An Introduction to Reinforcement Learning

Mustafa Aslan, PhD Researcher Data Lab for Social Good Research Lab Cardiff University, UK Slides: https://mustafaslancoto.github.io/workshops/ 15 May 2025

Agenda

- What is Reinforcement Learning
- Markov Decision Processes
- Dynamic Programming
- Monte Carlo Methods
- Temporal Difference Learning
 - ▶ Sarsa
 - Q-learning
- More advanced approximation methods

What is reinforcement learning

Reinforcement Learning

- Reinforcement learning is learning what to do—how to map situations to actions to maximize a numerical reward signal.
- The learner is not told which actions to take, but instead must discover which actions yield the most reward by trying them.

Core Concepts

- Agent is the learner and decision maker.
 - It interacts with the environment continually to select actions
 - The environment responds to these actions and presents new situations to the agent.
- A **policy** defines the learning agent's way of behaving at a given time.
 - A mapping from states of the environment to actions to be taken when in those states.
- The **reward** signal indicates what is good immediately after each decision time.
- A **value function** specifies what is good in the long run.
 - ► The value of a state is the total amount of reward an agent can expect to accumulate over the future, starting from that state.

Markov Decision Processes (MDPs)

Core definitions

 MDPs are a classical formalization of sequential decision making or reinforcement learning problem

- Actions taken now influence not only immediate contributions (e.g. reward, cost, profit), but also future situations (states), and consequently, future contributions
- MDPs involve delayed contribution and the need to trade off immediate and delayed contributions

The agent-environment interaction in a decision process

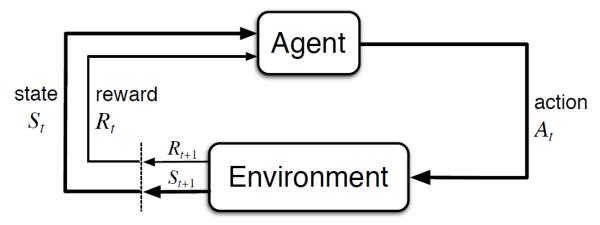


Figure 1: The agent-environment interaction in a decision process

Agent gives rise to a sequence that begins like this

$$S_0, A_0, R_1, S_1, A_1, R_2, S_2, A_2, R_3, \dots S_t, A_t, R_{t+1}$$

The agent-environment interaction in a decision process (continued)

- An MDP can be described by the tuple $(S, A, p, r(a, s), \pi)$, where:
 - \triangleright S is a finite set of states,
 - A is a finite set of actions,
 - $p(s', r \mid s, a)$ is the probability of transitioning to state $s' \in S$ and receiving reward r(a, s) when taking action $a \in A$ in state $s \in S$,
 - r(s, a) is the expected immediate reward received after taking action a in state s,
 - π is the policy, a mapping from states to probabilities of selecting each possible action.
- The p(s', | s, a) defines the *dynamics* of the MDP and p specifies a probability distribution for each choice of s and a:

$$\sum_{s' \in S} p(s' \mid s, a) = 1, \text{ for all } s \in S, a \in A(s)$$

The Goal of Agent

- At each time step, the reward is a simple number, $R_t \in \mathbb{R}$ passing from the environment to the agent.
- The agent's goal is to maximize the total (cumulative) amount of reward it receives in the long run.

• The aim is to maximize the expected return, G_t , which is defined as:

$$G_t \doteq R_{t+1} + R_{t+2} + R_{t+3} + \dots + R_T$$

Discounting technique is used to prioritize immediate rewards over future rewards.

- The idea is to multiply future rewards by a discount factor $\gamma \in (0,1]$
- This makes future rewards worth less than immediate rewards.
- The return G_t with discounting is defined as:

$$G_t \doteq R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \gamma^2 R_{t+3} + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k R_{t+k+1}$$

Policies and Value Functions

- A **policy** is a mapping from states to probabilities of selecting each possible action. If the agent is following policy π at time t, then $\pi(a \mid s)$ is the probability that $A_t = a$ if $S_t = s$
- **Value functions—functions of states** estimate *how good* it is for the agent to be in a given state (or how good it is to perform a given action in a given state).
- The value of a state s under a policy π , denoted v_π is expressed as

$$v_{\pi}(s) \doteq \mathbb{E}_{\pi}[G_t \mid S_t = s] = \mathbb{E}_{\pi}\left[\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k R_{t+k+1} \mid S_t = s\right], \text{ for all } s \in S,$$

where $\mathbb{E}[\cdot]$ denotes the expected value of a random variable given that the agent follows policy π , and t is any time step.

