

University of Liège School of Engineering

Reinforcement Learning in a Discrete Domain

INFO8003-1: Optimal decision making for complex problems

Julien Gustin, Joachim Houyon

1 Implementation of the domain

Our rule based policy is to always go right. More formally it can be described as:

$$\mu(x,y) = (1,0) \quad \forall x, y \in X \tag{1}$$

Note that in the following for clearness we will represent actions

$$U = \{(1,0), (-1,0), (0,-1), (0,1)\}$$

as follow:

$$U = \{RIGHT, LEFT, UP, DOWN\}$$

Also the state (x, y) does not mean "element at the line x and column y", but element at position [x][y] in the table where (0, 0) is on the top left

-3	1	-5	0	19
6	3	8	9	10
5	-8	4	1	-8
6	-9	4	19	-5
-20	-17	-4	-3	9

Figure 1. Domain instance

Therefore by taking the example of the statement the initial state is at position (0,3) and not (3,0).

Other components of the domain remain the same.

1.1 Deterministic

In the deterministic domain the action (1) is always applied to the environment.

Here is a simulation through a single trajectory of 10 steps, starting by the initial state $x_0 = (0,3)$ represented as tuple $(x_0, u_0, r_0, x_1), ..., (x_9, u_9, r_9, x_{10})$

```
((0,3), RIGHT, -9, (1,3))
1.
    ((1,3), RIGHT, 4, (2,3))
2.
    ((2,3), RIGHT, 19, (3,3))
    ((3,3), RIGHT, -5, (4,3))
4.
    ((4,3), RIGHT, -5, (4,3))
    ((4,3), RIGHT, -5, (4,3))
    ((4,3), RIGHT, -5, (4,3))
    ((4,3), RIGHT, -5, (4,3))
7.
    ((4,3), RIGHT, -5, (4,3))
8.
9.
    ((4,3), RIGHT, -5, (4,3))
```

--- Deterministic ---

Listing 1. Simulated trajectories by applying policy (1) in the deterministic domain.

1.2 Stochastic

In the stochastic domain the action (1) may not be applied due to the noise $w \sim \mathcal{U}(0, 1)$. Such that if $w \geq 0.5$ the state is updated to (x, y) = (0, 0).

Here is a simulation through a single trajectory of 10 steps, starting by the initial state $x_0 = (0,3)$ represented as tuple $(x_0, u_0, r_0, x_1), ..., (x_9, u_9, r_9, x_{10})$

```
((0,3), RIGHT, -9, (1,3))
1.
    ((1,3), RIGHT, -3, (0,0))
2.
    ((0,0), RIGHT, -3, (0,0))
    ((0,0), RIGHT, -3, (0,0))
    ((0,0), RIGHT, 1, (1,0))
5.
    ((1,0), RIGHT, -5, (2,0))
    ((2,0), RIGHT, 0, (3,0))
6.
    ((3,0), RIGHT, -3, (0,0))
7.
    ((0,0), RIGHT, -3, (0,0))
8.
    ((0,0), RIGHT, -3, (0,0))
```

--- Stochastic ---

Listing 2. Simulated trajectories by applying policy (1) in the stochastic domain.

2 Expected return of a policy

As seen on the course there exist a bound of the difference between J_N^{μ} and J^{μ} such that

$$||J_N^{\mu} - J^{\mu}||_{\infty} \le \frac{\gamma^N}{1 - \gamma} Br$$

where

$$J_N^{\mu}(x) = E_{w \sim P_w(\cdot|x,u)} \left[r(x,\mu(x),w) + \gamma J_{N-1}^{\mu}(f(x,\mu(x),w)) \right], \quad \forall N \ge 1$$
 (2)

with $J_0^{\mu}(x) = 0$

Therefore we can find a lower bound of N by fixing the error of approximation ϵ , where $\epsilon = ||J_N^{\mu} - J^{\mu}||_{\infty}$.

