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Reinforcement Learning : An Overview

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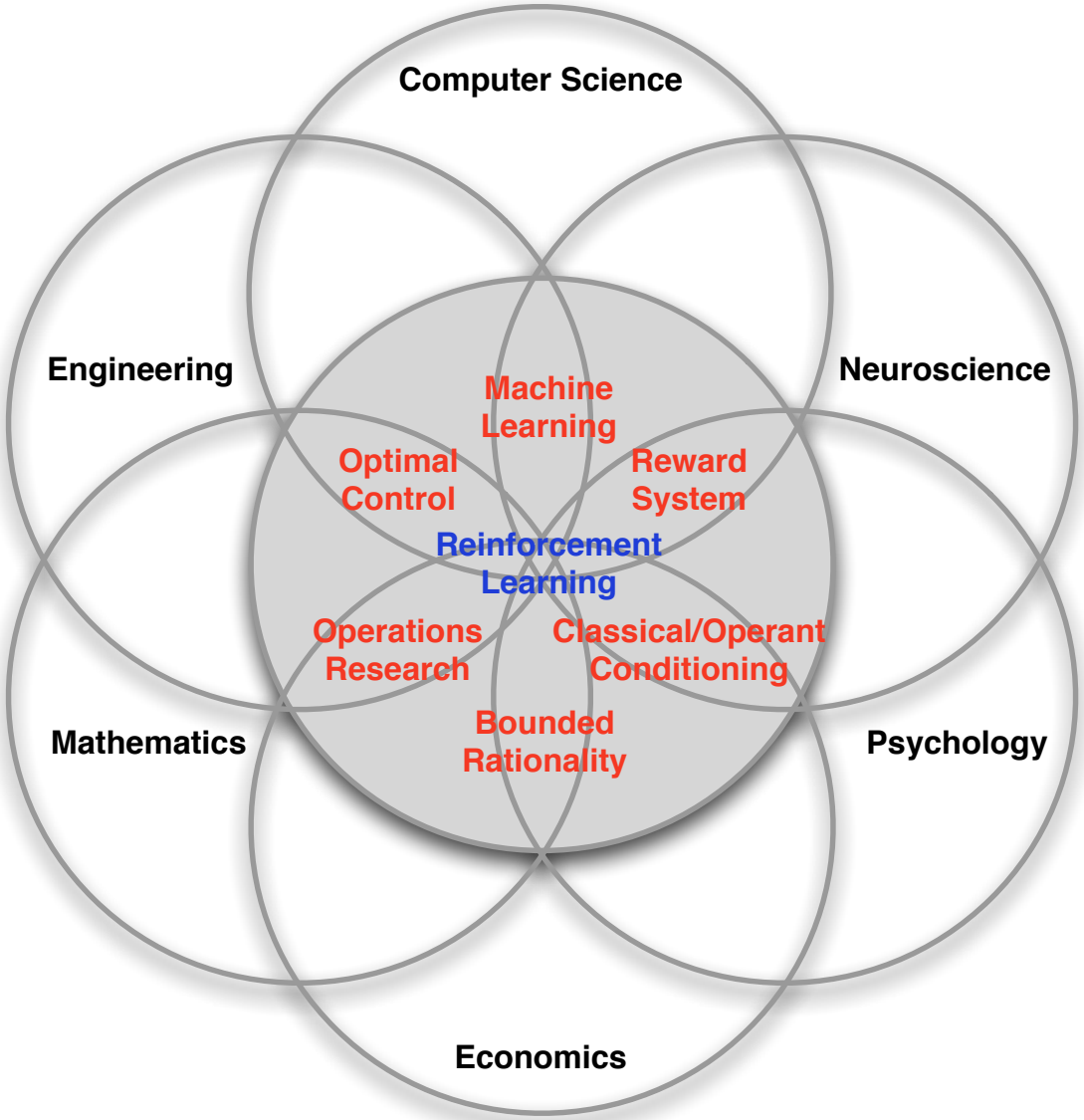
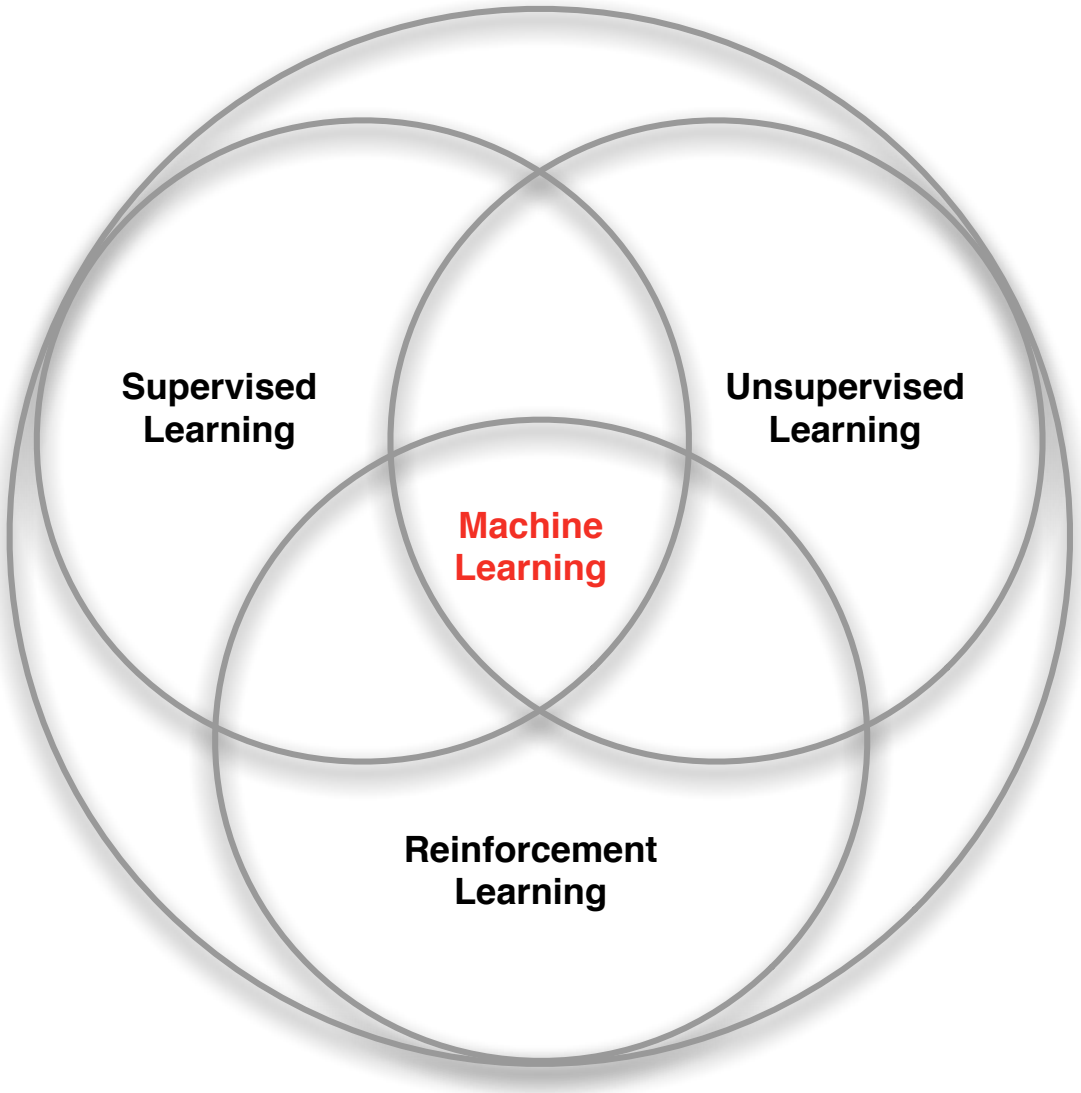
Many Faces of Reinforcement Learning



Branches of Machine Learning



Characteristics of Reinforcement Learning

What makes reinforcement learning different from other machine learning paradigms?

- There is no supervisor, only a *reward* signal
- Feedback is delayed, not instantaneous
- Time really matters (sequential, non i.i.d data)
- Agent's actions affect the subsequent data it receives

Examples of Reinforcement Learning

- Fly stunt manoeuvres in a helicopter
- Defeat the world champion at Backgammon
- Manage an investment portfolio
- Control a power station
- Make a humanoid robot walk
- Play many different Atari games better than humans

Rewards

- A reward R_t is a scalar feedback signal
- Indicates how well agent is doing at step t
- The agent's job is to maximise cumulative reward

Reinforcement learning is based on the reward hypothesis

Definition (Reward Hypothesis)

All goals can be described by the maximisation of expected cumulative reward

Do you agree with this statement?

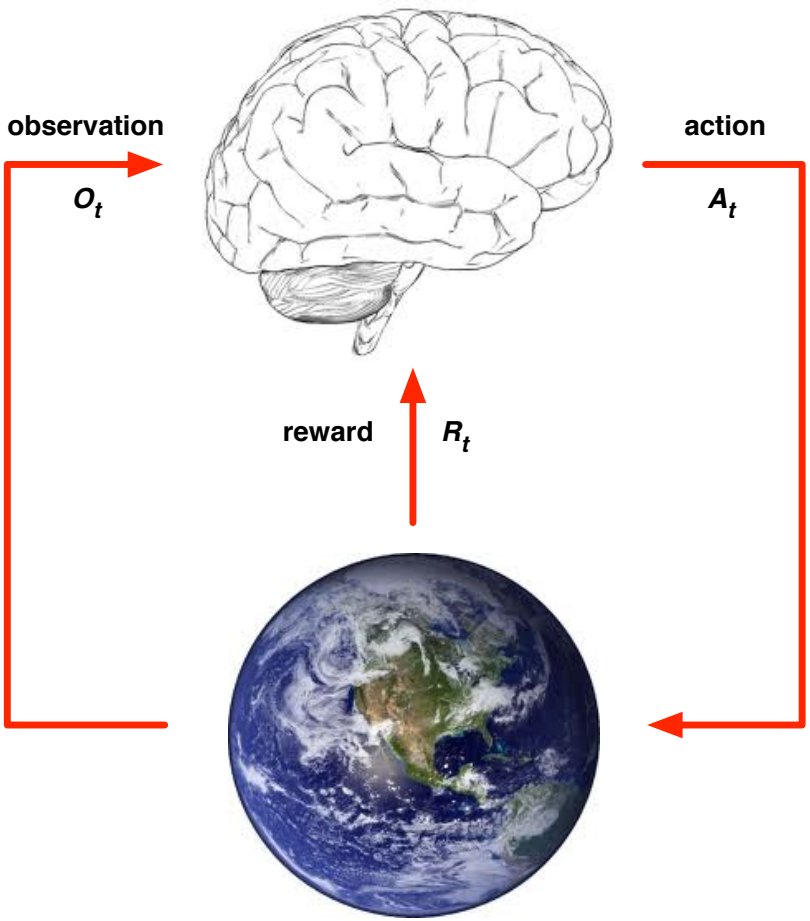
Examples of Rewards

- Fly stunt manoeuvres in a helicopter
  - +ve reward for following desired trajectory
  - −ve reward for crashing
- Defeat the world champion at Backgammon
  - +/−ve reward for winning/losing a game
- Manage an investment portfolio
  - +ve reward for each $ in bank
- Control a power station
  - +ve reward for producing power
  - −ve reward for exceeding safety thresholds
- Make a humanoid robot walk
  - +ve reward for forward motion
  - −ve reward for falling over
- Play many different Atari games better than humans
  - +/−ve reward for increasing/decreasing score

Sequential Decision Making

- Goal: *select actions to maximise total future reward*
- Actions may have long term consequences
- Reward may be delayed
- It may be better to sacrifice immediate reward to gain more long-term reward
- Examples:
  - A financial investment (may take months to mature)
  - Refuelling a helicopter (might prevent a crash in several hours)
  - Blocking opponent moves (might help winning chances many moves from now)

Agent and Environment



- At each step t the agent:
  - Executes action A_t
  - Receives observation O_t
  - Receives scalar reward R_t
- The environment:
  - Receives action A_t
  - Emits observation O_{t+1}
  - Emits scalar reward R_{t+1}
- t increments at env. step

History and State

- The history is the sequence of observations, actions, rewards

$$H_t = O_1, R_1, A_1, ..., A_{t-1}, O_t, R_t$$

- i.e. all observable variables up to time t
- i.e. the sensorimotor stream of a robot or embodied agent
- What happens next depends on the history:
  - The agent selects actions
  - The environment selects observations/rewards
- State is the information used to determine what happens next
- Formally, state is a function of the history:

$$S_t = f(H_t)$$

Information State

An information state (a.k.a. Markov state) contains all useful information from the history.

Definition

A state S_t is Markov if and only if

$$\mathbb{P}[S_{t+1} \mid S_t] = \mathbb{P}[S_{t+1} \mid S_1, ..., S_t]$$

- "The future is independent of the past given the present"

$$H_{1:t} \rightarrow S_t \rightarrow H_{t+1:\infty}$$

- Once the state is known, the history may be thrown away
- i.e. The state is a sufficient statistic of the future
- The environment state S_t^e is Markov
- The history H_t is Markov

Major Components of an RL Agent

- An RL agent may include one or more of these components:
  - Policy: agent's behaviour function
  - Value function: how good is each state and/or action
  - Model: agent's representation of the environment

Policy

- A policy is the agent's behaviour
- It is a map from state to action, e.g.
- Deterministic policy: $a = \pi(s)$
- Stochastic policy: $\pi(a|s) = \mathbb{P}[A_t = a|S_t = s]$

Value Function

- Value function is a prediction of future reward
- Used to evaluate the goodness/badness of states
- And therefore to select between actions, e.g.

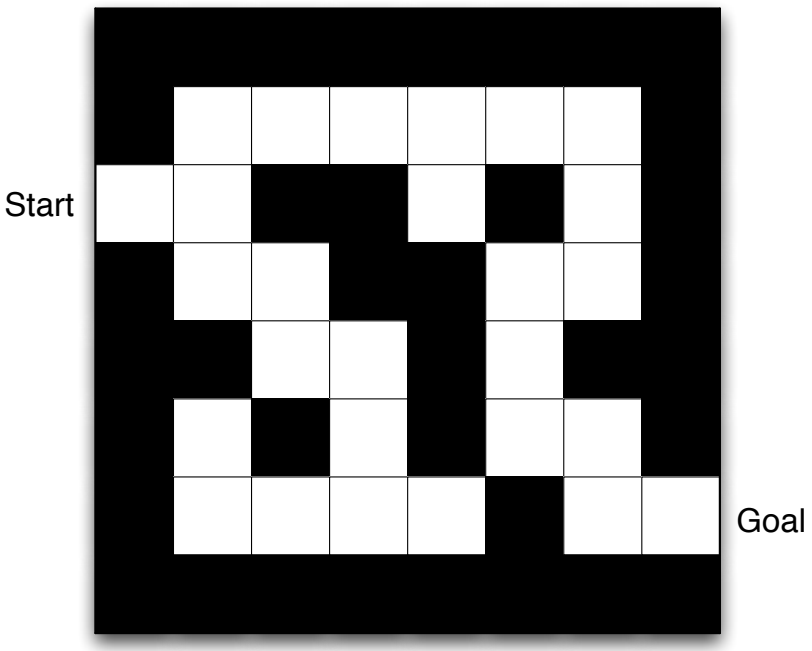
$$v_\pi(s) = \mathbb{E}_\pi \left[R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \gamma^2 R_{t+3} + ... \mid S_t = s \right]$$

Model

- A model predicts what the environment will do next
- $\mathcal{P}$ predicts the next state
- $\mathcal{R}$ predicts the next (immediate) reward, e.g.

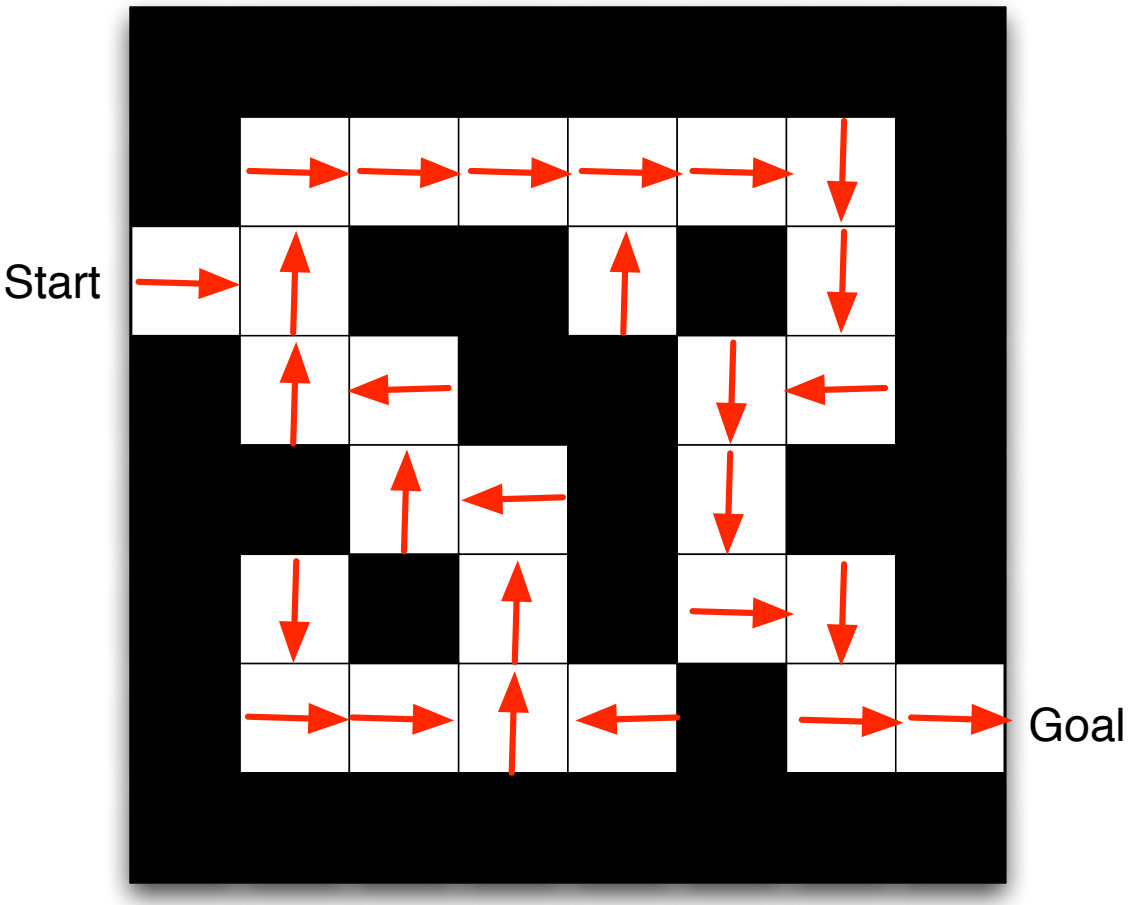
$$\mathcal{P}^a_{ss'} = \mathbb{P}[S_{t+1} = s' \mid S_t = s, A_t = a]$$
$$\mathcal{R}^a_s = \mathbb{E}\left[R_{t+1} \mid S_t = s, A_t = a\right]$$

