

Reinforcement Learning Algorithms

A. LAZARIC (SequeL Team @INRIA-Lille) ENS Cachan - Master 2 MVA



MVA-RL Course



How do we solve an MDP online?

 \Rightarrow RL Algorithms



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In This Lecture

- Dynamic programming algorithms require an *explicit* definition of
 - transition probabilities $p(\cdot|x, a)$
 - reward function r(x, a)
- This knowledge is often *unavailable* (i.e., wind intensity, human-computer-interaction).
- Can we relax this assumption?



In This Lecture

Learning with generative model. A black-box simulator f of the environment is available. Given (x, a),

$$f(x,a) = \{y,r\}$$
 with $y \sim p(\cdot|x,a), r = r(x,a).$

Episodic learning. Multiple trajectories can be repeatedly generated from the same state x and terminating when a reset condition is achieved:

$$(x_0^i = x, x_1^i, \dots, x_{T_i}^i)_{i=1}^n.$$

• Online learning. At each time t the agent is at state x_t , it takes action a_t , it observes a transition to state x_{t+1} , and it receives a reward r_t . We assume that $x_{t+1} \sim p(\cdot|x_t, a_t)$ and $r_t = r(x_t, a_t)$ (i.e., MDP assumption).



Outline

Mathematical Tools

The Monte-Carlo Algorithm

The TD(1) Algorithm

The TD(0) Algorithm

The TD(λ) Algorithm

The Q-learning Algorithm



Concentration Inequalities

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Let X be a random variable and $\{X_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ a sequence of r.v.

• $\{X_n\}$ converges to X almost surely, $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X$, if

$$\mathbb{P}(\lim_{n\to\infty}X_n=X)=1,$$

▶ { X_n } converges to X in probability, $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$, if for any $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\mathbb{P}[|X_n-X|>\epsilon]=0,$$

► { X_n } converges to X in law (or in distribution), $X_n \xrightarrow{D} X$, if for any bounded continuous function f

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\mathbb{E}[f(X_n)]=\mathbb{E}[f(X)].$$

Remark: $X_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} X \implies X_n \xrightarrow{P} X \implies X_n \xrightarrow{D} X.$



Concentration Inequalities

Proposition (Markov Inequality)

Let X be a *positive* random variable. Then for any a > 0,

$$\mathbb{P}(X \ge a) \le \frac{\mathbb{E}X}{a}.$$

Proof.

$$\mathbb{P}(X \geq a) = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{I}\{X \geq a\}] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{I}\{X/a \geq 1\}] \leq \mathbb{E}[X/a]$$



Concentration Inequalities

Proposition (Hoeffding Inequality)

Let X be a *centered* random variable bounded in [a, b]. Then for any $s \in \mathbb{R}$, $\mathbb{E}[e^{sX}] \leq e^{s^2(b-a)^2/8}.$



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Concentration Inequalities

Proof.

From *convexity* of the exponential function, for any $a \le x \le b$,

$$e^{sx} \leq rac{x-a}{b-a}e^{sb} + rac{b-x}{b-a}e^{sa}.$$

Let p = -a/(b-a) then (recall that $\mathbb{E}[X] = 0$)

$$\mathbb{E}[e^{sx}] \leq \frac{b}{b-a}e^{sa} - \frac{a}{b-a}e^{sb}$$
$$= (1-p+pe^{s(b-a)})e^{-ps(b-a)} = e^{\phi(u)}$$

with u = s(b - a) and $\phi(u) = -pu + \log(1 - p + pe^u)$ whose derivative is

$$\phi'(u)=-p+\frac{p}{p+(1-p)e^{-u}},$$

and $\phi(0) = \phi'(0) = 0$ and $\phi''(u) = \frac{p(1-p)e^{-u}}{(p+(1-p)e^{-u})^2} \le 1/4$. Thus from *Taylor's theorem*, the exists a $\theta \in [0, u]$ such that

$$\phi(\theta) = \phi(0) + \theta \phi'(0) + \frac{u^2}{2} \phi''(\theta) \le \frac{u^2}{8} = \frac{s^2(b-a)^2}{8}.$$



Concentration Inequalities

Proposition (Chernoff-Hoeffding Inequality)

Let $X_i \in [a_i, b_i]$ be *n* independent r.v. with mean $\mu_i = \mathbb{E}X_i$. Then

$$\mathbb{P}\Big[\Big|\sum_{i=1}^n (X_i - \mu_i)\Big| \ge \epsilon\Big] \le 2\exp\Big(-\frac{2\epsilon^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (b_i - a_i)^2}\Big).$$



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Concentration Inequalities

Proof.

$$\mathbb{P}\Big(\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} - \mu_{i} \ge \epsilon\Big) = \mathbb{P}(e^{s\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} - \mu_{i}} \ge e^{s\epsilon})$$

$$\leq e^{-s\epsilon} \mathbb{E}[e^{s\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i} - \mu_{i}}], \quad \text{Markov inequality}$$

$$= e^{-s\epsilon} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}[e^{s(X_{i} - \mu_{i})}], \quad \text{independent random variables}$$

$$\leq e^{-s\epsilon} \prod_{i=1}^{n} e^{s^{2}(b_{i} - a_{i})^{2}/8}, \quad \text{Hoeffding inequality}$$

$$= e^{-s\epsilon + s^{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(b_{i} - a_{i})^{2}/8}$$

If we choose $s = 4\epsilon / \sum_{i=1}^{n} (b_i - a_i)^2$, the result follows. Similar arguments hold for $\mathbb{P}(\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i - \mu_i \leq -\epsilon)$.