$$\epsilon \leq \frac{\gamma^N}{1-\gamma} Br$$

$$\frac{\epsilon(1-\gamma)}{Br} \leq \gamma^N$$

$$\log_{\gamma} \left(\frac{\epsilon(1-\gamma)}{Br}\right) \leq N$$

Given $\gamma = 0.99, Br = 19$ and $\epsilon = 10^{-3}$ we have:

$$N = \left\lceil \log_{\gamma} \left(\frac{\epsilon (1 - \gamma)}{B_r} \right) \right\rceil = 1439. \tag{3}$$

2.1 Deterministic

y x	0	1	2	3	4
0	1839.617	1857.189	1880.999	1899.999	1899.999
1	990.039	997.009	998.999	999.999	999.999
2	-779.299	-779.090	-791.000	-800.000	-800.000
3	-471.567	-467.240	-476.000	-500.000	-500.000
4	849.368	875.120	888.000	900.000	900.000

Table 1. $J_N^{\mu}(x,y)$ for all $(x,y)\in X$ in the deterministic domain; N=1439

2.2 Stochastic

y	0	1	2	3	4
0	-72.021	-71.455	-64.253	-54.753	-54.753
1	-67.781	-64.911	-64.164	-63.664	-63.664
2	-77.413	-73.258	-76.986	-81.486	-81.486
3	-75.348	-68.075	-66.515	-78.515	-78.515
4	-82.342	-74.124	-70.654	-64.654	-64.654

Table 2. $J_N^{\mu}(x,y)$ for all $(x,y) \in X$ in the stochastic domain; N=1439

3 Optimal policy

We define

$$r(x, u) = \mathop{E}_{w \sim P_w(\cdot \mid x, u)} [r(x, u, w)] \quad \forall x \in X, u \in U$$

$$p(x' \mid x, u) = \mathop{E}_{w \sim P_w(\cdot \mid x, u)} [I_{\{x' = f(x, u, w)\}}] \quad \forall x, x' \in X, u \in U$$

which defines the structure of a MDP. Thanks to this, we can rewrite the functions Q_N as follows:

$$Q_0(x, u) = 0$$

$$Q_N(x, u) = r(x, u) + \gamma \sum_{x' \in X} p(x' \mid x, u) \max_{u' \in U} Q_{N-1}(x', u') \forall N \ge 1$$
(4)

3.1 Choice of N

We wish to find the smallest N such that

$$||Q_N - Q||_{\infty} = 0$$

because once we reach this equality, we know that the optimal policy μ^* will be the same as the policy μ_N^* derived from Q_N , ensuring that any increase of N will not modify the policy found.

However, it is not possible to determine such value of N which respects this property, we can only bound the suboptimality of μ_N^* with respect to μ^* :

$$||J^{\mu_N^*} - J^{\mu^*}||_{\infty} \le \frac{2\gamma^N B_r}{(1-\gamma)^2}$$

It follows that

$$\lim_{N \to +\infty} \frac{2\gamma^N B_r}{(1-\gamma)^2} = 0$$

and we can only compute a value N such that the gap from optimality is bounded by a value ϵ .

Using $\epsilon = 10^{-3}$, we get that

$$N = \left\lceil \log_{\gamma} \left(\frac{\epsilon (1 - \gamma)^2}{2B_r} \right) \right\rceil = 1966. \tag{5}$$

Which is very likely to have $\mu_N^* = \mu^*$ because the rewards are quite big numbers compared to the bound ϵ .

With
$$J^{\mu_N^*}(x) = \max_{u \in U} Q_N(x, u)$$
 and $\mu_N^* \in arg \ max_{u \in U} \ Q_N(x, u)$

3.2 Deterministic domain

In the deterministic domain, it is clear that

$$p(x'\mid x,u)=1 \ \forall x,x'\in X,u\in U \ \text{and} \ r(x,u)=R(g,F(x,u)) \ \forall x\in X,u\in U$$

y	x	0	1	2	3	4
	0	1842.031	1857.190	1881.000	1900.000	1900.000
	1	1854.576	1870.279	1881.090	1891.000	1900.000
	2	1842.031	1855.576	1870.279	1881.090	1891.000
	3	1828.610	1849.010	1863.646	1863.279	1864.090
-	4	1816.324	1826.520	1849.010	1863.646	1842.010

Table 3. $J_{\mu^*}^N(x,y)$ for all $(x,y)\in X$ in the deterministic domain; N=1966