Maze Example



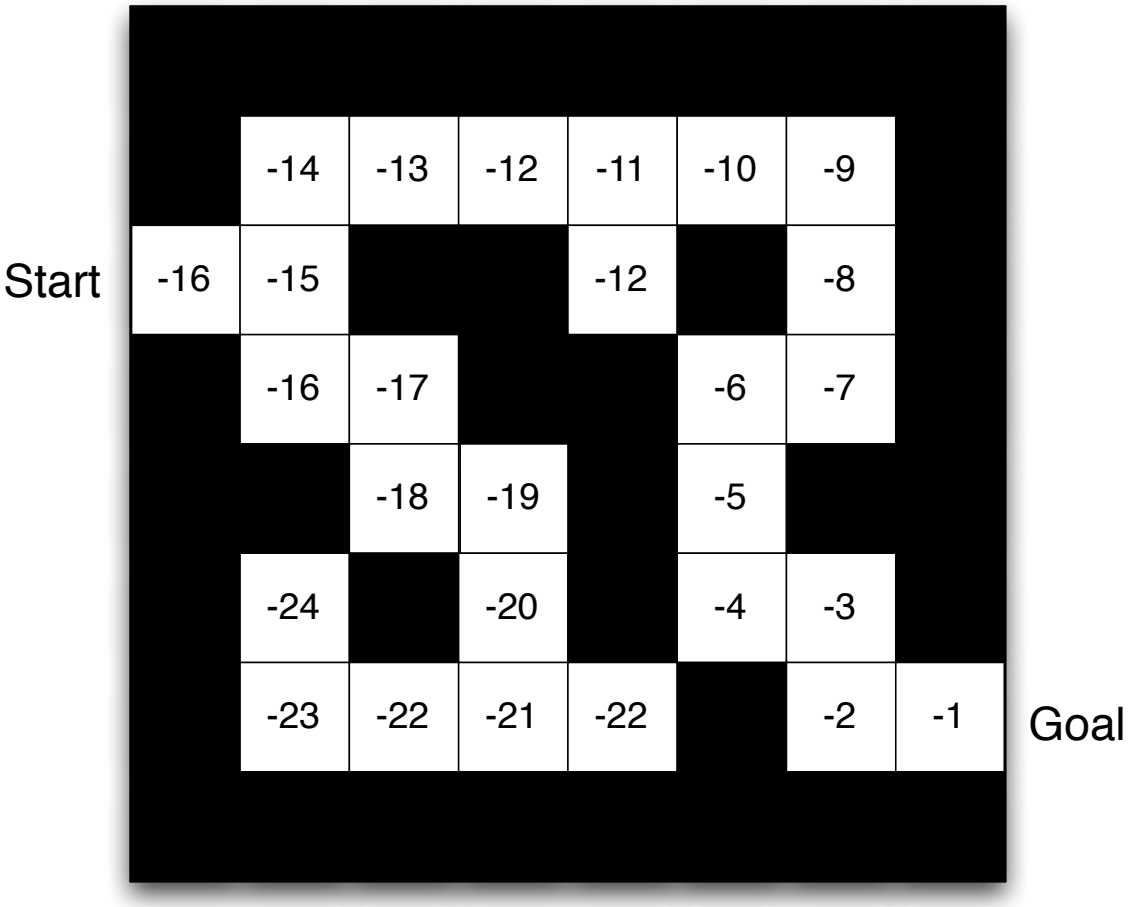
- Rewards: -1 per time-step
- Actions: N, E, S, W
- States: Agent's location

Maze Example: Policy



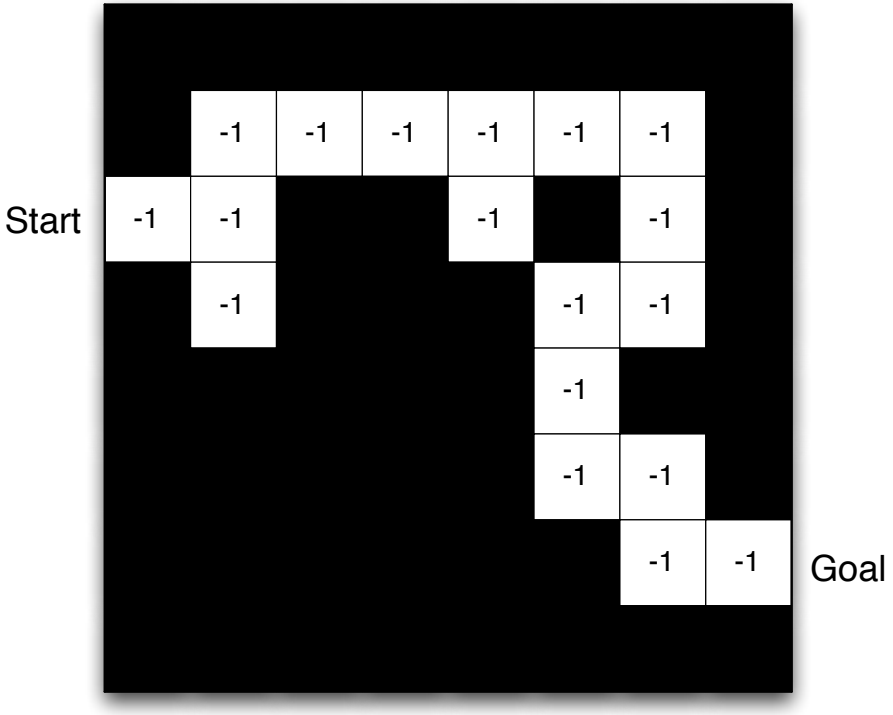
- Arrows represent policy $\pi(s)$ for each state s

Maze Example: Value Function



- Numbers represent value $v_\pi(s)$ of each state s

Maze Example: Model



- Agent may have an internal model of the environment
- Dynamics: how actions change the state
- Rewards: how much reward from each state
- The model may be imperfect

- Grid layout represents transition model $\mathcal{P}^a_{ss'}$
- Numbers represent immediate reward $\mathcal{R}^a_s$ from each state s (same for all a)

Learning and Planning

Two fundamental problems in sequential decision making

- Reinforcement Learning:
  - The environment is initially unknown
  - The agent interacts with the environment
  - The agent improves its policy
- Planning:
  - A model of the environment is known
  - The agent performs computations with its model (without any external interaction)
  - The agent improves its policy
  - a.k.a. deliberation, reasoning, introspection, pondering, thought, search

Exploration and Exploitation (1)

- Reinforcement learning is like trial-and-error learning
- The agent should discover a good policy
- From its experiences of the environment
- Without losing too much reward along the way

Exploration and Exploitation (2)

- *Exploration* finds more information about the environment
- *Exploitation* exploits known information to maximise reward
- It is usually important to explore as well as exploit

Prediction and Control

- Prediction: evaluate the future
  - Given a policy
- Control: optimise the future
  - Find the best policy

Markov Property

"The future is independent of the past given the present"

Definition

A state S_t is *Markov* if and only if

$$\mathbb{P}[S_{t+1} \mid S_t] = \mathbb{P}[S_{t+1} \mid S_1, ..., S_t]$$

- The state captures all relevant information from the history
- Once the state is known, the history may be thrown away
- i.e. The state is a sufficient statistic of the future

Markov Process

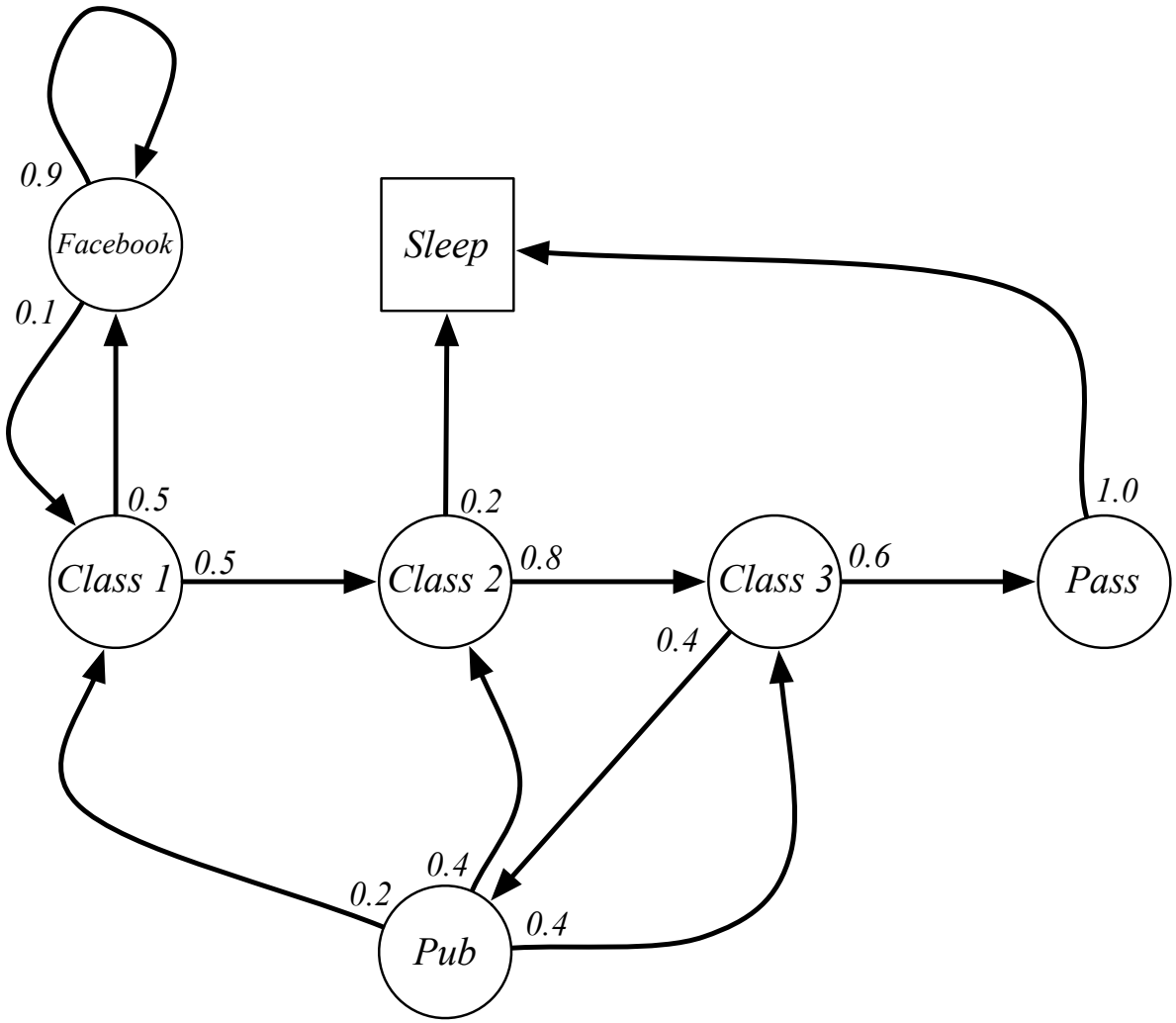
A Markov process is a memoryless random process, i.e. a sequence of random states $S_1, S_2, \ldots$ with the Markov property.

Definition

A *Markov Process* (or *Markov Chain*) is a tuple $\langle \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{P} \rangle$

- $\mathcal{S}$ is a (finite) set of states
- $\mathcal{P}$ is a state transition probability matrix,
  $\mathcal{P}_{ss'} = \mathbb{P}\left[S_{t+1} = s' \mid S_t = s\right]$

Example: Student Markov Chain



Markov Reward Process

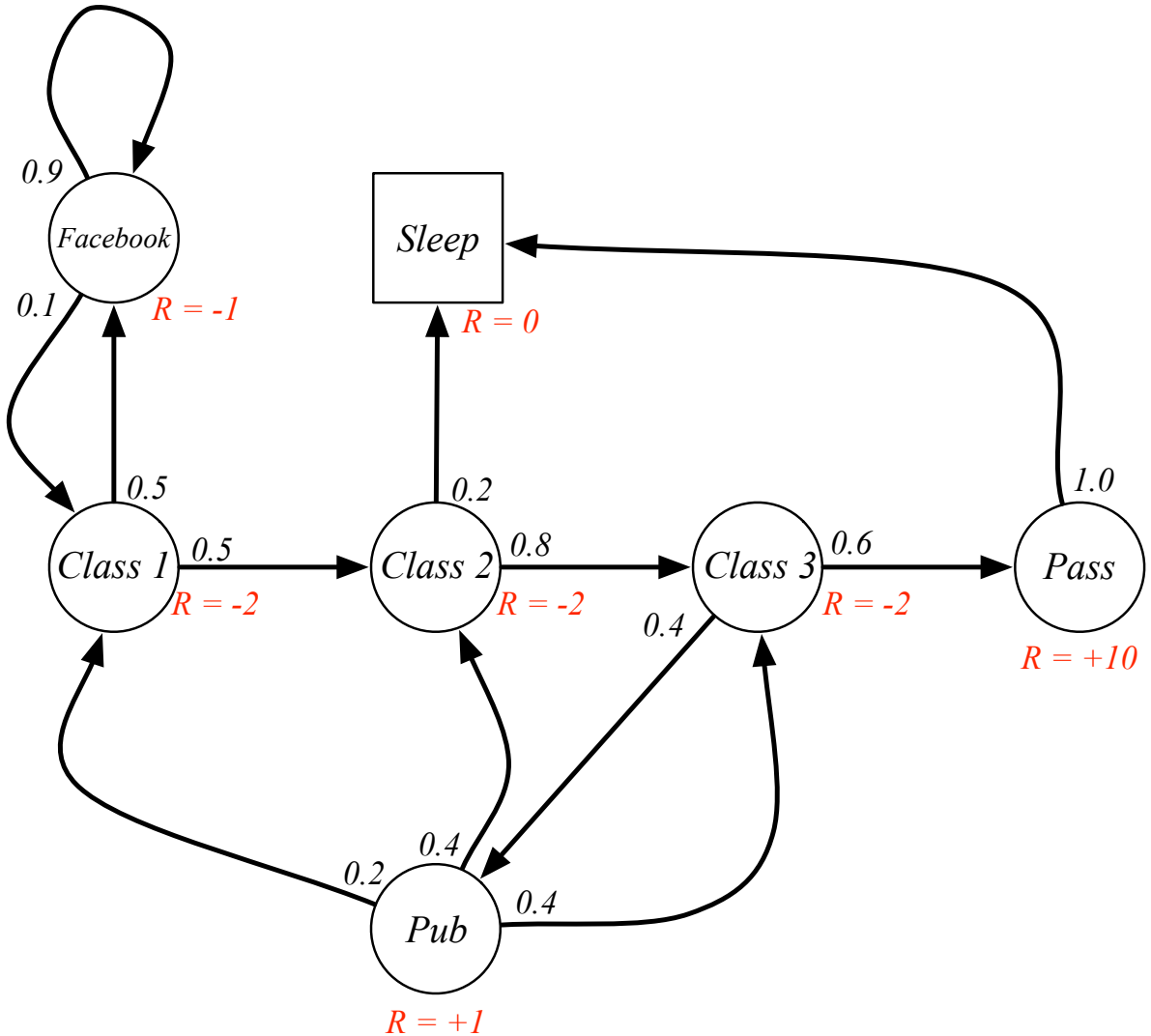
A Markov reward process is a Markov chain with values.

Definition

A *Markov Reward Process* is a tuple $\langle \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{R}, \gamma \rangle$

- $\mathcal{S}$ is a finite set of states
- $\mathcal{P}$ is a state transition probability matrix, $\mathcal{P}_{ss'} = \mathbb{P}[S_{t+1} = s' \mid S_t = s]$
- $\mathcal{R}$ is a reward function, $\mathcal{R}_s = \mathbb{E}[R_{t+1} \mid S_t = s]$
- γ is a discount factor, $\gamma \in [0, 1]$

Example: Student MRP



Return

Definition

The *return* G_t is the total discounted reward from time-step t.

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

- The *discount* $\gamma \in [0, 1]$ is the present value of future rewards
- The value of receiving reward R after $k + 1$ time-steps is $\gamma^k R$.
- This values immediate reward above delayed reward.
  - γ close to 0 leads to "myopic" evaluation
  - γ close to 1 leads to "far-sighted" evaluation

Why discount?

Most Markov reward and decision processes are discounted. Why?

- Mathematically convenient to discount rewards
- Avoids infinite returns in cyclic Markov processes
- Uncertainty about the future may not be fully represented
- If the reward is financial, immediate rewards may earn more interest than delayed rewards
- Animal/human behaviour shows preference for immediate reward
- It is sometimes possible to use *undiscounted* Markov reward processes (i.e. $\gamma = 1$), e.g. if all sequences terminate.

Markov Decision Process

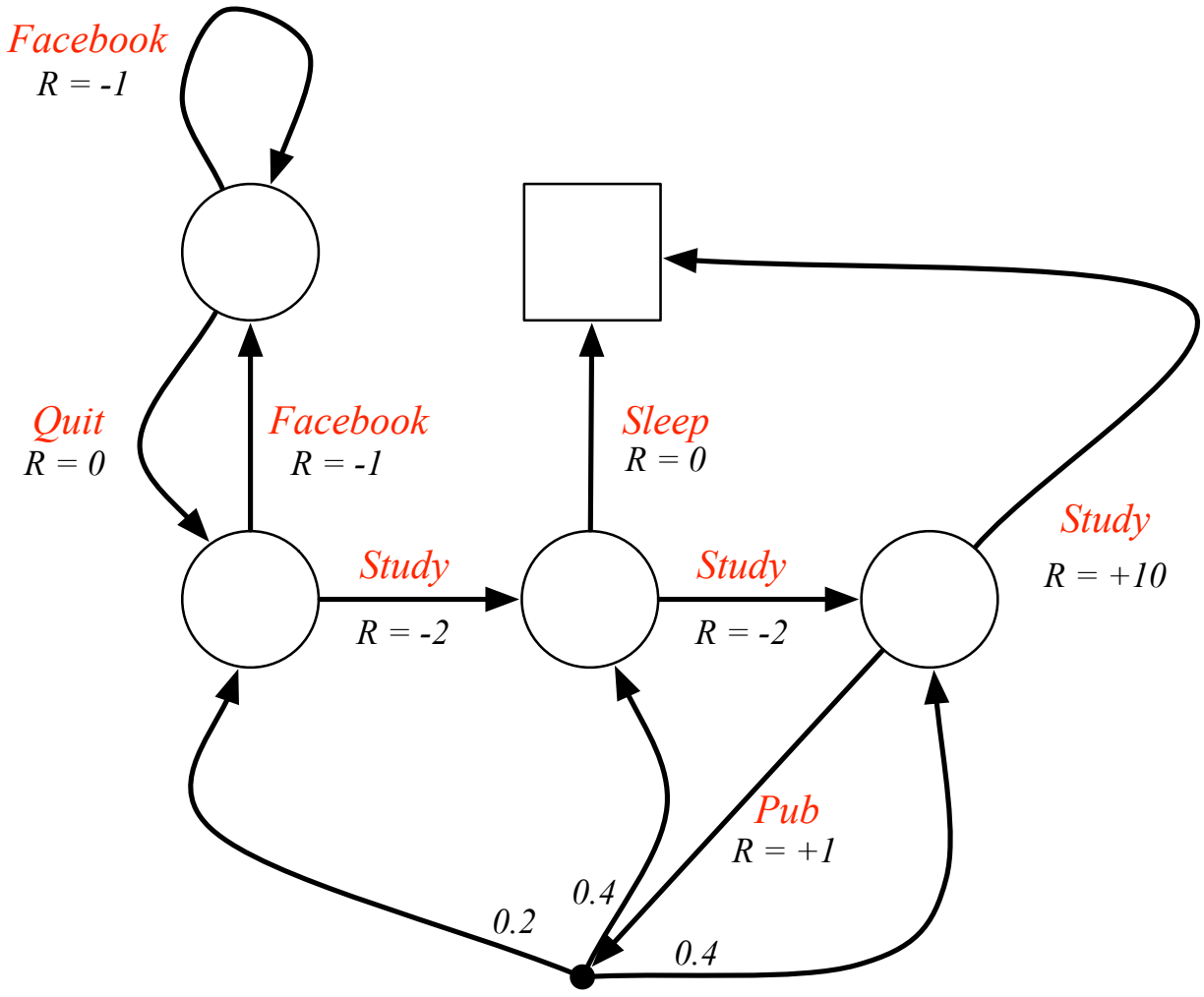
A Markov decision process (MDP) is a Markov reward process with decisions. It is an *environment* in which all states are Markov.

