

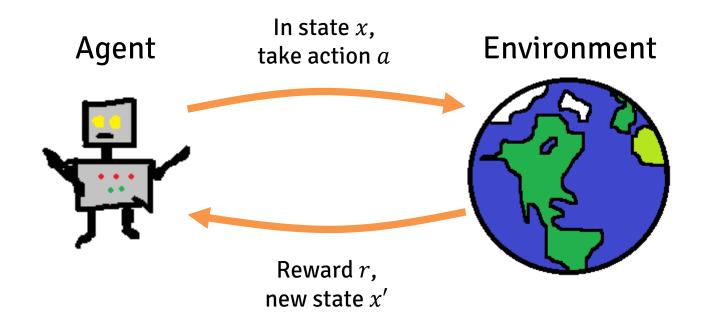
# REINFORCEMENT LEARNING

#### **Gergely Neu**



# Lecture 2: Dynamic Programming

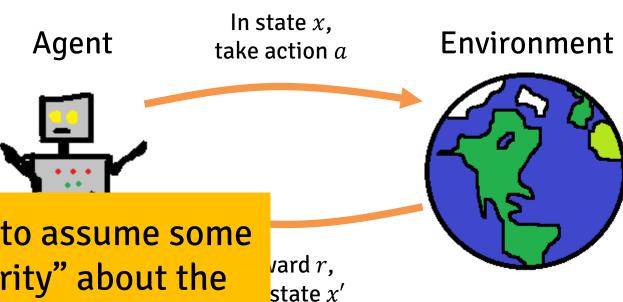
# WHAT IS REINFORCEMENT LEARNING?



maximize reward

- **Learning to** in a reactive environment
  - under partial feedback

#### WHAT IS REINFORCEMENT LEARNING?



We need to assume some "regularity" about the environment so that the agent can predict the evolution of the states

aximize reward a reactive environment der partial feedback

## **EVOLUTION OF THE STATES**

The states generally evolve according to the probability distribution

$$x_t \sim P(\cdot | x_{t-1}, a_{t-1}, x_{t-2}, a_{t-2}, \dots, x_0, a_0)$$

#### **Problems:**

- Long-term planning is intractable: too many paths!
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**Solution:** Markov assumption

#### **Assumption:**

$$x_t \sim P(\cdot \mid x_{t-1}, a_{t-1})$$



Andrey Markov (1856-1922)

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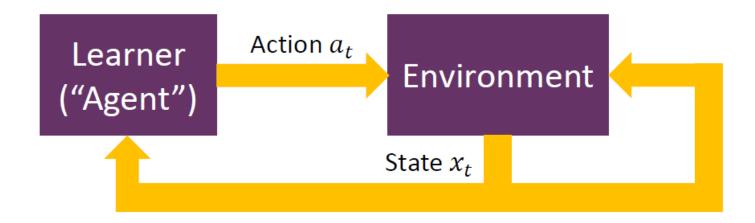
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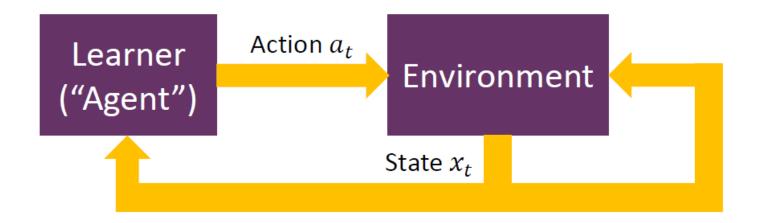


A Markov Decision Process (MDP) is characterized by

- X: a set of states
- A: a set of actions, possibly different in each state
- $P: X \times A \times X \rightarrow [0,1]$ : a transition function with  $P(\cdot | x, a)$  being the distribution of the next state given previous state x and action a:

$$P[x_{t+1} = x' | x_t = x, a_t = a] = P(x' | x, a)$$

•  $r: X \times A \rightarrow [0,1]$ : a reward function

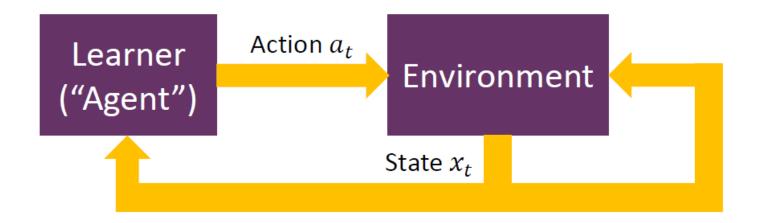


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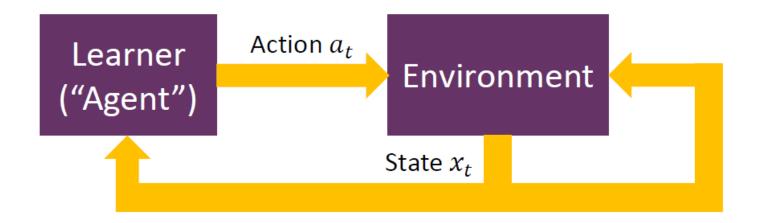
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A Markov Decision Process (MDP) is characterized by (X, A, P, r)Interaction in an MDP: in each round t = 1, 2, ...

- Agent observes state  $x_t$  and selects action  $a_t$
- Environment moves to state  $x_{t+1} \sim P(\cdot | x_t, a_t)$
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GOAL:
maximize "total rewards"!

#### **Episodic MDPs:**

- There is a terminal state  $x^*$
- •GOAL: maximize total reward until final round T when  $x^*$  is reached:

$$R^* = \mathbf{E}[\sum_{t=0}^T r_t]$$

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#### **Discounted MDPs:**

- No terminal state
- Discount factor  $\gamma \in (0,1)$
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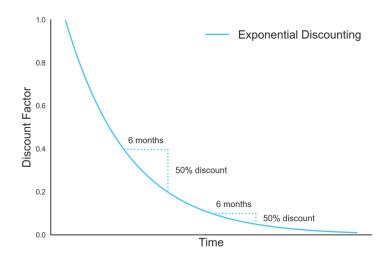
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### WHY DISCOUNT?

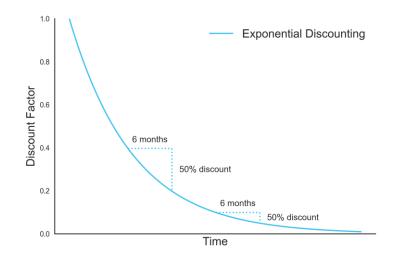
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#### WHY DISCOUNT?

- "Earlier rewards matter more"
- Well-motivated in economics
- Mathematically convenient: if  $r_t \in [0, R]$ , then

$$\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t r_t \le R \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t = \frac{R}{1 - \gamma}$$

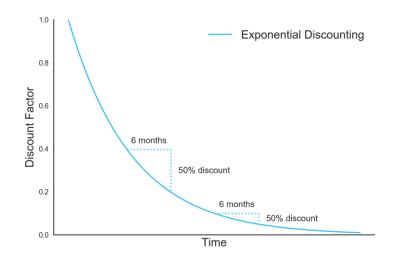


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- Discounted return blows up as  $\gamma \to 1$  and becomes harder to optimize
- The factor  $\frac{1}{1-\gamma}$  is sometimes called an "effective time horizon" as rewards after these many steps "don't matter too much"



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- 2. value functions and optimal policies
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Expectation under this distribution:  $\mathbf{E}_{\pi}[\cdot]$ 

**Optimal policy**  $\pi^*$ : a policy that maximizes

$$\mathbf{E}_{\pi}[R_{\gamma}] = \mathbf{E}_{\pi} \left[ \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{t} r_{t} \right]$$

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"Markov property"



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## **VALUE FUNCTIONS**

**Value function:** evaluates policy  $\pi$  starting from state x:

$$V^{\pi}(x) = \mathbf{E}_{\pi} \left[ \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t r_t \mid x_0 = x \right]$$

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"Optimal policy  $\pi^*$ =  $\underset{\pi}{\operatorname{arg max}} V^{\pi}(x_0)$ "

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The optimal value function:

$$V^* = V^{\pi^*}$$

## WHY IS THIS IMPORTANT?

 Previous result only establishes that for any initial state, there exists an optimal stationary policy

maximizing  $\mathbf{E}_{\pi}[R_{\gamma}]$ 

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An optimal policy  $\pi^*$  does not "make compromises"

# Dynamic Programming for discounted rewards

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Richard E. Bellman (1920-1984)



#### **Theorem**

The value function of a stationary policy  $\pi$  satisfies the system of equations ( $\forall x \in X$ )

$$V^{\pi}(x) = r(x, \pi(x)) + \gamma \sum_{y} P(y|x, \pi(x)) V^{\pi}(y)$$

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## THE BELLMAN OPTIMALITY EQUATIONS

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= greedy with respect to  $Q^*$ 

## SHORT SUMMARY SO FAR

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- The optimal policy through value functions
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## BUT HOW DO WE FIND THE OPTIMAL VALUE FUNCTION??

