## Prediction with function approximation

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Machine and Reinforcement Learning in Control Applications

#### Introduction

- If the state space is large, then tabular methods are not implementable.
- Use function approximation
  - introduce weight vector  $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , with  $d \ll |\mathcal{S}|$ ;
  - approximate  $v_{\pi}(s)$  with  $\hat{v}(s, \mathbf{w})$ .
- Adjusting w changes the value to several states.
- Makes RL applicable to partially observable MDPs.

## Target update

- Several types of updates
  - MC update

$$S_t \mapsto G_t;$$

■ TD(0) update

$$S_t \mapsto R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1});$$

n-step TD update

$$S_t \mapsto G_{t:t+n};$$

DP update

$$S_t \mapsto \mathbb{E}_{\pi}[R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1})|S_t].$$

ullet With function approximation  $V(S_t)$  is substituted by

$$\hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_t).$$

- Use *supervised learning* to mimic input-output relations
  - need to deal with non-stationary relations.

## Prediction objective

- In tabular methods, an update at one state affected no other.
- Making a state's estimate better makes other less accurate.
- We need to specify which state we care most about
  - use a distribution  $\mu$  such that  $\mu(s) \ge 0$ ,  $\sum_s \mu(s) = 1$ ;
  - often  $\mu(s)$  is the fraction of time spent in s.
- The objective is to minimize the mean square value error

$$\overline{\mathsf{VE}}(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{s} \mu(s) (v_{\pi}(s) - \hat{v}(s, \mathbf{w}))^{2}.$$

Often just a local optimum is achievable.

## Gradient descent

- w is a vector of real valued numbers.
- $\hat{v}(s, \mathbf{w})$  is a real valued differentiable function.
- Assume that
  - states  $S_t$  are presented with distribution  $\mu$ ;
  - you can measure the true value  $v_{\pi}(S_t)$ .
- Update w using stochastic (one-sample) gradient descent

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+1} = \mathbf{w}_t - \frac{1}{2}\alpha\nabla(v_{\pi}(S_t) - \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_t))^2$$
  
=  $\mathbf{w}_t + \alpha(v_{\pi}(S_t) - \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_t))\nabla\hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_t),$ 

where  $\alpha$  is a small parameter and

$$\nabla \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w})}{\partial w_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w})}{\partial w_d} \end{bmatrix}^\top.$$

## Approximation of stochastic gradient descent

- Let  $U_t$  be a stochastic approximation of  $v_{\pi}(S_t)$ .
- The general SGD is then

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+1} = \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha (U_t - \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_t)) \nabla \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_t).$$

- If  $\mathbb{E}[U_t|S_t=s]=v_\pi(s)$  and  $\alpha$  satisfies the usual conditions  $\mathbf{w}_t$  converges to a local optimum.
- In general  $\alpha$  has to be small since moving toward a single sample may be detrimental for others.

## Gradient Monte Carlo algorithm

#### Gradient Monte Carlo algorithm

Input:  $\alpha > 0$ ,  $\hat{v}$ 

**Output:** approximate of  $v_{\pi}$ 

#### Initialization

 $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow$ arbitrarily

#### Loop

generate an episode following  $\pi$ :  $S_0, A_0, R_1, S_1, A_1, \ldots, R_T, S_T$   $G \leftarrow 0$ 

**for** each step t = T - 1, T - 2, ..., 0 **do** 

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

 $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + \alpha (G - \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w})) \nabla \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w})$ 

## Bootstrapping with function approximation

- MC SGD converges since  $U_t$  is an unbiased estimate of  $v_{\pi}$ .
- ullet By bootstrapping the target depends on  ${f w}_t$ 
  - the target is biased;
  - it is not a true SGD.
- $\bullet$  Account for changes on the estimate, but ignore changes on target caused by varied  $\mathbf{w}$ 
  - usually referred to as semi-gradient methods.

## Semi-gradient TD(0) algorithm

## Semi-gradient TD(0) algorithm

**Input:**  $\alpha > 0$ ,  $\hat{v}$  such that  $\hat{v}(\text{terminal}, \cdot) = 0$ **Output:** approximate of  $v_{\pi}$ 

#### Initialization

#### Loop

initialize S

for each step of the episode do

$$A \leftarrow \pi(\cdot|S)$$

take action A and observe R, S'

$$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + \alpha (R + \gamma \hat{v}(S', \mathbf{w}) - \hat{v}(S, \mathbf{w})) \nabla \hat{v}(S, \mathbf{w})$$

$$S \leftarrow S'$$

if S is terminal then

reinitialize the episode

### Linear methods

- ullet The approximate function is **linear** with respect to  ${f w}$ .
- Associate to every  $s \in \mathcal{S}$  a feature vector

$$\mathbf{x}(s) = [x_1(s) \quad \cdots \quad x_d(s)]^\top.$$

The approximate function is linear

$$\hat{v}(s, \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}(s).$$

The SGD reduces to a simple form

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+1} = \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha (U_t - \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_t)) \mathbf{x}(S_t).$$