Definition

A *Markov Decision Process* is a tuple $\langle \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{R}, \gamma \rangle$

- $\mathcal{S}$ is a finite set of states
- $\mathcal{A}$ is a finite set of actions
- $\mathcal{P}$ is a state transition probability matrix, $\mathcal{P}^{a}_{ss'} = \mathbb{P}\left[S_{t+1} = s' \mid S_t = s, A_t = a\right]$
- $\mathcal{R}$ is a reward function, $\mathcal{R}^{a}_{s} = \mathbb{E}\left[R_{t+1} \mid S_t = s, A_t = a\right]$
- γ is a discount factor $\gamma \in [0, 1]$.

Example: Student MDP



Policies (1)

Definition

A *policy* π is a distribution over actions given states,

$$\pi(a|s) = \mathbb{P}\left[A_t = a \mid S_t = s\right]$$

- A policy fully defines the behaviour of an agent
- MDP policies depend on the current state (not the history)
- i.e. Policies are *stationary* (time-independent),
  $A_t \sim \pi(\cdot|S_t), \forall t > 0$

Value Function

Definition

The *state-value function* $v_\pi(s)$ of an MDP is the expected return starting from state s, and then following policy π

$$v_\pi(s) = \mathbb{E}_\pi \left[G_t \mid S_t = s \right]$$

Definition

The *action-value function* $q_\pi(s, a)$ is the expected return starting from state s, taking action a, and then following policy π

$$q_\pi(s, a) = \mathbb{E}_\pi \left[G_t \mid S_t = s, A_t = a \right]$$

Bellman Expectation Equation

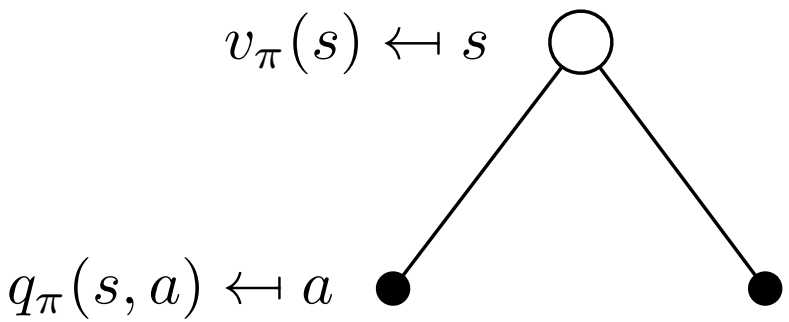
The state-value function can again be decomposed into immediate reward plus discounted value of successor state,

$$v_\pi(s) = \mathbb{E}_\pi \left[R_{t+1} + \gamma v_\pi(S_{t+1}) \mid S_t = s \right]$$

The action-value function can similarly be decomposed,

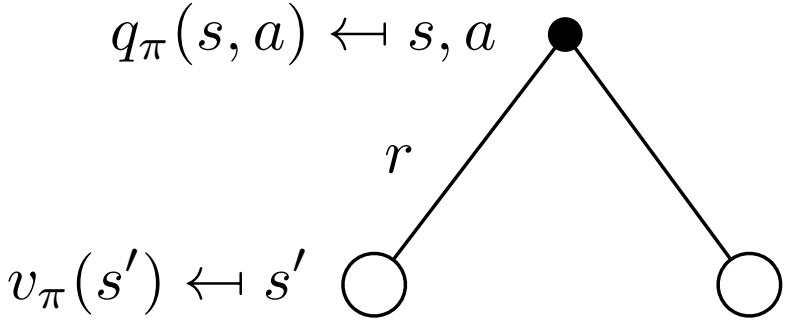
$$q_\pi(s, a) = \mathbb{E}_\pi \left[R_{t+1} + \gamma q_\pi(S_{t+1}, A_{t+1}) \mid S_t = s, A_t = a \right]$$

Bellman Expectation Equation for V^{π}



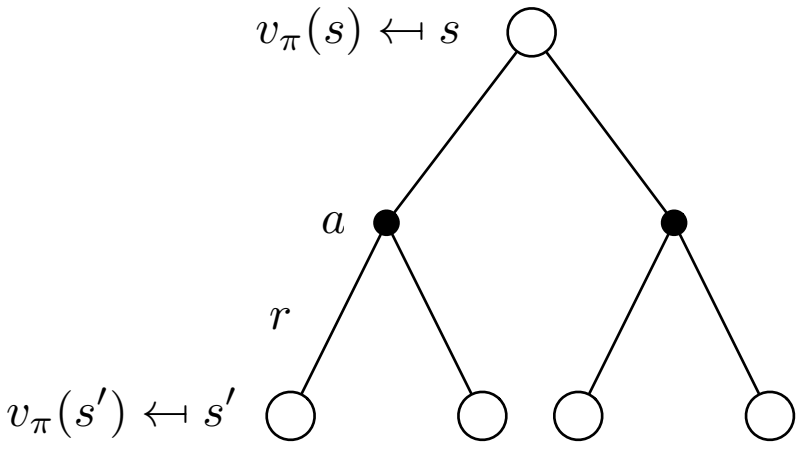
$$v_\pi(s) = \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \pi(a|s) q_\pi(s,a)$$

Bellman Expectation Equation for Q^π



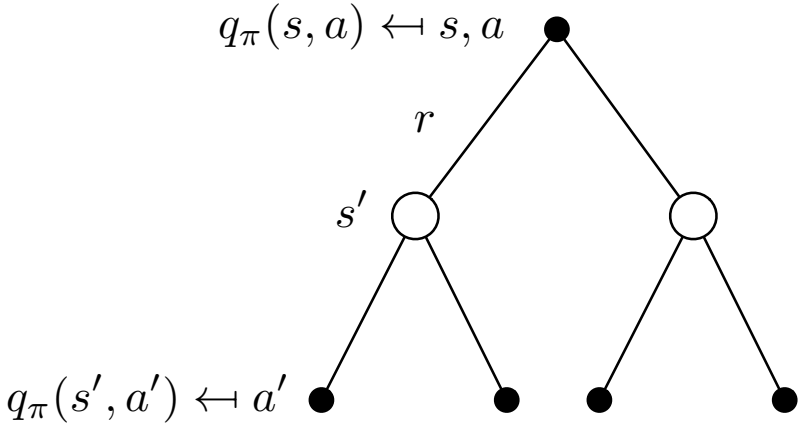
$$q_\pi(s,a) = \mathcal{R}_s^a + \gamma \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} \mathcal{P}_{ss'}^a v_\pi(s')$$

Bellman Expectation Equation for v_π (2)



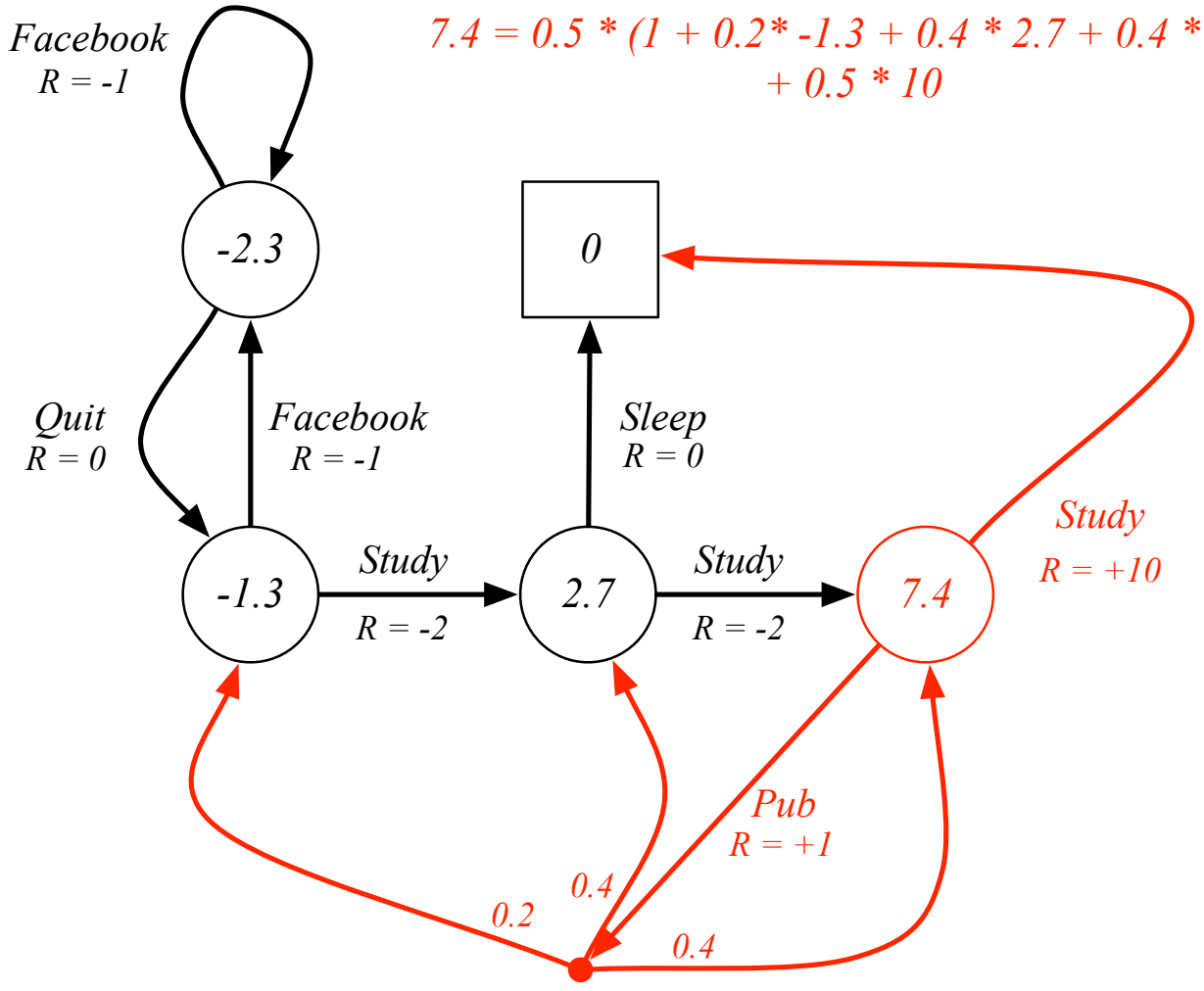
$$v_\pi(s) = \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \pi(a|s) \left(\mathcal{R}_s^a + \gamma \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} \mathcal{P}_{ss'}^a v_\pi(s') \right)$$

Bellman Expectation Equation for q_π (2)



$$q_\pi(s, a) = \mathcal{R}_s^a + \gamma \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} \mathcal{P}_{ss'}^a \sum_{a' \in \mathcal{A}} \pi(a'|s') q_\pi(s', a')$$

Example: Bellman Expectation Equation in Student MDP



Optimal Value Function

Definition

The *optimal state-value function* $v_*(s)$ is the maximum value function over all policies

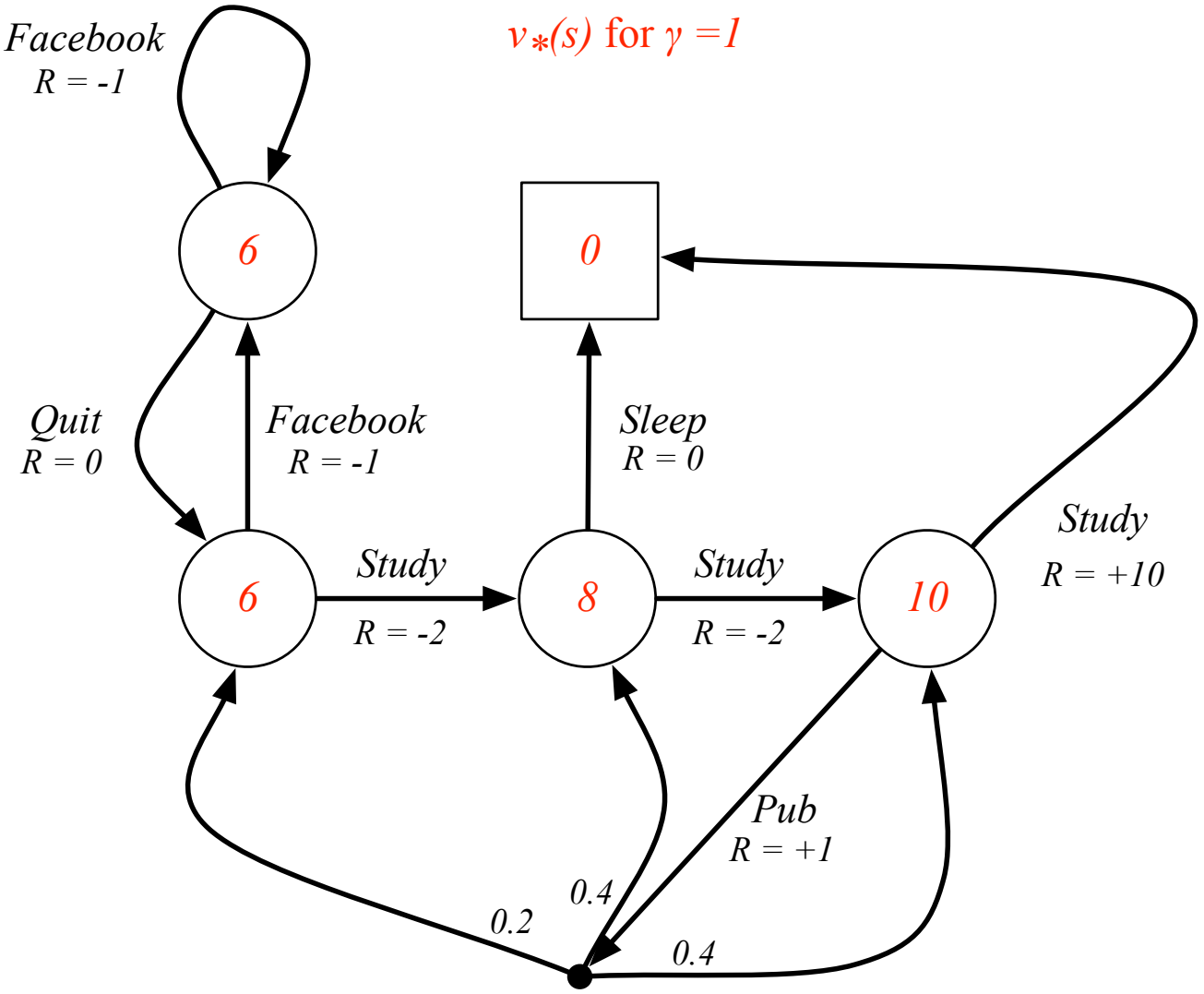
$$v_*(s) = \max_\pi v_\pi(s)$$

The *optimal action-value function* $q_*(s, a)$ is the maximum action-value function over all policies

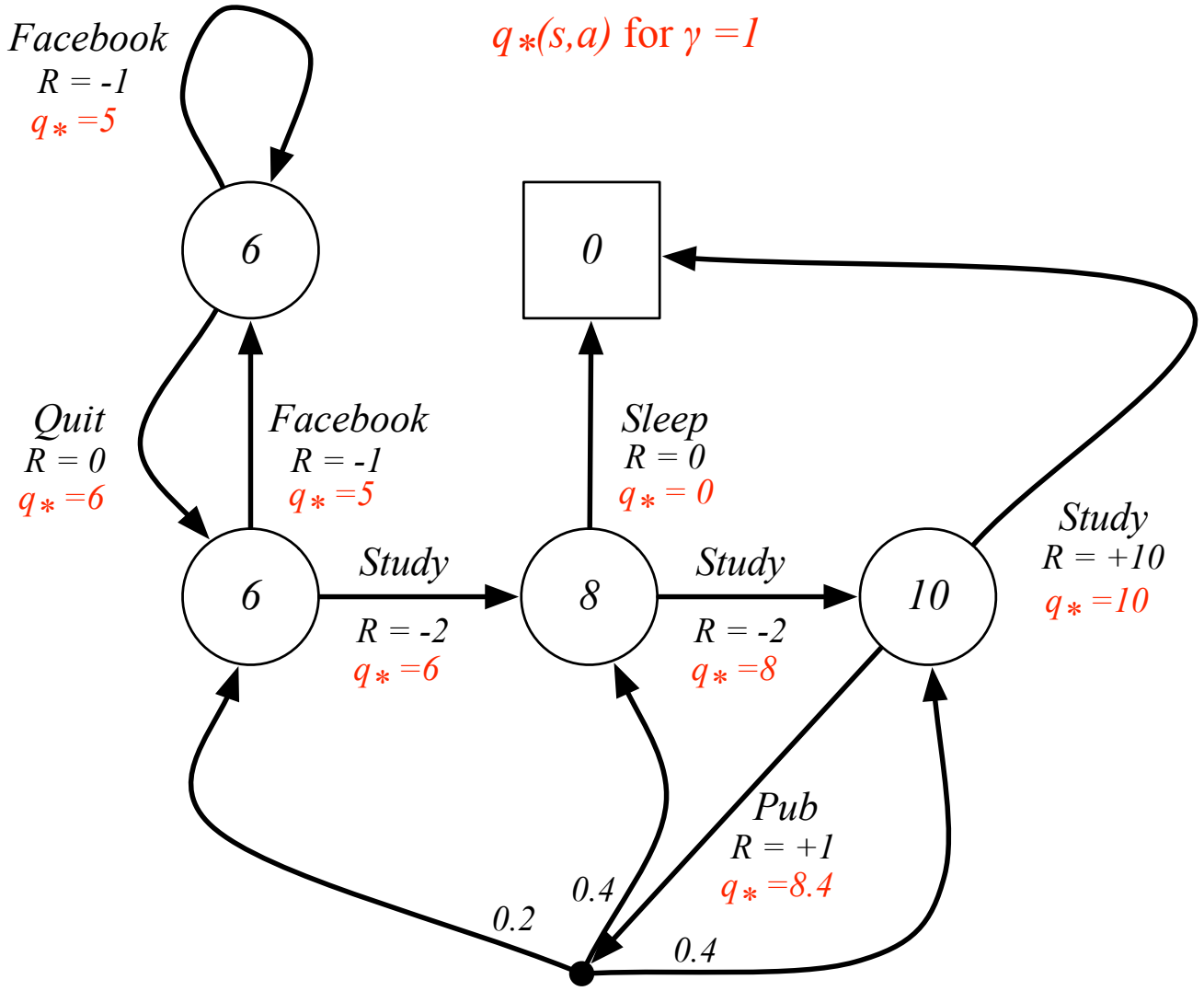
$$q_*(s, a) = \max_\pi q_\pi(s, a)$$

- The optimal value function specifies the best possible performance in the MDP.
- An MDP is "solved" when we know the optimal value fn.

