

An On-Line Algorithm for Dynamic Reinforcement Learning and Planning in Reactive Environments

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Abstract

An on-line learning algorithm for reinforcement learning with continually running recurrent networks in non-stationary reactive environments is described. Various kinds of reinforcement are considered as special types of input to an agent living in the environment. The agent's only goal is to maximize the amount of reinforcement received over time. Supervised learning techniques for recurrent networks serve to construct a differentiable model of the environmental dynamics which includes a model of future reinforcement. This model is used for learning goal directed behavior in an on-line fashion. The method extends work done by Munro, Robinson and Fallside, Werbos, Widrow, and Jordan.

The possibility of using the system for planning future action sequences is investigated, and this approach is compared to approaches based on temporal difference methods. A connection to 'meta-learning' (learning how to learn) is noted.

Introduction

Consider an agent whose movements are controlled by the output units of a neural network, called the control network, which also receives the agent's sensory perception by means of its input units. The agent potentially is able to produce actions that may change the environmental input (external feedback caused by the 'reactive' environment). By means of recurrent connections in the network the agent is also potentially able to internally represent past events (internal feedback).

The agent is able to experience different types of negative reinforcement or 'pain' by means of so-called *reinforcement units* or *pain units* that become activated in moments of 'pain' (e.g. the experience of bumping against an obstacle with an extremity). The agent's only goal is to minimize cumulative pain. The agent is autonomous in the sense that no intelligent external teacher is required to provide additional goals or subgoals for it.

A pain unit is treated as a special type of input unit which possesses conventional outgoing connections to other units. Unlike normal input units pain units can have desired activation values at every time. For the purpose of this paper we say that the desirable activation of a pain unit is zero for all times. In the sequel we assume a discrete time environment with 'time ticks'. At a given time the quantity to be minimized is $\sum_{t,i} y_i(t)$ where $y_i(t)$ is the activation of the i th pain unit at time t , and t ranges over all remaining time ticks still to come.

Pain corresponds to negative reinforcement. The reinforcement learning agent faces a very general spatio-temporal credit assignment task: No external teacher provides knowledge about

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e.g. desired outputs or ‘episode boundaries’. In this paper we demonstrate how the agent can employ a combination of two recurrent *self-supervised* learning networks in order to satisfy its goal.

As Munro [3] has pointed out in the case of stationary environments and feedforward networks, one does not necessarily have to employ a ‘pure’ reinforcement learning algorithm for reinforcement learning. (‘Pure’ reinforcement learning algorithms (or *reinforcement comparison* algorithms) for temporal credit assignment in non-stationary environments have been described in [1], [12], [7] and [8].) A *supervised* learning algorithm can be applied to build a model of the relationships between environmental inputs, output actions of the agent, and corresponding reinforcement. An adaptive model network representing the model can be used to propagate gradient information back into the control network in order to maximize reinforcement.

Robinson and Fallside described an extension of Munro’s static approach to dynamic recurrent networks in time-varying environments [6]. As in Munro’s approach, the only aspect of the external world which is explicitly described by Robinson and Fallside’s recurrent model network is the reinforcement’s dependency on past inputs and outputs. There is no model for the dependency of (non-reinforcement) inputs on past outputs (or on past inputs which again may have been caused by past outputs). This makes the model for the reinforcement itself incomplete: Paths for credit assignment leading ‘through the environment’ can not be considered.

Nguyen and Widrow [4], Jordan [2], and Werbos [11] also use model networks for constructing a mapping from output actions of a control network to their effects in in ‘task space’ [2]. The same principle as used in Munro’s work serves to provide error signals for the control network, in order to improve performance on a given control task.

The system described in the next section (see also [9]) employs an adaptive model of the environmental dynamics for computing gradients of the control network’s pain. Both the control network and the model network are fully recurrent.

In Jordan’s terminology we may say that the purpose of the model network’s ‘task units’ is to predict activations partly of the conventional input units and partly of the pain or reinforcement units. Unlike Robinson and Fallside’s approach our approach includes credit assignment passes that lead from pain units back to output units back to all input units and so on. There are also credit assignment paths that lead from input units back to the input units themselves, and from there to the output units. The latter paths are important in the common case when the environment can change even if there are no recent output actions.