## Convergence of linear methods

- The MC algorithm converges to the global optimum of VE.
- The TD algorithm update is

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+1} = \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha (R_{t+1} + \gamma \mathbf{w}_t^{\top} \mathbf{x}_{t+1} - \mathbf{w}_t^{\top} \mathbf{x}_t) \mathbf{x}_t$$
$$= \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha (R_{t+1} \mathbf{x}_t - \mathbf{x}_t (\mathbf{x}_t - \gamma \mathbf{x}_{t+1})^{\top} \mathbf{w}_t).$$

The expected next weight is

$$\mathbf{E}[\mathbf{w}_{t+1}|\mathbf{w}_t] = \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha(\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{w}_t),$$
 where  $\mathbf{b} = \mathbb{E}[R_{t+1}\mathbf{x}_t]$  and  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}_t(\mathbf{x}_t - \gamma\mathbf{x}_{t+1})^\top].$ 

If TD converges, it converges to

$$\mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{TD}} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{b}.$$

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Nonlinear methods

## Notes on linear TD methods

It can be proved that

$$\overline{\mathsf{VE}}(\mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{TD}}) \leqslant \frac{1}{1-\gamma} \min_{\mathbf{w}} \overline{\mathsf{VE}}(\mathbf{w}).$$

- Estimate may be biased.
- Variance is usually reduced with respect to MC.
- Can be extended to the *n*-step case.

## Least squares temporal-difference

ullet Compute estimates of  ${f A}$  and  ${f b}$  and directly compute  ${f w}_{
m TD}$ 

$$\hat{\mathbf{A}}_t = \sum_{k=0}^{t-1} \mathbf{x}_k (\mathbf{x}_k - \gamma \mathbf{x}_{k+1})^\top + \epsilon I,$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{b}}_t = \sum_{k=0}^{t-1} R_{k+1} \mathbf{x}_k,$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}}_t = \hat{\mathbf{A}}_t^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{b}}_t.$$

• Note that, letting  $\hat{\mathbf{A}}_0^{-1} = \epsilon^{-1}\mathbf{I}$ ,

$$\hat{\mathbf{A}}_{t}^{-1} = \hat{\mathbf{A}}_{t-1}^{-1} - \frac{\hat{\mathbf{A}}_{t-1}^{-1} \mathbf{x}_{t-1} (\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \gamma \mathbf{x}_{t})^{\top} \hat{\mathbf{A}}_{t-1}^{-1}}{1 + (\mathbf{x}_{t-1} - \gamma \mathbf{x}_{t})^{\top} \hat{\mathbf{A}}_{t-1}^{-1} \mathbf{x}_{t-1}}.$$

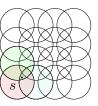
- Complexity  $O(d^2)$  vs O(d).
- Does not require a step size.

### Feature selection

- Choosing features appropriate to the task is an important way of adding prior domain knowledge.
- The features should correspond to the aspects of the state space along which generalization may be appropriate.
- Linear forms cannot take into account any interactions between features if coded separately.

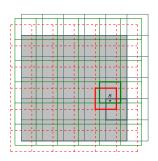
#### **Features**

- Polynomials:  $s_1, s_2, s_1^2, s_2^2, s_1 s_2, \dots$ 
  - grows exponentially with the dimension of the state space.
- Fourier basis:  $\cos(i\pi s)$ ,  $s \in [0,1]$ 
  - useful for periodic functions or bounded domains;
  - if approximating over  $[0, \frac{\tau}{2}]$ , you can just use cosines;
  - grows exponentially with the dimension of the state space.
- Coarse coding: features  $\mathbf{x} \in \{0, 1\}$ 
  - each circle has a corresponding weight;
  - the weights of all circles intersecting a state are affected;
  - large feature give broad generalizations;
  - acuity is controlled by the total number of features.



## Tile coding

- Use partitions of the state space
  - *e.g.*, grids.
- Overlapping receptive fields
  - tiles of a partition do not overlap.
- Exactly one feature in each tiling.
- Best generalization if offset asymmetrically.
- It may be desirable to use different shaped tiles in different tilings.
- Hashing may reduce the curse of dimensionality.



- Generalization of coarse coding.
- ullet Feature can be anything in the interval [0,1].
- Usually Gaussian shaped functions

$$x_i(s) = \exp\left(-\frac{\|s - c_i\|^2}{\sigma_i^2}\right).$$

- Differentiable approximate functions.
- Greater computational complexity.

