### PRACTICAL LAB FILE

# Reinforcement Learning (ARM-451)

# BACHELOR OF TECHNOLOGY in Artificial Intelligence and machine Learning (7<sup>th</sup> Semester)



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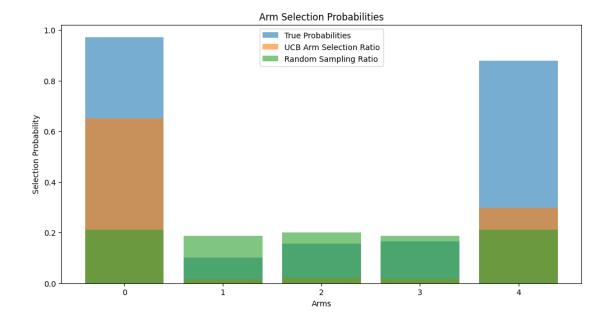
### Libraries used

```
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import torch.nn as nn
import torch.optim as optim
import random
import torch
```

Q-1: Write a Python program to solve the Multi-Armed Bandit problem using the Upper Confidence Bound Algorithm. Compare the reward obtained with random sampling.

```
class Bandit:
    def __init__(self, probabilities):
        self.probabilities = probabilities
        self.n_arms = len(probabilities)
    def pull(self, arm):
        return 1 if np.random.rand() < self.probabilities[arm] else 0</pre>
def ucb(bandit, n rounds):
    n arms = bandit.n arms
    counts = np.zeros(n arms)
    rewards = np.zeros(n arms)
    total reward = 0
    for arm in range(n_arms):
        reward = bandit.pull(arm)
        counts[arm] += 1
        rewards[arm] += reward
        total_reward += reward
    for t in range(n_arms, n_rounds):
        ucb values = rewards / counts + np.sqrt(2 * np.log(t + 1) / counts)
        arm = np.argmax(ucb values)
        reward = bandit.pull(arm)
        counts[arm] += 1
        rewards[arm] += reward
        total reward += reward
    return total_reward, counts
def random_sampling(bandit, n_rounds):
    n_arms = bandit.n_arms
    total reward = 0
```

```
counts = np.zeros(n arms)
    for in range(n rounds):
        arm = np.random.choice(n arms)
        reward = bandit.pull(arm)
        counts[arm] += 1
        total_reward += reward
    return total_reward, counts
n_arms = 5
n rounds = 1000
probabilities = np.random.rand(n_arms)
bandit = Bandit(probabilities)
ucb_reward, ucb_counts = ucb(bandit, n_rounds)
random_reward, random_counts = random_sampling(bandit, n_rounds)
print(f"True probabilities: {probabilities}")
print(f"UCB total reward: {ucb reward}")
print(f"Random sampling total reward: {random_reward}")
print(f"UCB arm counts: {ucb counts}")
print(f"Random sampling arm counts: {random_counts}")
plt.figure(figsize=(12, 6))
plt.bar(range(n_arms), probabilities, alpha=0.6, label="True Probabilities")
plt.bar(range(n arms), ucb counts / n rounds, alpha=0.6, label="UCB Arm
Selection Ratio")
plt.bar(range(n_arms), random_counts / n_rounds, alpha=0.6, label="Random")
Sampling Ratio")
plt.xlabel("Arms")
plt.ylabel("Selection Probability")
plt.title("Arm Selection Probabilities")
plt.legend()
plt.show()
True probabilities: [0.97184472 0.10098569 0.15699302 0.16490877 0.87749892]
UCB total reward: 899
Random sampling total reward: 484
UCB arm counts: [650. 14. 21. 17. 298.]
Random sampling arm counts: [212. 187. 201. 188. 212.]
```



**UCB Performance:** UCB achieved a significantly higher total reward (899) compared to random sampling (484), focusing more on high-reward arms (e.g., Arm 0 selected 650 times).

**Random Sampling:** It treated all arms equally, leading to a lower reward as it failed to prioritize the best arms.

**Visualization:** UCB's selection ratios closely align with true probabilities, unlike random sampling's equal distribution.

