Reinforcement Learning in the brain

• Reading: Y Niv, Reinforcement learning in the brain, 2009.



Monday, 8 March 2010







conditioned suppression
 http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ZIZekx1P1g4

autoshaping

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cacwAvgg8EA

Reinforcement learning and the brain: the problems we face all day

- Decision making at all levels
- Reinforcement learning: maximize reward and minimize punishments;
- Sutton 1978; Sutton & Barto, 1990, 1998.
- Why is this hard: (1) rewards/ punishment may be delayed; (2) outcome may depend on series of actions (credit assignment problem)



Monday, 8 March 2010

Rescorla & Wagner (1972)

- Most influential model of animal learning, explains puzzling behavioural phenomena such as blocking, overshadowing and conditioned inhibition.
- The idea: error-driven learning:

Learning occurs only when events violate expectations.

Change in value is proportional to the difference between actual and predicted outcome

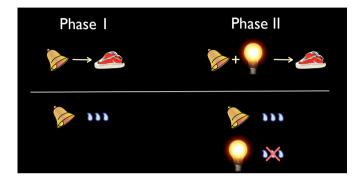
$$V_{new}(CS_i) = V_{old}(CS_i) + \eta \left[\lambda_{US} - \sum_i V_{old}(CS_i) \right].$$

- learning only occurs when events not predicted
- predictions due to different stimuli are summed to form the total prediction in a trial.

Monday, 8 March 2010 Monday, 8 March 2010

How do we know that animals use an error-correcting rule?

- blocking
- interpretation: the bell fully predicts the food and the presence of the light adds no new predictive information -- therefore no association develops to the light.



Monday, 8 March 2010

Temporal Difference (TD) learning (1)

- Consider a succession of states S, following each other with $P(S_{t+1}|S_t)$
- Rewards observed in each state with probability $P(r|S_t)$
- Useful quantity to predict is the expected sum of all future rewards, given current state S_t , = value of state S, $V(S_t)$

$$V(S_t) = E\left[\left.r_t + \gamma r_{t+1} + \gamma^2 r_{t+2} + ...\right| S_t
ight] = E\left[\left.\sum_{i=t}^{\infty} \gamma^{i-t} r_i\right| S_t
ight]$$

- Discount factor introduced to make sure that the sum is finite, but also humans and animals prefer earlier rewards to later ones
- incorporating probabilities $P(S_{t+1}|S_t)$ and $P(r|S_t)$, we get recursive form

$$\begin{split} V(S_t) &= E\left[r_t | S_t\right] + \gamma E\left[r_{t+1} | S_t\right] + \gamma^2 E\left[r_{t+2} | S_t\right] + \dots = \\ &= E\left[r_t | S_t\right] + \gamma \sum_{S_{t+1}} P(S_{t+1} | S_t) \left(E\left[r_{t+1} | S_{t+1}\right] + \gamma E\left[r_{t+2} | S_{t+1}\right] + \dots\right) = \\ &= P(r | S_t) + \gamma \sum_{S_t} P(S_{t+1} | S_t) V(S_{t+1}) \end{split}$$

Limitations of Rescorla & Wagner (1972)

does not extend to 2d order conditioning.
 A->B->reward; A gains reward predictive value

- Basic unit of learning = conditioning trial as discrete temporal object fails to account for the temporal relations between condition and unconditional stimuli within a trial
- TD learning as a means to overcome these limitations = extension of Rescorla Wagner to take into account timing of events.

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Temporal Difference (TD) learning (2)

• When estimated values are incorrect, there is a discrepancy between 2 sides of equation: prediction error:

$$\delta_t = P(r|S_t) + \gamma \sum_{S_{t+1}} P(S_{t+1}|S_t)V(S_{t+1}) - V(S_t).$$

ullet prediction error is a natural signal for improving estimates $V(S_t)$, giving

$$V(S_t)_{new} = V(S_t)_{old} + \eta \cdot \delta_t$$

- = Optimal learning rule, basis of "dynamic programming".
- One problem: assumes knowledge of $P(S_{t+1}|S_t)$ and $P(r|S_t)$ which is unreasonable in basic learning situations.
- Model-free Approximation which can be formally justified:

$$\delta_t = r_t + \gamma V(S_{t+1}) - V(S_t)$$

~ current reward+next prediction - current prediction

Temporal Difference (TD) learning (3)

• Resulting learning rule:

$$V_{new}(S_t) = V_{old}(S_t) + \eta(r_t + \gamma V(S_{t+1}) - V(S_t)).$$

• Incorporating Rescorla-Wagner idea that predictions due to different stimuli are additive:

$$V_{new}(S_{i,t}) = V_{old}(S_{i,t}) + \eta \left[r_t + \gamma \sum_{S_k@t+1} V_{old}(S_{k,t+1}) - \sum_{S_j@t} V_{old}(S_{j,t}) \right],$$

•This is TD learning rule as proposed by Sutton & Barton (1990)

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Actor/Critic Methods

- · How can such action selection be learned?
- problem of credit assignment
- RL : base action selection not only on immediate outcomes but also future value predictions.
- Barto (1983) shows that credit assignment problem can be solved by a learning system comprised of 2 neurons-like elements:
- the critic, uses TD learning to construct values of states
- the actor, selects actions at each state using prediction error.

Idea: if positive prediction error is encountered, current action has improved prospects for the future and should be repeated.

