

Introduction to Reinforcement Learning

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What is Machine Learning

A more mathematical definition by Tom Mitchell

- Machine learning is the study of algorithms that
 - improve their performance P
 - at some task T
 - based on experience E
 - with non-explicit programming
- A well-defined learning task is given by $\langle P, T, E \rangle$

Machine Learning

- What we have learned so far
- Supervised Learning
 - To perform the desired output given the data and labels
 - e.g., to build a loss function to minimize
- Unsupervised Learning
 - To analyze and make use of the underlying data patterns/structures
 - e.g., to build a log-likelihood function to maximize

Supervised Learning

- Given the training dataset of (data, label) pairs,

$$D = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1,2,\dots,N}$$

let the machine learn a function from data to label

$$y_i \simeq f_{\theta}(x_i)$$

- Learning is referred to as updating the parameter θ
- Learning objective: make the prediction close to the ground truth

$$\min_{\theta} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathcal{L}(y_i, f_{\theta}(x_i))$$

Unsupervised Learning

- Given the training dataset

$$D = \{x_i\}_{i=1,2,\dots,N}$$

let the machine learn the data underlying patterns

- Sometimes build latent variables

$$z \rightarrow x$$

- Estimate the probabilistic density function (p.d.f.)

$$p(x; \theta) = \sum_z p(x|z; \theta)p(z; \theta)$$

- Maximize the log-likelihood of training data

$$\max_{\theta} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \log p(x; \theta)$$

Two Kinds of Machine Learning

- Prediction
 - Predict the desired output given the data (supervised learning)
 - Generate data instances (unsupervised learning)
 - We mainly covered this category in previous lectures
- Decision Making
 - Take actions based on a particular state in a dynamic environment (reinforcement learning)
 - to transit to new states
 - to receive immediate reward
 - to maximize the accumulative reward over time
 - Learning from interaction

Machine Learning Categories

- Supervised Learning

- To perform the desired output given the data and labels

$$p(y|x)$$

- Unsupervised Learning

- To analyze and make use of the underlying data patterns/structures

$$p(x)$$

- Reinforcement Learning

- To learn a policy of taking actions in a dynamic environment and acquire rewards

$$\pi(a|x)$$

Reinforcement Learning Materials

Our course on RL is mainly based on the materials from these masters.



Prof. Richard Sutton

- University of Alberta, Canada
- <http://incompleteideas.net/sutton/index.html>
- Reinforcement Learning: An Introduction (2nd edition)
- <http://www.incompleteideas.net/book/the-book-2nd.html>



Dr. David Silver

- Google DeepMind and UCL, UK
- <http://www0.cs.ucl.ac.uk/staff/d.silver/web/Home.html>
- UCL Reinforcement Learning Course
- <http://www0.cs.ucl.ac.uk/staff/d.silver/web/Teaching.html>



Prof. Andrew Ng

- Stanford University, US
- <http://www.andrewng.org/>
- Machine Learning (CS229) Lecture Notes 12: RL
- <http://cs229.stanford.edu/materials.html>

Content

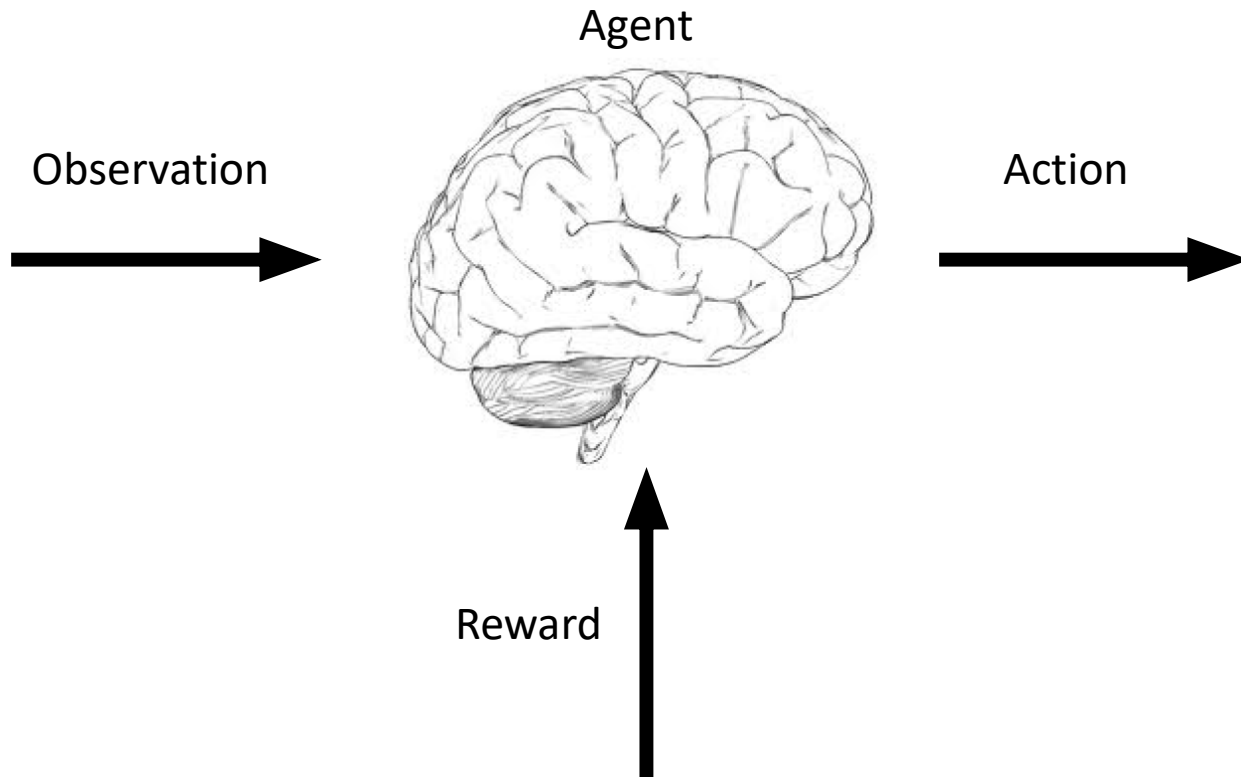
- Introduction to Reinforcement Learning
- Model-based Reinforcement Learning
 - Markov Decision Process
 - Planning by Dynamic Programming
- Model-free Reinforcement Learning
 - On-policy SARSA
 - Off-policy Q-learning
 - Model-free Prediction and Control

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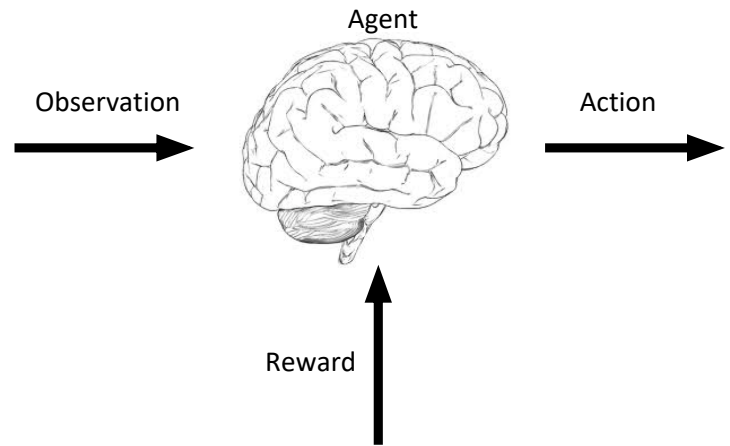
Reinforcement Learning

- Learning from interaction
 - Given the current situation, what to do next in order to maximize utility?



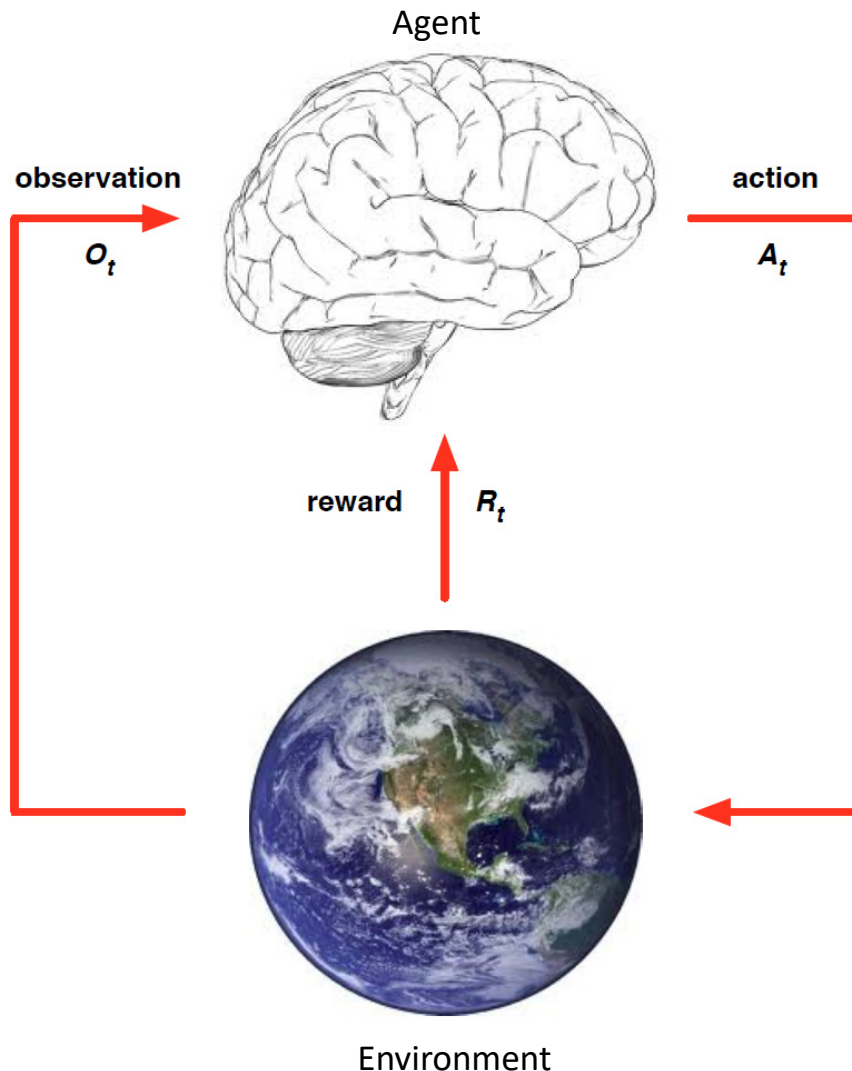
Reinforcement Learning Definition

- A computational approach by learning from interaction to achieve a goal



- Three aspects
 - Sensation: sense the state of the environment to some extent
 - Action: able to take actions that affect the state and achieve the goal
 - Goal: maximize the cumulative reward over time

Reinforcement Learning



- At each step t , the agent
 - Receives observation O_t
 - Receives scalar reward R_t
 - Executes action A_t
- The environment
 - Receives action A_t
 - Emits observation O_{t+1}
 - Emits scalar reward R_{t+1}
- t increments at environment step

Elements of RL Systems

- **History** is the sequence of observations, action, rewards

$$H_t = O_1, R_1, A_1, O_2, R_2, A_2, \dots, O_{t-1}, R_{t-1}, A_{t-1}, O_t, R_t$$

- i.e. all observable variables up to time t
- E.g., the sensorimotor stream of a robot or embodied agent
- What happens next depends on the history:
 - The agent selects actions
 - The environment selects observations/rewards
- **State** is the information used to determine what happens next (actions, observations, rewards)
- Formally, state is a function of the history

$$S_t = f(H_t)$$

Elements of RL Systems

- **Policy** is the learning agent's way of behaving at a given time
 - It is a map from state to action
 - Deterministic policy

$$a = \pi(s)$$

- Stochastic policy

$$\pi(a|s) = P(A_t = a|S_t = s)$$

Elements of RL Systems

- Reward
 - A scalar defining the goal in an RL problem
 - For immediate sense of what is good
- Value function
 - State value is a scalar specifying what is good in the long run
 - Value function is a prediction of the cumulative future reward
 - Used to evaluate the goodness/badness of states (given the current policy)

$$v_{\pi}(s) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi}[R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \gamma^2 R_{t+3} + \dots | S_t = s]$$

Elements of RL Systems

- Reward

- A scalar defining the goal in an RL problem
- For immediate sense of what is good

- Value function

- State value is a scalar specifying what is a good state in the long run, i.e., the cumulative reward

$$v_{\pi}(s) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi}[R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \gamma^2 R_{t+3} + \dots | S_t = s]$$

- Action value is a scalar specifying what is a good action at a specific state in the long run

$$Q_{\pi}(s, a) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi}[R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \gamma^2 R_{t+3} + \dots | S_t = s, A_t = a]$$

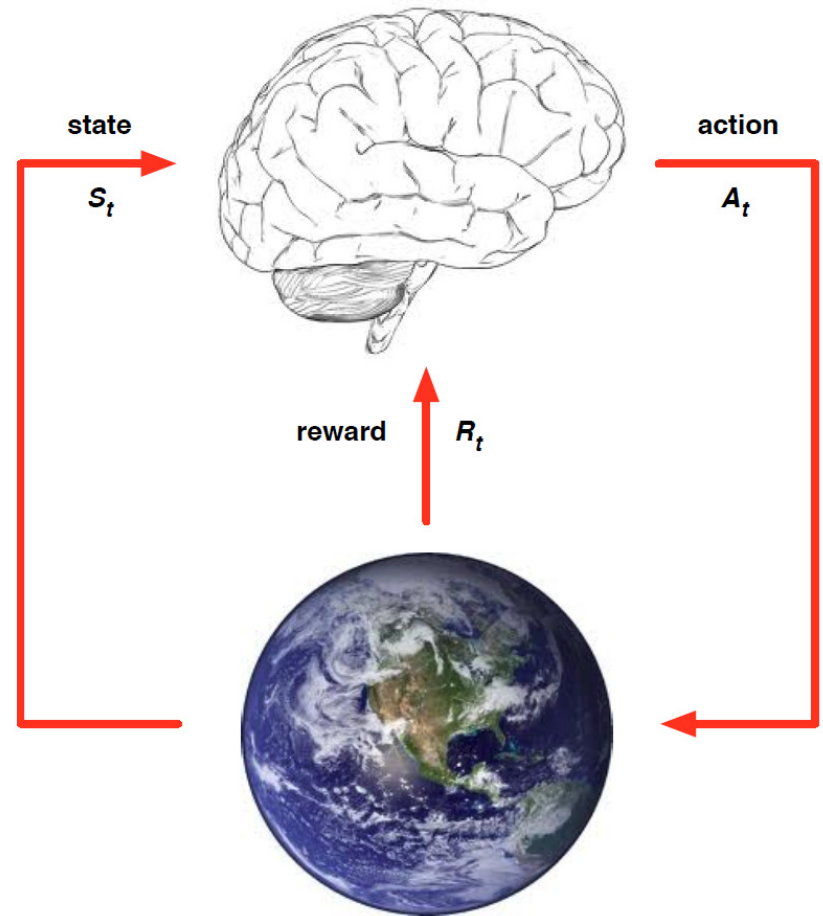
Elements of RL Systems

- A **Model** of the environment that mimics the behavior of the environment
 - Predict the next state

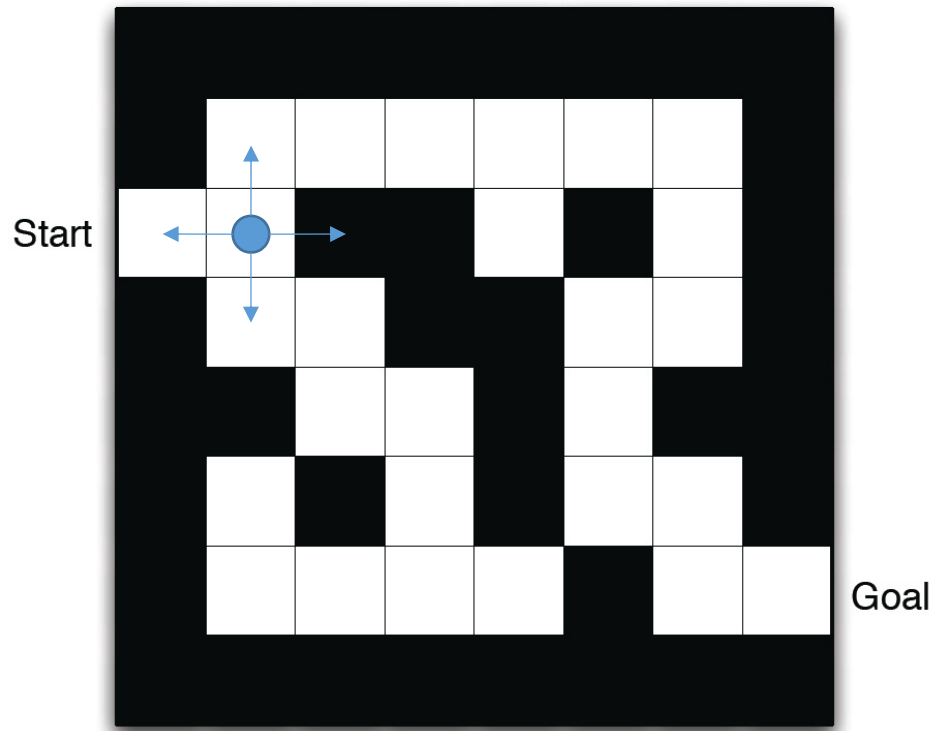
$$\mathcal{P}_{sa}(s') = \mathbb{P}[S_{t+1} = s' | S_t = s, A_t = a]$$