Monte-Carlo Approximation of a Mean

Definition

Let X be a random variable with mean $\mu = \mathbb{E}[X]$ and variance $\sigma^2 = \mathbb{V}[X]$ and $x_n \sim X$ be n i.i.d. realizations of X. The Monte-Carlo approximation of the mean (i.e., the empirical mean) built on n i.i.d. realizations is defined as

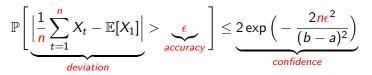
$$\mu_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$



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Monte-Carlo Approximation of a Mean

- Unbiased estimator: Then $\mathbb{E}[\mu_n] = \mu$ (and $\mathbb{V}[\mu_n] = \frac{\mathbb{V}[X]}{n}$)
- Weak law of large numbers: $\mu_n \xrightarrow{P} \mu$.
- Strong law of large numbers: $\mu_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} \mu$.
- Central limit theorem (CLT): $\sqrt{n}(\mu_n \mu) \xrightarrow{D} \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbb{V}[X])$.
- Finite sample guarantee:





Monte-Carlo Approximation of a Mean

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- Finite sample guarantee:

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\left|\frac{1}{n}\sum_{t=1}^{n}X_{t}-\mathbb{E}[X_{1}]\right|>(b-a)\sqrt{\frac{\log 2/\delta}{2n}}\right]\leq \delta$$



Monte-Carlo Approximation of a Mean

- Unbiased estimator: Then $\mathbb{E}[\mu_n] = \mu$ (and $\mathbb{V}[\mu_n] = \frac{\mathbb{V}[X]}{n}$)
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- Central limit theorem (CLT): $\sqrt{n}(\mu_n \mu) \xrightarrow{D} \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbb{V}[X]).$

Finite sample guarantee:

$$\mathbb{P}\left[\left|\frac{1}{n}\sum_{t=1}^{n}X_{t}-\mathbb{E}[X_{1}]\right|>\epsilon\right]\leq\delta$$

if
$$n \geq \frac{(b-a)^2 \log 2/\delta}{2\epsilon^2}$$





Simulate n Bernoulli of probability p and verify the correctness and the accuracy of the C-H bounds.



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Stochastic Approximation of a Mean

Definition

Let X a random variable bounded in [0,1] with mean $\mu = \mathbb{E}[X]$ and $x_n \sim X$ be n i.i.d. realizations of X. The stochastic approximation of the mean is,

$$\mu_{\mathbf{n}} = (1 - \eta_{\mathbf{n}})\mu_{\mathbf{n-1}} + \eta_{\mathbf{n}} \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{n}}$$

with $\mu_1 = x_1$ and where (η_n) is a sequence of learning steps.

Remark: When $\eta_n = \frac{1}{n}$ this is the *recursive* definition of empirical mean.



Stochastic Approximation of a Mean

Proposition (Borel-Cantelli)

Let $(E_n)_{n\geq 1}$ be a sequence of events such that $\sum_{n\geq 1} \mathbb{P}(E_n) < \infty$, then the probability of the *intersection of an infinite subset* is 0. More formally,

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\limsup_{n\to\infty}E_n\right)=\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty}\bigcup_{k=n}^{\infty}E_k\right)=0.$$



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Stochastic Approximation of a Mean

Proposition

If for any $n, \eta_n \ge 0$ and are such that

$$\sum_{n\geq 0}\eta_n=\infty;\qquad \sum_{n\geq 0}\eta_n^2<\infty,$$

then

$$\mu_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} \mu,$$

and we say that μ_n is a *consistent* estimator.



Stochastic Approximation of a Mean

Proof. We focus on the case $\eta_n = n^{-\alpha}$. In order to satisfy the two conditions we need $1/2 < \alpha \le 1$. In fact, for instance

$$\begin{split} \alpha &= 2 \Rightarrow \sum_{n \ge 0} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6} < \infty \quad \text{(see the Basel problem)}\\ \alpha &= 1/2 \Rightarrow \sum_{n \ge 0} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right)^2 = \sum_{n \ge 0} \frac{1}{n} = \infty \quad \text{(harmonic series)}. \end{split}$$



Stochastic Approximation of a Mean

Proof (cont'd). **Case** $\alpha = 1$ Let $(\epsilon_k)_k$ a sequence such that $\epsilon_k \to 0$, *almost sure* convergence corresponds to

$$\mathbb{P}\Big(\lim_{n\to\infty}\mu_n=\mu\Big)=\mathbb{P}(\forall k,\exists n_k,\forall n\geq n_k,\left|\mu_n-\mu\right|\leq\epsilon_k)=1.$$

From Chernoff-Hoeffding inequality for any *fixed* n

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$$\mathbb{P}(|\mu_n - \mu| \ge \epsilon) \le 2e^{-2n\epsilon^2}.$$
 (1)

Let $\{E_n\}$ be a sequence of events $E_n = \{|\mu_n - \mu| \ge \epsilon\}$. From C-H

$$\sum_{n\geq 1}\mathbb{P}(E_n)<\infty,$$

and from Borel-Cantelli lemma we obtain that with probability 1 there exist only a *finite* number of *n* values such that $|\mu_n - \mu| \ge \epsilon$.

