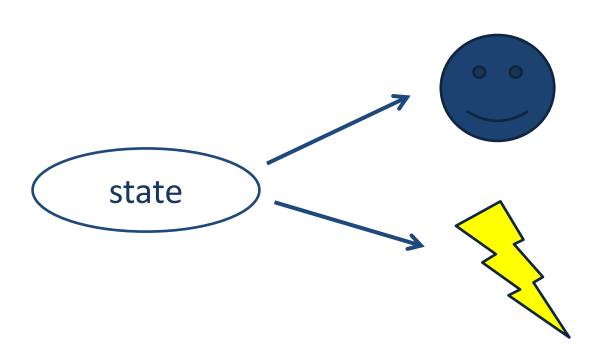
Genela Morris
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the role of dopamine in planning and action

ON NEURAL CORRELATES OF REINFORCEMENT LEARNING

Reinforcement learning: finding correct action by trial and error



Reinforcement learning the basics

Supervised learning —
all knowing teacher, detailed feedback
Reinforcement learning —
scalar (correct/incorrect) feedback
Unsupervised learning —
self organization

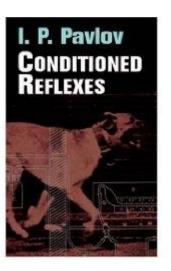
Reinforcement learning: The law of effect

"The Law of Effect is that: Of several responses made to the same situation, those which are accompanied or closely followed by satisfaction to the animal will, other things being equal, be more firmly connected with situation, so that, when it recurs, they will be more likely to recur"

Edward Lee Thorndike (1911)

Early attempts at modeling

- By associative rules
- Classical conditioning



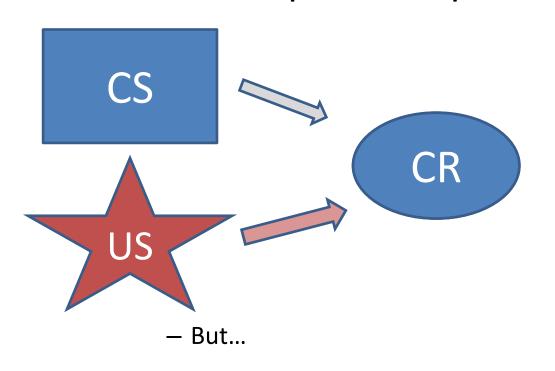
Properties of classical conditioning

(Pavlov 1927)

- Acquisition.
- Partial Reinforcement (probabilistic).
- Generalization.
- Interstimulus Interval (ISI) effects.
- Intertrial Interval (ITI) effects.

So far...

 A simple association (coincidence, Hebbian) model can explain the phenomenon.



- Partial Reinforcemer (probabilistic).
- Generalization.
- Interstimulus
 Interval (ISI) effects.
- Intertrial Interval (ITI) effects.

Classical conditioning

The Elements:

US: Unconditioned stimulus

UR: Unconditioned response

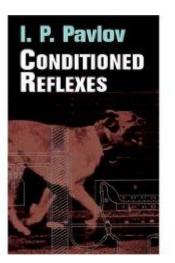
NS: Neutral stimulus

CS: Conditioned stimulus

CS1: Conditioned stimulus 1

CS2: Conditioned stimulus 2

CR: Conditioned response



Properties of classical conditioning

(Cnt'd)

- Conditioned Inhibition
- latent inhibition
- Relative validity (Wagner 1968).
- Blocking (Kamin 1968)

•

CS must RELIABLY predict US

Which simple association can't explain

Learning occurs not because two events co-occur, but because that co-occurrence is otherwise UNPREDICTED

Rescorla-Wagner rule (1972)

Learning to predict reward R given stimulus U=1

Goal: Form a prediction V of the reward of the

form:

V=ωU

And learn to change ω :

 $\Delta \omega = \epsilon (R-V)U$

Where:

U=CS availability (0,1);

V=reward prediction:

R=reward availability (0,1):

 ω = weight of the connection

between U and V

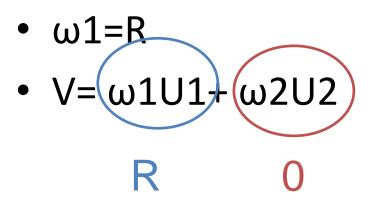
 ε = learning rate

R-V = prediction error

After learning of consistent pairing: $\omega=R$

Blocking with Rescorla Wagner

Given U1, U2 and R, after U1 has been learnt:



Prediction error: R-V=0
 And no learning occurs for ω2

Critical problems, for control

1. Exploration/exploitation



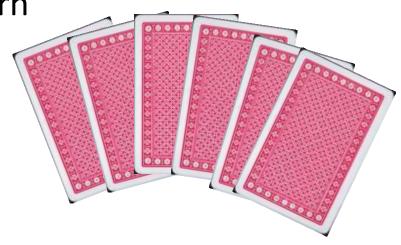


Solutions, for control

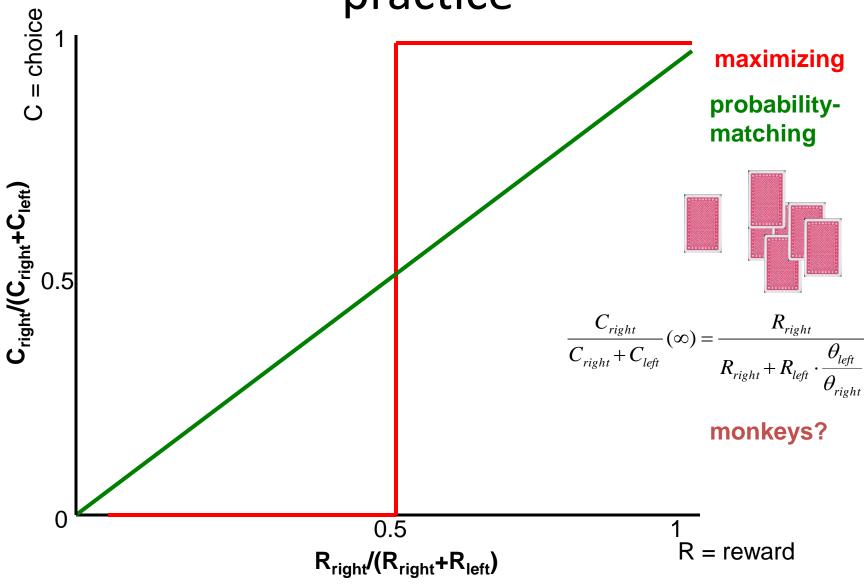
- 1. Variability in response policy
 - Greedy ← → Random (gambling)

2. Based on expected return

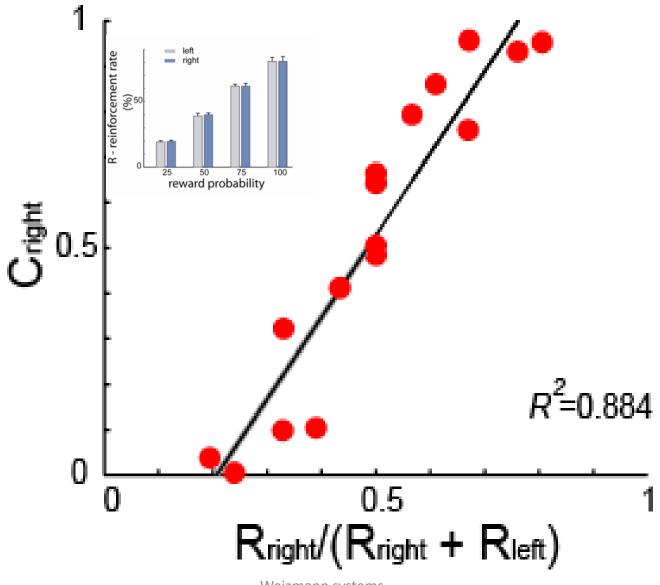




Decision behaviour, theory and practice



Monkeys' decisions: probability matching



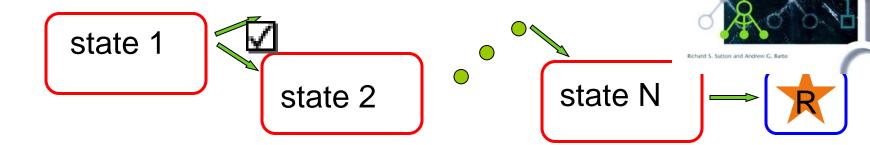
... whether optimal or not

Actions are related to their consequences

Critical problems in reinforcement learning (and in Rescorla-Wagner)

Learning

2. Temporal credit assignment



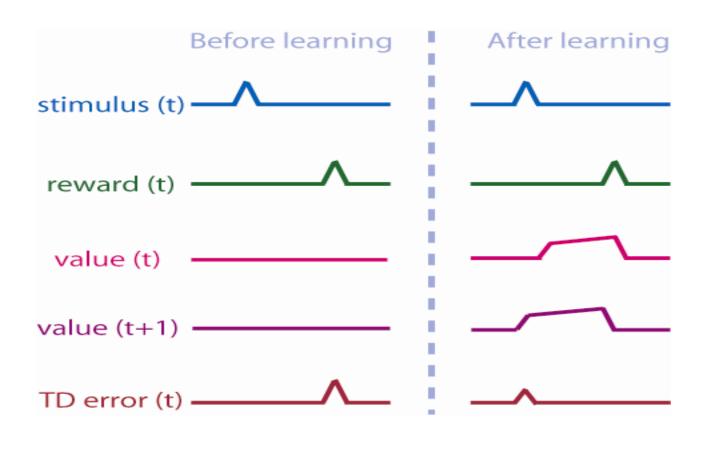
TD learning - solution for temporal credit assignment