Example: Optimal Value Function for Student MDP



Example: Optimal Action-Value Function for Student MDP



Optimal Policy

Define a partial ordering over policies

$$\pi \geq \pi' \text{ if } v_\pi(s) \geq v_{\pi'}(s), \forall s$$

Theorem

For any Markov Decision Process

- *There exists an optimal policy π_* that is better than or equal to all other policies, $\pi_* \geq \pi, \forall \pi$*
- *All optimal policies achieve the optimal value function, $v_{\pi_*}(s) = v_*(s)$*
- *All optimal policies achieve the optimal action-value function, $q_{\pi_*}(s, a) = q_*(s, a)$*

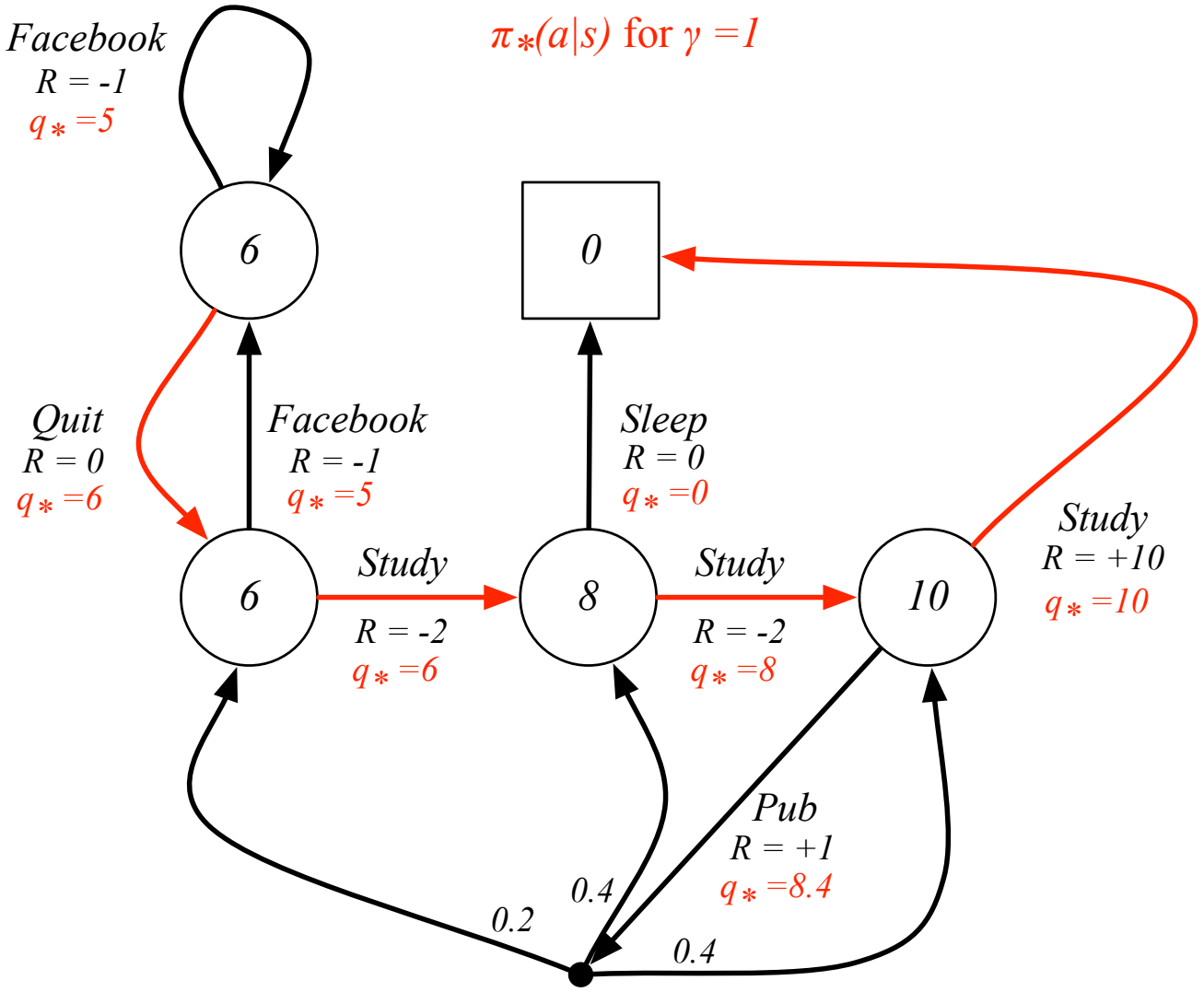
Finding an Optimal Policy

An optimal policy can be found by maximising over $q_*(s, a)$,

$$\pi_*(a|s) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a = \underset{a \in \mathcal{A}}{\text{argmax}}\ q_*(s, a) \\ 0 & \textit{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

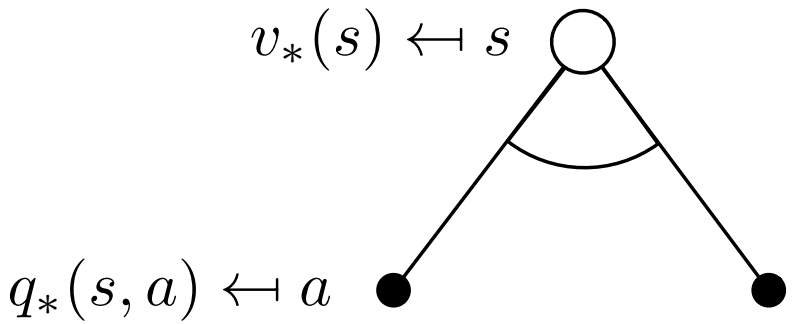
- There is always a deterministic optimal policy for any MDP
- If we know $q_*(s, a)$, we immediately have the optimal policy

Example: Optimal Policy for Student MDP



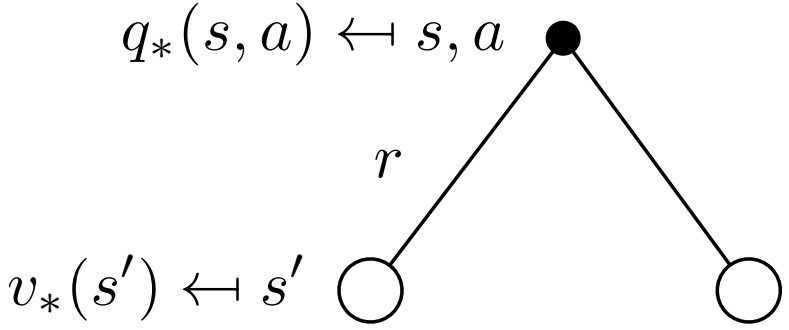
Bellman Optimality Equation for v_*

The optimal value functions are recursively related by the Bellman optimality equations:



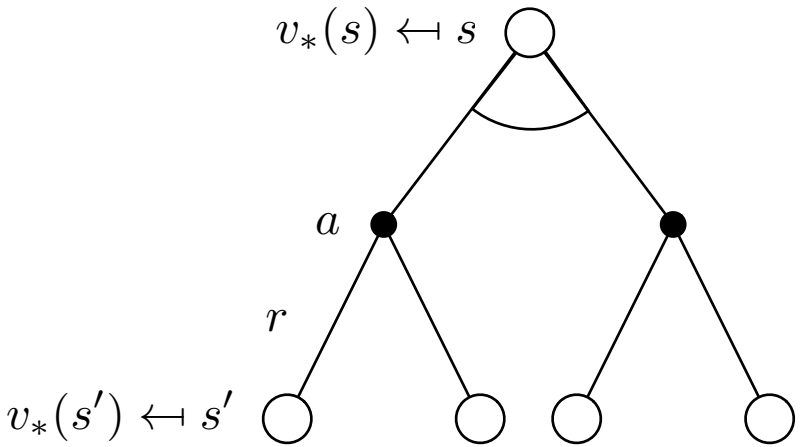
$$v_*(s) = \max_a q_*(s,a)$$

Bellman Optimality Equation for Q^*



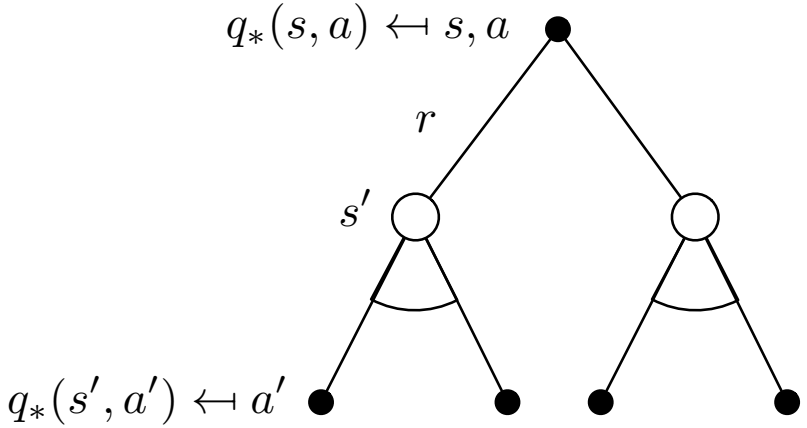
$$q_*(s,a) = \mathcal{R}_s^a + \gamma \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} \mathcal{P}_{ss'}^a v_*(s')$$

Bellman Optimality Equation for V^* (2)



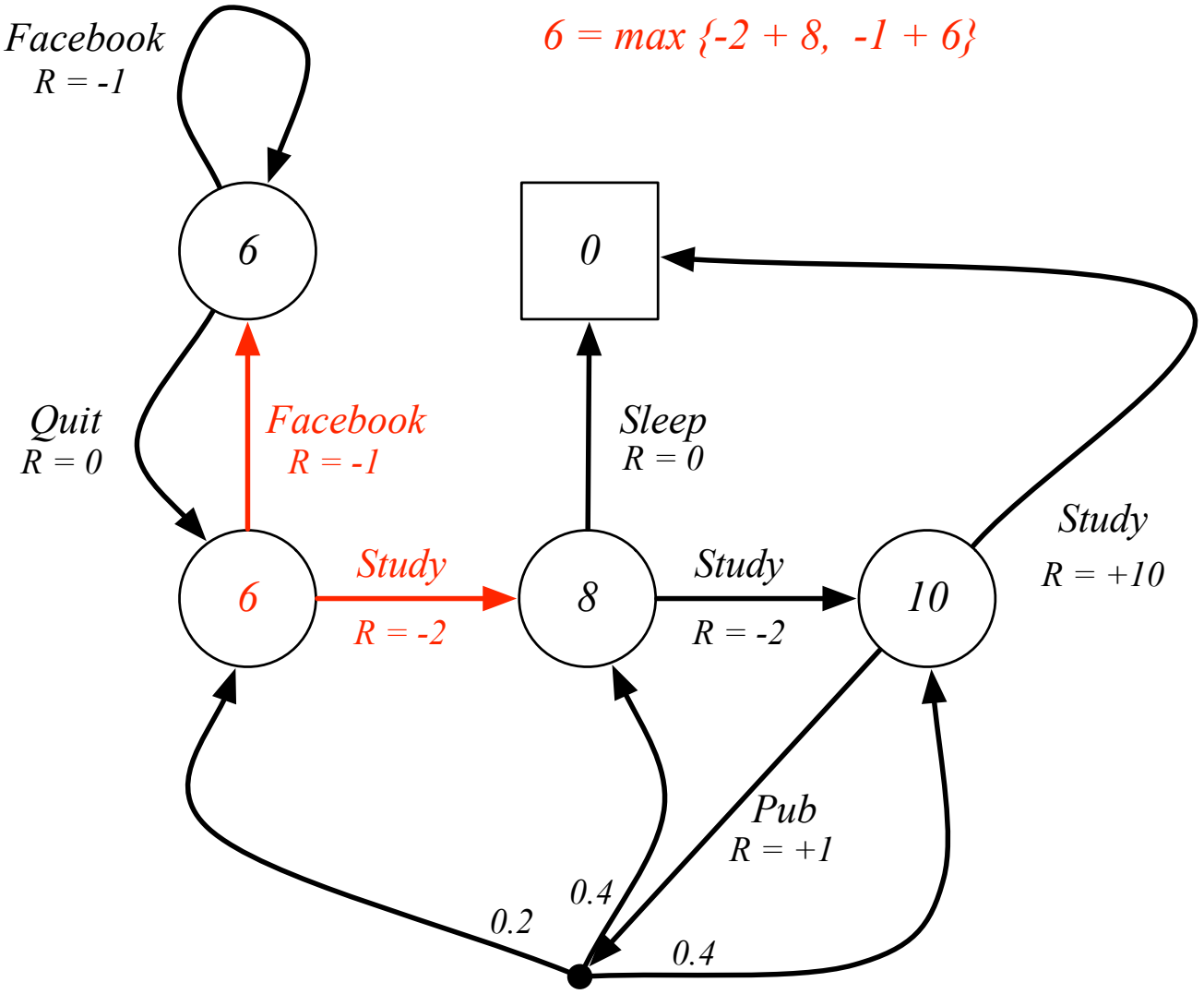
$$v_*(s) = \max_a \mathcal{R}_s^a + \gamma \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} \mathcal{P}_{ss'}^a v_*(s')$$

Bellman Optimality Equation for Q^* (2)



$$q_*(s, a) = \mathcal{R}_s^a + \gamma \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} \mathcal{P}_{ss'}^a \max_{a'} q_*(s', a')$$

Example: Bellman Optimality Equation in Student MDP



Solving the Bellman Optimality Equation

- Bellman Optimality Equation is non-linear
- No closed form solution (in general)
- Many iterative solution methods
  - Value Iteration
  - Policy Iteration
  - Q-learning
  - Sarsa

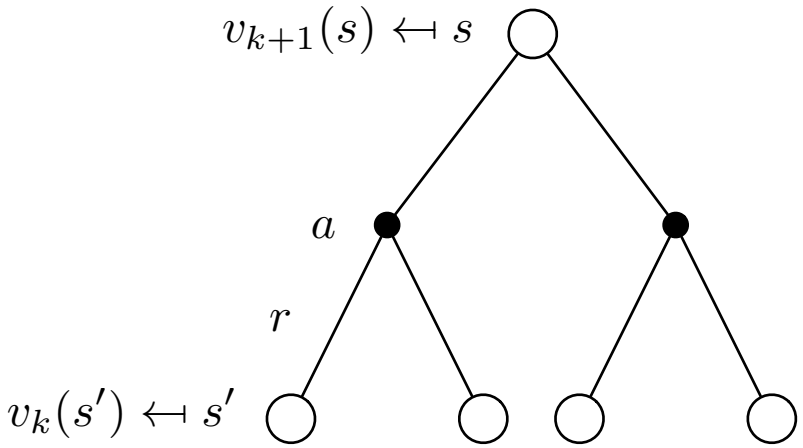
Planning by Dynamic Programming

- Dynamic programming assumes full knowledge of the MDP
- It is used for *planning* in an MDP
- For prediction:
  - Input: MDP $\langle \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{R}, \gamma \rangle$ and policy π
  - or: MRP $\langle \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{P}^\pi, \mathcal{R}^\pi, \gamma \rangle$
  - Output: value function v_π
- Or for control:
  - Input: MDP $\langle \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}, \mathcal{R}, \gamma \rangle$
  - Output: optimal value function v_*
  - and: optimal policy π_*

Iterative Policy Evaluation

- Problem: evaluate a given policy π
- Solution: iterative application of Bellman expectation backup
- $v_1 \rightarrow v_2 \rightarrow ... \rightarrow v_\pi$
- Using *synchronous* backups,
  - At each iteration $k+1$
  - For all states $s \in \mathcal{S}$
  - Update $v_{k+1}(s)$ from $v_k(s')$
  - where s' is a successor state of s
- We will discuss *asynchronous* backups later
- Convergence to v_π will be proven at the end of the lecture

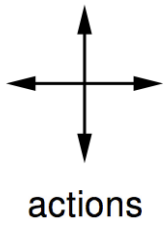
Iterative Policy Evaluation (2)

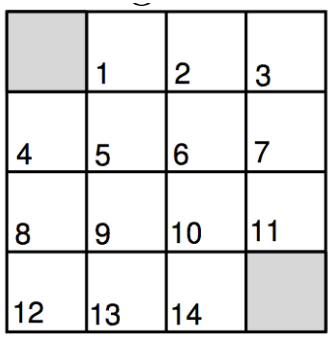


$$v_{k+1}(s) = \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \pi(a|s) \left(\mathcal{R}_s^a + \gamma \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} \mathcal{P}_{ss'}^a v_k(s') \right)$$

$$\mathbf{v}^{k+1} = \boldsymbol{\mathcal{R}}^{\boldsymbol{\pi}} + \gamma \boldsymbol{\mathcal{P}}^{\boldsymbol{\pi}} \mathbf{v}^k$$

Evaluating a Random Policy in the Small Gridworld



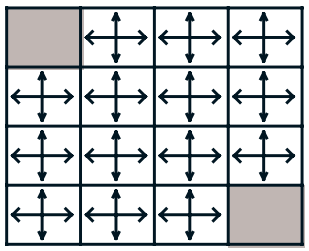
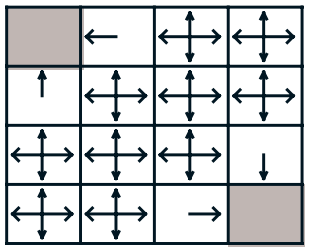
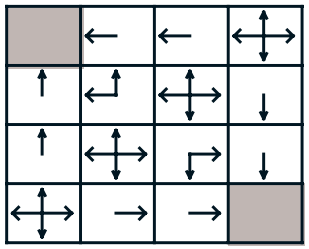


$r = -1$
on all transitions

- Undiscounted episodic MDP ($\gamma = 1$)
- Nonterminal states $1, ..., 14$
- One terminal state (shown twice as shaded squares)
- Actions leading out of the grid leave state unchanged
- Reward is -1 until the terminal state is reached
- Agent follows uniform random policy

$$\pi(n|\cdot) = \pi(e|\cdot) = \pi(s|\cdot) = \pi(w|\cdot) = 0.25$$

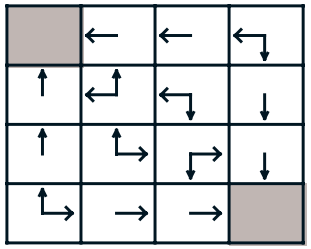
Iterative Policy Evaluation in Small Gridworld

	v_k for the Random Policy	Greedy Policy w.r.t. v_k
$k = 0$	0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0	 random policy
$k = 1$	0.0 -1.0 -1.0 -1.0 -1.0 -1.0 -1.0 -1.0 -1.0 -1.0 -1.0 -1.0 -1.0 -1.0 -1.0 0.0	
$k = 2$	0.0 -1.7 -2.0 -2.0 -1.7 -2.0 -2.0 -2.0 -2.0 -2.0 -2.0 -1.7 -2.0 -2.0 -1.7 0.0	

