# Reinforcement Learning

Value Function Approximation

Michael Herrmann, David Abel Based on slides by Stefano V. Albrecht 25 February 2025



#### **Lecture Outline**

- Curse of dimensionality and generalisation
- Value function approximation
- Stochastic gradient descent
- Linear value functions and feature construction
- Semi-gradient TD control

## **Curse of Dimensionality**

Theory so far has assumed:

- Unlimited space: can store value function as table
- Unlimited data: many (infinite) visits to all state-action pairs

In practice these assumptions are usually violated, because...

### **Curse of Dimensionality:**

- Number of states grows exponentially with number of state variables
- If state described by k variables with values in  $\{1, ..., n\}$ , then  $O(n^k)$  states







Hydrogen atoms:  $10^{80}$ 

# **Compact Value Functions and Generalisation**

Two problems...

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#### Not enough memory to store value function as table

- Tabular methods require storage proportional to |S| for v(s) or |S||A| for q(s,a)
- Need compact representation of value function
   (But sometimes can be enough to store only partial value function; e.g. MCTS)

## **Compact Value Functions and Generalisation**

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## No data (or not enough data) to estimate return in each state

- Many states may never be visited
- Need to generalise observations to unknown state-action pairs

## **Generalisation** (Example)

#### Blue circle must move to red goal

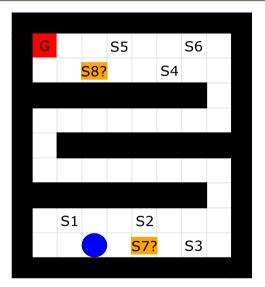
Agent uses optimal policy (shortest path)

Suppose we have return estimates (steps to go) for locations S1-S6

• e.g. 
$$v(S5) = -3$$
,  $v(S4) = -6$ ,  $v(S2) = -31$ 

We have no data for locations S7 and S8 (not visited yet)

• Can we estimate v(S7) and v(S8) based on other return estimates?



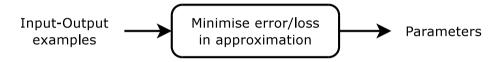
### **Value Function Approximation**

Replace tabular value function with parameterised function:

$$\hat{v}(s,\mathbf{w}) \approx v_{\pi}(s)$$
 $\hat{q}(s,a,\mathbf{w}) \approx q_{\pi}(s,a)$ 

- $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is parameter ("weight") vector
- e.g. linear function, neural network, regression tree, ...
- ullet Compact: number of parameters d much smaller than  $|\mathcal{S}|$
- Generalises: changing one parameter value may change value estimate of many states/actions

Learning a value function is a form of supervised learning:



Examples are pairs of states and return estimates,  $(S_t, U_t)$ , e.g.

- MC:  $U_t = G_t$
- TD(0):  $U_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma \hat{v}(S_{t+1}, \mathbf{w}_t)$
- *n*-step TD:  $U_t = R_{t+1} + \cdots + \gamma^{n-1} R_{t+n} + \gamma^n \hat{v}(S_{t+n}, \mathbf{w}_{t+n-1})$

<u>Desired</u> properties in supervised learning method:

• Incremental updates update  $\mathbf{w}$  using only partial data, e.g. most recent  $(S_t, U_t)$  or batch

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- Incremental updates update  $\mathbf{w}$  using only partial data, e.g. most recent  $(S_t, U_t)$  or batch
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- Ability to handle noisy targets
   e.g. different MC updates G<sub>t</sub> for same state S<sub>t</sub>
- Ability to handle non-stationary targets
   e.g. changing target policy, bootstrapping
- $\Rightarrow$  If  $\hat{v}$  or  $\hat{q}$  differentiable, stochastic gradient descent is a suitable approach

#### **Gradient Descent**

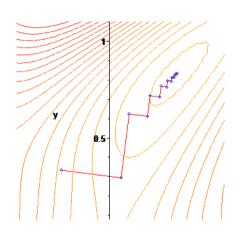
- Let  $J(\mathbf{w})$  be differentiable function of  $\mathbf{w}$
- Gradient of  $J(\mathbf{w})$  is

$$\nabla J(\mathbf{w}) = \left(\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_1}, \cdots, \frac{\partial J(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_d}\right)^{\perp}$$