$\begin{array}{c} x \\ y \end{array}$	0	1	2	3	4
0	DOWN	RIGHT	RIGHT	RIGHT	RIGHT
1	RIGHT	RIGHT	RIGHT	RIGHT	UP
2	UP	RIGHT	UP	UP	UP
3	UP	RIGHT	RIGHT	UP	UP
4	UP	RIGHT	UP	UP	LEFT

Table 4. $\mu_N^*(x,y)$ for all $(x,y) \in X$, in the deterministic domain; N=1966

3.3 Stochastic domain

In the stochastic domain, we have the following:

$$r(x, u) = wR(g, F(x, u)) + (1 - w)R(g, (0, 0)) \ \forall x \in X, u \in U$$

$$p(x' \mid x, u) = w(I_{\{x' = F(x, u)\}}) + (1 - w)I_{\{x' = (0, 0)\}} \quad \forall x, x' \in X, u \in U$$

y	0	1	2	3	4
0	159.446	159.637	163.052	172.130	172.130
1	159.637	163.052	164.903	167.630	172.130
2	159.446	160.137	163.052	167.213	167.630
3	159.259	162.196	167.213	162.196	167.213
4	159.259	155.713	162.196	167.213	162.229

Table 5. $J_{\mu^*}^N(x,y)$ for all $(x,y)\in X$ in the stochastic domain; N=1966

$\begin{array}{c} x \\ y \end{array}$	0	1	2	3	4
0	DOWN	DOWN	DOWN	RIGHT	RIGHT
1	RIGHT	RIGHT	RIGHT	RIGHT	UP
2	UP	RIGHT	UP	DOWN	UP
3	LEFT	RIGHT	RIGHT	LEFT	LEFT
4	UP	RIGHT	UP	UP	RIGHT

Table 6. $\mu_N^*(x,y)$ for all $(x,y)\in X,$ in the stochastic domain; N=1966

System Identification 4

In order to estimate r(x, u) and p(x'|x, u) from a given trajectory $h_t = (x_0, u_0, r_0, x_1, u_1, r_1, ..., u_{t-1}, u_{t$ r_{t-1}, x_t) one can compute it by

$$\hat{r}(x,u) = \frac{1}{|A_h(x,u)|} \sum_{i \in A_h(x,u)} r_i, \tag{6}$$

$$\hat{p}(x' \mid x, u) = \frac{1}{|A_h(x, u)|} \sum_{i \in A_h(x, u)} I_{\{x_{i+1} = x'\}}, \tag{7}$$

where $A_h(x, u)$ is the set of indices $\{i \mid x_i = x, u_i = u\}$. However, the number of operations to estimate the MDP structure grows linearly with t. And also the memory requirement we have therefore decided to implement the algorithm described at the slide 29 of the course.

At time 0, set N(x, u) = 0, N(x, u, x') = 0, R(x, u) = 0, p(x'|x, u) = 0. $\forall x, x' \in X \text{ and } u \in U.$

At time $t \neq 0$, do

- 1. $N(x_{t-1}, u_{t-1}) \leftarrow N(x_{t-1}, u_{t-1}) + 1$
- 2. $N(x_{t-1}, u_{t-1}, x_t) \leftarrow N(x_{t-1}, u_{t-1}, x_t) + 1$

- 3. $R(x_{t-1}, u_{t-1}) \leftarrow R(x_{t-1}, u_{t-1}) + r_t$ 4. $r(x_{t-1}, u_{t-1}) \leftarrow \frac{R(x_{t-1}, u_{t-1})}{N(x_{t-1}, u_{t-1})}$ 5. $p(x|x_{t-1}, u_{t-1}) \leftarrow \frac{N(x_{t-1}, u_{t-1}, x)}{N(x_{t}, u_{t})} \quad \forall x \in X$

In order to deal with state action pairs $(x, u) \in X \times U$ that had not been visited and therefore have N(x, u) equal to 0. We have decided to consider that they have a uniform probability to reach any cell of the domain. More formally that

$$p(x'|x,u) = \frac{1}{n * m} \forall x' \in X$$

We have then apply this algorithm from a given trajectory h_t starting from (0,3) and then using a random uniform policy. With increasing value of t to show the convergence, $t = \{10^0, 10^1, 10^2, \dots 10^7\}.$