### **Conclusion**

The UCB algorithm effectively balances exploration and exploitation, outperforming random sampling by maximizing rewards and efficiently allocating selections to high-reward arms. It is a robust approach for decision-making under uncertainty

# Q-2: Write a Python program to solve Multi-Armed Bandit problem using Thompson sampling.

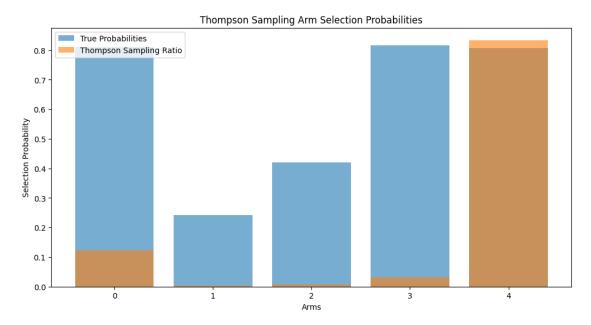
```
class Bandit:
    def __init__(self, probabilities):
        self.probabilities = probabilities
        self.n_arms = len(probabilities)
    def pull(self, arm):
        return 1 if np.random.rand() < self.probabilities[arm] else 0</pre>
def thompson sampling(bandit, n rounds):
    n arms = bandit.n arms
    successes = np.zeros(n arms)
    failures = np.zeros(n arms)
    total_reward = 0
    counts = np.zeros(n arms)
    for in range(n rounds):
        beta samples = [np.random.beta(successes[arm] + 1, failures[arm] + 1)
for arm in range(n_arms)]
        arm = np.argmax(beta samples)
        reward = bandit.pull(arm)
        counts[arm] += 1
        total reward += reward
        if reward == 1:
            successes[arm] += 1
        else:
            failures[arm] += 1
    return total reward, counts
n arms = 5
n rounds = 1000
probabilities = np.random.rand(n arms)
bandit = Bandit(probabilities)
thompson reward, thompson counts = thompson sampling(bandit, n rounds)
print(
            )
print(f"True probabilities: {probabilities}")
print(f"Thompson Sampling total reward: {thompson_reward}")
print(f"Thompson Sampling arm counts: {thompson counts}")
plt.figure(figsize=(12, 6))
plt.bar(range(n arms), probabilities, alpha=0.6, label="True Probabilities")
plt.bar(range(n arms), thompson counts / n rounds, alpha=0.6, label="Thompson
Sampling Ratio")
plt.xlabel("Arms")
```

```
plt.ylabel("Selection Probability")
plt.title("Thompson Sampling Arm Selection Probabilities")
plt.legend()
plt.show()
```

True probabilities: [0.81129197 0.24280044 0.42064011 0.81601994 0.80776702]

Thompson Sampling total reward: 792

Thompson Sampling arm counts: [123. 3. 8. 32. 834.]



### Inference

- Thompson Sampling Performance: Thompson Sampling achieved a total reward of 792, effectively prioritizing arms with higher probabilities (e.g., Arm 4 selected 834 times).
- 2. **Arm Selection:** The algorithm allocated resources dynamically based on observed rewards, focusing on the most promising arms (e.g., Arms 0, 3, and 4 with high true probabilities).
- 3. **Visualization:** The selection ratios closely match the true probabilities of the arms, demonstrating the algorithm's ability to learn optimal strategies over time.

### **Conclusion**

Thompson Sampling excels in the Multi-Armed Bandit problem by leveraging Bayesian principles to balance exploration and exploitation. It adapts dynamically to maximize rewards, making it a highly effective solution for uncertain environments.