The Algorithm

We describe the discrete time version of an on-line learning algorithm for reinforcement learning agents. The algorithm *concurrently* adjusts the model network and the control network. We concentrate on the case where Williams and Zipser’s on-line version [13] of Robinson and Fallside’s Infinite-Input-Duration learning algorithm for fully recurrent networks [5] is used for training both the model network and the control network. The following algorithm is a particular instantiation of a more general form and is based on the logistic activation function for all non-input units.

Notation (the reader may find it convenient to compare with [13]):

C is the set of all units of the control network, *A* is the set of all output units of the control network, *I* is the set of all ‘normal’ input units of the control network, *P* is the set of all pain units of the control network, *M* is the set of all units of the model network, *O* is the set of all output units of the model network, $O_P \subset O$ is the set of all units that predict pain, $H = M \cup C \setminus (I \cup P)$, W_M is the set of variables for the weights of the model network, W_C is the set of variables for the weights of the control network, $y_{k_{new}}$ is the variable for the updated activation of the *k*th unit from $M \cup C$, $y_{k_{old}}$ is the variable for the last value of $y_{k_{new}}$, w_{ij} is the variable for the weight of the directed connection from unit *j* to unit *i*, $p_{ij_{new}}^k$ is the variable which gives the current (approximated) value of $\frac{\partial y_{k_{new}}}{\partial w_{ij}}$, $p_{ij_{old}}^k$ is the variable which gives the last value of $p_{ij_{new}}^k$, α_C is a positive constant, the learning rate for the control network, α_M is a positive constant, the learning rate for the model network.

Figure 1: A control network with internal and external feedback is shown. For simplicity, only one normal input unit (IN), one reinforcement input unit (R), one hidden unit and one output unit (OUT) are depicted. A model network (only one hidden unit is shown) is trained to simulate the environmental dynamics by predicting the control network's input ($PRED_{IN}$ and $PRED_R$). The model network provides credit assignment paths for the control network.

$|I \cup P| = |O|$, $|O_P| = |P|$. For each $k \in O \setminus O_P$ there is exactly one $i \in I$ such that $y_{k_{new}}$ predicts the value of $y_{i_{new}}$, which also is called $x_{k_{new}}$. For each $k \in O_P$ there is exactly one $i \in P$ such that $y_{k_{new}}$ predicts the value of $y_{i_{new}}$, which also is called $x_{k_{new}}$. Each unit from $I \cup P \cup A$ has one forward connection to each unit from H . Each unit from M is connected to each other unit from M . Each unit from $C \setminus (I \cup P)$ is connected to each other unit from this set. Each weight of a connection leading to a unit in M is said to belong to W_M . Each weight of a connection leading to a unit in $C \setminus (I \cup P)$ is said to belong to W_C . Each weight $w_{ij} \in W_M$ needs p_{ij}^k -values for all $k \in M$. Each weight $w_{ij} \in W_C$ needs p_{ij}^k -values for all $k \in H$.

First we will describe the algorithm, then some comments will be given.

INITIALIZATION:

For all $w_{ij} \in W_M \cup W_C$: begin $w_{ij} \leftarrow$ random, for all possible k : $p_{ijold}^k \leftarrow 0, p_{ijnew}^k \leftarrow 0$ end,
for all $k \in H$: $y_{kold} \leftarrow 0, y_{knew} \leftarrow 0$.

For all $k \in I \cup P$: Set y_{kold} by environmental perception, $y_{knew} \leftarrow 0$.

FOREVER REPEAT:

1. A. For all $i \in H$: $y_{inew} \leftarrow \frac{1}{1+e^{-\sum_j w_{ij} y_{jold}}}$,
for all $i \in I \cup P$: Set y_{inew} by environmental perception.
B. Execute all motoric actions based on activations of units in A.
2. A. For all $w_{ij} \in W_M, k \in M$: $p_{ijnew}^k \leftarrow y_{knew} (1 - y_{knew}) (\sum_{l \in M} w_{kl} p_{ijold}^l + \delta_{ik} y_{jold})$
B. For all $w_{ij} \in W_M$: $w_{ij} \leftarrow w_{ij} + \alpha_M \sum_{k \in O} (x_{knew} - y_{knew}) p_{ijnew}^k$.
3. A. For all $k \in O$ begin $y_{knew} \leftarrow x_{knew}$, for all $w_{ij} \in W_M$: $p_{ijnew}^k \leftarrow 0$ end.
B. For all $w_{ij} \in W_C, k \in H$: $p_{ijnew}^k \leftarrow y_{knew} (1 - y_{knew}) (\sum_{l \in H, w_{kl} \text{ exists}} w_{kl} p_{ijold}^l + \delta_{ik} y_{jold})$
C. For all $w_{ij} \in W_C$: $w_{ij} \leftarrow w_{ij} - \alpha_C \sum_{k \in O_P} p_{ijnew}^k$.
4. For all $k \in M \cup C$: $y_{kold} \leftarrow y_{knew}$,
For all $w_{ij} \in W_M \cup W_C$ and for all possible k : $p_{ijold}^k \leftarrow p_{ijnew}^k$.

