Introduction to Reinforcement Learning

Lecture 4: POMDPs & Multi-Agent RL

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(based on material from Frans Oliehoek, Tony Cassandra, Michael Littman, and Leslie Kaelbling)

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Partial observability

- In a *partially observable* decision problem, the agent does not have access to the true state of the environment
- Instead agent receives only observations correlated with the state
- There are two possible causes of partial observability:
 - **1** Noisy sensors: many-to-many function mapping states to observations
 - Perceptual aliasing: many-to-one mapping

Hallway example



Partially observable Markov decision processes

- POMDPs extend MDPs to model partial observability
- Environment is stationary and possibly stochastic environment
- A finite POMDP consists of:
 - ▶ Discrete time t = 0, 1, 2, ...
 - A discrete set of states $s \in S$
 - A discrete set of observations $o \in O$
 - A discrete set of actions $a \in A$
 - ► A transition model p(s'|s, a): the probability of transitioning to state s' when the agent takes action a at state s
 - An observation model p(o|s', a): the probability of receiving an observation o after taking action a and landing in state s'
 - ▶ A *reward* function $R : S \times A \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, so that the agent receives reward R(s, a) when it takes action a at state s
 - A planning horizon, which can be infinite

$\mathsf{MDPs} \subset \mathsf{POMDPs} \text{ or } \mathsf{POMDPs} \subset \mathsf{MDPs}?$



Tiger example (1)





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Tiger example (2)

- $S = \{L, R\}$
- *A* = {*OL*, *OR*, *Li*}
- $O = \{HL, HR\}$
- Transitions: state is static but opening resets
- Rewards:
 - Correct door: +10
 - ▶ Wrong door: -100
 - ▶ Listen: -1
- Observations: correct 85% of the time:
 - p(HL|L, Li) = 0.85
 - p(HR|L, Li) = 0.15
 - p(HL|R, Li) = 0.15
 - p(HR|R, Li) = 0.85

Heuristic approaches

- Without Markov property, reactive policies are suboptimal
- Can sometimes settle for them anyway

• Or condition actions on:

- Entire history
- A fixed window of history
- An engineered subset of history
- An engineered higher-level observation

Beliefs (1)

- Principled approaches formalise uncertainty about the state
- A *belief* is a probability distribution over states, conditioned on what the agent has observed: b(s) = p(s)



Beliefs (2)

- Updating the belief requires knowledge of b, T, and O
- Start from Bayes rule:

$$p(A|B) = \frac{p(A,B)}{p(B)} = \frac{p(B|A)p(A)}{p(B)}$$

• In our case:

$$p(s'|o) = rac{p(o|s')p(s')}{p(o)}$$

• Adding other givens:

$$p(s'|o,a,b) = \frac{p(o|s',a,b)p(s'|a,b)}{p(o|a,b)}$$

Beliefs (3)

• Expanding p(s'|a, b):

$$b'(s') = \frac{p(o|a,s')\sum_s p(s'|s,a)b(s)}{p(o|a,b)}$$

• Where:

$$p(o|a,b) = \sum_{s'} p(o|a,s') \sum_{s} p(s'|s,a)b(s)$$

Beliefs (4)



Most likely state

- Solve underlying MDP
- Condition actions on most likely state

$$\pi_{MLS} = rg\max_{a} Q(s_{ML}, a)$$

where:

$$s_{ML} = rgmax_s b(s)$$

Q_{MDP}

• Solve underlying MDP, select action with best expected value:

$$\pi_{QMDP} = \arg\max_{a} Q(b, a)$$

where:

$$Q(b,a) = \sum_{s} Q(s,a)b(s)$$

• Suppose $b(s_1) = 0.75$, $b(s_2) = 0.25$, and Q(s, a) is:

	s_1	<i>s</i> ₂
a_1	100	100
a 2	101	0

• Will most likely state or Q_{MDP} yield a higher expected return?

Belief MDPs

- Belief is a *sufficient statistic* for history
- Therefore, we can define a *belief MDP*:
 - States are beliefs in the POMDP: $s_{BMDP} = b(s_{POMDP})$
 - Rewards are expectations wrt b: $R(b, a) = \sum_{s} b(s)R(s, a)$
 - ▶ Belief update happens in environment: $p(b'|b_t, a_t, o_t) = 1$ iff $b' = b_{t+1}$
- Automatically balance reward and information gathering
- Belief MDP has continuous state: belief vector has length $|S_{POMDP}|$
- Fortunately, the value function is *piecewise-linear and convex*
- What prevents *convenient delusions*?