Iterative Policy Evaluation in Small Gridworld (2)

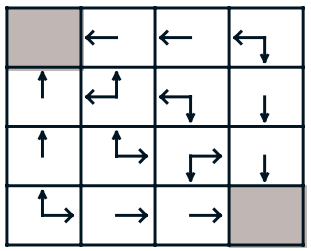
$k = 3$

0.0	-2.4	-2.9	-3.0
-2.4	-2.9	-3.0	-2.9
-2.9	-3.0	-2.9	-2.4
-3.0	-2.9	-2.4	0.0



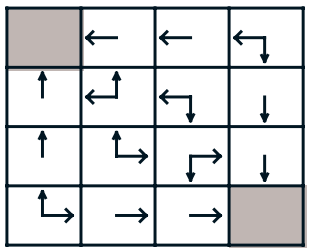
$k = 10$

0.0	-6.1	-8.4	-9.0
-6.1	-7.7	-8.4	-8.4
-8.4	-8.4	-7.7	-6.1
-9.0	-8.4	-6.1	0.0



$k = \infty$

0.0	-14.	-20.	-22.
-14.	-18.	-20.	-20.
-20.	-20.	-18.	-14.
-22.	-20.	-14.	0.0



optimal policy

How to Improve a Policy

- Given a policy π
  - Evaluate the policy π

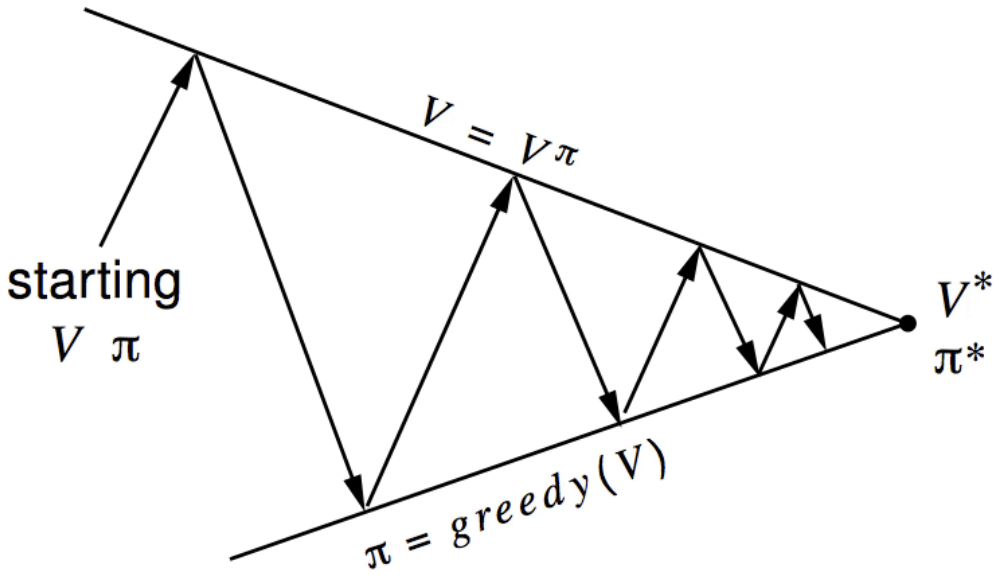
$$v_\pi(s) = \mathbb{E}\left[R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + ... | S_t = s\right]$$

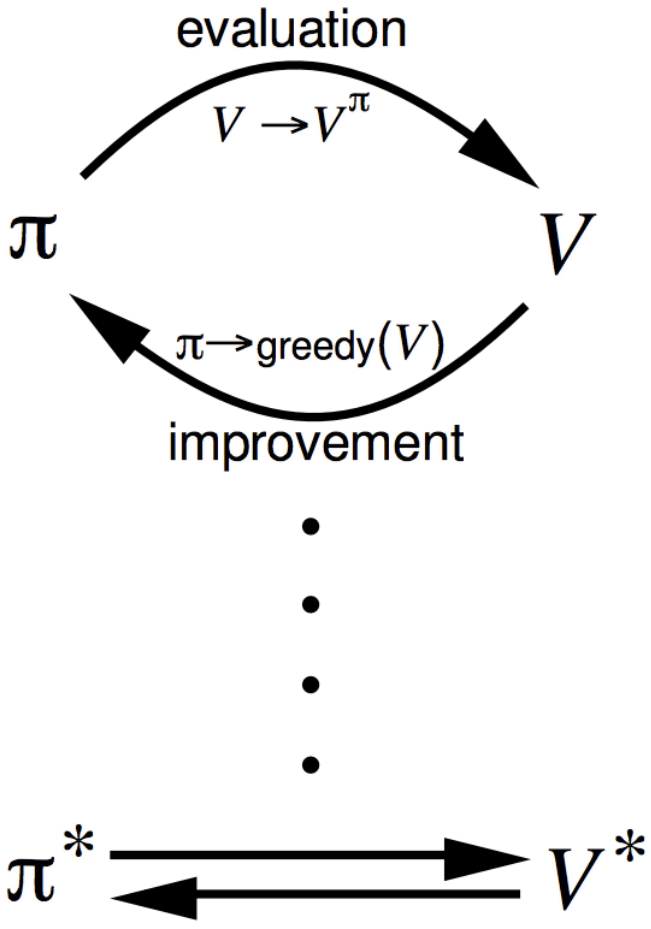
  - Improve the policy by acting greedily with respect to v_π

$$\pi' = \text{greedy}(v_\pi)$$

- In Small Gridworld improved policy was optimal, $\pi' = \pi^*$
- In general, need more iterations of improvement / evaluation
- But this process of policy iteration always converges to $\pi*$

Policy Iteration





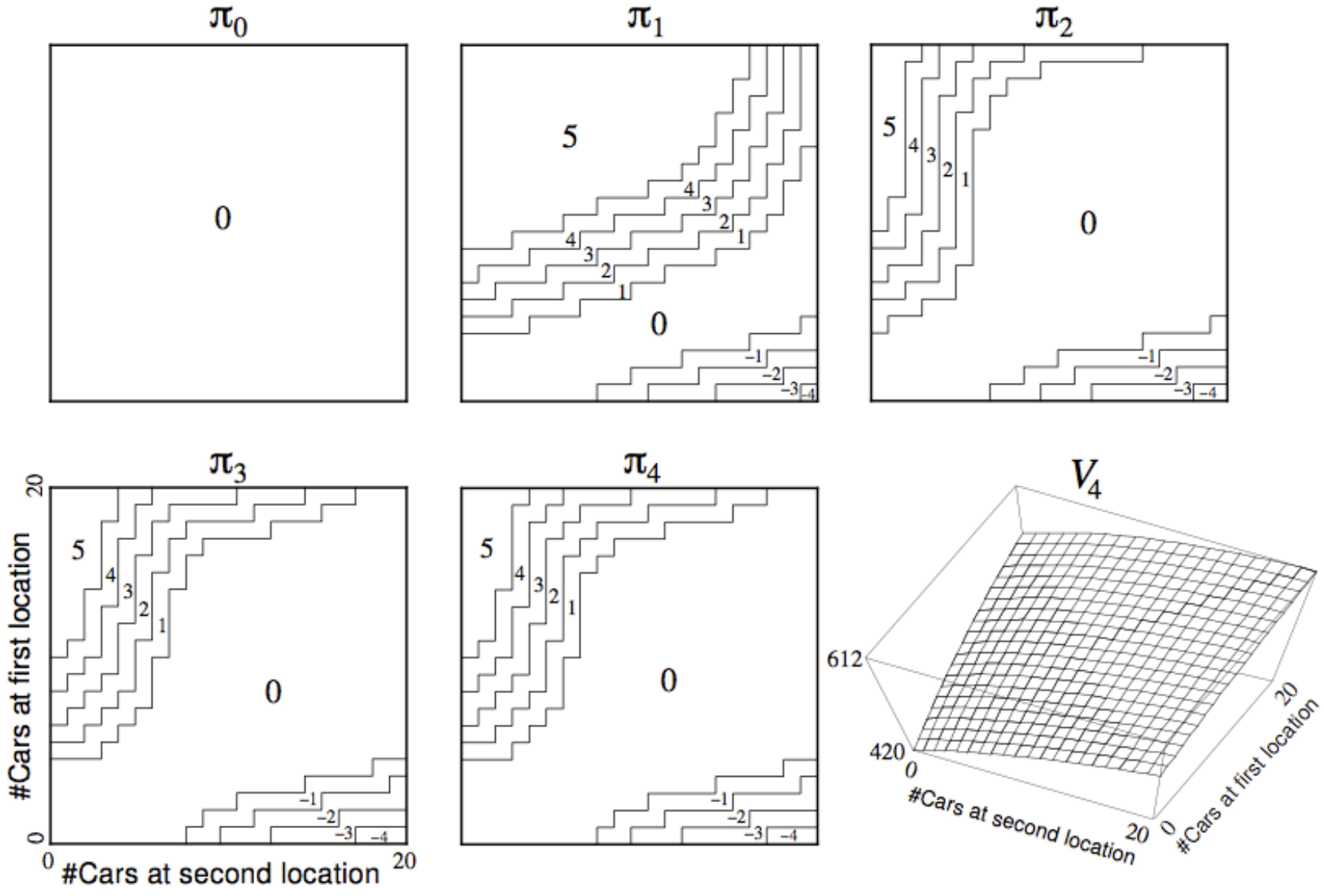
Policy evaluation Estimate v_π
Iterative policy evaluation

Policy improvement Generate $\pi' \geq \pi$
Greedy policy improvement

Jack's Car Rental

- States: Two locations, maximum of 20 cars at each
- Actions: Move up to 5 cars between locations overnight
- Reward: \$10 for each car rented (must be available)
- Transitions: Cars returned and requested randomly
  - Poisson distribution, n returns/requests with prob $\frac{\lambda^n}{n!} e^{-\lambda}$
  - 1st location: average requests $= 3$, average returns $= 3$
  - 2nd location: average requests $= 4$, average returns $= 2$

Policy Iteration in Jack's Car Rental



Deterministic Value Iteration

- If we know the solution to subproblems $v_*(s')$
- Then solution $v_*(s)$ can be found by one-step lookahead

$$v_*(s) \leftarrow \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \mathcal{R}_s^a + \gamma \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} \mathcal{P}_{ss'}^a v_*(s')$$

- The idea of value iteration is to apply these updates iteratively
- Intuition: start with final rewards and work backwards
- Still works with loopy, stochastic MDPs

Example: Shortest Path

g			

Problem

0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0
0	0	0	0

V_1

0	-1	-1	-1
-1	-1	-1	-1
-1	-1	-1	-1
-1	-1	-1	-1

V_2

0	-1	-2	-2
-1	-2	-2	-2
-2	-2	-2	-2
-2	-2	-2	-2

V_3

0	-1	-2	-3
-1	-2	-3	-3
-2	-3	-3	-3
-3	-3	-3	-3

V_4

0	-1	-2	-3
-1	-2	-3	-4
-2	-3	-4	-4
-3	-4	-4	-4

V_5

0	-1	-2	-3
-1	-2	-3	-4
-2	-3	-4	-5
-3	-4	-5	-5

V_6

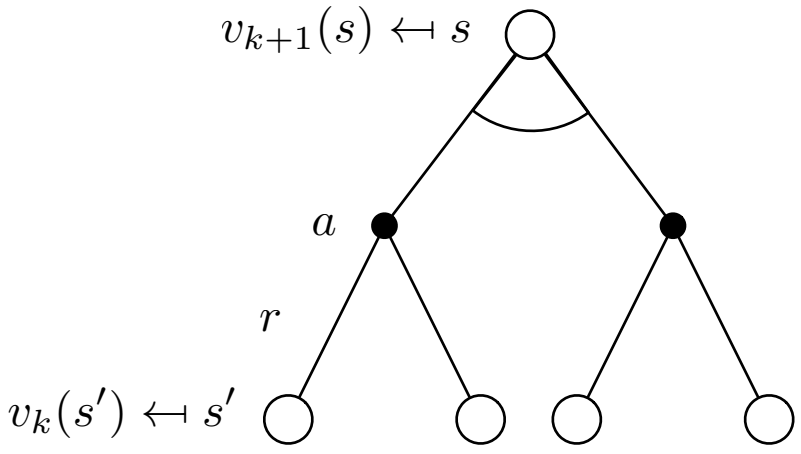
0	-1	-2	-3
-1	-2	-3	-4
-2	-3	-4	-5
-3	-4	-5	-6

V_7

Value Iteration

- Problem: find optimal policy π
- Solution: iterative application of Bellman optimality backup
- $v_1 \rightarrow v_2 \rightarrow ... \rightarrow v_*$
- Using synchronous backups
  - At each iteration $k+1$
  - For all states $s \in \mathcal{S}$
  - Update $v_{k+1}(s)$ from $v_k(s')$
- Convergence to v_* will be proven later
- Unlike policy iteration, there is no explicit policy
- Intermediate value functions may not correspond to any policy

Value Iteration (2)



$$v_{k+1}(s) = \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \left(\mathcal{R}_s^a + \gamma \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{S}} \mathcal{P}_{ss'}^a v_k(s') \right)$$

$$\mathbf{v}_{k+1} = \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \boldsymbol{\mathcal{R}}^{\boldsymbol{a}} + \gamma \boldsymbol{\mathcal{P}}^{\boldsymbol{a}} \mathbf{v}_k$$

Synchronous Dynamic Programming Algorithms

Problem	Bellman Equation	Algorithm
Prediction	Bellman Expectation Equation	Iterative Policy Evaluation
Control	Bellman Expectation Equation + Greedy Policy Improvement	Policy Iteration
Control	Bellman Optimality Equation	Value Iteration

- Algorithms are based on state-value function $v_\pi(s)$ or $v_*(s)$
- Complexity $O(mn^2)$ per iteration, for m actions and n states
- Could also apply to action-value function $q_\pi(s, a)$ or $q_*(s, a)$
- Complexity $O(m^2 n^2)$ per iteration

Monte-Carlo Reinforcement Learning

- MC methods learn directly from episodes of experience
- MC is *model-free*: no knowledge of MDP transitions / rewards
- MC learns from *complete* episodes: no bootstrapping
- MC uses the simplest possible idea: value = mean return
- Caveat: can only apply MC to *episodic* MDPs
  - All episodes must terminate

Monte-Carlo Policy Evaluation

- Goal: learn v_π from episodes of experience under policy π

$$S_1, A_1, R_2, ..., S_k \sim \pi$$

- Recall that the *return* is the total discounted reward:

$$G_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + ... + \gamma^{T-1} R_T$$

- Recall that the value function is the expected return:

$$v_\pi(s) = \mathbb{E}_\pi \left[G_t \mid S_t = s \right]$$

- Monte-Carlo policy evaluation uses *empirical mean* return instead of *expected* return

First-Visit Monte-Carlo Policy Evaluation

- To evaluate state s
- The first time-step t that state s is visited in an episode,
- Increment counter $N(s) \leftarrow N(s) + 1$
- Increment total return $S(s) \leftarrow S(s) + G_t$
- Value is estimated by mean return $V(s) = S(s)/N(s)$
- By law of large numbers, $V(s) \rightarrow v_\pi(s)$ as $N(s) \rightarrow \infty$

Every-Visit Monte-Carlo Policy Evaluation

- To evaluate state s
- Every time-step t that state s is visited in an episode,
- Increment counter $N(s) \leftarrow N(s) + 1$
- Increment total return $S(s) \leftarrow S(s) + G_t$
- Value is estimated by mean return $V(s) = S(s)/N(s)$
- Again, $V(s) \rightarrow v_\pi(s)$ as $N(s) \rightarrow \infty$

Incremental Mean

The mean $\mu_1, \mu_2, ...$ of a sequence $x_1, x_2, ...$ can be computed incrementally,

$$\begin{aligned}
\mu_k &= \frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^{k} x_j \\
&= \frac{1}{k} \left(x_k + \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} x_j \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{k} \left(x_k + (k-1)\mu_{k-1} \right) \\
&= \mu_{k-1} + \frac{1}{k} \left(x_k - \mu_{k-1} \right)
\end{aligned}$$

Incremental Monte-Carlo Updates

- Update $V(s)$ incrementally after episode $S_1, A_1, R_2, ..., S_T$
- For each state S_t with return G_t

$$N(S_t) \leftarrow N(S_t) + 1$$
$$V(S_t) \leftarrow V(S_t) + \frac{1}{N(S_t)}(G_t - V(S_t))$$

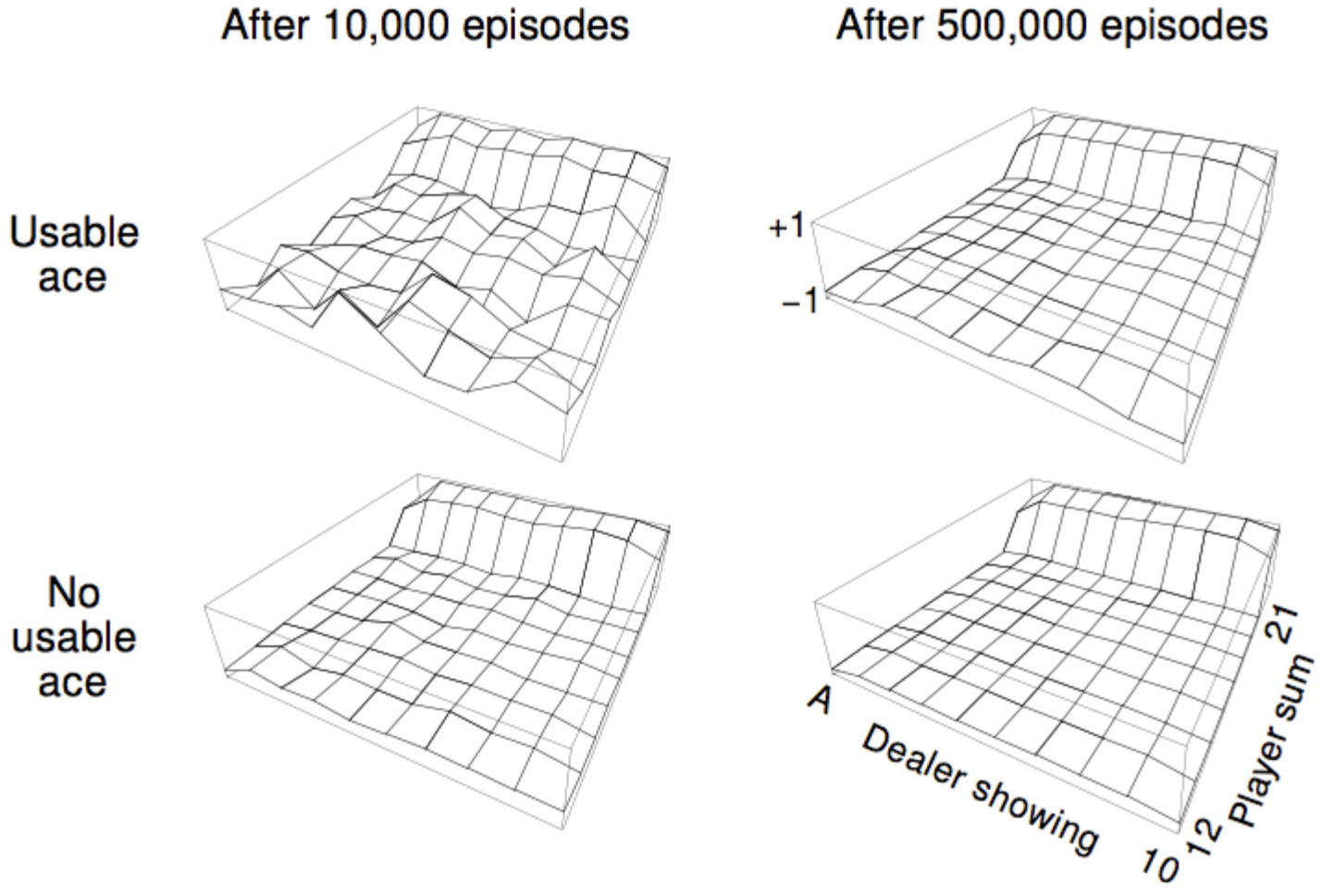
- In non-stationary problems, it can be useful to track a running mean, i.e. forget old episodes.

