### AA203 Optimal and Learning-based Control Model-free Reinforcement Learning: Value-based Methods







### Review

In previous lectures, we made the distinction between pred optimal policy  $\pi^*$ )

Motivated by Dynamic Programming, we discussed *exact methods* for solving MDPs:

- Policy Iteration
- Value Iteration

Limitation: Update equations (i.e., Bellman equations) requ

We saw how to use **sampling and bootstrapping** to approximate the expectations in the update equations:

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

### In previous lectures, we made the distinction between prediction (given a policy $\pi$ , estimate $V_{\pi}, Q_{\pi}$ ) and control (learn the

Problem	Bellman Equation	Algorithm
Prediction	Bellman Expectation Equation	Iterative
		Policy Evaluation
Control	Bellman Expectation Equation	Policy Iteration
	+ Greedy Policy Improvement	
Control	Bellman Optimality Equation	Value Iteration

uire access to dynamics model 
$$T(x_{t+1} \mid x_t, u_t)$$



т





- DP bootstraps

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![](_page_3_Picture_11.jpeg)

![](_page_3_Picture_12.jpeg)

• For control:

**Generalized Policy Iteration** 

![](_page_4_Figure_2.jpeg)

"Monte-Carlo Control"

![](_page_4_Figure_5.jpeg)

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

## A taxonomy of RL

![](_page_5_Figure_1.jpeg)

## Outline

### Value-based Methods

Tabular methods

- On-policy & Off-policy
  - SARSA
  - Q-learning

Value function approximation

Deep (Value-based) RL Methods & Applications

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# Temporal-Difference Control

- TD learning has several advantages over MC
  - Lower variance
  - Online
  - Incomplete sequences
- Natural idea: use TD instead of MC in our GPI scheme
  - Apply TD to estimate Q(x, u)
  - Use  $\epsilon$ -greedy policy improvement
  - Update every time-step

# Updating action-value functions with Sarsa

the next through the following update rule

$$Q(x_t, u_t) \leftarrow Q(x_t, u_t) + \alpha \left( r_t + \gamma Q \left( x_t \right) \right)$$

• In RL literature,  $(x_t, u_t, r_t, x_{t+1}, u_{t+1})$  is often expressed as  $(s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t+1}, a_{t+1})$ : hence the name

• Uses every element of the quintuple of events,  $(x_t, u_t, r_t, x_{t+1}, u_{t+1})$ , that make up a transition from one state-action pair to

 $(x_{t+1}, u_{t+1}) - Q(x_t, u_t))$ 

Temporal-Difference backup  

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

![](_page_8_Figure_9.jpeg)

![](_page_8_Picture_11.jpeg)

## Sarsa algorithm

Initialize  $Q(x, u), \forall x \in X, \forall u \in U$ , arbitrarily, and  $Q(\text{terminal-state}, \cdot) = 0$ Repeat (for each episode): Initialize  $x_t$ Choose  $u_t$  from  $x_t$  using policy derived from Q (e.g.,  $\epsilon$ -greedy) Repeat (for each step of episode): Take action  $u_t$ , observe  $r_t$ ,  $x_{t+1}$ Choose  $u_{t+1}$  from  $x_{t+1}$  using policy derived from Q (e.g.,  $\epsilon$ -greedy)  $Q(x_t, u_t) \leftarrow Q(x_t, u_t) + \alpha \left( r_t + \gamma Q \left( x_{t+1}, u_{t+1} \right) - Q(x_t, u_t) \right)$  $x_t \leftarrow x_{t+1}; u_t \leftarrow u_{t+1}$ until  $x_t$  is terminal

## Windy Gridworld example

![](_page_10_Figure_1.jpeg)

![](_page_10_Figure_4.jpeg)

- Reward -1 until goal is reached
- *\epsilon = 0.1*
- $\alpha = 0.5$
- $\gamma = 1$

## Windy Gridworld example

![](_page_11_Figure_1.jpeg)

### **Question:**

Would MC methods easily apply to this problem? And why?