Policy trees



POMDP value functions

• Value function of *t*-step policy tree π :

$$V^{\pi}(s) = R(s, a) + \gamma \sum_{s'} p(s'|s, a_{\pi}) \sum_{o} p(o|s', \pi_a) V^{\pi_o}(s')$$

where π_o is the (t-1)-step policy subtree of π associated with o

• But we need value functions over beliefs, not states:

$$V^{\pi}(b) = \sum_{s \in S} b(s) V^{\pi}(s)$$

• For compactness, we write the state-value function as an α -vector $\alpha_{\pi} = \langle V_{\pi}(s_1), \ldots, V_{\pi}(s_{|S|}) \rangle$ such that:

$$V^{\pi}(b) = b \cdot \alpha_{\pi}$$

• The optimal value function is thus:

$$V^*(b) = \max_{\pi} b \cdot \alpha_{\pi}$$

Piecewise-linear convex value functions



POMDP action selection



Dominated policy trees



POMDP value functions in 3D



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POMDP planning

• Value iteration [Sondik 1971, Monahan 1982]

- Given set Π_{t-1} of undominated (t-1)-step policy trees
- Construct all $|A||\Pi_{t-1}|^{|O|}$ *t*-step policy trees by extension
- Prune dominated policy trees to form Π_t
- Faster: linear support [Chang 1988] & Witness [Cassandra et al. 1997]
- Approximate: point-based value iteration [Pineau et al. 2003]
- More scalable: on-line POMDP planning [Ross et al. 2008]

Infinite horizon planning

- Infinite horizon POMDP planning is undecidable!
- Optimal value function may have infinite facets
- Finite horizon planning may still converge for large t
- Yields finite state machine, e.g., infinite horizon tiger for $b_0 = 0.5, 0.5$:



Bayes-optimal reinforcement learning

- Problem of learning in an MDP is cast as one of planning in a POMDP where the hidden state corresponds to the unknown model parameters: $s_{POMDP} = (s_{MDP}, T, R)$
- Like any other POMDP, this POMDP can be treated like a belief MDP: s_{BMDP} = b(s_{POMDP})
- However, since *s_{MDP}* is directly observed, only a belief over *T* and *R* is necessary, thus:

$$s_{BMDP} = b(s_{POMDP}) = b(s_{MDP}, T, R) = (s_{MDP}, b(T, R))$$

DRQN [Hausknecht & Stone 2015]



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Deep Variational RL [Igl et al. 2018]



VariBAD [Zintgraf et al. 2019]



Multi-Agent Paradigm



Multi-Agent Systems are Everywhere



Types of Multi-Agent Systems

• Cooperative:

- Shared team reward
- Coordination problem

• Competitive:

- Zero-sum games
- Individual opposing rewards
- Minimax equilibria

• Mixed:

- General-sum games
- Nash equilibria
- What is the question? [Shoham et al. 2007]

Coordination Problems are Everywhere



Setting



(Figure by Jakob Foerster)

Multi-Agent MDP

- All agents see the global state s
- Individual actions: $u^a \in U$
- State transitions: $P(s'|s, \mathbf{u}) : S \times \mathbf{U} \times S \rightarrow [0, 1]$
- Shared team reward: $r(s, \mathbf{u}) : S imes \mathbf{U} o \mathbb{R}$
- Equivalent to an MDP with a factored action space

Dec-POMDP

- Observation function: $O(s, a) : S \times A \rightarrow Z$
- Action-observation history: $\tau^a \in T \equiv (Z \times U)^*$
- Decentralised policies: $\pi^a(u^a|\tau^a): T \times U \rightarrow [0,1]$
- Natural decentralisation: communication and sensory constraints
- Artificial decentralisation: improve tractability
- Centralised learning of decentralised policies

The Predictability / Exploitation Dilemma

- Exploitation:
 - Maximising performance requires collecting reward
 - ► In a single-agent setting, this requires *exploiting* observations
- Predictability:
 - Dec-POMDP agents cannot explicitly communicate
 - Coordination requires *predictability*: "stick to the plan!"
 - Predictability can require ignoring private information

When does the benefit of exploiting private observations outweigh the cost in predictability?