Bellman Equation

To solve stochastic sequential decision problems

- 1. We have to model the fact that new information becomes available after we make the decision a_t .
- 2. The result can be uncertainty in both the contribution earned, and in the determination of the next state we visit, S_{t+1} .

We estimate the expected future contributions (cumulative rewards) and add the immediate contribution received from the action taken in the current state following a given policy. This relationship is expressed by the Bellman equation, defined as:

$$V_{\pi}(S_t) = \max_{a_t \in A_t} \left(\underbrace{r_{t+1}(S_t, a_t)}_{\text{immediate contribution}} + \underbrace{\gamma E[V_{t+1}(S_{t+1}) \mid S_t, a_t]}_{\text{future contributions}} \right)$$

This equation can be solved backward or forward recursively. You get the value functions and at the same time an optimal policy at time t

$$a_t^*(S_t) = \arg\max_{a_t \in A_t} \bigl(r_{t+1}(S_t, a_t) + \gamma \bigl[V_{t+1}\bigl(S_{t+1}\bigr) \mid S_t, a_t \bigr] \bigr),$$

Dynamic Programming

Model-based methods (Dynamic Programming)

• They are used to derive optimal policies and value functions in Markov Decision Processes (MDPs) and reinforcement learning.

Bellman Equation

• The Bellman equations express the relationship between the value of a state and the values of its successor states. For the state-value function v_{π} , the Bellman equation is:

$$\begin{split} v_{\pi}(s) &\doteq \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left[\ G_{t} \mid S_{t} = s \ \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left[\ R_{t+1} + \gamma G_{t+1} \mid S_{t} = s \ \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left[\ R_{t+1} + \gamma v_{\pi} \big(S_{t+1} \big) \mid S_{t} = s \ \right] \\ &= \sum_{a} \pi(a \mid s) \sum_{s', r} p(s', r \mid s, a) \left[\ r + \gamma v_{\pi}(s') \ \right]. \end{split}$$

Model-based methods (Dynamic Programming)

- An optimal policy is a policy that achieves the maximum expected return from any initial state.
- The optimal state-value function v_* is the maximum value function over all policies:

$$v_*(s) = \max_{\pi} v_{\pi}(s)$$
, for all $s \in S$

• The optimal action-value function q_* is the maximum action-value function over all policies:

$$q_*(s, a) = \max_{\pi} q_{\pi}(s, a), \text{ for all } s \in S, a \in A(s)$$

We use Dynamic Programming (DP) to leverage value functions in the search for good policies.

• The Bellman optimality equation for v_* is:

$$\begin{split} v_*(s) &= \max_a \mathbb{E} \left[\ R_{t+1} + \gamma v_*(S_{t+1}) \mid S_t = s, A_t = a \ \right] \\ &= \max_a \sum_{s',r} p(s',r \mid s,a) \ \big[\ r + \gamma v_*(s') \big], \end{split}$$

• The Bellman optimality equation for q_* is:

$$q_*(s,a) = \sum_{s',r} p(s',r \mid s,a) \left[r + \gamma \max_{a'} q_*(s',a') \right]$$

Policy Evalulation (Prediction)

Policy evaluation is the computation of the state-value function v_{π} for an arbitrary policy π . We also refer to it as the *prediction problem.

$$\begin{split} v_{\pi}(s) &\doteq \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left[\begin{array}{c} G_{t} \mid S_{t} = s \end{array} \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left[\begin{array}{c} R_{t+1} + \gamma G_{t+1} \mid S_{t} = s \end{array} \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left[\begin{array}{c} R_{t+1} + \gamma v_{\pi}(S_{t+1}) \mid S_{t} = s \end{array} \right] \\ &= \sum_{a} \pi(a \mid s) \sum_{s',r} p(s',r \mid s,a) \left[\begin{array}{c} r + \gamma v_{\pi}(s') \end{array} \right]. \end{split}$$

where $\pi(a \mid s)$ is the probability of taking action α in state s under policy π , and the expectations are subscripted by π to indicate that they are conditional on π being followed.

