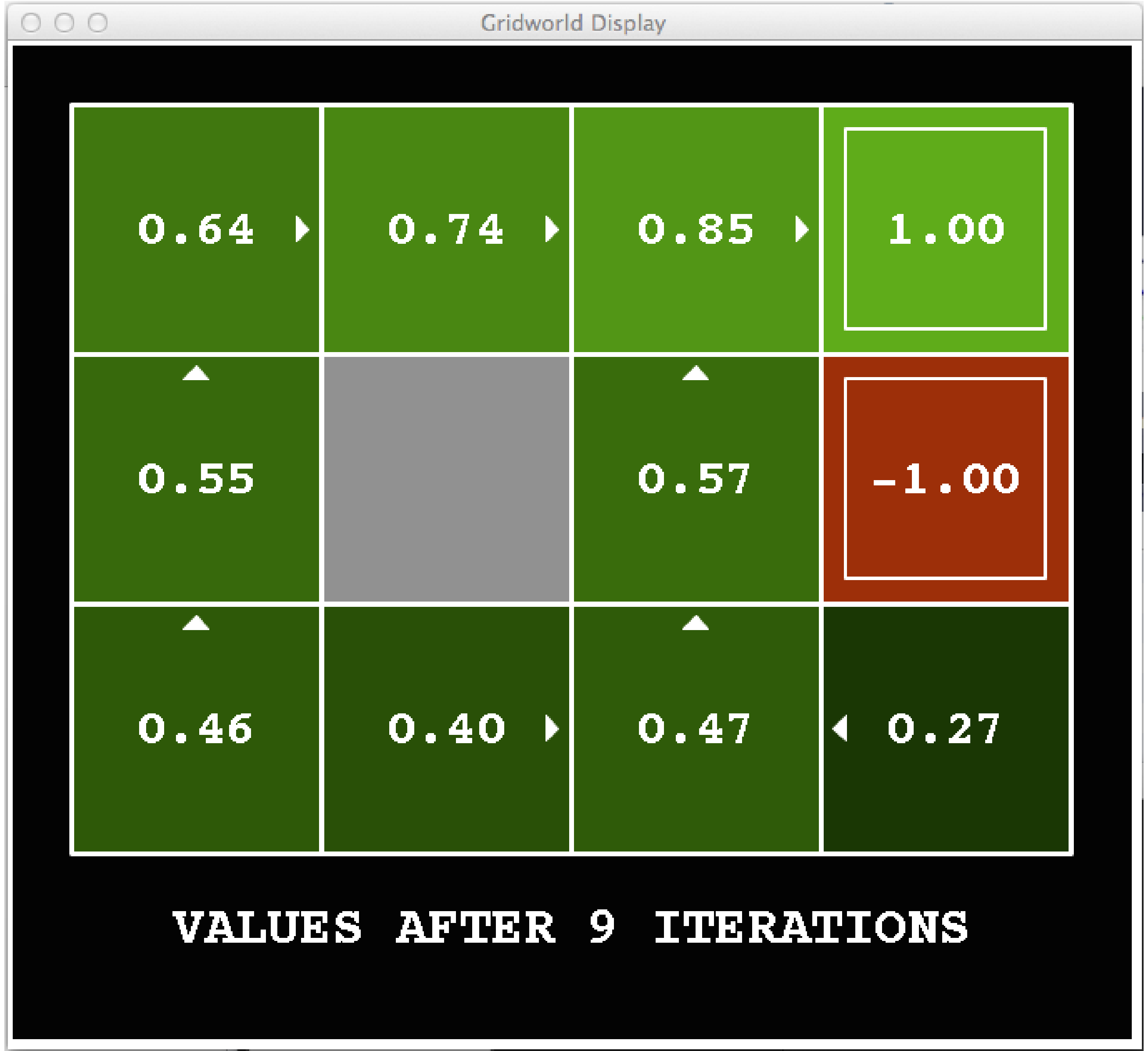
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=8