Stochastic Approximation of a Mean

Proof (cont'd). **Case** $\alpha = 1$ Then for any ϵ_k there exist only a finite number of instants were $|\mu_n - \mu| \ge \epsilon_k$, which corresponds to have $\exists n_k$ such that

$$\mathbb{P}(\forall n \geq n_k, |\mu_n - \mu| \leq \epsilon_k) = 1$$

Repeating for all ϵ_k in the sequence leads to the statement.

Remark: when $\alpha = 1$, μ_n is the Monte-Carlo estimate and this corresponds to the strong law of large numbers. A more precise and accurate proof is here: *http://terrytao.wordpress.com/2008/06/18/the-strong-law-of-large-numbers/*



Stochastic Approximation of a Mean

Proof (cont'd). Case $1/2 < \alpha < 1$. The stochastic approximation μ_n is

$$\mu_1 = x_1$$

$$\mu_2 = (1 - \eta_2)\mu_1 + \eta_2 x_2 = (1 - \eta_2)\mathbf{x}_1 + \eta_2 \mathbf{x}_2$$

$$\mu_3 = (1 - \eta_3)\mu_2 + \eta_3 \mathbf{x}_3 = (1 - \eta_2)(1 - \eta_3)\mathbf{x}_1 + \eta_2(1 - \eta_3)\mathbf{x}_2 + \eta_3 \mathbf{x}_3$$

$$\mu_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\lambda_i}{\lambda_i} x_i,$$

with $\lambda_i = \eta_i \prod_{j=i+1}^n (1 - \eta_j)$ such that $\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i = 1$. By C-H inequality

. . .

$$\mathbb{P}\big(\big|\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i x_i - \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \mathbb{E}[x_i]\big| \ge \epsilon\big) = \mathbb{P}\big(\big|\mu_n - \mu\big| \ge \epsilon\big) \le e^{-\frac{2\epsilon^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^2}}.$$



Stochastic Approximation of a Mean

Proof (cont'd). Case $1/2 < \alpha < 1$. From the definition of λ_i

$$\log \lambda_i = \log \eta_i + \sum_{j=i+1}^n \log(1-\eta_j) \le \log \eta_i - \sum_{j=i+1}^n \eta_j$$

since $\log(1-x) < -x$. Thus $\lambda_i \leq \eta_i e^{-\sum_{j=i+1}^n \eta_j}$ and for any $1 \leq m \leq n$,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}^{2} \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \eta_{i}^{2} e^{-2\sum_{j=i+1}^{n} \eta_{j}}$$

$$\stackrel{(a)}{\leq} \sum_{i=1}^{m} e^{-2\sum_{j=i+1}^{n} \eta_{j}} + \sum_{i=m+1}^{n} \eta_{i}^{2}$$

$$\stackrel{(b)}{\leq} m e^{-2(n-m)\eta_{n}} + (n-m)\eta_{m}^{2}$$

$$\stackrel{(c)}{\equiv} m e^{-2(n-m)n^{-\alpha}} + (n-m)m^{-2\alpha}.$$



Stochastic Approximation of a Mean

Proof (cont'd).
Case
$$1/2 < \alpha < 1$$
.
Let $m = n^{\beta}$ with $\beta = (1 + \alpha/2)/2$ (i.e. $1 - 2\alpha\beta = 1/2 - \alpha$):

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i^2 \le n e^{-2(1-n^{-1/4})n^{1-\alpha}} + n^{1/2-\alpha} \le 2n^{1/2-\alpha}$$

for *n big enough*, which leads to

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$$\mathbb{P}(|\mu_n - \mu| \ge \epsilon) \le e^{-\frac{\epsilon^2}{n^{1/2-\alpha}}}.$$

From this point we follow the same steps as for $\alpha = 1$ (application of the Borel-Cantelli lemma) and obtain the convergence result for μ_n .



Stochastic Approximation of a Fixed Point

Definition

Let $\mathcal{T} : \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}^N$ be a contraction in some norm $|| \cdot ||$ with fixed point V. For any function W and state x, a noisy observation $\widehat{\mathcal{T}}W(x) = \mathcal{T}W(x) + b(x)$ is available. For any $x \in X = \{1, ..., N\}$, we defined the stochastic approximation

$$egin{aligned} & m{V}_{n+1}(x) = (1-\eta_n(x))m{V}_n(x) + \eta_n(x)(\hat{\mathcal{T}}m{V}_n(x)) \ &= (1-\eta_n(x))m{V}_n(x) + \eta_n(x)(\mathcal{T}m{V}_n(x) + b_n), \end{aligned}$$

where η_n is a sequence of learning steps.