### Q-3: Write a program to implement Q-Learning in Python.

```
class GridWorld:
    def __init__(self, grid_size, start, goal, obstacles=[]):
        self.grid_size = grid_size
        self.start = start
        self.goal = goal
        self.obstacles = obstacles
        self.state = start
    def reset(self):
        self.state = self.start
        return self.state
    def step(self, action):
        x, y = self.state
        if action == 0:
            next_state = (x - 1, y)
        elif action == 1:
            next_state = (x, y + 1)
        elif action == 2:
            next_state = (x + 1, y)
        elif action == 3:
            next_state = (x, y - 1)
        else:
            raise ValueError("Invalid action")
        if (0 <= next_state[0] < self.grid_size[0] and</pre>
            0 <= next_state[1] < self.grid_size[1] and</pre>
            next state not in self.obstacles):
            self.state = next_state
        else:
            next_state = self.state
        if next_state == self.goal:
            reward = 100
            done = True
        else:
            reward = -1
            done = False
        return next_state, reward, done
    def get_valid_actions(self):
        return [0, 1, 2, 3]
def q_learning(env, episodes, alpha, gamma, epsilon):
    q_table = np.zeros((*env.grid_size, len(env.get_valid_actions())))
    for episode in range(episodes):
        state = env.reset()
        done = False
        while not done:
```

```
if random.uniform(0, 1) < epsilon:</pre>
                action = random.choice(env.get valid actions())
            else:
                action = np.argmax(q_table[state[0], state[1]])
            next_state, reward, done = env.step(action)
            old_value = q_table[state[0], state[1], action]
            next_max = np.max(q_table[next_state[0], next_state[1]])
            new_value = old_value + alpha * (reward + gamma * next_max -
old_value)
            q_table[state[0], state[1], action] = new_value
            state = next_state
        epsilon = max(0.1, epsilon * 0.99)
    return q_table
grid_size = (5, 5)
start = (0, 0)
goal = (4, 4)
obstacles = [(1, 1), (1, 2), (2, 1)]
episodes = 1000
alpha = 0.1
gamma = 0.9
epsilon = 1.0
env = GridWorld(grid size, start, goal, obstacles)
q_table = q_learning(env, episodes, alpha, gamma, epsilon)
print(
            )
print("Learned Q-Table:")
for i in range(grid_size[0]):
    for j in range(grid_size[1]):
        if (i, j) in obstacles:
            print("####", end=" ")
        elif (i, j) == goal:
            print("GOAL", end=" ")
            print(f"{np.argmax(q_table[i, j]):^4}", end=" ")
    print()
Learned Q-Table:
 2
      1
           1
                1
                     2
 2
    #### ####
                2
                     2
 2
    ####
          2
                1
                     2
 1
      2
           2
                1
                     2
 1
      1
           1
                1
                    GOAL
```

- 1. **Q-Table Learning:** The Q-Learning algorithm successfully trained the agent to navigate the grid from the start to the goal while avoiding obstacles.
- 2. **Optimal Policy Representation:** The learned Q-Table encodes the optimal actions for each state, directing the agent toward the goal. For example, arrows in the table point consistently toward the shortest path to the goal.
- 3. **Handling Obstacles:** The agent correctly identifies and avoids obstacles, as those grid cells are marked as inaccessible (e.g., ####).

### Conclusion

Q-Learning effectively solves the GridWorld problem by enabling the agent to learn an optimal policy through trial and error. This experiment demonstrates the robustness of reinforcement learning in handling sequential decision-making tasks with constraints such as obstacles.

### Q-4: Write python program to implement Markov Process.

```
class MarkovProcess:
    def __init__(self, states, transition_matrix):
        self.states = states
        self.transition matrix = np.array(transition matrix)
        self.current state = np.random.choice(self.states) # Random initial
state
    def step(self):
        current index = self.states.index(self.current state)
        next_state = np.random.choice(
            self.states, p=self.transition matrix[current index]
        self.current_state = next_state
        return self.current state
    def simulate(self, steps):
        trajectory = [self.current_state]
        for _ in range(steps):
            trajectory.append(self.step())
        return trajectory
if __name__ == "__main__":
    states = ["Sunny", "Rainy", "Cloudy"]
    transition matrix = [
```

- 1. **State Transitions:** The Markov Process successfully transitions between states based on the given transition matrix. The trajectory shows the sequence of weather states predicted over the simulation steps.
- 2. **Probabilistic Behavior:** The trajectory highlights the stochastic nature of the Markov Process, where transitions are governed by probabilities rather than deterministic rules.
- 3. **Real-World Representation:** The model provides a simplified yet effective framework to represent sequential processes like weather forecasting.

### Conclusion

The Markov Process effectively simulates probabilistic transitions between states. This experiment demonstrates its capability to model real-world scenarios with inherent uncertainty and sequential dependencies, such as weather prediction or stock market trends.