Consider a sequence of approximate value functions $v_0, v_1, v_2, ...$. Each successive approximation is obtained by using the Bellman equation for v_{π} as an update rule:

$$\begin{split} v_{k+1}(s) &\doteq \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left[\ R_{t+1} + \gamma v_k(S_{t+1}) \mid S_t = s \ \right] \\ &= \sum_{a} \pi(a \mid s) \sum_{s',r} p(s',r \mid s,a) \left[\ r + \gamma v_k(s') \ \right]. \end{split}$$

Policy Evalulation (Prediction)

The sequence v_k can be shown in general to converge to v_π as $k \to \infty$ under the same conditions that guarantee the existence of v_π . This algorithm is called *iterative policy evaluation*.

i Iterative Policy Evaluation, for estimating $V \approx v_{\pi}$

Input:

 π , the policy to be evaluated

Algorithm parameter: a small threshold $\theta > 0$ determining accuracy of estimation Initialize V(s) arbitrarily, for $s \in S$, and V(terminal) = 0

Loop:

 $\Delta \leftarrow 0$

Loop for each $s \in S$:

$$v \leftarrow V(s)$$

$$V(s) \leftarrow \sum_{a} \pi(a \mid s) \sum_{s',r} p(s',r \mid s,a) [r + \gamma V(s')]$$

$$\Delta \leftarrow \max(\Delta, |v - V(s)|)$$

until $\Delta < \theta$

Policy Improvement

- We know how good it is to follow the current policy from s—that is $v_{\pi}(s)$ —but would it be better or worse to change to the new policy? One way to answer this question is to consider selecting a in s and thereafter following the existing policy π .

This leads to the definition of the q-value of a state-action pair:

$$\begin{split} q_{\pi}(s, a) &\doteq \mathbb{E} \left[\ R_{t+1} + \gamma v_{\pi}(S_{t+1}) \mid S_t = s, A_t = a \ \right] \\ &= \sum_{s', r} p(s', r \mid s, a) \left[\ r + \gamma v_{\pi}(s') \ \right]. \end{split}$$

The policy improvement theorem states that if we improve the policy by acting greedily with respect to q_{π} , the new policy π' will be at least as good as π .

Formally, if

$$\begin{split} \pi'(s) &= \arg\max_{a} q_{\pi}(s, a) \\ &= \arg\max_{a} \mathbb{E}\left[\ R_{t+1} + \gamma v_{\pi}(S_{t+1}) \mid S_{t} = s, A_{t} = a \ \right] \\ &= \arg\max_{a} \sum_{s', r} p(s', r \mid s, a) \ \left[\ r + \gamma v_{\pi}(s') \ \right] \end{split}$$

then

$$v_{\pi'}(s) \ge v_{\pi}(s)$$
.

for all $s \in S$.

Policy Iteration

Once a policy, π , has been improved using v_{π} to yield a better policy, π' , we can then compute $v_{\pi'}$ and improve it again to yield an even better π'' .

$$\pi_0 \overset{E}{\to} v_{\pi_0} \overset{I}{\to} \pi_1 \overset{E}{\to} v_{\pi_1} \overset{I}{\to} \pi_2, \dots \overset{I}{\to} \pi_* \overset{E}{\to} v_*$$

where $\stackrel{E}{\to}$ denotes a policy *evaluation* and $\stackrel{I}{\to}$ denotes a policy *improvement*. This way of finding an optimal policy is called policy iteration.

Policy Iteration

A complete policy iteration algorithm

i Policy Iteration (using iterative policy evaluation) for estimating $\pi pprox \pi_*$

1. Initialization

 $V(s) \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\pi(s) \in A(s)$ arbitrarily for all $s \in S$ $V(\text{terminal}) \doteq 0$

2. Policy Evaluation

Loop:

$$\Delta \leftarrow 0$$

Loop for each $s \in S$:

$$v \leftarrow V(s)$$

$$V(s) \leftarrow \sum_{s',r} p(s',r \mid s,\pi(s))[r + \gamma V(s')]$$

$$\Delta \leftarrow \max(\Delta, |v - V(s)|)$$

Until $\Delta < \theta$ (a small positive number determining the accuracy of estimation)

3. Policy Improvement

policy-stable \leftarrow true

For each $s \in S$:

old-action $\leftarrow \pi(s)$

$$\pi(s) \leftarrow \arg\max_{a} \textstyle\sum_{s',r} p(s',r \mid s,a)[r + \gamma V(s')]$$