- 1. Estimate value of current state $(V_t = r_t + \gamma' r_{t+1} + \cdots)$: (discounted) sum of expected rewards
- 2. Measure 'truer' value of current state: reward at present state + estimated value of next state $(r_t + \gamma V_{t+1})$
- 3. TD error $\delta_t = r_t + \gamma V_{t+1} V_t$
- 4. Use TD error to improve 1 $(V_t^{k+1}=V_t^k+\eta \delta_t)$

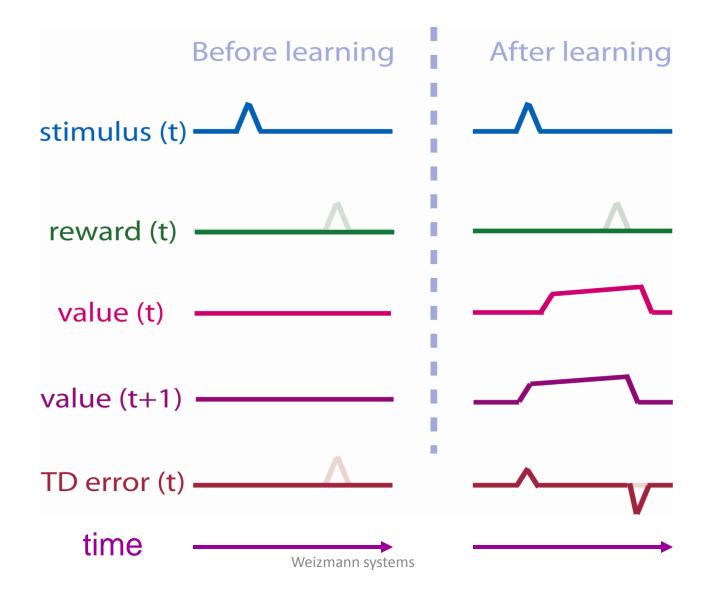
where: $V_{t=value}$ of the state reached at time t in iteration k

 r_t = reward given at time t; η = learning rate, δ = prediction error

TD error: $\delta_t = r_t + \gamma V_{t+1} - V_t$

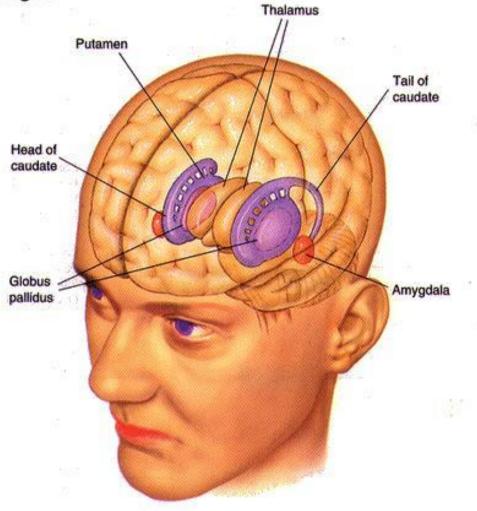


TD error:
$$\delta_t = \gamma V_{t+1} - V_t + r_t$$



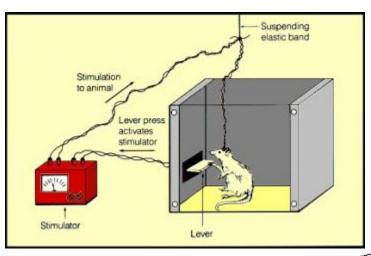
Basal ganglia - anatomy

► The Basal Ganglia

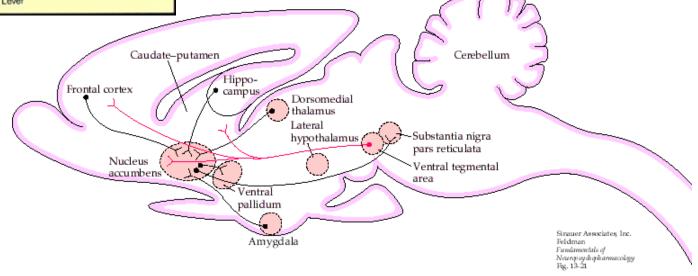


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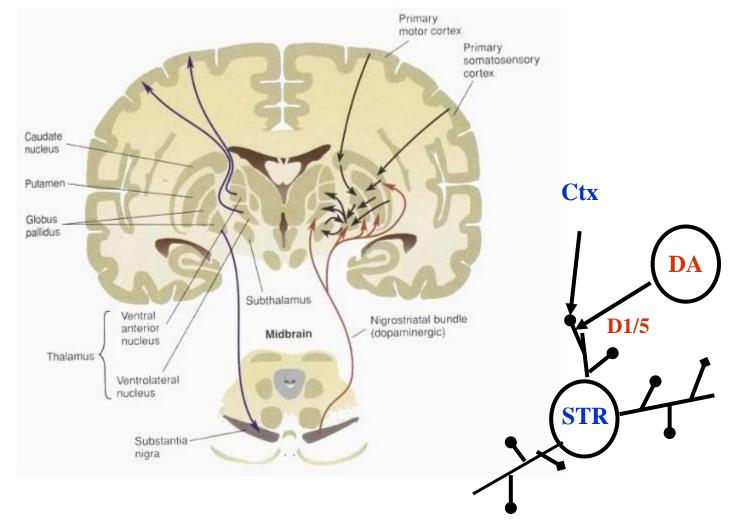
Intracranial self stimulation