Note that in the following

$$J^{\hat{\mu}_N^*}(x) = \max_{u \in U} \, \hat{Q}_N(x, u)$$

4.1 Deterministic

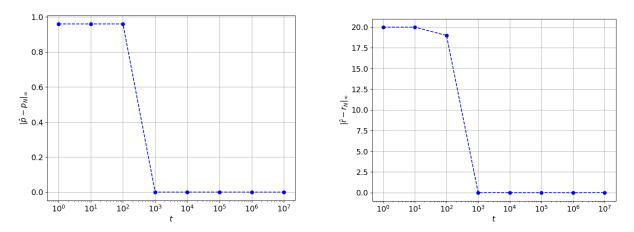


Figure 2. Convergence speed of \hat{p} and \hat{r} towards p and r using the ∞ norm through a growing trajectory generated by a random uniform trajectory in a deterministic domain

Clearly in the deterministic domain \hat{p} and \hat{r} converge after a trajectory length of 10^3 . Which are then use to compute the \hat{Q}_N -functions like the Q_N (4) one by just replacing r by \hat{r} and p by \hat{p} . Therefore if \hat{p} and \hat{r} has converged \hat{Q}_N will also as we can see just below.

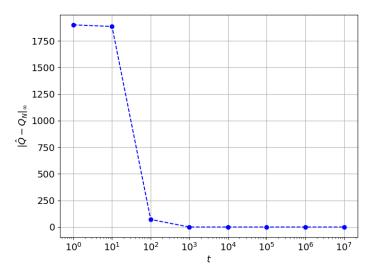


Figure 3. Infinity norm between \hat{Q}_N and Q_N for each trajectory length

The trajectory length h_t had been computed once and then truncated according to each t.

y	0	1	2	3	4
0	1842.031	1857.190	1881.000	1900.000	1900.000
1	1854.576	1870.279	1881.090	1891.000	1900.000
2	1842.031	1855.576	1870.279	1881.090	1891.000
3	1828.610	1849.010	1863.646	1863.279	1864.090
4	1816.324	1826.520	1849.010	1863.646	1842.010

Table 7. $J^{\mu_N^*}(x,y)$ for all $(x,y) \in X$ in the deterministic domain; N=1966

Using \hat{Q}_N we can then approximate $\hat{\mu}_N^*$ such that $\hat{\mu}_N^* \in arg\ max_{u \in U}\ \hat{Q}_N(x, u)$. And in the following we computed \hat{Q}_N with a trajectory length of 10^7 steps.

y	0	1	2	3	4
0	1842.031	1857.190	1881.000	1900.000	1900.000
1	1854.576	1870.279	1881.090	1891.000	1900.000
2	1842.031	1855.576	1870.279	1881.090	1891.000
3	1828.610	1849.010	1863.646	1863.279	1864.090
4	1816.324	1826.520	1849.010	1863.646	1842.010

Table 8. $J^{\hat{\mu}_N^*}(x,y)$ for all $(x,y) \in X$ in the deterministic domain; N=1966

$\begin{array}{c} x \\ y \end{array}$	0	1	2	3	4
0	DOWN	RIGHT	RIGHT	RIGHT	RIGHT
1	RIGHT	RIGHT	RIGHT	RIGHT	UP
2	UP	RIGHT	UP	UP	UP
3	UP	RIGHT	RIGHT	UP	UP
4	UP	RIGHT	UP	UP	LEFT

Table 9. $\hat{\mu}_N^*(x,y)$ for all $(x,y) \in X$ in the deterministic domain; N=1966

We can see that as expected the result of Table 7. and Table 8. are indeed the same.