Stochastic Approximation of a Fixed Point

Proposition

Let $\mathcal{F}_n = \{V_0, \dots, V_n, b_0, \dots, b_{n-1}, \eta_0, \dots, \eta_n\}$ the filtration of the algorithm and assume that

 $\mathbb{E}[b_n(x)|\mathcal{F}_n] = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbb{E}[b_n^2(x)|\mathcal{F}_n] \le c(1+||V_n||^2)$

for a constant c.

If the learning rates $\eta_n(x)$ are positive and satisfy the stochastic approximation conditions

$$\sum_{n\geq 0}\eta_n=\infty,\qquad \sum_{n\geq 0}\eta_n^2<\infty,$$

then for any $x \in X$

$$V_n(x) \xrightarrow{a.s.} V(x).$$



Stochastic Approximation of a Zero

Robbins-Monro (1951) algorithm. Given a noisy function f, find x^* such that $f(x^*) = 0$. In each x_n , observe $y_n = f(x_n) + b_n$ (with b_n a zero-mean independent noise) and compute

$$x_{n+1}=x_n-\eta_n y_n.$$

If f is an *increasing* function, then under the same assumptions on the learning step

$$x_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} x^*$$



Stochastic Approximation of a Minimum

Kiefer-Wolfowitz (1952) algorithm. Given a function f and noisy observations of its gradient, find $x^* = \arg \min f(x)$. In each x_n , observe $g_n = \nabla f(x_n) + b_n$ (with b_n a zero-mean independent noise) and compute

$$x_{n+1}=x_n-\eta_n g_n.$$

If the Hessian $\nabla^2 f$ is *positive*, then under the same assumptions on the learning step

$$x_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} x^*$$

Remark: this is often referred to as the **stochastic gradient** algorithm.



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Policy Evaluation

We consider the the problem of evaluating the performance of a policy π in the *undiscounted infinite horizon* setting. For any (*proper*) policy π the value function is

$$V^{\pi}(x) = \mathbb{E}\Big[\sum_{t=0}^{T-1} r^{\pi}(x_t) | x_0 = x; \pi\Big],$$

where $r^{\pi}(x_t) = r(x_t, \pi(x_t))$ and *T* is the *random* time when the *terminal state* is achieved.



Question

How can we estimate the value function if an episodic interaction with the environment is possible?

⇒ Monte-Carlo approximation of a mean!



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The Monte-Carlo Algorithm

Algorithm Definition (Monte-Carlo)

Let $(x_0^i = x, x_1^i, \dots, x_{T_i}^i = 0)_{i \le n}$ be a set of *n* independent trajectories starting from *x* and terminating after T_i steps. For any $t < T_i$, we denote by

$$\widehat{R}^{i}(x_{t}^{i}) = \left[r^{\pi}(x_{t}^{i}) + r^{\pi}(x_{t+1}^{i}) + \dots + r^{\pi}(x_{T_{i}-1}^{i})\right]$$

the *return* of the *i*-th trajectory at state x_t^i . Then the *Monte-Carlo* estimator of $V^{\pi}(x)$ is

$$V_n(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[r^{\pi}(x_0^i) + r^{\pi}(x_1^i) + \dots + r^{\pi}(x_{T_i-1}^i) \right] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \widehat{R}^i(x)$$



The Monte-Carlo Algorithm

All the returns are unbiased estimators of $V^{\pi}(x)$ since

$$\mathbb{E}[\widehat{R}^{i}(x)] = \mathbb{E}[r^{\pi}(x_{t}^{i}) + r^{\pi}(x_{t+1}^{i}) + \dots + r^{\pi}(x_{T_{i}-1}^{i})] = V^{\pi}(x)$$

then

$$V_n(x) \xrightarrow{a.s.} V^{\pi}(x).$$



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First-visit and Every-Visit Monte-Carlo

Remark: any trajectory $(x_0, x_1, x_2, ..., x_T)$ contains also the sub-trajectory $(x_t, x_{t+1}, ..., x_T)$ whose return $\widehat{R}(x_t) = r^{\pi}(x_t) + \cdots + r^{\pi}(x_{T-1})$ could be used to build an estimator of $V^{\pi}(x_t)$.

- First-visit MC. For each state x we only consider the sub-trajectory when x is first achieved. Unbiased estimator, only one sample per trajectory.
- Every-visit MC. Given a trajectory (x₀ = x, x₁, x₂,..., x_T), we list all the *m* sub-trajectories starting from x up to x_T and we average them all to obtain an estimate. More than one sample per trajectory, biased estimator.



Question

More samples or no bias?

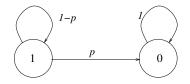
⇒ Sometimes a biased estimator is preferable if consistent!

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First-visit vs Every-Visit Monte-Carlo

Example: 2-state Markov Chain



The reward is 1 while in state 1 (while is 0 in the terminal state). All trajectories are $(x_0 = 1, x_1 = 1, \dots, x_T = 0)$. By Bellman equations

$$V(1) = 1 + (1 - p)V(1) + 0 \cdot p = \frac{1}{p},$$

since V(0) = 0.