Learning of policies:

$$\pi(S,a) = p(a|S) \qquad \pi(S,a)_{new} = \pi(S,a)_{old} + \eta_{\pi} \delta_t$$

Instrumental conditioning: adding control

- Animals not only learn associations between stimuli and reward but also between actions and reward
- Learning to select actions that will increase the probability of rewarding events and decrease the probability of aversive events.
- rat lever pressing in boxes -- operant conditioning (Skinner)



http://www.voutube.com/watch?v=cl7ir9EVcil&feature=related

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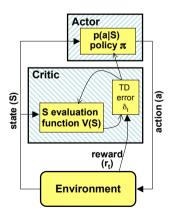


Figure 1: Actor/Critic architecture: The state S_t and reinforcement signal r_t are conveyed to the Critic by the environment. The Critic then computes a temporal difference prediction error (equation 8) based on these. The prediction error is used to train the state value predictions V(S) in the Critic, as well as the policy $\pi(S,a)$ in the Actor. Note that the Actor does not receive direct information regarding the actual outcomes of its actions. Rather, the TD prediction error serves as a surrogate reinforcement signal, telling the Actor whether the (immediate and future expected) outcomes are better or worse than previously expected. Adapted from Sutton & Barto, 1998.

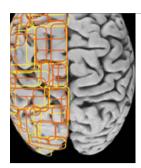
Q learning

- Watkins (1989)
- Alternative: explicitly learn the predictive value (future expected rewards) of taking an action at each state, = learn the value of state-action pairs Q(S,a)
- learning rule:

$$Q(S_t, a_t)_{new} = Q(S_t, a_t)_{old} + \eta \delta_t$$

• TD prediction error:

$$\delta_t = r_t + \max_a \gamma Q(S_{t+1}, a) - Q(S_t, a_t)$$

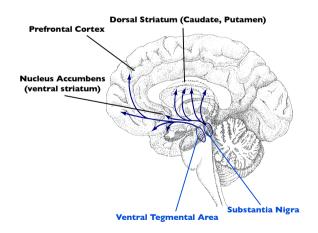


How does the brain do reinforcement learning?

• "the largest sucess of computational neuroscience", dopamine and prediction error

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What is Dopamine?



Parkinson's

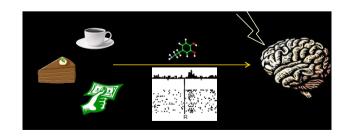
Disease: motor control/initiation

- addiction, gambling, natural rewards
- also involved in : working memory, novel situations, ADHD, schizophrenia

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Former idea: Dopamine signals reward (Wise, '80s)

- Initial idea: dopamine might represent reward signals
- neuroleptics (dopamine antagonists) cause anhaedonia
- brain self stimulation by rats http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7HbAFYiejvo
- dopamine important for reward mediated conditioning

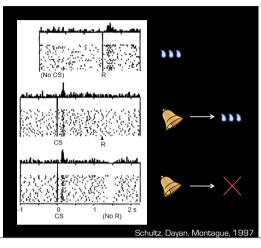


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New idea: phasic dopamine signals prediction error

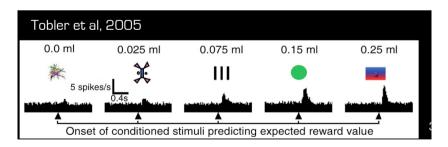
- Schultz et al 90s
- monkeys underwent simple instrumental or pavlovian conditioning
- disappearance of dopaminergic response at reward delivery after learning
- if reward is not presented, response depression below basal firing at

expected time of reward.



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• checking that size of response at onset of CS is proportional to reward size



dopamine and prediction

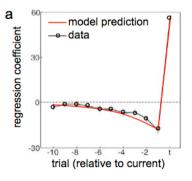
- The idea: dopamine encodes prediction error (Montague, Dayan, Barto, 1996)
- provided normative basis for understanding not only why dopamine neurons fire when they do, but also what the function of these firing might be.
- evidence for dopamine dependent, or dopamine gated plasticity in synapses between cortex and striatum.

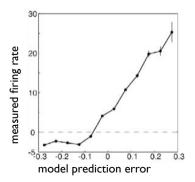
dopamine afterert X

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Prediction error: stringent tests

- Bayer & Glimcher, Neuron, 2005
- firing rates of dopamine neurons following delivery of reward encode a computation reflecting the difference between the current reward and a recency-weighted average of previous rewards





fMRI data

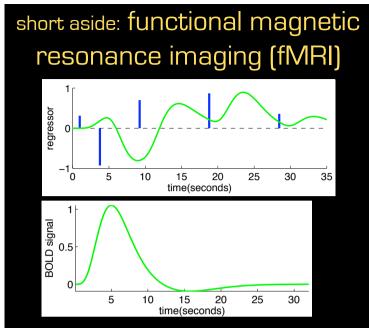
- fMRI to study the underpinnings of RL in the human brain
- model driven analysis -- search the brain for predicted hidden variables that should control learning and decision making, eg state values and prediction errors.
- prediction errors signals found in nucleus accumbens and orbito frontal cortex, both major dopaminergic targets.
- O Doherty et al (2004) show that FMRI correlates of prediction error signals can be dissociated in dorsal and ventral striatum according to whether instrumental conditioning vs pavlovian condition, -- supporting an Actor/Critic architecture.

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Summary

- Optimal learning depends on prediction and control
- the problem: prediction of future reward
- the algorithm: TD learning
- neural implementation: dopamine dependent learning in corticostriatal synapses in basal ganglia
- RL has revolutionised how we think of learning in the brain implications for the understanding of disorders, such as Parkinson's and schizophrenia, as well as addiction.

Monday, 8 March 2010



- 2

Monday, 8 March 2010