 To find local minimum of J(w), adjust w in negative direction of gradient

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+1} = \mathbf{w}_t - \frac{1}{2} \, \alpha \, \nabla J(\mathbf{w}_t)$$

•  $\alpha$  is step-size parameter convergence requires standard  $\alpha$ -reduction



## **Example: Gradient Bandit Algorithm**

• Can we select actions without computing estimates of  $q_*$ ?

See Lecture 2

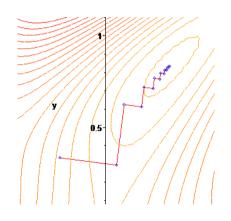
#### **Gradient-based policy optimisation:**

• Use differentiable policy  $\pi_t(a|\theta)$  with parameter vector  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$ 

$$\pi_t(a|\theta) = \Pr\{A_t = a \mid \theta_t = \theta\}$$

 Use gradient <u>ascent</u> on policy parameters to maximise expected reward

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + \alpha \, \nabla_{\theta_t} \mathbb{E}[R_t]$$



# **Gradient Bandit Algorithm with Softmax**

• Represent  $\pi_t$  with softmax distribution:

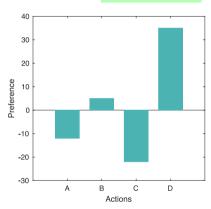
$$\pi_t(a) = \frac{e^{H_t(a)}}{\sum_b e^{H_t(b)}}$$

 $H_t(a)$  are preference values (parameters)

• Update policy parameters:

$$H_{t+1}(a) = H_t(a) + \alpha \frac{\partial \mathbb{E}[R_t]}{\partial H_t(a)}$$
$$= H_t(a) + \alpha (R_t - \bar{R}_t)([a = A_t]_1 - \pi_t(a))$$

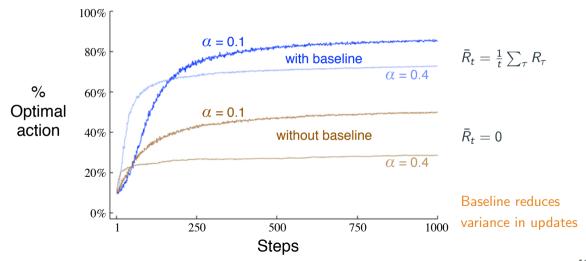
#### See Lecture 2



with baseline  $\bar{R}_t = \frac{1}{t} \sum_{\tau=1}^t R_\tau = \bar{R}_{t-1} + \frac{1}{t} \left( R_t - \bar{R}_{t-1} \right)$  which reduces variance in updates

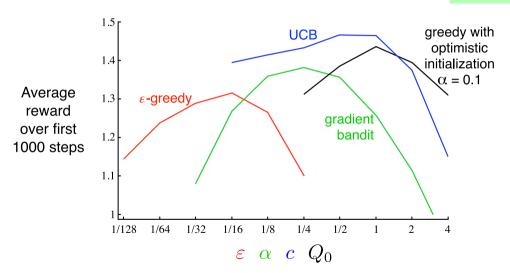
# **Gradient Bandit Algorithm**

### See Lecture 2



## Summary: Comparing Gradient Bandits with other Bandit Algorithms

#### See Lecture 2



**Objective:** find parameter vector  $\mathbf{w}$  by minimising mean-squared error between approximate value  $\hat{v}(s,\mathbf{w})$  and true value  $v_{\pi}(s)$ 

$$J(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \big[ (v_{\pi}(s) - \hat{v}(s, \mathbf{w}))^2 \big]$$

#### Stochastic Gradient Descent

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$$J(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi} ig[ (v_{\pi}(s) - \hat{v}(s, \mathbf{w}))^2 ig]$$

Gradient descent finds local minimum:

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+1} = \mathbf{w}_t - \frac{1}{2} \alpha \nabla J(\mathbf{w}_t)$$
$$= \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha \mathbb{E}_{\pi} [(v_{\pi}(s) - \hat{v}(s, \mathbf{w}_t)) \nabla \hat{v}(s, \mathbf{w}_t)]$$

#### **Stochastic Gradient Descent**

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• Stochastic gradient descent samples the gradient:

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+1} = \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha \left[ \frac{\mathbf{U}_t}{\mathbf{V}_t} - \hat{\mathbf{v}}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_t) \right] \nabla \hat{\mathbf{v}}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_t)$$

### **Stochastic Gradient Descent — Convergence**

Stochastic gradient descent samples the gradient:

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 (1)

- $\mathbf{w}_t$  will converge to local optimum under standard  $\alpha$ -reduction and if  $U_t$  is unbiased estimate  $\mathbb{E}_{\pi}[U_t|S_t] = v_{\pi}(S_t)$ 
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  - ⇒ MC update is unbiased, but TD update is biased (why?)
- Note: (1) is not a true TD gradient because  $U_t$  also depends on  $\mathbf{w}$

$$U_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma \hat{v}(S_{t+1}, \mathbf{w})$$

Hence, we call it semi-gradient TD

# Semi-gradient TD(0) for Policy Evaluation

```
Input: the policy \pi to be evaluated
Input: a differentiable function \hat{v}: \mathbb{S}^+ \times \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R} such that \hat{v}(\text{terminal},\cdot) = 0
Algorithm parameter: step size \alpha > 0
Initialize value-function weights \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d arbitrarily (e.g., \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{0})
Loop for each episode:
    Initialize S
    Loop for each step of episode:
        Choose A \sim \pi(\cdot|S)
         Take action A, 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'
    until S is terminal
```

# **Linear Value Function Approximation**

#### See Tutorial 5

### Linear value function approximation:

$$\hat{v}(s, \mathbf{w}) \doteq \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}(s) = \sum_{i=1}^{d} w_i x_i(s)$$

- $\mathbf{x}(s) = (x_1(s), ..., x_d(s))^{\top}$  is feature vector of state s
- Simple gradient:  $\nabla \hat{v}(s, \mathbf{w}) = \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}}{\partial w_1}, \cdots, \frac{\partial \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}}{\partial w_d}\right)^{\top} = \mathbf{x}(s)$
- Gradient update:  $\mathbf{w}_{t+1} = \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha \left[ U_t \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_t) \right] \mathbf{x}(S_t)$

# **Linear Value Function Approximation**

See Tutorial 5

## Linear value function approximation:

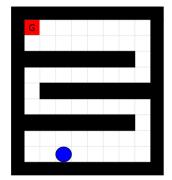
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- Gradient update:  $\mathbf{w}_{t+1} = \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha \left[ U_t \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_t) \right] \mathbf{x}(S_t)$

In linear case, there is only one optimum!

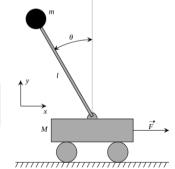
- $\Rightarrow$  MC gradient updates converge to global optimum
- $\Rightarrow$  TD gradient updates converge *near* global optimum (TD fixed point)

#### **Feature Vectors**



$$\mathbf{x}(s) = \begin{pmatrix} x-\mathsf{pos}(s) \\ y-\mathsf{pos}(s) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{x}(s) = \begin{pmatrix} \theta(s) \\ \theta\text{-vel}(s) \\ \text{x-pos}(s) \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{x}_{M}$$



Remember:

State must be Markov

## **State Aggregation**

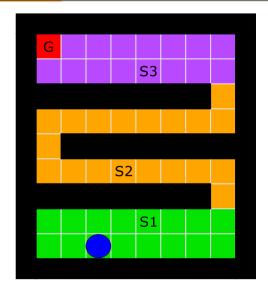
#### Exact representation:

$$\mathbf{x}(s) = \begin{pmatrix} x - \mathsf{pos}(s) \\ y - \mathsf{pos}(s) \end{pmatrix}$$