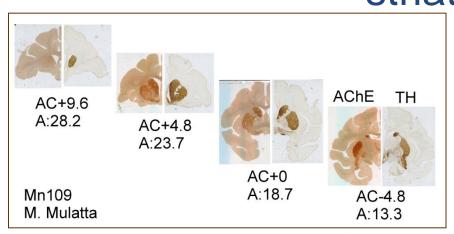
ACTIVATES REWARD CIRCUITS



The midbrain dopamine system



Dopamine and acetylcholine meet in the striatum



Neocortex

Lateral olfactory

accumbens

Amygdala

Dopamine

Substantia

nigra

Ventral

tegmentum

Figure 4.13

A В TH ChAT cortex portex

Olfactory

Septum

Mouse

Monkey

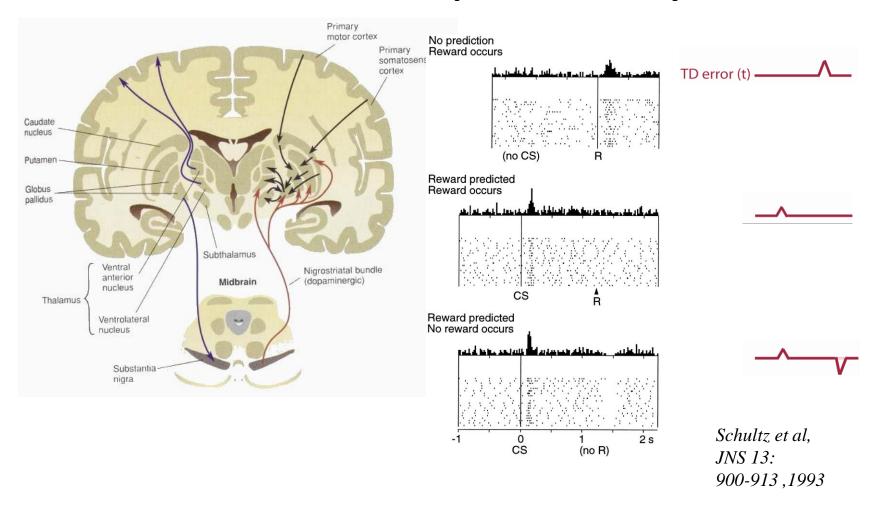
Acetylcholine Neocortex Figure 4.9 Pontine nuclei Basal ganglia Basal forebrain

26 June 14 Weizmann systems

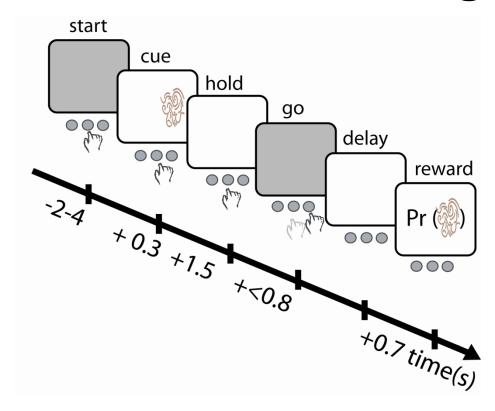
Facts to remember (1)

- Basal ganglia receive cortical input
- Basal ganglia project to frontal cortex
- Dopamine and acetylcholine localization

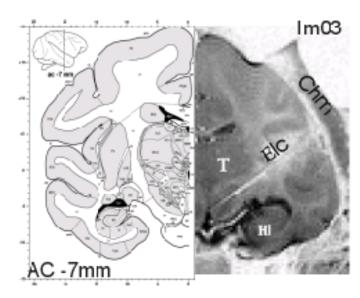
The midbrain dopamine system



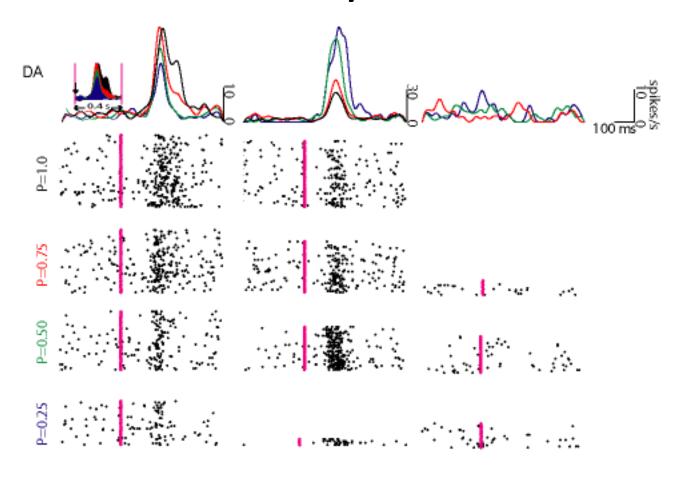
Probabilistic instrumental conditioning task



