

AA203 Optimal and Learning-based Control

Lecture 10

Introduction to Reinforcement Learning

Autonomous Systems Laboratory
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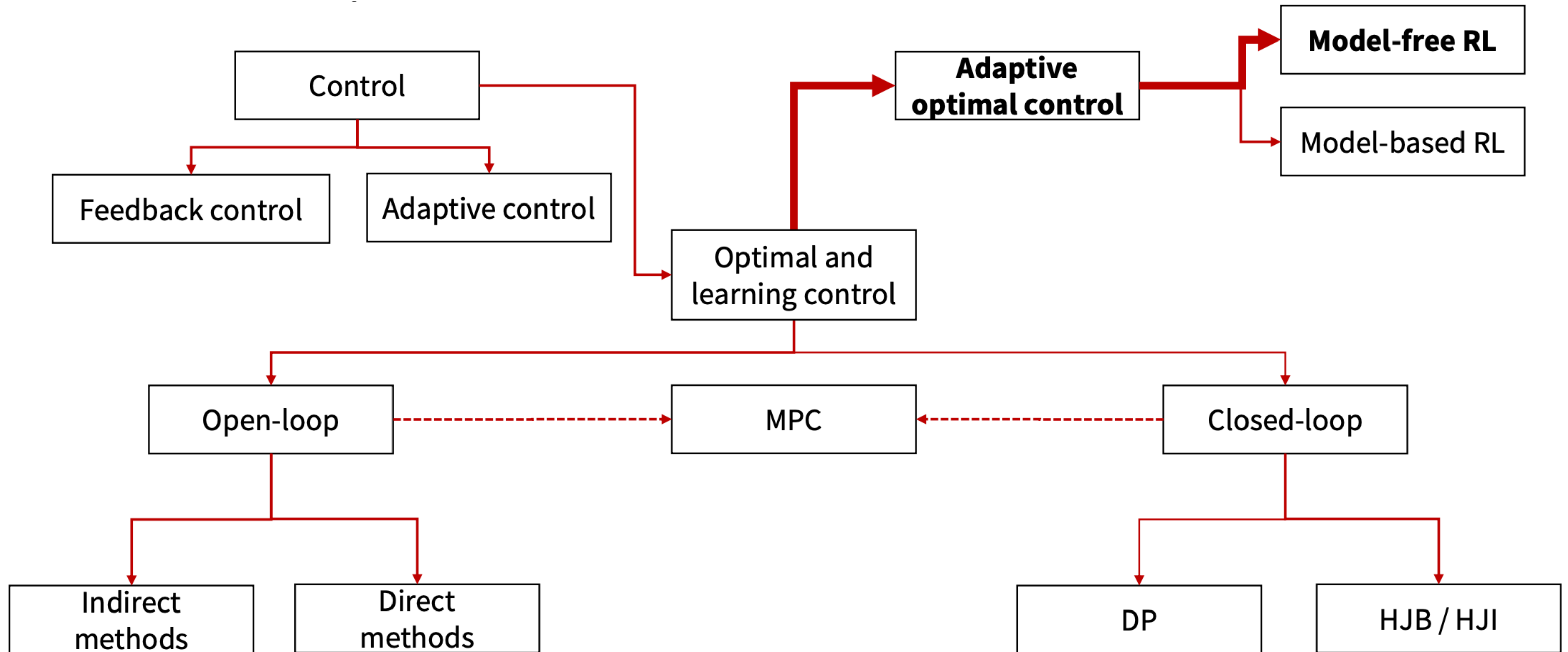


Stanford University



**Autonomous Systems Laboratory
Stanford Aeronautics & Astronautics**

Roadmap



Outline

What is Reinforcement Learning? (and the RL setting)

From exact methods to model-free control

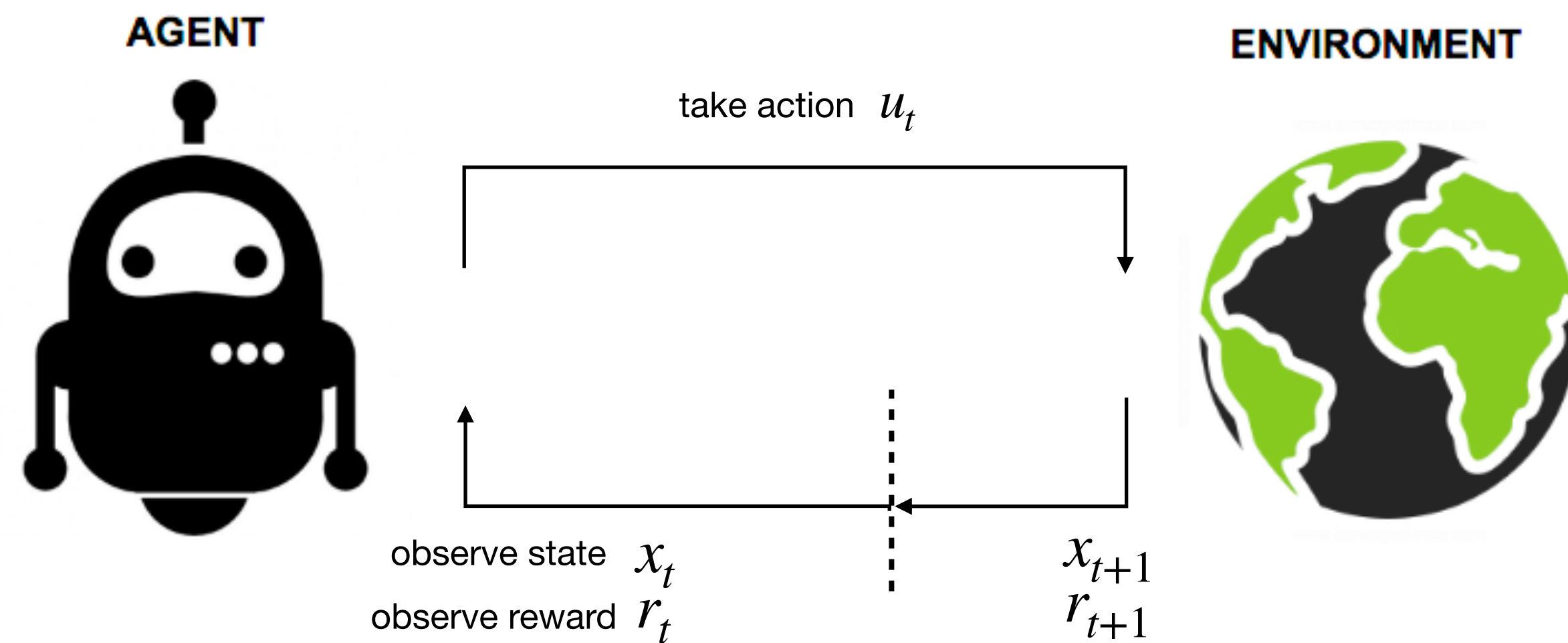
- Monte Carlo Learning
- Temporal-Difference (TD) Learning

A taxonomy of RL algorithms & important trade-offs

What is reinforcement learning?

Fundamentally:

- A mathematical formalism for **learning-based** decision making
- An approach for learning decision making and control **from experience** \longrightarrow Success is measured by a scalar **reward**

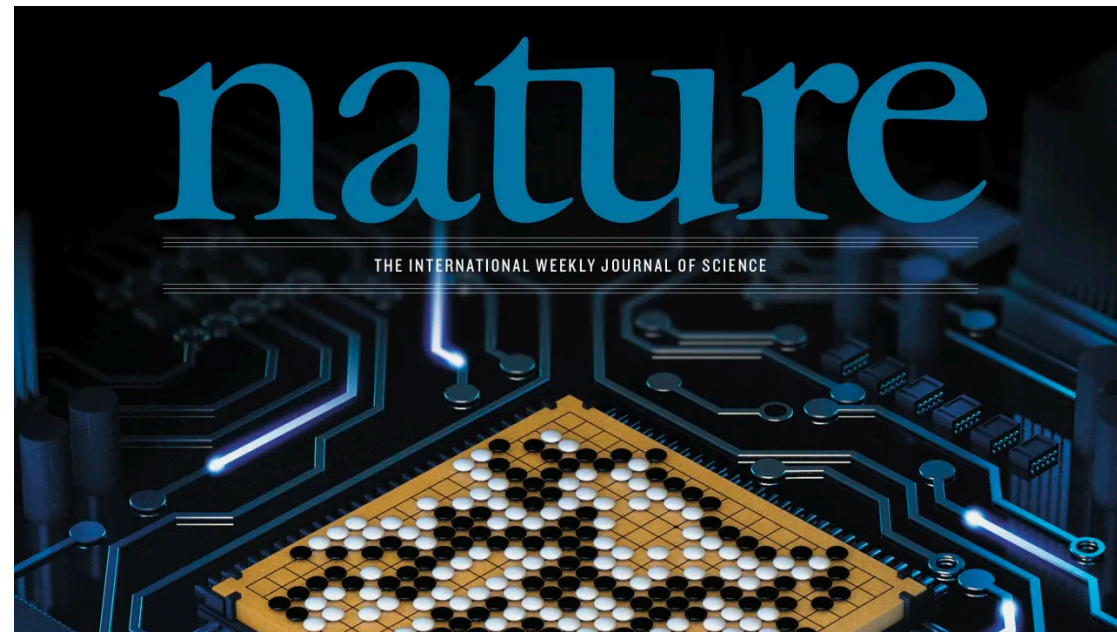


$$\tau = (x_0, u_0, \dots, x_N, u_N)$$

Why reinforcement learning?

- Only need to specify a reward function and the agent learn everything else!

