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A NEW REINFORCEMENT SCHEME FOR STOCHASTIC LEARNING AUTOMATA
Application to Automatic Control

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Abstract: A Learning Automaton is a learning entity that learns the optimal action to use from its set of possible actions. It does this by performing actions toward an environment and analyzes the resulting response. The response, being both good and bad, results in behaviour change to the automaton (the automaton will learn based on this response). This behaviour change is often called reinforcement algorithm. The term stochastic emphasizes the adaptive nature of the automaton: environment output is stochastically related to the automaton action. The reinforcement scheme presented in this paper is shown to satisfy all necessary and sufficient conditions for absolute expediency for a stationary environment. An automaton using this scheme is guaranteed to „do better” at every time step than at the previous step. Some simulation results are presented, which prove that our algorithm converges to a solution faster than one previously defined in (Ünsal, 1999). Using Stochastic Learning Automata techniques, we introduce a decision/control method for intelligent vehicles, in infrastructure managed architecture. The aim is to design an automata system that can learn the best possible action based on the data received from on-board sensors or from the localization system of highway infrastructure. A multi-agent approach is used for effective implementation. Each vehicle has associated a “driver” agent, hosted on a JADE platform.

1 INTRODUCTION

The past and present research on vehicle control emphasizes the importance of new methodologies in order to obtain stable longitudinal and lateral control. In this paper, we consider stochastic learning automata as intelligent controller within our model for an Intelligent Vehicle Control System.

An automaton is a machine or control mechanism designed to automatically follow a predetermined sequence of operations or respond to encoded instructions. The term stochastic emphasizes the adaptive nature of the automaton we describe here. The automaton described here does not follow predetermined rules, but adapts to changes in its environment. This adaptation is the result of the learning process (Barto, 2003). Learning is defined as any permanent change in behavior as a result of past experience, and a learning system should therefore have the ability to improve its behavior with time, toward a final goal.

The stochastic automaton attempts a solution of the problem without any information on the optimal action (initially, equal probabilities are attached to all the actions). One action is selected at random, the response from the environment is observed, action probabilities are updated based on that response, and the procedure is repeated. A stochastic automaton acting as described to improve its performance is called a learning automaton. The algorithm that guarantees the desired learning process is called a reinforcement scheme (Moody, 2004).

Mathematically, the environment is defined by a triple \( \{ \alpha, c, \beta \} \) where \( \alpha = \{ \alpha_1, \alpha_2, ..., \alpha_n \} \) represents a finite set of actions being the input to the environment, \( \beta = \{ \beta_1, \beta_2 \} \) represents a binary response set, and \( c = \{ c_1, c_2, ..., c_n \} \) is a set of penalty...
probabilities, where \( c_i \) is the probability that action \( \alpha \) will result in an unfavorable response. Given that \( \beta(n) = 0 \) is a favorable outcome and \( \beta(n) = 1 \) is an unfavorable outcome at time instant \( n (n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots) \), the element \( c_i \) of \( c \) is defined mathematically by:

\[
c_i = P(\beta(n) = 1 | \alpha(n) = \alpha_i) \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, r
\]

The environment can further be split up in two types, stationary and nonstationary. In a stationary environment the penalty probabilities will never change. In a nonstationary environment the penalties will change over time.

In order to describe the reinforcement schemes, is defined \( p(n) \), a vector of action probabilities:

\[
p_i(n) = P(\alpha(n) = \alpha_i), \quad i = 1, r
\]

Updating action probabilities can be represented as follows:

\[
p(n+1) = T(p(n), \alpha(n), \beta(n))
\]

where \( T \) is a mapping. This formula says the next action probability \( p(n+1) \) is updated based on the current probability \( p(n) \), the input from the environment and the resulting action. If \( p(n+1) \) is a linear function of \( p(n) \), the reinforcement scheme is said to be linear; otherwise it is termed nonlinear.

### 2 REINFORCEMENT SCHEMES

#### 2.1 Performance Evaluation

Consider a stationary random environment with penalty probabilities \( \{c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_r\} \) defined above.

