## Statistical Machine Learning (BE4M33SSU) Lecture 13: Reinforcement Learning

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## **Overview**

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Topics covered in the lecture:

- Reinforcement Learning problem
- Markov Decision Processes (MDPs)
- Methods based on dynamic programming
- Sampling methods: Monte Carlo, Temporal Differences
- SARSA and Q-learning
- Value function approximation

#### Resources

Sutton and Barto: An Introduction to Reinforcement Learning, 1998

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• second edition draft free to download:

https://webdocs.cs.ualberta.ca/~sutton/book/the-book.html

David Silver: UCL Course on RL:

http://www0.cs.ucl.ac.uk/staff/d.silver/web/Teaching.html

Szepesvári: Algorithms for Reinforcement Learning, 2010

• available free: https://sites.ualberta.ca/~szepesva/RLBook.html

## What is Reinforcement Learning?



- Tasks: robot control, game playing, managing investments
- No supervisor, just reward signal
- Feedback is often delayed
- Time matters: no i.i.d. data, e.g., what robot sees is correlated with what it has seen a second before
- Agent takes actions  $\rightarrow$  influences the environment  $\rightarrow$  influences data it receives in future





Sutton and Barto: An Introduction to Reinforcement Learning, draft of the 2nd ed., 2016

- *Discrete* timesteps
- Signal  $S_t$  is a *representation* of environment's state
- Action  $A_t$  leads to a reward  $R_{t+1}$  and a new state  $S_{t+1}$
- The sequence goes:  $S_0, A_0, R_1, \ldots, S_t, A_t, R_{t+1}, S_{t+1}, A_{t+1}, \ldots$
- Note that rewards may be delayed many steps from actions which caused them!

## **Markov Property**



 When a state depends only on a previous state and an action taken (not on a whole history):

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 $\mathbb{P}(S_{t+1} \mid S_t, A_t) = \mathbb{P}(S_{t+1} \mid S_0, A_0, R_1, S_1, A_1, R_2, \dots, R_t, S_t, A_t)$ 

we say it has a *Markov property* (we use also terms like *Markov state*, *Markovian task*, etc.)

- Agent does not need to keep any internal state (memory) to act optimally
- Methods in the following slides assume Markov state signals only, although they are often applied to Markovian approximations of non-Markovian tasks in practice

## Markov Decision Process (MDP)



**Definition 1.** A finite Markov Decision Process is a tuple  $\langle S, A, P, R, \gamma \rangle$ 

- $\bullet$  *S* is a finite set of states
- iglet  $\mathcal{A}$  is a finite set of actions,  $\mathcal{A}(s)$  are actions available at  $s\in\mathcal{S}$
- *P* defines state transition probabilities:

$$\mathcal{P}^{a}_{ss'} = \mathbb{P}\left(S_{t+1} = s' \mid S_t = s, A_t = a\right)$$

 $\blacktriangleright \mathcal{R}$  is a reward function:

$$\mathcal{R}_s^a = \mathbb{E}\left(R_{t+1} \mid S_t = s, A_t = a\right)$$

•  $\gamma \in [0, 1]$  is a discount factor

Only stationary tasks covered here: the probabilities do not change in time



**Definition 2.** A policy  $\pi$  is a distribution:

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

- Defines agent's behavior
- MDP policies depend on the current state not on a history

**Policy** 

• Deterministic policy:  $a = \pi(s)$ 

#### Return



**Definition 3.** The return  $G_t$  is the total discounted reward from time-step t:

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

• The discount  $\gamma \in [0, 1]$  is the present value of the future rewards

• The value of receiving reward R after k+1 steps is  $\gamma^k R$ 

## Why Discount?

- Mathematically convenient
  - $G_t$  converges for  $R_t$  bounded and  $\gamma \in [0, 1)$
- Humans prefer immediate rewards
- Lower discount when we do not trust the model
- Undiscounted returns ( $\gamma = 1$ ) may be used when all sequences terminate: *episodic tasks*



#### **Value Functions**



**Definition 4.** The state-value function  $v_{\pi}(s)$  is the expected return of starting in state s and following policy  $\pi$ :

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

**Definition 5.** The action-value function  $q_{\pi}(s, a)$  is the expected return of starting in state s, taking action a and following policy  $\pi$ :

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

- The task of Reinforcement Learning is to find a policy which maximizes the expected return
- Note that the subscripts used in expected values denote that the policy  $\pi$  is used, not that we sum over policies!