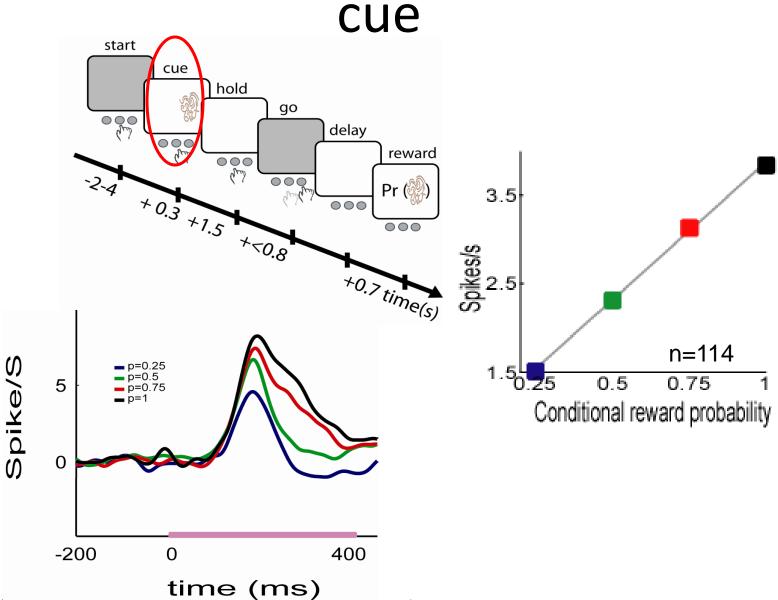
$$\delta_{t} = \gamma V_{t+1} - V_{t} + r_{t}$$



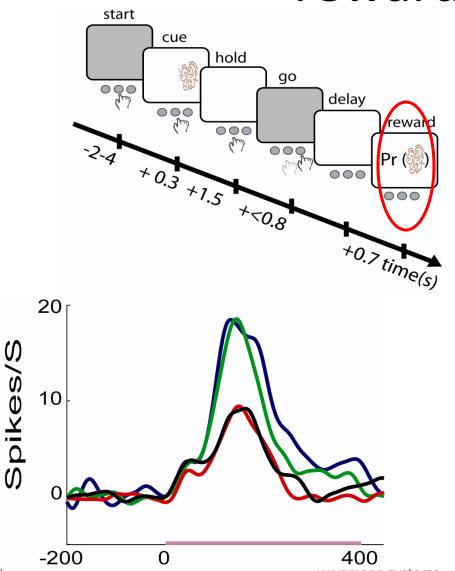
DA response

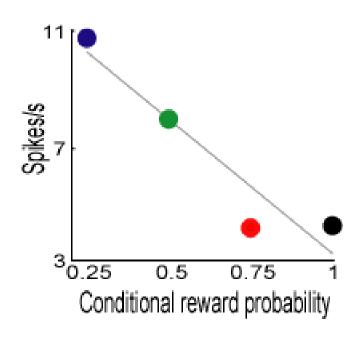


Dopamine population response-



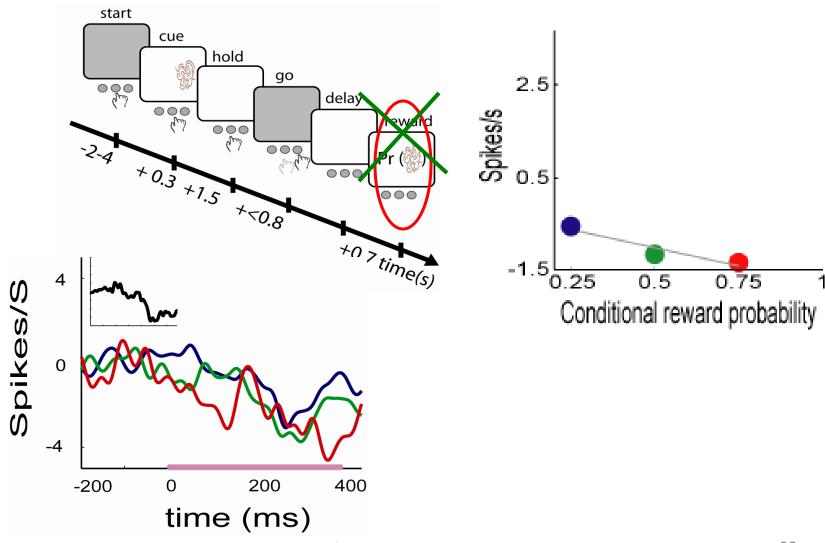
Dopamine population responsereward





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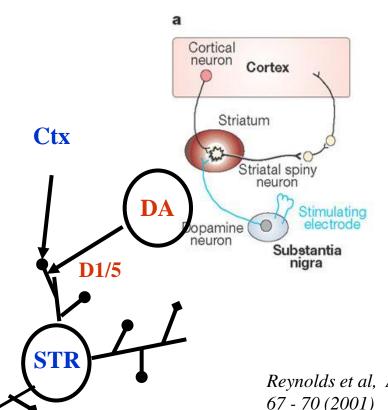
Dopamine population response – reward omission