$$V(S_t) \leftarrow V(S_t) + \alpha(G_t - V(S_t))$$

Blackjack Example

- States (200 of them):
  - Current sum (12-21)
  - Dealer's showing card (ace-10)
  - Do I have a "useable" ace? (yes-no)
- Action stick: Stop receiving cards (and terminate)
- Action twist: Take another card (no replacement)
- Reward for stick:
  - $+1$ if sum of cards $>$ sum of dealer cards
  - 0 if sum of cards $=$ sum of dealer cards
  - -1 if sum of cards $<$ sum of dealer cards
- Reward for twist:
  - -1 if sum of cards > 21 (and terminate)
  - 0 otherwise
- Transitions: automatically twist if sum of cards < 12

Blackjack Value Function after Monte-Carlo Learning

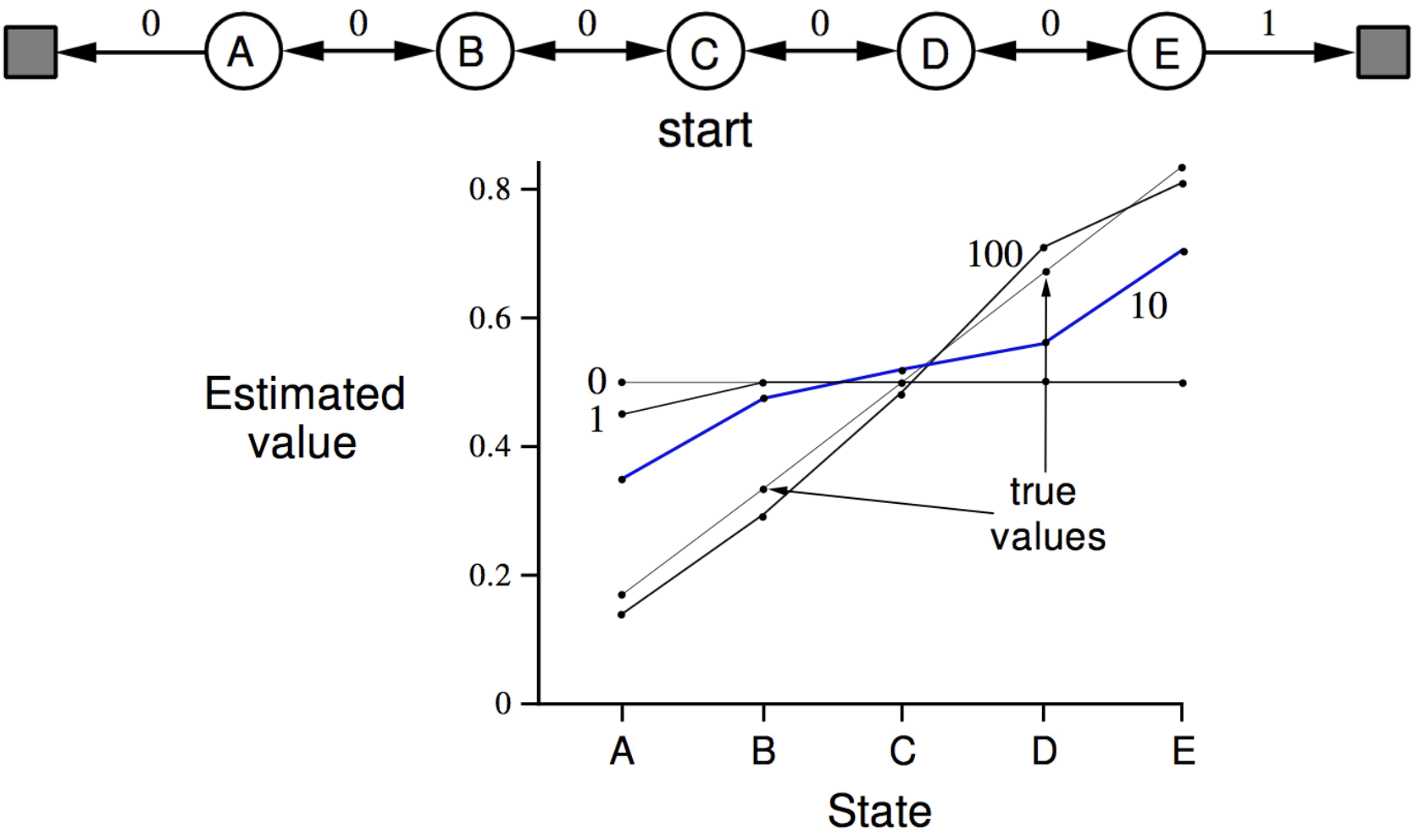


Policy: stick if sum of cards ≥ 20, otherwise twist

Temporal-Difference Learning

- TD methods learn directly from episodes of experience
- TD is *model-free*: no knowledge of MDP transitions / rewards
- TD learns from *incomplete* episodes, by *bootstrapping*
- TD updates a guess towards a guess

Random Walk Example



MC and TD

- Goal: learn v_π online from experience under policy π
- Incremental every-visit Monte-Carlo
  - Update value $V(S_t)$ toward *actual* return G_t

$$V(S_t) \leftarrow V(S_t) + \alpha \left(G_t - V(S_t) \right)$$

- Simplest temporal-difference learning algorithm: TD(0)
  - Update value $V(S_t)$ toward *estimated* return $R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1})$

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

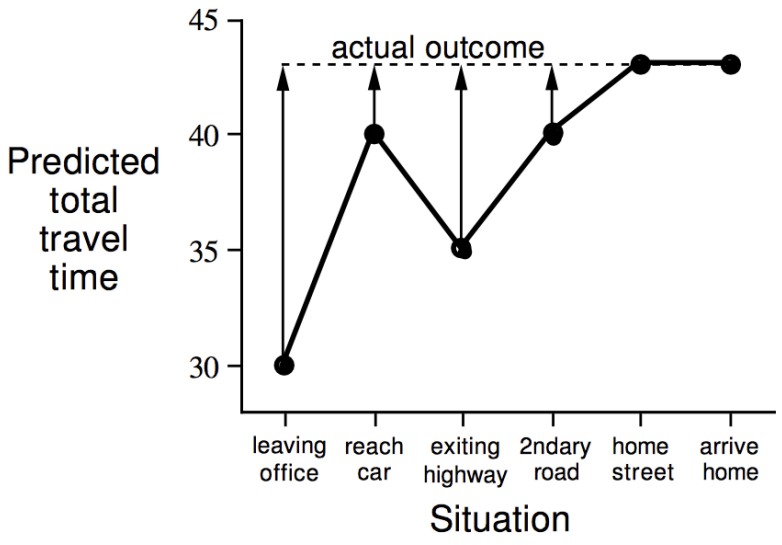
  - $R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1})$ is called the *TD target*
  - $\delta_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1}) - V(S_t)$ is called the *TD error*

Driving Home Example

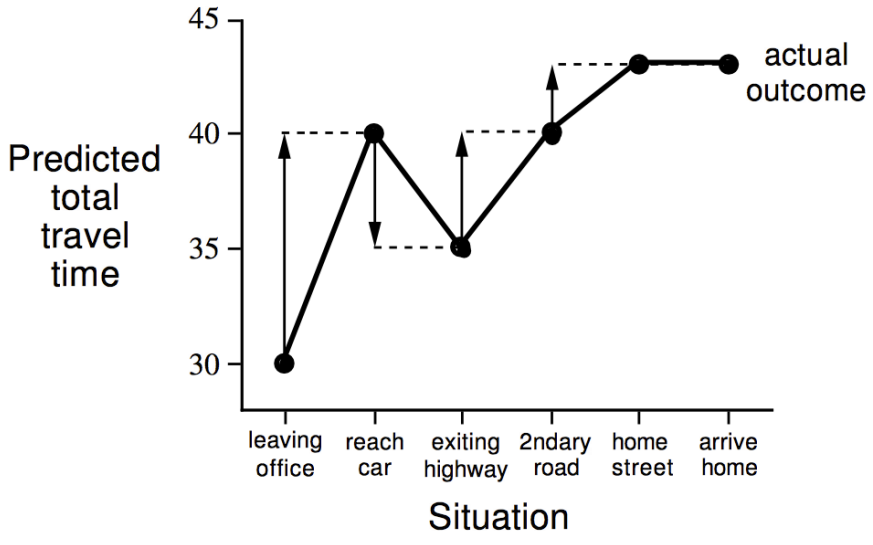
State	Elapsed Time (minutes)	Predicted Time to Go	Predicted Total Time
leaving office	0	30	30
reach car, raining	5	35	40
exit highway	20	15	35
behind truck	30	10	40
home street	40	3	43
arrive home	43	0	43

Driving Home Example: MC vs. TD

Changes recommended by Monte Carlo methods (α=1)



Changes recommended by TD methods (α=1)



Advantages and Disadvantages of MC vs. TD

- TD can learn *before* knowing the final outcome
  - TD can learn online after every step
  - MC must wait until end of episode before return is known
- TD can learn *without* the final outcome
  - TD can learn from incomplete sequences
  - MC can only learn from complete sequences
  - TD works in continuing (non-terminating) environments
  - MC only works for episodic (terminating) environments

Bias/Variance Trade-Off

- Return $G_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + ... + \gamma^{T-1} R_T$ is *unbiased* estimate of $v_\pi(S_t)$
- True TD target $R_{t+1} + \gamma v_\pi(S_{t+1})$ is *unbiased* estimate of $v_\pi(S_t)$
- TD target $R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1})$ is *biased* estimate of $v_\pi(S_t)$
- TD target is much lower variance than the return:
  - Return depends on *many* random actions, transitions, rewards
  - TD target depends on *one* random action, transition, reward

Advantages and Disadvantages of MC vs. TD (2)

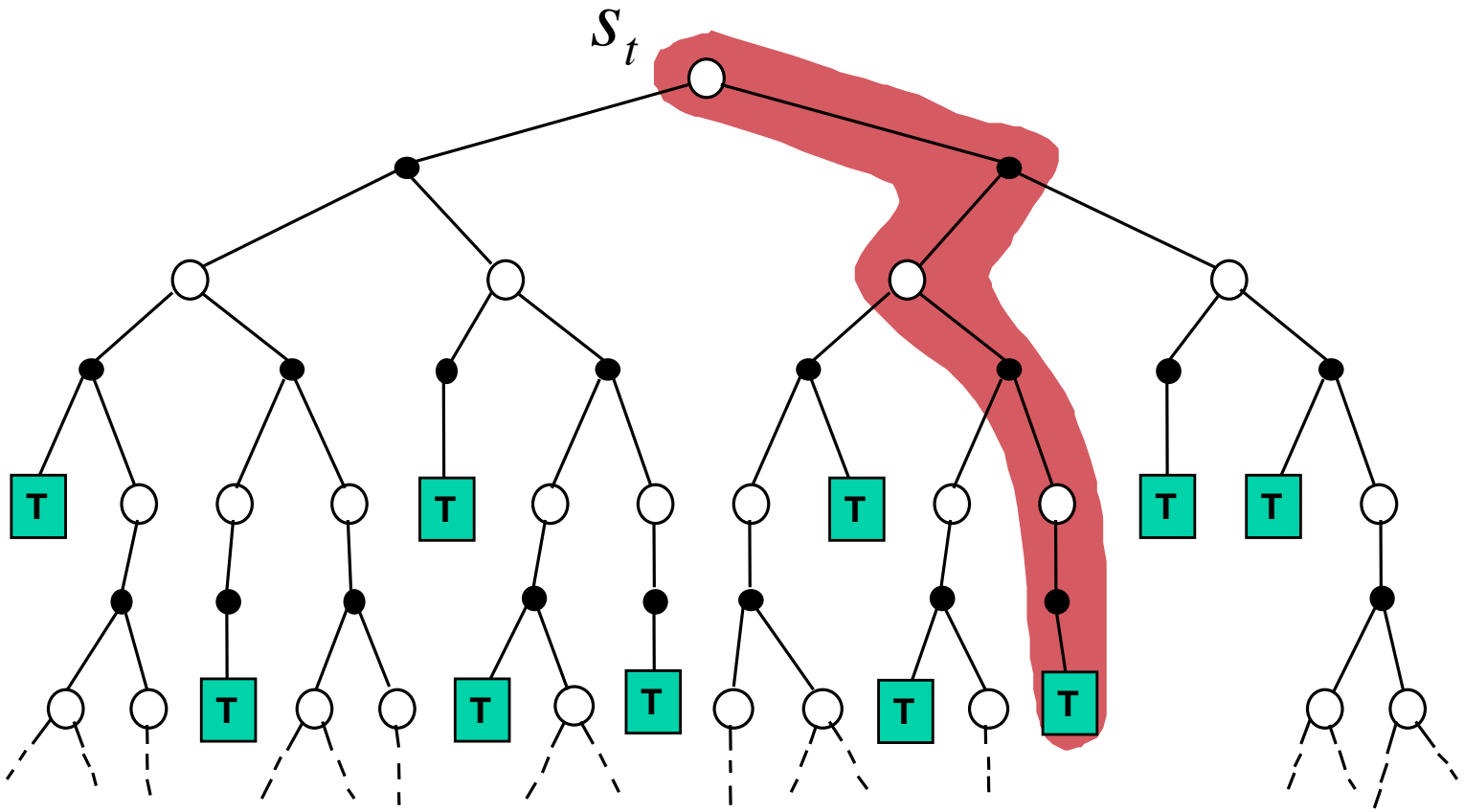
- MC has high variance, zero bias
  - Good convergence properties
  - (even with function approximation)
  - Not very sensitive to initial value
  - Very simple to understand and use
- TD has low variance, some bias
  - Usually more efficient than MC
  - TD(0) converges to $v_\pi(s)$
  - (but not always with function approximation)
  - More sensitive to initial value

Advantages and Disadvantages of MC vs. TD (3)

- TD exploits Markov property
  - Usually more efficient in Markov environments
- MC does not exploit Markov property
  - Usually more effective in non-Markov environments