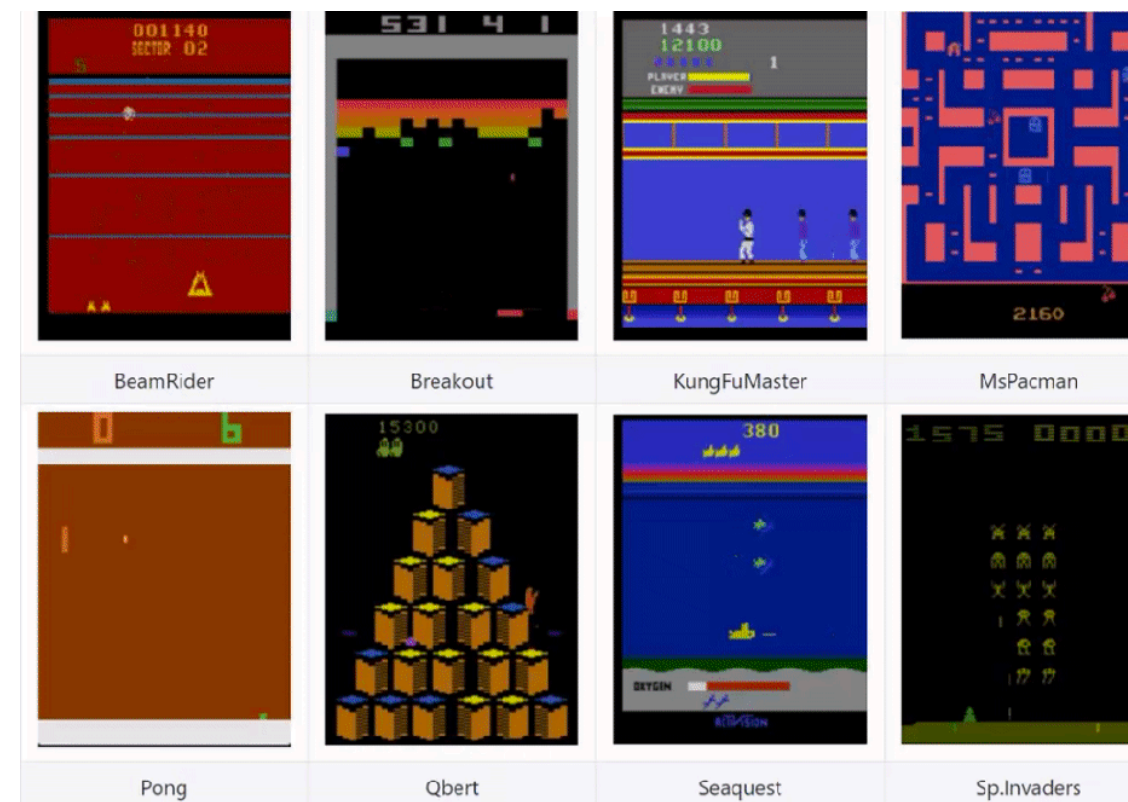
Silver et al. 2016



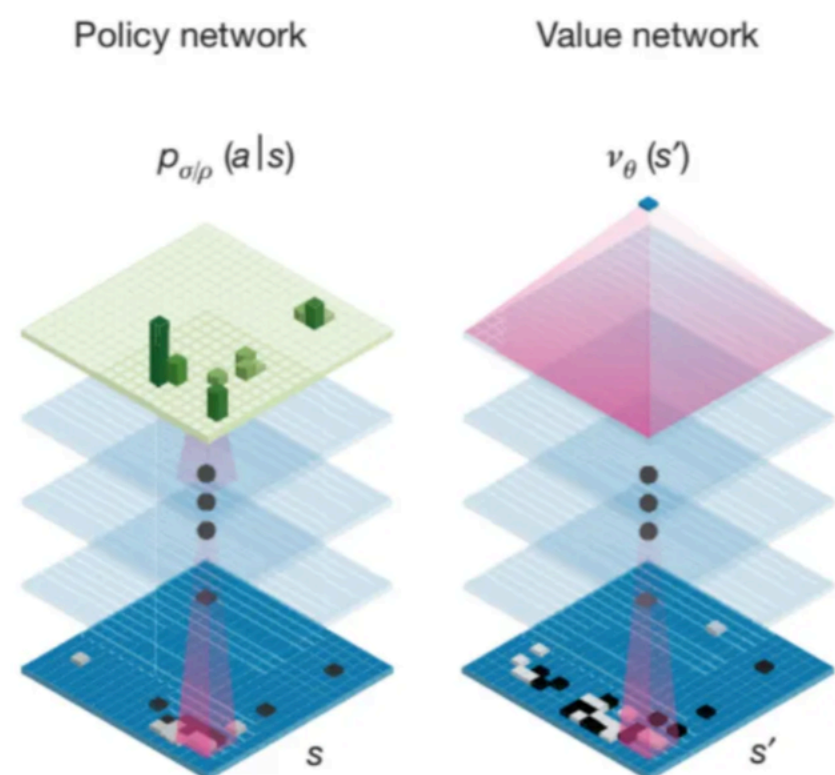
Levine*, Finn* et al. 2016



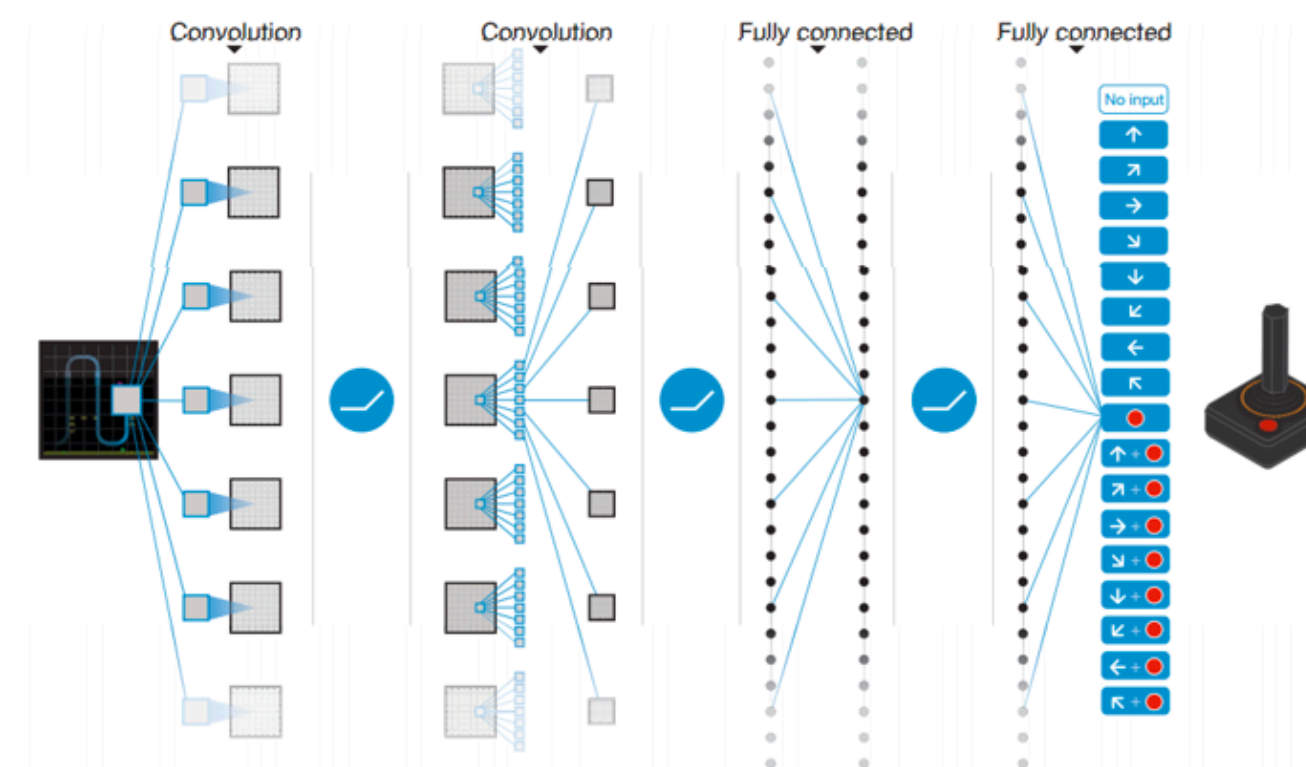
Mnih et al. 2014



ChatGPT "Alignment"- OpenAI



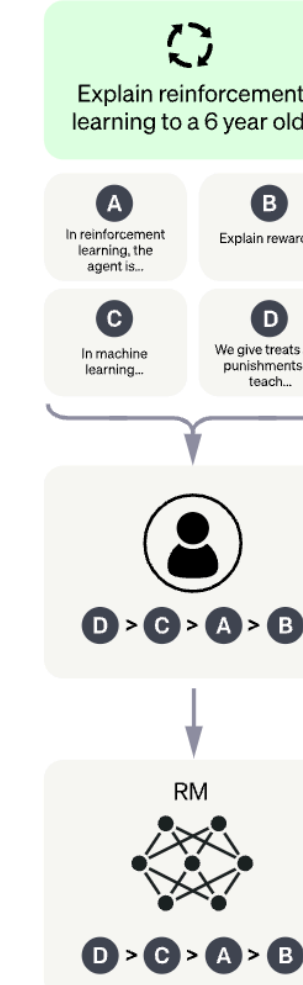
Deep Q Network



Step 2

Collect comparison data and train a reward model.

A prompt and several model outputs are sampled.



A labeler ranks the outputs from best to worst.

This data is used to train our reward model.

Step 3

Optimize a policy against the reward model using the PPO reinforcement learning algorithm.

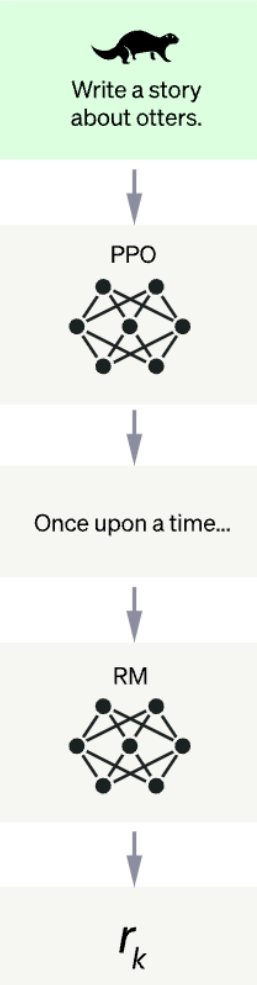
A new prompt is sampled from the dataset.

The PPO model is initialized from the supervised policy.

The policy generates an output.

The reward model calculates a reward for the output.

The reward is used to update the policy using PPO.



Characteristics of reinforcement learning?

How does RL differ from other machine learning paradigms?

- No supervision, only a reward signal
- Feedback can be delayed, not instantaneous
- Data is **not** i.i.d., earlier decisions affect later interactions (tension between exploration and exploitation)

Markov Decision Problem

State:

$$x \in \mathcal{X}$$

Action:

$$u \in \mathcal{U}$$

Transition function / Dynamics:

$$T(x_t | x_{t-1}, u_{t-1}) = p(x_t | x_{t-1}, u_{t-1})$$

Reward function:

$$r_t = R(x_t, u_t) : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

Discount factor:

$$\gamma \in (0, 1)$$

Typically represented as a tuple

$$\mathcal{M} = (\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{U}, T, R, \gamma)$$

Goal: choose a policy that maximizes cumulative (discounted) reward

$$\pi^* = \arg \max_{\pi} \mathbb{E}_p \left[\sum_{t \geq 0} \gamma^t R(x_t, \pi(x_t)) \right]$$

Value functions

State-value function: “*the expected total reward if we start in that state and act accordingly to a particular policy*”

$$V_{\pi}(x) = \mathbb{E}_p \left[\sum_{t \geq 0} \gamma^t R(x_t, \pi(x_t)) \right]$$

Action-state value function: “*the expected total reward if we start in that state, take an action, and act accordingly to a particular policy*”

$$Q_{\pi}(x, u) = \mathbb{E}_p \left[\sum_{t \geq 0} \gamma^t R(x_t, u_t) \right]$$

Optimal state-value function

$$V^*(x) = \max_{\pi} V_{\pi}(x)$$

Optimal action-state value function

$$Q^*(x, u) = \max_{\pi} Q_{\pi}(x, u)$$

Bellman Equations

The optimal value function satisfies Bellman's equation:

$$V^*(x_t) = \max_u \left(R(x_t, u_t) + \gamma \sum_{x_{t+1} \in X} T(x_{t+1} | x_t, u_t) V^*(x_{t+1}) \right) \quad \text{Bellman Optimality Equation}$$

For any stationary policy π , the value $V_\pi(x) := \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{t \geq 0} \gamma^t R(x_t, \pi(x_t)) \right]$ the unique solution to the equation

$$\begin{aligned} V_\pi(x_t) &= \mathbb{E}_\pi \left[R(x_t, \pi(x_t)) + \gamma V_\pi(x_{t+1}) \right] \\ &= R(x_t, \pi(x_t)) + \gamma \sum_{x_{t+1} \in X} T(x_{t+1} | x_t, \pi(x_t)) V_\pi(x_{t+1}) \end{aligned} \quad \text{Bellman Expectation Equation}$$

Bellman Equations

The optimal state-action value function (Q function) $Q^*(x, u)$ satisfies Bellman's equation:

$$Q^*(x_t, u_t) = R(x_t, u_t) + \gamma \sum_{x_{t+1} \in X} T(x_{t+1} | x_t, u_t) \max_{u_{t+1}} Q^*(x_{t+1}, u_{t+1})$$

Bellman Optimality Equation

For any stationary policy π , the value corresponding Q function satisfies

$$Q_\pi(x_t, u_t) = R(x_t, u_t) + \gamma \sum_{x_{t+1} \in X} T(x_{t+1} | x_t, u_t) Q_\pi(x_{t+1}, \pi(x_{t+1}))$$

Bellman Expectation Equation

Solving MDPs

In previous lectures, we resorted to exact methods

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

All of these formulations require a **model of the MDP!**

To solve unknown MDPs, we'll use **interactions** with the environment

Limitations of exact methods (such as Policy/Value Iteration):

- Update equations (i.e., Bellman equations) require access to dynamics model $T(x_{t+1} | x_t, u_t)$ **Sampling-based approximations**
- Iteration over (and storage of) all states and actions requires small, discrete state-action space **Function approximation**

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- Temporal-Difference (TD) Learning

A taxonomy of RL algorithms & important trade-offs

Monte Carlo Reinforcement Learning

- MC methods learn directly from episodes of experience
- MC is model-free: no knowledge of MDP transitions / rewards
- MC uses the simplest possible idea: value = mean return
 - Recall that the return is the total discounted reward:

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

- Caveat: can only apply MC to episodic MDPs
 - All episodes must terminate

Monte Carlo Policy Evaluation

- Let's consider Monte Carlo methods for learning the state-value function $V_{\pi}(x)$ from episodes of experience under policy π
- Recall that the value function is the expected return

$$G_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \dots + \gamma^{T-1} R_T$$
$$V_{\pi}(x_t) = \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{t \geq 0} \gamma^t R(x_t, \pi(x_t)) \right] = \mathbb{E} [G_t | x_t]$$

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

Monte Carlo Policy Evaluation

First-visit

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

Every-visit

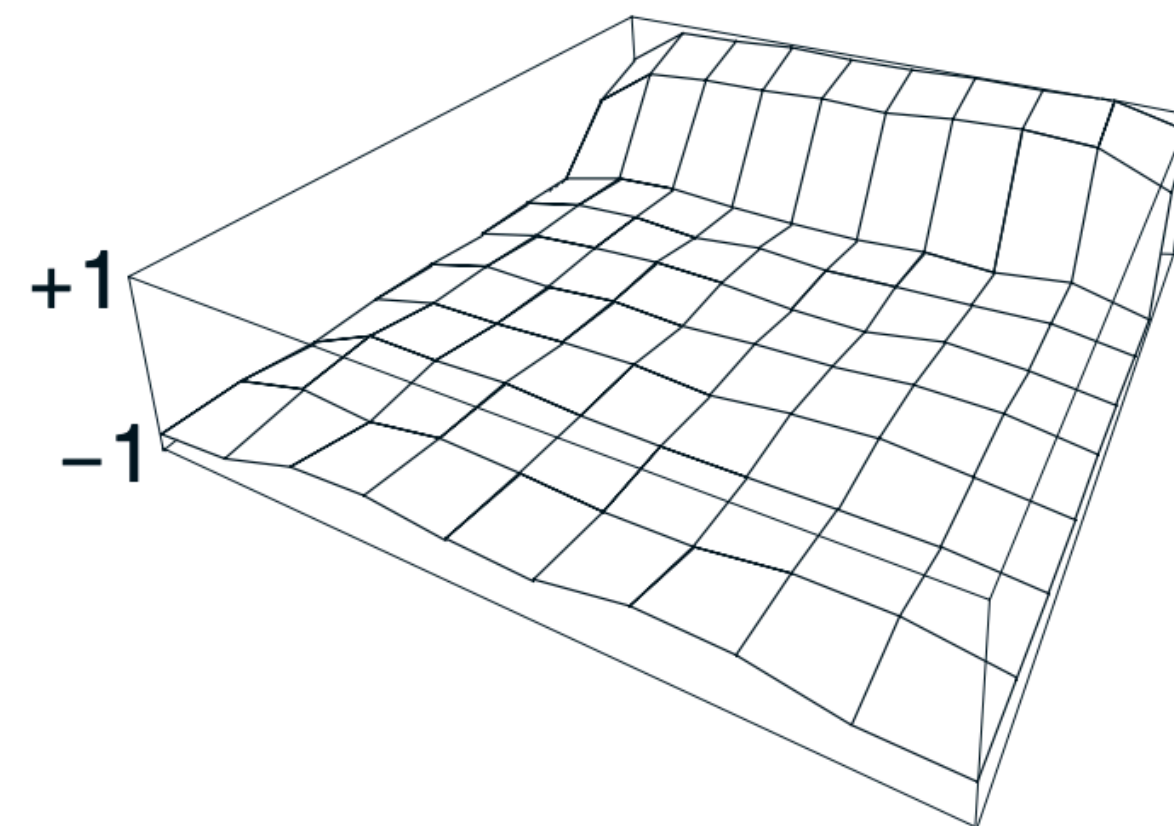
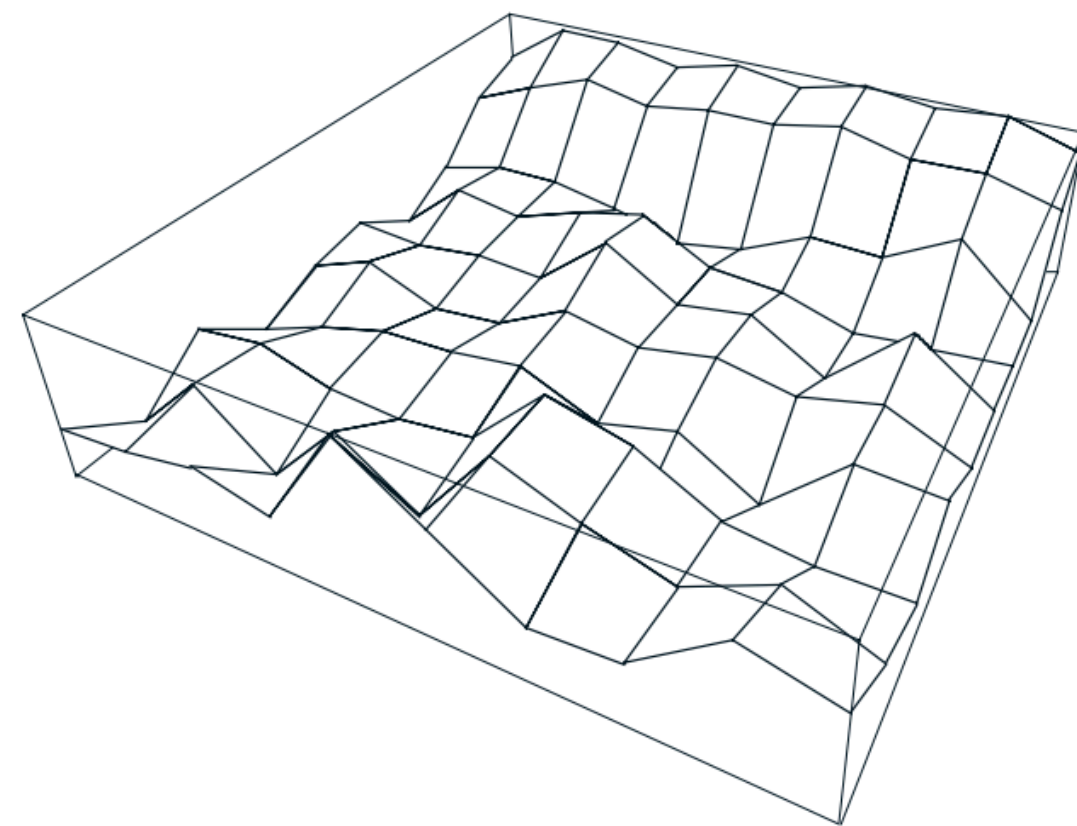
- To evaluate state x
- **Every** time-step t that state x is visited in an episode
- Increment counter $N(x) \leftarrow N(x) + 1$
- Increment total return $S(x) \leftarrow S(x) + G_t$
- Value is estimated by mean return $\hat{V}(x) = S(x)/N(x)$
- By law of large numbers $\hat{V}(x) \rightarrow V_{\pi}(x)$ as $N(x) \rightarrow \infty$

Example: Blackjack

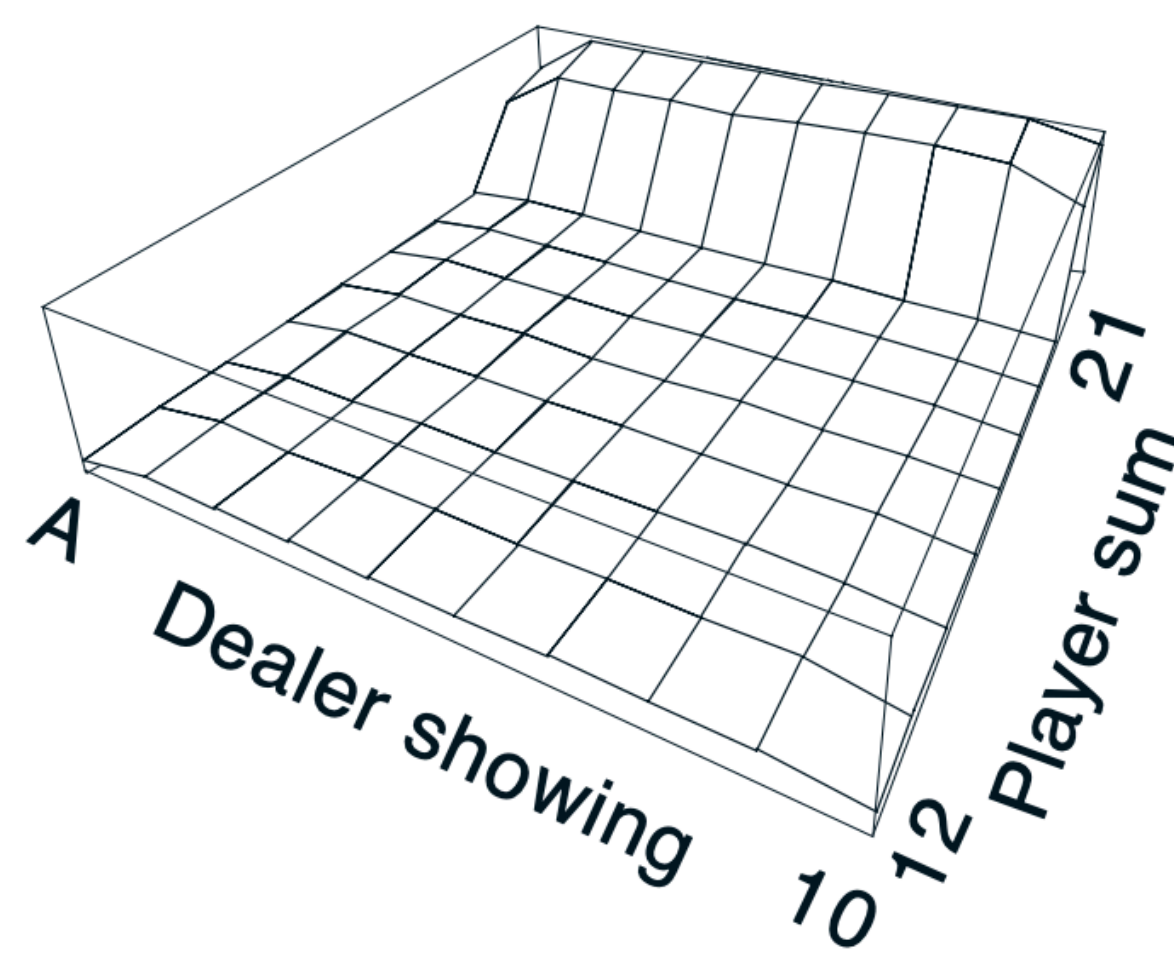
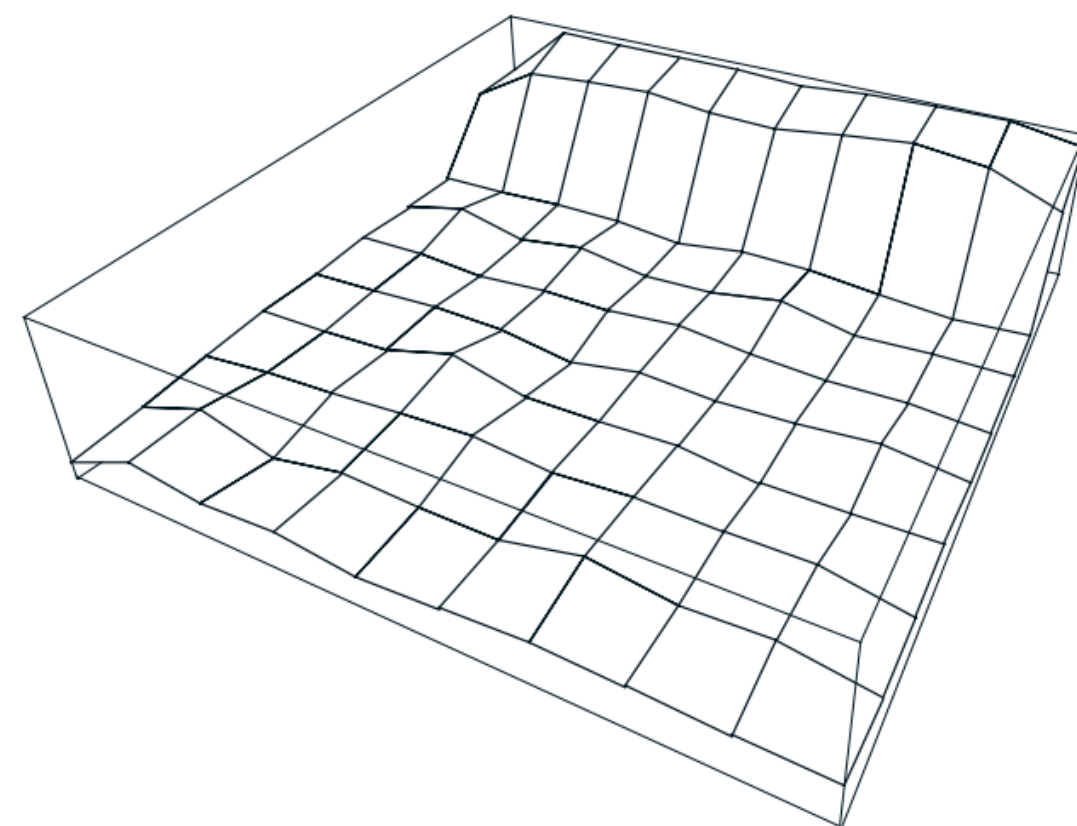
After 10,000 episodes

After 500,000 episodes

Usable
ace



No
usable
ace



Small exercise:

1. Consider the diagrams on the right
 - a. Why does the estimated value function jump up for the last two rows in the rear?
 - b. Why does it drop off for the whole last row on the left?
 - c. Why are the frontmost values higher in the upper diagram than in the lower?
2. Would you expect results to be different with EV-MC? Why or why not?