First-visit vs Every-Visit Monte-Carlo

We measure the mean squared error (MSE) of \widehat{V} w.r.t. V

$$\mathbb{E}[(\widehat{V} - V)^{2}] = \underbrace{\left(\mathbb{E}[\widehat{V}] - V\right)^{2}}_{Bias^{2}} + \underbrace{\mathbb{E}[\left(\widehat{V} - \mathbb{E}[\widehat{V}]\right)^{2}]}_{Variance}$$



First-visit vs Every-Visit Monte-Carlo

First-visit Monte-Carlo. All the trajectories start from state 1, then the return over one single trajectory is exactly T, i.e., $\hat{V} = T$. The time-to-end T is a geometric r.v. with expectation

$$\mathbb{E}[\widehat{V}] = \mathbb{E}[T] = \frac{1}{p} = V^{\pi}(1) \Rightarrow \text{unbiased estimator.}$$

Thus the MSE of \widehat{V} coincides with the variance of T, which is

$$\mathbb{E}\Big[\big(T-\frac{1}{p}\big)^2\Big]=\frac{1}{p^2}-\frac{1}{p}.$$



First-visit vs Every-Visit Monte-Carlo

Every-visit Monte-Carlo. Given one trajectory, we can construct T - 1 sub-trajectories (number of times state 1 is visited), where the *t*-th trajectory has a return T - t.

$$\widehat{V} = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} (T-t) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t'=1}^{T} t' = \frac{T+1}{2}.$$

The corresponding expectation is

$$\mathbb{E}\Big[rac{T+1}{2}\Big] = rac{1+
ho}{2
ho}
eq V^{\pi}(1) \Rightarrow ext{ biased estimator}.$$



First-visit vs Every-Visit Monte-Carlo

Let's consider *n* independent trajectories, each of length T_i . Total number of samples $\sum_{i=1}^{n} T_i$ and the estimator \hat{V}_n is

$$\begin{split} \widehat{V}_{n} &= \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{t=0}^{T_{i}-1} (T_{i}-t)}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} T_{i}} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} T_{i}(T_{i}+1)}{2\sum_{i=1}^{n} T_{i}} \\ &= \frac{1/n \sum_{i=1}^{n} T_{i}(T_{i}+1)}{2/n \sum_{i=1}^{n} T_{i}} \\ &\xrightarrow{a.s.} \frac{\mathbb{E}[T^{2}] + \mathbb{E}[T]}{2\mathbb{E}[T]} = \frac{1}{p} = V^{\pi}(1) \Rightarrow \text{ consistent estimator.} \end{split}$$

The MSE of the estimator

$$\mathbb{E}\Big[\Big(\frac{T+1}{2}-\frac{1}{p}\Big)^2\Big] = \frac{1}{2p^2}-\frac{3}{4p}+\frac{1}{4} \leq \frac{1}{p^2}-\frac{1}{p}.$$



First-visit vs Every-Visit Monte-Carlo

In general

- Every-visit MC: biased but consistent estimator.
- First-visit MC: unbiased estimator with potentially bigger MSE.

Remark: when the state space is large the probability of visiting multiple times the same state is low, then the performance of the two methods tends to be the same.



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Policy Evaluation

We consider the the problem of evaluating the performance of a policy π in the *undiscounted infinite horizon* setting. For any (*proper*) policy π the value function is

$$V^{\pi}(x) = \mathbb{E}\Big[\sum_{t=0}^{T-1} r^{\pi}(x_t) | x_0 = x; \pi\Big],$$

where $r^{\pi}(x_t) = r(x_t, \pi(x_t))$ and *T* is the *random* time when the *terminal state* is achieved.



Question

MC requires all the trajectories to be available at once, can we update the estimator online?

 \Rightarrow TD(1)!



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The TD(1) Algorithm

Algorithm Definition (TD(1))

Let $(x_0^n = x, x_1^n, \ldots, x_{T_n}^n)$ be the *n*-th trajectory and \widehat{R}^n be the corresponding return. For all x_t with $t \leq T - 1$ observed along the trajectory, we update the value function estimate as

$$V_n(x_t^n) = (1 - \eta_n(x_t^n)) V_{n-1}(x_t^n) + \eta_n(x_t^n) \widehat{R}^n(x_t^n).$$



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The TD(1) Algorithm

Each sample is an unbiased estimator of the value function

$$\mathbb{E}\big[r^{\pi}(x_t)+r^{\pi}(x_{t+1})+\cdots+r^{\pi}(x_{T-1})|x_t\big]=V^{\pi}(x_t),$$

then the convergence result of stochastic approximation of a mean applies and if *all the states* are visited in an *infinite number of trajectories* and for all $x \in X$

$$\sum_n \eta_n(x) = \infty, \qquad \sum_n \eta_n(x)^2 < \infty,$$

then

$$V_n(x) \stackrel{a.s.}{\rightarrow} V^{\pi}(x)$$



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Policy Evaluation

We consider the the problem of evaluating the performance of a policy π in the *undiscounted infinite horizon* setting. For any (*proper*) policy π the value function is

$$V^{\pi}(x) = r(x, \pi(x)) + \sum_{y \in X} p(y|x, \pi(x)V^{\pi}(x)) = \mathcal{T}^{\pi}V^{\pi}(x).$$

 \Rightarrow use stochastic approximation for fixed point.