4.2 Stochastic

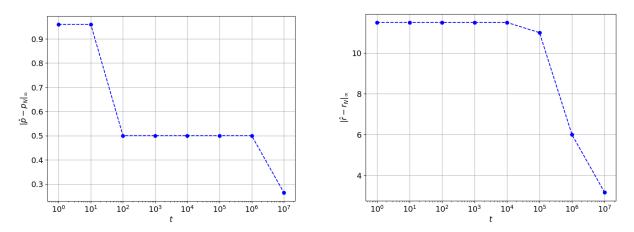


Figure 4. Convergence speed of \hat{p} and \hat{r} towards p and r using the ∞ norm through a growing trajectory generated by a random uniform trajectory in a stochastic domain

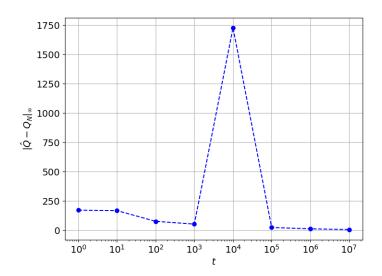


Figure 5. Infinity norm between \hat{Q}_N and Q_N for each trajectory length

Here \hat{r} , \hat{p} and \hat{Q}_N has not converged even after a trajectory length of 10^7 . As before in the following we computed \hat{Q}_N with a trajectory length of 10^7 steps.

y x	0	1	2	3	4
0	159.446	159.637	163.052	172.130	172.130
1	159.637	163.052	164.903	167.630	172.130
2	159.446	160.137	163.052	167.213	167.630
3	159.259	162.196	167.213	162.196	167.213
4	159.259	155.713	162.196	167.213	162.229

Table 10. $J^{\mu_N^*}(x,y)$ for all $(x,y) \in X$ in the stochastic domain; N=1966

y	0	1	2	3	4
0	157.435	157.594	160.955	170.774	170.100
1	157.593	160.941	162.799	165.501	170.306
2	157.448	158.241	161.269	166.050	166.819
3	157.375	160.731	166.113	161.529	167.433
4	157.134	154.232	161.155	162.786	158.605

Table 11. $J^{\hat{\mu}_N^*}(x,y)$ for all $(x,y) \in X$ in the stochastic domain; N=1966

$\begin{array}{c} x \\ y \end{array}$	0	1	2	3	4
0	DOWN	DOWN	DOWN	RIGHT	RIGHT
1	RIGHT	RIGHT	RIGHT	RIGHT	UP
2	UP	RIGHT	UP	DOWN	UP
3	LEFT	RIGHT	RIGHT	LEFT	LEFT
4	UP	RIGHT	UP	UP	UP

Table 12. $\hat{\mu}_N^*(x,y)$ for all $(x,y) \in X$ in the deterministic domain; N=1966

We can notice that, in the stochastic configuration, the convergence is way slower.

To explain the influence of the length of the trajectory on the quality of the approximations, we can compare the results with the deterministic domain and the stochastic domain.

It is trivial that the longer is the trajectory, the more likely it will contain a transition $(x, u, r) \to x'$ of the domain.

Furthermore, the strong law of large numbers states that the more samples we have (in our case, a sample is a transition $(x, u, r) \to x'$ of the domain), the closer we should get from the real mean of r(.) and p(.).

We can also explain the big difference of convergence between the deterministic domain and the stochastic domain:

In the deterministic domain, it is easier to reach any state x' from a state x than in the stochastic domain, because, at each transition in the stochastic configuration, there is a

probability of 0.5 to be teleported back to the state (0,0). Therefore, the probability of reaching states like the state (4,4) is very low, and so it is unlikely for a small trajectory to contain such states, and by the strong law of large number, moreover these state much be reach a certain amount of time in order to be close to the true value, while for the deterministic domain a single pass is enough to get the true value.

5 Q-learning in a batch setting

Non-deterministic numerical resuts are averaged through 10 independent runs and displayed with standard deviation. (Including when using an agent that behave randomly)

5.1 Offline Q-learning

Given $h_T = (x_0, u_0, r_0, x_1, u_1, r_1, ..., u_{T-1}, r_{T-1}, x_T)$, we can infer an approximate value of the Q-function without identifying the structure of a Markov Decision Process. The algorithm works as follows:

- 1. Initialize $\hat{Q}(x, u) = 0 \ \forall x \in X, u \in U \text{ and set } t = 0$
- 2. Take the one-step transition at time t which is represented by the tuple (x_t, u_t, r_t, x_{t+1}) , and apply the update rule :

$$\hat{Q}(x_t, u_t) = \hat{Q}(x_t, u_t) + \alpha (r_t + \lambda \max_{u \in U} \hat{Q}(x_{t+1}, u) - \hat{Q}(x_t, u_t))$$
(8)

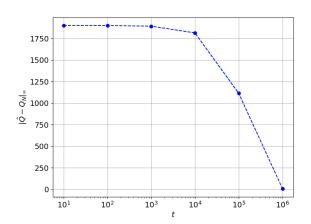
where α is the learning rate. In our case $\alpha = 0.05$ is a constant.

