

Reinforcement Learning and Optimal Control

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Overview

- ▶ Fixed point of a mapping
 - ▶ Nonexpansive
 - ▶ Hölder-continuous
 - ▶ Lipschitz-continuous
 - ▶ Contractive
 - ▶ Contraction mapping theorem
 - ▶ Cauchy sequence
 - ▶ Linear maps
 - ▶ Matrix of a linear map
 - ▶ Neumann lemma (intro)

Fixed point of an operator

Most if not all algorithms studied in this course are of the form:

$$x^{(k+1)} = Tx^{(k)} .$$

where $T : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a given mapping (operator).



We write $T : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ to denote a mapping T with domain D in \mathbb{R}^n and range (image) in \mathbb{R}^m .

If there is a x^* such that $x^* = Tx^*$, we call call this point x^* a **fixed point** of T (there can be multiple fixed points). Fixed points are also solutions to the nonlinear equation of the form $x - Tx = 0$.

Hölder-continuous mapping

Definition (Hölder-continuous). A mapping $T : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is said to be Hölder-continuous on $D_0 \subset D$ if there exists a $\gamma \geq 0$ and $p \in (0, 1]$ such that:

$$\|Tx - Ty\| \leq \gamma \|x - y\|^p, \quad \forall x, y \in D_0 .$$

If the above holds for $p = 1$, then T is said to be **Lipschitz-continuous** on D_0 .

Nonexpansive mapping

Definition (Nonexpansive). A mapping $T : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is said to be **nonexpansive** on $D_0 \subset D$ if

$$\|Tx - Ty\| \leq \|x - y\|, \forall x, y \in D_0 .$$

Furthermore, we say that a mapping is **strictly nonexpansive** on D_0 if:

$$\|Tx - Ty\| < \|x - y\|, \forall x, y \in D_0, x \neq y .$$

At most one fixed point

Strictly nonexpansive mappings can have at most one fixed point.

To see this, let's pretend that $x^*, y^* \in D_0$ are two distinct fixed points of a strictly nonexpansive mapping $T : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$.

By definition of strictly nonexpansive:

$$\|Tx^* - Ty^*\| < \|x^* - y^*\| \ .$$

By definition of fixed point:

$$\|x^* - y^*\| = \|Tx^* - Ty^*\| \ .$$

Leading to the contradiction:

$$\|x^* - y^*\| = \|Tx^* - Ty^*\| < \|x^* - y^*\| \ .$$

Existence in strictly nonexpansive mappings

Establishing that a mapping is strictly nonexpansive is not sufficient to conclude that there exists a fixed point.

An example of this (to show) is the one-dimensional strictly nonexpansive mapping T defined as:

$$T_x \triangleq \begin{cases} x + \exp(-x/2) & x \geq 0 \\ \exp(x/2) & x \leq 0 \end{cases}.$$

Contractive mapping

Definition (Contractive). A mapping $T : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is **contractive** on $D_0 \subset D$ if there exists a $\gamma < 1$ such that:

$$\|Tx - Ty\| \leq \gamma \|x - y\|, \quad \forall x, y \in D_0$$

We call a mapping with this property a **contractive mapping**.



Contraction is a norm-dependent concept. We may establish that a mapping is contractive under a given norm of \mathbb{R}^n , but later find that it doesn't hold under a different norm.

Connection with other notion

Given the above definitions, we can also say that contractive mappings are also:

1. Strictly nonexpansive
1.2 which implies that they can have at most one one fixed point
2. Hölder-continuous
2.2 more precisely: Lipschitz-continuous

Contractive mappings are special in the sense that we can use the **contraction-mapping theorem** to establish the existence of a unique fixed-point. Furthermore, the proof of this theorem is constructive and gives us a procedure to find this fixed point.

Contraction-mapping theorem

Theorem (Contraction-mapping theorem, Banach 1922). Given a contractive mapping $T : D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ on the closed set $D_0 \subset D$ and for which $TD_0 \subset D_0$, then T has a unique fixed point in D_0 .

Proof Consider the sequence of iterates generated by:

$$x^{(k)} = Tx^{(k-1)}, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, \quad \text{given } x_0 \in D_0 \quad .$$

By assumption $TD_0 \subset D_0$, which implies that all $\{x^{(k)}\}$ remain in D_0 . Using the contraction property:

$$\|x^{(k+1)} - x^{(k)}\| = \|Tx^k - Tx^{k-1}\| \leq \gamma \|x^{(k)} - x^{(k-1)}\| \quad .$$

Proof (continued)

Proof (continuation of the contraction-mapping proof) Writing the difference between the $k + p$ -th iterate and the k -th one as a telescoping series:

$$\|x^{(k+p)} - x^{(k)}\| = \left\| \sum_{i=1}^p x^{(k+i)} - x^{(k+i-1)} \right\| .$$