Incremental Monte-Carlo updates

The mean μ_1, μ_2, \dots of a sequence x_1, x_2, \dots can be computed incrementally

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

- We incrementally update $\hat{V}(x)$ after every episode $\tau = (x_0, u_0, \dots, x_N, u_N)$
- For each state x_t with return G_t

$$N(x_t) \leftarrow N(x_t) + 1$$

$$\hat{V}(x_t) \leftarrow \hat{V}(x_t) + \frac{1}{N(x_t)} \left(G_t - \hat{V}(x_t) \right)$$

- In non-stationary problems, it is often useful to track a running mean to forget old (and ultimately less relevant) episodes

$$\hat{V}(x_t) \leftarrow \hat{V}(x_t) + \alpha \left(G_t - \hat{V}(x_t) \right)$$

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- Temporal-Difference (TD) Learning

A taxonomy of RL algorithms & important trade-offs

Temporal-Difference Learning

- TD is a combination of Monte Carlo and Dynamic Programming ideas
- Like MC, TD is model-free: no knowledge of MDP transitions / rewards. TD can learn from experience
- Like DP, TD methods update estimates based in part on other learned estimates, without waiting for a final outcome (they **bootstrap**)
- TD updates a guess towards a guess

Temporal-Difference Learning

- To compare MC and TD, let us consider the task of learning V_π from experience under policy π
- Incremental every-visit Monte Carlo:
 - Update value $\hat{V}(x_t)$ toward *actual* return G_t

$$\hat{V}(x_t) \leftarrow \hat{V}(x_t) + \alpha \left(G_t - \hat{V}(x_t) \right)$$

- Temporal-difference algorithm:
 - Update value $\hat{V}(x_t)$ toward estimated return $R_t + \gamma \hat{V}(x_{t+1})$

$$\hat{V}(x_t) \leftarrow \hat{V}(x_t) + \alpha \left(R_t + \gamma \hat{V}(x_{t+1}) - \hat{V}(x_t) \right)$$

- $R_t + \gamma \hat{V}(x_{t+1})$ is called **TD target**
- $\delta_t = R_t + \gamma \hat{V}(x_{t+1}) - \hat{V}(x_t)$ is called **TD error**

TD methods combine:

- 1) the sampling of Monte Carlo
- 2) with the bootstrapping of DP

Advantages and disadvantages of MC vs TD

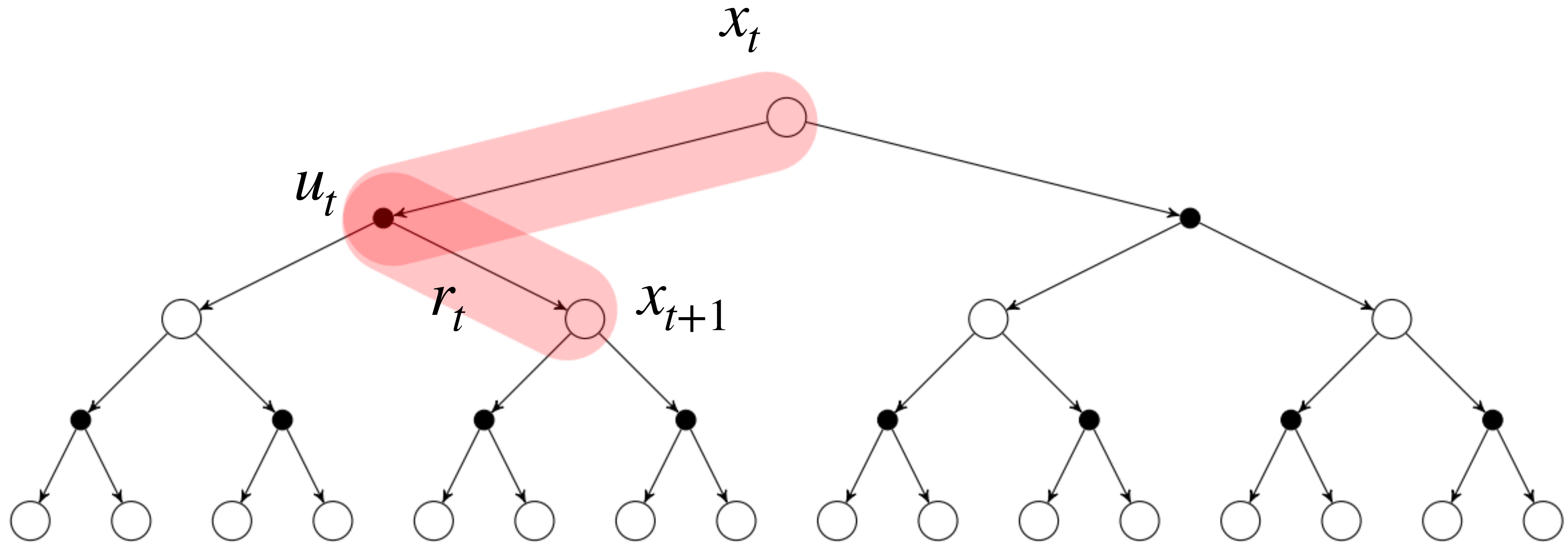
- TD can learn *before* knowing the final outcome
 - TD can learn online after every step
 - MC must wait until the end of the episode
- TD can learn without the final outcome
 - TD can learn from incomplete sequences
 - MC can only learn from complete sequences
 - TD works in continuing (non-terminating)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

Bias-Variance Trade-off

- Return $G_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \dots + \gamma^{T-1} R_T$ is an unbiased estimate of $V_\pi(x)$
- In theory, the *true* TD target $R_t + \gamma V(x_{t+1})$ is also an unbiased estimate of $V_\pi(x)$
- TD target $R_t + \gamma \hat{V}(x_{t+1})$ is a biased estimate of $V_\pi(x)$
- However, the TD target is much lower variance than the return
 - The return G_t depends on a **full sequence** of random actions, transitions, rewards (i.e., evaluated at the end of the episode)
 - The TD error only depends on **one** random action, transition, reward

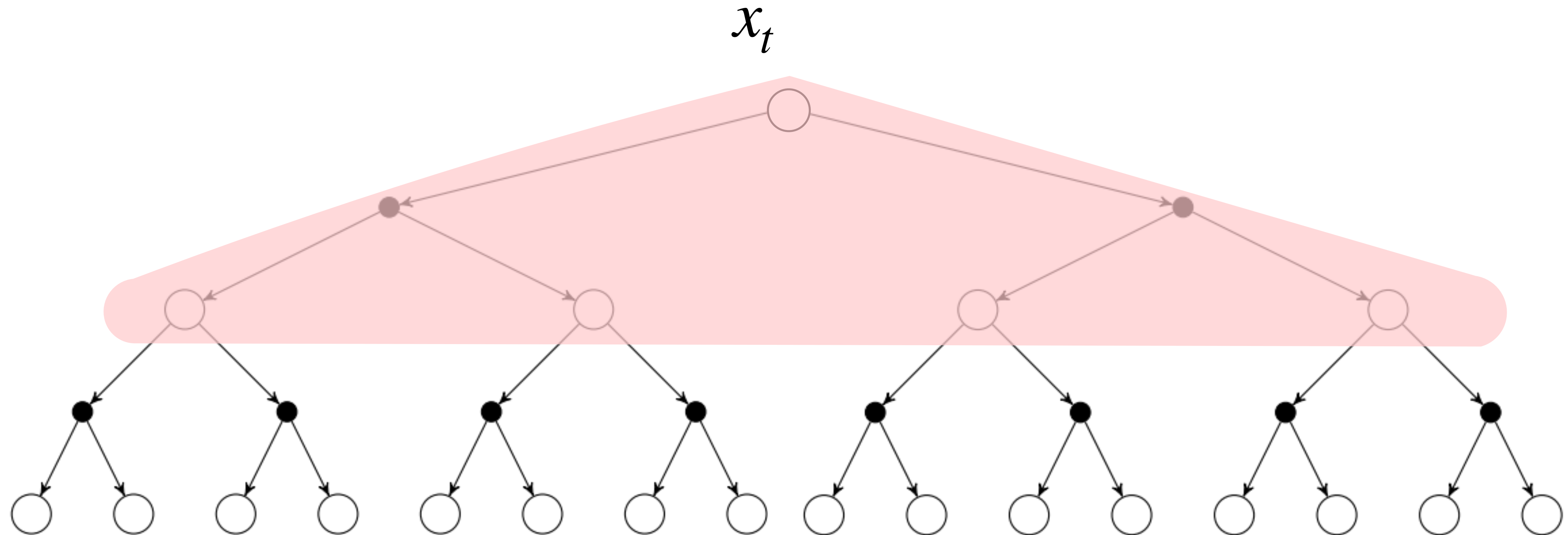
Temporal-Difference Backup

$$\hat{V}(x_t) \leftarrow \hat{V}(x_t) + \alpha \left(R_t + \gamma \hat{V}(x_{t+1}) - \hat{V}(x_t) \right)$$



Dynamic Programming Backup

$$\hat{V}_\pi(x_t) \leftarrow \mathbb{E} \left[R_t + \gamma \hat{V}_\pi(x_{t+1}) \right]$$



Bootstrapping and sampling

- **Sampling:** define the update through samples to approximate expectations
 - MC samples
 - TD samples
 - DP does not sample
- **Bootstrapping:** define the update through an estimate
 - MC does not bootstrap
 - TD bootstraps
 - DP bootstraps

Outline

What is Reinforcement Learning? (and the RL setting)

From exact methods to model-free **control**

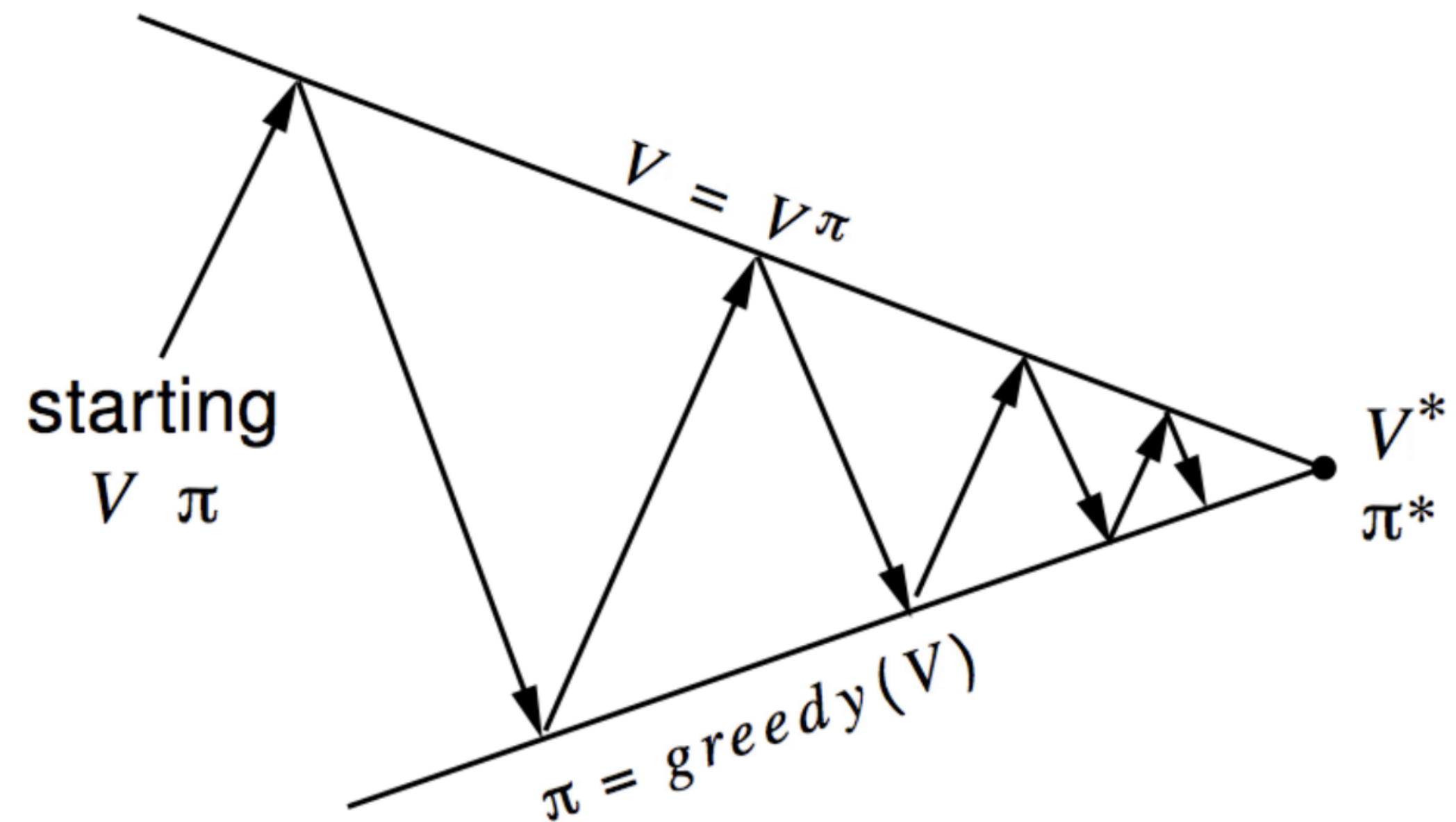
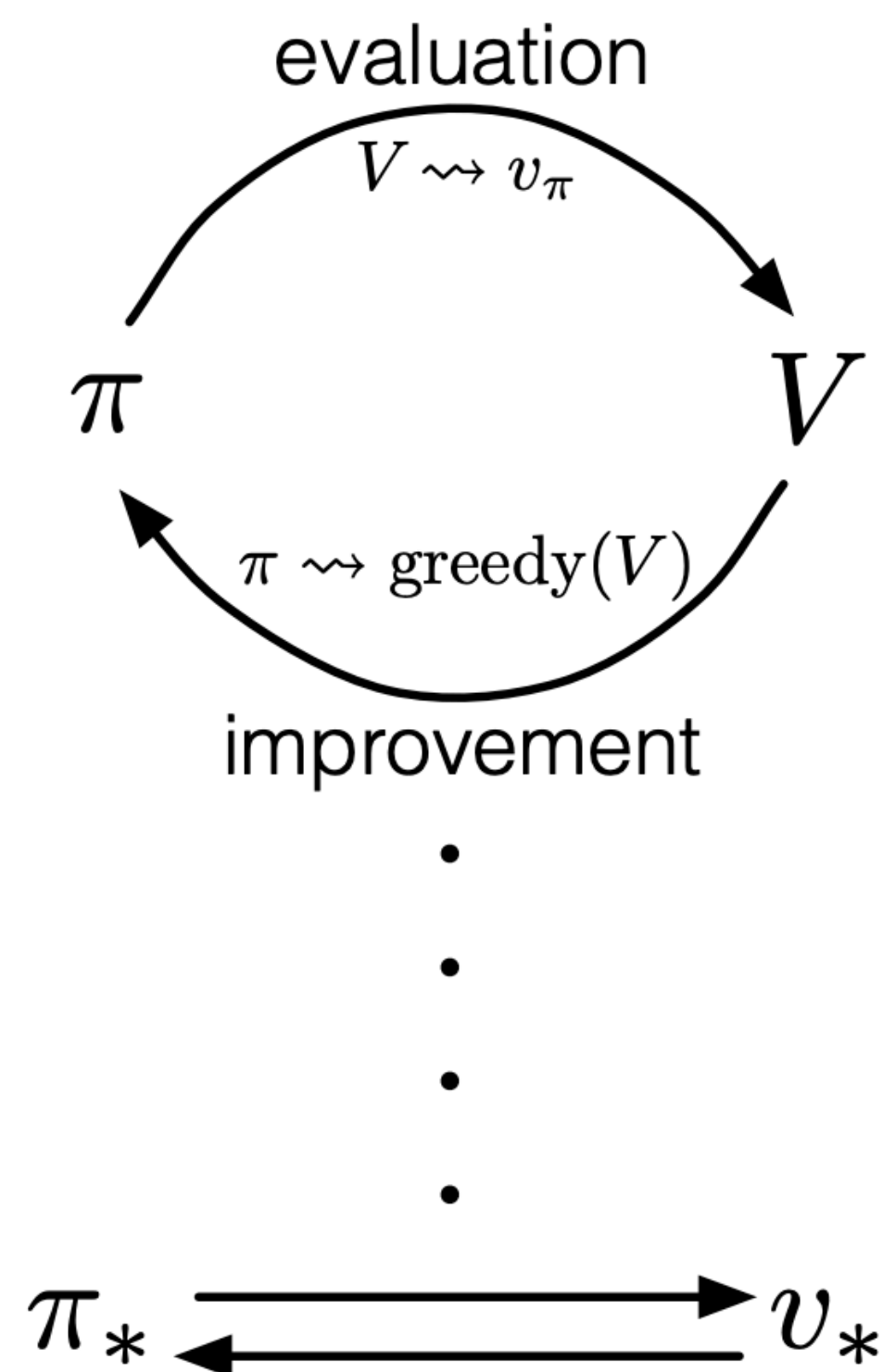
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A taxonomy of RL algorithms & important trade-offs

(Review) Generalized Policy Iteration

In Week 3, we discussed Policy Iteration as consisting of two simultaneous, interactive processes: Policy **Evaluation** and Policy **Improvement**

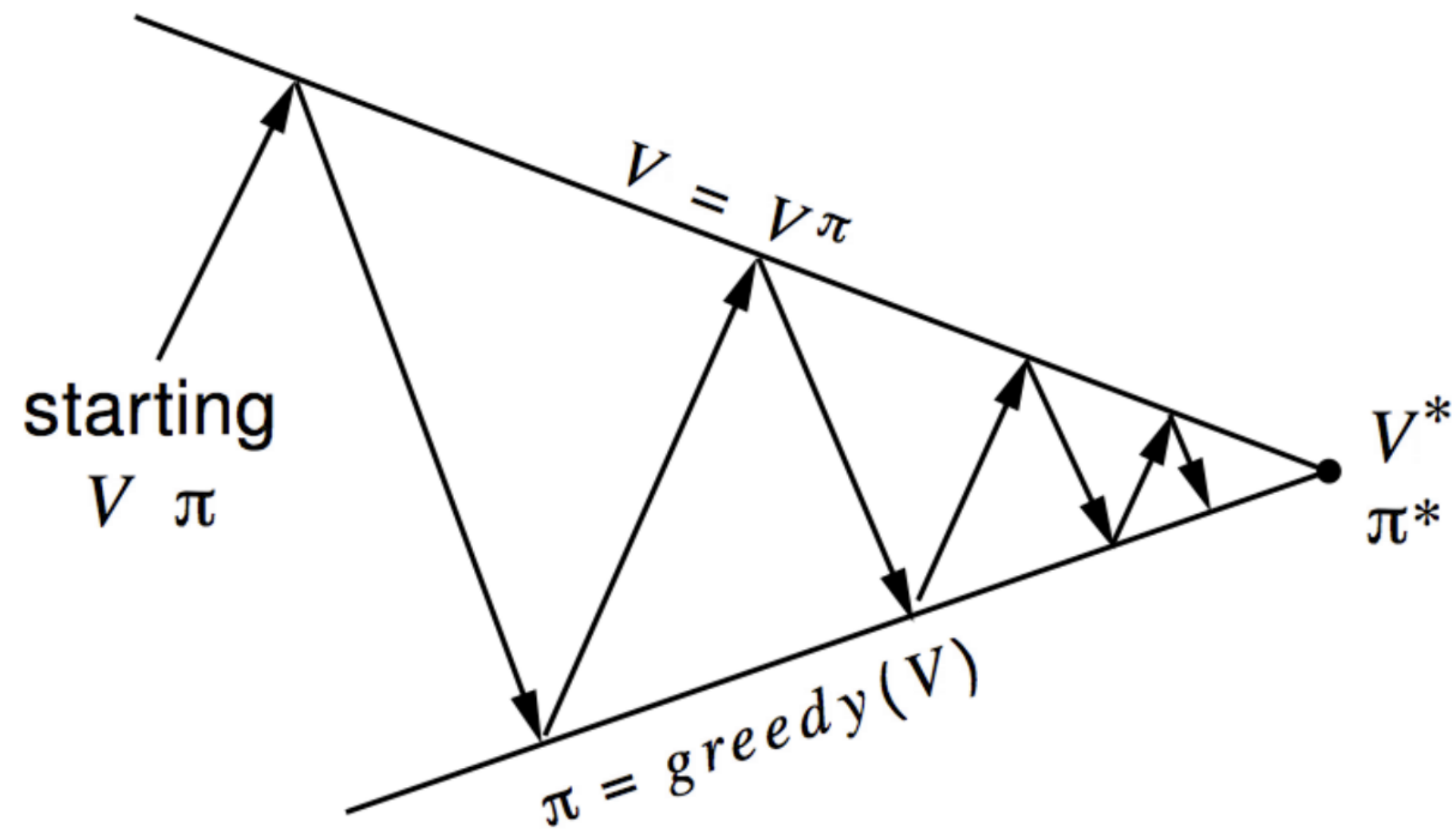
We use the term *generalized policy iteration* (GPI) to refer to the general idea of letting policy-evaluation and policy improvement processes interact, independent of the granularity and other details of the two processes.



Policy **Evaluation**: Iterative policy evaluation

Policy **Improvement**: Greedy policy improvement

GPI with Monte-Carlo Evaluation



Problem:

Greedy policy improvement over $V(x)$ requires a model of the MDP!

$$\pi_{k+1}(x) = \arg \max_u \left(R(x, u) + \gamma \sum_{x_{t+1} \in \mathcal{X}} T(x_{t+1} | x_t, u_t) V_{k+1}(x_{t+1}) \right)$$

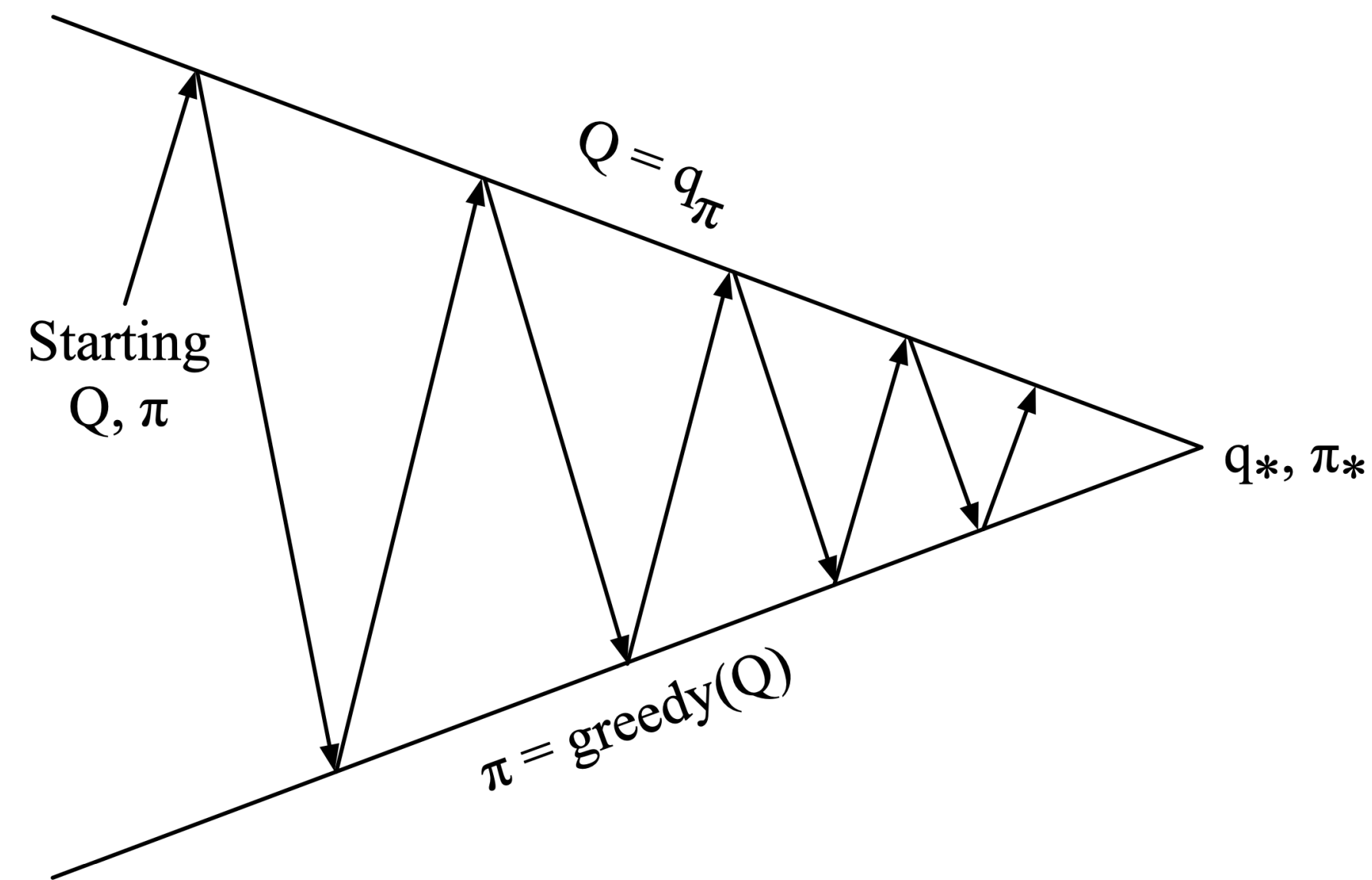
On the other hand, greedy policy improvement over $Q(x, u)$ does not

$$\pi_{k+1}(x) = \arg \max_u Q(x, u)$$

Policy **Evaluation**: Monte-Carlo policy evaluation of $V(x)$?

Policy **Improvement**: Greedy policy improvement?

GPI with state-action value function



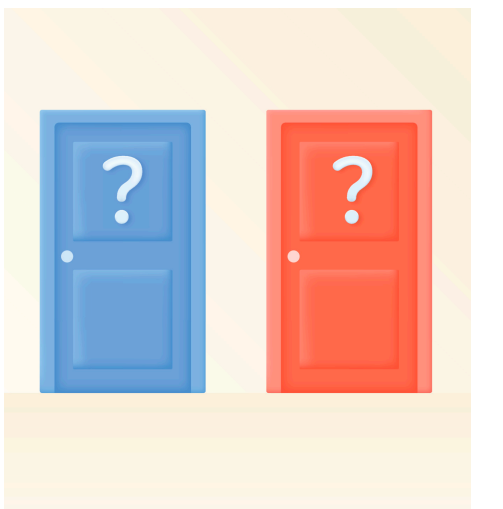
Policy **Evaluation**: Monte-Carlo policy evaluation of $Q(x, u)$

Policy **Improvement**: Greedy policy improvement?

Problem:

Exploration! Let's consider an example:

- Need to choose among two possible doors:
- You open the left door: $R = 0, V(\text{left}) = 0$
- You open the right door: $R = 1, V(\text{left}) = 1$
- You open the right door: $R = 3, V(\text{left}) = 2$
- You open the right door: $R = 2, V(\text{left}) = 2$
- ...



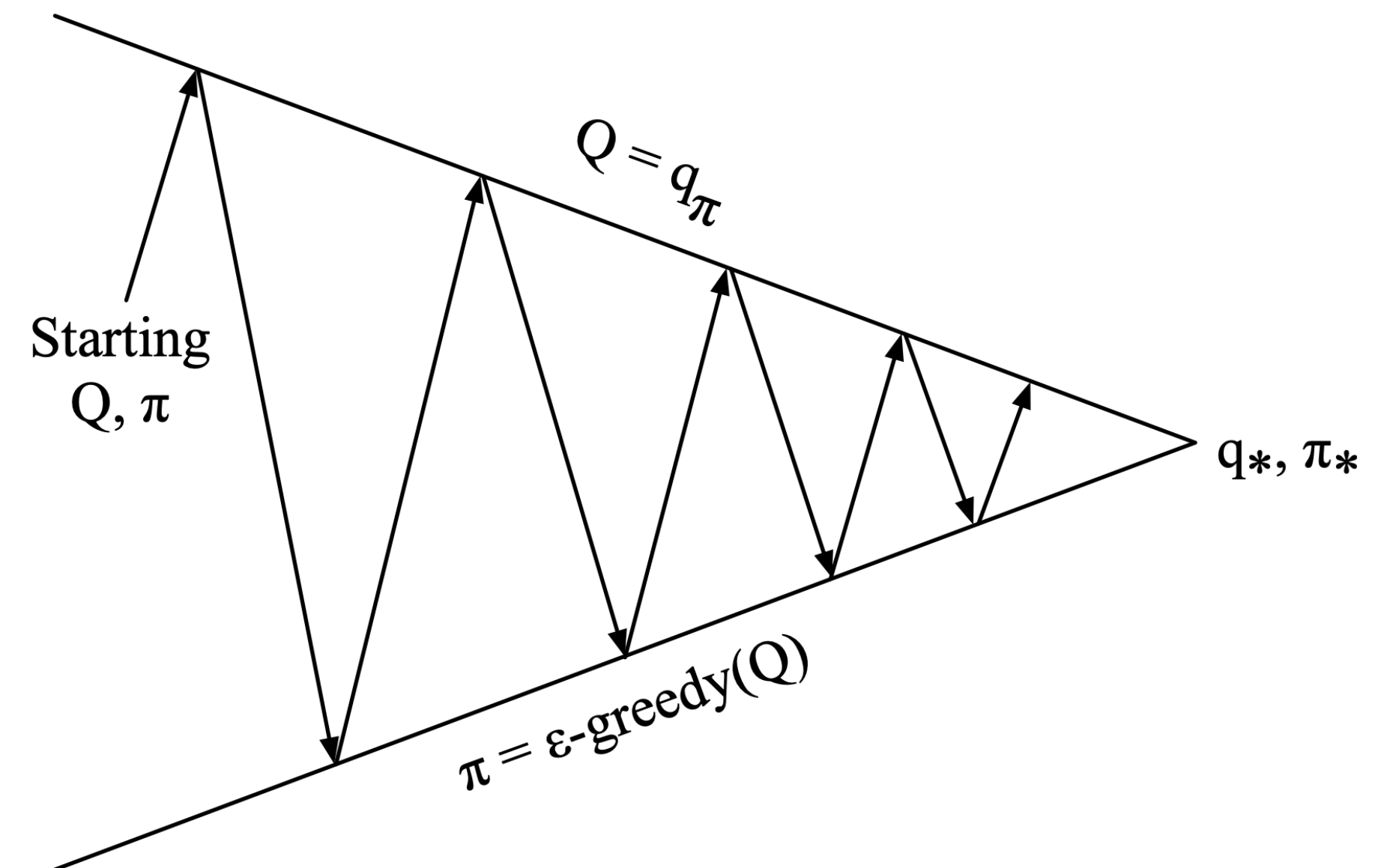
To estimate state-action values through samples, every **state-action pair** needs to be visited (opposed to each state as in MC estimation of $V(x)$)

Deterministic policies do not allow this exploration

A simple (but effective) strategy: ϵ -Greedy Exploration

- With probability $1 - \epsilon$, choose the greedy action
- With probability ϵ , choose a random action
- Ensures that all m actions are tried with non-zero probability

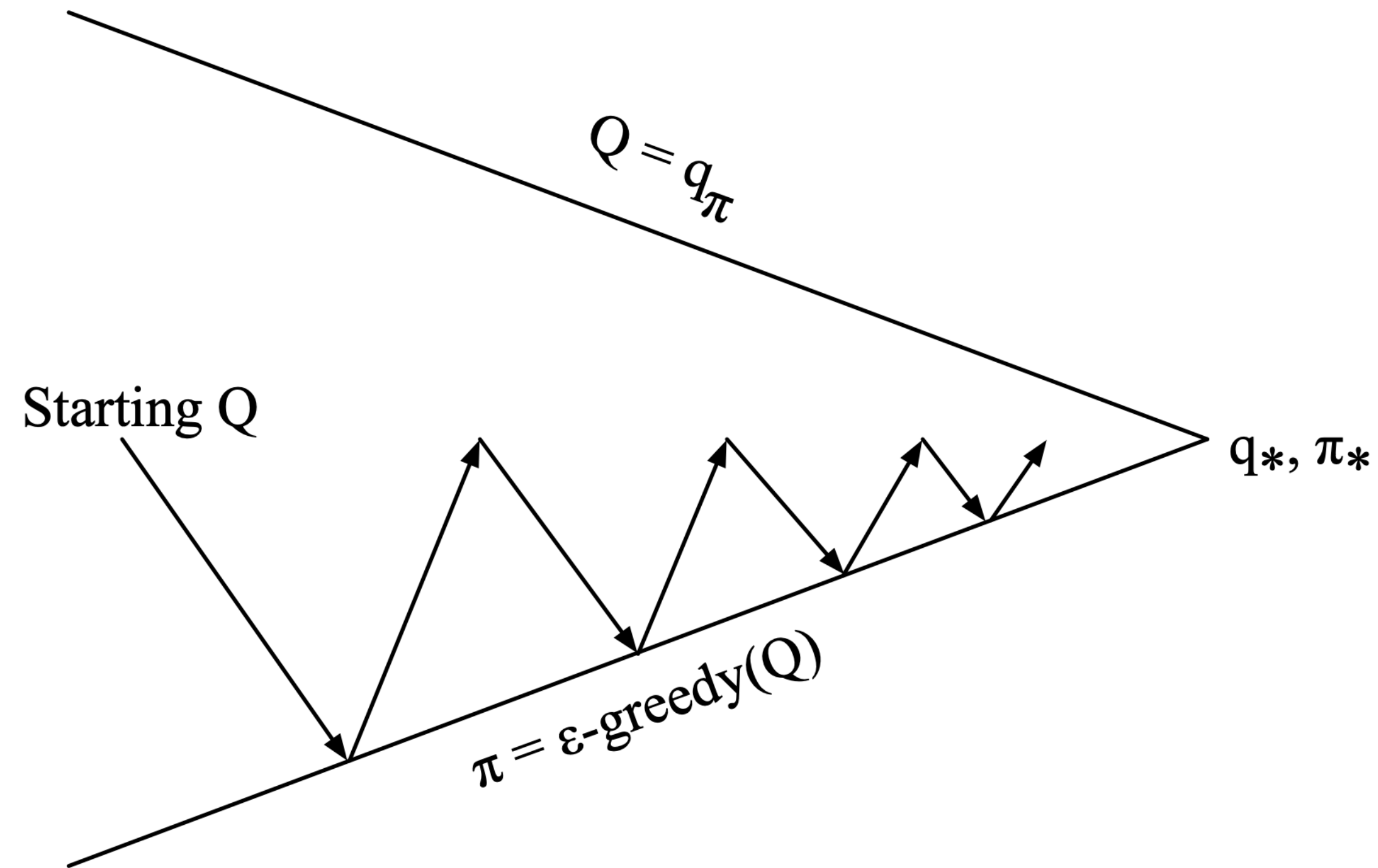
$$\pi(u | x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\epsilon}{m} + 1 - \epsilon & \text{if } u^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{u \in \mathcal{U}} Q(x, u) \\ \frac{\epsilon}{m} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Policy **Evaluation**: Monte-Carlo policy evaluation of $Q(x, u)$

Policy **Improvement**: ϵ -Greedy policy improvement

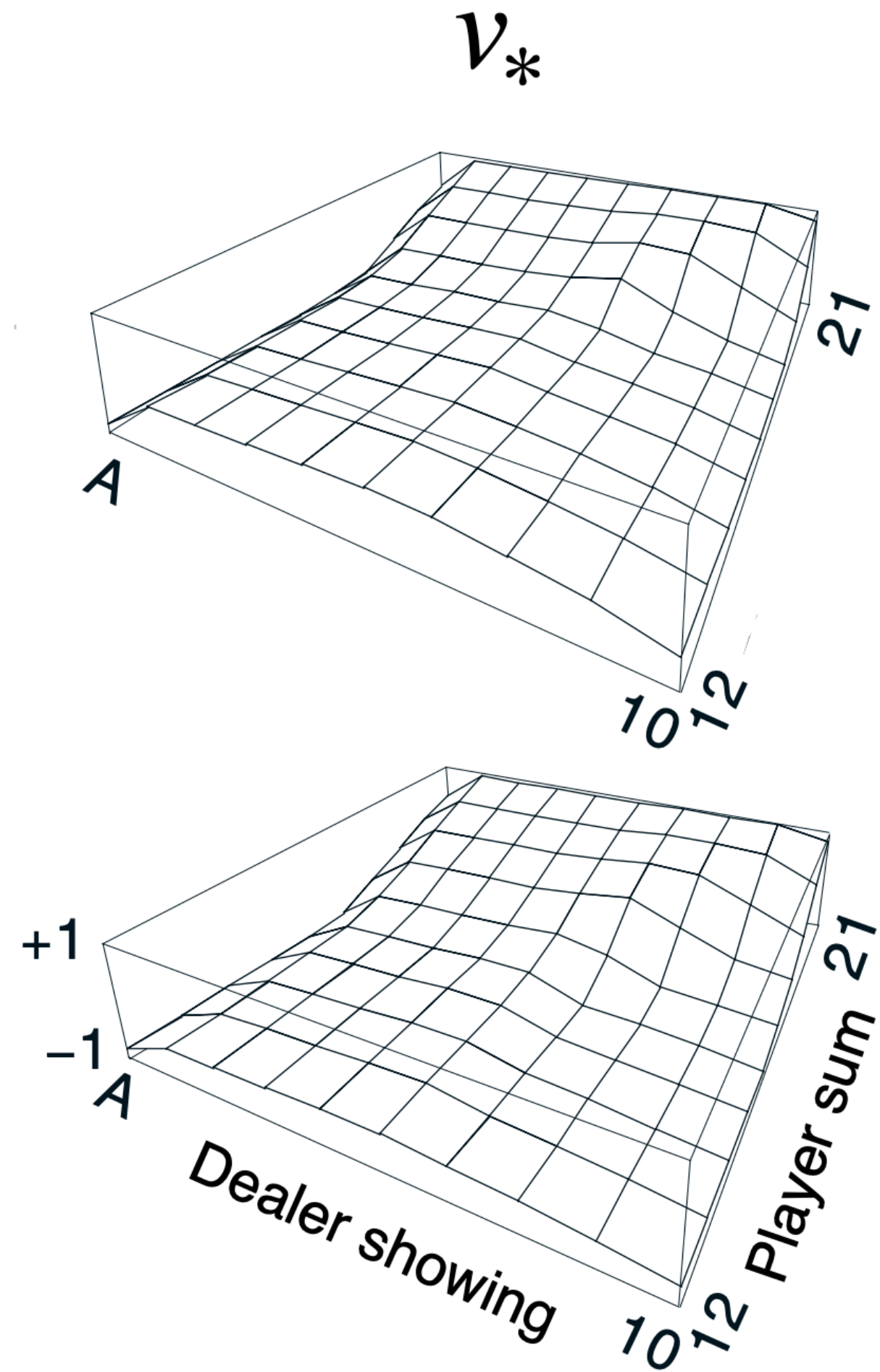
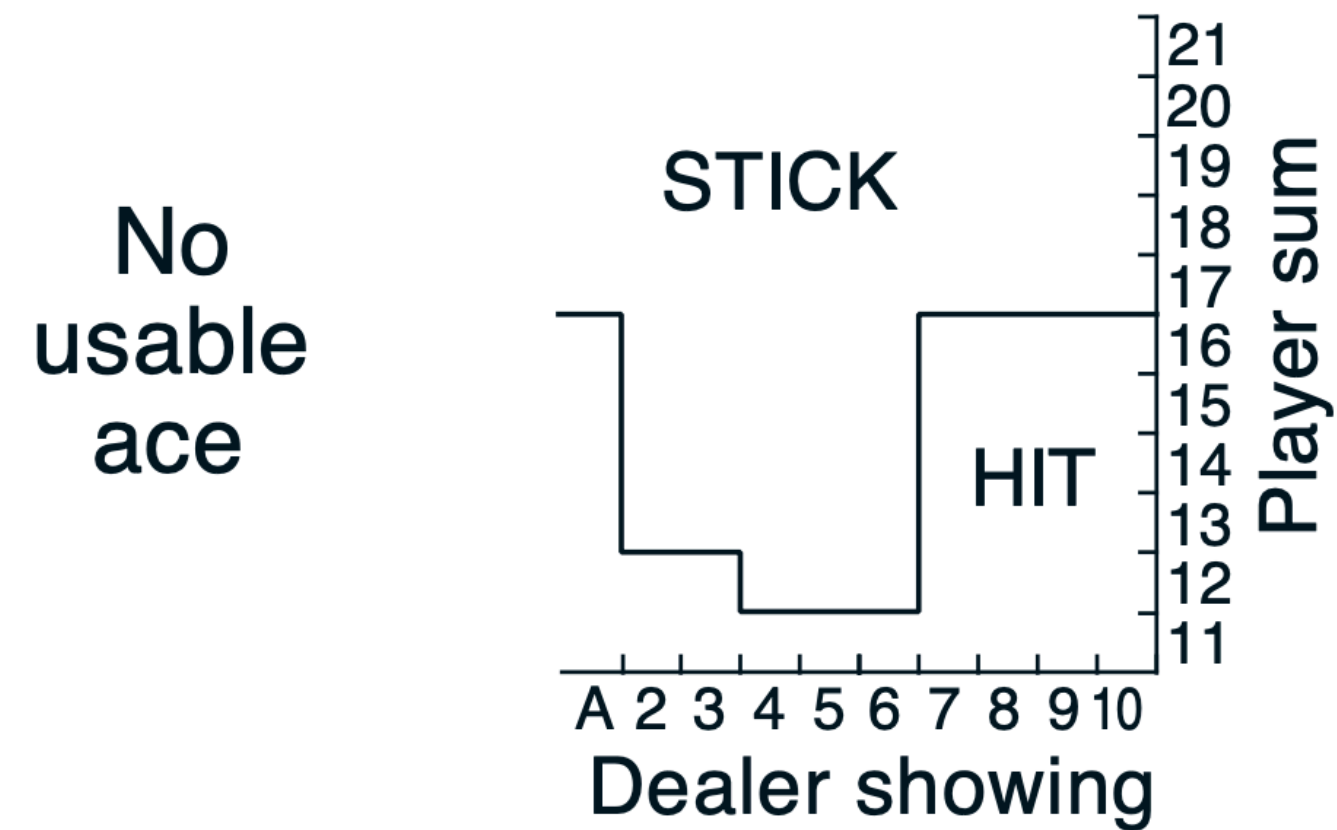
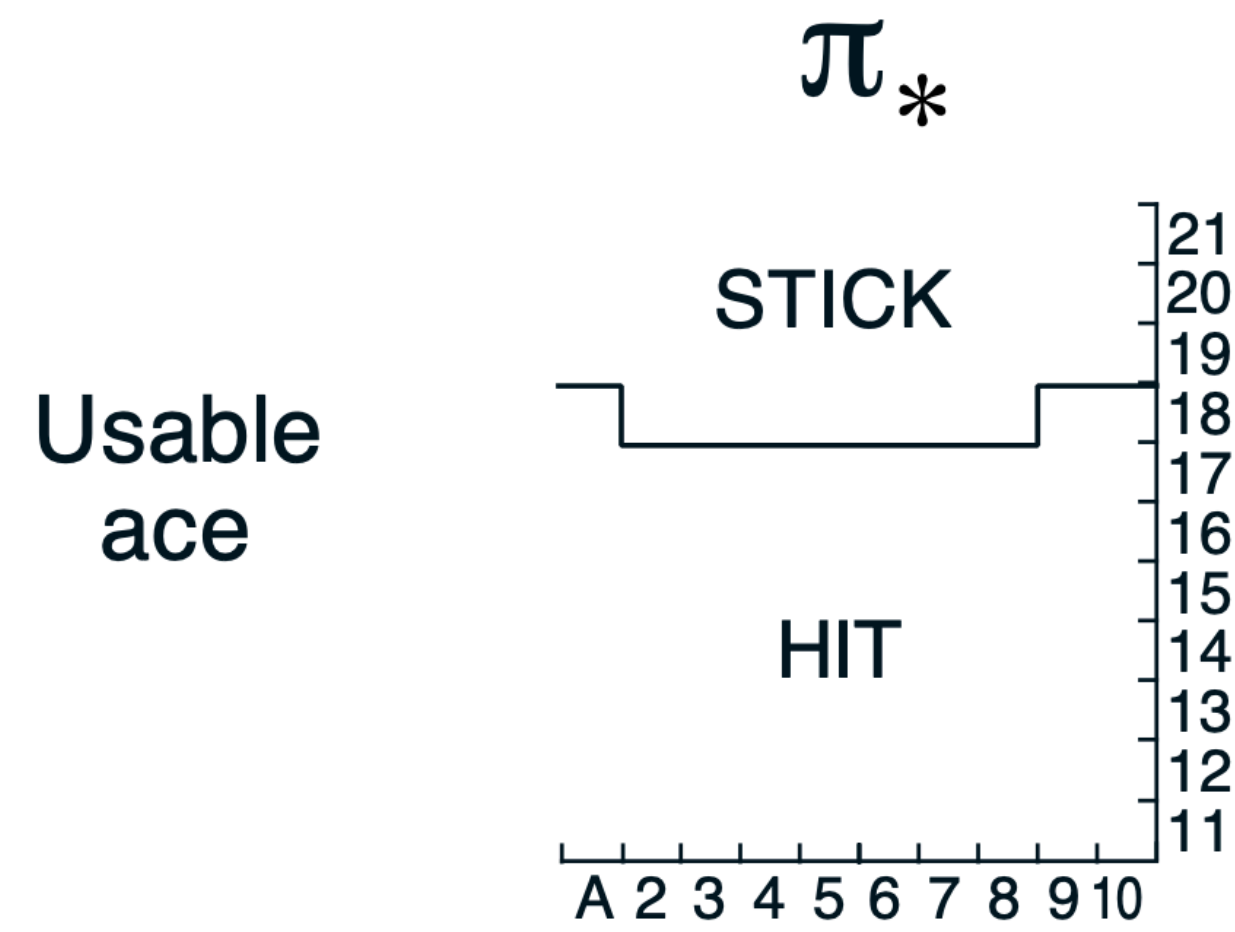
Monte-Carlo Control



Policy **Evaluation**: Monte-Carlo policy evaluation of $\hat{Q}(x, u) \approx Q(x, u)$

Policy **Improvement**: ϵ -Greedy policy improvement

Example: Blackjack



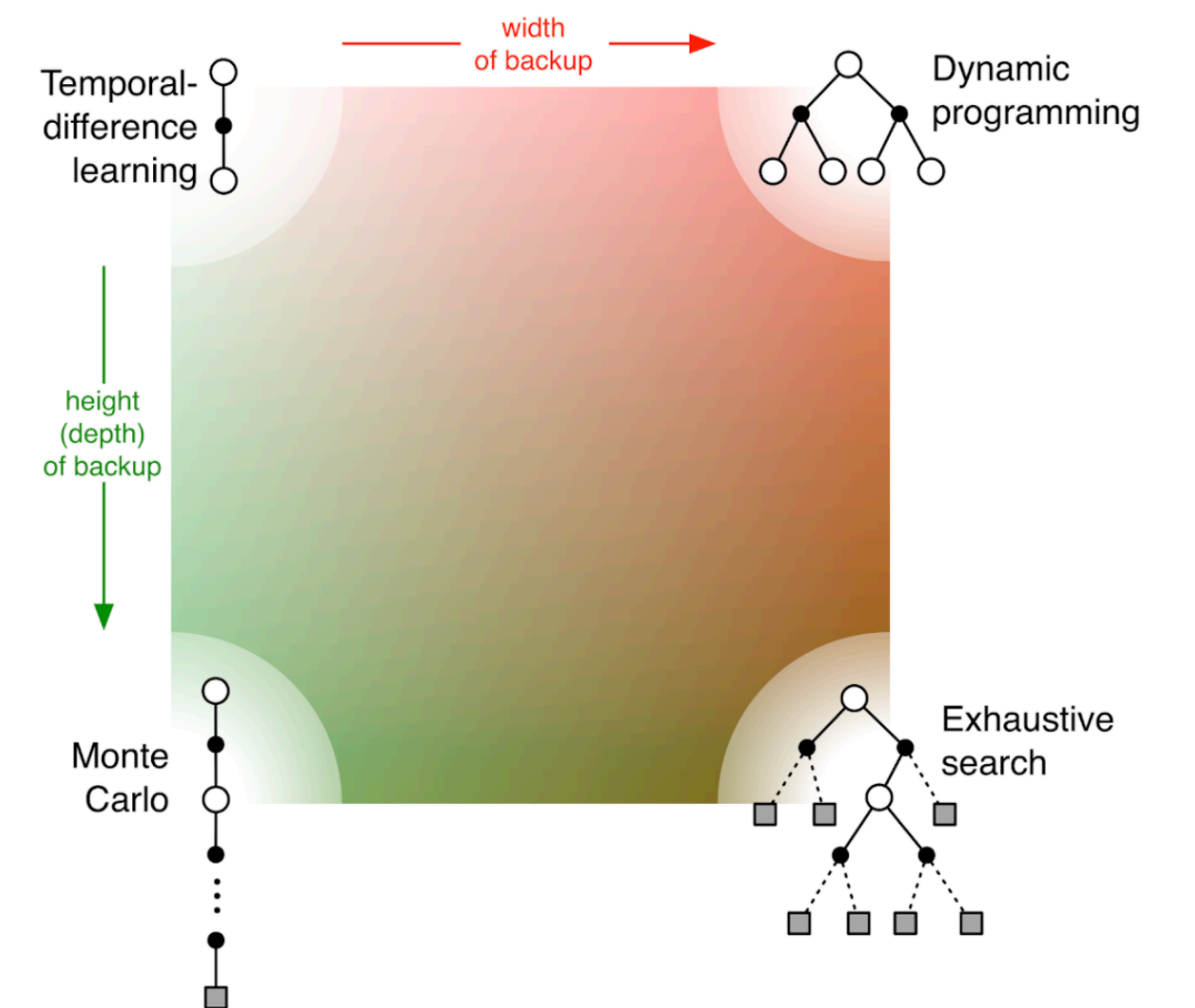
To recap...

We discussed the main limitations of exact methods (such as Policy/Value Iteration):

- Update equations (i.e., Bellman equations) require access to dynamics model $T(x_{t+1} | x_t, u_t)$ **Sampling-based approximations**
- Iteration over (and storage of) all states and actions requires small, discrete state-action space **Function approximation**

We introduced core ideas such as Monte-Carlo and Temporal-Difference Learning and derived ways to solve unknown MDPs

However, we did not discuss methods to deal with high-dimensional state/action spaces... more on this later!



Outline

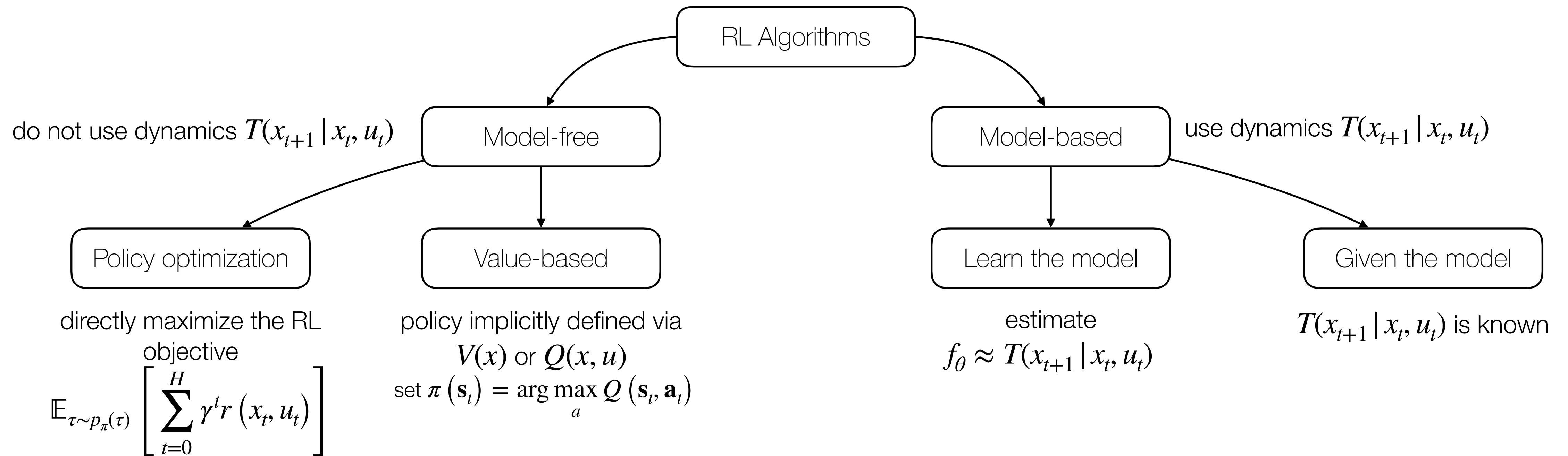
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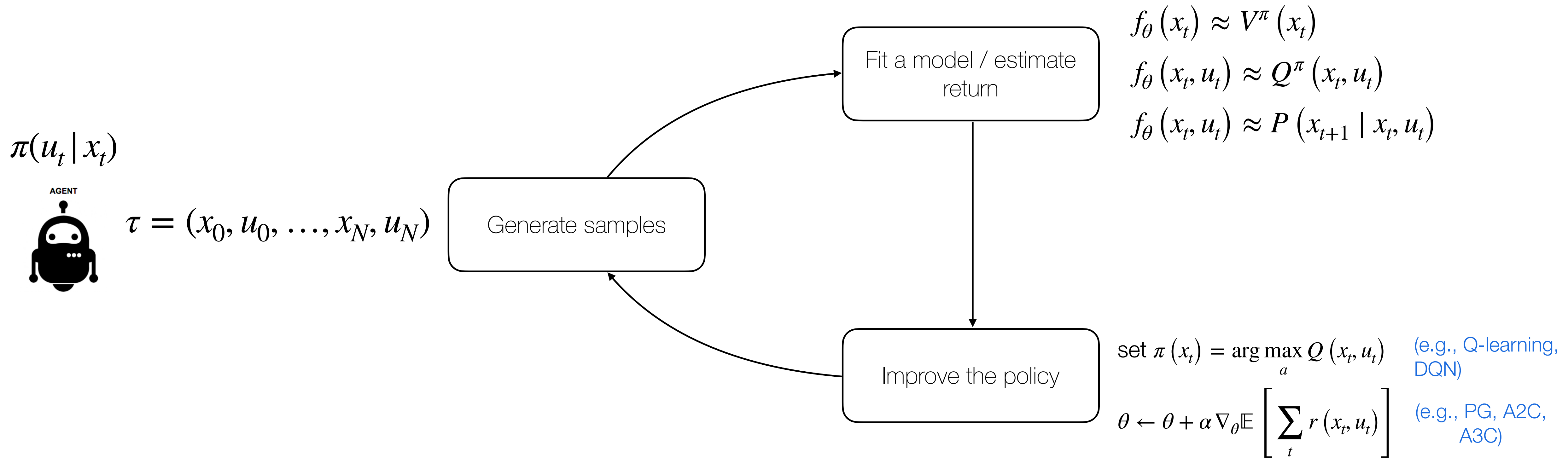
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A taxonomy of RL algorithms & important trade-offs

A taxonomy of RL



The skeleton of an RL algorithm

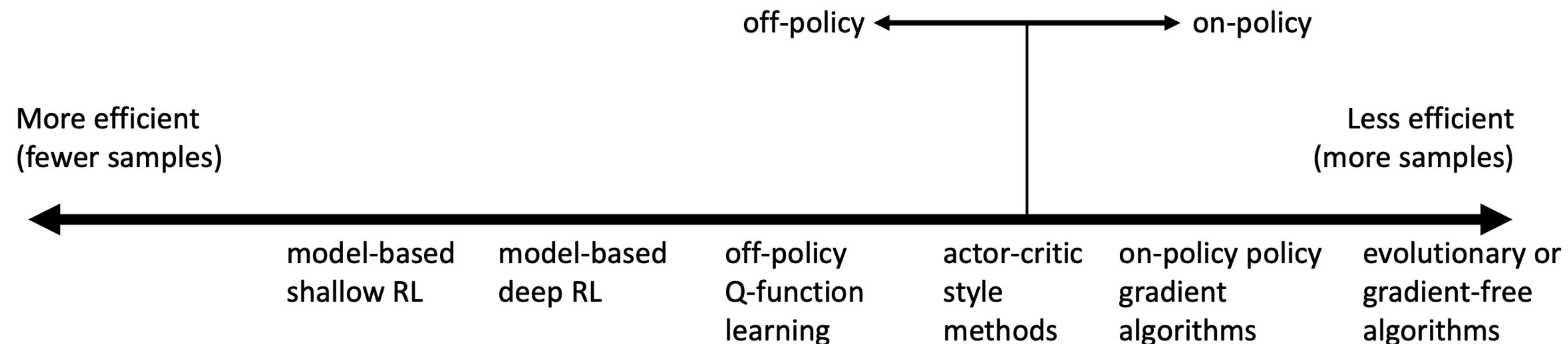


Why so many RL algorithms?

- **Different tradeoffs:**
 - Sample efficiency
 - Stability & easy of use
- **Different assumptions:**
 - Stochastic or deterministic
 - Continuous or discrete
 - Episodic or infinite horizon
- **Different things are easy or hard in different settings:**
 - Easier to represent the policy?
 - Easier to represent the model?

Comparison: sample efficiency

- Sample efficiency = how many samples do we need to get a good policy?
- Crucial question: is the algorithm *off policy*?
 - **Off policy**: able to improve the policy without generating new samples from the current policy
 - **On policy**: each time the policy is changed, even a little bit, we need to generate new samples



Why even bother using less efficient algorithms? Wall-clock time is not the same as efficiency!

Comparison: stability and ease of use

- Does it converge?
 - And if it does, to what?
 - Does it *always* converge?
-
- Supervised learning: almost always gradient descent
 - Reinforcement learning: often not gradient descent
 - Q-learning: fixed point iteration
 - Model-based RL: model estimator is not optimized for expected reward

Next time

- MPC