If old-action $\neq \pi(s)$, then policy-stable \leftarrow false

If *policy-stable*, then stop and return $V \approx v_*$ and $\pi \approx \pi_*$;

Else go to step 2

Value Iteration

- One drawback to policy iteration is that each of its iterations involves policy evaluation, which
 may itself be a protracted iterative computation requiring multiple sweeps through the state set.
- Value iteration is a special case of policy iteration where the policy evaluation step is truncated to just one sweep.
- This algorithm combines the policy improvement and truncated policy evaluation steps into a single update operation:

$$\begin{aligned} v_{k+1}(s) &= \mathbb{E}\left[\ R_{t+1} + \gamma v_k \big(S_{t+1} \big) \mid S_t = s, A_t = a \ \right] \\ &= \max_a \sum_{s',r} p(s',r \mid s,a) \left[\ r + \gamma v_k(s') \ \right] \end{aligned}$$

for all $s \in S$.

Value Iteration

- Value iteration is obtained simply by turning the Bellman optimality equation into an update rule.
- Also note how the value iteration update is identical to the policy evaluation update except that it requires the maximum to be taken over all actions.

i Value Iteration, for estimating $\pi \approx \pi_*$

Algorithm parameter:

A small threshold $\theta > 0$ determining the accuracy of estimation

Initialization:

Initialize V(s) arbitrarily for all $s \in S^+$, except that V(terminal) = 0

Loop:

$$\begin{split} \Delta &\leftarrow 0 \\ \text{Loop for each } s \in S \text{:} \\ v &\leftarrow V(s) \\ V(s) &\leftarrow \max_{a} \sum_{s',r} p(s',r \mid s,a) [r + \gamma V(s')] \\ \Delta &\leftarrow \max(\Delta,|v - V(s)|) \\ \text{until } \Delta &< \theta \end{split}$$

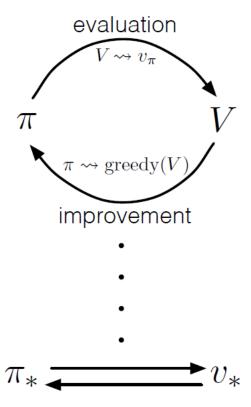
Output:

A deterministic policy, $\pi \approx \pi_*$, such that $\pi(s) = \arg\max_a \sum_{s',r} p(s',r \mid s,a)[r + \gamma V(s')]$

Let's code

Generalized Policy Iteration

- GPI is a general idea that describes how two processes *evaluating a policy and improving it* work together and influence each other.
- Most reinforcement learning algorithms use a value function to judge how good a policy is, and then update the policy based on that judgment.
- If both value estimation and policy improvement stabilize (i.e., stop changing), then the policy must be the best possible one for that value function—meaning the policy is optimal.



Model-free methods

- Monte Carlo Methods
- Sarsa
- · Q-learning

Monte Carlo Methods

Monte Carlo (MC) Methods

- The term "Monte Carlo" is often used more broadly for any estimation method whose operation involves a significant random component.
- MC methods solve reinforcement learning problems by averaging results (returns) from sampled experiences sequences of states, actions, and rewards.
- They do not require knowledge of the environment's dynamics, making them powerful for learning from real or simulated experiences.

Monte Carlo Prediction

• Suppose we wish to estimate $v_{\pi}(s)$, the values of a state s under policy π , given a set of episodes obtained by following π and passing through s.

i First-Visit Monte Carlo Prediction (for estimating $V \approx v_{\pi}$)

Input:

A policy π to be evaluated

Initialize:

 $V(s) \in \mathbb{R}$ arbitrarily, for all $s \in S$ Returns $(s) \leftarrow$ an empty list, for all $s \in S$

Loop forever (for each episode):

Generate an episode following $\pi : S_0, A_0, R_1, S_1, A_1, R_2, ..., S_{T-1}, A_{T-1}, R_T$ $G \leftarrow 0$

Loop for each step of the episode, t = T - 1, T - 2, ..., 0:

$$G \leftarrow \gamma G + R_{t+1}$$

Unless S_t appears in $S_0, S_1, ..., S_{t-1}$:

Append G to Returns (S_t)