We define a quantity \( M(n) \) as the average penalty for a given action probability vector:

\[
M(n) = \sum_{i=1}^{r} c_i p_i(n)
\]

An automaton is absolutely expedient if the expected value of the average penalty at one iteration step is less than it was at the previous step for all steps: \( M(n+1) < M(n) \) for all \( n \) (Rivero, 2003).

The algorithm which we will present in this paper is derived from a nonlinear absolutely expedient reinforcement scheme presented by (Ünsal, 1999).

#### 2.2 Absolutely Expedient Reinforcement Schemes

The reinforcement scheme is the basis of the learning process for learning automata. The general solution for absolutely expedient schemes was found by (Lakshmivarahan, 1973).

A learning automaton may send its action to multiple environments at the same time. In that case, the action of the automaton results in a vector of responses from environments (or “teachers”). In a stationary N-teacher environment, if an automaton produced the action \( \alpha_i \), and the environment responses are \( \beta_j \), then the vector of action probabilities \( p(n) \) is updated as follows (Ünsal, 1999):

\[
p_i(n+1) = p_i(n) + \left[ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \beta_j^k \right] \phi_i(p(n)) - \left[ -1 - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \beta_j^k \right] \psi_i(p(n))
\]

for all \( j \neq i \) where the functions \( \phi_i \) and \( \psi_i \) satisfy the following conditions:

\[
\frac{\phi_i(p(n))}{p_i(n)} = \frac{\phi_j(p(n))}{p_j(n)} = \lambda(p(n)) \quad (2)
\]

\[
\frac{\psi_i(p(n))}{p_i(n)} = \frac{\psi_j(p(n))}{p_j(n)} = \mu(p(n))
\]

\[
p_i(n) + \sum_{j \neq i} \phi_j(p(n)) > 0 \quad (3)
\]

\[
p_i(n) - \sum_{j \neq i} \psi_j(p(n)) < 1 \quad (4)
\]

\[
p_i(n) + \psi_j(p(n)) > 0 \quad (5)
\]

\[
p_i(n) - \phi_j(p(n)) < 1 \quad (6)
\]

for all \( j \in \{1, \ldots, r\} \setminus \{i\} \).

The conditions (3)-(6) ensure that \( 0 < p_k < 1, \ k = 1, r \) (Stoica, 2007).

**Theorem.** If the functions \( \lambda(p(n)) \) and \( \mu(p(n)) \) satisfy the following conditions:
\[
\lambda(p(n)) \leq 0 \\
\mu(p(n)) \leq 0 \\
\lambda(p(n)) + \mu(p(n)) < 0
\]  
then the automaton with the reinforcement scheme in (1) is absolutely expedient in a stationary environment. 
The proof of this theorem can be found in (Baba, 1984).

### 3 A NEW NONLINEAR REINFORCEMENT SCHEME

Because the above theorem is also valid for a single-teacher model, we can define a single environment response that is a function \( f \) of many teacher outputs.

Thus, we can update the above algorithm as follows:
\[
p_j(n+1) = p_j(n) + f \ast (\theta \ast \delta \ast H(n)) \ast [1 - p_j(n)] - (1 - f) \ast (-\theta) \ast [1 - p_j(n)]
\]
\[
p_j(n+1) = p_j(n) - f \ast (\theta \ast \delta \ast H(n)) \ast \ast p_j(n) + (1 - f) \ast (-\theta) \ast p_j(n)
\]  
for all \( j \neq i \), i.e.: 
\[
\psi_j(p(n)) = -\theta \ast p_j(n)
\]
\[
\phi_j(p(n)) = -\theta \ast \delta \ast H(n) \ast p_j(n)
\]
where learning parameters \( \theta \) and \( \delta \) are real values which satisfy: 
\( 0 < \theta < 1 \) and \( 0 < \theta \ast \delta < 1 \).

The function \( H \) is defined as follows:
\[
H(n) = \min[l]; \max[\min\left\{ \frac{p_j(n)}{\theta \ast \delta \ast (1 - p_j(n)) - \varepsilon, \right\} - \varepsilon}
\]
\[
\left\{ \frac{1 - p_j(n)}{\theta \ast \delta \ast p_j(n) - \varepsilon} \right\}_{j \neq i}
\]

Parameter \( \varepsilon \) is an arbitrarily small positive real number.