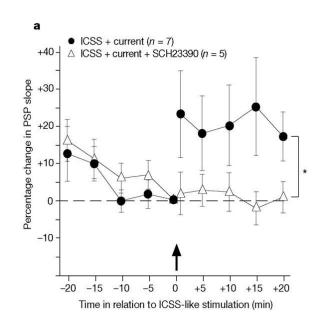


Instrumental conditioning - results

- Responses to visual cue are correlated with future reward probability
- Responses to reward are inversely correlated with reward probability
- Responses to reward omission are indifferent to reward probability
- Dopamine neurons provide an accurate TD signal (but only in the positive domain)

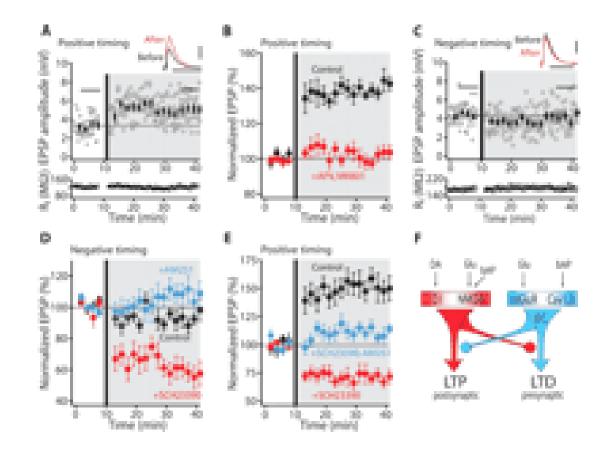
... and it can cause long term plasticity of cortico-striatal synapses





Reynolds et al, A cellular mechanism of reward-related learning Nature 413, 67 - 70 (2001)

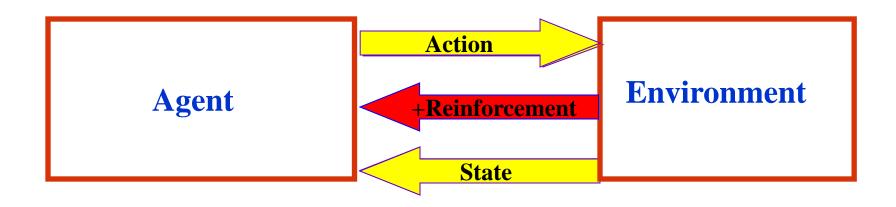
... and it can cause long term plasticity of cortico-striatal synapses



Facts to remember 2

- DA neurons provide a TD error signal
- To the cortico (state) striatal (action) synapses
- And DA modulates synaptic plasticity

Control - Adding action



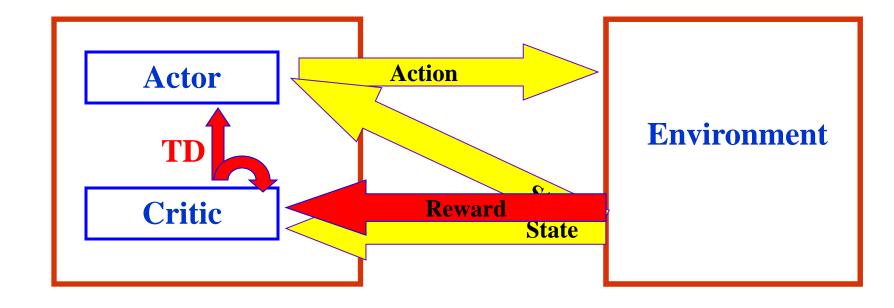
The agent has to:

- Learn to predict reinforcement
- Know the state-action-state transitions
 policy

state value

behavioural

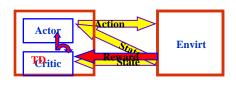
Solution 1: actor/critic networks

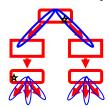


How can the dopamine signal contribute to decision behaviour?