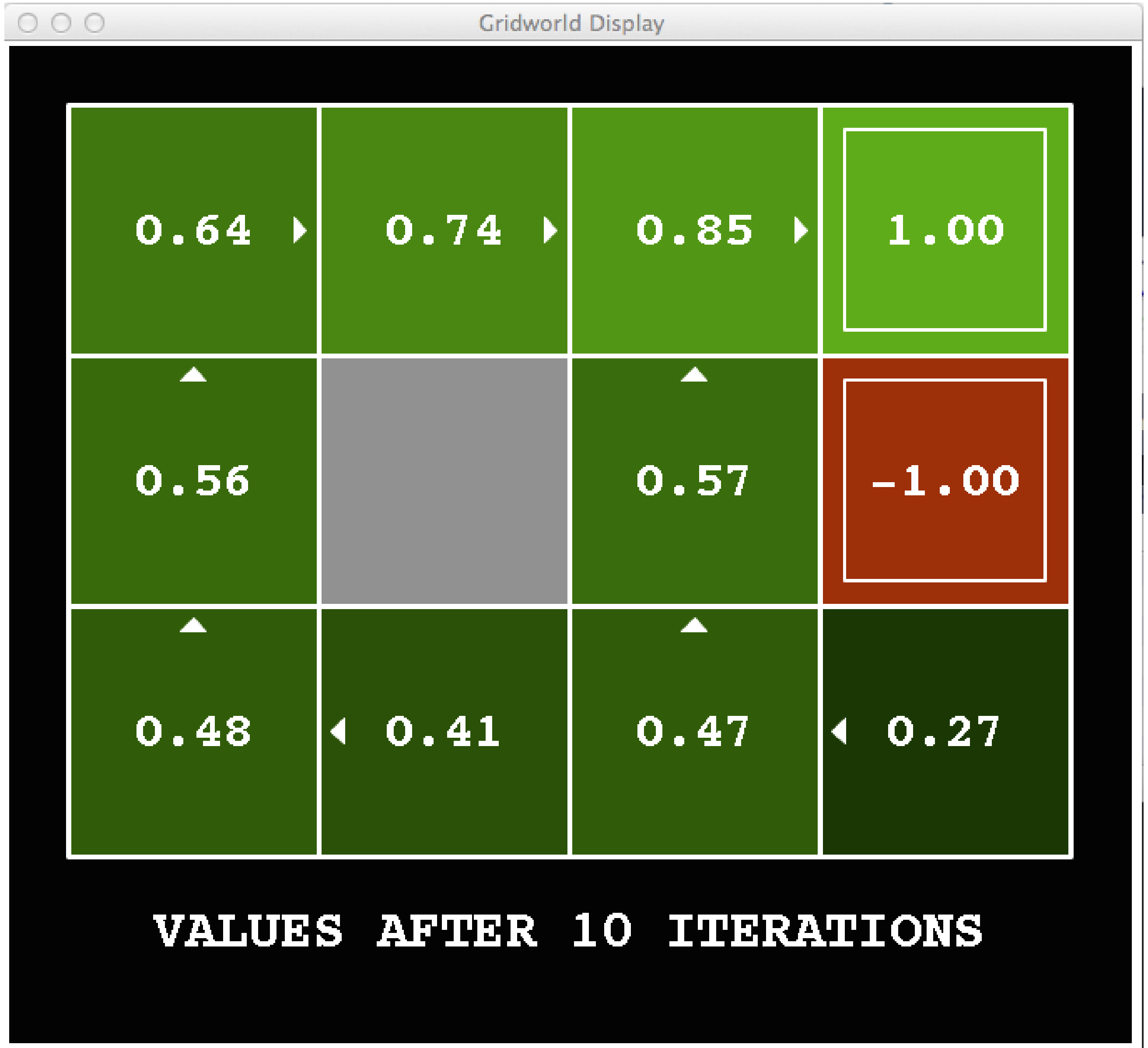
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=9