The TD(0) Algorithm

• *Noisy* observation of the operator \mathcal{T}^{π} :

$$\widehat{\mathcal{T}}^{\pi}V(x_t) = r^{\pi}(x_t) + V(x_{t+1}), ext{ with } x_t = x,$$

• Unbiased estimator of $\mathcal{T}^{\pi}V(x)$ since

$$\mathbb{E}[\widehat{\mathcal{T}}^{\pi}V(x_t)|x_t=x] = \mathbb{E}[r^{\pi}(x_t) + V(x_{t+1})|x_t=x]$$

= $r(x,\pi(x)) + \sum_{y} p(y|x,\pi(x))V(y) = \mathcal{T}^{\pi}V(x).$

Bounded noise since

$$|\widehat{\mathcal{T}}^{\pi}V(x) - \mathcal{T}^{\pi}V(x)| \leq ||V||_{\infty}.$$



The TD(0) Algorithm

Algorithm Definition (TD(0))

Let $(x_0^n = x, x_1^n, \dots, x_{T_n}^n)$ be the *n*-th trajectory, and $\{\widehat{\mathcal{T}}^{\pi}V_{n-1}(x_t^n)\}_t$ the noisy observation of the operator \mathcal{T}^{π} . For all x_t^n with $t \leq T^n - 1$, we update the value function estimate as $V_n(x_t^n) = (1 - \eta_n(x_t^n))V_{n-1}(x_t^n) + \eta_n(x_t^n)\widehat{\mathcal{T}}^{\pi}V_{n-1}(x_t^n)$

 $= (1 - \eta_n(x_t^n))V_{n-1}(x_t^n) + \eta_n(x_t^n)(r^{\pi}(x_t) + V_{n-1}(x_{t+1})).$



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if *all the states* are visited in an *infinite number of trajectories* and for all $x \in X$

$$\sum_n \eta_n(x) = \infty, \qquad \sum_n \eta_n(x)^2 < \infty,$$

then

 $V_n(x) \stackrel{a.s.}{\rightarrow} V^{\pi}(x)$



The TD(0) Algorithm

Definition

At iteration n, given the estimator V_{n-1} and a transition from state x_t to state x_{t+1} we define the temporal difference

$$d_t = (r^{\pi}(x_t) + V_{n-1}(x_{t+1})) - V_{n-1}(x_t).$$

Remark: Recalling the definition of Bellman equation for state value function, the temporal difference d_t^n provides a measure of *coherence* of the estimator V_{n-1} w.r.t. the transition $x_t \rightarrow x_{t+1}$.



The TD(0) Algorithm

Algorithm Definition (TD(0))

Let $(x_0^n = x, x_1^n, \dots, x_{T_n}^n)$ be the *n*-th trajectory, and $\{d_t^n\}_t$ the temporal differences. For all x_t^n with $t \leq T^n - 1$, we update the value function estimate as

$$V_n(x_t^n) = V_{n-1}(x_t^n) + \eta_n(x_t^n) d_t^n.$$



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Comparison between TD(1) and TD(0)

• TD(1)

$$V_n(x_t) = V_{n-1}(x_t) + \eta_n(x_t)[d_t^n + d_{t+1}^n + \dots + d_{T-1}^n].$$

• TD(0)

$$V_n(x_t^n) = V_{n-1}(x_t^n) + \eta_n(x_t^n) d_t^n.$$



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Question

Is it possible to take the best of both?

 $\Rightarrow TD(\lambda)!$



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The $\mathcal{T}^{\pi}_{\lambda}$ Bellman operator

Definition

Given $\lambda < 1$, then the Bellman operator $\mathcal{T}^{\pi}_{\lambda}$ is

$$\mathcal{T}^{\pi}_{\lambda} = (1-\lambda) \sum_{m \geq 0} \lambda^m (\mathcal{T}^{\pi})^{m+1}.$$

Remark: convex combination of the *m*-step Bellman operators $(\mathcal{T}^{\pi})^m$ weighted by a sequences of coefficients defined as a function of a λ .



The TD(λ) Algorithm

Proposition

If π is a *proper* policy and \mathcal{T}^{π} is a β -contraction in $L_{\mu,\infty}$ -norm, then $\mathcal{T}^{\pi}_{\lambda}$ is a contraction of factor

$$rac{(1-\lambda)eta}{1-eta\lambda}\in [0,eta].$$



The TD(λ) Algorithm

Proof. Let P^{π} be the transition matrix of the Markov chain then

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{T}_{\lambda}^{\pi} V &= (1-\lambda) \Big[\sum_{m \ge 0} \lambda^m \sum_{i=0}^m (P^{\pi})^i \Big] r^{\pi} + (1-\lambda) \sum_{m \ge 0} \lambda^m (P^{\pi})^{m+1} V \\ &= \Big[\sum_{m \ge 0} \lambda^m (P^{\pi})^m \Big] r^{\pi} + (1-\lambda) \sum_{m \ge 0} \lambda^m (P^{\pi})^{m+1} V \\ &= (I-\lambda P^{\pi})^{-1} r^{\pi} + (1-\lambda) \sum_{m \ge 0} \lambda^m (P^{\pi})^{m+1} V. \end{aligned}$$