General comments on the algorithm. 1. In step 2 the model network is updated in order to better predict the input (including pain) for the controller. Since the control network continues activation spreading based on the actual inputs instead of using the predictions of the model network, ‘teacher forcing’ [13] is used in the model network (step 3.A).

2. In step 3 the weights of the control network are updated in order to minimize the cumulative activations of the pain units. In the version above no teacher forcing is used for the control network. Here the philosophy is that a little pain may be informative for the agent, and may have an explicit influence on future actions.

3. The algorithm assumes that from one time tick to the next the environment changes in a fashion that is predictable by linearly separable mappings from past states. If there is a ‘higher degree of environmental non-linearity’ then the algorithm has to be modified in a trivial manner such that the involved networks tick at a higher frequency than the environment. In any case it suffices if there are four network ticks for each environmental tick. This is due to the fact that 4-layer-operations in principle are enough to arbitrarily approximate any desired mapping.

Comments on the on-line nature of the algorithm. Since we want an on-line learning procedure we deviate from true gradient descent in several respects:

1. Instead of accumulating contributions to weight changes over time and actually changing the weights after activation spreading, the weights are changed immediately. According to the experiments described in [13] this is no serious limitation. On the contrary, immediate weight changes allow to renounce on information about ‘episode boundaries’.

2. The weight changing mechanism of the controller acts as if the model network already was a perfect predictor (with fixed weights) which could replace the environment. However, the model may be imperfect. What should we expect to happen if the weights of the control network start changing inappropriately because of an inaccurate model?

2A. Jordan as well as Robinson and Fallside note that a model network does not need to be perfect to allow increasing performance of a control network. If the error for the control network is not given by the difference of the desired input for the control network and the model output but by the difference of the desired input and the actual input of the control network, then the minima of this difference still are fixpoints of the weight changing mechanism, as long as the model network already has reached a local minimum. The zero-points of the controller’s error are fixpoints even if the model network has not yet found a local minimum. The minima of the error for the control network can be found if the inner products of the approximated gradients for the control network’s weights and the exact gradients (according to a perfect model) are positive.

2B. Note that the p_{ij}^k ’s of the model network change independently from the p_{ij}^k ’s of the control network. A situation where the control network experiences pain and where its weights are based on an inaccurate model will not remain stable, as long as not both the model network and the control network are trapped in local minima. If we assume that the model network always finds a zero-point of its error function (which means that it sooner or later always will correctly predict future inputs no matter how the controller behaves), then over time we can expect the control network to perform gradient descent in pain according to a perfect model of the visible parts of the real world. As long as the model is inaccurate the controller partly functions as a random explorer who rather uninformedly causes situations that help the model network to collect new data about the environmental dynamics, in order to ‘make the relevant dynamics of the world differentiable’.

To repeat, as long as the control network experiences pain and the model network is not accurate over the ‘sub-domains’ chosen by the controller, the latter cannot be guaranteed to converge immediately. However, since the model changes independently from the control network, it makes sense to expect the model to converge as long as the environment does not behave chaotically.

Experiments with a difficult control task. The algorithm is currently being tested on a complicated pole balancing problem (the differential equations modelling the cart-pole system described in [1] are employed). Unlike with previous pole balancing tasks no prewired decoder is used to pre-process the inputs from the environment. Additionally, unlike with previous pole balancing tasks no information is provided about temporal derivatives of the environment’s state variables

(pole velocity, etc.). The agent is forced to extract this kind of information by itself, by means of the recurrent connections of its model network. An additional difficulty is that no external teacher provides information about ‘trial boundaries’. Thus the agent faces a complex and realistic spatio-temporal credit assignment task. The results of preliminary test runs are very encouraging, however, the experiments have not yet been completed.