# Sarsa algorithm for ?-policy control

**On-policy**: evaluate or improve the policy that is used to make decisions

**Off-policy:** evaluate or improve a policy different from that used to generate the data

Initialize  $Q(x, u), \forall x \in X, \forall u \in U$ , arbitrarily, and Q(terminal-state,  $\cdot$ ) = 0 Repeat (for each episode): Initialize  $x_t$ Choose  $u_t$  from  $x_t$  using policy derived from Q (e.g.,  $\epsilon$ -greedy) Repeat (for each step of episode): Take action  $u_t$ , observe  $r_t$ ,  $x_{t+1}$ Choose  $u_{t+1}$  from  $u_{t+1}$  using policy derived from Q (e.g.,  $\epsilon$ -greedy)  $Q(x_t, u_t) \leftarrow Q(x_t, u_t) + \alpha \left( r_t + \gamma Q \left( x_{t+1}, u_{t+1} \right) - Q(x_t, u_t) \right)$  $x_t \leftarrow x_{t+1}; u_t \leftarrow u_{t+1}$ until  $x_t$  is terminal

# Off-policy learning

• Evaluate target policy  $\pi(u | x)$  to compute  $V_{\pi}(x)$  or  $Q_{\pi}(x, u)$  while following behavior policy  $\mu(u | x)$ , i.e.,

Why is this important?

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

 $\{x_1, u_1, r_1, \dots, x_T\} \sim \mu$ , "the data we observe is obtained under policy  $\mu$ "

![](_page_13_Figure_10.jpeg)

# Off-policy learning of action-values

- We consider off-policy learning of action-values Q(x, u)
- As in Sarsa, we use the behavior policy  $\mu$  to obtain  $(x_t, u)$  $u'_{t+1} \sim \pi(u'_{t+1} | x_{t+1})$
- And update Q(x, u) towards value of alternative action

$$Q(x_t, u_t) \leftarrow Q(x_t, u_t) + \alpha \left( r_t + \gamma Q\left( x_{t+1}, u_{t+1}' \right) - Q(t, u_t) \right)$$

• As in Sarsa, we use the behavior policy  $\mu$  to obtain  $(x_t, u_t, r_t, x_{t+1}, u'_{t+1})$ , but we consider an alternative successor action

## Q-learning

Specifically, in Q-learning

• The target policy  $\pi$  is chosen as the greedy policy w.r.t. Q(x)

$$\pi(x_{t+1}) = \operatorname*{argmax}_{u'_{t+1}} Q\left(x_{t+1}, u'_{t+1}\right)$$

• The behavior policy  $\mu$  is chosen as the  $\epsilon$ -greedy policy w.r.t. Q(x, u)

Which leads to the following Q-learning target and update:

$$\begin{aligned} r_{t+1} + \gamma Q \left( x_{t+1}, u_{t+1}' \right) \\ = r_{t+1} + \gamma Q \left( x_{t+1}, \operatorname*{argmax}_{u_{t+1}'} Q \left( x_{t+1}, u_{t+1}' \right) \right) \\ = r_{t+1} + \gamma \max_{u_{t+1}'} Q \left( x_{t+1}, u_{t+1}' \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$Q(x_t, u_t) \leftarrow Q(x_t, u_t) + \alpha \left( r_t + \gamma \max_{u_{t+1}'} Q\left( x_{t+1}, u_{t+1}' \right) - Q(t, u_t) \right)$$

![](_page_15_Picture_13.jpeg)

# Q-learning algorithm for off-policy control

Initialize  $Q(x, u), \forall x \in X, \forall u \in U$ , arbitrarily, and Q(terminal-state,  $\cdot$ ) = 0 Repeat (for each episode): Initialize  $x_t$ Repeat (for each step of episode): Choose  $u_t$  from  $x_t$  using policy derived from Q (e.g.,  $\epsilon$ -greedy) Take action  $u_t$ , observe  $r_t$ ,  $x_{t+1}$   $Q(x_t, u_t) \leftarrow Q(x_t, u_t) + \alpha \left(r_t + \gamma \right)$  $\mathbf{N}$ until  $x_t$  is terminal

### Theorem

 $Q(s,a) 
ightarrow q_*(s,a)$ 

$$\max_{u'_{t+1}} Q\left(x_{t+1}, u'_{t+1}\right) - Q(x_t, u_t)\right)$$

Q-learning control converges to the optimal action-value function,

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## Differences between Sarsa and Q-learning

![](_page_17_Figure_1.jpeg)

![](_page_17_Figure_2.jpeg)

- Reward -1 until goal is reached, -100 if on "The Cliff"
- *ε* = 0.1
- $\alpha = 0.5$
- $\gamma = 1$

- Sarsa converges to the **optimal** *e*-greedy policy
- Q-learning converges to the optimal policy  $\pi^{\ast}$  / value function  $Q^{\ast}$

### Outline

Value function approximation

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# Solving large-scale problems with RL

• Reinforcement learning can be used to solve *large* problems, e.g.,

![](_page_19_Picture_2.jpeg)

![](_page_19_Picture_3.jpeg)

Backgammon: 10<sup>20</sup> states

How can we scale the methods for model-free RL we developed over the last lectures?