Since \mathcal{T}^{π} is a β -contraction then $||(P^{\pi})^m V||_{\mu} \leq \beta^m ||V||_{\mu}$. Thus

$$\left\| (1-\lambda) \sum_{m \ge 0} \lambda^m (P^\pi)^{m+1} V \right\|_{\mu} \le (1-\lambda) \sum_{m \ge 0} \lambda^m ||(P^\pi)^{m+1} V||_{\mu} \le \frac{(1-\lambda)\beta}{1-\beta\lambda} ||V||_{\mu},$$

which implies that $\mathcal{T}^{\pi}_{\lambda}$ is a contraction in $L_{\mu,\infty}$ as well.



The TD(λ) Algorithm

Algorithm Definition (Sutton, 1988)

Let $(x_0^n = x, x_1^n, \dots, x_{T_n}^n)$ be the *n*-th trajectory, and $\{d_t^n\}_t$ the temporal differences. For all x_t with $t \leq T - 1$, we update the value function estimate as

$$\boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{n}}(\boldsymbol{x}_{t}^{\boldsymbol{n}}) = \boldsymbol{V}_{\boldsymbol{n}-1}(\boldsymbol{x}_{t}^{\boldsymbol{n}}) + \eta_{\boldsymbol{n}}(\boldsymbol{x}_{t}^{\boldsymbol{n}}) \sum_{\boldsymbol{s}=t}^{T_{\boldsymbol{n}}-1} \lambda^{\boldsymbol{s}-t} \boldsymbol{d}_{\boldsymbol{s}}^{\boldsymbol{n}}.$$



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We need to show that the temporal difference samples are *unbiased* estimators. For any $s \ge t$

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}[d_{s}|x_{t}=x] &= \mathbb{E}\Big[r^{\pi}(x_{s}) + V_{n-1}(x_{s+1}) - V_{n-1}(x_{s})|x_{t}=x\Big] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\Big[\sum_{i=t}^{s} r^{\pi}(x_{i}) + V_{n-1}(x_{s+1})|x_{t}=x\Big] - \mathbb{E}\Big[\sum_{i=k}^{s-1} r^{\pi}(x_{i}) + V_{n-1}(x_{s})|x_{t}=x\Big] \\ &= (\mathcal{T}^{\pi})^{s-t+1}V_{n-1}(x) - (\mathcal{T}^{\pi})^{s-t}V_{n-1}(x). \end{split}$$



The TD(λ) Algorithm

$$\mathbb{E}\Big[\sum_{s=t}^{T-1} \lambda^{s-t} d_s | x_t = x\Big] = \sum_{s=t}^{T-1} \lambda^{s-t} \Big[(\mathcal{T}^{\pi})^{s-t+1} V_{n-1}(x) - (\mathcal{T}^{\pi})^{s-t} V_{n-1}(x) \Big]$$

$$= \sum_{m \ge 0} \lambda^m \Big[(\mathcal{T}^{\pi})^{m+1} V_{n-1}(x) - (\mathcal{T}^{\pi})^m V_{n-1}(x) \Big]$$

$$= \sum_{m \ge 0} \lambda^m (\mathcal{T}^{\pi})^{m+1} V_{n-1}(x) - \Big[V_{n-1}(x) + \sum_{m > 0} \lambda^m (\mathcal{T}^{\pi})^m V_{n-1}(x) \Big]$$

$$= \sum_{m \ge 0} \lambda^m (\mathcal{T}^{\pi})^{m+1} V_{n-1}(x) - \Big[V_{n-1}(x) + \lambda \sum_{m > 0} \lambda^{m-1} (\mathcal{T}^{\pi})^m V_{n-1}(x) \Big]$$

$$= \sum_{m \ge 0} \lambda^m (\mathcal{T}^{\pi})^{m+1} V_{n-1}(x) - \Big[V_{n-1}(x) + \lambda \sum_{m \ge 0} \lambda^m (\mathcal{T}^{\pi})^{m+1} V_{n-1}(x) \Big]$$

$$= (1 - \lambda) \sum_{m \ge 0} \lambda^m (\mathcal{T}^{\pi})^{m+1} V_{n-1}(x) - V_{n-1}(x) = \mathcal{T}^{\pi}_{\lambda} V_{n-1}(x) - V_{n-1}(x).$$

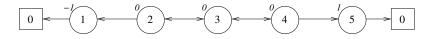
Then

$$V_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} V^{\pi}$$

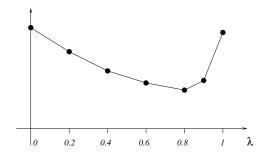


Sensitivity to λ

Linear chain example



The MSE of V_n w.r.t. V^{π} after n = 100 trajectories:





Sensitivity to λ

- $\lambda < 1$: smaller variance w.r.t. $\lambda = 1 (MC/TD(1))$.
- $\lambda > 0$: *faster propagation* of rewards w.r.t. $\lambda = 0$.