3. Move to the next one-step transition t=t+1. If t=T, return \hat{Q} and stop. Otherwise, go back to step 2.

Without any prior knowledge of the domain, it is not that easy to determine a good value of T, all we can say is that, thanks to the strong law of large numbers, the longest the trajectory is, the better we will get close to Q.

Fortunately, we know the domain definition. Therefore, we can compare \hat{Q} with Q_N , computed in section 3. Q_N being close to the real Q, we can approximately view how far \hat{Q} is from Q by computing $||\hat{Q} - Q_N||_{\infty}$.

The graphs below represent the convergence of \hat{Q} towards Q_N , at each power of 10 number of steps up to 10^6 .



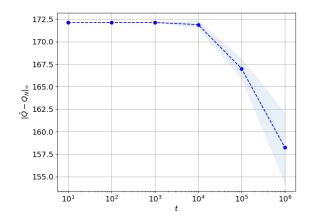


Figure 6. Convergence speed of \hat{Q} towards Q_N using the ∞ norm through a growing trajectory generated by a random uniform trajectory in the deterministic domain (left) and the stochastic domain (right)

We can notice that a trajectory size of 10^6 is enough for the deterministic domain as \hat{Q} converged to Q_N . However, in the case of the stochastic domain, it would need to perform more iterations, which has not been done because, unfortunately, the computing time is too long.

We can then infer $\hat{\mu}^* \in \underset{u \in U}{arg \; max} \hat{Q}(x,u) \; \forall x \in X \text{ using } T = 10^6, \text{ shown in the table below:}$

y	0	1	2	3	4
0	DOWN	RIGHT	RIGHT	RIGHT	UP
1	RIGHT	RIGHT	RIGHT	RIGHT	UP
2	UP	RIGHT	UP	UP	UP
3	UP	RIGHT	RIGHT	UP	UP
4	UP	RIGHT	UP	UP	LEFT

Table 13. $\hat{\mu}^*$ derived from the deterministic domain

$\begin{array}{c} x \\ y \end{array}$	0	1	2	3	4
0	DOWN	DOWN	DOWN	RIGHT	RIGHT
1	LEFT	RIGHT	RIGHT	LEFT	UP
$\overline{2}$	DOWN	LEFT	UP	UP	UP
3	LEFT	LEFT	UP	UP	LEFT
4	UP	UP	UP	UP	LEFT

Table 14. $\hat{\mu}^*$ from the stochastic domain

We can notice that, for the deterministic domain, we have that $\hat{\mu}^* = \mu_N^*$ except at the upper right corner: in this state, the actions UP and RIGHT lead to the same reward. Concerning the stochastic domain, this is logical that $\hat{\mu}^* \neq \mu_N^*$ as it did not converge.

y	0	1	2	3	4
0	1842.031	1857.190	1881.000	1900.000	1900.000
1	1854.576	1870.279	1881.090	1891.000	1900.000
2	1842.031	1855.576	1870.279	1881.090	1891.000
3	1828.610	1849.010	1863.646	1863.279	1864.090
4	1816.324	1826.520	1849.010	1863.646	1842.010

Table 15. $J^N_{\hat{\mu}^*}$ in the deterministic domain

y	0	1	2	3	4
0	139.165	138.851	142.368	152.251	152.251
1	138.946	141.342	142.375	142.400	151.228
2	139.164	139.099	141.862	141.875	143.594
3	139.188	139.285	139.608	138.381	138.459
4	139.285	131.833	134.200	136.270	135.419

Table 16. $J^N_{\hat{\mu}^*}$ mean in the stochastic domain

$\begin{array}{c} x \\ y \end{array}$	0	1	2	3	4
0	8.082	7.866	7.640	7.922	7.922
1	8.245	7.852	7.981	8.143	7.102
2	8.159	7.956	7.938	8.158	6.036
3	8.006	7.962	7.927	7.952	12.142
4	7.962	7.941	9.827	13.399	11.491

4 | 7.962 | 7.941 | 9.827 | 13.399 | 11.491 Table 17. $J_{\hat{\mu}^*}^N$ standard deviation in the stochastic domain

We observe the same behavior for the expected cumulative reward.