- Predicts the next (immediate) reward

$$\mathcal{R}_s(a) = \mathbb{E}[R_{t+1} | S_t = s, A_t = a]$$

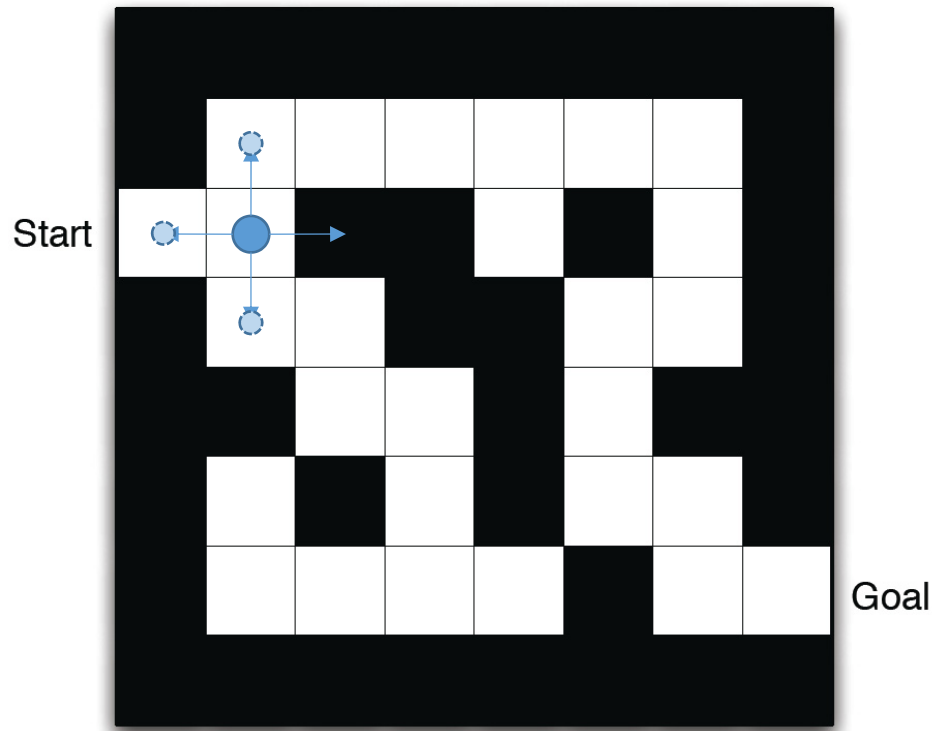


Maze Example



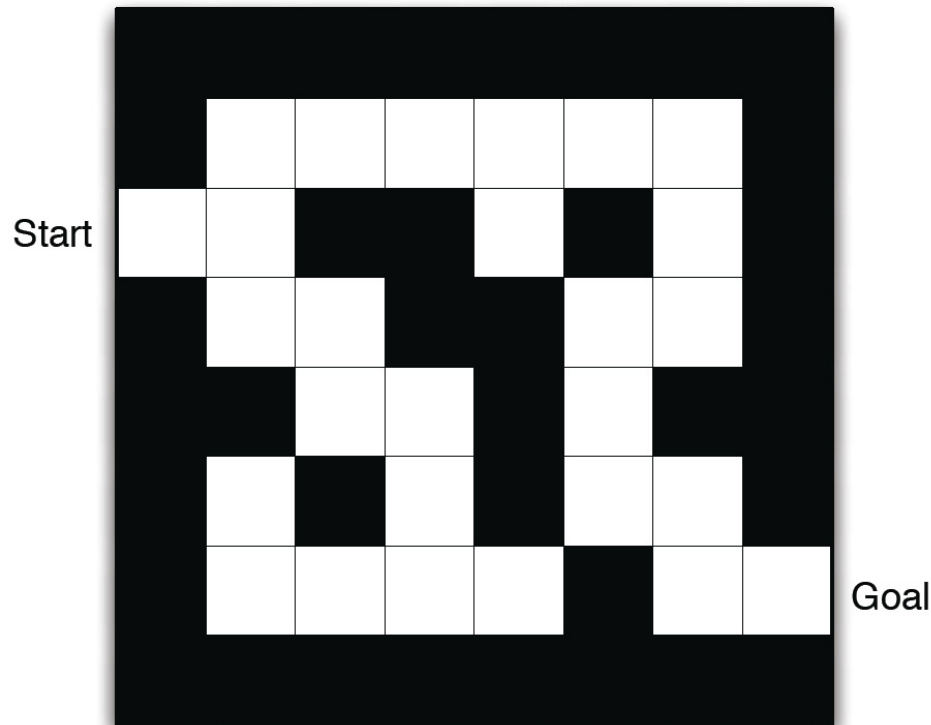
- State: agent's location
- Action: N,E,S,W

Maze Example



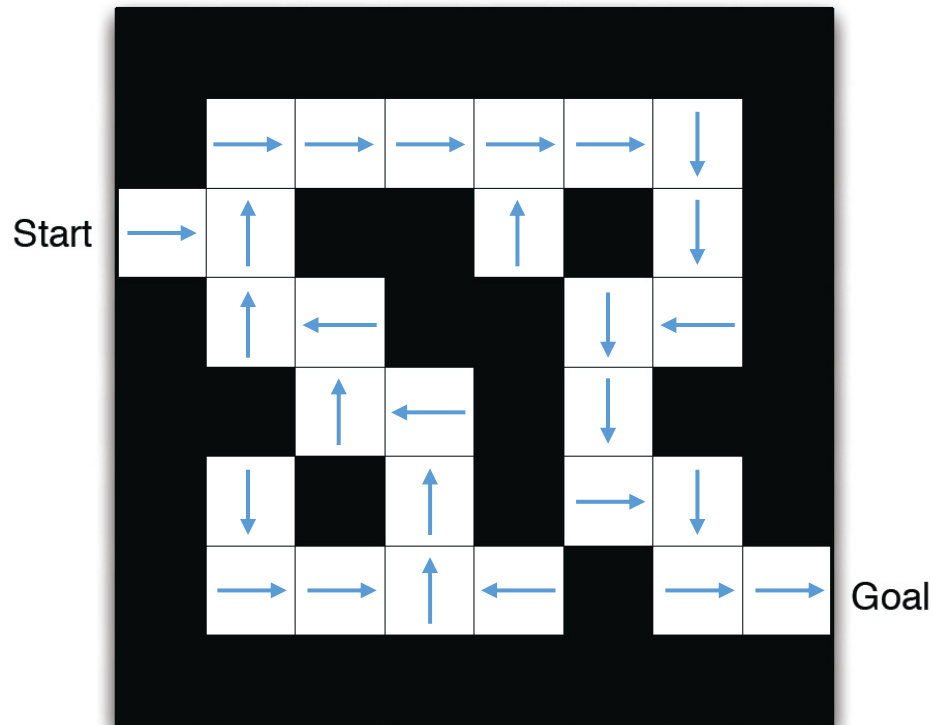
- State: agent's location
- Action: N,E,S,W
- State transition: move to the next grid according to the action
 - No move if the action is to the wall

Maze Example



- State: agent's location
- Action: N,E,S,W
- State transition: move to the next grid according to the action
- Reward: -1 per time step

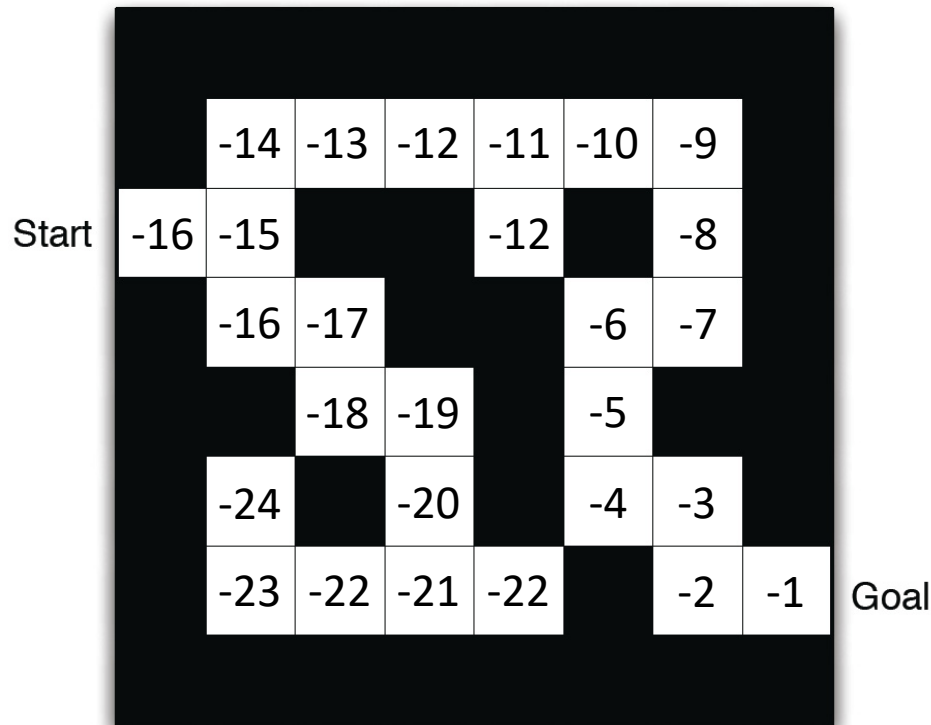
Maze Example



- State: agent's location
- Action: N,E,S,W
- State transition: move to the next grid according to the action
- Reward: -1 per time step

- Given a policy as shown above
 - Arrows represent policy $\pi(s)$ for each state s

Maze Example



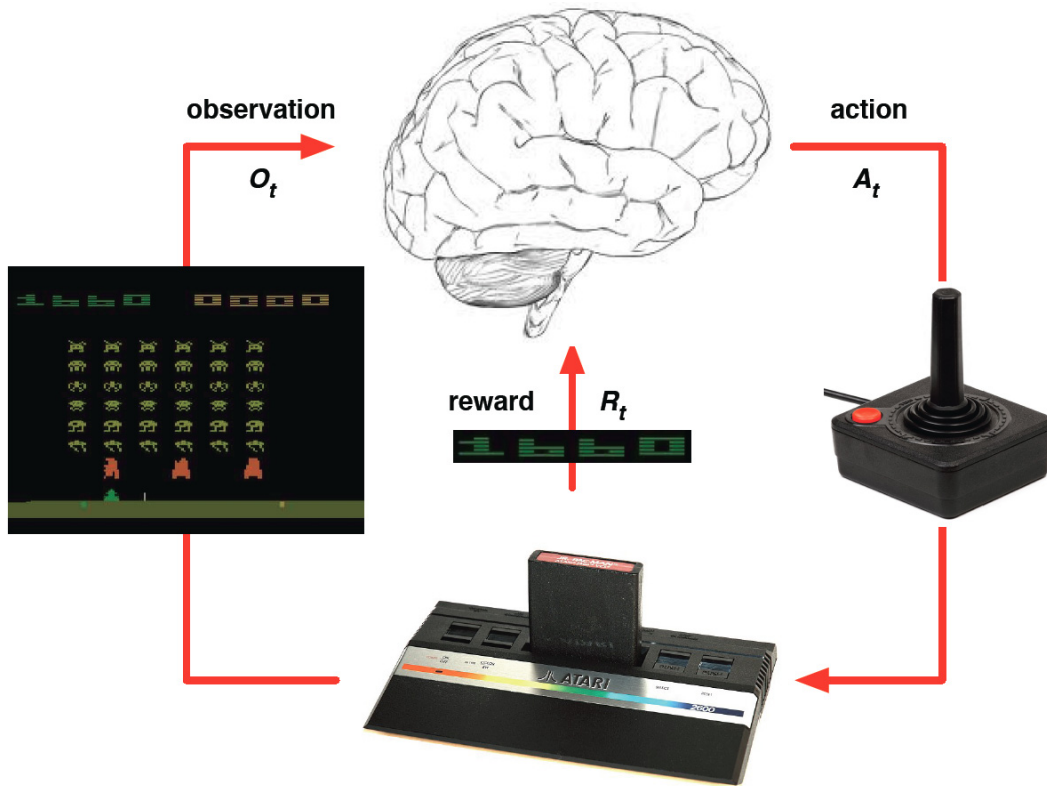
- State: agent's location
- Action: N,E,S,W
- State transition: move to the next grid according to the action
- Reward: -1 per time step

- Numbers represent value $v_\pi(s)$ of each state s

Categorizing RL Agents

- Model based RL
 - Policy and/or value function
 - Model of the environment
 - E.g., the maze game above, game of Go
- Model-free RL
 - Policy and/or value function
 - No model of the environment
 - E.g., general playing Atari games

Atari Example



- Rules of the game are unknown
- Learn from interactive game-play
- Pick actions on joystick, see pixels and scores

Categorizing RL Agents

- Value based
 - No policy (implicit)
 - Value function
- Policy based
 - Policy
 - No value function
- Actor Critic
 - Policy
 - Value function

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Markov Decision Process

- Markov decision processes (MDPs) provide a mathematical framework for modeling decision making in situations where outcomes are partly random and partly under the control of a decision maker.
- MDPs formally describe an environment for RL
 - where the environment is FULLY observable
 - i.e. the current state completely characterizes the process (Markov property)

Markov Property

“The future is independent of the past given the present”

- Definition

- A state S_t is Markov if and only if

$$\mathbb{P}[S_{t+1}|S_t] = \mathbb{P}[S_{t+1}|S_1, \dots, S_t]$$

- Properties

- The state captures all relevant information from the history
 - Once the state is known, the history may be thrown away
 - i.e. the state is sufficient statistic of the future

Markov Decision Process

- A Markov decision process is a tuple $(S, A, \{P_{sa}\}, \gamma, R)$
- S is the set of states
 - E.g., location in a maze, or current screen in an Atari game
- A is the set of actions
 - E.g., move N, E, S, W, or the direction of the joystick and the buttons
- P_{sa} are the state transition probabilities
 - For each state $s \in S$ and action $a \in A$, P_{sa} is a distribution over the next state in S
- $\gamma \in [0,1]$ is the discount factor for the future reward
- $R : S \times A \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is the reward function
 - Sometimes the reward is only assigned to state

Markov Decision Process

The dynamics of an MDP proceeds as

- Start in a state s_0
- The agent chooses some action $a_0 \in A$
- The agent gets the reward $R(s_0, a_0)$
- MDP randomly transits to some successor state $s_1 \sim P_{s_0 a_0}$
- This proceeds iteratively

$$s_0 \xrightarrow[R(s_0, a_0)]{a_0} s_1 \xrightarrow[R(s_1, a_1)]{a_1} s_2 \xrightarrow[R(s_2, a_2)]{a_2} s_3 \cdots$$

- Until a terminal state s_T or proceeds with no end
- The total payoff of the agent is

$$R(s_0, a_0) + \gamma R(s_1, a_1) + \gamma^2 R(s_2, a_2) + \cdots$$

Reward on State Only

- For a large part of cases, reward is only assigned to the state
 - E.g., in maze game, the reward is on the location
 - In game of Go, the reward is only based on the final territory
- The reward function $R(s) : S \mapsto \mathbb{R}$
- MDPs proceed

$$s_0 \xrightarrow[R(s_0)]{a_0} s_1 \xrightarrow[R(s_1)]{a_1} s_2 \xrightarrow[R(s_2)]{a_2} s_3 \cdots$$

- cumulative reward (total payoff)

$$R(s_0) + \gamma R(s_1) + \gamma^2 R(s_2) + \cdots$$

MDP Goal and Policy

- The goal is to choose actions over time to maximize the expected cumulative reward

$$\mathbb{E}[R(s_0) + \gamma R(s_1) + \gamma^2 R(s_2) + \cdots]$$

- $\gamma \in [0,1]$ is the discount factor for the future reward, which makes the agent prefer immediate reward to future reward
 - In finance case, today's \$1 is more valuable than \$1 in tomorrow
- Given a particular policy $\pi(s) : S \mapsto A$
 - i.e. take the action $a = \pi(s)$ at state s
- Define the value function for π

$$V^\pi(s) = \mathbb{E}[R(s_0) + \gamma R(s_1) + \gamma^2 R(s_2) + \cdots | s_0 = s, \pi]$$

- i.e. expected cumulative reward given the start state and taking actions according to π

Bellman Equation for Value Function

- Define the value function for π

$$V^\pi(s) = \mathbb{E}[R(s_0) + \underbrace{\gamma R(s_1) + \gamma^2 R(s_2) + \cdots}_{\gamma V^\pi(s_1)} | s_0 = s, \pi]$$

$$= R(s) + \gamma \sum_{s' \in S} P_{s\pi(s)}(s') V^\pi(s')$$

Bellman Equation

Immediate
Reward

Time
decay

State
transition

Value of
the next
state

Optimal Value Function

- The optimal value function for each state s is best possible sum of discounted rewards that can be attained by any policy

$$V^*(s) = \max_{\pi} V^{\pi}(s)$$

- The Bellman's equation for optimal value function

$$V^*(s) = R(s) + \max_{a \in A} \gamma \sum_{s' \in S} P_{sa}(s') V^*(s')$$

- The optimal policy

$$\pi^*(s) = \arg \max_{a \in A} \sum_{s' \in S} P_{sa}(s') V^*(s')$$

- For every state s and every policy π

$$V^*(s) = V^{\pi^*}(s) \geq V^{\pi}(s)$$

Value Iteration & Policy Iteration

- Note that the value function and policy are correlated

$$V^\pi(s) = R(s) + \gamma \sum_{s' \in S} P_{s\pi(s)}(s') V^\pi(s')$$

$$\pi(s) = \arg \max_{a \in A} \sum_{s' \in S} P_{sa}(s') V^\pi(s')$$

- It is feasible to perform iterative update towards the optimal value function and optimal policy
 - Value iteration
 - Policy iteration

Value Iteration

- For an MDP with finite state and action spaces

$$|S| < \infty, |A| < \infty$$

- Value iteration is performed as

1. For each state s , initialize $V(s) = 0$.

2. Repeat until convergence {

For each state, update

$$V(s) = R(s) + \max_{a \in A} \gamma \sum_{s' \in S} P_{sa}(s') V(s')$$

}

- Note that there is no explicit policy in above calculation

Synchronous vs. Asynchronous VI

- Synchronous value iteration stores two copies of value functions

1. For all s in S

$$V_{\text{new}}(s) \leftarrow \max_{a \in A} \left(R(s) + \gamma \sum_{s' \in S} P_{sa}(s') V_{\text{old}}(s') \right)$$

2. Update $V_{\text{old}}(s') \leftarrow V_{\text{new}}(s)$

- In-place asynchronous value iteration stores one copy of value function

1. For all s in S

$$V(s) \leftarrow \max_{a \in A} \left(R(s) + \gamma \sum_{s' \in S} P_{sa}(s') V(s') \right)$$