Question

Is it possible to update the V estimate at each step?

⇒ Online implementation!



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Online Implementation of TD algorithm: Eligibility Traces

Remark: since the update occurs at each step, now we drop the dependency on n.

- Eligibility traces $z \in \mathbb{R}^N$
- For every transition $x_t \rightarrow x_{t+1}$
 - 1. Compute the temporal difference

$$d_t = r^{\pi}(x_t) + V(x_{t+1}) - V(x_t)$$

2. Update the eligibility traces

$$z(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda z(x) & \text{if } x \neq x_t \\ 1 + \lambda z(x) & \text{if } x = x_t \\ 0 & \text{if } x_t = 0 \text{ (reset the traces)} \end{cases}$$

3. For all state $x \in X$

$$V(x) \leftarrow V(x) + \eta_t(x)z(x)d_t.$$



TD(λ) in discounted reward MDPs The Bellman operator $\mathcal{T}^{\pi}_{\lambda}$ is defined as

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{T}^{\pi}_{\lambda} V(x_{0}) &= (1-\lambda) \mathbb{E} \Big[\sum_{t \geq 0} \lambda^{t} \big(\sum_{i=0}^{t} \gamma^{i} r^{\pi}(x_{i}) + \gamma^{t+1} V(x_{t+1}) \big) \Big] \\ &= \mathbb{E} \Big[(1-\lambda) \sum_{i \geq 0} \gamma^{i} r^{\pi}(x_{i}) \sum_{t \geq i} \lambda^{t} + \sum_{t \geq 0} \gamma^{t+1} V(x_{t+1}) (\lambda^{t} - \lambda^{t+1}) \Big] \\ &= \mathbb{E} \Big[\sum_{i \geq 0} \lambda^{i} \big(\gamma^{i} r^{\pi}(x_{i}) + \gamma^{i+1} V(x_{i+1}) - \gamma^{i} V(x_{i}) \big) \Big] + V_{n}(x_{0}) \\ &= \mathbb{E} \Big[\sum_{i \geq 0} (\gamma \lambda)^{i} d_{i} \Big] + V(x_{0}), \end{split}$$

with the temporal difference $d_i = r^{\pi}(x_i) + \gamma V(x_{i+1}) - V(x_i)$. The corresponding $TD(\lambda)$ algorithm becomes

$$V_{n+1}(x_t) = V_n(x_t) + \eta_n(x_t) \sum_{s \ge t} (\gamma \lambda)^{s-t} d_t.$$



The Q-learning Algorithm

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The Q-learning Algorithm

Question

How do we compute the optimal policy online?

 \Rightarrow Q-learning!



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Q-learning

Remark: if we use TD algorithms to compute $V_n \approx V^{\pi_k}$, then we could compute the *greedy policy* as

$$\pi_{k+1}(x) \in rg\max_{a} \big[r(x,a) + \sum_{y} p(y|x,a) V_n(y) \big].$$

Problem: the transition *p* is unknown!! *Solution:* use Q-functions and compute

$$\pi_{k+1}(x) \in rg\max_{a} Q_n(x,a)$$



The Q-learning Algorithm

Q-learning

Algorithm Definition (Watkins, 1989)

We build a sequence $\{Q_n\}$ in such a way that for every observed transition (x, a, y, r)

$$Q_{n+1}(x, a) = (1 - \eta_n(x, a))Q_n(x, a) + \eta_n(x, a) [r + \max_{b \in A} Q_n(y, b)].$$



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Q-learning

Proposition

[Watkins et Dayan, 1992] Let assume that all the policies π are proper and that all the state-action pairs are visited *infinitely often*. If

$$\sum_{n\geq 0}\eta_n(x,a)=\infty,\quad \sum_{n\geq 0}\eta_n^2(x,a)<\infty$$

then for any $x \in X$, $a \in A$,

$$Q_n(x,a) \xrightarrow{a.s.} Q^*(x,a).$$



Q-learning

Proof. Optimal Bellman operator ${\cal T}$

$$\mathcal{T}W(x,a) = r(x,a) + \sum_{y} p(y|x,a) \max_{b \in A} W(y,b),$$

with unique fixed point Q^* . Since all the policies are proper \mathcal{T} is a contraction in the $L_{\mu,\infty}$ -norm. *Q*-learning can be written as

$$Q_{n+1}(x,a) = (1 - \eta_n(x,a))Q_n(x,a) + \eta_n[\mathcal{T}Q_n(x,a) + b_n(x,a)],$$

where $b_n(x, a)$ is a zero-mean random variable such that

$$\mathbb{E}[b_n^2(x,a)] \leq c(1 + \max_{y,b} Q_n^2(y,b))$$

The statement follows from convergence of stochastic approximation of <u>fixed</u> point operators.

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The Q-learning Algorithm

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Alessandro Lazaric alessandro.lazaric@inria.fr sequel.lille.inria.fr