## EASY ANSWER FOR FINITE-HORIZON PROBLEMS

Bae: Come over

Dijkstra: But there are so many routes to take and

I don't know which one's the fastest

Bae: My parents aren't home

Dijkstra:

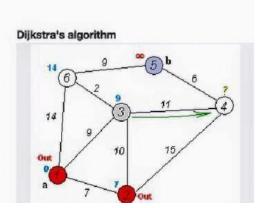
#### Dijkstra's algorithm

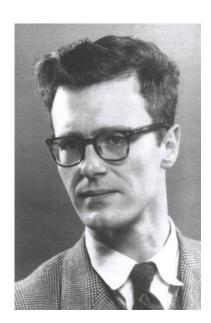
Graph search algorithm

Not to be confused with Dykstra's projection algorithm.

Dijkstra's algorithm is an algorithm for finding the shortest paths between nodes in a graph, which may represent, for example, road networks. It was conceived by computer scientist Edsger W. Dijkstra in 1956 and published three years later.[1][2]

The algorithm exists in many variants; Dijkstra's original variant found the shortest path between two nodes, [2] but a more common variant fixes a single node as the "source" node and finds shortest paths from the source to all other nodes in the graph, producing a shortest-path tree.





Edsger Dijkstra (1920-2002)

### BELLMAN AND DIJKSTRA

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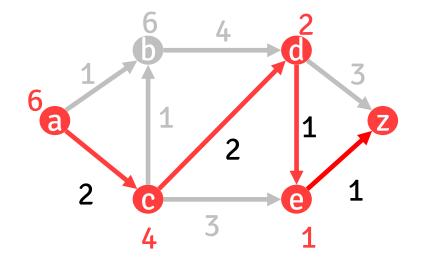
#### Dijkstra:

Cost-to-go = immediate cost

+ future cost-to-go

#### Bellman:

Value = immediate reward + expected future value



# Dynamic Programming for discounted rewards

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### DYNAMIC PROGRAMMING

### Dynamic programming

computing value functions through repeated use of the "Bellman operators"

#### Bellman operator $T^{\pi}$ :

maps a function  $f \in \mathbb{R}^X$  to another function  $g = T^{\pi}f \in \mathbb{R}^X$ :  $g(x) = (T^{\pi}f)(x) = r(x,\pi(x)) + \gamma \sum_{y} P(y|x,\pi(x))f(y)$ 

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 $V^{\pi}$  is the fixed point of  $T^{\pi}$ 

## POLICY EVALUATION USING THE BELLMAN OPERATOR



Idea: repeated application of  $T^{\pi}$  on any function  $V_0$  should converge to  $V^{\pi}$ ...

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Input: arbitrary  $V_0: X \to \mathbf{R}$  and  $\pi$ For  $k=1,2,\ldots$ , compute  $V_{k+1}=T^\pi V_k$ 

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For k = 1, 2, ..., compute

$$V_{k+1} = T^{\pi}V_k$$

Theorem:  $\lim_{k\to\infty}V_k=V^\pi$ 

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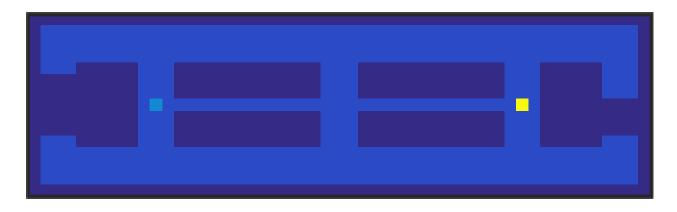
$$\begin{aligned} V_{k+1} &= r + \gamma P^{\pi} V_k = r + \gamma P^{\pi} (r + \gamma P^{\pi} V_{k-1}) \\ &= r + \gamma P^{\pi} r + (\gamma P^{\pi})^2 r + \dots + (\gamma P^{\pi})^k r \\ &= \sum_{k} (\gamma P^{\pi})^k r & \text{Geometric sum!} \\ &= (I - \gamma P^{\pi})^{-1} \cdot (I - (\gamma P^{\pi})^k) r & (\gamma P^{\pi})^k \to 0 \\ &\to (I - \gamma P^{\pi})^{-1} r & (k \to \infty) \end{aligned}$$