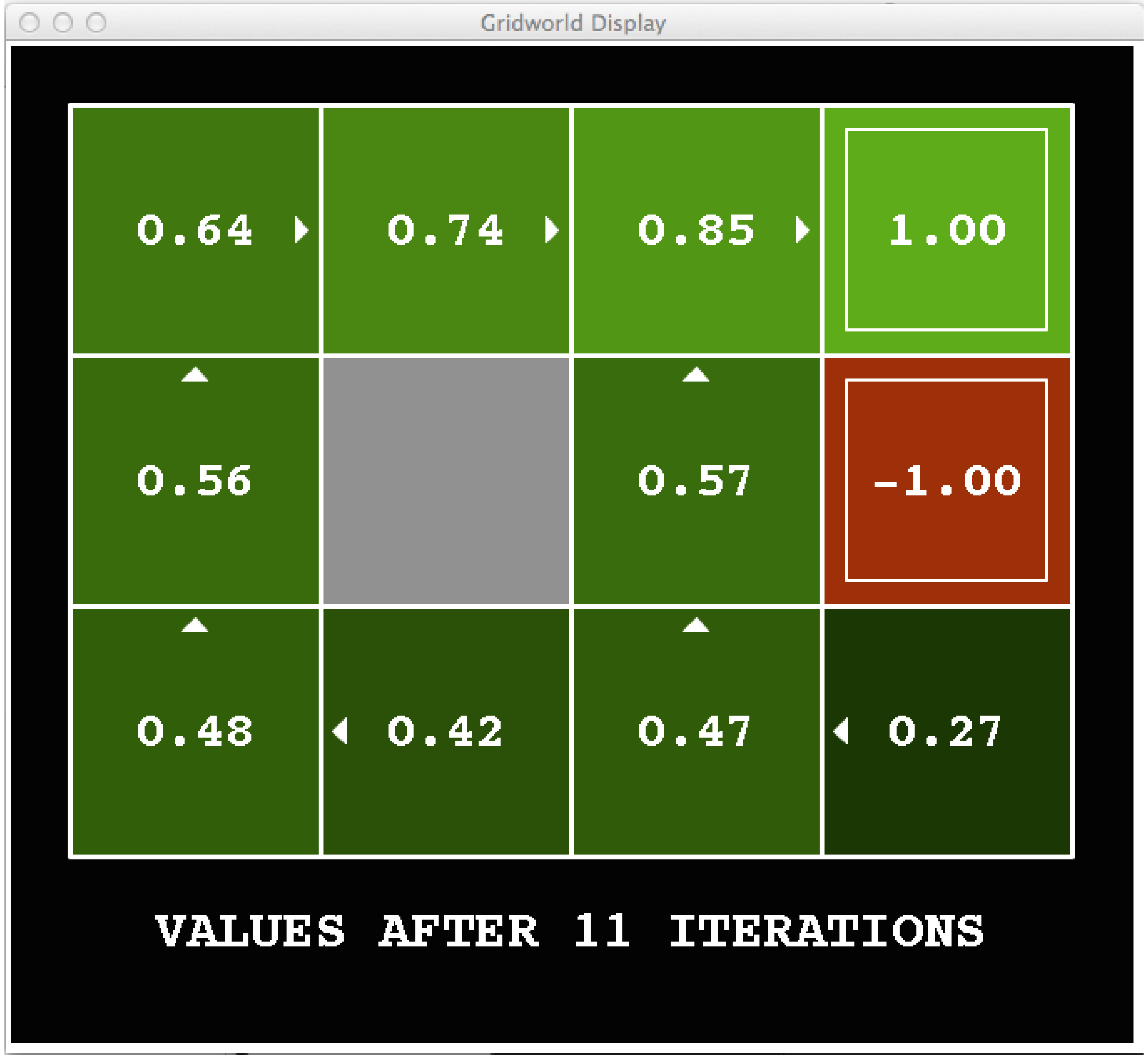
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=10