## **Value Function Decomposition**



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

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The action-value function can be similarly decomposed to:

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

#### **Bellman Expectation Equations**



We can convert between the *state-value* and *action-value* functions:

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

hence we can get recursive equations:

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

♦ We call these equations the Bellman expectation equations
 ♦ For a state-value function v<sub>π</sub>(s), s ∈ S we have a system of |S| simultaneous linear equations in |S| unknowns

#### **Optimal Value Functions**



**Definition 6.** The optimal state-value function  $v_*(s)$  is the maximum value function over all policies:

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

**Definition 7.** *Similarly the optimal action-value function is:* 

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

## **Optimal Policy**



**Definition 8.** *Partial ordering over all policies:* 

$$\pi \geq \pi'$$
 if and only if  $v_{\pi}(s) \geq v_{\pi'}(s), \ \forall s \in S$ 

For any MDP:

- there exists at least one optimal policy  $\pi_* \geq \pi, \forall \pi$
- it achieves the optimal state-value function:  $v_{\pi_*}(s) = v_*(s)$
- and the optimal action-value function:  $q_{\pi_*}(s, a) = q_*(s, a)$

An optimal greedy policy can be found:

$$\pi_*(a|s) = \mathbb{I}\left\{a = \operatorname*{argmax}_{a' \in \mathcal{A}} q_*(s, a')\right\}$$

Knowing q<sub>\*</sub>(s, a) gives us immediately the optimal policy π<sub>\*</sub>(a|s)!
 There is always a deterministic optimal policy for any MDP

## **Bellman Optimality Equations**

For optimal value functions we have:

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

hence:

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

We call these equations the Bellman optimality equations
 The equations are non-linear ⇒ generally no closed form solution
 Iterative methods are used to get approximate solutions in practice



## **Policy Evaluation**

- Dynamic programming approach to evaluate  $v_{\pi}$ : 1. initialize (e.g. randomize)  $v_1$ , iteration k = 1
  - 2. use Bellman Expectation equation to update

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

- 3.  $k \leftarrow k+1$
- 4. go to 2 until convergenece (e.g.,  $\max_{s} |v_k(s) v_{k-1}(s)|$  is less than a threshold)
- The algorithm generates a sequence  $v_1 \rightarrow v_2 \rightarrow \ldots \rightarrow v_{\pi}$
- All one-step transitions from s involved: full backup
- Policy evaluation for action-value function  $q_{\pi}(s, a)$  is analogous
- Convergence proof using contraction mapping theorem (see Szepesvári)
- Asynchronous version is possible and converges too



## **Policy Improvement**



• Define a new greedy policy w.r.t. to the actual value function:

$$\pi'(s) = \operatorname*{argmax}_{a} q_{\pi}(s, a)$$

Using the greedy policy for just one step leads to an improvement:

$$q_{\pi}(s, \pi'(s)) = \max_{a} q_{\pi}(s, a) \ge q_{\pi}(s, \pi(s)) = v_{\pi}(s)$$

Let us show that improvement holds for more than one step:

$$v_{\pi}(s) \leq q_{\pi}(s, \pi'(s)) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi'}(R_{t+1} + \gamma v_{\pi}(S_{t+1}) \mid S_{t} = s)$$
  

$$\leq \mathbb{E}_{\pi'}(R_{t+1} + \gamma q_{\pi}(S_{t+1}, \pi'(S_{t+1})) \mid S_{t} = s)$$
  

$$\leq \mathbb{E}_{\pi'}(R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \gamma^{2}q_{\pi}(S_{t+2}, \pi'(S_{t+2})) \mid S_{t} = s)$$
  

$$\leq \mathbb{E}_{\pi'}(R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \dots \mid S_{t} = s) = v_{\pi'}(s)$$



## **Policy Improvement (contd.)**



$$q_{\pi}(s, \pi'(s)) = \max_{a} q_{\pi}(s, a) = q_{\pi}(s, \pi(s)) = v_{\pi}(s)$$

it means Bellman optimality equation was satisfied:

$$v_{\pi}(s) = \max_{a} q_{\pi}(s, a)$$

and therefore the optimal policy was found:  $v_{\pi}(s) = v_*(s)$ ,  $\forall s \in \mathcal{S}$ 