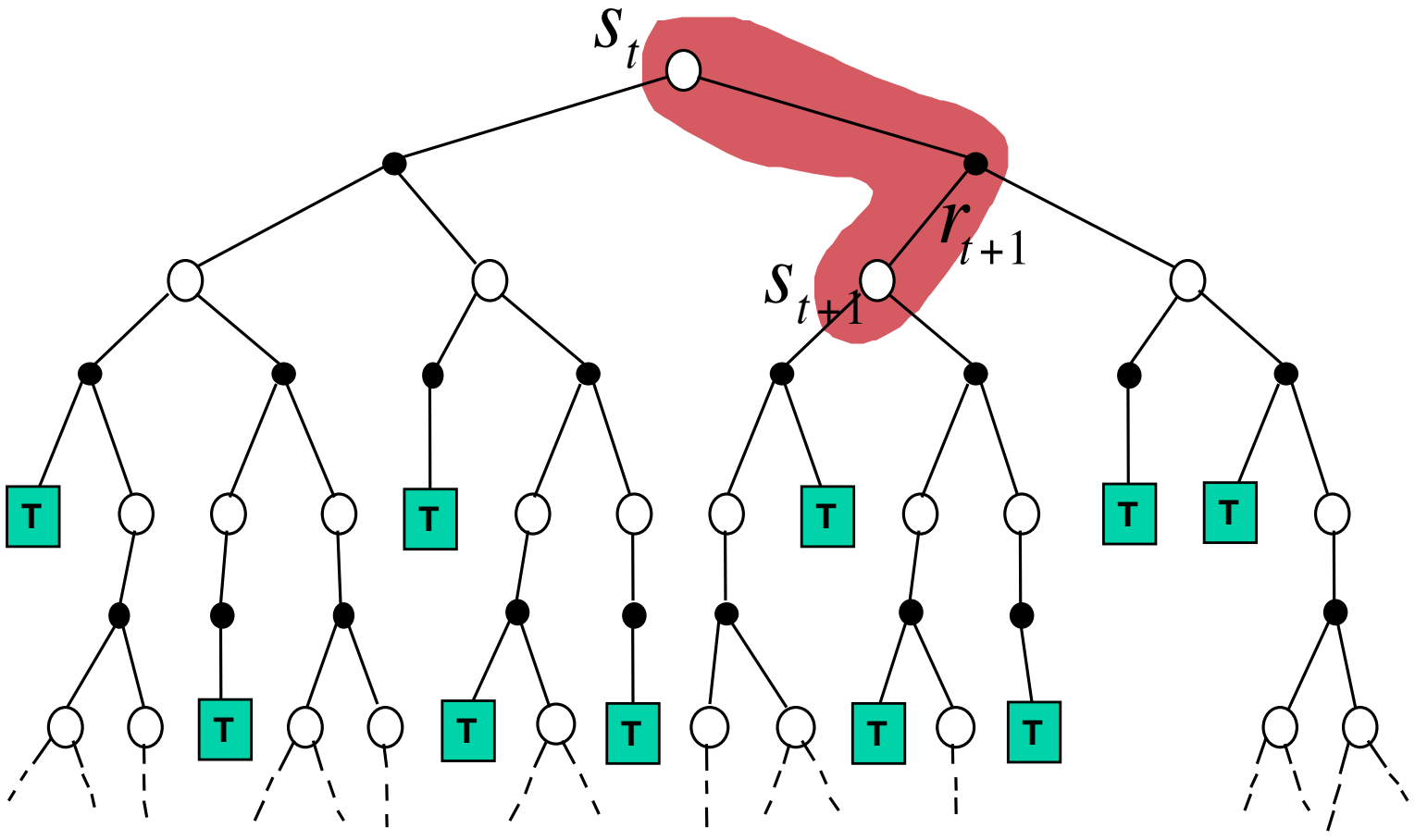
Monte-Carlo Backup

$$V(S_t) \leftarrow V(S_t) + \alpha\left(G_t - V(S_t)\right)$$



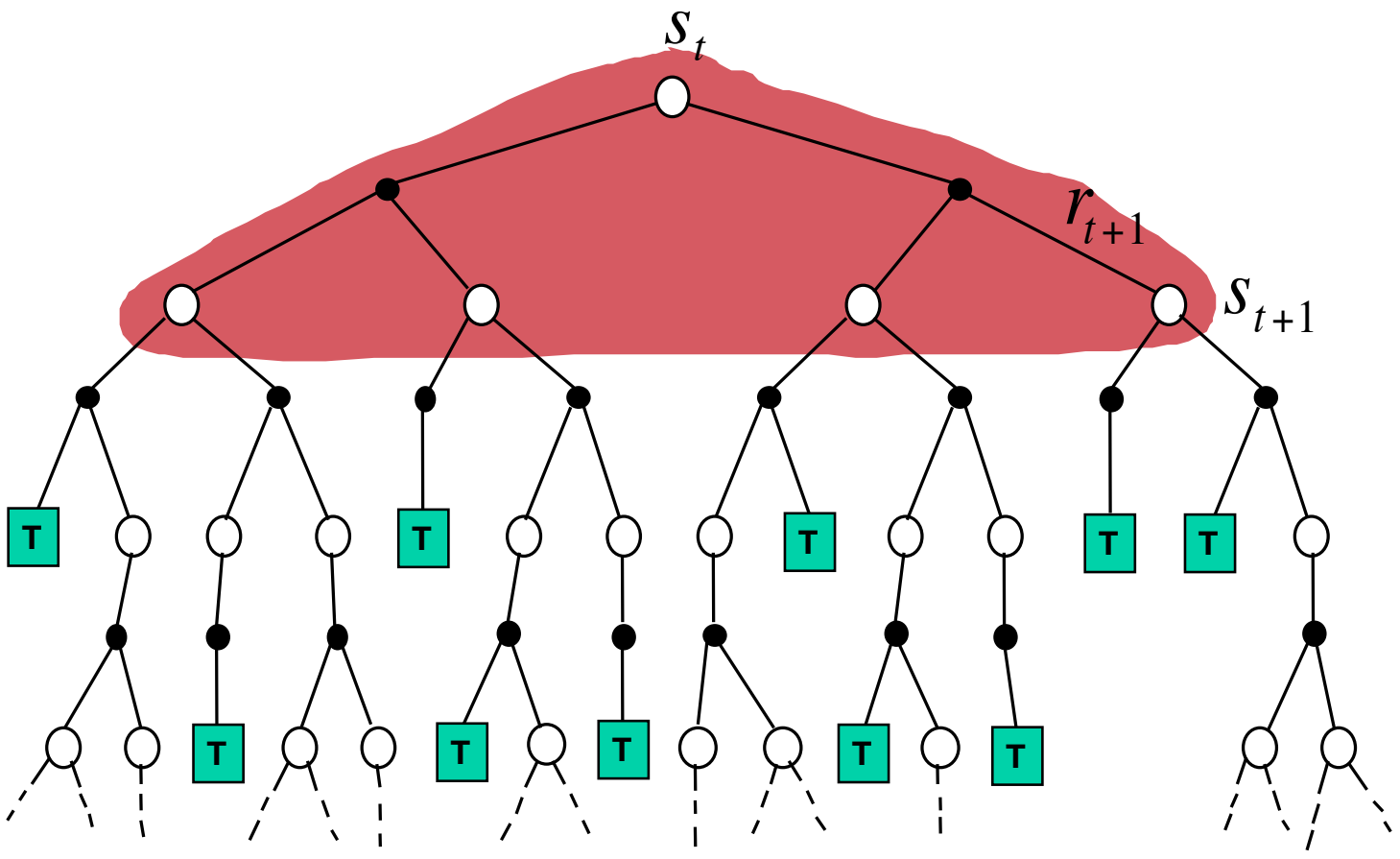
Temporal-Difference Backup

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



Dynamic Programming Backup

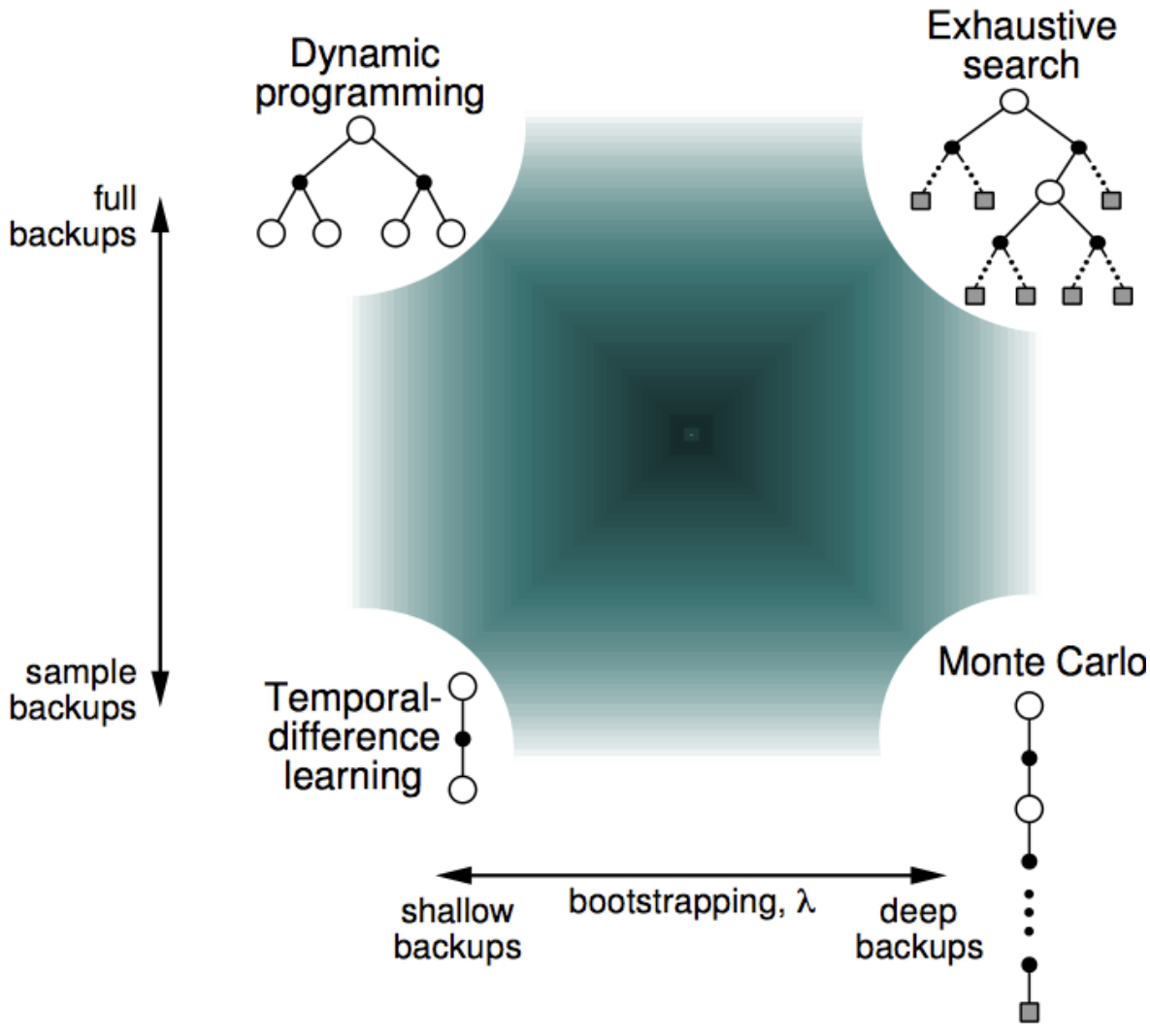
$$V(S_t) \leftarrow \mathbb{E}_\pi \left[R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1}) \right]$$



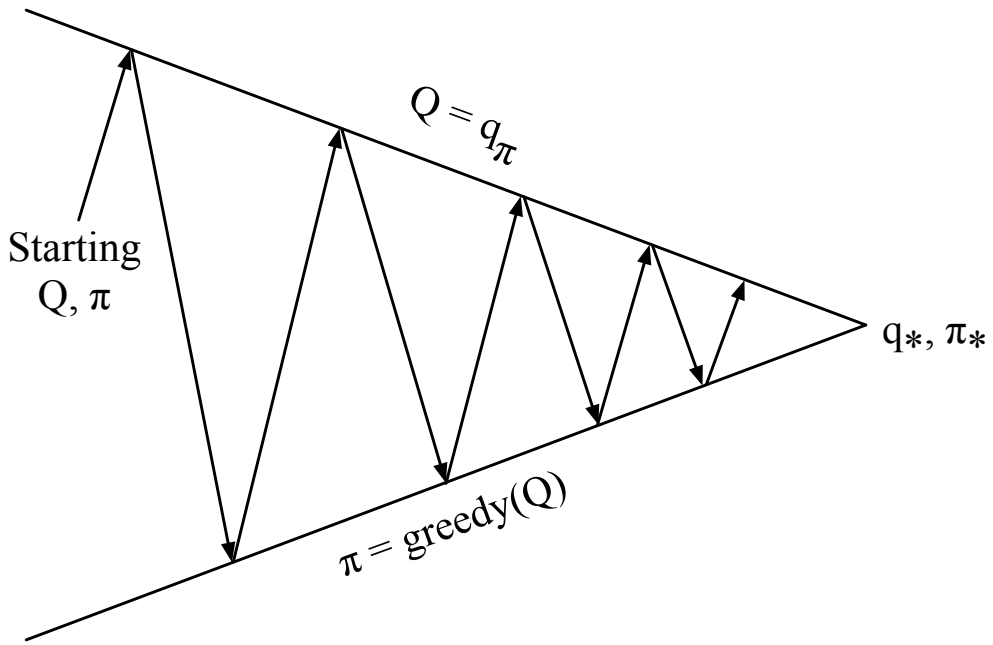
Bootstrapping and Sampling

- Bootstrapping: update involves an estimate
  - MC does not bootstrap
  - DP bootstraps
  - TD bootstraps
- Sampling: update samples an expectation
  - MC samples
  - DP does not sample
  - TD samples

Unified View of Reinforcement Learning



Generalised Policy Iteration with Action-Value Function



Policy evaluation Monte-Carlo policy evaluation, $Q = q_\pi$

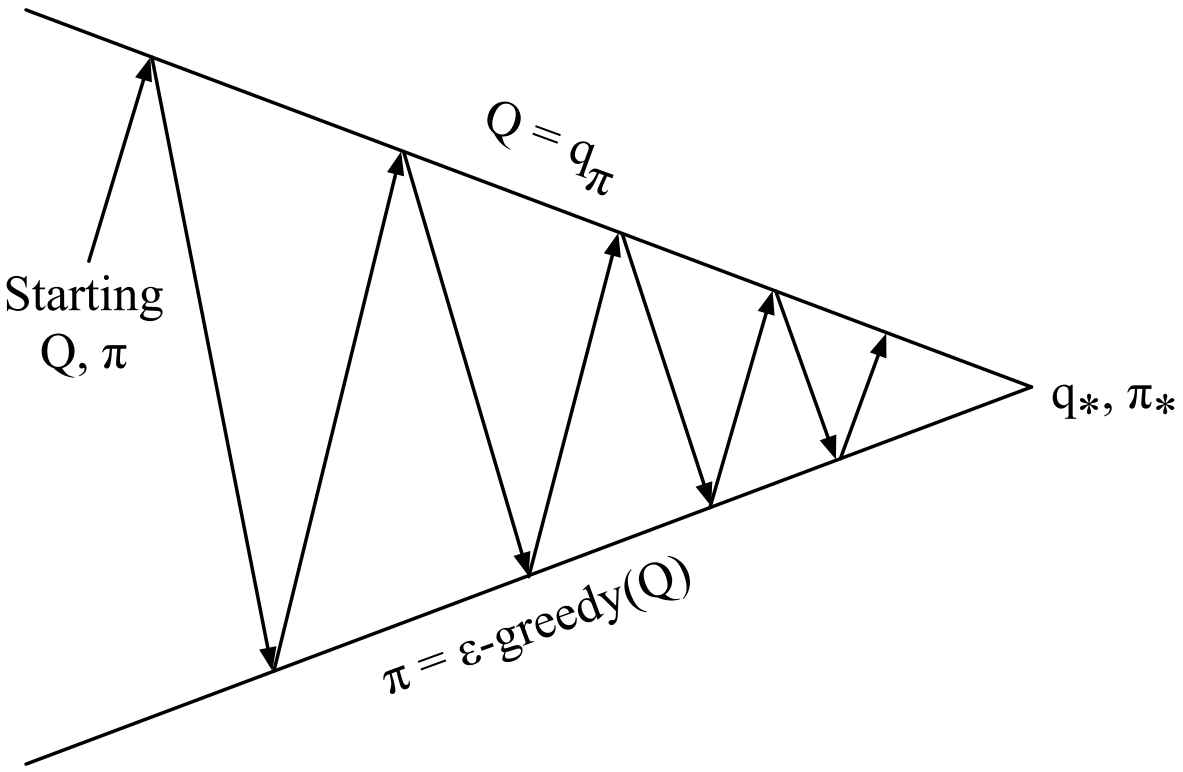
Policy improvement Greedy policy improvement?

ϵ-Greedy Exploration

- Simplest idea for ensuring continual exploration
- All m actions are tried with non-zero probability
- With probability $1 - \epsilon$ choose the greedy action
- With probability ϵ choose an action at random

$$\pi(a|s) = \begin{cases} \epsilon/m + 1 - \epsilon & \text{if } a^* = \underset{a \in \mathcal{A}}{\text{argmax}}\ Q(s,a) \\ \epsilon/m & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Monte-Carlo Policy Iteration



Policy evaluation Monte-Carlo policy evaluation, $Q = q_\pi$

Policy improvement ϵ-greedy policy improvement

GLIE Monte-Carlo Control

- Sample kth episode using π: $\{S_1, A_1, R_2, ..., S_T\} \sim \pi$
- For each state S_t and action A_t in the episode,

$$N(S_t, A_t) \leftarrow N(S_t, A_t) + 1$$

$$Q(S_t, A_t) \leftarrow Q(S_t, A_t) + \frac{1}{N(S_t, A_t)} (G_t - Q(S_t, A_t))$$

- Improve policy based on new action-value function

$$\epsilon \leftarrow 1/k$$

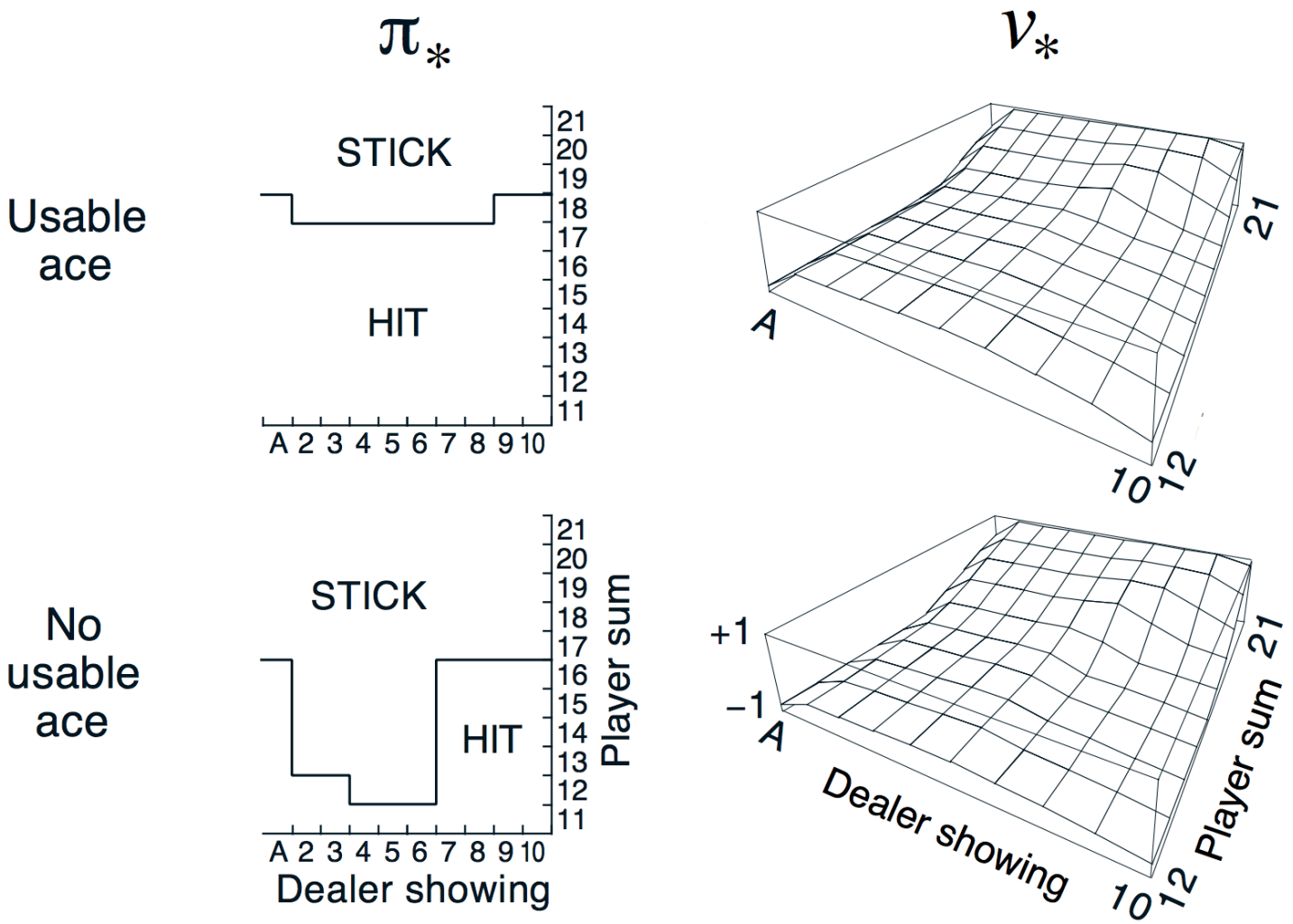
$$\pi \leftarrow \epsilon\text{-greedy}(Q)$$

Theorem

GLIE Monte-Carlo control converges to the optimal action-value function, $Q(s, a) \rightarrow q_*(s, a)$

Back to the Blackjack Example

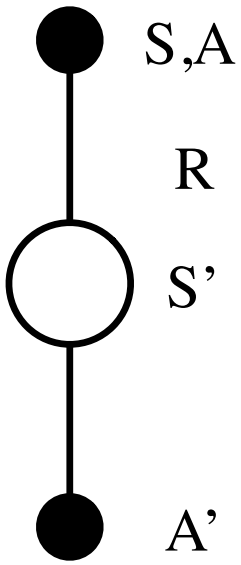
Monte-Carlo Control in Blackjack



MC vs. TD Control

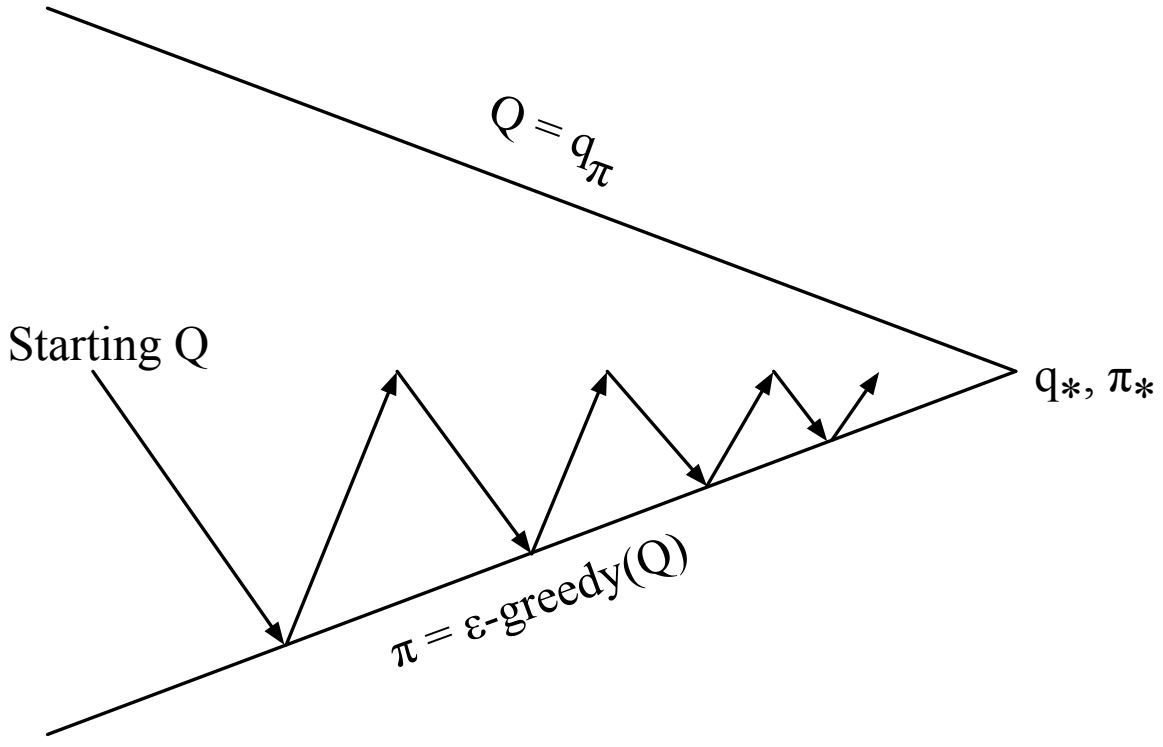
- Temporal-difference (TD) learning has several advantages over Monte-Carlo (MC)
  - Lower variance
  - Online
  - Incomplete sequences
- Natural idea: use TD instead of MC in our control loop
  - Apply TD to $Q(S, A)$
  - Use ϵ-greedy policy improvement
  - Update every time-step

Updating Action-Value Functions with Sarsa



$$Q(S,A) \leftarrow Q(S,A) + \alpha\left(R + \gamma Q(S',A') - Q(S,A)\right)$$

On-Policy Control With Sarsa



Every time-step:

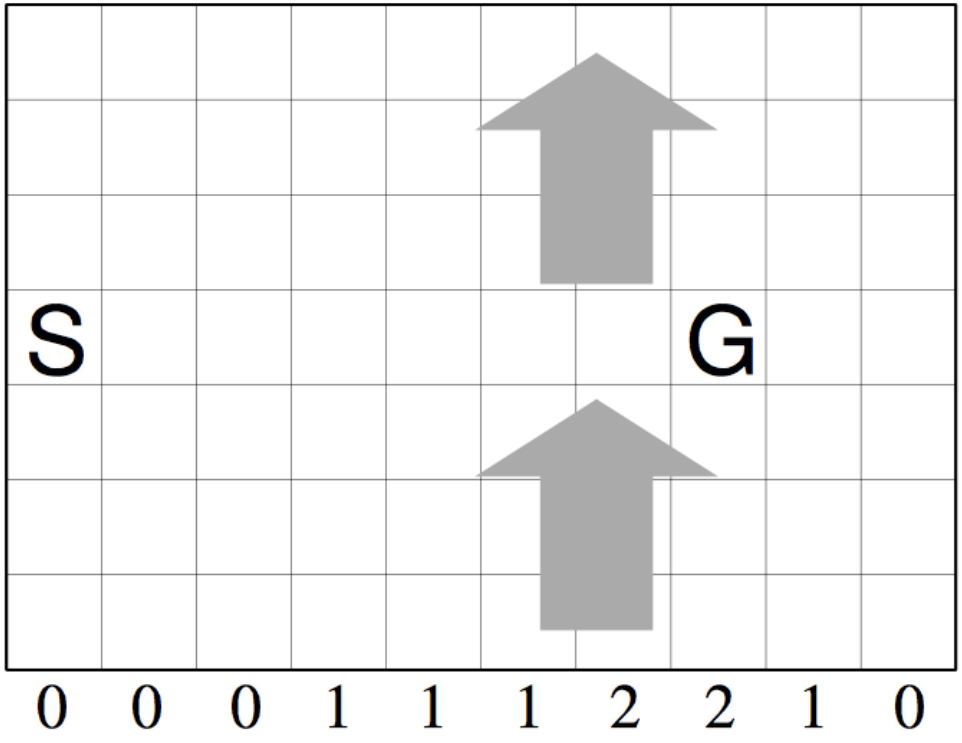
Policy evaluation Sarsa, $Q \approx q_\pi$

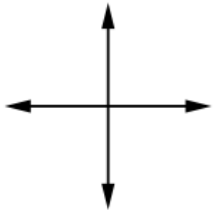
Policy improvement ϵ-greedy policy improvement

Sarsa Algorithm for On-Policy Control

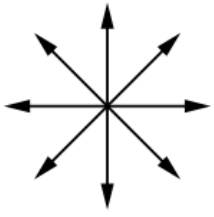
Initialize $Q(s,a), \forall s \in \mathcal{S}, a \in \mathcal{A}(s)$, arbitrarily, and $Q(\textit{terminal-state}, \cdot) = 0$
Repeat (for each episode):
  Initialize S
  Choose A from S using policy derived from Q (e.g., ε-greedy)
  Repeat (for each step of episode):
    Take action A, observe R, S'
    Choose A' from S' using policy derived from Q (e.g., ε-greedy)
    $Q(S,A) \leftarrow Q(S,A) + \alpha\big[R + \gamma Q(S',A') - Q(S,A)\big]$
    $S \leftarrow S'$; $A \leftarrow A'$;
  until S is terminal

Windy Gridworld Example





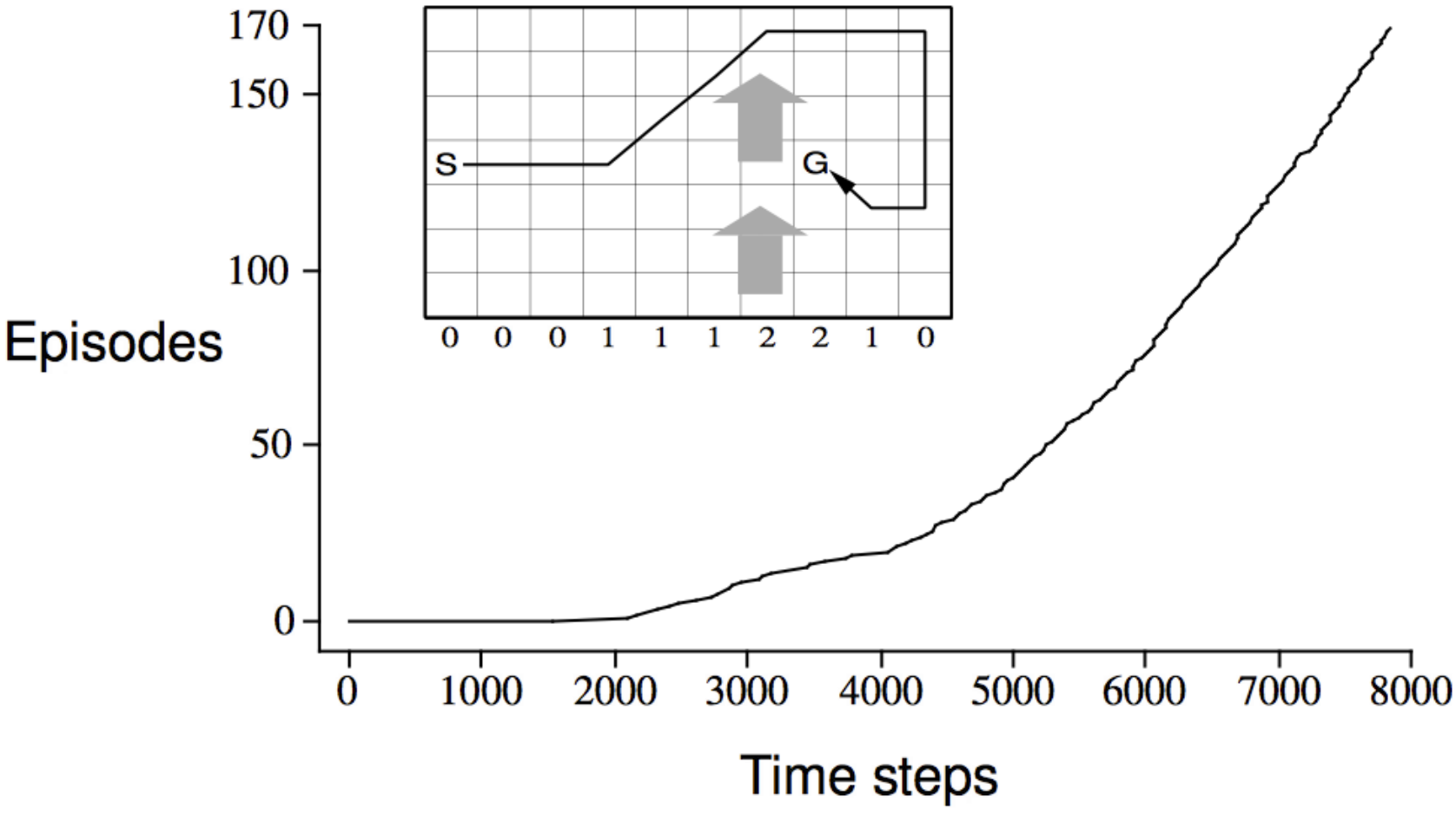
standard moves



king's moves

- Reward = -1 per time-step until reaching goal
- Undiscounted

Sarsa on the Windy Gridworld



Off-Policy Learning

- Evaluate target policy $\pi(a|s)$ to compute $v_\pi(s)$ or $q_\pi(s, a)$
- While following behaviour policy $\mu(a|s)$

$$\{S_1, A_1, R_2, ..., S_T\} \sim \mu$$

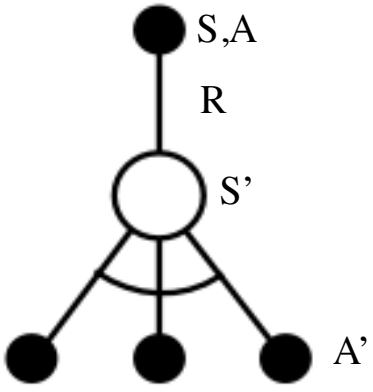
- Why is this important?
- Learn from observing humans or other agents
- Re-use experience generated from old policies $\pi_1, \pi_2, ..., \pi_{t-1}$
- Learn about *optimal* policy while following *exploratory* policy
- Learn about *multiple* policies while following *one* policy

Q-Learning

- We now consider off-policy learning of action-values $Q(s, a)$
- No importance sampling is required
- Next action is chosen using behaviour policy $A_{t+1} \sim \mu(\cdot|S_t)$
- But we consider alternative successor action $A' \sim \pi(\cdot|S_t)$
- And update $Q(S_t, A_t)$ towards value of alternative action

$$Q(S_t, A_t) \leftarrow Q(S_t, A_t) + \alpha \left(R_{t+1} + \gamma Q(S_{t+1}, A') - Q(S_t, A_t) \right)$$

Q-Learning Control Algorithm



$$Q(S,A) \leftarrow Q(S,A) + \alpha \left(R + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(S',a') - Q(S,A) \right)$$

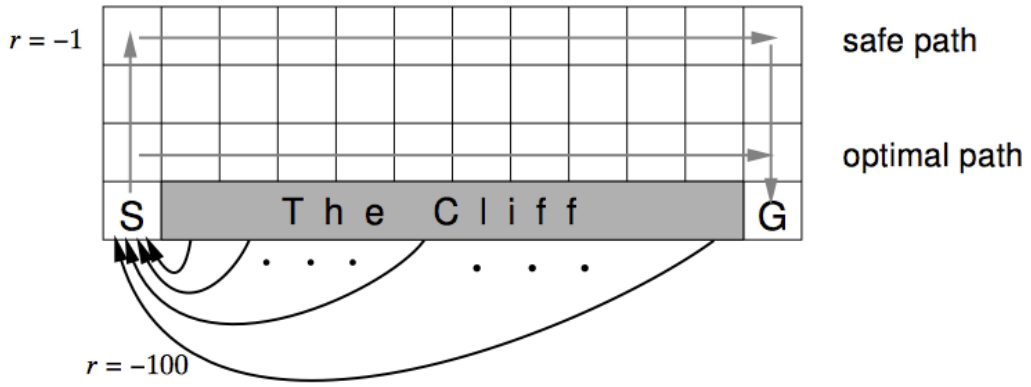
Theorem

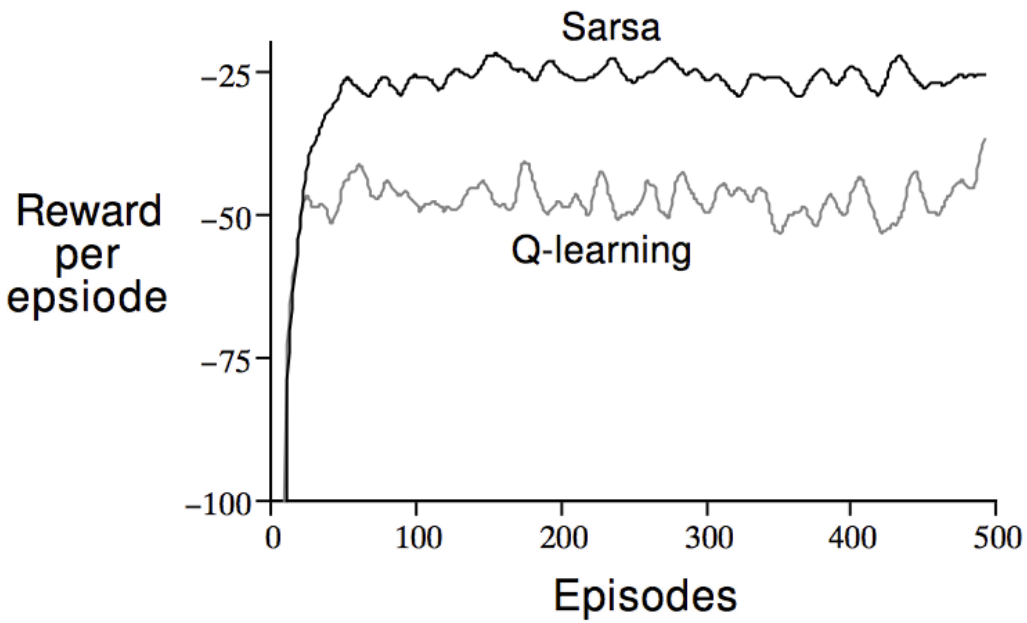
Q-learning control converges to the optimal action-value function, $Q(s,a) \rightarrow q_*(s,a)$

Q-Learning Algorithm for Off-Policy Control

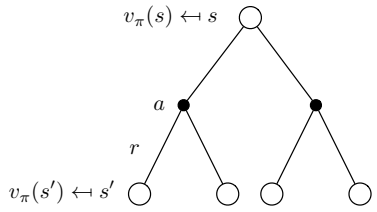
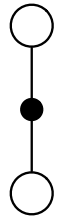
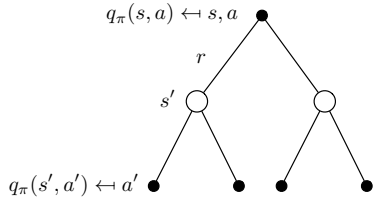
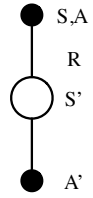
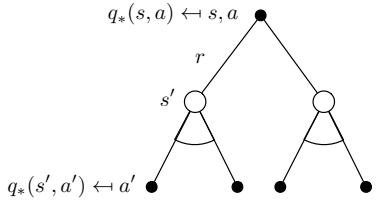
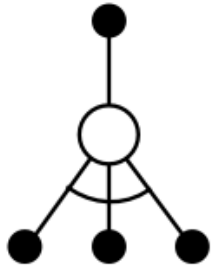
Initialize $Q(s,a), \forall s \in \mathcal{S}, a \in \mathcal{A}(s)$, arbitrarily, and $Q(\textit{terminal-state}, \cdot) = 0$
Repeat (for each episode):
  Initialize S
  Repeat (for each step of episode):
    Choose A from S using policy derived from Q (e.g., ε-greedy)
    Take action A, observe R, S'
    $Q(S,A) \leftarrow Q(S,A) + \alpha\big[R + \gamma \max_a Q(S',a) - Q(S,A)\big]$
    $S \leftarrow S'$;
  until S is terminal

Cliff Walking Example





Relationship Between DP and TD

	Full Backup (DP)	*Sample Backup (TD)*
Bellman Expectation Equation for $v_\pi(s)$	 Iterative Policy Evaluation	 TD Learning
Bellman Expectation Equation for $q_\pi(s,a)$	 Q-Policy Iteration	 Sarsa
Bellman Optimality Equation for $q_*(s,a)$	 Q-Value Iteration	 Q-Learning

Relationship Between DP and TD (2)

Full Backup (DP)	*Sample Backup (TD)*
Iterative Policy Evaluation	TD Learning
$V(s) \leftarrow \mathbb{E}\left[R + \gamma V(S') \mid s\right]$	$V(S) \overset{\alpha}{\leftarrow} R + \gamma V(S')$
Q-Policy Iteration	Sarsa
$Q(s,a) \leftarrow \mathbb{E}\left[R + \gamma Q(S',A') \mid s,a\right]$	$Q(S,A) \overset{\alpha}{\leftarrow} R + \gamma Q(S',A')$
Q-Value Iteration	Q-Learning
$Q(s,a) \leftarrow \mathbb{E}\left[R + \gamma \max_{a' \in \mathcal{A}} Q(S',a') \mid s,a\right]$	$Q(S,A) \overset{\alpha}{\leftarrow} R + \gamma \max_{a' \in \mathcal{A}} Q(S',a')$

where $x \overset{\alpha}{\leftarrow} y \equiv x \leftarrow x + \alpha(y - x)$

Questions?

The only stupid question is the one you were afraid to ask but never did.
-Rich Sutton

Thank You!