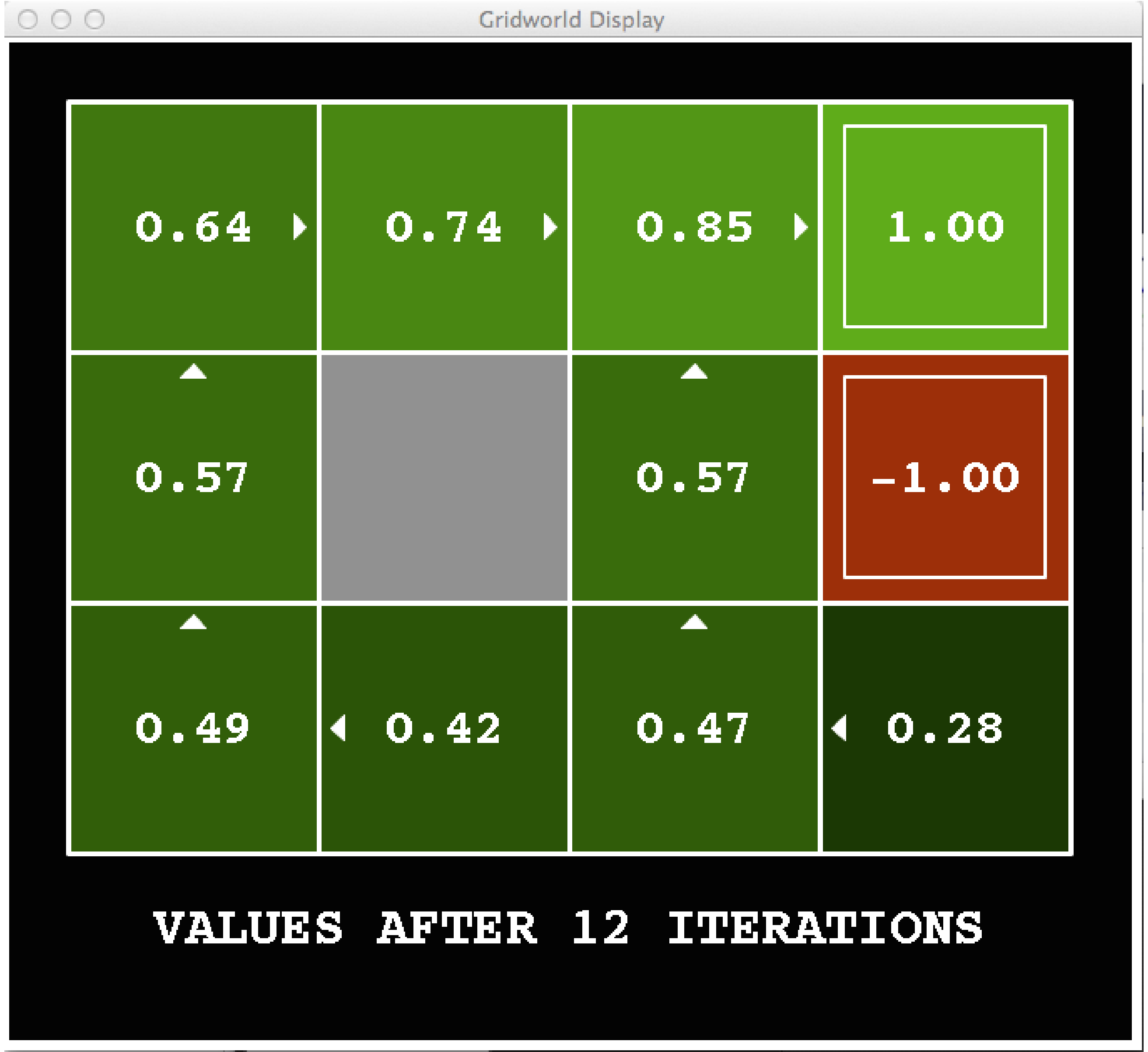
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=11