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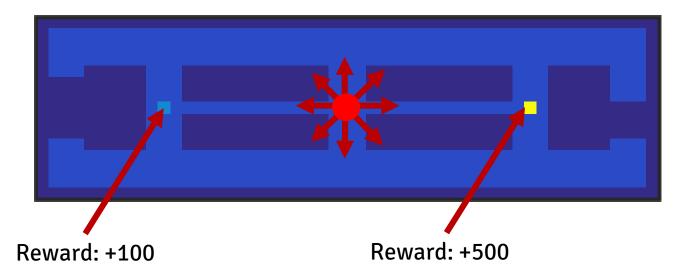
• The value function  $V^{\pi}$  satisfies

$$V^{\pi} = r + \gamma P^{\pi} V^{\pi} \iff V^{\pi} = (I - \gamma P^{\pi})^{-1} r$$

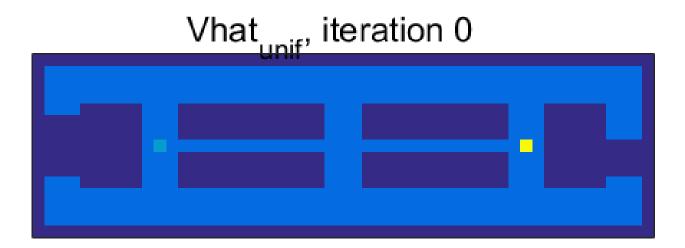




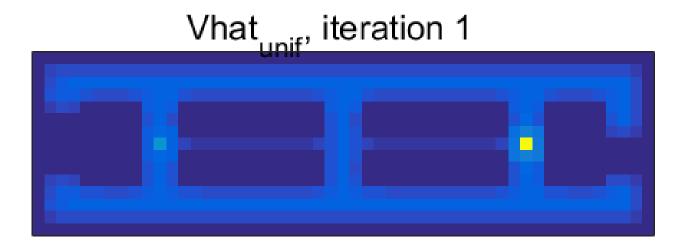
- State: location on the grid
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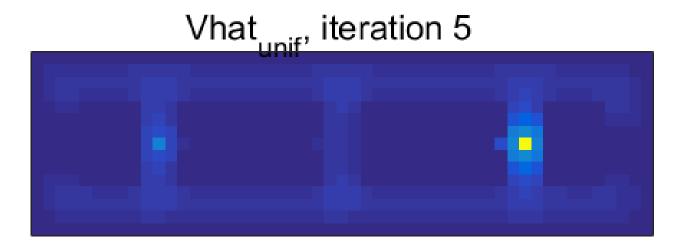
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$$\pi(a|x) = \frac{1}{9}$$
 for all actions  $a \in \{1, 2, ..., 9\}$ 

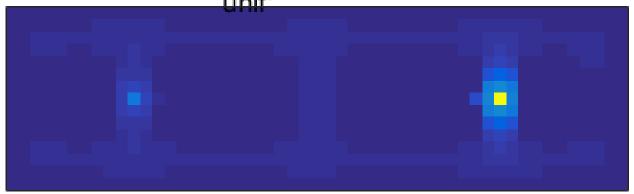


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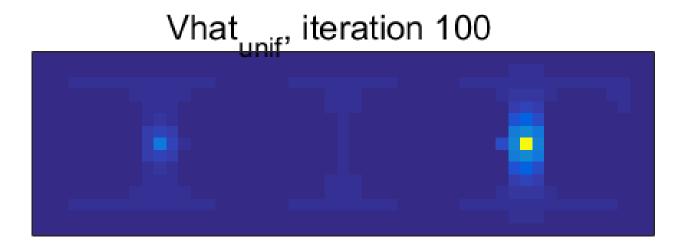


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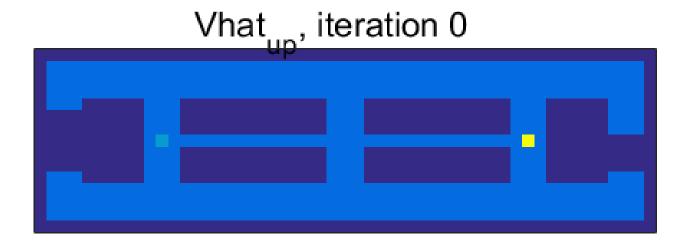