 $V(S_t) \leftarrow \text{average (Returns } (S_t))$

Monte Carlo Control

Alternating complete steps of policy evaluation and policy improvement are performed, beginning with an arbitrary policy π_0 and ending with the optimal policy and optimal action-value function:

$$\pi_0 \overset{E}{\to} q_{\pi_0} \overset{I}{\to} \pi_1 \overset{E}{\to} q_{\pi_1} \overset{I}{\to} \pi_2, ..., \overset{I}{\to} \pi_* \overset{E}{\to} q_*$$

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i Monte Carlo ES (Exploring Starts), for estimating \pi \approx \pi_*
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Initialize:

```
\pi(s) \in A(s) \text{ arbitrarily, for all } s \in S Q(s,a) \in \mathbb{R} \text{ arbitrarily, for all } s \in S, a \in A(s) Returns (s,a) \leftarrow \text{empty list, for all } s \in S, a \in A(s) Loop forever (for each episode): Choose S_0 \in S, A_0 \in A(S_0) randomly, such that all pairs have probability > 0 Generate an episode from S_0, A_0, following \pi: S_0, A_0, R_1, ..., S_{T-1}, A_{T-1}, R_T G \leftarrow 0 Loop for each step of episode, t = T - 1, T - 2, ..., 0: G \leftarrow \gamma G + R_{t+1} Unless the pair (S_t, A_t) appears in S_0, A_0, S_1, A_1, ..., S_{t-1}, A_{t-1}:
```

Let's code

Monte Carlo Control without Exploring Starts

 $Q(S_t, A_t) \leftarrow \text{average (Returns } (S_t, A_t))$

Append G to Returns (S_t, A_t)

 $\pi(S_t) \leftarrow \arg\max_a Q(S_t, a)$

- In on-policy control methods the policy is generally **soft**, meaning that $\pi(a \mid s) > 0$ for all $s \in S$ and all $a \in A(s)$, but gradually shifted closer and closer to a deterministic policy.
- The on-policy method we present in this section uses ϵ -greedy policies, meaning that most of the time they choose an action that has maximal estimated action value, but with probability ϵ they instead select an action at random. That is, all nongreedy actions are given the minimal probability of selection, $\frac{\epsilon}{|A(s)|}$, and the remaining bulk of the probability $1 \epsilon + \frac{\epsilon}{|A(s)|}$ is given to the greedy action.
- ϵ -greedy policies are examples of $\epsilon soft$ policies, definied as policies for which $\pi(a \mid s) \ge \frac{\epsilon}{|A(s)|}$ for all states and actions, for some $\epsilon > 0$. Among ϵ -soft policies, ϵ -greedy policies are in some sense those that are closest to greedy.

Monte Carlo Control without Exploring Starts

```
i On-policy First-Visit MC Control (for \varepsilon-soft policies), estimates \pi \approx \pi_*
Algorithm parameter:
Small \varepsilon > 0
Initialize:
\pi \leftarrow an arbitrary \varepsilon-soft policy
Q(s, a) \in \mathbb{R} arbitrarily, for all s \in S, a \in A(s)
Returns (s, a) \leftarrow empty list, for all s \in S, a \in A(s)
Repeat forever (for each episode):
   Generate an episode following \pi: S_0, A_0, R_1, ..., S_{T-1}, A_{T-1}, R_T
  Loop for each step of episode, t = T - 1, T - 2, ..., 0:
     G \leftarrow \gamma G + R_{t+1}
     Unless the pair (S_t, A_t) appears in S_0, A_0, ..., S_{t-1}, A_{t-1}\colon
        Append G to Returns (S_t, A_t)
        Q(S_t, A_t) \leftarrow \text{average (Returns } (S_t, A_t))
        A^* \leftarrow \arg\max_a Q(S_t, a) (ties broken arbitrarily)
         \begin{array}{c} \text{For all } a \in A(S_t) \colon \\ \pi(a \mid S_t) \leftarrow \begin{cases} 1 - \varepsilon + \varepsilon/|A(S_t)| \text{ if } a = A^* \\ \varepsilon/|A(S_t)| & \text{if } a \neq A^* \end{cases}
```

where |A(s)| is the number of actions available in state s.

The ϵ -greedy policy ensures that all actions are tried, but actions with higher value estimates are tried more frequently. This balances exploration (trying new actions) and exploitation (choosing the best-known action).