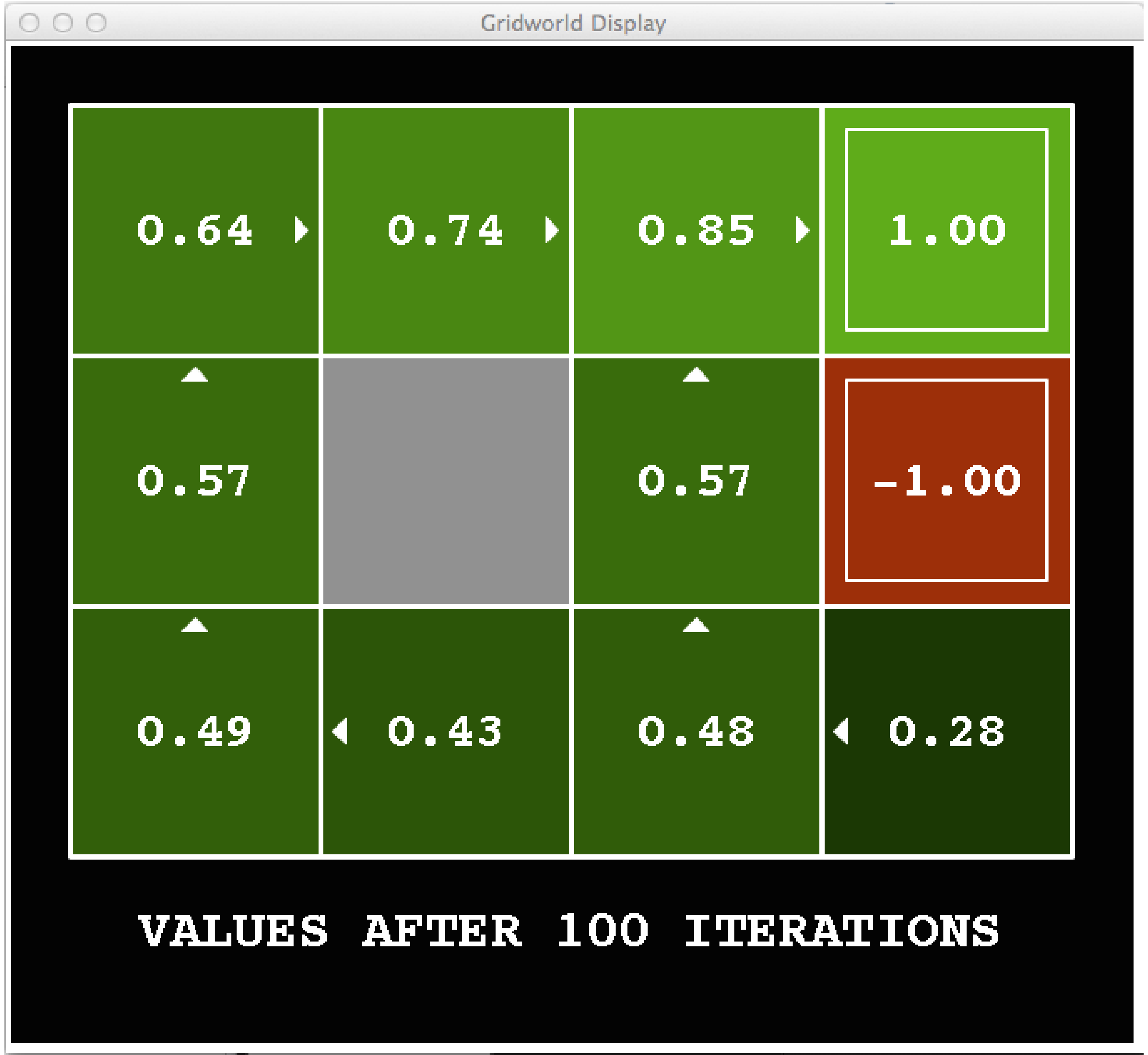
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=12