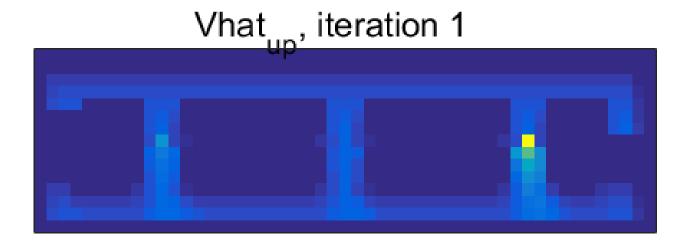
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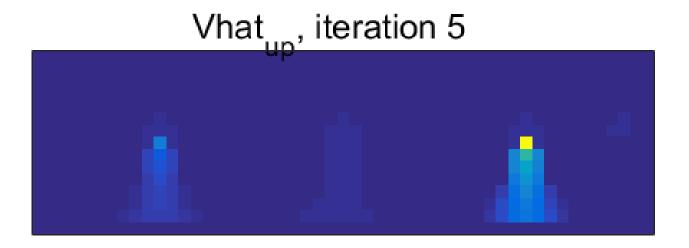
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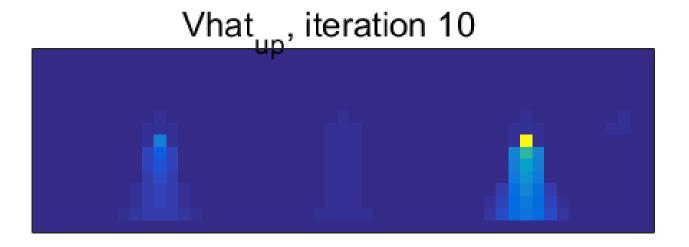
"Upwards" policy: 
$$\pi(up|x) = 1$$



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#### Bellman optimality operator $T^*$ :

maps a function  $f \in \mathbb{R}^X$  to another function  $g = T^*f \in \mathbb{R}^X$ :  $g(x) = (T^*f)(x) = \max_{a} \{r(x,a) + \gamma \sum_{y} P(y|x,a)f(y)\}$ 

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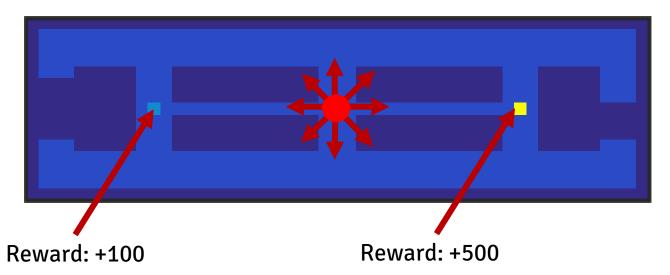
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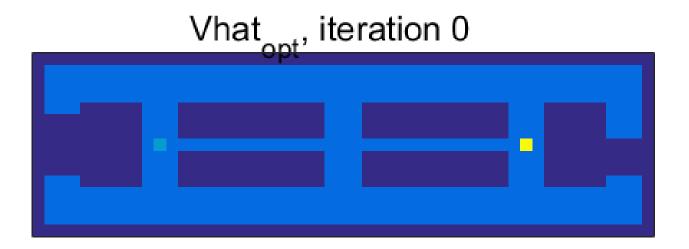
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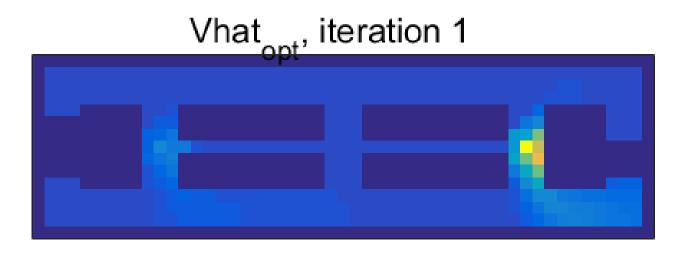
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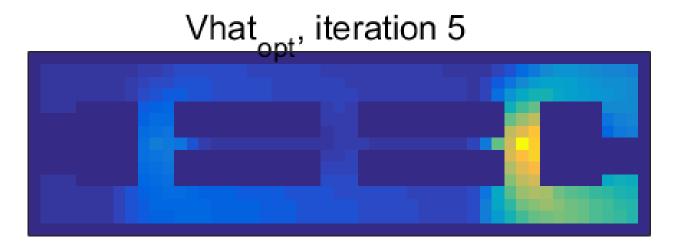
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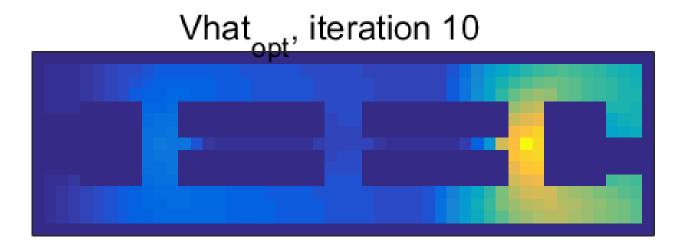