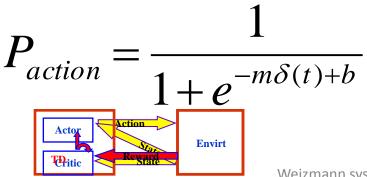
Long term policy-shaping effect

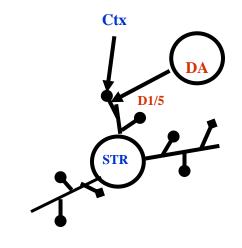
through synaptic plasticity

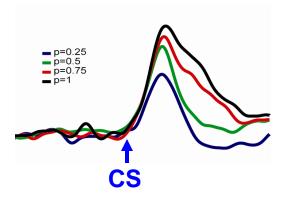




• Immediate effect on action

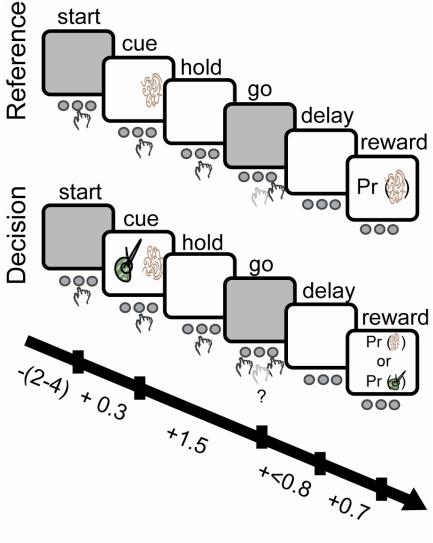






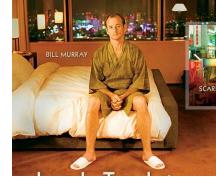
The two armed bandit task

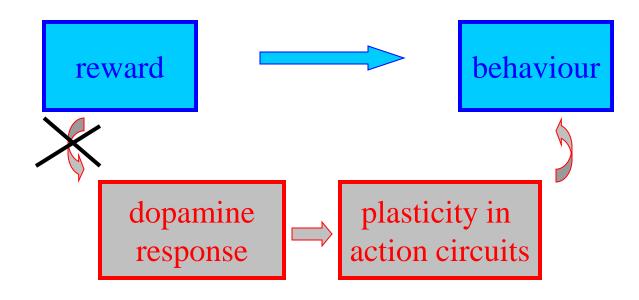




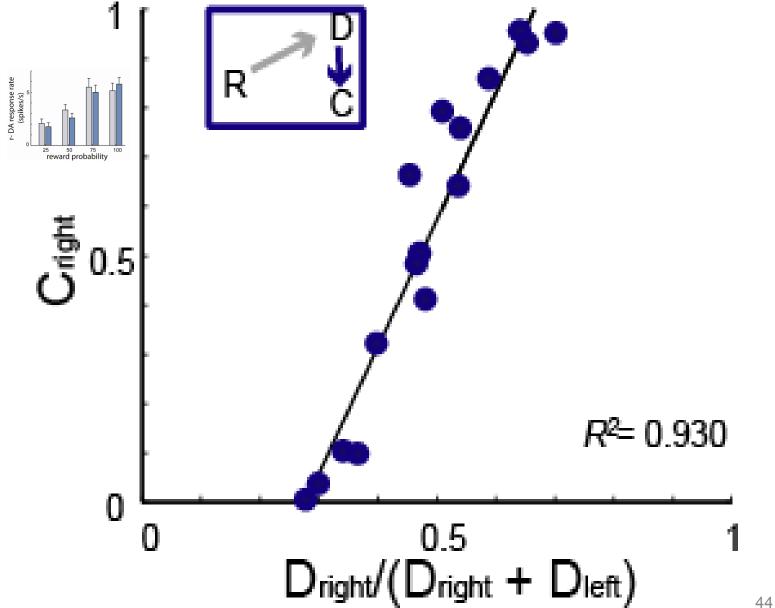
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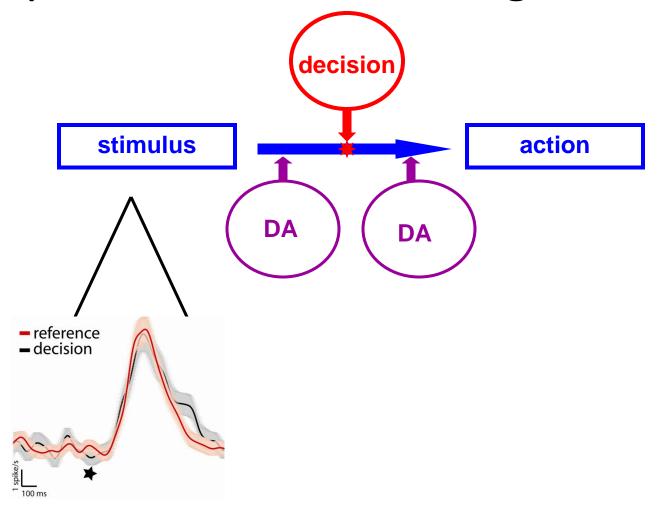


Monkeys' decisions: shaping by dopamine

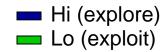


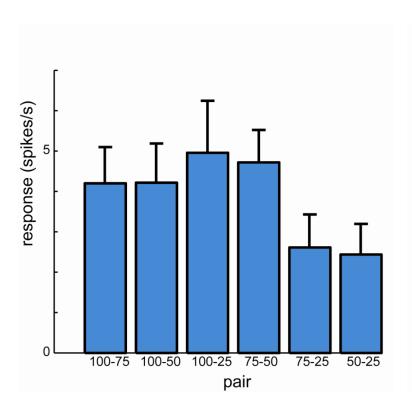
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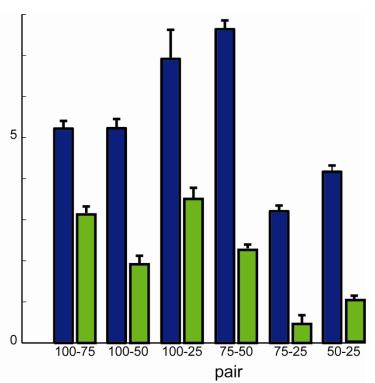
Dopamine neurons during decision