Using the Model Network for Planning Action Sequences

Robinson and Fallside state that their approach corresponds to Barto, Sutton, and Anderson’s ‘Adaptive Heuristic Critic’ (AHC) algorithm [1]. They say that the model network corresponds to the adaptive heuristic critic.

A major difference, however, between the AHC and the model network is that the AHC has the potential to immediately look far into the future, while the model network usually looks forward just for one time tick. The AHC’s evaluation of a system’s state at time t can become overwritten by its evaluation at time $t+1$. Thus during successive training episodes expectations about future events can be transported ‘back into time’ for arbitrary numbers of time ticks.

However, it is also possible to use the model network for predicting events that are ‘hidden deeper in the future’. The model network, as long as it is perfect, contains all information about future reinforcement. By letting the combination of model network and control network ‘run forward in time’ one can perform a mental simulation of future events. If such a run predicts pain then the system can perform gradient descent in predicted pain, without actually experiencing pain. This means that an immediate decision can be taken about how to change future behavior.

The disadvantage is that a lot of computation is required to extract this information. With on-line learning, the consequences are high peak computation times. For instance, if the system at certain time ticks plans future actions by looking 10 time ticks into the future, without neglecting its usual credit assignment tasks, then it consumes about $10 * m + 1$ times the amount of computation time per tick as without mental simulation (using essentially the same algorithm for simulation based weight changing as for normal weight changing). (Here m is the number of successive simulation repetitions required for convergence of the gradient descent procedure.)

The method of the adaptive critic is more sympathetic: The AHC, based on Sutton’s TD-methods [10], does not represent a perfect model of all possible events but only of some relevant aspects of the world. During successive learning trials it tries to ‘cache’ expectations about relevant events by omitting to model irrelevant events between the relevant ones. (In [7] an application of Sutton’s TD-methods to the evolution of recurrent networks is described.)

On the other side, the relevant events have to be predefined by the programmer. For instance, in case of the AHC only one aspect of the environment is modeled, namely, the future cumulative (discounted) reinforcement.

The problem is, of course, to decide in the general case which future events will be relevant for credit assignment, and which will not. (This leads to the old frame problem from conventional AI.) The more informed gradient descent procedures based on mental simulation are on the safe side in the sense that they consider every future action for credit assignment. TD-like algorithms can require less amounts of peak computation if it is *a priori* known that it suffices to concentrate on a small subset of all future events.

We may say that for reinforcement learning a main purpose of a world model as used in this paper is to make the world differentiable, although it is possible to use the model for planning future actions. In contrast, a main purpose of models based on TD-methods is immediate on-line planning by bridging long time delays by ‘caching’ expectations about future events. It remains to be seen whether the advantages of both approaches can be fruitfully combined.

A connection to meta-learning. We want to mention a very interesting aspect of the notion of a ‘model network’. A perfect model that also predicts the controller’s output predicts the changes of the control network. This means that the model network models the evolution of the controller’s weights, it models the effects of the gradient descent procedure itself. Activation flow models weight changes. This in turn comes close to the notion of ‘learning how to learn’. Although such

concepts from ‘meta-learning’ are interesting by themselves and also potentially useful for systems with introspective capabilities, their consequences are beyond the scope of this paper.

Concluding Remarks

Let us view the weights of a network with fixed topology as its program. One of the most interesting aspects of many connectionist algorithms is that program outputs are differentiable with respect to programs. A simple program generator (the gradient descent procedure) allows to produce increasingly successful programs, if the desired outputs are known.

In typical reinforcement learning situations the environment is not *a priori* represented in a differentiable form. So the main reason for connectionist world models in the style above can be seen in ‘making the world differentiable’. Thus even *program inputs* can become differentiable with respect to programs. A differentiable world model allows the program generator an informed search for better goal directed programs.

The degree of informedness of this search for suitable programs is a main difference between the very general approach presented in this paper and other reinforcement learning algorithms. The approach is based on the idea that understanding the world can greatly reduce the complexity of the search for adequate goal directed behavior. All potentially relevant information about the environment should be taken into consideration for credit assignment.

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