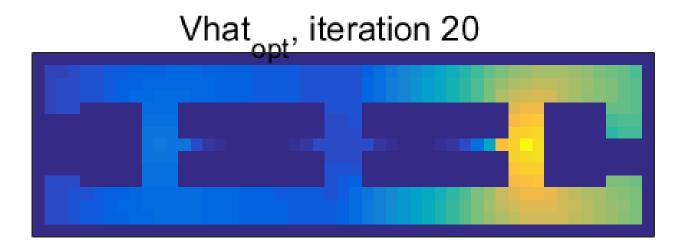
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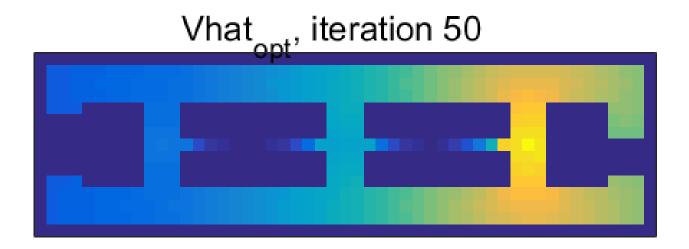


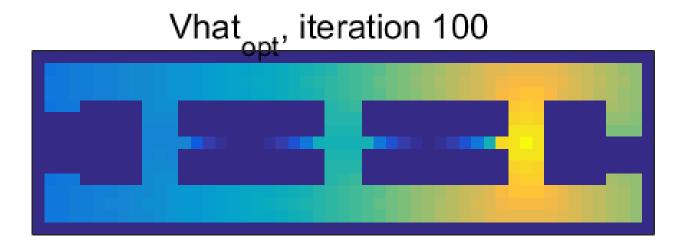


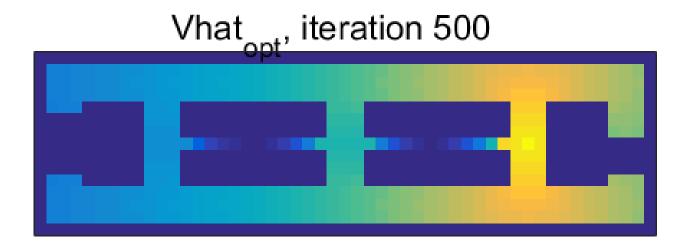


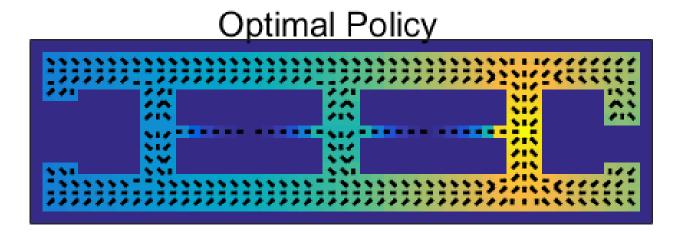












#### **Greedy policy** with respect to *V*:

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Recall:  $\pi^* = \pi_{V^*}$ 

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# THE CONVERGENCE OF MALLE ITERATION: PROOF SKETCH

Standard Revidea:  $T^*$  is a contraction  $B^*: f \mapsto (T^{\pi_f})^{\infty}$ 

Just replace  $T^*$  with the

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thus

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### **EPILOGUE**

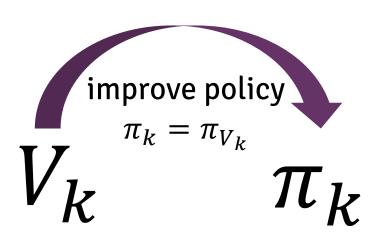
from
Dynamic Programming
to
Reinforcement Learning



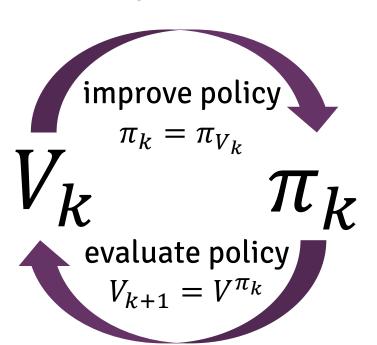
Policy iteration:

 $V_k$ 

#### Policy iteration:



#### Policy iteration:



Policy iteration: Approximate policy iteration:

