

# Lecture 15 - Value Function Approximation

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DDA4230: Reinforcement Learning

Course Page: [\[Click\]](#)

# Value Function Approximation

## Motivations:

- So far we represented the value function by a lookup table where each state has an entry,  $V(s)$ , or each state-action pair has an entry,  $Q(s, a)$ .
- However, this approach might not generalize well to problems with large state and action spaces. A popular solution is via value function approximation (VFA)

$$V^\pi(s) \approx \hat{V}(s, w) \quad \text{or} \quad Q^\pi(s, a) \approx \hat{Q}(s, a, w).$$



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# Value Function Approximation

$$V^\pi(s) \approx \hat{V}(s, w) \quad \text{or} \quad Q^\pi(s, a) \approx \hat{Q}(s, a, w).$$

In the approximation,  $w$  is usually referred to as [the parameter or weights of our function approximator](#). Some choices for function approximators are listed below.

- Linear combinations of features
- Neural networks
- Decision trees
- Nearest neighbors
- Fourier and wavelet basis



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# Linear feature representations

In **linear function representations**, we use a feature vector to represent a state

$$x(s) = (x_1(s), x_2(s), \dots, x_d(s))^T,$$

where  $d$  is the **dimensionality of the feature space**. We then approximate our value functions using a linear combination of features as

$$\hat{V}(s, w) = x(s)^T w = \sum_{j=1}^d x_j(s)w_j.$$



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# Linear feature representations

The error of the approximation is defined on **the measure space of the occupancy measure**, which denotes the cumulative probability that a state is visited under  $\pi$

$$\rho^\pi(s) = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sum_{t=0}^T \gamma^t \mathbb{P}(s_t = s \mid \pi)}{\sum_{t=0}^T \gamma^t}.$$

The **quadratic objective function** (also known as the loss function) of the approximation error is then defined as

$$J(w) = \mathbb{E}_{s \sim \rho^\pi(s)} \left[ (V^\pi(s) - \hat{V}(s, w))^2 \right].$$

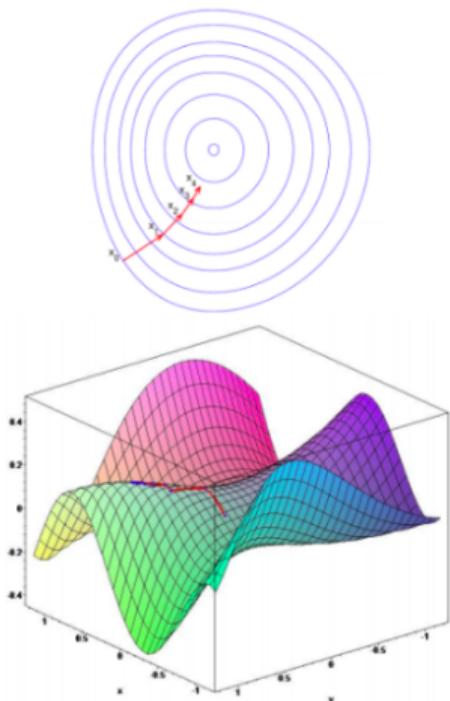


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# Gradient Descent

A common technique to minimize the above objective function is gradient descent.



- Start at some particular spot  $x_0$ , corresponding to some initial value of our parameter  $w$ .
- Evaluate the gradient at  $x_0$ , which is the direction of the steepest increase of objective.
- Take a step along the negative direction of the gradient vector and arrive at  $x_1$ .
- This process is repeated until convergence.



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# Gradient Descent

Mathematically, this can be summarized as

$$\nabla_w J(w) = \left( \frac{\partial J(w)}{\partial w_1}, \frac{\partial J(w)}{\partial w_2}, \dots, \frac{\partial J(w)}{\partial w_n} \right), \quad \text{compute the gradient}$$

$$\Delta w = -\frac{1}{2}\alpha \nabla_w J(w), \quad \text{compute an update step using gradient descent}$$

$$w \leftarrow w + \Delta w, \quad \text{take a step towards the local minimum}$$

where  $\alpha$  is the learning rate.



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# Gradient Descent

## Stochastic Gradient Descent

- In practice, gradient descent is not a sample-efficient optimizer. so we use stochastic gradient descent (SGD).
- In minibatch SGD, we sample a minibatch of past experiences, compute our objective function on that minibatch, and update our parameters using gradient descent on the minibatch.



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# Monte-Carlo policy evaluation with linear VFA

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**Algorithm 1:** Monte-Carlo policy evaluation with linear VFA

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Initialize  $\mathbf{w} = 0$ ,  $R(s) = 0 \forall s$ ,  $k = 1$

**while** *true* **do**

    Sample  $k$ -th episode  $(s_{k,1}, a_{k,1}, r_{k,1}, s_{k,2}, \dots, s_{k,H_k})$  given  $\pi$

**for**  $t = 1, \dots, H_k$  **do**

**if** *first visit to s in episode k* **then**

            Append  $\sum_{j=t}^{H_k} r_{k,j}$  to  $R(s_t)$

$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + \alpha(\text{avg}(R(s_t)) - \hat{V}(s_t, \mathbf{w}))x(s_t)$



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# Monte-Carlo policy evaluation with linear VFA

This algorithm is a modification of first-visit Monte-Carlo policy evaluation, while we replace our value function with our linear VFA. Recall that the mean squared error of a linear VFA for a particular policy  $\pi$  relative to the true value is:

$$J(w) = \sum_s \rho^\pi(s)(V^\pi(s) - \hat{V}^\pi(s, w))^2.$$

## Lemma

*Monte-Carlo policy evaluation with linear VFA converges to the weights  $w_{MC}$  with minimum mean squared error.*

$$J(w_{MC}) = \min_w \sum_s \rho^\pi(s)(V^\pi(s) - \hat{V}^\pi(s, w))^2.$$



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## Temporal-difference methods with linear VFA

Recall that in the tabular setting, we approximate  $V^\pi$  via bootstrapping and sampling and update  $V^\pi(s)$  by

$$V^\pi(s) \leftarrow V^\pi(s) + \alpha(r + \gamma V^\pi(s') - V^\pi(s)),$$

where  $r + \gamma V^\pi(s')$  represents our TD target. Using linear VFA, we replace  $V^\pi$  with  $\hat{V}^\pi$  and our update equation becomes

$$\begin{aligned} w &\leftarrow w + \alpha(r + \gamma \hat{V}^\pi(s', w) - \hat{V}^\pi(s, w)) \nabla_w \hat{V}^\pi(s, w) \\ &= w + \alpha(r + \gamma \hat{V}^\pi(s', w) - \hat{V}^\pi(s, w)) x(s). \end{aligned}$$



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# Temporal-difference methods with linear VFA

In value function approximation, although our target is a biased and approximated estimate of the true value  $V^\pi(s)$ , linear TD(0) will still converge to some global approximate optimum.

## Lemma

*TD(0) policy evaluation with VFA converges to the weights  $w_{TD}$  which is optimum up to  $1/(1-\gamma)$  of the minimum mean squared error.*

$$J(w_{TD}) \leq \frac{1}{1-\gamma} \min_w \sum_s \rho^\pi(s)(V^\pi(s) - \hat{V}^\pi(s, w))^2.$$



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## Control using VFA

Use function approximators for **action-value functions** by  $\hat{Q}(s, a, w) \approx Q^\pi(s, a)$ . We may then interleave policy evaluation, by approximating using  $\hat{Q}(s, a, w)$ , and policy improvement, by  $\epsilon$ -greedy policy improvement. To be more concrete, we define our objective function  $J(w)$  as

$$J(w) = \mathbb{E}_\pi \left[ (Q^\pi(s, a) - \hat{Q}^\pi(s, a, w))^2 \right].$$

Similar to what we did earlier in policy evaluation, we may then use either gradient descent or stochastic gradient descent to minimize the objective function.



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# Control using VFA

For example, for a linear action value function approximator, this can be summarized as

$$x(s, a) = (x_1(s, a), x_2(s, a), \dots, x_n(s, a))^T, \quad \text{action value features}$$

$$\hat{Q}(s, a, w) = x(s, a)^T w, \quad \text{action value linear in features}$$

$$J(w) = \mathbb{E}_\pi \left[ (Q^\pi(s, a) - \hat{Q}^\pi(s, a, w))^2 \right], \quad \text{objective function}$$

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{1}{2} \nabla_w J(w) &= \mathbb{E}_\pi \left[ (Q^\pi(s, a) - \hat{Q}^\pi(s, a, w)) \nabla_w \hat{Q}^\pi(s, a, w) \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_\pi \left[ (Q^\pi(s, a) - \hat{Q}^\pi(s, a, w)) x(s, a) \right], \quad \text{compute the gradient} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta w &= -\frac{1}{2} \alpha \nabla_w J(w) \\ &= \alpha (Q^\pi(s, a) - \hat{Q}^\pi(s, a, w)) x(s, a), \end{aligned}$$

$$w \leftarrow w + \Delta w.$$

# Control using VFA

For Monte Carlo methods, we substitute our target  $Q^\pi(s, a)$  with a return  $G_t$ .

$$\Delta w = \alpha(G_t - \hat{Q}(s, a, w)) \nabla_w \hat{Q}(s, a, w).$$

For SARSA, we substitute our target with a TD target

$$\Delta w = \alpha(r + \gamma \hat{Q}(s', a', w) - \hat{Q}(s, a, w)) \nabla_w \hat{Q}(s, a, w).$$

For Q-learning, we substitute our target with a maximum TD target

$$\Delta w = \alpha(r + \gamma \max_{a'} \hat{Q}(s', a', w) - \hat{Q}(s, a, w)) \nabla_w \hat{Q}(s, a, w).$$



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# Neural networks

## Motivations:

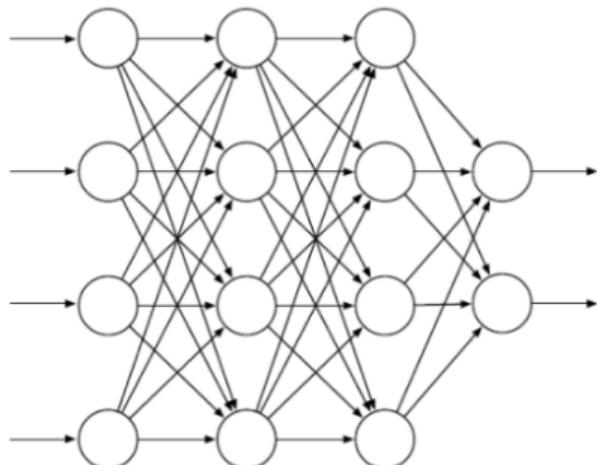
- Although linear VFAs often work well given the right set of features, it can also be difficult to hand-craft such feature set.
- Neural networks provide a much richer function approximation class that is able to directly go from states without requiring an explicit specification of features.



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# Neural networks



- Neural networks with a single hidden layer can have the “universal approximation” property, which has been demonstrated both empirically and theoretically.
- Complicated functions can be approximated with a hierarchical composition of multiple hidden layers.



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# Question and Answering (Q&A)



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