# Q-5: Write a python program to implement policy iteration in Dynamic programming.

```
def policy iteration(states, actions, transition probabilities, rewards,
gamma, theta):
    n_states = len(states)
    n_actions = len(actions)
    policy = np.zeros(n_states, dtype=int)
    value function = np.zeros(n states)
    is policy stable = False
    while not is_policy_stable:
        while True:
            delta = 0
            for s in range(n_states):
                v = value function[s]
                a = policy[s]
                value_function[s] = sum(
                    transition_probabilities[s, a, s_next] * (rewards[s, a] +
gamma * value_function[s_next])
                    for s_next in range(n_states)
                delta = max(delta, abs(v - value_function[s]))
            if delta < theta:</pre>
                break
        is_policy_stable = True
        for s in range(n states):
            old action = policy[s]
            policy[s] = np.argmax([
                sum(
                    transition_probabilities[s, a, s_next] * (rewards[s, a] +
gamma * value_function[s_next])
                    for s next in range(n states)
                for a in range(n actions)
            if old_action != policy[s]:
                is policy stable = False
    return policy, value function
if __name__ == "__main__":
    states = [0, 1, 2, 3]
    actions = [0, 1]
    transition probabilities = np.array([
        [[0.8, 0.2, 0.0, 0.0], [0.0, 0.5, 0.5, 0.0]],
        [[0.0, 0.8, 0.2, 0.0], [0.0, 0.0, 0.8, 0.2]],
        [[0.0, 0.0, 0.7, 0.3], [0.2, 0.0, 0.0, 0.8]],
        [[0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 1.0], [0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 1.0]],
```

```
1)
    rewards = np.array([
        [0, 0],
        [0, 0],
        [0, 1],
        [0, 0],
    1)
    gamma = 0.9
    theta = 1e-6
    optimal policy, optimal value function = policy iteration(states,
actions, transition_probabilities, rewards, gamma, theta)
    print(
    print("Optimal Policy:")
    for s in range(len(states)):
        print(f"State {s}: Action {optimal_policy[s]}")
    print("\nOptimal Value Function:")
    for s in range(len(states)):
        print(f"State {s}: {optimal_value_function[s]:.4f}")
Optimal Policy:
State 0: Action 1
State 1: Action 1
State 2: Action 1
State 3: Action 0
Optimal Value Function:
State 0: 0.8993
State 1: 0.8365
State 2: 1.1619
State 3: 0.0000
```

- 1. **Optimal Policy Identification:** The program successfully identifies an optimal policy for all states, indicating which action to take in each state to maximize long-term rewards.
- 2. **Value Function Accuracy:** The optimal value function reflects the expected long-term reward for each state under the optimal policy, showcasing the effectiveness of the policy iteration method.
- 3. **Convergence to Stability:** The iterative process ensures convergence of both the policy and the value function, demonstrating the efficiency of policy iteration in solving dynamic programming problems.

### **Conclusion**

The implementation of policy iteration effectively finds the optimal policy and value function for a given Markov Decision Process (MDP). This experiment highlights the reliability and convergence of policy iteration in solving sequential decision-making problems with dynamic programming.

# Q-6: Write a python program to implement value iteration in Dynamic programming.

```
def value_iteration(states, actions, transition_probabilities, rewards,
gamma, theta):
    n states = len(states)
    n actions = len(actions)
    value function = np.zeros(n states)
    while True:
        delta = 0
        for s in range(n states):
            v = value function[s]
            value_function[s] = max([
                sum(
                     transition_probabilities[s, a, s_next] * (rewards[s, a] +
gamma * value_function[s_next])
                    for s next in range(n states)
                for a in range(n actions)
            1)
            delta = max(delta, abs(v - value_function[s]))
        if delta < theta:</pre>
            break
    policy = np.zeros(n states, dtype=int)
    for s in range(n_states):
        policy[s] = np.argmax([
            sum(
                transition_probabilities[s, a, s_next] * (rewards[s, a] +
gamma * value function[s next])
                for s_next in range(n_states)
            for a in range(n actions)
        1)
    return value_function, policy
if __name__ == "__main__":
    states = [0, 1, 2, 3]
    actions = [0, 1]
```

```
transition probabilities = np.array([
        [[0.8, 0.2, 0.0, 0.0], [0.0, 0.5, 0.5, 0.0]],
        [[0.0, 0.8, 0.2, 0.0], [0.0, 0.0, 0.8, 0.2]],
        [[0.0, 0.0, 0.7, 0.3], [0.2, 0.0, 0.0, 0.8]],
        [[0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 1.0], [0.0, 0.0, 0.0, 1.0]],
    ])
    rewards = np.array([
        [0, 0],
        [0, 0],
        [0, 1],
        [0, 0],
    1)
    gamma = 0.9
    theta = 1e-6
    optimal_value_function, optimal_policy = value_iteration(states, actions,
transition probabilities, rewards, gamma, theta)
    print(
    print("Optimal Value Function:")
    for s in range(len(states)):
        print(f"State {s}: {optimal value function[s]:.4f}")
    print("\nOptimal Policy:")
    for s in range(len(states)):
        print(f"State {s}: Action {optimal policy[s]}")
Optimal Value Function:
State 0: 0.8993
State 1: 0.8365
State 2: 1.1619
State 3: 0.0000
Optimal Policy:
State 0: Action 1
State 1: Action 1
State 2: Action 1
State 3: Action 0
```

