

Reinforcement Learning Algorithms

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MVA-RL Course

How to solve incrementally an RL problem

Reinforcement Learning Algorithms



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Oct 15th, 2013 - 2/83

How to solve incrementally an RL problem

Reinforcement Learning Algorithms

Tools

Policy Evaluation

Policy Learning



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Notice

From now on we often work on the *episodic discounted* setting.

Most results smoothly extend to other settings.



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Most results smoothly extend to other settings.

The value functions can be represented *exactly* (no approximation error).



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 - transition probabilities $p(\cdot|x, a)$
 - reward function r(x, a)



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- 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?



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

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



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

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• 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).



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Concentration Inequalities

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► { X_n } converges to X *in probability*, $X_n \xrightarrow{P} X$, if for any $\epsilon > 0$, $\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{P}[|X_n - X| > \epsilon] = 0.$

$$n \rightarrow \infty$$

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

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



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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,

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



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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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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

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



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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Proof.

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

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

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

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

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

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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• Unbiased estimator: Then
$$\mathbb{E}[\mu_n] = \mu$$
 (and $\mathbb{V}[\mu_n] = \frac{\mathbb{V}[X]}{n}$)



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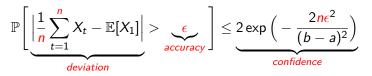
- Unbiased estimator: Then $\mathbb{E}[\mu_n] = \mu$ (and $\mathbb{V}[\mu_n] = \frac{\mathbb{V}[X]}{n}$)
- Weak law of large numbers: $\mu_n \xrightarrow{P} \mu$.
- Strong law of large numbers: $\mu_n \xrightarrow{a.s.} \mu$.



- 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): $\sqrt{n}(\mu_n \mu) \xrightarrow{D} \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbb{V}[X]).$



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- Finite sample guarantee:

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



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- Finite sample guarantee:

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

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.



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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

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

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 $1/2 < \alpha \leq 1.$ 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

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

From Chernoff-Hoeffding inequality for any *fixed* n

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



Stochastic Approximation of a Mean

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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

$$\mu_1 = x_1$$

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

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

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

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

nía.

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

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

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

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 $x \in X$

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



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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

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



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

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



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.



How to solve incrementally an RL problem

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Policy Evaluation

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The RL Interaction Protocol

For i = 1, ..., n

- 1. Set t = 0
- 2. Set initial state x_0 [possibly random]

[execute one trajectory]

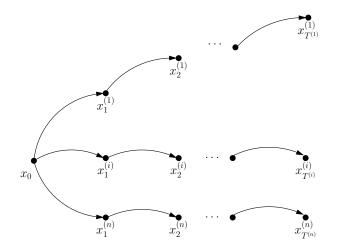
- 3. While $(x_t \text{ not terminal})$
 - 3.1 Take action a_t
 - 3.2 Observe next state x_{t+1} and reward r_t
 - 3.3 Set t = t + 1

EndWhile

EndFor



The RL Interaction Protocol





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Policy Evaluation

Objective: given a policy π evaluate its quality at the (fixed) initial state x_0



Policy Evaluation

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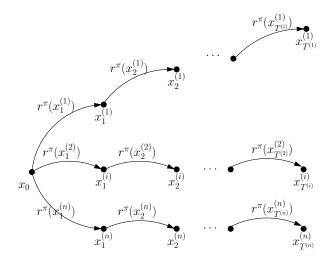
- 3. While $(x_t \text{ not terminal})$
 - 3.1 Take action $a_t = \pi(x_t)$
 - 3.2 Observe next state x_{t+1} and *reward* $r_t = r^{\pi}(x_t)$
 - 3.3 Set t = t + 1

EndWhile

EndFor



The RL Interaction Protocol





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State Value Function

Infinite time horizon with terminal state: the problem never terminates but the agent will eventually reach a termination state.

$$V^{\pi}(x) = \mathbb{E}\bigg[\sum_{t=0}^{T} \gamma^{t} r(x_{t}, \pi(x_{t})) | x_{0} = x; \pi\bigg],$$

where T is the first (*random*) time when the *termination state* is achieved.



Monte-Carlo Approximation

Idea: we can approximate an *expectation* by an *average*!