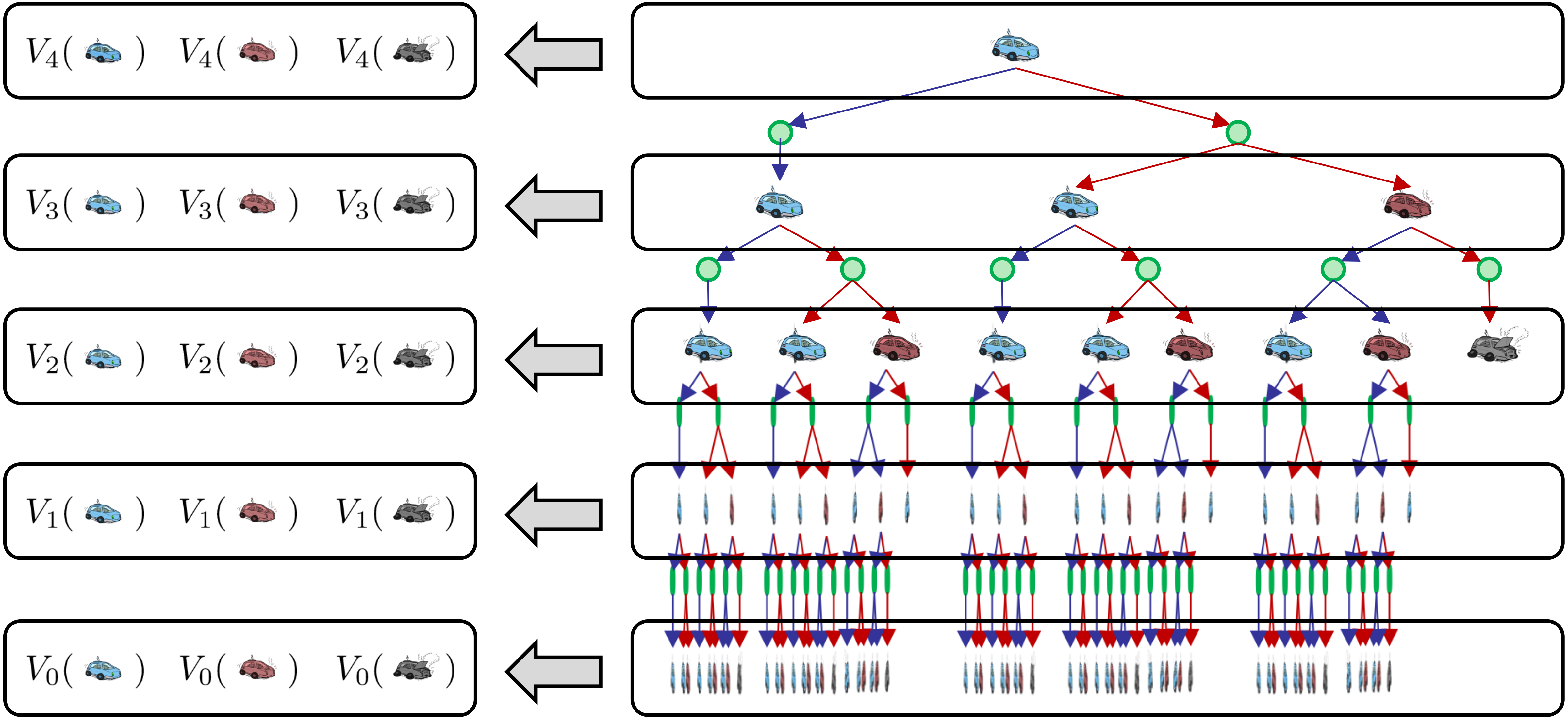
Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