#### Generalise with state aggregation:

• Partition states into disjoint sets  $S_1$ ,  $S_2$ , ... with indicator functions  $\mathbf{x}_k(s) = [s \in S_k]_1$ 

$$\mathbf{x}(s) = \begin{pmatrix} \text{in-S1}(s) \\ \text{in-S2}(s) \\ \text{in-S3}(s) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$



## **State Aggregation**

#### Exact representation:

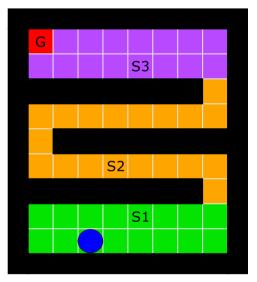
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#### Generalise with state aggregation:

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Special case: every state s has its own set  $\mathcal{S}_s = \{s\}$ 

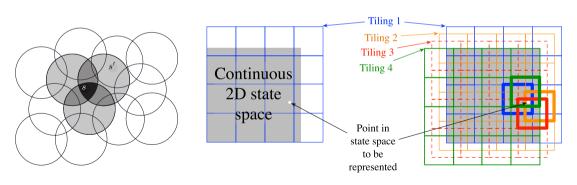
⇒ Same as tabular representation!



## Coarse/Tile Coding

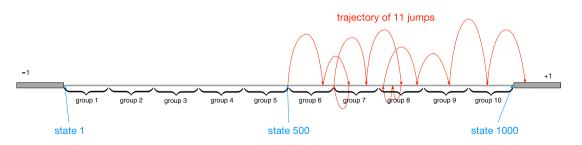
State aggregation generalises only within sets  $S_1$ ,  $S_2$ ,...

- Allow generalisation across sets by allowing  $S_k$  to overlap
- e.g. coarse coding and tile coding

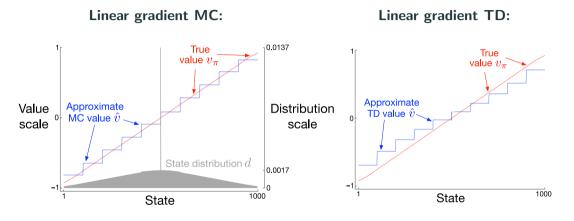


### **Example: Random Walk**

- States: numbered 1 to 1000, start at state 500
- Policy: randomly jump to one of 100 states to left, or one of 100 states to right
- If jump goes beyond 1/1000, terminates with reward -1/+1
- State aggregation: 10 groups of 100 states each



#### Random Walk: MC and TD Prediction



After 100,000 episodes with  $\alpha = 2 \times 10^{-5}$ 

## **Approximate Control in Episodic Tasks**

- ullet Estimate state-action values:  $\hat{q}(s,a,\mathbf{w})pprox q_{\pi}(s,a)$
- For linear approx., features defined over states and action:

$$\hat{q}(s, a, \mathbf{w}) \doteq \sum_{i=1}^d w_i x_i(s, a)$$

• Stochastic gradient descent:

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+1} = \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha \left[ U_t - \hat{q}(S_t, A_t, \mathbf{w}_t) \right] \nabla \hat{q}(S_t, A_t, \mathbf{w}_t)$$

# **Approximate Control in Episodic Tasks**

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Stochastic gradient descent:

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e.g. **Sarsa:** 
$$U_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma \, \hat{q}(S_{t+1}, A_{t+1}, \mathbf{w}_t)$$

**Q-learning:** 
$$U_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma \max_a \hat{q}(S_{t+1}, a, \mathbf{w}_t)$$

**Expected Sarsa:** 
$$U_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma \sum_a \pi(a|S_{t+1}) \, \hat{q}(S_{t+1}, a, \mathbf{w}_t)$$

## **Episodic Semi-gradient Sarsa**

Input: a differentiable action-value function parameterization  $\hat{q}: \mathbb{S} \times \mathcal{A} \times \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ Algorithm parameters: step size  $\alpha > 0$ , small  $\varepsilon > 0$ Initialize value-function weights  $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  arbitrarily (e.g.,  $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{0}$ )