Return of trajectory i

$$\widehat{R}_i(x_0) = \sum_{t=0}^{T^{(i)}} \gamma^t r^{\pi}(x_t^{(i)})$$

Estimated value function

$$\widehat{V}_n^{\pi}(x_0) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \widehat{R}_i(x_0)$$



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Monte-Carlo Approximation

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- 3. While $(x_t \text{ not terminal})$
 - 3.1 Take action $a_t = \pi(x_t)$
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 - 3.3 Set t = t + 1

EndWhile

EndFor

Collect trajectories and compute $\hat{V}_n^{\pi}(x_0)$ using MC approximation



Monte-Carlo Approximation: Properties

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

$$\mathbb{E}[\widehat{R}^{(i)}(x_0)] = \mathbb{E}\Big[r^{\pi}(x_0^{(i)}) + \gamma r^{\pi}(x_1^{(i)}) + \dots + \gamma^{T^{(i)}}r^{\pi}(x_{T^{(i)}}^{(i)})\Big] = V^{\pi}(x)$$

Thus

$$\widehat{V}_n^{\pi}(x_0) \stackrel{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} V^{\pi}(x_0).$$

Finite-sample guarantees are also possible



Monte-Carlo Approximation: Extensions

Non-episodic problems

Interrupt trajectories after H steps

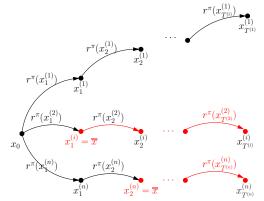
$$\widehat{R}_i(x_0) = \sum_{t=0}^H \gamma^t r^{\pi}(x_t^{(i)})$$

• Loss in accuracy limited to $\gamma^{H} \frac{r_{\text{max}}}{1-\gamma}$



Monte-Carlo Approximation: Extensions

Multiple subtrajectories



All *subtrajectories* starting with \overline{x} can be used to estimate $V^{\pi}(\overline{x})$



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 and Every-Visit Monte-Carlo

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 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.



First-visit and Every-Visit Monte-Carlo

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- 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!

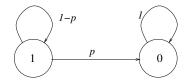


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First-visit vs Every-Visit Monte-Carlo

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.

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

The corresponding expectation is

$$\mathbb{E}\Big[\frac{T+1}{2}\Big] = \frac{1+p}{2p} \neq V^{\pi}(1) \Rightarrow \text{ biased estimator}.$$



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

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\left(\frac{T+1}{2} - \frac{1}{p}\right)^2\right] = \frac{1}{2p^2} - \frac{3}{4p} + \frac{1}{4} \le \frac{1}{p^2} - \frac{1}{p}$$



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.



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.



Monte-Carlo Approximation: Extensions

Full estimate of V^{π} over any $x \in X$

- Use subtrajectories
- Restart from random states over X



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Monte-Carlo Approximation: Limitations

► The estimate \$\hat{V}^{\pi}(x_0)\$ is computed when all trajectories are terminated



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Temporal Difference TD(1)

Idea: we can approximate an *expectation* by an *incremental* average!

Return of trajectory i

$$\widehat{R}_i(x_0) = \sum_{t=0}^{T^{(i)}} \gamma^t r^{\pi}(x_t^{(i)})$$

Estimated value function after trajectory i

$$\widehat{V}_i^{\pi}(x_0) = (1 - \alpha_i)\widehat{V}_{i-1}^{\pi}(x_0) + \alpha_i\widehat{R}_i(x_0)$$



Temporal Difference TD(1)

For
$$i = 1, ..., n$$

- 1. Set t = 0
- 2. Set initial state x₀ [possibly random]

[execute one trajectory]

- 3. While $(x_t \text{ not terminal})$
 - 3.1 Take action $a_t = \pi(x_t)$
 - 3.2 Observe next state x_{t+1} and *reward* $r_t = r^{\pi}(x_t)$
 - 3.3 Set t = t + 1

EndWhile

4. Update $\hat{V}_i^{\pi}(x_0)$ using TD(1) approximation

EndFor

Collect trajectories and compute $\widehat{V}_n^{\pi}(x_0)$ using MC approximation



Temporal Difference TD(1): Properties

If α_i = 1/i, then TD(1) is just the incremental version of the empirical mean

$$\widehat{V}_{i}^{\pi}(x_{0}) = \frac{n-1}{n} \widehat{V}_{i-1}^{\pi}(x_{0}) + \frac{1}{n} \widehat{R}_{i}(x_{0})$$

 Using a generic step-size (learning rate) α_i gives *flexibility* to the algorithm



Temporal Difference TD(1): Properties

Proposition

If the learning rate satisfies the Robbins-Monro conditions

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha_i = \infty, \qquad \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha_i^2 < \infty$$

then

$$\widehat{V}_n^{\pi}(x_0) \stackrel{\text{a.s.}}{\longrightarrow} V^{\pi}(x_0)$$