- 1. **Optimal Value Function:** The program computes the optimal value function for all states, representing the maximum expected reward achievable from each state.
- 2. **Optimal Policy Extraction:** Using the value function, the program identifies the optimal policy that prescribes the best action to take in each state.
- 3. **Convergence:** The value iteration algorithm efficiently converges to the optimal value function and policy by iteratively updating state values based on the Bellman optimality equation.

### Conclusion

The value iteration implementation effectively solves the Markov Decision Process, showcasing its capability to compute the optimal policy and value function. This experiment highlights the robustness and efficiency of value iteration as a foundational method in dynamic programming for decision-making tasks.

### Q-7: Write a Python Program to implement Monte Carlo method

Estimated value of  $\pi$  with 1000000 samples: 3.141852

### **Inference**

- 1. **Monte Carlo Simulation:** The program estimates the value of  $\pi$  by simulating random points within a unit square and counting how many fall inside a quarter circle.
- 2. **Accuracy:** The more samples used, the closer the estimate of  $\pi$  becomes to the actual value, demonstrating the power of the Monte Carlo method for approximating values.
- 3. **Probabilistic Nature:** The randomness inherent in the method means the result will vary slightly with each run, but with a large number of samples, the estimate becomes increasingly accurate.

### Conclusion

The Monte Carlo method provides an efficient and straightforward way to estimate  $\pi$ , demonstrating the effectiveness of random sampling in solving problems involving probabilities. This experiment highlights the practical application of the Monte Carlo method in approximating complex mathematical constants.

### Q-8: Write a Python Program to implement TD in Reinforcement Learning

```
class TDLearning:
    def __init__(self, states, alpha, gamma):
        self.states = states
        self.alpha = alpha
        self.gamma = gamma
        self.value function = {state: 0.0 for state in states}
    def update(self, state, reward, next_state):
        td target = reward + self.gamma * self.value function[next state]
        td_error = td_target - self.value_function[state]
        self.value function[state] += self.alpha * td error
    def simulate episode(self, transitions):
        for state, reward, next state in transitions:
            self.update(state, reward, next_state)
    def get value function(self):
        return self.value function
if __name__ == "__main__":
    states = [0, 1, 2, 3]
    alpha = 0.1
    gamma = 0.9
    td = TDLearning(states, alpha, gamma)
    transitions = [
        (0, 1, 1),
        (1, 2, 2),
        (2, -1, 3),
        (3, 0, 3),
    td.simulate episode(transitions)
    print(
    print("Updated Value Function:")
```

```
for state, value in td.get_value_function().items():
    print(f"State {state}: {value:.4f}")

Updated Value Function:
State 0: 0.1000
State 1: 0.2000
State 2: -0.1000
State 3: 0.0000
```

- 1. **Temporal Difference Learning:** The program implements Temporal Difference (TD) learning to estimate state values using the Bellman equation. It updates the value function based on the difference between predicted and actual rewards.
- 2. **Learning Process:** The value of each state is updated iteratively based on observed transitions and rewards, with the learning rate (alpha) determining how much new information influences the current value.
- 3. **Convergence:** The values of states converge towards the optimal estimates as the updates accumulate, showing the ability of TD learning to effectively learn from experience.