Loop for each episode:

$$S, A \leftarrow \text{initial state}$$
 and action of episode (e.g.,  $\varepsilon$ -greedy)

Loop for each step of episode:

Take action A, observe R, S'

If S' is terminal:

$$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + \alpha [R - \hat{q}(S, A, \mathbf{w})] \nabla \hat{q}(S, A, \mathbf{w})$$

Go to next episode

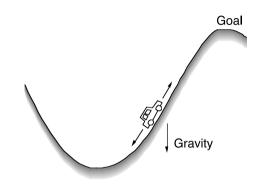
Choose A' as a function of  $\hat{q}(S', \cdot, \mathbf{w})$  (e.g.,  $\varepsilon$ -greedy)

$$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + \alpha [R + \gamma \hat{q}(S', A', \mathbf{w}) - \hat{q}(S, A, \mathbf{w})] \nabla \hat{q}(S, A, \mathbf{w})$$

$$S \leftarrow S'$$

$$A \leftarrow A'$$

## **Example: Mountain Car with Linear Semi-Gradient Sarsa**



#### STATES:

car's position and velocity

#### **ACTIONS**:

three thrusts: forward, reverse, none

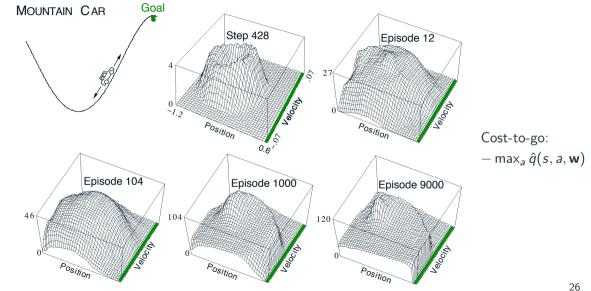
#### **REWARDS**:

always -1 until car reaches the goal

Episodic, No Discounting,  $\gamma=1$ 

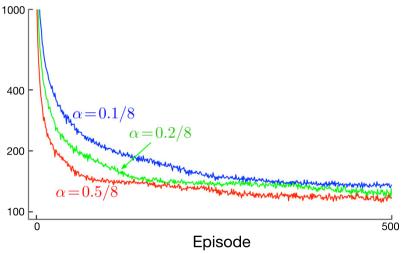
Semi-gradient Sarsa with linear approximation over 8 8x8 tilings  $\epsilon=0$  (optimistic initial values  $\hat{q}(s,a,\mathbf{w})=0$ )

### **Learned Action Values in Mountain Car**



# **Learning Curves in Mountain Car**





# Convergence to Global Optimum in Episodic Control

Algorithm	Tabular	Linear	Non-linear
MC control	yes	chatter*	no
(semi-gradient) <i>n</i> -step Sarsa	yes	chatter*	no
(semi-gradient) <i>n</i> -step Q-learning	yes	no	no

<sup>\*</sup>Chatters near optimal solution because optimal policy may not be representable under value function approximation

### **Deadly Triad**

#### Risk of divergence arises when the following three are combined:

- 1. Function approximation
- 2. Bootstrapping
- 3. Off-policy learning

#### Possible fixes:

- Use importance sampling to warp off-policy distribution into on-policy distribution
- Use gradient TD methods which follow true gradient of projected Bellman error (see book, p. 266)

## Reading

#### Required (RL book):

- Chapter 9 (9.1–9.5)
   (Box "Proof of Convergence of Linear TD(0)" in Sec 9.4 is not examined)
- Chapter 10 (10.1)
- Chapter 11 (11.1)

#### Optional:

- Remaining sections of chapters
- Tsitsiklis, J. N., Van Roy, B. (1997). An analysis of temporal-difference learning with function approximation. IEEE Transactions on Automatic Control, 42(5):674–690
- Mahadevan, S. (1996). Average reward reinforcement learning: Foundations, algorithms, and empirical results. Machine Learning, 22(1):159–196