Value Iteration Example: Shortest Path

g			

Problem

0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0

V_1

0	-1	-1	-1
-1	-1	-1	-1
-1	-1	-1	-1
-1	-1	-1	-1

V_2

0	-1	-2	-2
-1	-2	-2	-2
-2	-2	-2	-2
-2	-2	-2	-2

V_3

0	-1	-2	-3
-1	-2	-3	-3
-2	-3	-3	-3
-3	-3	-3	-3

V_4

0	-1	-2	-3
-1	-2	-3	-4
-2	-3	-4	-4
-3	-4	-4	-4

V_5

0	-1	-2	-3
-1	-2	-3	-4
-2	-3	-4	-5
-3	-4	-5	-5

V_6

0	-1	-2	-3
-1	-2	-3	-4
-2	-3	-4	-5
-3	-4	-5	-6

V_7

Policy Iteration

- For an MDP with finite state and action spaces

$$|S| < \infty, |A| < \infty$$

- Policy iteration is performed as

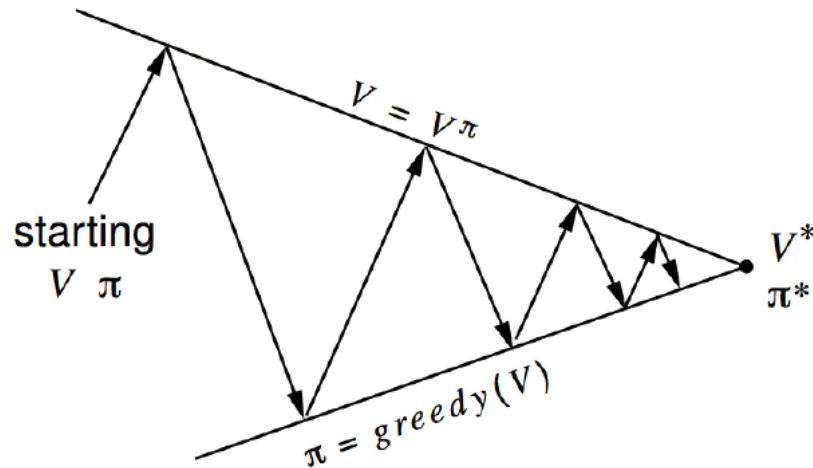
1. Initialize π randomly
2. Repeat until convergence {
 - a) Let $V := V^\pi$
 - b) For each state, update

$$\pi(s) = \arg \max_{a \in A} \sum_{s' \in S} P_{sa}(s') V(s')$$

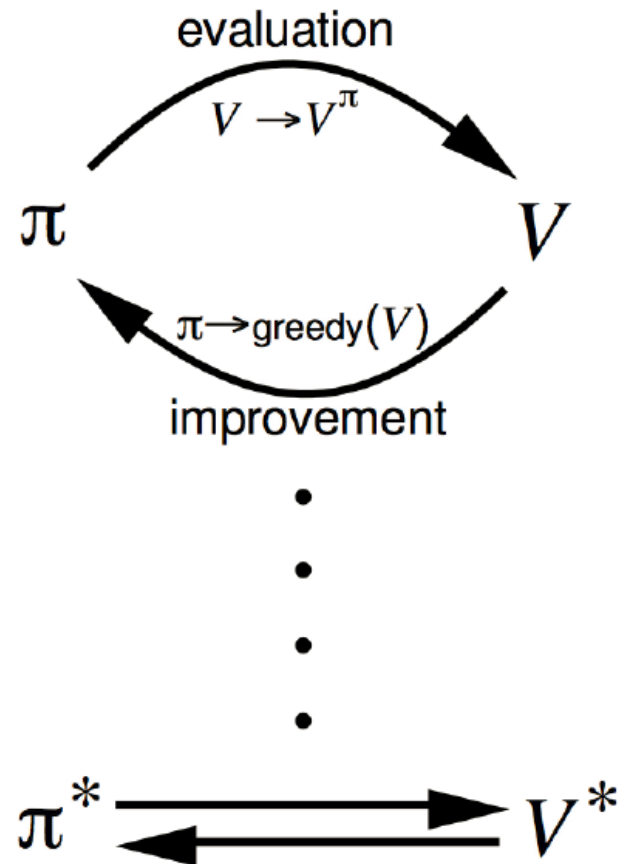
}

- The step of value function update could be time-consuming

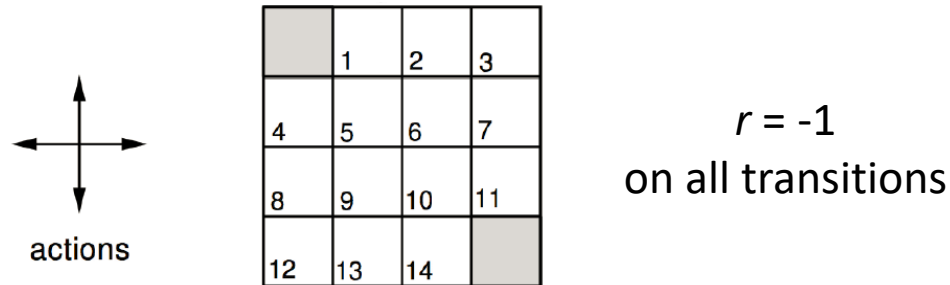
Policy Iteration



- Policy evaluation
 - Estimate V^π
 - Iterative policy evaluation
- Policy improvement
 - Generate $\pi' \geq \pi$
 - Greedy policy improvement



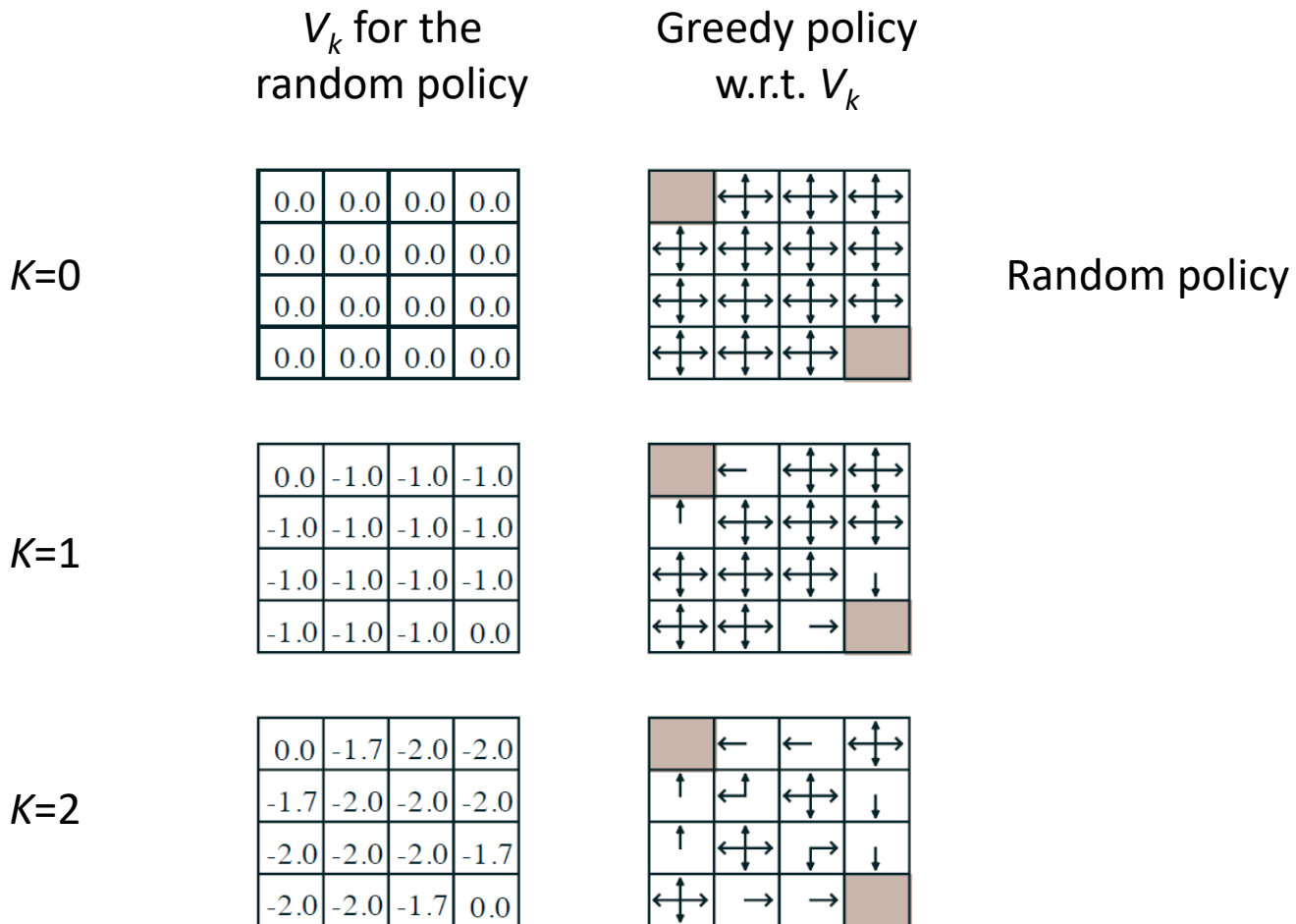
Evaluating a Random Policy in a Small Gridworld



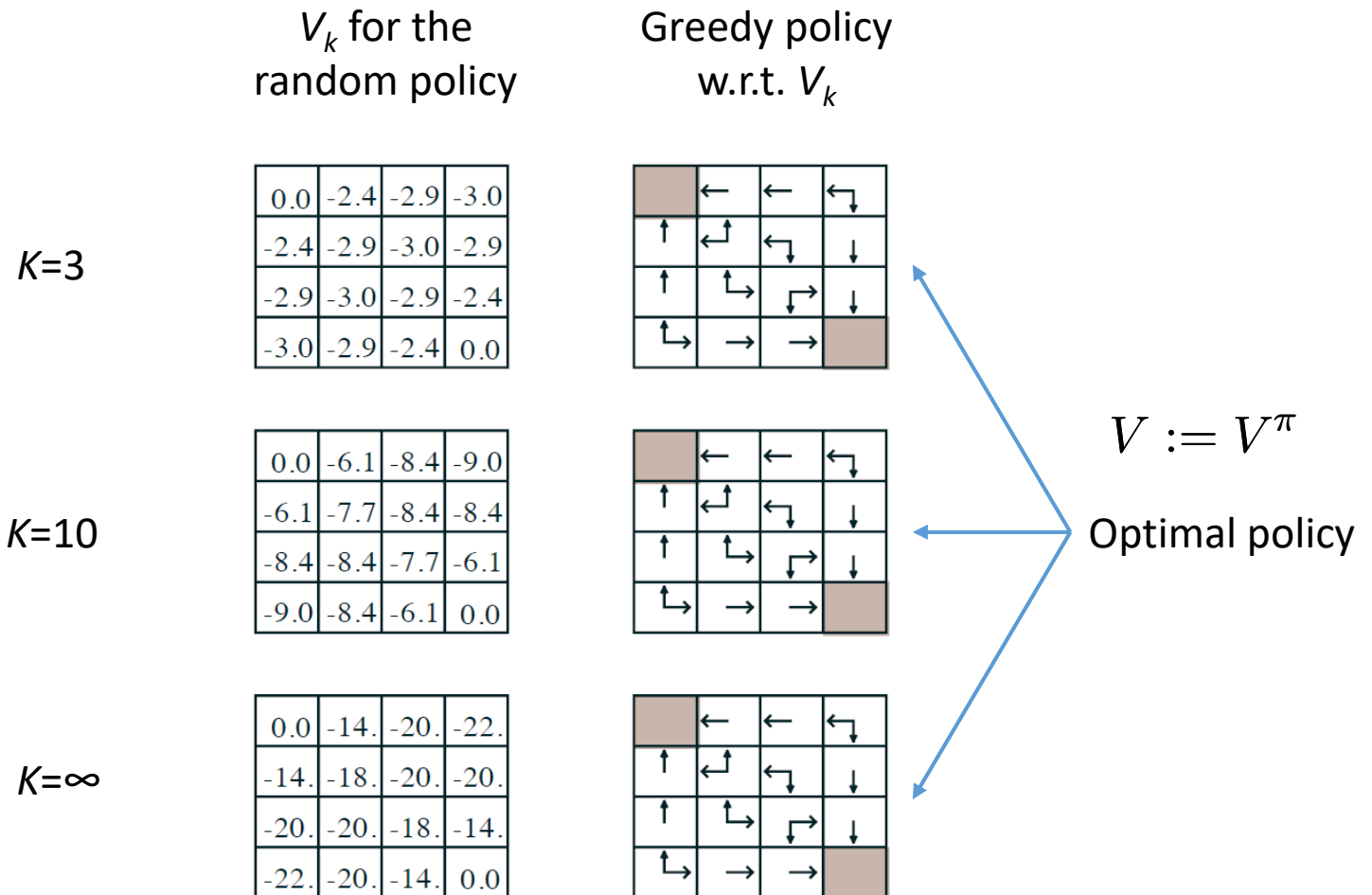
- Undiscounted episodic MDP ($\gamma=1$)
- Nonterminal states 1,...,14
- Two terminal states (shaded squares)
- Actions leading out of the grid leave state unchanged
- Reward is -1 until the terminal state is reached
- Agent follows a uniform random policy

$$\pi(n|\cdot) = \pi(e|\cdot) = \pi(s|\cdot) = \pi(w|\cdot) = 0.25$$

Evaluating a Random Policy in a Small Gridworld



Evaluating a Random Policy in a Small Gridworld



Value Iteration vs. Policy Iteration

Value iteration

1. For each state s , initialize $V(s) = 0$.

2. Repeat until convergence {

For each state, update

$$V(s) = R(s) + \max_{a \in A} \gamma \sum_{s' \in S} P_{sa}(s') V(s')$$

}

Policy iteration

1. Initialize π randomly

2. Repeat until convergence {

a) Let $V := V^\pi$

b) For each state, update

$$\pi(s) = \arg \max_{a \in A} \sum_{s' \in S} P_{sa}(s') V(s')$$

}

Remarks:

1. Value iteration is a greedy update strategy
2. In policy iteration, the value function update by bellman equation is costly
3. For small-space MDPs, policy iteration is often very fast and converges quickly
4. For large-space MDPs, value iteration is more practical (efficient)
5. If there is no state-transition loop, it is better to use value iteration

My point of view: value iteration is like SGD and policy iteration is like BGD

Learning an MDP Model

- So far we have been focused on
 - Calculating the optimal value function
 - Learning the optimal policygiven a known MDP model
 - i.e. the state transition $P_{sa}(s')$ and reward function $R(s)$ are explicitly given
- In realistic problems, often the state transition and reward function are not explicitly given
 - For example, we have only observed some episodes

$$\text{Episode 1: } s_0^{(1)} \xrightarrow[R(s_0)^{(1)}]{a_0^{(1)}} s_1^{(1)} \xrightarrow[R(s_1)^{(1)}]{a_1^{(1)}} s_2^{(1)} \xrightarrow[R(s_2)^{(1)}]{a_2^{(1)}} s_3^{(1)} \cdots s_T^{(1)}$$

$$\text{Episode 2: } s_0^{(2)} \xrightarrow[R(s_0)^{(2)}]{a_0^{(2)}} s_1^{(2)} \xrightarrow[R(s_1)^{(2)}]{a_1^{(2)}} s_2^{(2)} \xrightarrow[R(s_2)^{(2)}]{a_2^{(2)}} s_3^{(2)} \cdots s_T^{(2)}$$

Learning an MDP Model

$$\text{Episode 1: } s_0^{(1)} \xrightarrow[R(s_0)^{(1)}]{a_0^{(1)}} s_1^{(1)} \xrightarrow[R(s_1)^{(1)}]{a_1^{(1)}} s_2^{(1)} \xrightarrow[R(s_2)^{(1)}]{a_2^{(1)}} s_3^{(1)} \cdots s_T^{(1)}$$

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⋮

⋮

- Learn an MDP model from “experience”

- Learning state transition probabilities $P_{sa}(s')$

$$P_{sa}(s') = \frac{\text{\#times we took action } a \text{ in state } s \text{ and got to state } s'}{\text{\#times we took action } a \text{ in state } s}$$

- Learning reward $R(s)$, i.e. the expected immediate reward

$$R(s) = \text{average} \left\{ R(s)^{(i)} \right\}$$

Learning Model and Optimizing Policy

- Algorithm

1. Initialize π randomly.
2. Repeat until convergence {
 - a) Execute π in the MDP for some number of trials
 - b) Using the accumulated experience in the MDP, update our estimates for P_{sa} and R
 - c) Apply value iteration with the estimated P_{sa} and R to get the new estimated value function V
 - d) Update π to be the greedy policy w.r.t. V}

Learning an MDP Model

- In realistic problems, often the state transition and reward function are not explicitly given
 - For example, we have only observed some episodes

Episode 1: $s_0^{(1)} \xrightarrow[R(s_0)^{(1)}]{a_0^{(1)}} s_1^{(1)} \xrightarrow[R(s_1)^{(1)}]{a_1^{(1)}} s_2^{(1)} \xrightarrow[R(s_2)^{(1)}]{a_2^{(1)}} s_3^{(1)} \cdots s_T^{(1)}$

Episode 2: $s_0^{(2)} \xrightarrow[R(s_0)^{(2)}]{a_0^{(2)}} s_1^{(2)} \xrightarrow[R(s_1)^{(2)}]{a_1^{(2)}} s_2^{(2)} \xrightarrow[R(s_2)^{(2)}]{a_2^{(2)}} s_3^{(2)} \cdots s_T^{(2)}$

- Another branch of solution is to directly learning value & policy from experience without building an MDP
- i.e. Model-free Reinforcement Learning

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Model-free Reinforcement Learning

- In realistic problems, often the state transition and reward function are not explicitly given
 - For example, we have only observed some episodes

Episode 1: $s_0^{(1)} \xrightarrow[R(s_0)^{(1)}]{a_0^{(1)}} s_1^{(1)} \xrightarrow[R(s_1)^{(1)}]{a_1^{(1)}} s_2^{(1)} \xrightarrow[R(s_2)^{(1)}]{a_2^{(1)}} s_3^{(1)} \dots s_T^{(1)}$

Episode 2: $s_0^{(2)} \xrightarrow[R(s_0)^{(2)}]{a_0^{(2)}} s_1^{(2)} \xrightarrow[R(s_1)^{(2)}]{a_1^{(2)}} s_2^{(2)} \xrightarrow[R(s_2)^{(2)}]{a_2^{(2)}} s_3^{(2)} \dots s_T^{(2)}$

- Model-free RL is to directly learn value & policy from experience without building an MDP
- Key steps: (1) estimate value function; (2) optimize policy

Value Function Estimation

- In model-based RL (MDP), the value function is calculated by dynamic programming

$$\begin{aligned} V^\pi(s) &= \mathbb{E}[R(s_0) + \gamma R(s_1) + \gamma^2 R(s_2) + \dots | s_0 = s, \pi] \\ &= R(s) + \gamma \sum_{s' \in S} P_{s\pi(s)}(s') V^\pi(s') \end{aligned}$$

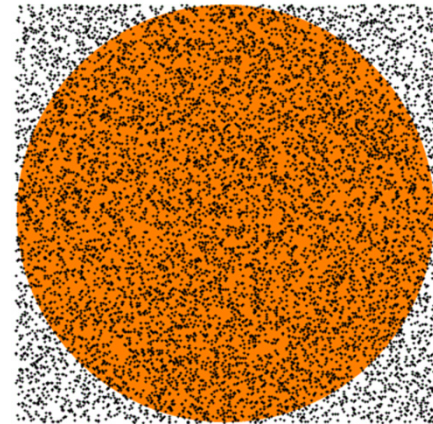
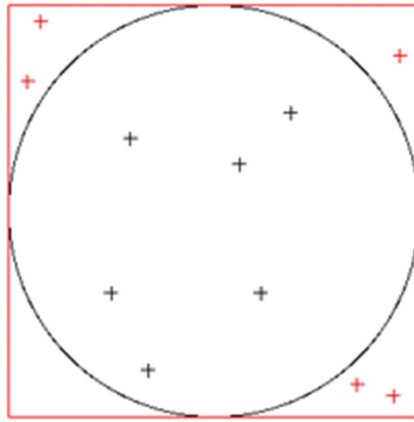
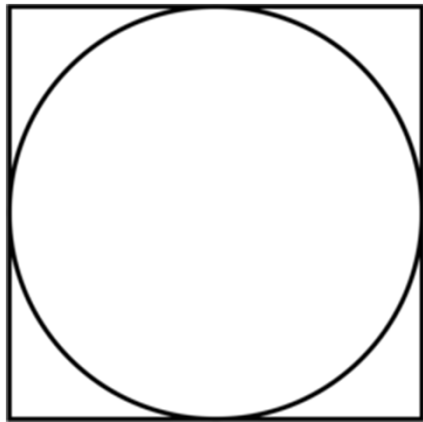
- Now in model-free RL
 - We cannot directly know P_{sa} and R
 - But we have a list of experiences to estimate the values

$$\text{Episode 1: } s_0^{(1)} \xrightarrow[R(s_0)^{(1)}]{a_0^{(1)}} s_1^{(1)} \xrightarrow[R(s_1)^{(1)}]{a_1^{(1)}} s_2^{(1)} \xrightarrow[R(s_2)^{(1)}]{a_2^{(1)}} s_3^{(1)} \dots s_T^{(1)}$$

$$\text{Episode 2: } s_0^{(2)} \xrightarrow[R(s_0)^{(2)}]{a_0^{(2)}} s_1^{(2)} \xrightarrow[R(s_1)^{(2)}]{a_1^{(2)}} s_2^{(2)} \xrightarrow[R(s_2)^{(2)}]{a_2^{(2)}} s_3^{(2)} \dots s_T^{(2)}$$