5.2 Online Q-Learning

For these experiments we needed to train our agent over 100 episodes having 1000 transitions each using an ϵ -greedy policy. This policy selects with a probability $1-\epsilon$ actions according to $\mu_{\hat{Q}}$ which is derived from \hat{Q} and with a probability ϵ to choose action at random. \hat{Q} is continuously updated at each transition using equation 8.

This policy allows to address the dilemma between exploration and exploitation. For these experiments we will plot after each episode the value of $||J_{\mu_{\hat{O}}}^N - J_{\mu^*}^N||_{\infty}$

5.2.1 Experiment 1

The first experiment is to set the learning rate $\alpha = 0.05$ and the exploration rate $\epsilon = 0.5$

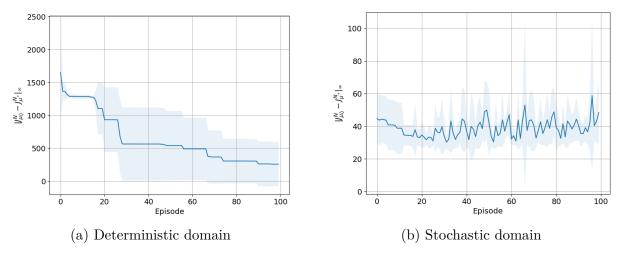


Figure 7. Convergence speed of $J_{\mu_{\hat{O}}}^N$ with $J_{\mu^*}^N$ across episodes, using the infinity norm.

In the deterministic setting, our agent converges slowly and has not converged yet, after 100 episodes. Indeed, to be close to the value of $J_{\mu^*}^N$, our agent would need to visit all the states a large number of times (infinite number of times). However, by using the ϵ -greedy policy half of the time, the agent will perform actions that it knows, from experience, these will make him earn high rewards, and, in the other half, the agent will perform random actions allowing him to discover new (state, action, reward, next_state) tuples.

For the stochastic setting, the agent also struggles to converge to the value for the same reason as above, plus the fact that he may be teleported to (0, 0) with a probability of 0.5. It has the consequence that the agent has more difficulties to reach states that are far from the state (0, 0).

5.2.2 Experiment 2

The second experiment is exactly like the preceding one, but with a learning rate that evolves over time.

$$\alpha_t = 0.8\alpha_{t-1} \ \forall t > 0$$

with $\alpha_0 = 0.05$ Note that we reset the learning rate at each epoch.

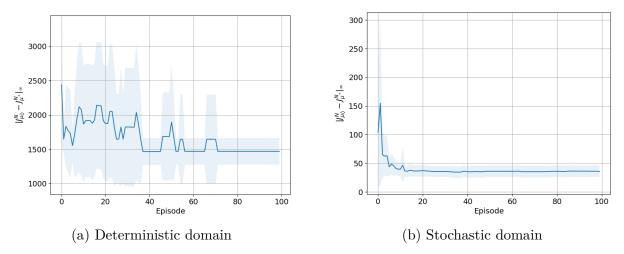


Figure 8. Convergence speed of $J^N_{\mu_{\hat{Q}}}$ with $J^N_{\mu^*}$ across episodes, using the infinity norm.

Note that 8 can be re-written as

$$\hat{Q}(x_k, u_k) \leftarrow \hat{Q}(x_k, u_k) + \alpha \delta(x_k, u_k) \tag{9}$$

Where $\delta(x_k, u_k)$ is called the temporal difference and is defined as

$$\delta(x_k, u_k) = r_k + \lambda \max_{u \in U} \hat{Q}(x_{k+1}, u) - \hat{Q}(x_k, u_k)$$
(10)

Using that notation, it is clear that if the learning rate α is really small, $\hat{Q}(x_k, u_k)$ will not change that much. It is exactly what happens here, as α decreases quite fast with respect to t even if our agent visits all the states a large number of times, it will stop learning too early and converges into a local minimum.