Temporal-Difference Learning

Temporal-Difference Learning

- TD learning is a combination of Monte Carlo ideas and dynamic programming (DP) ideas.
- Like Monte Carlo methods, TD methods can learn directly from raw experience without a model of the environment's dynamics.
- Like DP, TD methods update estimates based in part on other learned estimates, without waiting for a final outcome (they bootstrap).

TD Prediction

Whereas Monte Carlo methods must wait until the end of the episode to determine the increment to V(St) (only then is G_t known), TD methods need to wait only until the next time step. At time t + 1 they immediately form a target and make a useful update using the observed reward R_{t+1} and the estimate $V_{S_{t+1}}$. The simplest TD method makes the update:

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

immediately on transition to S_{t+1} and receiving R_{t+1} . In effect, the target for the Monte Carlo update is G_t , whereas the target for the TD update is $R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1})$. This TD method is called TD(0), or *one-step* TD.

TD Prediction

i Tabular TD(0) for Estimating v_{π}

Input:

The policy π to be evaluated

Algorithm parameter:

Step size $\alpha \in (0,1]$

Initialize:

V(s) arbitrarily for all $s \in S^+$, except that V(terminal) = 0

Loop for each episode:

Initialize S

Loop for each step of episode:

 $A \leftarrow \text{action given by } \pi \text{ for } S$

Take action A, observe R, S'

$$V(S) \leftarrow V(S) + \alpha[R + \gamma V(S') - V(S)]$$

$$S \leftarrow S'$$

Until S is terminal

Sarsa: On-policy TD Control

we consider transitions from state-action pair to state-action pair, and learn the values of state-action pairs.

$$Q(S_t, A_t) \leftarrow Q(S_t, A_t) + \alpha \bigm[R_{t+1} + \gamma Q(S_{t+1}, A_{t+1}) - Q(S_t, A_t) \bigm]$$

i SARSA (On-Policy TD Control), for estimating $Q \approx q_*$

Algorithm parameters:

Step size $\alpha \in (0,1]$, small $\varepsilon > 0$

Initialize:

Q(s,a) arbitrarily, for all $s\in S^+,$ $a\in A(s)$

 $Q(\text{terminal}, \cdot) = 0$

Loop for each episode:

Initialize S

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

Loop for each step of episode:

Take action A, observe R, S'

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

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

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

Until S is terminal

Let's code

Q-learning: Off-policy TD Control

Q-learning is defined by

$$Q(S_t, A_t) \leftarrow Q(S_t, A_t) + \alpha \left[\ R_{t+1} + \gamma \max_{a} Q\big(S_{t+1}, a\big) - Q(S_t, A_t) \ \right]$$

The Q-learning algorithm is shown below in procedural form.

i Q-learning (Off-Policy TD Control), for estimating $\pi \approx \pi_*$

Algorithm parameters:

Step size $\alpha \in (0,1]$, small $\varepsilon > 0$

Initialize:

 $Q(s,a) \text{ arbitrarily for all } s \in S^+, a \in S(s),$ except that $Q(\text{terminal}, \cdot) = 0$

Loop for each episode:

Initialize S

Loop for each step of episode:

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

Take action A, observe R, S'

$$\begin{aligned} Q(S,A) \leftarrow Q(S,A) + \alpha[R + \gamma \max_{a} Q(S',a) - Q(S,A)] \\ S \leftarrow S' \end{aligned}$$

Until S is terminal

Let's code

Recommended materials

Readings:

- Reinforcement Learning: An Introduction by Richard S. Sutton and Andrew G. Barto
- Reinforcement Learning and Stochastic Optimization by Warren B. Powell

Tutoriols:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0MNVhXEX9to&list=PLMrJAkhIeNNQe1JXNvaFvURxGY4~gE9k74&index=1

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=i7q8bISGwMQ&t=910s

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=sJIFUTITfBc

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0iqz4tcKN58

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=wDVteayWWvU

Any questions or thoughts?

Categories of RL methods

Model-based vs Model-free Methods

Model-based

• The agent knows/learns the model of the environment

• They then compute the policy using the ADP methods or the model-free methods on simulated data

Pros:

- Sample efficient
- Safer exploration

Cons:

- Prone to the model errors
- Learning a model is challenging

Model-free

- The agent does not know the model of the environment
- They learn the values or policies from trial-and-error interactions with the environment

Pros:

- Do not need a model
- Flexible

Cons:

- Sample inefficient: requires a lot of interactions with the environment
- Slow convergence