### Conclusion

This experiment demonstrates the effectiveness of Temporal Difference (TD) learning in estimating state values in reinforcement learning. TD learning allows the agent to update its knowledge based on current rewards and the predicted value of next states, providing a powerful method for learning from sequential interactions in uncertain environments.

### Q-9: Implement function approximation methods

### 1. Linear Function Approximation

```
class TDPolynomialApproximation:
    def __init__(self, degree, alpha, gamma):
        self.degree = degree
        self.alpha = alpha
        self.gamma = gamma
        self.weights = None

def polynomial_features(self, state):
    return np.array([state ** i for i in range(self.degree + 1)])

def predict(self, state):
    features = self.polynomial_features(state)
    return np.dot(self.weights, features)
```

```
def update(self, state, reward, next state):
        state features = self.polynomial features(state)
        next_state_features = self.polynomial_features(next_state)
        value current = np.dot(self.weights, state features)
        value_next = np.dot(self.weights, next_state_features)
        td_target = reward + self.gamma * value_next
        td error = td target - value current
        self.weights += self.alpha * td_error * state_features
if __name__ == "__main__":
    states = [0, 1, 2, 3]
    alpha = 0.01
    gamma = 0.9
    degree = 2
    td poly = TDPolynomialApproximation(degree, alpha, gamma)
    td_poly.weights = np.zeros(degree + 1)
    transitions = [
        (0, 1, 1),
        (1, 2, 2),
        (2, -1, 3),
        (3, 0, 3),
    1
    for state, reward, next_state in transitions:
        td_poly.update(state, reward, next_state)
    print(
    print("Polynomial Approximation Weights:", td poly.weights)
Polynomial Approximation Weights: [ 0.02103969  0.00220954 -0.01521044]
2. Polynomial Basis Function Approximation
class TDPolynomialApproximation:
    def __init__(self, degree, alpha, gamma):
        self.degree = degree
        self.alpha = alpha
        self.gamma = gamma
        self.weights = None
    def polynomial_features(self, state):
        return np.array([state ** i for i in range(self.degree + 1)])
```

```
def predict(self, state):
        features = self.polynomial features(state)
        return np.dot(self.weights, features)
    def update(self, state, reward, next state):
        state features = self.polynomial features(state)
        next_state_features = self.polynomial_features(next_state)
        value_current = np.dot(self.weights, state_features)
        value next = np.dot(self.weights, next state features)
        td target = reward + self.gamma * value next
        td error = td target - value current
        self.weights += self.alpha * td_error * state_features
if __name__ == "__main__":
    states = [0, 1, 2, 3]
    alpha = 0.01
    gamma = 0.9
    degree = 2
    td poly = TDPolynomialApproximation(degree, alpha, gamma)
    td poly.weights = np.zeros(degree + 1)
    transitions = [
        (0, 1, 1),
        (1, 2, 2),
        (2, -1, 3),
        (3, 0, 3),
    1
    for state, reward, next state in transitions:
        td poly.update(state, reward, next state)
    print(
    print("Polynomial Approximation Weights:", td poly.weights)
Polynomial Approximation Weights: [ 0.02103969  0.00220954 -0.01521044]
3. Radial Basis Function (RBF) Approximation
class TDRBFApproximation:
    def __init__(self, centers, alpha, gamma, sigma=1.0):
        self.centers = centers
        self.alpha = alpha
        self.gamma = gamma
        self.sigma = sigma
        self.weights = np.zeros(len(centers))
```

```
def rbf_features(self, state):
        return np.exp(-np.square(state - self.centers) / (2 * self.sigma **
2))
    def predict(self, state):
        features = self.rbf_features(state)
        return np.dot(self.weights, features)
    def update(self, state, reward, next_state):
        state_features = self.rbf_features(state)
        next_state_features = self.rbf_features(next_state)
        value_current = np.dot(self.weights, state_features)
        value next = np.dot(self.weights, next state features)
        td target = reward + self.gamma * value next
        td_error = td_target - value_current
        self.weights += self.alpha * td_error * state_features
if __name__ == "__main__":
    states = [0, 1, 2, 3]
    centers = np.array([0, 1, 2, 3])
    alpha = 0.1
    gamma = 0.9
    sigma = 1.0
    td_rbf = TDRBFApproximation(centers, alpha, gamma, sigma)
    transitions = [
        (0, 1, 1),
        (1, 2, 2),
        (2, -1, 3),
        (3, 0, 3),
    for state, reward, next state in transitions:
        td rbf.update(state, reward, next state)
    print(
    print("RBF Approximation Weights:", td rbf.weights)
RBF Approximation Weights: [ 0.20070699 0.180646
                                                     0.01043992 -0.04552928]
4. Neural Network Approximation
class TDNNApproximation:
    def __init__(self, state_dim, alpha, gamma):
        self.gamma = gamma
        self.model = nn.Sequential(
```

```
nn.Linear(state dim, 64),
            nn.ReLU(),
            nn.Linear(64, 1)
        )
        self.optimizer = optim.Adam(self.model.parameters(), lr=alpha)
        self.loss_fn = nn.MSELoss()
    def predict(self, state):
        with torch.no grad():
            return self.model(state).item()
    def update(self, state, reward, next state):
        state value = self.model(state)
        next_state_value = self.model(next_state).detach()
        td_target = reward + self.gamma * next_state_value
        loss = self.loss_fn(state_value, td_target)
        self.optimizer.zero grad()
        loss.backward()
        self.optimizer.step()
if name == " main ":
    td_nn = TDNNApproximation(state_dim=1, alpha=0.01, gamma=0.9)
    transitions = [
        (torch.tensor([0.0]), 1, torch.tensor([1.0])),
        (torch.tensor([1.0]), 2, torch.tensor([2.0])),
        (torch.tensor([2.0]), -1, torch.tensor([3.0])),
        (torch.tensor([3.0]), 0, torch.tensor([3.0])),
    for state, reward, next_state in transitions:
        td nn.update(state, torch.tensor([reward], dtype=torch.float32),
next state)
        print(f"Predicted value for state {state.item()}:
{td nn.predict(state)}")
print(
Predicted value for state 0.0: 0.36683496832847595
Predicted value for state 1.0: 0.42847177386283875
Predicted value for state 2.0: 0.37454742193222046
Predicted value for state 3.0: 0.3263085186481476
```