Our reinforcement scheme differs from the one given in (Ünsal, 1999) by the definition of these two functions: \( H \) and \( \phi_j \).

The proof that all the conditions of the reinforcement scheme (1) and theorem (7) are satisfied can be found in (Stoica, 2007).

In conclusion, we state the algorithm given in equations (8) is absolutely expedient in a stationary environment.

### 4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

#### 4.1 Problem Formulation

To show that our algorithm converges to a solution faster than the one given in (Ünsal, 1999), let us consider a simple example. Figure 1 illustrates a grid world in which a robot navigates. Shaded cells represent barriers.

![Figure 1: A grid world for robot navigation.](image)

The current position of the robot is marked by a circle. Navigation is done using four actions \( \alpha = \{N,S,E,W\} \), the actions denoting the four possible movements along the coordinate directions.

Because in given situation there is a single optimal action, we stop the execution when the probability of the optimal action reaches a certain value (0.9999).

#### 4.2 Comparative Results

We compared two reinforcement schemes using these four actions and two different initial conditions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>( \delta )</th>
<th>4 actions with ( p_{opt}(0) = 1/4 )</th>
<th>4 actions with ( p_{opt}(0) = 0.0005 )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \theta )</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>644.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>62.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>74.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>70.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data shown in Table 1 are the results of two different initial conditions where in first case all
probabilities are initially the same and in second case the optimal action initially has a small probability value (0.0005), with only one action receiving reward (i.e., optimal action).

Comparing values from corresponding columns, we conclude that our algorithm converges to a solution faster than the one given in (Ünsal, 1999).

5 USING STOCHASTIC LEARNING AUTOMATA FOR INTELLIGENT VEHICLE CONTROL

The task of creating intelligent systems that we can rely on is not trivial. In this section, we present a method for intelligent vehicle control, having as theoretical background Stochastic Learning Automata. We visualize the planning layer of an intelligent vehicle as an automaton (or automata group) in a nonstationary environment. We attempt to find a way to make intelligent decisions here, having as objectives conformance with traffic parameters imposed by the highway infrastructure (management system and global control), and improved safety by minimizing crash risk.

The aim here is to design an automata system that can learn the best possible action based on the data received from on-board sensors, or from roadside-to-vehicle communications. For our model, we assume that an intelligent vehicle is capable of two sets of lateral and longitudinal actions. Lateral actions are LEFT (shift to left lane), RIGHT (shift to right lane) and LINE_OK (stay in current lane). Longitudinal actions are ACC (accelerate), DEC (decelerate) and SPEED_OK (keep current speed). An autonomous vehicle must be able to “sense” the environment around itself. Therefore, we assume that there are four different sensors modules on board the vehicle (the headway module, two side modules and a speed module), in order to detect the presence of a vehicle traveling in front of the vehicle or in the immediately adjacent lane and to know the current speed of the vehicle.

These sensor modules evaluate the information received from the on-board sensors or from the highway infrastructure in the light of the current automata actions, and send a response to the automata. Our basic model for planning and coordination of lane changing and speed control is shown in Figure 2.

The response from physical environment is a combination of outputs from the sensor modules. Because an input parameter for the decision blocks is the action chosen by the stochastic automaton, is necessary to use two distinct functions $F_1$ and $F_2$ for mapping the outputs of decision blocks in inputs for the two learning automata, namely the longitudinal automaton and respectively the lateral automaton.

After updating the action probability vectors in both learning automata, using the nonlinear reinforcement scheme presented in section 3, the outputs from stochastic automata are transmitted to the regulation layer. The regulation layer handles the actions received from the two automata in a distinct manner, using for each of them a regulation
buffer. If an action received was rewarded, it will be introduced in the regulation buffer of the corresponding automaton, else in buffer will be introduced a certain value which denotes a penalized action by the physical environment. The regulation layer does not carry out the action chosen immediately; instead, it carries out an action only if it is recommended $k$ times consecutively by the automaton, where $k$ is the length of the regulation buffer. After an action is executed, the action probability vector is initialized to $1/r$, where $r$ is the number of actions. When an action is executed, regulation buffer is initialized also.