Monte-Carlo Methods

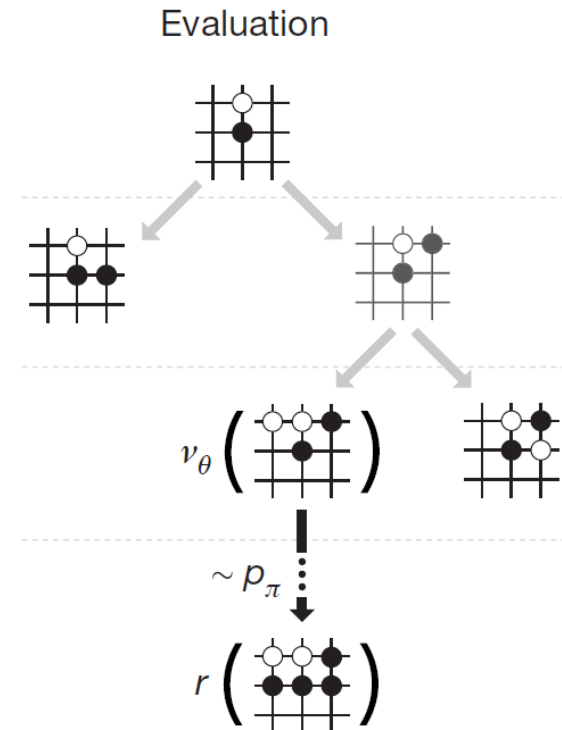
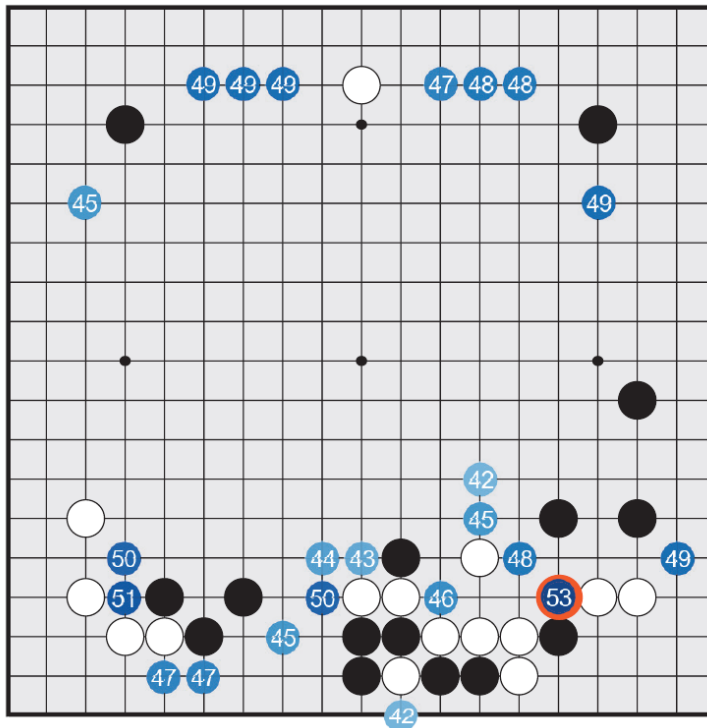
- Monte-Carlo methods are a broad class of computational algorithms that rely on repeated random sampling to obtain numerical results.
- Example, to calculate the circle's surface



$$\text{Circle Surface} = \text{Square Surface} \times \frac{\text{\#points in circle}}{\text{\#points in total}}$$

Monte-Carlo Methods

- Go: to estimate the winning rate given the current state



$$\text{Win Rate}(s) = \frac{\# \text{win simulation cases started from } s}{\# \text{simulation cases started from } s \text{ in total}}$$

Monte-Carlo Value Estimation

- Goal: learn V^π from episodes of experience under policy π

$$s_0^{(i)} \xrightarrow[R_1^{(i)}]{a_0^{(i)}} s_1^{(i)} \xrightarrow[R_2^{(i)}]{a_1^{(i)}} s_2^{(i)} \xrightarrow[R_3^{(i)}]{a_2^{(i)}} s_3^{(i)} \cdots s_T^{(i)} \sim \pi$$

- Recall that the return is the total discounted reward

$$G_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \dots \gamma^{T-1} R_T$$

- Recall that the value function is the expected return

$$\begin{aligned} V^\pi(s) &= \mathbb{E}[R(s_0) + \gamma R(s_1) + \gamma^2 R(s_2) + \dots | s_0 = s, \pi] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[G_t | s_t = s, \pi] \end{aligned}$$

$$\simeq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N G_t^{(i)}$$

- Sample N episodes from state s using policy π
- Calculate the average of cumulative reward

- Monte-Carlo policy evaluation uses empirical mean return instead of expected return

Monte-Carlo Value Estimation

- Implementation
 - Sample episodes policy π

$$s_0^{(i)} \xrightarrow[R_1^{(i)}]{a_0^{(i)}} s_1^{(i)} \xrightarrow[R_2^{(i)}]{a_1^{(i)}} s_2^{(i)} \xrightarrow[R_3^{(i)}]{a_2^{(i)}} s_3^{(i)} \cdots s_T^{(i)} \sim \pi$$

- Every time-step t that state s is visited in an episode
 - Increment counter $N(s) \leftarrow N(s) + 1$
 - Increment total return $S(s) \leftarrow S(s) + G_t$
 - Value is estimated by mean return $V(s) = S(s)/N(s)$
 - By law of large numbers

$$V(s) \rightarrow V^\pi(s) \text{ as } N(s) \rightarrow \infty$$

Incremental Monte-Carlo Updates

- Update $V(s)$ incrementally after each episode
- For each state S_t with cumulative return G_t

$$N(S_t) \leftarrow N(S_t) + 1$$
$$V(S_t) \leftarrow V(S_t) + \frac{1}{N(S_t)}(G_t - V(S_t))$$

- For non-stationary problems (i.e. the environment could be varying over time), it can be useful to track a running mean, i.e. forget old episodes

$$V(S_t) \leftarrow V(S_t) + \alpha(G_t - V(S_t))$$

Monte-Carlo Value Estimation

Idea:
$$V(S_t) \simeq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N G_t^{(i)}$$

Implementation:
$$V(S_t) \leftarrow V(S_t) + \alpha(G_t - V(S_t))$$

- MC methods learn directly from episodes of experience
- MC is model-free: no knowledge of MDP transitions / rewards
- MC learns from **complete** episodes: no bootstrapping (discussed later)
- MC uses the simplest possible idea: value = mean return
- Caveat: can only apply MC to episodic MDPs
 - All episodes must terminate

Temporal-Difference Learning

$$G_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \gamma^2 R_{t+3} + \dots = R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1})$$

$$V(S_t) \leftarrow V(S_t) + \alpha(R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1}) - V(S_t))$$

↑
Observation

↑
Guess of
future

- TD methods learn directly from episodes of experience
- TD is model-free: no knowledge of MDP transitions / rewards
- TD learns from incomplete episodes, by bootstrapping
- TD updates a guess towards a guess

Monte Carlo vs. Temporal Difference

- The same goal: learn V^π from episodes of experience under policy π

- Incremental every-visit Monte-Carlo

- Update value $V(S_t)$ toward actual return G_t

$$V(S_t) \leftarrow V(S_t) + \alpha(G_t - V(S_t))$$

- Simplest temporal-difference learning algorithm: TD

- Update value $V(S_t)$ toward estimated return $R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1})$

$$V(S_t) \leftarrow V(S_t) + \alpha(R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1}) - V(S_t))$$

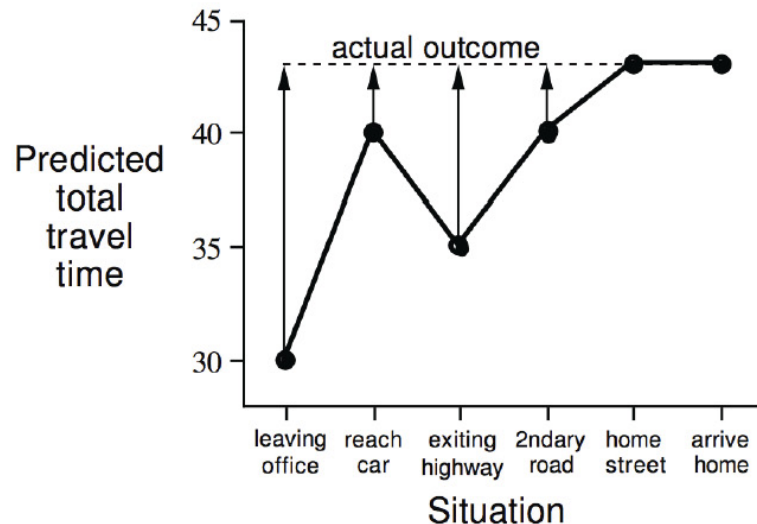
- TD target: $R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1})$
 - TD error: $\delta_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1}) - V(S_t)$

Driving Home Example

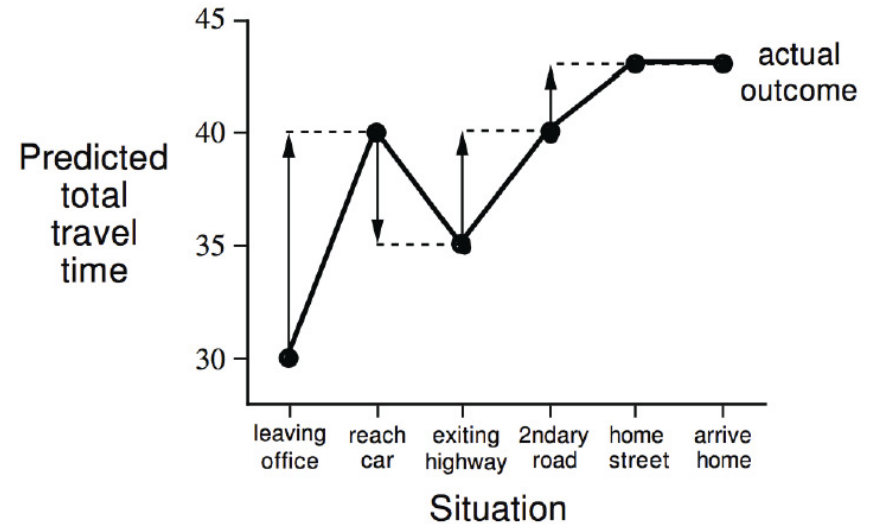
State	Elapsed Time (Minutes)	Predicted Time to Go	Predicted Total Time
Leaving office	0	30	30
Reach car, raining	5	35	40
Exit highway	20	15	35
Behind truck	30	10	40
Home street	40	3	43
Arrive home	43	0	43

Driving Home Example: MC vs. TD

Changes recommended by
Monte Carlo methods ($\alpha=1$)



Changes recommended
by TD methods ($\alpha=1$)



Advantages and Disadvantages of MC vs. TD

- TD can learn before knowing the final outcome
 - TD can learn online after every step
 - MC must wait until end of episode before return is known
- TD can learn without the final outcome
 - TD can learn from incomplete sequences
 - MC can only learn from complete sequences
 - TD works in continuing (non-terminating) environments
 - MC only works for episodic (terminating) environments

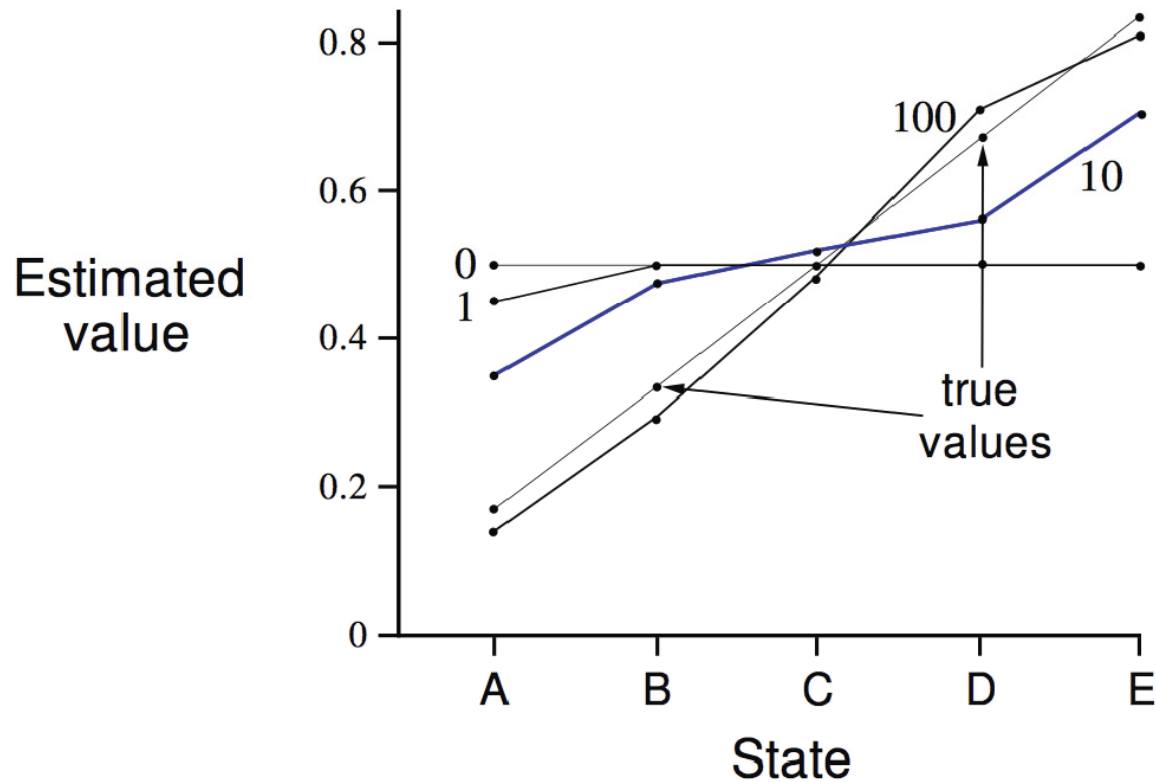
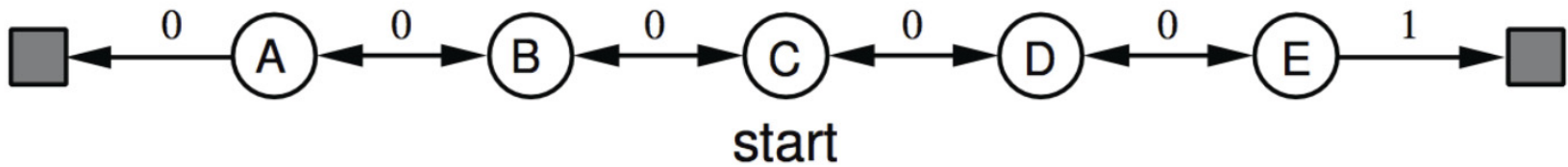
Bias/Variance Trade-Off

- Return $G_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \dots + \gamma^{T-1} R_T$ is unbiased estimate of $V^\pi(S_t)$
- **True** TD target $R_{t+1} + \gamma V^\pi(S_{t+1})$ is unbiased estimate of $V^\pi(S_t)$
- TD target $R_{t+1} + \gamma \underbrace{V(S_{t+1})}_{\text{current estimate}}$ is biased estimate of $V^\pi(S_t)$
- TD target is of much lower variance than the return
 - Return depends on many random actions, transitions and rewards
 - TD target depends on one random action, transition and reward

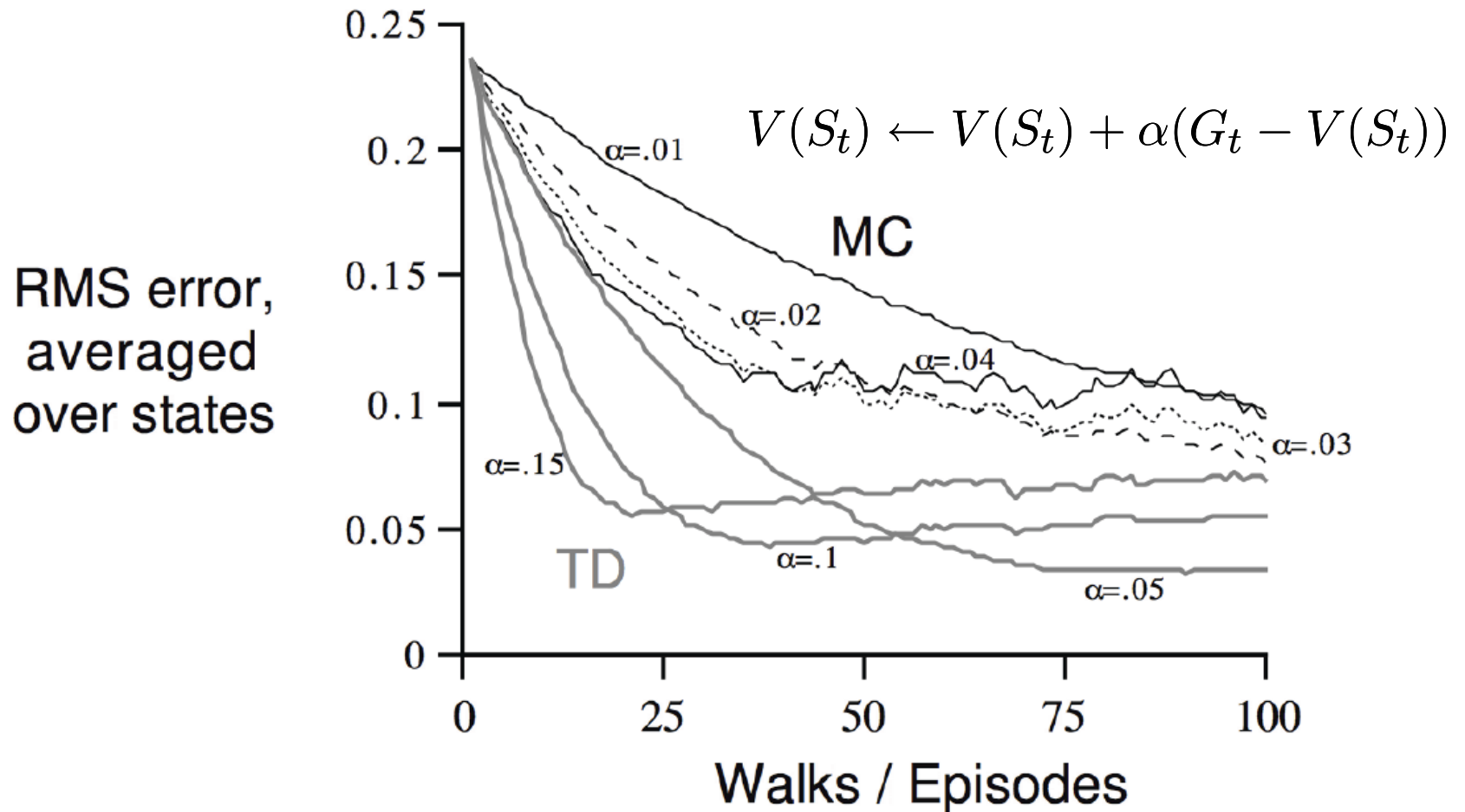
Advantages and Disadvantages of MC vs. TD (2)

- MC has high variance, zero bias
 - Good convergence properties
 - (even with function approximation)
 - Not very sensitive to initial value
 - Very simple to understand and use
- TD has low variance, some bias
 - Usually more efficient than MC
 - TD converges to $V^\pi(S_t)$
 - (but not always with function approximation)
 - More sensitive to initial value than MC