k=100

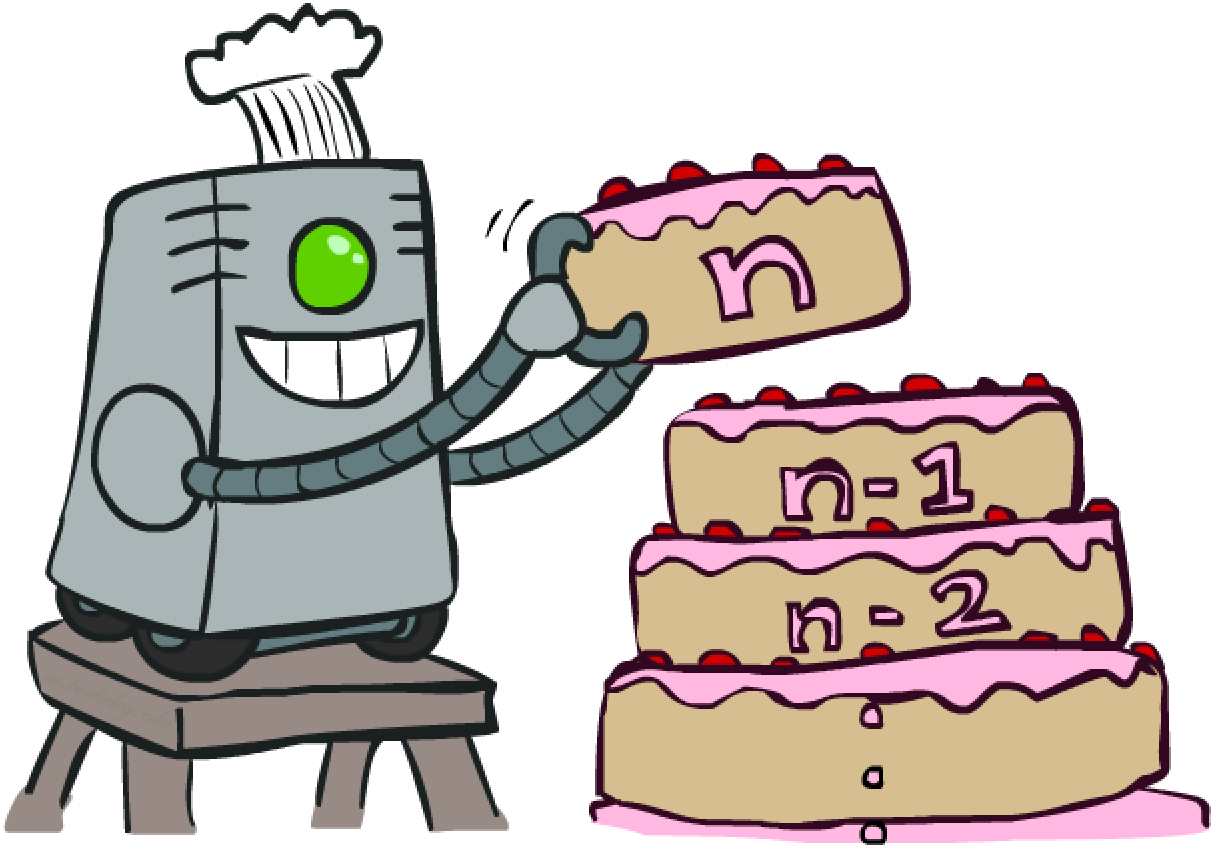


Noise = 0.2
Discount = 0.9
Living reward = 0

Computing Time-Limited Values



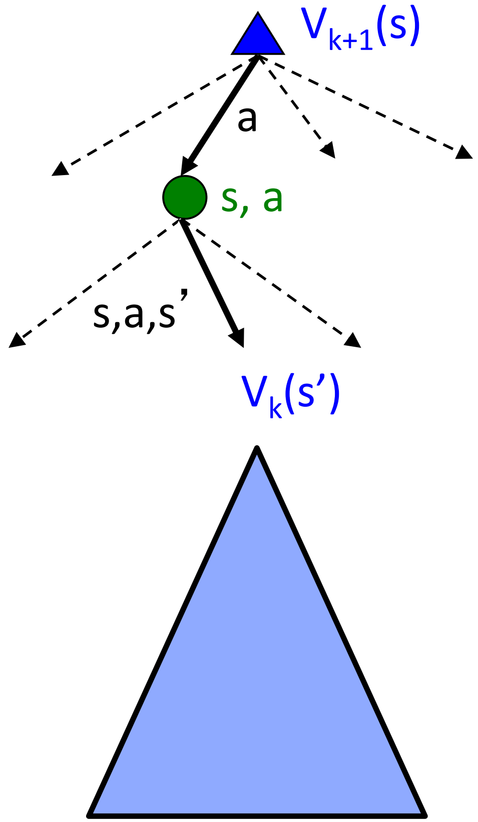
Value Iteration



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 step of expectimax from each state:

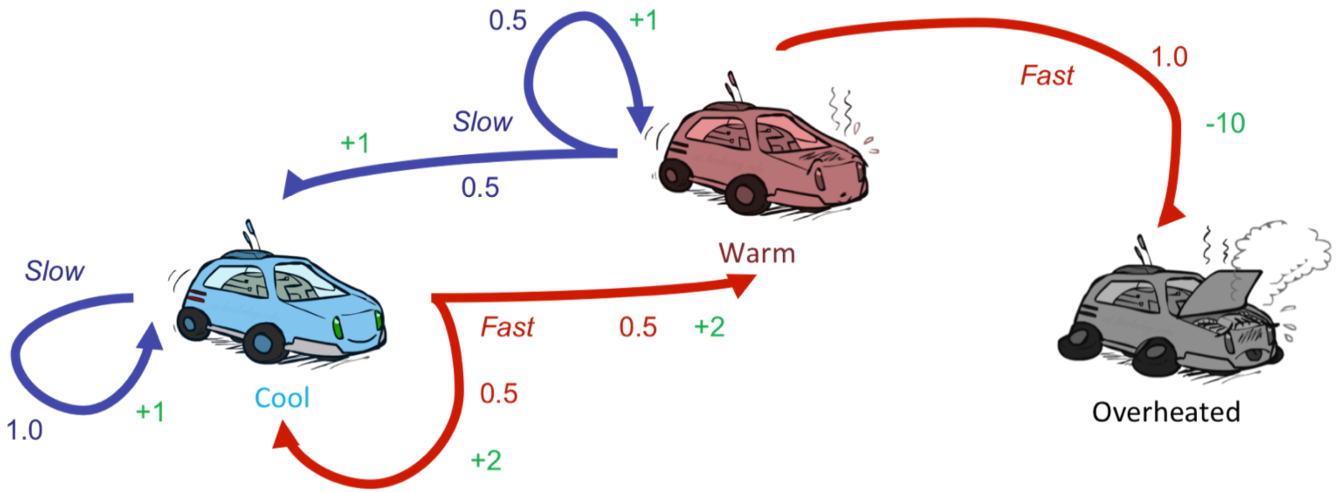
$$V_{k+1}(s) \leftarrow \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \left[R(s,a,s') + \gamma V_k(s')\right]$$



- 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

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

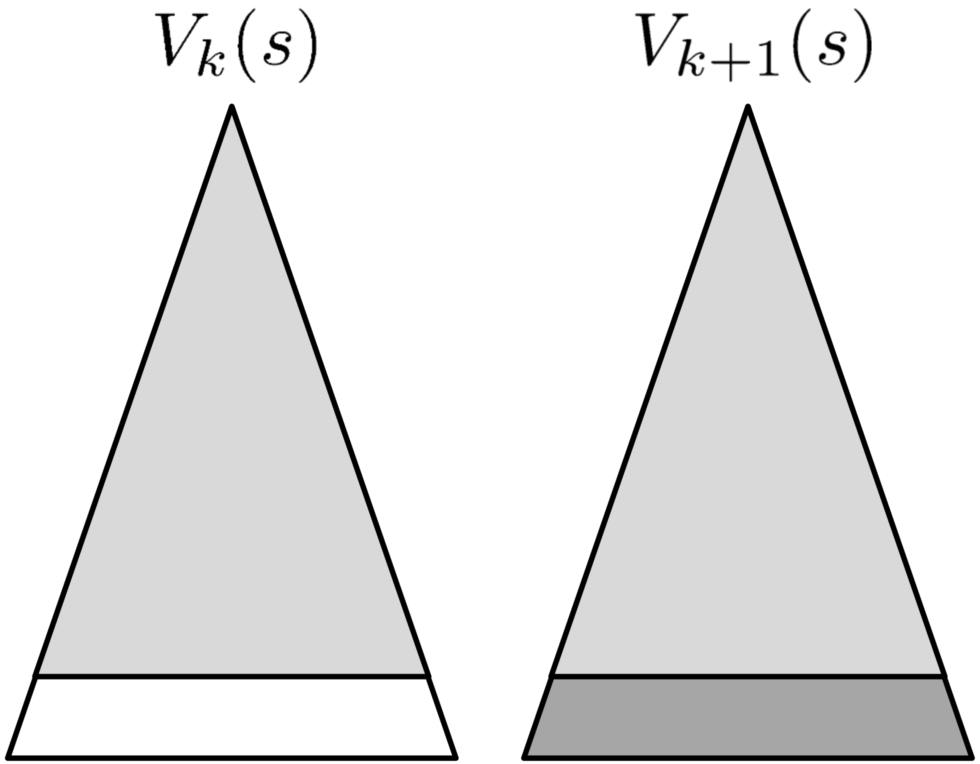


Assume no discount!

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

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 $\gamma^k \max|R|$ different
  - So as k increases, the values converge



Next Time: Policy-Based Methods