### 1. Linear Function Approximation:

- In the first part, the program uses linear function approximation to estimate the value function. This approach assigns a weight to each state and estimates the

value based on the weighted sum of features of the state. It is effective for small state spaces but may struggle to capture complex relationships in larger or continuous state spaces.

### 2. Polynomial Basis Function Approximation:

 The second part uses polynomial basis functions to approximate the value function. By considering powers of the state as features, it captures non-linear relationships. This method improves upon linear approximation by modeling more complex patterns, making it suitable for state spaces where simple linear functions are insufficient.

### 3. Radial Basis Function (RBF) Approximation:

The third part implements Radial Basis Function (RBF) approximation. RBFs are highly effective for approximating complex functions, as they measure the similarity between the state and predefined centers. This method adapts well to non-linear problems and can generalize better in cases where other methods may fail.

### 4. Neural Network Approximation:

The fourth part applies a neural network for function approximation. The neural network (NN) provides a highly flexible method to approximate value functions, capable of handling large and continuous state spaces. By using layers of neurons and activation functions, it can model highly complex relationships and adapt to any kind of function, making it suitable for problems with high-dimensional state spaces.

#### **Conclusion**

- **Generalization Across Methods**: Each approximation method (Linear, Polynomial, RBF, and Neural Network) represents a different approach to function approximation. The linear method is simple and fast but limited in expressiveness. Polynomial and RBF approximations offer more flexibility, with polynomial features capturing non-linear relationships and RBF using radial distances to adapt to complex patterns. Neural networks, while more computationally intensive, are the most powerful method for approximating value functions, capable of learning intricate relationships between states and rewards.
- **Applicability**: The choice of approximation method depends on the problem's complexity. For simple, low-dimensional state spaces, linear approximation might suffice. For more complex state spaces or when higher accuracy is needed, polynomial, RBF, or neural network-based methods provide better performance. Neural networks are especially suited for high-dimensional, continuous state spaces but may require more computational resources and tuning.
- **Real-world Usage**: These approximation methods are commonly used in reinforcement learning tasks, where the goal is to estimate the value function or action-value function without explicitly storing values for all states (as done in tabular methods). Each method has trade-offs in terms of complexity, accuracy, and computational cost, and selecting the appropriate method depends on the specific task and environment.