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Temporal Difference TD(1): Extensions

- Non-episodic problems: Truncated trajectories
- Multiple sub-trajectories
 - Updates of all the states using sub-trajectories
 - state-dependent learning rate $\alpha_i(x)$
 - *i* is the index of the number of updates in that specific state



Temporal Difference TD(1): Limitations

► The estimate V^π(x₀) is updated when the trajectory is completely terminated



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The Bellman Equation

Proposition

For any stationary policy $\pi = (\pi, \pi, ...)$, the state value function at a state $x \in X$ satisfies the *Bellman equation*:

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



Temporal Difference TD(0)

Idea: we can approximate V^{π} by estimating the Bellman error



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Temporal Difference TD(0)

Idea: we can approximate V^{π} by estimating the Bellman error

Bellman error of a function V in a state x

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



Temporal Difference TD(0)

Idea: we can approximate V^{π} by estimating the Bellman error

Bellman error of a function V in a state x

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

• Temporal difference of a function \widehat{V}^{π} for a transition $\langle x_t, r_t, x_{t+1} \rangle$

$$\delta_t = r_t + \gamma \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_{t+1}) - \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t)$$



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Temporal Difference TD(0)

Idea: we can approximate V^{π} by estimating the Bellman error

Bellman error of a function V in a state x

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$$\delta_t = r_t + \gamma \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_{t+1}) - \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t)$$

• Estimated value function *after transition* $\langle x_t, r_t, x_{t+1} \rangle$

$$\begin{aligned} \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t) &= \left(1 - \alpha_i(x_t)\right) \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t) + \alpha_i(x_t) \left(r_t + \gamma \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_{t+1})\right) \\ &= \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t) + \alpha_i(x_t) \delta_t \end{aligned}$$



Temporal Difference TD(0)

For
$$i = 1, ..., n$$

- 1. Set t = 0
- 2. Set initial state x₀ [possibly random]

[execute one trajectory]

- 3. While $(x_t \text{ not terminal})$
 - 3.1 Take action $a_t = \pi(x_t)$
 - 3.2 Observe next state x_{t+1} and *reward* $r_t = r^{\pi}(x_t)$
 - 3.3 Set t = t + 1
 - 3.4 Update $\widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t)$ using TD(0) approximation

EndWhile

4. Update $\hat{V}_i^{\pi}(x_0)$ using TD(1) approximation

EndFor

Collect trajectories and compute $\widehat{V}_n^{\pi}(x_0)$ using MC approximation



Temporal Difference TD(0): Properties

The update rule

 $\widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t) = \left(1 - \alpha_i(x_t)\right)\widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t) + \alpha_i(x_t)(r_t + \gamma \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_{t+1}))$

is *bootstrapping* the current estimate of \widehat{V}^{π} in other state.

 The temporal difference is an unbiased sample of the Bellman error

$$\mathbb{E}[\delta_t] = \mathbb{E}[r_t + \gamma \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_{t+1}) - \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t)] = \mathcal{T}^{\pi} \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t) - \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t)$$



Temporal Difference TD(0): Properties

Proposition

If the learning rate satisfies the Robbins-Monro conditions in all states $x \in X$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha_i(x) = \infty, \qquad \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha_i^2(x) < \infty,$$

and all states are visited *infinitely often*, then for all $x \in X$

$$\widehat{V}^{\pi}(x) \stackrel{\text{a.s.}}{\longrightarrow} V^{\pi}(x)$$



Temporal Difference TD(0)

For i = 1, ..., n

- 1. Set t = 0
- 2. Set $\widehat{V}^{\pi}(x) = 0, \quad \forall x \in X$
- 3. Set initial state x_0
- 4. While $(x_t \text{ not terminal})$
 - 4.1 Take action $a_t = \pi(x_t)$
 - 4.2 Observe next state x_{t+1} and **reward** $r_t = r^{\pi}(x_t)$
 - 4.3 Set t = t + 1
 - 4.4 Compute the TD $\delta_t = r_t + \gamma \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_{t+1}) \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t)$
 - 4.5 Update the value function estimate in x_t as

$$\widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t) = \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t) + \alpha_i(x_t)\delta_t$$

4.6 Update the learning rate, e.g.,

$$\alpha(x_t) = \frac{1}{\# \text{ visits}(x_t)}$$

EndWhile

nía

Comparison between TD(1) and TD(0)

TD(1)

Update rule

$$\widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t) = \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t) + \alpha(x_t)[\delta_t + \gamma \delta_{t+1} + \dots + \gamma^{T-1} \delta_T].$$

No bias, large variance

TD(0)

Update rule

$$\widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t) = \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t) + \alpha(x_t) \delta_t.$$



Comparison between TD(1) and TD(0)

TD(1)

Update rule

$$\widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t) = \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t) + \alpha(x_t)[\delta_t + \gamma \delta_{t+1} + \dots + \gamma^{T-1} \delta_T].$$

No bias, large variance

TD(0)

Update rule

$$\widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t) = \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t) + \alpha(x_t) \delta_t.$$

Potential bias, small variance

 \Rightarrow *TD*(λ) perform intermediate updates!



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

Definition

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

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



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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 .



Temporal Difference $TD(\lambda)$

Idea: use the whole series of temporal differences to update \widehat{V}^{π}

• Temporal difference of a function \widehat{V}^{π} for a transition $\langle x_t, r_t, x_{t+1} \rangle$

$$\delta_t = r_t + \gamma \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_{t+1}) - \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t)$$

Estimated value function

$$\widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t) = \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t) + \alpha_i(x_t) \sum_{s=t}^T (\gamma \lambda)^{s-t} \delta_s$$



Temporal Difference $TD(\lambda)$

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Estimated value function

$$\widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t) = \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x_t) + \alpha_i(x_t) \sum_{s=t}^T (\gamma \lambda)^{s-t} \delta_s$$

 \Rightarrow Still requires the whole trajectory before updating...



Temporal Difference $TD(\lambda)$: Eligibility Traces

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



Temporal Difference $TD(\lambda)$: Eligibility Traces

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

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



Temporal Difference $TD(\lambda)$: Eligibility Traces

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

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

2. Update the eligibility traces

$$z(x) = \begin{cases} \lambda z(x) & \text{if } x \neq x_t \\ 1 + \lambda z(x) & \text{if } x = x_t \\ 0 & \text{if } x_t = x_0 \text{ (reset the traces)} \end{cases}$$



Temporal Difference $TD(\lambda)$: Eligibility Traces

- Eligibility traces $z \in \mathbb{R}^N$
- For every transition $x_t \rightarrow x_{t+1}$
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3. For all state $x \in X$

$$\widehat{V}^{\pi}(x) \leftarrow \widehat{V}^{\pi}(x) + \alpha(x)z(x)\delta_t.$$



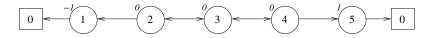
Sensitivity to λ

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

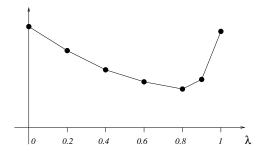


Example: Sensitivity to λ

Linear chain example



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





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How to solve incrementally an RL problem

Reinforcement Learning Algorithms

Tools

Policy Evaluation

Policy Learning



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Question

How do we compute the optimal policy online?

 \Rightarrow Q-learning!



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Learning the Optimal Policy

Objective: learn the optimal policy π^* with direct interaction with the environment



Learning the Optimal Policy

Objective: learn the optimal policy π^* with direct interaction with the environment

For i = 1, ..., n

- 1. Set t = 0
- 2. Set initial state x_0
- 3. While $(x_t \text{ not terminal})$
 - 3.1 Take action a_t
 - 3.2 Observe next state x_{t+1} and reward r_t
 - 3.3 Set t = t + 1

EndWhile

EndFor



Policy Iteration

- 1. Let π_0 be *any* stationary policy
- 2. At each iteration $k = 1, 2, \ldots, K$
 - *Policy evaluation* given π_k , compute Q^{π_k} .
 - Policy improvement: compute the greedy policy

$$\pi_{k+1}(x) \in rg\max_{a \in A} Q_k^{\pi}(x)$$

3. Return the last policy π_K



SARSA

Idea: alternate policy evaluation and policy improvement



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SARSA

Idea: alternate policy evaluation and policy improvement

• Define a greedy exploratory policy with temperature τ

$$\pi_Q(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\exp(Q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a})/\tau)}{\sum_{\mathbf{a}'} \exp(Q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}')/\tau)}$$

The higher Q(x, a), the more probability to take action a in state x



SARSA

Idea: alternate policy evaluation and policy improvement

 \blacktriangleright Define a greedy exploratory policy with temperature τ

$$\pi_Q(\mathbf{a}|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\exp(Q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a})/\tau)}{\sum_{\mathbf{a}'} \exp(Q(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}')/\tau)}$$