Independent Learning

- Independent *Q*-learning [Tan 1993]
 - Each agent learns independently with its own *Q*-function
 - Treats other agents as part of the environment
- Independent actor-critic [Foerster et al. 2018]
 - Each agent learns independently with its own actor-critic
 - Treats other agents as part of the environment
- Speed learning with *parameter sharing*
 - Different inputs, including a, induce different behaviour
 - Still independent: value functions condition only on τ^a and u^a
- Limitations:
 - Nonstationary learning
 - Hard to learn to coordinate

Centralised Critics [Lowe et al. 2017; Foerster et al. 2018]

Centralised $V(s, \tau)$ or $Q(s, \tau, \mathbf{u})
ightarrow$ hard greedification ightarrow actor-critic



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Factored Joint Value Functions

• Factored value functions [Guestrin et al. 2003] can improve scalability:

$$Q_{tot}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{u}; \boldsymbol{ heta}) = \sum_{e=1}^{E} Q_e(\tau^e, \mathbf{u}^e; \theta^e)$$

where each e indicates a subset of the agents



Value Decomposition Networks [Sunehag et al., 2017]

• Most extreme factorisation: one per agent:

$$Q_{tot}(\boldsymbol{ au}, \mathbf{u}; \boldsymbol{ heta}) = \sum_{a=1}^{N} Q_a(\tau^a, u^a; \theta^a)$$



Decentralisability

• Added benefit of decentralising the max and arg max:

$$\max_{\mathbf{u}} Q_{tot}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{u}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{u^a} \max_{u^a} Q_a(\tau^a, u^a; \theta^a)$$

$$\arg\max_{\mathbf{u}} Q_{tot}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{u}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \begin{pmatrix} \arg\max_{u^1} Q_1(\tau^1, u^1; \theta^1) \\ \vdots \\ \arg\max_{u^n} Q_n(\tau^n, u^n; \theta^n) \end{pmatrix}$$

• No more hard greedification \implies Q-learning, not actor-critic:

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{i=1}^{b} \left[\left(y_i^{\text{tot}} - Q_{tot}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{u}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \right)^2 \right],$$

$$y_i^{\text{tot}} = r_i + \gamma \max_{\mathbf{u}'} Q_{tot}(\boldsymbol{\tau}'_i, \mathbf{u}'; \boldsymbol{\theta}^-)$$

QMIX's Monotonicity Constraint

To decentralise max / arg max, it suffices to enforce: $\frac{\partial Q_{tot}}{\partial Q_a} \ge 0, \forall a \in A$



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Representational Capacity



Agent 1

Bootstrapping



$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{i=1}^{b} \left[\left(y_i^{\text{tot}} - Q_{tot}(\boldsymbol{\tau}, \mathbf{u}, \boldsymbol{s}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \right)^2 \right],$$
$$y_i^{\text{tot}} = r_i + \gamma \max_{\mathbf{u}'} Q_{tot}(\boldsymbol{\tau}'_i, \mathbf{u}', \boldsymbol{s}'; \boldsymbol{\theta}^-)$$

Two-Step Game



Two-Step Game Results



QMIX [Rashid et al. 2018]



- Agent network: represents $Q_i(\tau^a, u^a; \theta^a)$
- Mixing network: represents $Q_{tot}(au)$ using nonnegative weights
- Hypernetwork: generates weights of hypernetwork based on global s

Random Matrix Games (The Students Were Right)



StarCraft Multi-Agent Challenge (SMAC) [Samvelyan et al. 2019]



https://github.com/oxwhirl/smac https://github.com/oxwhirl/pymarl

Partial Observability in SMAC



Cyan = sight range Red = shooting range

SMAC Maps

Name	Ally Units	Enemy Units
2s3z	2 Stalkers & 3 Zealots	2 Stalkers & 3 Zealots
3s5z	3 Stalkers & 5 Zealots	3 Stalkers & 5 Zealots
1c3s5z	1 Colossus, 3 Stalkers & 5 Zealots	1 Colossus, 3 Stalkers & 5 Zealots
5m_vs_6m	5 Marines	6 Marines
$10m_vs_11m$	10 Marines	11 Marines
27m_vs_30m	27 Marines	30 Marines
3s5z_vs_3s6z	3 Stalkers & 5 Zealots	3 Stalkers & 6 Zealots
MMM2	1 Medivac, 2 Marauders & 7 Marines	1 Medivac, 3 Marauders & 8 Marines
2s_vs_1sc	2 Stalkers	1 Spine Crawler
3s_vs_5z	3 Stalkers	5 Zealots
6h_vs_8z	6 Hydralisks	8 Zealots
bane_vs_bane	20 Zerglings & 4 Banelings	20 Zerglings & 4 Banelings
2c_vs_64zg	2 Colossi	64 Zerglings
corridor	6 Zealots	24 Zerglings

Overall Results (The Students Were Right)



State Ablations



Linear Ablations



Learned Mixing Functions (2c_vs_64zg)





t = 0

t = 50

Multi-Layer Linear Mixing (Regression)



Multi-Layer Linear Mixing (SMAC)



Tanh Activation











QMIX Takeaways

- Value function factorisation is crucial
- Flexible conditioning on central state is crucial
- Richly parameterised mixing is crucial
- Nonlinear mixing is not crucial (on SMAC)

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