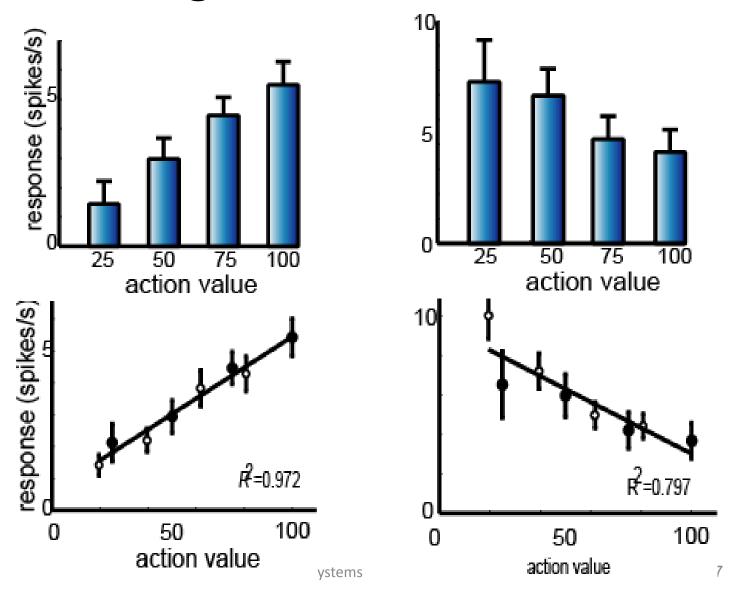
Are DA neurons aware of future choice





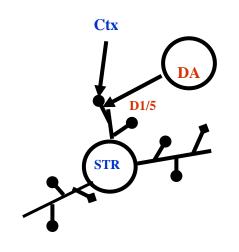


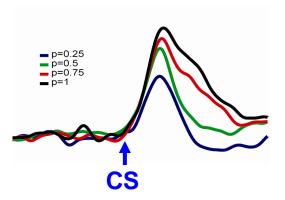
The learning is of state-action values

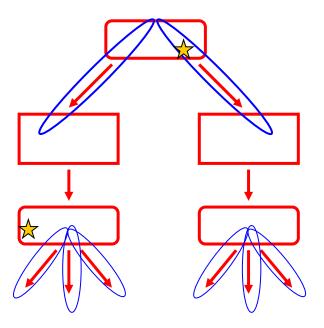


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Adding an internal model

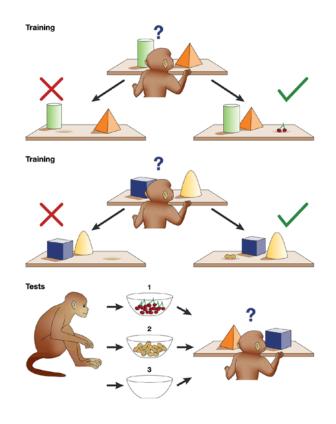






No explicit knowledge about the future

Reinforcement devaluation – evidence for model



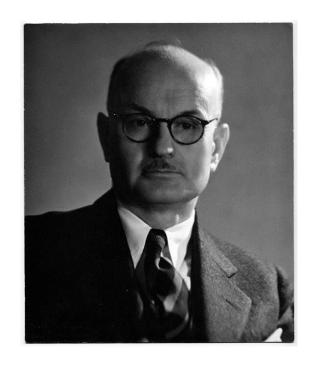
Nature Reviews | Neuroscience

Model based learning

We believe that in the course of learning something like a field map of the environment gets established in the rat's brain... Although we admit that the rat is bombarded by stimuli, we hold that his nervous system is surprisingly selective as to which of these stimuli it will let in at any given time... Rather, the incoming impulses are usually worked over and elaborated in the central control room into a tentative, cognitive-like map of the environment. And it is this tentative map, indicating routes and paths and environmental relationships, which finally determines what responses, if any, the animal will finally release.

Cognitive maps of rats and men (1948)

The Psychological Review, 55(4), 189-208



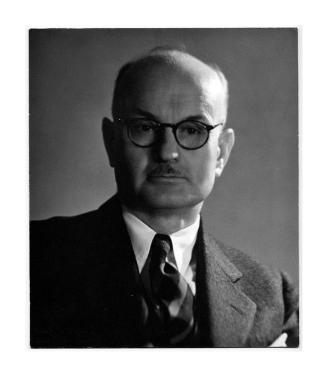
Edward C. Tolman

Model based learning

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