- For stochastic policies:
  - assign a portion of probability to each maximizing action,
  - set zero to all other activities



## **Policy Iteration**



- Initial policy is iteratively improved by repeating the following two steps:
  - Evaluate value function  $v_{\pi_k}$  for the actual policy  $\pi_k$  using the policy evaluation
  - Improve the policy using the *policy improvement*:
     π<sub>k+1</sub> = greedy(v<sub>πk</sub>)

• We get a chain of monotonically improving policies and value functions:

$$\pi_1 \xrightarrow{E} v_{\pi_1} \xrightarrow{I} \pi_2 \xrightarrow{E} v_{\pi_2} \xrightarrow{I} \pi_3 \xrightarrow{E} \dots \xrightarrow{I} \pi_* \xrightarrow{E} v_{\pi_*}$$

 Finite MDP ⇒ finite number of policies ⇒ finite number of iterations



#### **Grid World Example**





Sutton and Barto: An Introduction to Reinforcement Learning, draft of the 2nd ed., 2016



## Grid World Example (contd.)





Sutton and Barto: An Introduction to Reinforcement Learning, draft of the 2nd ed., 2016



## Grid World Example (contd.)



Sutton and Barto: An Introduction to Reinforcement Learning, draft of the 2nd ed., 2016

#### **Value Iteration**

- Do we really need to exactly evaluate value  $v_k$ ?
- Idea: truncate policy evaluation
- Truncation to single step  $\rightarrow$  value iteration:

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

 Note that the above value iteration update replaces the sum over all actions by maximum in the policy evaluation update



## **Monte-Carlo Prediction**



- Evaluates value functions with no prior knowledge of the environment's dynamics (transitions, rewards)
- Based on averaging sampled returns
- Limited to episodic tasks (termination needed)
- *First-visit* Monte-Carlo policy evaluation:
  - the **first** time t a state s is visited in episode:
  - increment counter:  $N(s) \leftarrow N(s) + 1$
  - increment total return:  $S(s) \leftarrow S(s) + G_t$
  - estimate value: V(s) = S(s)/N(s)
  - Convergence by law of large numbers:  $V(s) \rightarrow v_{\pi}(s)$  as  $N(s) \rightarrow \infty$

Other possibility: every-visit Monte-Carlo policy evaluation



## Monte-Carlo Prediction (contd.)

• Use moving average:  $\mu_k = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k x_i = \mu_{k-1} + \frac{1}{k} (x_k - \mu_{k-1})$ 

• Update after each episode is then:

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

• Getting 
$$q_{\pi}(s, a)$$
 estimates  $Q(s, a)$  is analogous

- What if not all needed states/actions are visited (e.g., when  $\pi$  is a deterministic policy)?  $\rightarrow$  we will deal with that later
- For non-stationary problems we typically *forget*:

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

No bootstraping: an estimate for a state is not build upon other state estimates (DP methods did this)

## **Temporal Difference (TD) Prediction**



 Temporal Difference (TD) methods can learn from incomplete episodes by *bootstrapping*

• MC updates toward an actual return  $G_t$ :

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

• TD(0) algorithm updates toward an estimated return  $R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1})$ :

$$V(S_t) \leftarrow V(S_t) + \alpha (\begin{array}{c} R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1}) \\ -V(S_t) \end{array})$$

R<sub>t+1</sub> + γV(S<sub>t+1</sub>) is called the *TD target* δ<sub>t</sub> = R<sub>t+1</sub> + γV(S<sub>t+1</sub>) - V(S<sub>t</sub>) is called the *TD error*

## TD vs. MC

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- TD can learn from incomplete sequences
  - TD can learn online after every step ⇒ works in continuing (non-terminating) environments
  - MC must wait until an episode ends and its return is known ⇒ works for episodic (terminating) environments only
- Convergence
  - TD is faster in practice (but still no theoretical results)
  - MC has good convergence properties (even with value function approximation)
  - TD(0) converges to  $v_{\pi}(s)$  (not always with function approximation)
  - MC not sensitive to initial values
  - TD sensitive

#### **Monte-Carlo Backup**



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



#### **Temporal-Difference Backup**



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







## $\mathsf{TD}(\lambda)$

## Consider *n*-step returns:

$$G_t^{(n)} = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \ldots + \gamma^{n-1} R_{t+n} + \gamma^n V(S_{t+n})$$