Using the subadditivity/triangle inequality:

$$\begin{aligned} \|x^{(k+p)} - x^{(k)}\| &\leq \sum_{i=1}^p \|x^{(k+i)} - x^{(k+i-1)}\| \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^p \|T^{k+i}x^{(0)} - T^{k+i-1}x^{(0)}\| \\ &\leq \sum_{i=1}^p \gamma^{k+i-1} \|x^{(1)} - x^{(0)}\| . \end{aligned}$$

Proof (continued)

Lemma (Sum of the first $n + 1$ terms of a geometric series) Let

$\gamma \in \mathbb{R}, \gamma \neq 1$, and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$\sum_{i=0}^n \alpha \gamma^k = \alpha \frac{1 - \gamma^{n+1}}{1 - \gamma} .$$

Continuing the above proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \|x^{(k+p)} - x^{(k)}\| &\leq \sum_{i=1}^p \gamma^{k+i-1} \|x^{(1)} - x^{(0)}\| = \gamma^k \frac{(1 - \gamma^{(p+1)})}{(1 - \gamma)} \|x^{(1)} - x^{(0)}\| \\ &\leq \frac{\gamma^k}{(1 - \gamma)} \|x^{(1)} - x^{(0)}\| . \end{aligned}$$

Proof (continued)

Definition (Cauchy sequence) A sequence $\{x^{(k)}\}$, is called a **Cauchy sequence** if given any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a positive integer $N(\epsilon)$ such that for all $m, n > N(\epsilon)$,
$$\|x^{(m)} - x^{(n)}\| < \epsilon.$$

Practically speaking, this means that we can make $\|x^{(k+p)} - x^{(k)}\|$ arbitrarily small for a sufficiently large p .

$$\|x^{(k+p)} - x^{(k)}\| \leq \frac{\gamma^k}{(1 - \gamma)} \|x^{(1)} - x^{(0)}\| .$$

Using the fact that $\|x^{(k+p)} - x^{(k)}\|$ is a Cauchy sequence, we conclude that $\{x^{(k)}\}$ has a limit x^* in D_0 and that $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} Tx^{(k)} = Tx^*$ and x^* is a fixed point of T .

Linear algebra

Norm

Definition (Norm) A **norm** $\| \cdot \|$ is a mapping from \mathbb{R}^n (or \mathbb{C}^n) to \mathbb{R} with the following properties:

1. $\|x\| \geq 0, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\|x\| = 0$ only if $x = 0$
2. $\|\alpha x\| = |\alpha| \|x\|, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$
3. $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|, \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Linear maps

Definition (Linear map). A linear map T is a function $T : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{W}$ over a pair of vector spaces \mathcal{V} and \mathcal{W} satisfying two properties:

- ▶ Additivity: $T(u + v) = T(u) + T(v), \forall u, v \in \mathcal{V}$
- ▶ Homogeneity: $T(\alpha v) = \alpha T(v), \forall \alpha \in \mathcal{F}, v \in \mathcal{V}$
where \mathcal{F} is a field (like \mathbb{R})

Examples:

- ▶ The identity map $I : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{V} : v \mapsto v$
- ▶ A definite integral can be seen as a linear map from the space of real-valued functions to the reals, that is:
$$T : (\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : f \mapsto \int_a^b f(x) dx$$
- ▶ The derivative (more on that below)

Vector space of linear maps

Definition (Vector space of linear maps) The set of all linear maps from a pair of vector spaces \mathcal{V} and \mathcal{W} is itself a vector space where the operations of addition and scalar multiplication are defined as:

- ▶ Addition: $(T + S)(v) = T(v) + S(v)$
- ▶ Scalar multiplication:
 $(\alpha T)(v) = \alpha(T(v)), \forall \alpha \in \mathcal{F}, v \in \mathcal{V}$

Furthermore, if $T : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{W}$ and $S : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}$, then the **product** or **composition** of T with S is the linear map $TS : \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{W}$ defined as $(TS)(u) = T(S(u)) = (T \circ S)(u), u \in \mathcal{U}$.

Matrix of a linear map

An important property of linear maps is that they can be uniquely identified given their values on a basis. Let $T : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{W}$:

- ▶ If $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a basis of \mathcal{V} , we can represent any $v \in \mathcal{V}$ by a unique set of coefficients $\{c_1, \dots, c_n\}$ called *coordinates* such that $v = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j v_j$
- ▶ If we have a linear map $T : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{W}$, then $T(v) = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j T(v_j)$.
- ▶ Since $T(v_j) \in \mathcal{W}$, then $T(v_j) = \sum_{i=1}^m a_{i,j} w_i$ where $\{w_1, \dots, w_m\}$ is a basis of \mathcal{W}
- ▶ Therefore: $T(v) = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j T(v_j) = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j \sum_{i=1}^m a_{i,j} w_i$.
- ▶ The a 's are the entries of the matrix A whose columns are the $T(v_j)$ in the basis of \mathcal{W} .

Neumann Lemma

Let $A \in L(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R}^n)$, if $\sigma(A) < 1$, then $(I - A)^{-1}$ exists and:

$$(I - A)^{-1} = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=0}^k A^i .$$

(To continue next class)