Nonlinear methods

## Step-size

Theoretically the step-size should decrease slowly

$$\alpha_t = \frac{1}{t}$$
.

A good rule of thumb for setting the step-size parameter is

$$\alpha = (\tau \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{x}])^{-1},$$

where  $\mathbf{x} \simeq \mu$ .

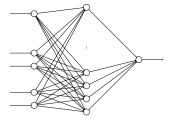
• In tile coding, a reasonable choice is

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{10n},$$

where n is the number of tiles.

### Feedforward neural networks

- No loops in the network.
- A real-valued weight is associated with each link.
- The units compute a weighted sum of their inputs and then apply their activation function.
- With one hidden layer, universal approximation.
- Deeper architectures are capable of more general abstraction.
- Gradient computed via back-propagation.



# Memory-based function approximation

- Non-parametric approach.
- Store samples as they are gathered
  - without updating any parameter.
- Combine samples to output estimated values for query state
  - retrieve samples from memory whose states are judged to be the most relevant to the query state;
  - local approximation discarded after evaluation.
- The simplest forms are
  - nearest neighborhood: return value of closest state;
  - weighted average: locally fits a function.
- Approximation improves as more samples are gathered
  - but requires particular data structures.
- Do not rely on particular functional forms.

- In weighted average, distance is used to measure influence.
- We can use a kernel k(s, s') to measure the strength of generalization from s to s', e.g.,

$$k(s, s') = \exp\left(-\frac{\|s - s'\|^2}{\sigma^2}\right).$$

• Letting  $\mathcal{D}$  be the stored data and q the corresponding value

$$\hat{v}(s, \mathcal{D}) = \sum_{s' \in \mathcal{D}} g(s')k(s, s').$$

• The kernel  $k(s, s') = \mathbf{x}^{\top}(s)\mathbf{x}(s')$  produces the same approximation of the corresponding linear method.

## Adapting eligibility traces to function approximation

- Eligibility traces can be used with function approximation.
- In the off-line  $\lambda$ -return algorithm, at the end of the episode, a sequence of off-line updates are made according to

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+1} = \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha (G_t^{\lambda} - \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_t)) \nabla \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_t).$$

- Eligibility traces are vectors  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  that constitute a short-term memory.
- They affect the weight vector, and then the weight vector determines the estimated value.

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Nonlinear methods

# $\mathsf{TD}(\lambda)$ with function approximation

• In TD( $\lambda$ ), z is updated as

$$\mathbf{z}_{-1} = 0,$$
  
$$\mathbf{z}_{t} = \gamma \lambda \mathbf{z}_{t-1} + \nabla \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_t).$$

The TD error for state-value prediction is

$$\delta_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma \hat{v}(S_{t+1}, \mathbf{w}_t) - \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_t).$$

The weight vector is updated as

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+1} = \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha \delta \mathbf{z}_t.$$

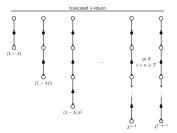
ullet It can be proved that linear  $\mathsf{TD}(\lambda)$  converges to  $\mathbf{w}_\infty$  such that

$$\overline{\mathsf{VE}}(\mathbf{w}_{\infty}) \leqslant \frac{1 - \gamma \lambda}{1 - \gamma} \min_{\mathbf{w}} \overline{\mathsf{VE}}(\mathbf{w}).$$

## Truncated $\lambda$ -return

- The  $\lambda$ -return is not known until the end of the episode.
- Dependence is weaker for delayed rewards, falling by  $\gamma\lambda$ .
- Define the truncated  $\lambda$ -return

$$G_{t:h}^{\lambda} = (1 - \lambda) \sum_{n=1}^{t-n-1} \lambda^{n-1} G_{t:t+n} + \lambda^{t-h-1} G_{t:h}.$$



Nonlinear methods

#### Notes on the truncated $\lambda$ -return

- Updates are delayed by n steps and only take into account the first n rewards.
- All the k-step returns are included for  $1 \leqslant k \leqslant n$ .
- ullet The longest component update is at most n steps.
- TTD( $\lambda$ ) is then defined as

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+n} = \mathbf{w}_{t+n-1} + \alpha \left( G_{t:t+n}^{\lambda} + \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_{t+n-1}) \right) \nabla \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_{t+n-1}),$$

where

$$G_{t:t+k}^{\lambda} = \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_{t-1}) + \sum_{i=t}^{t+k-1} (\gamma \lambda)^{i-t} \delta_i',$$
  
$$\delta_t' = R_{t+1} + \gamma \hat{v}(S_{t+1}, \mathbf{w}_t) - \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_{t-1}).$$

## Redoing updates

- In order to obtain an on-line algorithm, we must redo updates.
- Always use the latest horizon
  - in each pass over the episode, use a slightly longer horizon.
- Given h steps of the episode, the update at  $0 \le t \le h \le T$  is

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+1}^h = \mathbf{w}_t^h + \alpha (G_{t:h}^{\lambda} - \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_t^h)) \nabla \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_t)$$

This update, together with

$$\mathbf{w}_t = \mathbf{w}_t^t$$

defines the *online*  $\lambda$ -return algorithm.