Note that G<sub>t</sub><sup>(1)</sup> is a target for TD(0), while G<sub>t</sub><sup>(∞)</sup> a target for MC
 TD(λ) prediction combines all G<sub>t</sub><sup>(n)</sup> using weighted average:

$$G_t^{\lambda} = (1 - \lambda) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda^{n-1} G_t^{(n)}$$

- This version of the  $TD(\lambda)$  is limited to episodic tasks
- $TD(\lambda)$  with *eligibility traces* works even for incomplete tasks
- In practice  $\mathsf{TD}(\lambda)$  gives the best results



## **Generalized Policy Iteration**



- **Evaluate** value function: estimate  $v_{\pi}$  using, e.g., iterative *policy* evaluation or value iteration
- Improve the policy: get  $\pi' \ge \pi$  by, e.g., greedy policy improvement

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- Can we get convergence for different *evaluation* and *improvement* approaches?
- What about using MC for the evaluation? There are two problems:
  - greedy improvement over V(s) requires a model of the MDP:  $\pi'(s) = \operatorname{argmax}_{a} \left( \mathcal{R}_{s}^{a} + \mathcal{P}_{ss'}^{a} V(s') \right)$  $\implies$  use Q(s, a) instead:  $\pi'(s) = \operatorname{argmax}_{a} Q(s, a)$ ,
  - greedy strategy prevents exploration!

## **Exploration by** $\epsilon$ -greedy Policy

- Simplest idea for continual exploration:  $\epsilon$ -greedy policy
- $\epsilon$ -greedy policy selects a random action with probability  $\epsilon$  otherwise it selects maximum valued actions:

$$\pi(a|s) = \begin{cases} \frac{\epsilon}{|\mathcal{A}(s)|} \text{ for non-greedy actions} \\ 1 - \epsilon + \frac{\epsilon}{|\mathcal{A}(s)|} \text{ for the greedy action} \end{cases}$$

- For any  $\epsilon$ -greedy policy  $\pi$ , the  $\epsilon$ -greedy policy  $\pi'$  with respect to  $q_{\pi}$  is an improvement,  $v_{\pi'}(s) \ge v_{\pi}(s)$ .i.e., policy improvement works (see seminar)
- *MC policy iteration* = MC evaluation +  $\epsilon$ -greedy policy improvement



Greedy in the Limit with Infinite Exploration (GLIE)

- We can let MC converge which might be slow...
- Or we can run it for a limited number of episodes, (e.g., a single one) before improving using ε-greedy policy

**Definition 9.** Greedy in the Limit with Infinite Exploration (GLIE)

• All state-action pairs are explored infinitely many times,

 $\lim_{k \leftarrow \infty} N_k(s, a) = \infty$ 

The policy converges to a greedy policy:

$$\lim_{k \leftarrow \infty} \pi_k(a|s) = \mathbb{I}\left\{a = \operatorname*{argmax}_{a \in \mathcal{A}} Q_k(s, a')\right\}$$

GLIE ensures convergence

Example:  $\epsilon$ -greedy is GLIE if  $\epsilon$  reduces to zero at  $\epsilon_k = \frac{1}{k}$ 



## SARSA

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## SARSA is a favourite method which uses TD instead of MC Sarsa: An on-policy TD control algorithm

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

**Theorem 1.** SARSA converges, i.e.,  $Q(s, a) \Rightarrow q_*(s, a)$  if: • GLIE sequence of policies  $\pi_t(a|s)$ • Robbins-Monro sequence of step-sizes  $\alpha_t$  satisfies:

$$\sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \alpha_t = \infty$$
 and  $\sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \alpha_t^2 < \infty$ 

## **Off-Policy Learning**



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- Why?
  - Learn from observing other humans (agents)
  - Re-use experience generated from old policies  $\pi_1, \pi_2, \ldots, \pi_{t-1}$
  - Learn about *optimal* policy while following *exploratory* policy

## **Q-Learning**

## Watkins 1989

- Next action  $A_t$  is chosen using behaviour policy  $\mu$
- But we consider an alternative successor action A' using target policy  $\pi$

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• Update  $Q(S_t, A_t)$  towards the alternative action:

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

- We allow both policies to be **improved**
- The *target policy*  $\pi$  is **greedy** w.r.t. to Q(s, a):

$$\pi(S_{t+1}) = \operatorname*{argmax}_{a'} Q(S_{t+1}, a')$$

• The behaviour policy is  $\mu$  is  $\epsilon$ -greedy w.r.t. Q(s, a)

## Q-Learning (contd.)

The Q-learning target simplifies to:

$$R_{t+1} + \gamma Q(S_{t+1}, A')$$
  
=  $R_{t+1} + \gamma Q(S_{t+1}, \operatorname*{argmax}_{a'} Q(S_{t+1}, a'))$   
=  $R_{t+1} + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(S_{t+1}, a')$ 

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#### Q-learning: An off-policy TD control algorithm

## **Value Function Approximation**



- So far we have presented value functions V(s) and Q(s, a) as *lookup* tables
- This is impractical for large MDPs:
  - Too many states/actions to store in memory
  - Too slow to learn the value for each state/action
- Idea: use function approximation:

 $\hat{V}(S, \boldsymbol{w}) \approx V(S)$  $\hat{Q}(S, A, \boldsymbol{w}) \approx Q(S, A)$ 

Use any paradigm available: linear regression, neural networks, KNN, decision trees, . . .

## **ANNs for Value Function Approximation**

When mean-squared loss is used:

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left( [v_{\pi}(S) - \hat{V}(S, \boldsymbol{w})]^2 \right)$$

We end up with the following Stochastic Gradient Descent update:

$$\Delta w = \eta [v_{\pi}(S_t) - \hat{V}(S_t, \boldsymbol{w})] \nabla_{\boldsymbol{w}} \hat{V}(S_t, \boldsymbol{w})$$

where  $\eta$  is the *learning rate*,  $v_{\pi}(S) - \hat{V}(S, w)$  is the error and  $\nabla_{w}\hat{V}(S, w)$  can be evaluated using back propagation

Problem: we don't know  $v_{\pi} \Longrightarrow$ 

- for MC approach use the return  $G_t$  instead
- for TD(0) use  $R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1})$
- for  $\mathsf{TD}(\lambda)$  use  $G_t^{\lambda}$



## **Batch Learning**

In the previous online setup the neural network was continually updated and the samples were immediately discarded

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 In many cases it is better to construct a training dataset and use batch learning, for Monte-Carlo it might be:

$$\mathcal{T} = \{(S_1, G_1), (S_2, G_2), \ldots\}$$

- Random sampling from  ${\mathcal T}$  also "decorrelates" the samples
- This approach is called the experience replay

## **Example: Playing Atari 2600 Games**

- Mnih et al.: Human-level control through deep reinforcement learning, 2015
- You get  $160 \times 250$  RGB images at 60Hz. The task is to find a *policy* which chooses one of 18 possible actions (9 joystick positions, fire button on/off) lead
- More than 50 games are available. See http://www.arcadelearningenvironment.org/

















## Atari: Deep Q-Network (DQN) Approach

## DQN uses experience replay and fixed Q-targets

- Take an action  $a_t$  according to  $\epsilon$ -greedy policy
- Store a transition  $(s_t, a_t, r_{t+1}, s_{t+1})$  into replay memory  $\mathcal{T}$
- igstarrow Sample a random mini-batch from  ${\cal T}$
- ullet Compute Q-learning targets w.r.t. old, fixed parameters  $ar{m{w}}$
- Optimize mean-squared error between Q-network and Q-learning targets:

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$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \mathbb{E}_{s,a,r,s'\sim\mathcal{T}}\left(\left[r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s',a',\bar{\boldsymbol{w}}) - Q(s,a,\boldsymbol{w})\right]^2\right)$$

A variant of SGD used

## Atari: DQN Architecture









# Single Pole Balancing



# Double Pole Balancing





	1	2	3
4	5	6	7
8	9	10	11
12	13	14	

# R = -1 on all transitions

 $\mathcal{V}_k$  for the Random Policy

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

Greedy Policy w.r.t.  $V_k$ 







$$k = 0$$

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

$$k = 2$$

*k* = 1



$$k = 10$$

$$k = \infty$$









#### Sarsa: An on-policy TD control algorithm

#### Q-learning: An off-policy TD control algorithm

