Random Walk Example

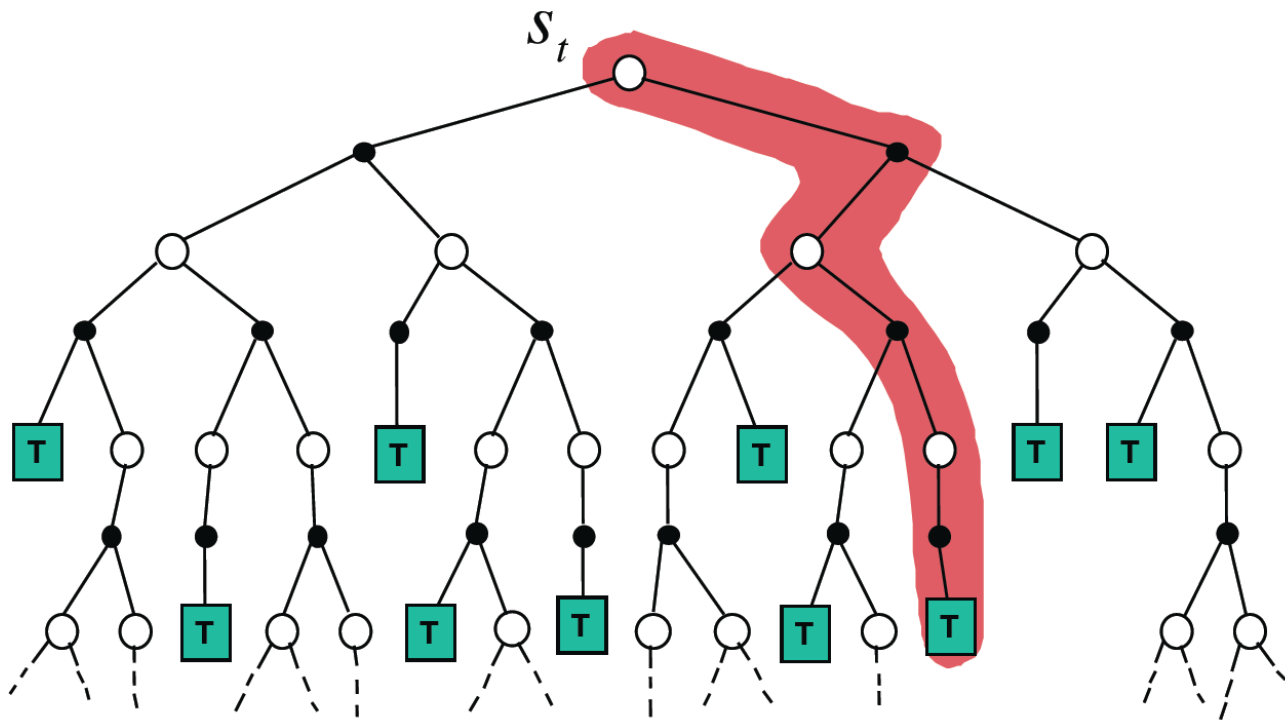


Random Walk Example



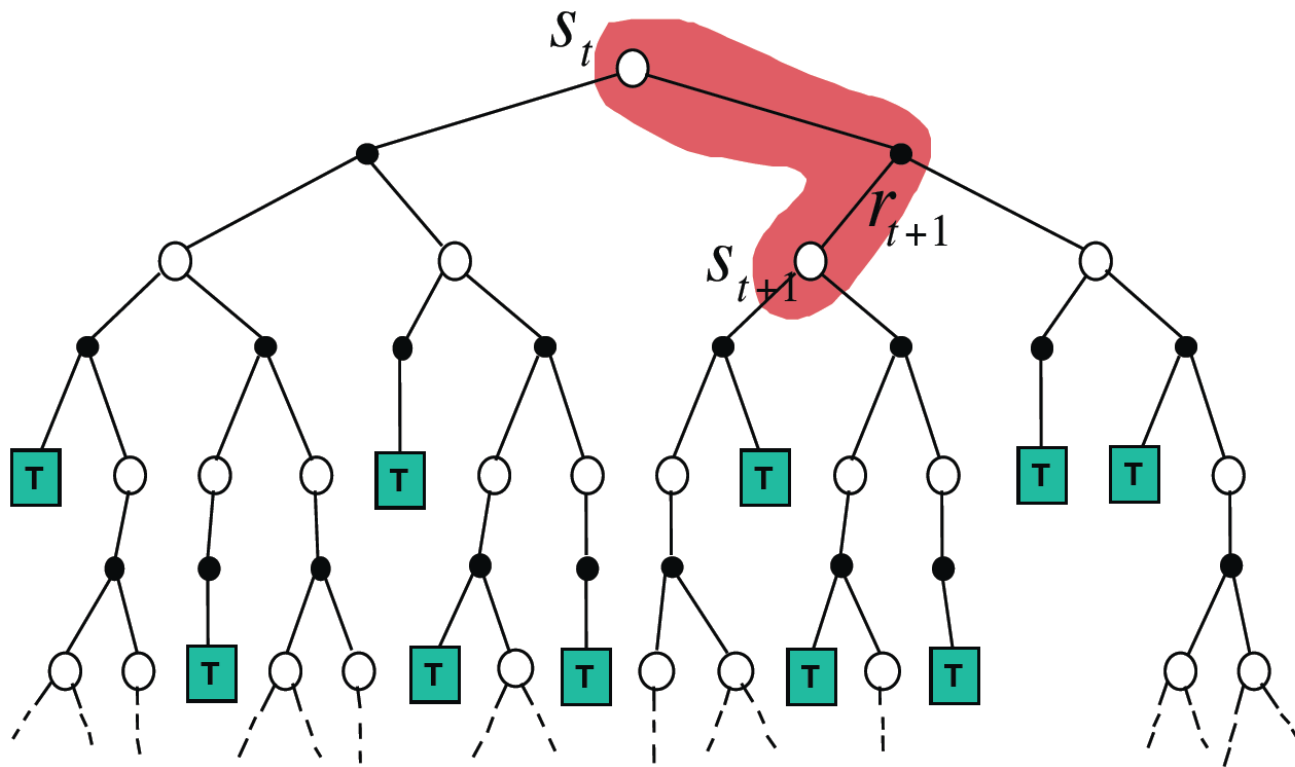
Monte-Carlo Backup

$$V(S_t) \leftarrow V(S_t) + \alpha(G_t - V(S_t))$$



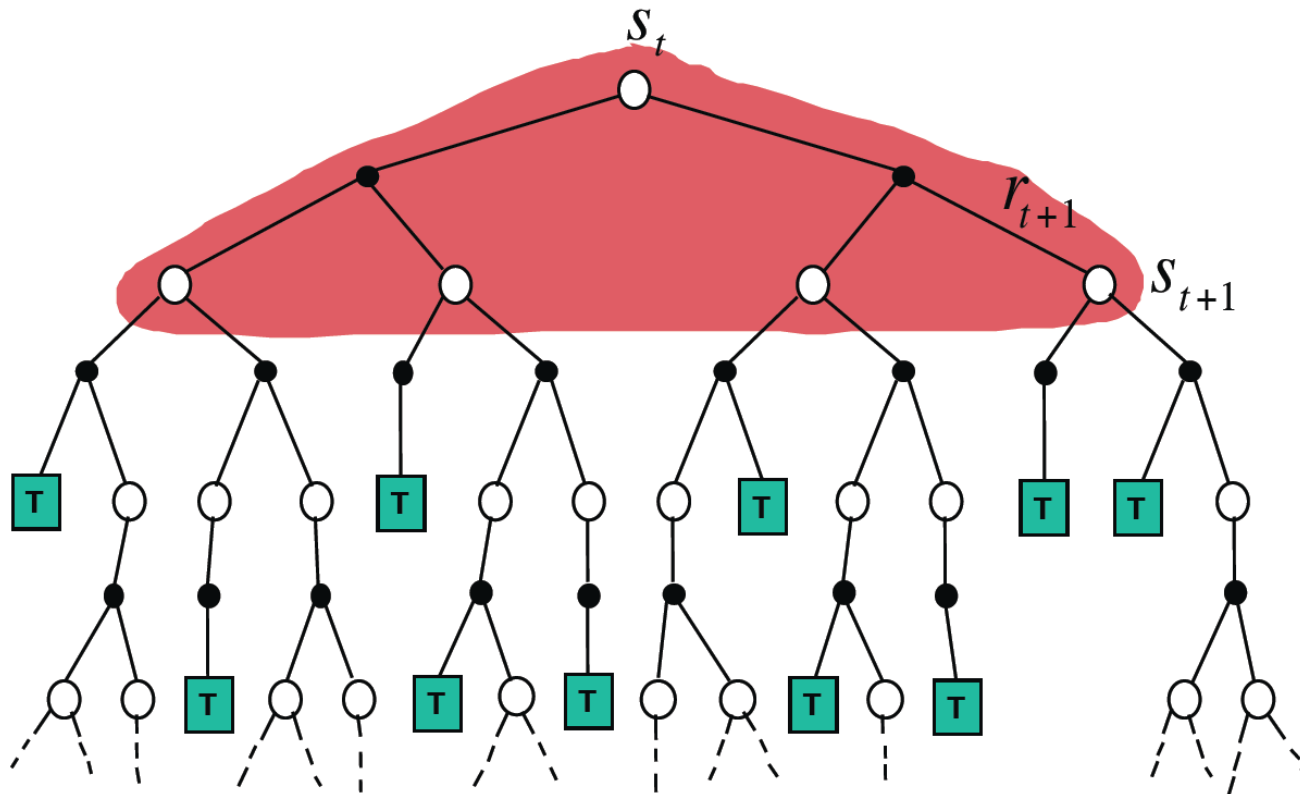
Temporal-Difference Backup

$$V(S_t) \leftarrow V(S_t) + \alpha(R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1}) - V(S_t))$$



Dynamic Programming Backup

$$V(S_t) \leftarrow \mathbb{E}[R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1})]$$



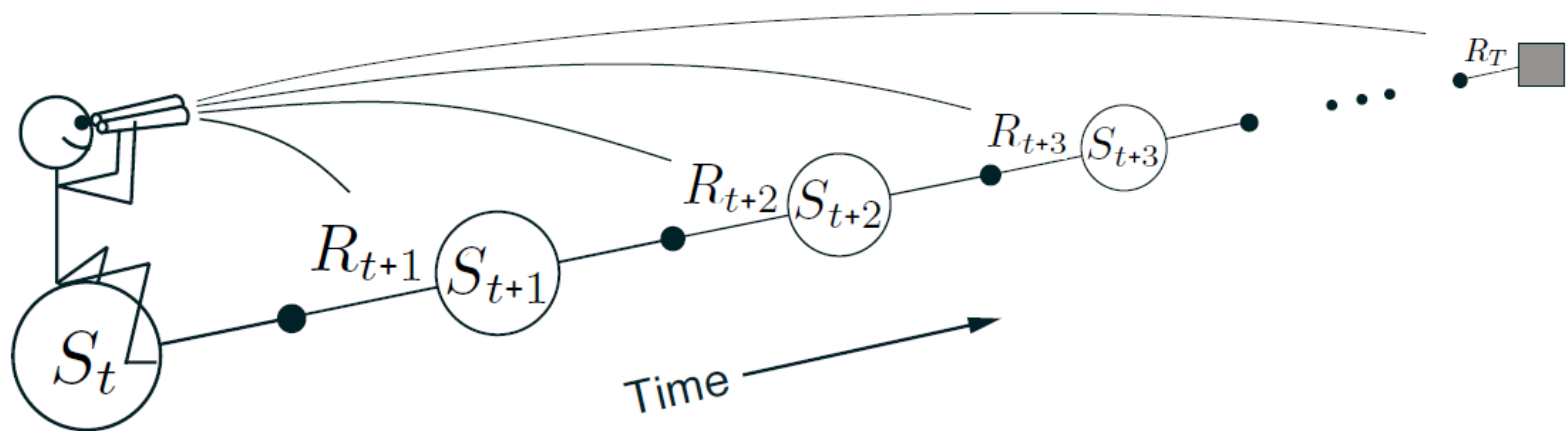
- For time constraint, we may jump n-step prediction section and directly head to model-free control

- Define the n -step return

$$G_t^{(n)} = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \dots + \gamma^{n-1} R_{t+n} + \gamma^n V(S_{t+n})$$

- n -step temporal-difference learning

$$V(S_t) \leftarrow V(S_t) + \alpha(G_t^{(n)} - V(S_t))$$



Content

- Introduction to Reinforcement Learning
- Model-based Reinforcement Learning
 - Markov Decision Process
 - Planning by Dynamic Programming
- **Model-free Reinforcement Learning**
 - Model-free Prediction
 - Monte-Carlo and Temporal Difference
 - **Model-free Control**
 - On-policy SARSA and off-policy Q-learning

Uses of Model-Free Control

- Some example problems that can be modeled as MDPs
 - Elevator
 - Parallel parking
 - Ship steering
 - Bioreactor
 - Helicopter
 - Aeroplane logistics
 - Robocup soccer
 - Atari & StarCraft
 - Portfolio management
 - Protein folding
 - Robot walking
 - Game of Go
- For most of real-world problems, either:
 - MDP model is unknown, but experience can be sampled
 - MDP model is known, but is too big to use, except by samples
- Model-free control can solve these problems

On- and Off-Policy Learning

- Two categories of model-free RL
- On-policy learning
 - “Learn on the job”
 - Learn about policy π from experience sampled from π
- Off-policy learning
 - “Look over someone’s shoulder”
 - Learn about policy π from experience sampled from another policy μ

State Value and Action Value

$$G_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \dots \gamma^{T-1} R_T$$

- State value
 - The state-value function $V^\pi(s)$ of an MDP is the expected return starting from state s and then following policy π

$$V^\pi(s) = \mathbb{E}_\pi[G_t | S_t = s]$$

- Action value
 - The action-value function $Q^\pi(s,a)$ of an MDP is the expected return starting from state s , taking action a , and then following policy π

$$Q^\pi(s, a) = \mathbb{E}_\pi[G_t | S_t = s, A_t = a]$$

Bellman Expectation Equation

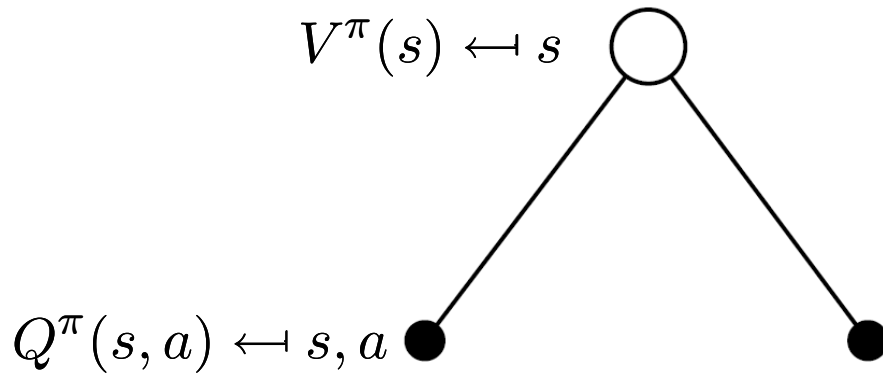
- The state-value function $V^\pi(s)$ can be decomposed into immediate reward plus discounted value of successor state

$$V^\pi(s) = \mathbb{E}_\pi[R_{t+1} + \gamma V^\pi(S_{t+1}) | S_t = s]$$

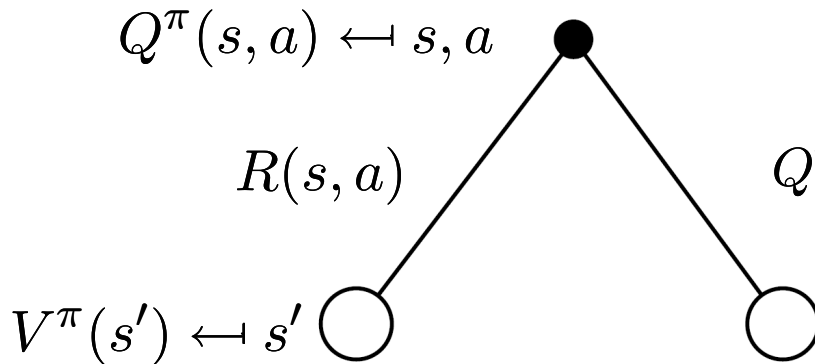
- The action-value function $Q^\pi(s,a)$ can similarly be decomposed

$$Q^\pi(s, a) = \mathbb{E}_\pi[R_{t+1} + \gamma Q^\pi(S_{t+1}, A_{t+1}) | S_t = s, A_t = a]$$

State Value and Action Value




$$V^\pi(s) = \sum_{a \in A} \pi(a|s) Q^\pi(s, a)$$



$$Q^\pi(s, a) = R(s, a) + \gamma \sum_{s' \in S} P_{sa}(s') V^\pi(s')$$

Model-Free Policy Iteration

- Given state-value function $V(s)$ and action-value function $Q(s,a)$, model-free policy iteration shall use action-value function
- Greedy policy improvement over $V(s)$ requires model of MDP

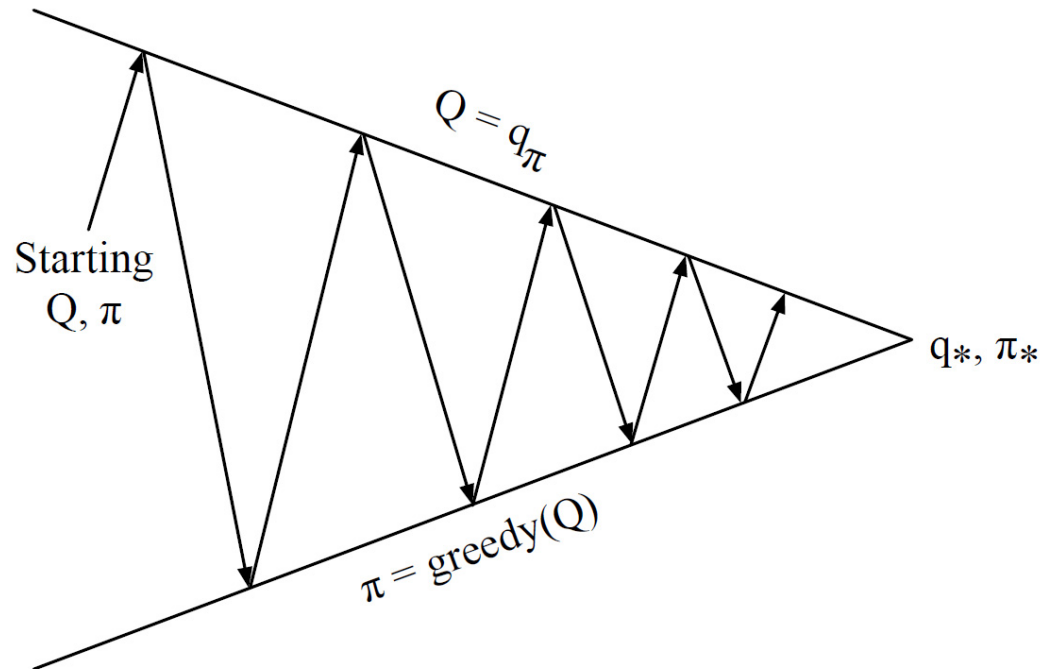
$$\pi^{\text{new}}(s) = \arg \max_{a \in A} \left\{ R(s, a) + \gamma \sum_{s' \in S} P_{sa}(s') V^{\pi}(s') \right\}$$


We don't know the transition probability

- Greedy policy improvement over $Q(s,a)$ is model-free

$$\pi^{\text{new}}(s) = \arg \max_{a \in A} Q(s, a)$$

Generalized Policy Iteration with Action-Value Function



- Policy evaluation: Monte-Carlo policy evaluation, $Q = Q^\pi$
- Policy improvement: Greedy policy improvement?

Example of Greedy Action Selection

- Greedy policy improvement over $Q(s,a)$ is model-free

$$\pi^{\text{new}}(s) = \arg \max_{a \in A} Q(s, a)$$

- Given the right example
 - What if the first action is to choose the left door and observe reward=0?
 - The policy would be suboptimal if there is no exploration

Left:

20% Reward = 0

80% Reward = 5

Right:

50% Reward = 1

50% Reward = 3



“Behind one door is tenure – behind the other is flipping burgers at McDonald’s.”

ϵ -Greedy Policy Exploration

- Simplest idea for ensuring continual exploration
- All m actions are tried with non-zero probability
- With probability $1-\epsilon$, choose the greedy action
- With probability ϵ , choose an action at random

$$\pi(a|s) = \begin{cases} \epsilon/m + 1 - \epsilon & \text{if } a^* = \arg \max_{a \in A} Q(s, a) \\ \epsilon/m & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

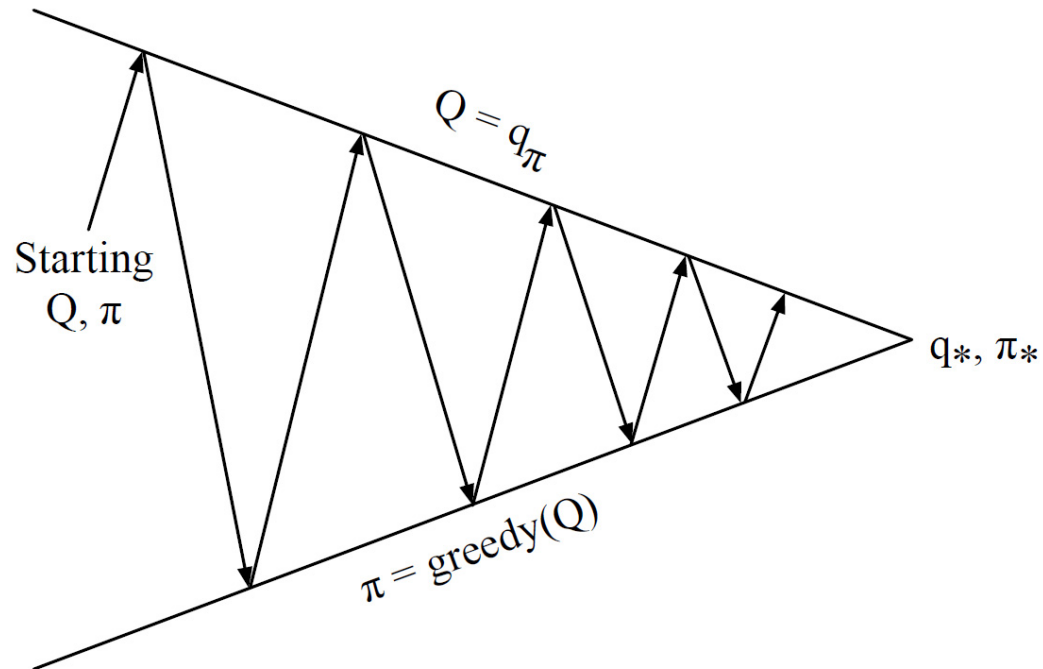
ϵ -Greedy Policy Improvement

- Theorem

- For any ϵ -greedy policy π , the ϵ -greedy policy π' w.r.t. Q^π is an improvement, i.e. $V^{\pi'}(s) \geq V^\pi(s)$

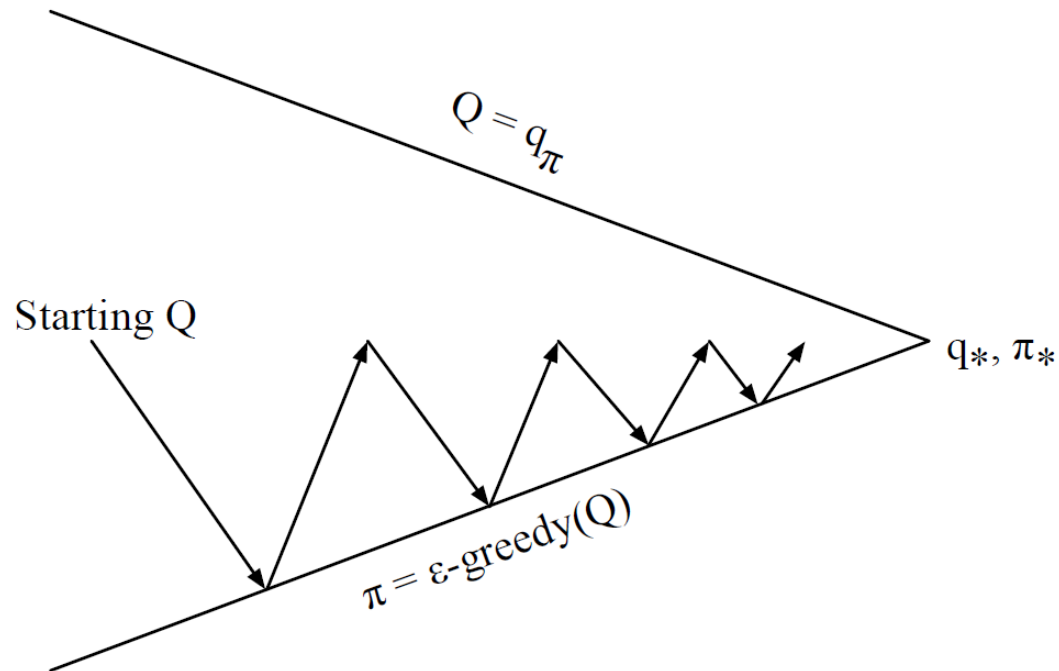
$$\begin{aligned} V^{\pi'}(s) &= Q^\pi(s, \pi'(s)) = \sum_{a \in A} \pi'(a|s) Q^\pi(s, a) \\ &\stackrel{\text{m actions}}{=} \frac{\epsilon}{m} \sum_{a \in A} Q^\pi(s, a) + (1 - \epsilon) \max_{a \in A} Q^\pi(s, a) \\ &\geq \frac{\epsilon}{m} \sum_{a \in A} Q^\pi(s, a) + (1 - \epsilon) \sum_{a \in A} \frac{\pi(a|s) - \epsilon/m}{1 - \epsilon} Q^\pi(s, a) \\ &= \sum_{a \in A} \pi(a|s) Q^\pi(s, a) = V^\pi(s) \end{aligned}$$

Generalized Policy Iteration with Action-Value Function



- Policy evaluation: Monte-Carlo policy evaluation, $Q = Q^\pi$
- Policy improvement: ϵ -greedy policy improvement

Monte-Carlo Control



Every episode:

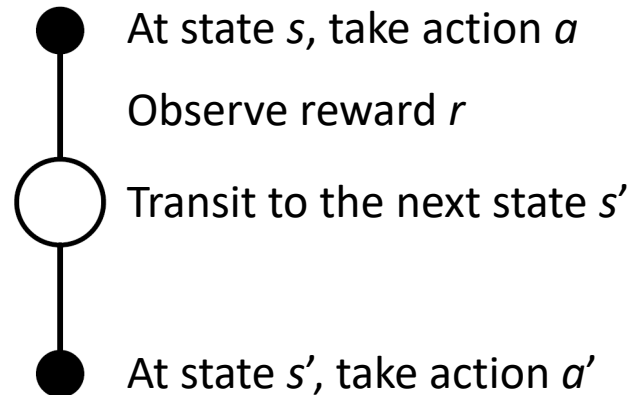
- Policy evaluation: Monte-Carlo policy evaluation, $Q \approx Q^\pi$
- Policy improvement: ϵ -greedy policy improvement

MC Control vs. TD Control

- Temporal-difference (TD) learning has several advantages over Monte-Carlo (MC)
 - Lower variance
 - Online
 - Incomplete sequences
- Natural idea: use TD instead of MC in our control loop
 - Apply TD to update action value $Q(s,a)$
 - Use ϵ -greedy policy improvement
 - Update the action value function every time-step

SARSA

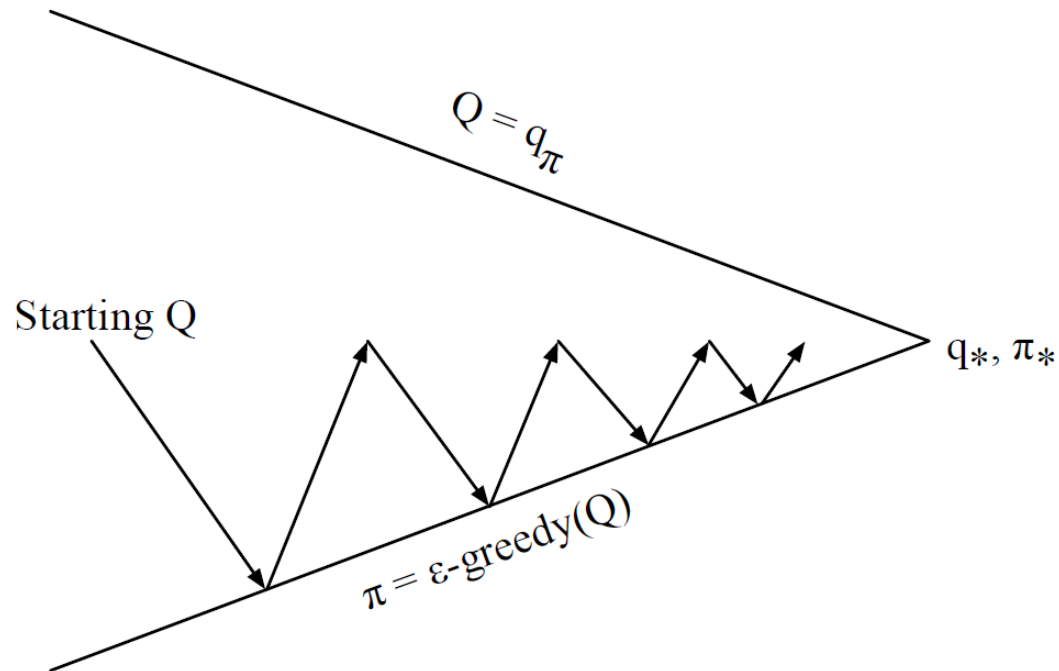
- For each state-action-reward-state-action by the current policy



- Updating action-value functions with Sarsa

$$Q(s, a) \leftarrow Q(s, a) + \alpha(r + \gamma Q(s', a') - Q(s, a))$$

On-Policy Control with SARSA



Every time-step:

- Policy evaluation: Sarsa $Q(s, a) \leftarrow Q(s, a) + \alpha(r + \gamma Q(s', a') - Q(s, a))$
- Policy improvement: ϵ -greedy policy improvement

SARSA Algorithm

Sarsa: An on-policy TD control algorithm

Initialize $Q(s, a), \forall s \in \mathcal{S}, a \in \mathcal{A}(s)$, arbitrarily, and $Q(\text{terminal-state}, \cdot) = 0$

Repeat (for each episode):

 Initialize S

 Choose A from S using policy derived from Q (e.g., ϵ -greedy)

 Repeat (for each step of episode):

 Take action A , observe R, S'

 Choose A' from S' using policy derived from Q (e.g., ϵ -greedy)

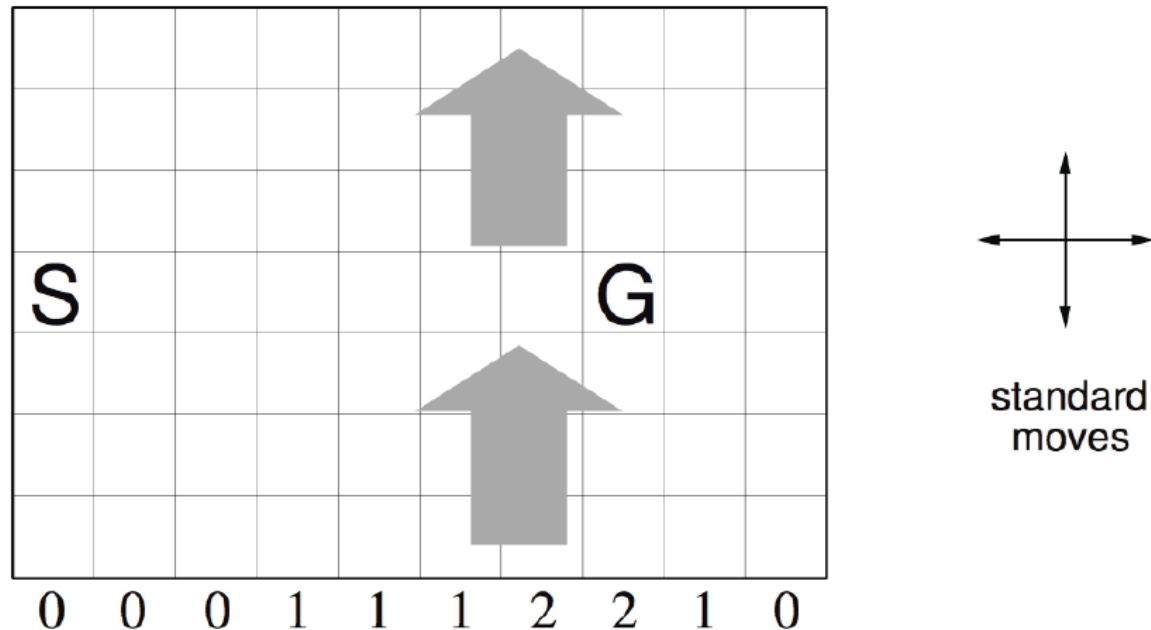
$Q(S, A) \leftarrow Q(S, A) + \alpha[R + \gamma Q(S', A') - Q(S, A)]$

$S \leftarrow S'; A \leftarrow A';$

 until S is terminal

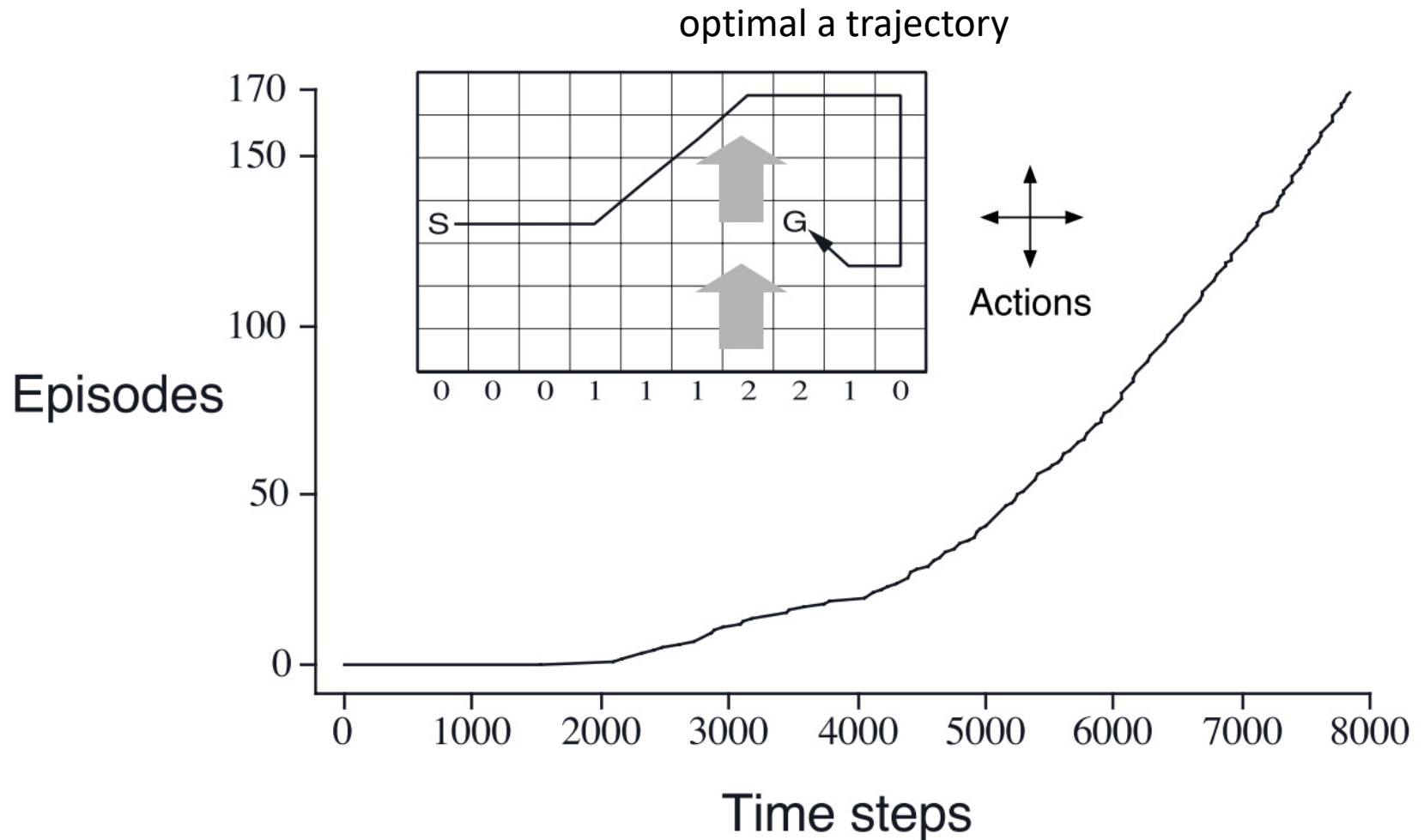
- NOTE: on-policy TD control sample actions by the current policy, i.e., the two 'A's in SARSA are both chosen by the current policy

SARSA Example: Windy Gridworld



- Reward = -1 per time-step until reaching goal
- Undiscounted

SARSA Example: Windy Gridworld



Note: as the training proceeds, the Sarsa policy achieves the goal more and more quickly

Off-Policy Learning

- Evaluate target policy $\pi(a|s)$ to compute $V^\pi(s)$ or $Q^\pi(s,a)$
- While following behavior policy $\mu(a|s)$

$$\{s_1, a_1, r_2, s_2, a_2, \dots, s_T\} \sim \mu$$

- Why off-policy learning is important?
 - Learn from observing humans or other agents
 - Re-use experience generated from old policies
 - Learn about optimal policy while following exploratory policy
 - Learn about multiple policies while following one policy
 - An example of my research in MSR Cambridge
 - Collective Noise Contrastive Estimation for Policy Transfer Learning. AAAI 2016.