## Updates in the online $\lambda$ -return algorithm

- ullet  $\mathbf{w}_0^h$  are the weights from the end of the previous episode.
- The updates at each step of the episode are

$$h = 1: \quad \mathbf{w}_{1}^{1} = \mathbf{w}_{0}^{1} + \alpha(G_{0:1}^{\lambda} - \hat{v}(S_{0}, \mathbf{w}_{0}^{1}))\nabla\hat{v}(S_{0}, \mathbf{w}_{0}^{1}),$$

$$h = 2: \quad \mathbf{w}_{1}^{2} = \mathbf{w}_{0}^{2} + \alpha(G_{0:2}^{\lambda} - \hat{v}(S_{0}, \mathbf{w}_{0}^{2}))\nabla\hat{v}(S_{0}, \mathbf{w}_{0}^{2}),$$

$$\mathbf{w}_{2}^{2} = \mathbf{w}_{1}^{2} + \alpha(G_{1:2}^{\lambda} - \hat{v}(S_{1}, \mathbf{w}_{1}^{2}))\nabla\hat{v}(S_{1}, \mathbf{w}_{1}^{2}),$$

$$h = 2: \quad \mathbf{w}_{1}^{3} = \mathbf{w}_{0}^{3} + \alpha(G_{0:3}^{\lambda} - \hat{v}(S_{0}, \mathbf{w}_{0}^{3}))\nabla\hat{v}(S_{0}, \mathbf{w}_{0}^{3}),$$

$$\mathbf{w}_{2}^{3} = \mathbf{w}_{1}^{3} + \alpha(G_{1:3}^{\lambda} - \hat{v}(S_{1}, \mathbf{w}_{1}^{3}))\nabla\hat{v}(S_{1}, \mathbf{w}_{1}^{3}),$$

$$\mathbf{w}_{3}^{3} = \mathbf{w}_{2}^{3} + \alpha(G_{2:3}^{\lambda} - \hat{v}(S_{2}, \mathbf{w}_{2}^{3}))\nabla\hat{v}(S_{2}, \mathbf{w}_{2}^{3}).$$

# True online $TD(\lambda)$

ullet The online  $\lambda$ -return algorithm generates the weights

• With linear approximation, the *true online*  $TD(\lambda)$  algorithm

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+1} = \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha \delta_t \mathbf{z}_t + \alpha (\mathbf{w}_t^{\top} \mathbf{x}_t - \mathbf{w}_{t-1}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_t) (\mathbf{z}_t - \mathbf{x}_t),$$

where

$$\mathbf{z}_t = \gamma \lambda \mathbf{z}_{t-1} + (1 - \alpha \gamma \lambda \mathbf{z}_{t-1}^{\top} \mathbf{x}_t) \mathbf{x}_t,$$

produce exactly the same sequence of weight vectors.

## True online $\mathsf{TD}(\lambda)$ algorithm

## True online $TD(\lambda)$ algorithm

```
Input: \alpha > 0, \lambda > 0, basis \mathbf{x} such that \mathbf{x}(terminal) = 0, policy \pi
Output: approximate of v_{\pi}
Initialization
    w ←arbitrarily
Loop
    initialize S and obtain initial feature vector x
    z \leftarrow 0
    V_{\text{old}} \leftarrow 0
   for each step of the episode do
           A \leftarrow \pi(\cdot|S)
           take action \hat{A} and observe R.\mathbf{x}'
           V \leftarrow \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}
           V' \leftarrow \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}'
           \delta \leftarrow R + \gamma V' - V
           \mathbf{z} \leftarrow \gamma \lambda \mathbf{z} + (1 - \alpha \gamma \lambda \mathbf{z}^{\top} \mathbf{x}) \mathbf{x}
           \mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + \alpha(\delta + V - V_{\text{old}})\mathbf{z} - \alpha(V - V_{\text{old}})\mathbf{x}
           V_{\text{old}} \leftarrow V'
           \mathbf{x} \leftarrow \mathbf{x}'
           if \mathbf{x}' = 0 then
                  reinitialize the episode
```