5.2.3 Experiment 3

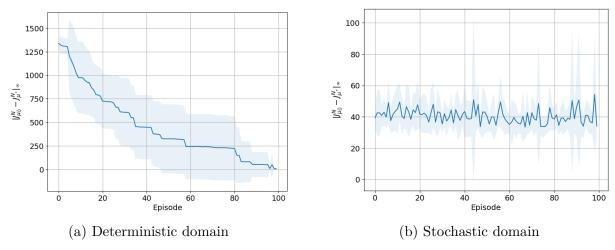


Figure 9. Convergence speed of $J^N_{\mu_{\hat{Q}}}$ with $J^N_{\mu^*}$ across episodes, using the infinity norm.

For that experiment we use a replay buffer that store all previous transitions and at each time-step, the function \hat{Q} is updated ten times by drawing ten transitions at random from the replay buffer.

It is interesting to see that our agent converge way more rapidly to the value of $J_{\mu^*}^N$ that before in the deterministic setting, the replay is quite important because it allow to replay some transition done earlier and to not forget about things that it learned before. However in the stochastic domain it's still struggle.

5.3 Discount factor

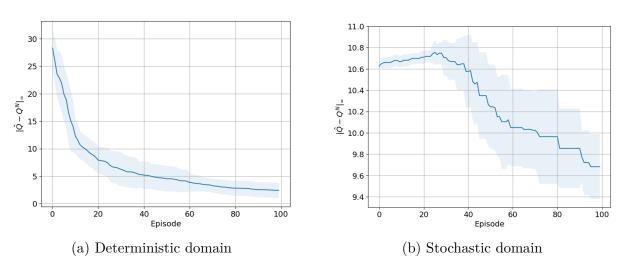


Figure 10. Convergence speed of \hat{Q} toward Q^N across episodes, using the infinity norm.

Overall it converge way much faster and easier than before (even for the stochastic), because using a discount factor of $\gamma = 0.4$ will reduce the impact of the farthest states on the optimal policy.

5.4 Q-learning with another exploration policy

Proposed in the article "Learning-Driven Exploration for Reinforcement Learning" by Muhammad Usama and Dong Eui Chang, we implemented an exploration policy called Entropy based exploration, where, unlike the greedy-policy who uses a constant ϵ , it is state dependant of the entropy of the current state. Formally, we compute the probability distribution, which is a **Boltzman distribution**, as follows:

$$p(x,u) = \frac{e^{\hat{Q}(x,u) - \max \hat{Q}(x,u')}}{\sum_{a \in U} e^{\hat{Q}(x,a) - \max \hat{Q}(x,u')}}$$

Where $\max_{u' \in U} \hat{Q}(x, u')$ is used in order to avoid numerical instability.

The entropy of a state x is computed as follows:

$$H(x) = \sum_{u \in U} p(x, u) log_{|U|} p(x, u)$$

Ensuring that H(x) is a value in [0,1]. This policy is non-parametric, so we do not have any parameters to tune.

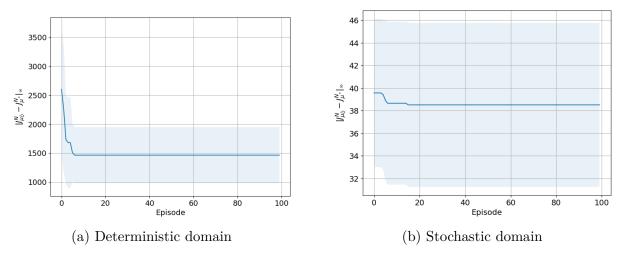


Figure 11. Convergence speed of $J^N_{\mu_{\hat{Q}}}$ with $J^N_{\mu^*}$ across episodes, using the infinity norm.

We can notice that the results are quite unsatisfying as we do not converge to the optimal policy.