Importance Sampling

- Estimate the expectation of a different distribution

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p}[f(x)] &= \int_x p(x) f(x) dx \\ &= \int_x q(x) \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} f(x) dx \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{x \sim q} \left[\frac{p(x)}{q(x)} f(x) \right]\end{aligned}$$

- Re-weight each instance by $\beta(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$

Importance Sampling for Off-Policy Monte-Carlo

- Use returns generated from μ to evaluate π
- Weight return G_t according to importance ratio between policies
- Multiply importance ratio along with episode

$$\{s_1, a_1, r_2, s_2, a_2, \dots, s_T\} \sim \mu$$
$$G_t^{\pi/\mu} = \frac{\pi(a_t|s_t)}{\mu(a_t|s_t)} \frac{\pi(a_{t+1}|s_{t+1})}{\mu(a_{t+1}|s_{t+1})} \dots \frac{\pi(a_T|s_T)}{\mu(a_T|s_T)} G_t$$

- Update value towards corrected return

$$V(s_t) \leftarrow V(s_t) + \alpha(G_t^{\pi/\mu} - V(s_t))$$

- Cannot use if μ is zero when π is non-zero
- Importance sample can dramatically increase variance

Importance Sampling for Off-Policy TD

- Use TD targets generated from μ to evaluate π
- Weight TD target $r + \gamma V(s')$ by importance sampling
- Only need a single importance sampling correction

$$V(s_t) \leftarrow V(s_t) + \alpha \left(\underbrace{\frac{\pi(a_t|s_t)}{\mu(a_t|s_t)}}_{\substack{\text{importance} \\ \text{sampling} \\ \text{correction}}} \underbrace{(r_{t+1} + \gamma V(s_{t+1}))}_{\substack{\text{TD} \\ \text{target}}} - V(s_t) \right)$$

- Much lower variance than Monte-Carlo importance sampling
- Policies only need to be similar over a single step

Q-Learning

- For off-policy learning of action-value $Q(s,a)$
- No importance sampling is required (why?)
- The next action is chosen using behavior policy $a_{t+1} \sim \mu(\cdot|s_t)$
- But we consider alternative successor action $a \sim \pi(\cdot|s_t)$
- And update $Q(s_t, a_t)$ towards value of alternative action

$$Q(s_t, a_t) \leftarrow Q(s_t, a_t) + \alpha(r_{t+1} + \gamma Q(s_{t+1}, a') - Q(s_t, a_t))$$

↑
action
from π
not μ

Off-Policy Control with Q-Learning

- Allow both behavior and target policies to improve
- The target policy π is greedy w.r.t. $Q(s,a)$

$$\pi(s_{t+1}) = \arg \max_{a'} Q(s_{t+1}, a')$$

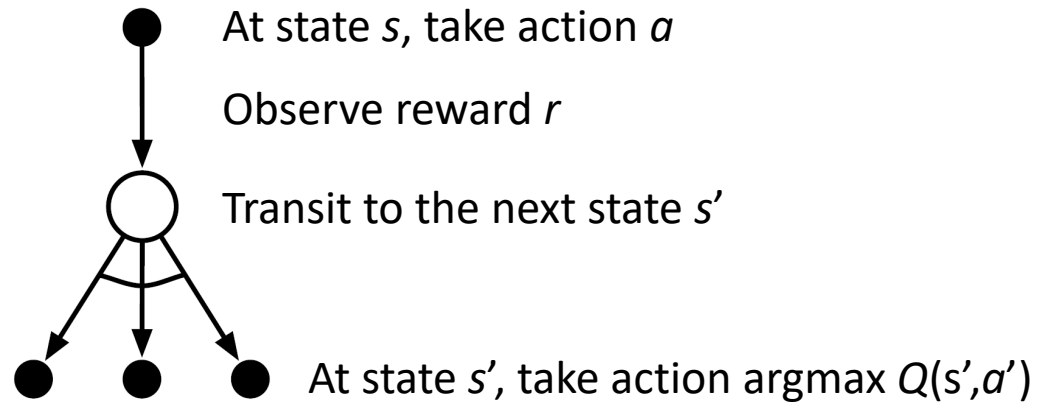
- The behavior policy μ is e.g. ϵ -greedy policy w.r.t. $Q(s,a)$
- The Q-learning target then simplifies

$$\begin{aligned} r_{t+1} + \gamma Q(s_{t+1}, a') &= r_{t+1} + \gamma Q(s_{t+1}, \arg \max_{a'} Q(s_{t+1}, a')) \\ &= r_{t+1} + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s_{t+1}, a') \end{aligned}$$

- Q-learning update

$$Q(s_t, a_t) \leftarrow Q(s_t, a_t) + \alpha(r_{t+1} + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s_{t+1}, a') - Q(s_t, a_t))$$

Q-Learning Control Algorithm

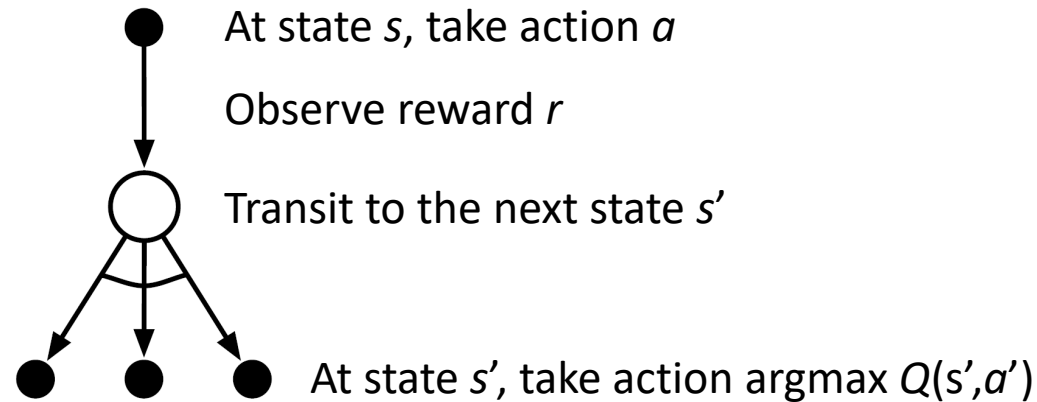


$$Q(s_t, a_t) \leftarrow Q(s_t, a_t) + \alpha(r_{t+1} + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s_{t+1}, a') - Q(s_t, a_t))$$

- Theorem: Q-learning control converges to the optimal action-value function

$$Q(s, a) \rightarrow Q^*(s, a)$$

Q-Learning Control Algorithm

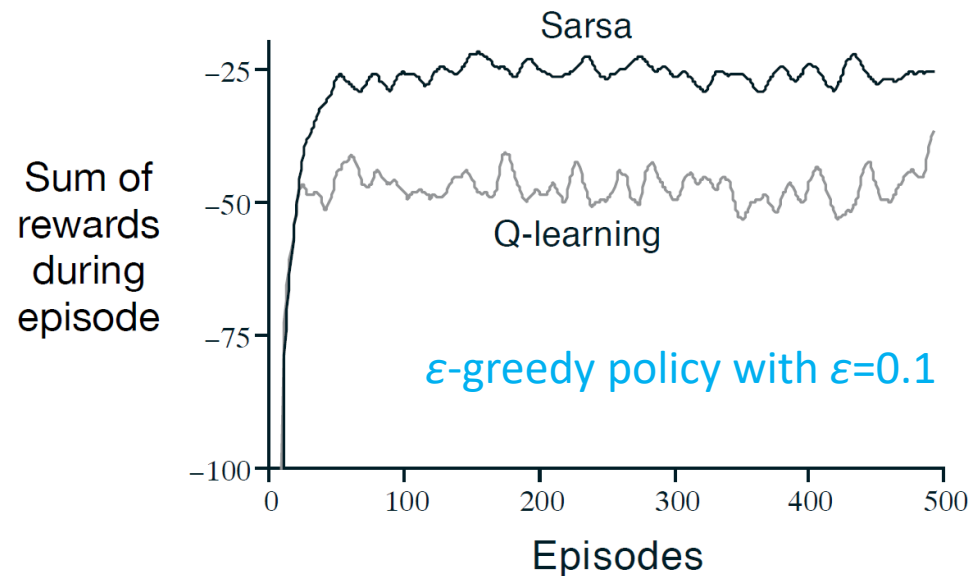
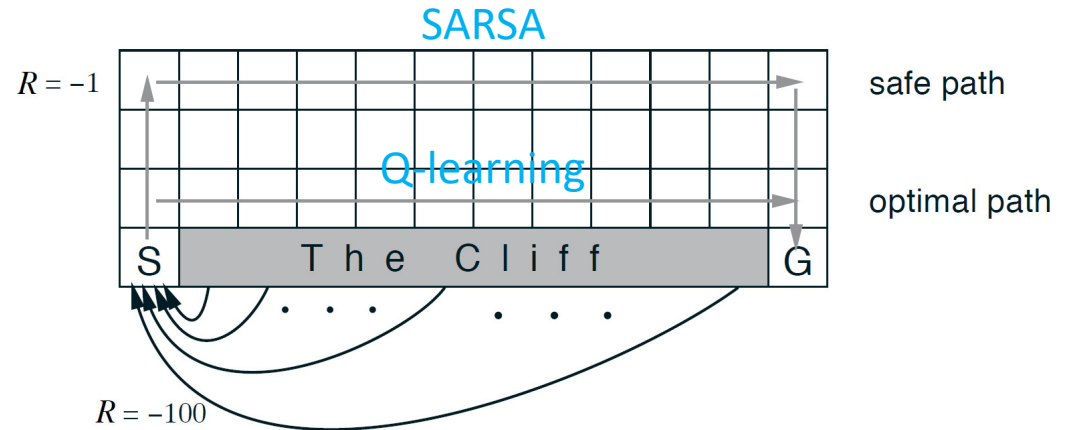


$$Q(s_t, a_t) \leftarrow Q(s_t, a_t) + \alpha(r_{t+1} + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s_{t+1}, a') - Q(s_t, a_t))$$

- Why Q-learning is an off-policy control method?
 - Learning from SARS generated by another policy μ
 - The first action a and the corresponding reward r are from μ
 - The next action a' is picked by the target policy $\pi(s_{t+1}) = \arg \max_{a'} Q(s_{t+1}, a')$
- Why no importance sampling?
 - Action value function not state value function

SARSA vs. Q-Learning Experiments

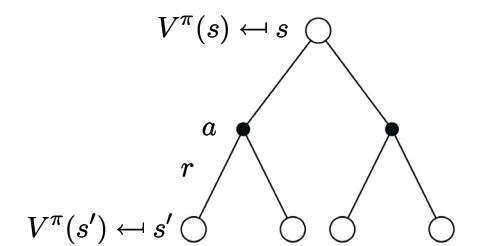
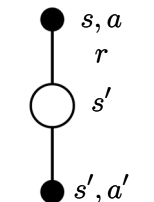
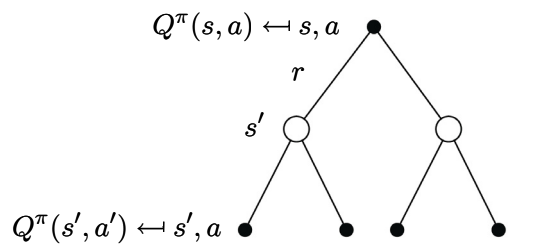
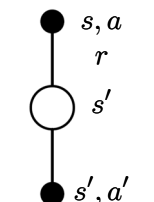
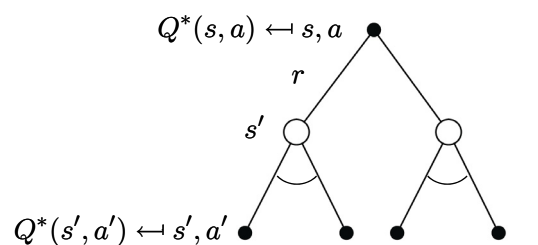
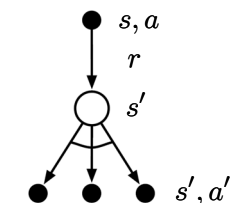
- Cliff-walking
 - Undiscounted reward
 - Episodic task
 - Reward = -1 on all transitions
 - Stepping into cliff area incurs -100 reward and sent the agent back to the start
- Why the results are like this?



Further Readings

- You can learn following content offline

Relationship Between DP and TD

	Full Backup (DP)	Sample Backup (TD)
Bellman Expectation Equation for $V^\pi(s)$	 <p>Iterative Policy Evaluation</p>	 <p>TD Learning</p>
Bellman Expectation Equation for $Q^\pi(s, a)$	 <p>Q-Policy Iteration</p>	 <p>SARSA</p>
Bellman Optimality Equation for $Q^*(s, a)$	 <p>Q-Value Iteration</p>	 <p>Q-Learning</p>

Relationship Between DP and TD

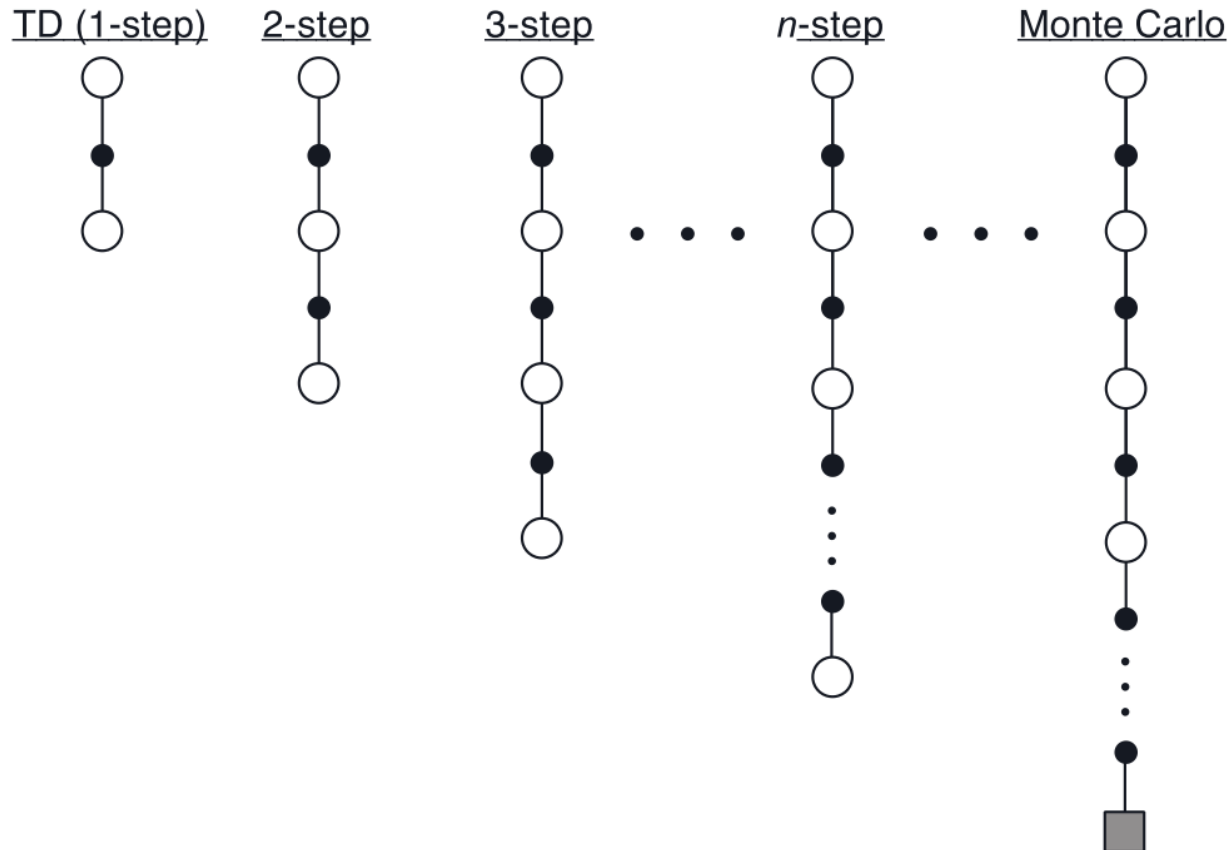
Full Backup (DP)	Sample Backup (TD)
Iterative Policy Evaluation $V(s) \leftarrow \mathbb{E}[r + \gamma V(s') s]$	TD Learning $V(s) \stackrel{\alpha}{\leftarrow} r + \gamma V(s')$
Q-Policy Iteration $Q(s, a) \leftarrow \mathbb{E}[r + \gamma Q(s', a') s, a]$	SARSA $Q(s, a) \stackrel{\alpha}{\leftarrow} r + \gamma Q(s', a')$
Q-Value Iteration $Q(s, a) \leftarrow \mathbb{E}\left[r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a') s, a\right]$	Q-Learning $Q(s, a) \stackrel{\alpha}{\leftarrow} r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a')$

where

$$x \stackrel{\alpha}{\leftarrow} y \equiv x \leftarrow x + \alpha(y - x)$$

n -Step Prediction

- Let TD target look n steps into the future



n -Step Return

- Consider the following n -step return for $n=1,2,\dots,\infty$

$$n = 1 \quad (\text{TD}) \quad G_t^{(1)} = R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1})$$

$$n = 2 \quad G_t^{(2)} = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \gamma^2 V(S_{t+2})$$

$$\vdots \quad \quad \quad \vdots$$

$$n = \infty \quad (\text{MC}) \quad G_t^{(\infty)} = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \dots + \gamma^{T-1} R_T$$

- Define the n -step return

$$G_t^{(n)} = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \dots + \gamma^{n-1} R_{t+n} + \gamma^n V(S_{t+n})$$

- n -step temporal-difference learning

$$V(S_t) \leftarrow V(S_t) + \alpha(G_t^{(n)} - V(S_t))$$

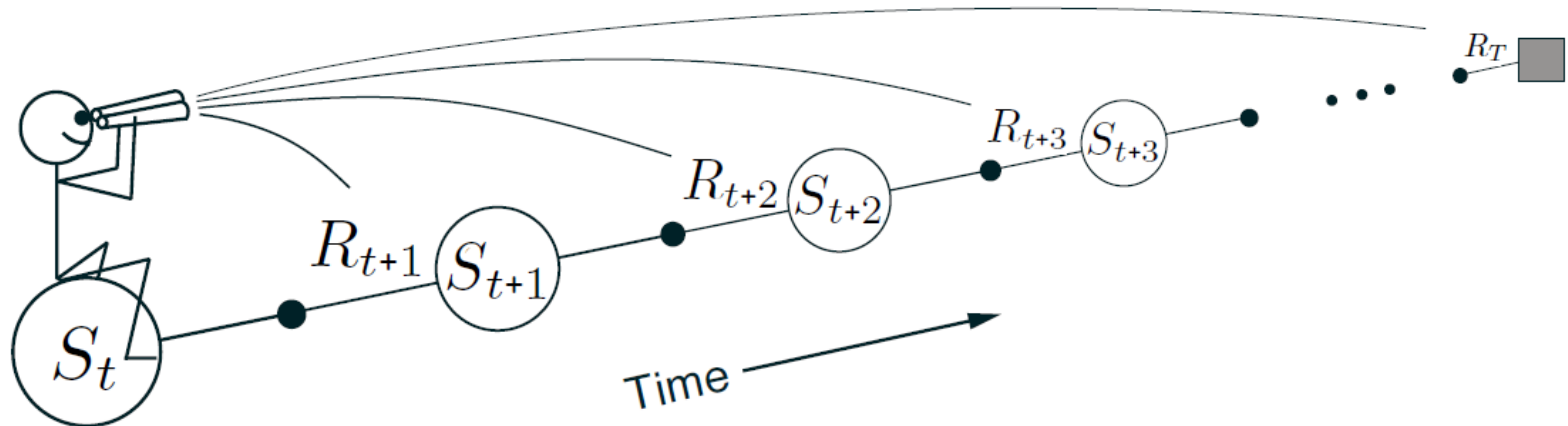
n -Step Return

- Define the n -step return

$$G_t^{(n)} = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \dots + \gamma^{n-1} R_{t+n} + \gamma^n V(S_{t+n})$$

- n -step temporal-difference learning

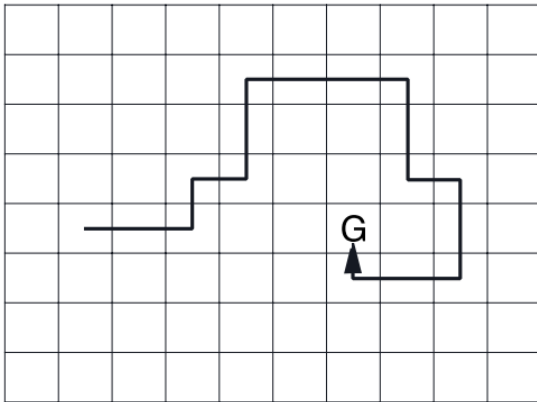
$$V(S_t) \leftarrow V(S_t) + \alpha(G_t^{(n)} - V(S_t))$$



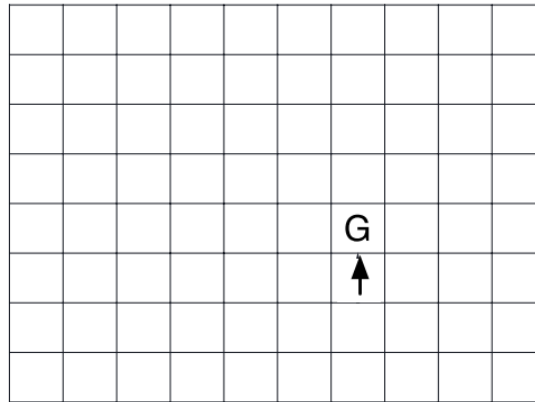
n -Step Return

- Why it can speed up learning compared to one-step methods

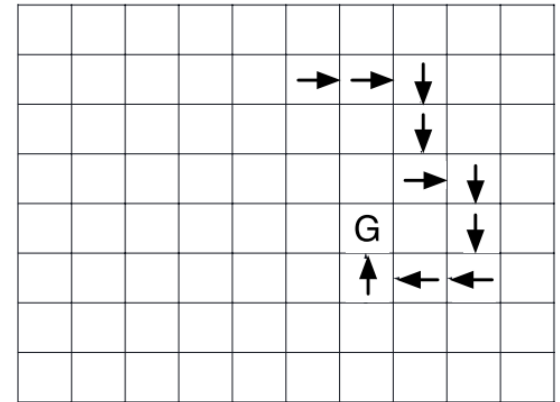
Path taken



Action values increased
by one-step Sarsa



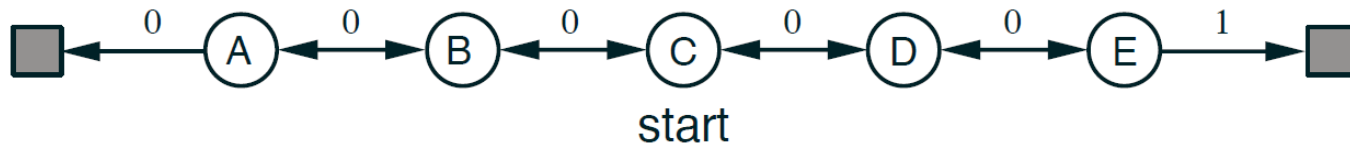
Action values increased
by 10-step Sarsa



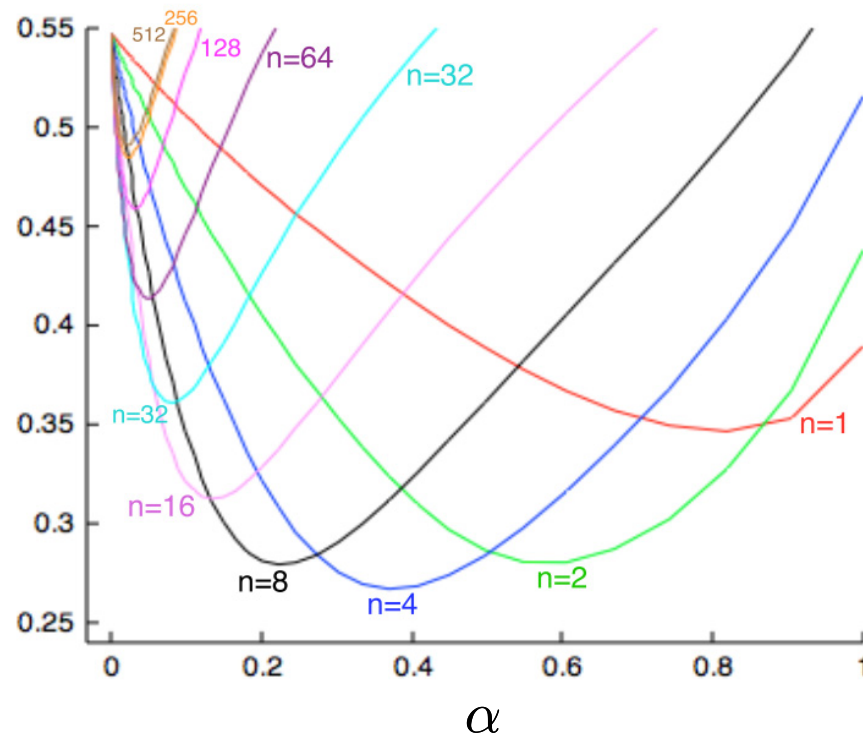
$$G_t^{(n)} = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \dots + \gamma^{n-1} R_{t+n} + \gamma^n V(S_{t+n})$$

$$V(S_t) \leftarrow V(S_t) + \alpha(G_t^{(n)} - V(S_t))$$

Random Walk Example for n -step TDs



Average RMS error over 19 states and first 10 episodes

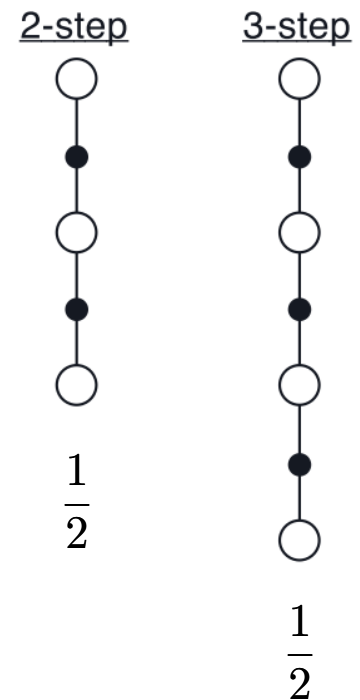


Averaging n -Step Returns

- We can further average n -step returns over different n
- e.g. average the 2-step and 3-step returns

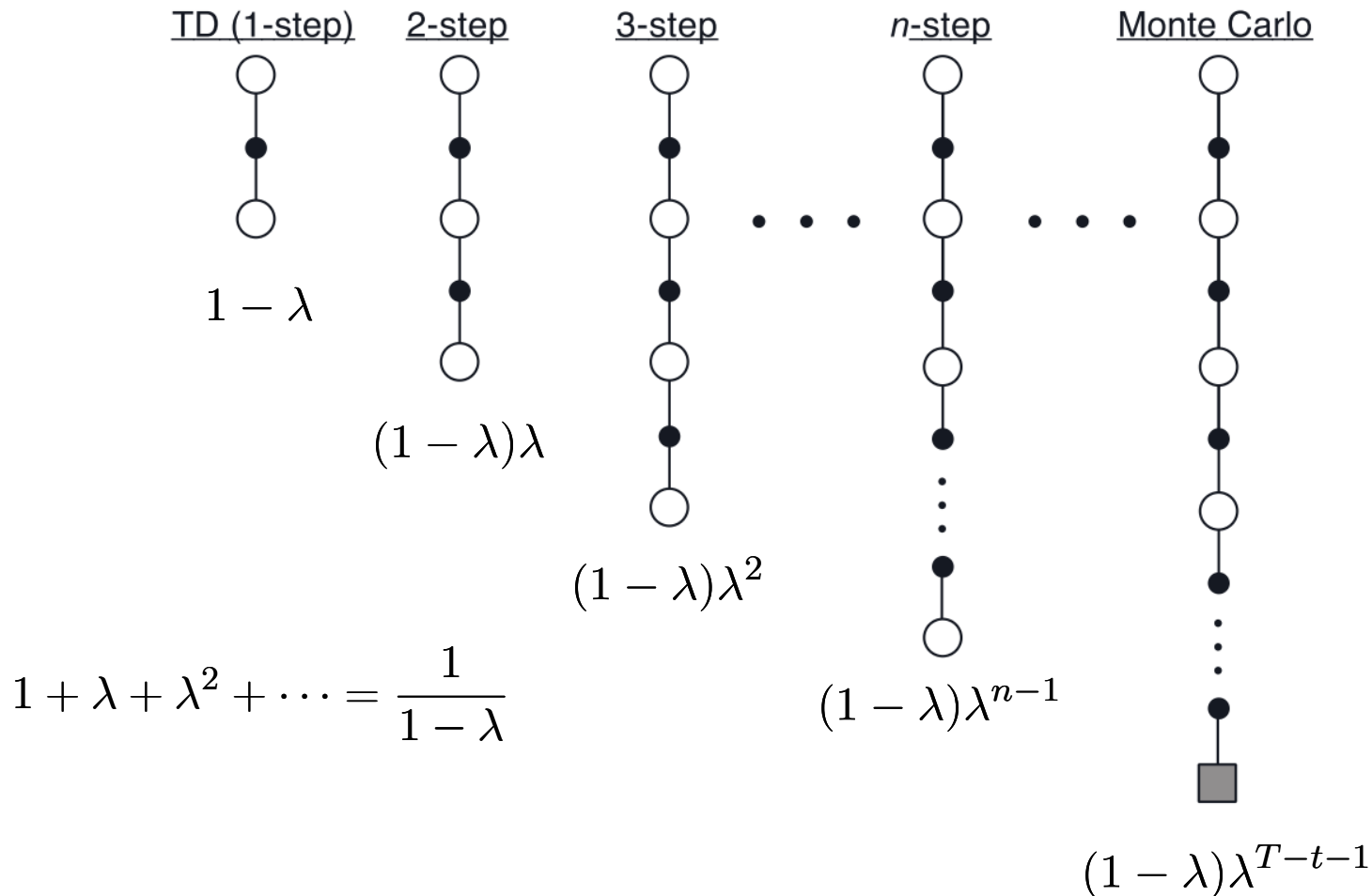
$$\frac{1}{2}G^{(2)} + \frac{1}{2}G^{(3)}$$

- Combines information from two different time-steps
- Can we efficiently combine information from all time-steps?



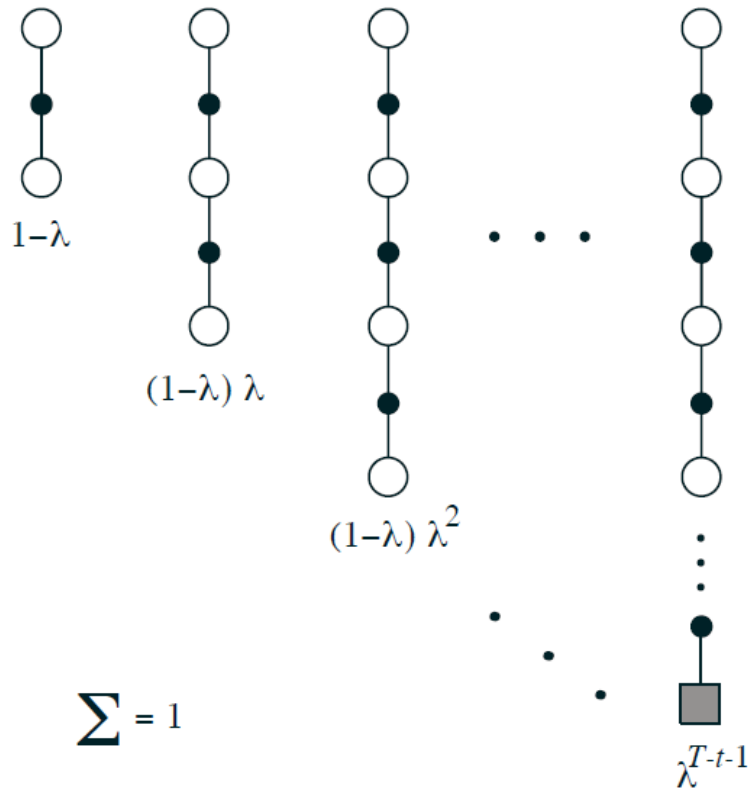
TD(λ) for Averaging n -Step Returns

TD(λ), λ -return



TD(λ) for Averaging n -Step Returns

TD(λ), λ -return



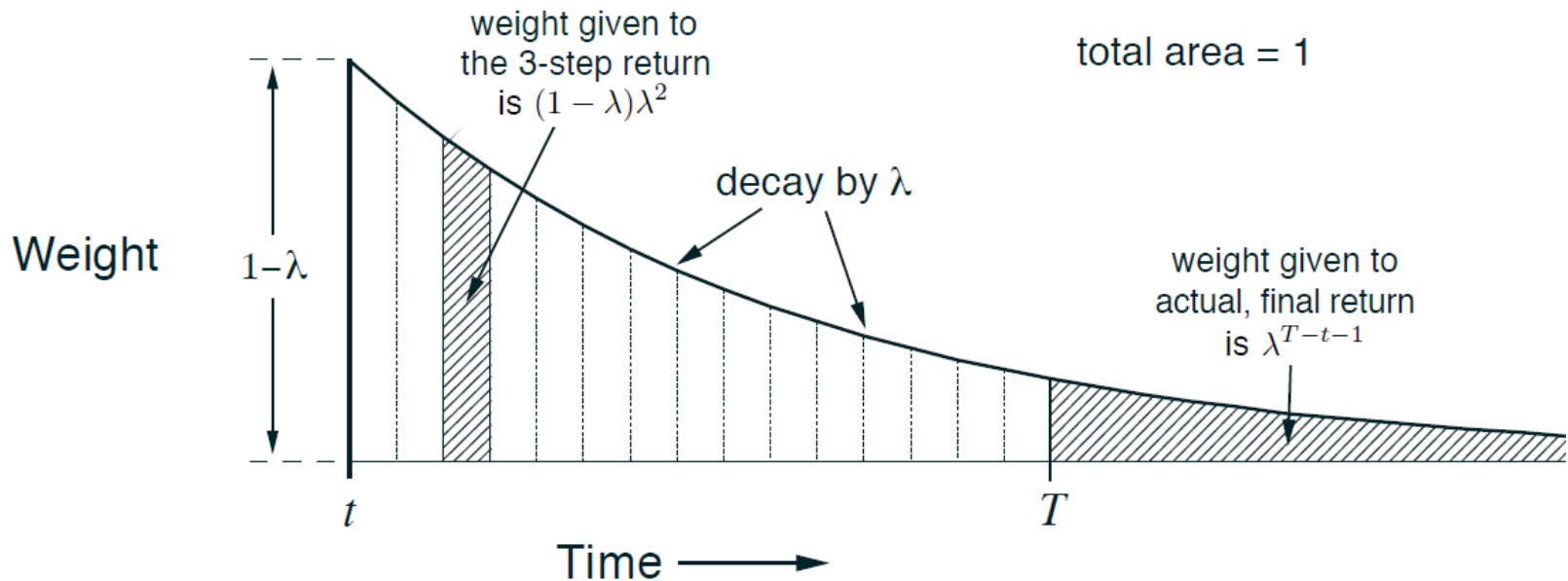
- The λ -return G_t^λ combines all n -step returns $G_t^{(n)}$
- Using weight $(1-\lambda)\lambda^{n-1}$

$$G_t^\lambda = (1-\lambda) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda^{n-1} G_t^{(n)}$$

- Forward-view TD(λ)

$$V(S_t) \leftarrow V(S_t) + \alpha(G_t^\lambda - V(S_t))$$

TD(λ) for Averaging n -Step Returns

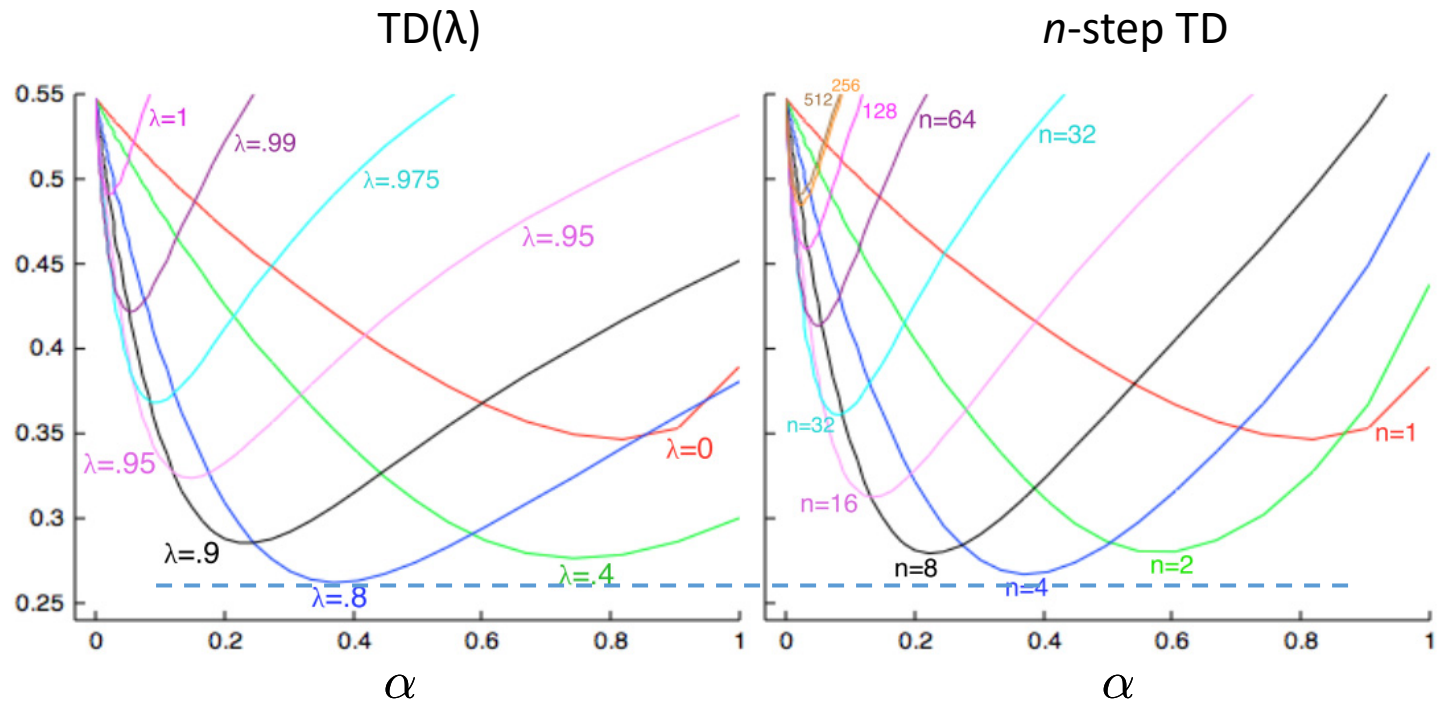


$$G_t^\lambda = (1-\lambda) \sum_{n=1}^{T-t-1} \lambda^{n-1} G_t^{(n)} + \lambda^{T-t-1} G_t$$

- When $\lambda=1$, $G_t^\lambda = G_t$, which returns to Monte-Carlo method
- When $\lambda=0$, $G_t^\lambda = G_t^{(1)}$, which returns to one-step TD

TD(λ) vs. n -step TD

RMS error at
the end of
the episode
over the first
10 episodes
Off-line



19-state Random walk results

- The results with off-line λ -return algorithms are slightly better at the best value of α and λ