The higher Q(x, a), the more probability to take action a in state x

▶ Compute the temporal difference on the trajectory ⟨x_t, a_t, r_t, x_{t+1}, a_{t+1}⟩ (with actions chosen according to π_Q(a|x))

$$\delta_t = r_t + \gamma \widehat{Q}(x_{t+1}, a_{t+1}) - \widehat{Q}(x_t, a_t)$$



SARSA

Idea: alternate policy evaluation and policy improvement

 \blacktriangleright Define a greedy exploratory policy with temperature τ

$$\pi_Q(\textbf{a}|\textbf{x}) = \frac{\exp(Q(\textbf{x},\textbf{a})/\tau)}{\sum_{\textbf{a}'} \exp(Q(\textbf{x},\textbf{a}')/\tau)}$$

The higher Q(x, a), the more probability to take action a in state x

▶ Compute the temporal difference on the trajectory ⟨x_t, a_t, r_t, x_{t+1}, a_{t+1}⟩ (with actions chosen according to π_Q(a|x))

$$\delta_t = r_t + \gamma \widehat{Q}(x_{t+1}, a_{t+1}) - \widehat{Q}(x_t, a_t)$$

Update the estimate of Q as

$$\widehat{Q}(x_t, a_t) = \widehat{Q}(x_t, a_t) + \alpha(x_t, a_t)\delta_t$$



SARSA: Properties

- The *TD* updates make \widehat{Q} converge to Q^{π}
- The update of π_Q allows to improve the policy
- A decreasing temperature allows to become more and more greedy
- \Rightarrow If au o 0 with a proper rate, then $\widehat{Q} o Q^*$ and $\pi_Q o \pi^*$



SARSA: Limitations

The actions a_t need to be selected according to the current Q

⇒ On-policy learning



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The Optimal Bellman Equation

Proposition

The optimal value function V^* (i.e., $V^* = \max_{\pi} V^{\pi}$) is the solution to the *optimal Bellman equation*:

$$\boldsymbol{V}^*(x) = \max_{\boldsymbol{a} \in \mathcal{A}} \big[\boldsymbol{r}(x, \boldsymbol{a}) + \gamma \sum_{y} \boldsymbol{p}(y|x, \boldsymbol{a}) \boldsymbol{V}^*(y) \big].$$



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Q-Learning

Idea: use TD for the optimal Bellman operator

▶ Compute the (optimal) temporal difference on the trajectory ⟨x_t, a_t, r_t, x_{t+1}⟩ (with actions chosen *arbitrarily*!)

$$\delta_t = r_t + \gamma \max_{a'} \widehat{Q}(x_{t+1}, a') - \widehat{Q}(x_t, a_t)$$

Update the estimate of Q as

$$\widehat{Q}(x_t, a_t) = \widehat{Q}(x_t, a_t) + \alpha(x_t, a_t)\delta_t$$



Q-Learning: Properties

Proposition

If the learning rate satisfies the Robbins-Monro conditions in all states $x \in X$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha_i(x) = \infty, \qquad \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \alpha_i^2(x) < \infty,$$

and all states are visited *infinitely often*, then for all $x \in X$

$$\widehat{Q}(x) \stackrel{a.s.}{\longrightarrow} Q^*(x)$$

Remark: "infinitely often" requires a steady exploration policy



Learning the Optimal Policy

For i = 1, ..., n

- 1. Set t = 0
- 2. Set initial state x_0
- 3. While $(x_t \text{ not terminal})$
 - 3.1 Take action a_t according to a suitable exploration policy
 - 3.2 Observe next state x_{t+1} and reward r_t
 - 3.3 Compute the temporal difference

$$\begin{split} \delta_t &= r_t + \gamma \widehat{Q}(x_{t+1}, a_{t+1}) - \widehat{Q}(x_t, a_t) \quad (SARSA) \\ \delta_t &= r_t + \gamma \max_{a'} \widehat{Q}(x_{t+1}, a') - \widehat{Q}(x_t, a_t) \quad (Q\text{-learning}) \end{split}$$

3.4 Update the Q-function

$$\widehat{Q}(x_t, a_t) = \widehat{Q}(x_t, a_t) + \alpha(x_t, a_t)\delta_t$$

3.5 Set t = t + 1

EndWhile

EndFor



The Grid-World Problem



Bibliography I



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Reinforcement Learning



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