6 SENSOR MODULES

The four teacher modules mentioned above are decision blocks that calculate the response (reward/penalty), based on the last chosen action of automaton. Table 2 describes the output of decision blocks for side sensors.

Table 2: Outputs from the Left/Right Sensor Module.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actions</th>
<th>Vehicle in sensor range or no adjacent lane</th>
<th>No vehicle in sensor range and adjacent lane exists</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LINE_OK</td>
<td>0/0</td>
<td>0/0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEFT</td>
<td>1/0</td>
<td>0/0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RIGHT</td>
<td>0/1</td>
<td>0/0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Outputs from the Headway Module.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actions</th>
<th>Vehicle in range (at a close frontal distance)</th>
<th>No vehicle in range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LINE_OK</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEFT</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RIGHT</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPEED_OK</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEC</td>
<td>0*</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in Table 2, a penalty response is received from the left sensor module when the action is LEFT and there is a vehicle in the left or the vehicle is already traveling on the leftmost lane. There is a similar situation for the right sensor module.

The Headway (Frontal) Module is defined as shown in Table 3. If there is a vehicle at a close distance (< admissible distance), a penalty response is sent to the automaton for actions LINE_OK, SPEED_OK and ACC. All other actions (LEFT, RIGHT, DEC) are encouraged, because they may serve to avoid a collision.

The Speed Module compares the actual speed with the desired speed, and based on the action chosen send a feedback to the longitudinal automaton.

Table 4: Outputs from the Speed Module.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Actions</th>
<th>Speed: too slow</th>
<th>Acceptable speed</th>
<th>Speed: too fast</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SPEED_OK</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACC</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEC</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reward response indicated by 0* (from the Headway Sensor Module) is different than the normal reward response, indicated by 0: this reward response has a higher priority and must override a possible penalty from other modules.

7 A MULTI-AGENT SYSTEM FOR INTELLIGENT VEHICLE CONTROL

In this section is described an implementation of a simulator for the Intelligent Vehicle Control System, in a multi-agent approach. The entire system was implemented in Java, and is based on JADE platform (Bigus, 2001).

In figure 3 is showed the class diagram of the simulator. Each vehicle has associated a JADE agent (DriverAgent), responsible for the intelligent control. “Driving” means a continuous learning process, sustained by the two stochastic learning automata, namely the longitudinal automaton and respectively the lateral automaton.

The response of the physical environment is a combination of the outputs of all four sensor modules. The implementation of this combination for each automaton (longitudinal respectively lateral) is showed in figure 4 (the value 0* was substituted by 2).
// Longitudinal Automaton
public double reward(int action){
    int combine;
    combine=Math.max(speedModule(action),
                   frontModule(action));
    if (combine == 2) combine = 0;
    return combine;
}
// Lateral Automaton
public double reward(int action){
    int combine;
    combine=Math.max(
                   leftRightModule(action),
                   frontModule(action));
    return combine;
}

Figure 3: The class diagram of the simulator.

Figure 4: The physical environment response.

8 CONCLUSIONS

Reinforcement learning has attracted rapidly increasing interest in the machine learning and artificial intelligence communities. Its promise is beguiling - a way of programming agents by reward and punishment without needing to specify how the task (i.e., behavior) is to be achieved. Reinforcement learning allows, at least in principle, to bypass the problems of building an explicit model of the behavior to be synthesized and its counterpart, a meaningful learning base (supervised learning).

The reinforcement scheme presented in this paper satisfies all necessary and sufficient conditions for absolute expediency in a stationary environment and the nonlinear algorithm based on this scheme is found to converge to the "optimal" action faster than nonlinear schemes previously defined in (Ünsal, 1999).

Using this new reinforcement scheme was developed a simulator for an Intelligent Vehicle Control System, in a multi-agent approach. The entire system was implemented in Java, and is based on JADE platform.

REFERENCES