![](_page_19_Picture_9.jpeg)

![](_page_19_Picture_10.jpeg)

All those problems where we have a continuous state space

# Value function approximation

- So far we used **lookup tables** to represent value functions:
  - One entry for every state x in V(x)
  - One entry for every state-action pair (x, u) in Q(x, u)
- In large MDPs, lookup table might be prohibitive. For two main reasons:
  - Memory: too many actions/states to store
  - Sparsity/Curse of dimensionality: learning the value of each state/action pair individually might take too long

### Solution:

• Estimate the value function through function approximation, i.e., define a parametric function with parameters heta

$$\hat{Q}_{\theta}(x)$$
  
 $\hat{V}_{\theta}$ 

 $\rightarrow$  Represent the value function compactly (depends only on parameters  $\theta$ )  $\rightarrow$  Generalize across states (avoid having to visit the entire state-action space by generalizing from seen to unseen states)

 $(x, u) \approx Q(x, u)$ 

 $Q(x) \approx V(x)$ 

![](_page_21_Figure_0.jpeg)

There are many possible function approximators

• Linear regression, Neural network, Random forest, Nearest neighbor, etc.

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![](_page_21_Picture_6.jpeg)

### Approximating value fn. by (stochastic) gradient descent

e.g., MSE

Gradient descent converges to a local minimum

Stochastic GD samples the gradient

$$\Delta \theta = \alpha \left( V_{\pi}(x) - \hat{V}_{\theta}(x) \right) \nabla_{\theta} \hat{V}_{\theta}(x)$$

Goal: find the parameter vector  $\theta$  that minimizes the "error" between the estimated value  $\hat{V}_{\theta}(x)$  and the true value  $V_{\pi}(x)$ ,

$$J(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left[ \left( V_{\pi}(x) - \hat{V}_{\theta}(x) \right)^2 \right]$$

$$\Delta \theta = -\frac{1}{2} \alpha \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta)$$

$$= \alpha \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left[ \left( V_{\pi}(x) - \hat{V}_{\theta}(x) \right) \nabla_{\theta} \hat{V}_{\theta}(x) \right]$$

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### Approximating value fn. by (stochastic) gradient descent

In the previous slide, we assumed to know the true value function  $V_{\pi} \rightarrow$  in RL there is no supervisor, only reward

In practice, we use a *target* for  $V_{\pi}$ 

• Monte-Carlo: the target is the return

 $\Delta \theta = \alpha \left( \mathbf{G}_t - \hat{V}_{\theta}(x_t) \right) \nabla_{\theta} \hat{V}_{\theta}(x_t)$ 

• Temporal-Difference: the target is the TD target

$$\Delta \theta = \alpha \left( r_t + \gamma \hat{V} \right)$$

 $\hat{V}_{\theta}(x_{t+1}) - \hat{V}_{\theta}(x_t) \right) \nabla_{\theta} \hat{V}_{\theta}(x_t)$ 

![](_page_24_Figure_0.jpeg)

![](_page_24_Figure_1.jpeg)

Fn. Approx. 
$$\hat{V}(x)$$

1) Collect dataset  $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_t, G_t)\}$ 

2) Update  $\theta$ 

$$\theta = \theta + \alpha \left( G_t - \hat{V}_{\theta}(x_t) \right) \nabla_{\theta} \hat{V}_{\theta}(x_t)$$

1) Collect dataset  $\mathscr{D} = \{(x_t, r_t + \gamma \hat{V}_{\theta}(x_t))\}$ 2) Update estimate

$$\theta = \theta + \alpha \left( r_t + \gamma \hat{V}_{\theta}(x_t) - \hat{V}_{\theta}(x_t) \right) \nabla_{\theta} \hat{V}_{\theta}(x_t)$$

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. . .

## <u>Control</u> with function approximation

![](_page_25_Figure_1.jpeg)

Policy improvement  $\epsilon$ -greedy policy improvement

# Policy evaluation Approximate policy evaluation, $\hat{q}(\cdot, \cdot, \mathbf{w}) \approx q_{\pi}$

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# Action-value function approximation

Exactly the same intuitions apply when we try to approximate the action value function:

• Minimize the mean-squared error between the estimated value  $\hat{Q}_{\theta}(x,u)$  and the true value  $Q_{\pi}(x,u)$ 

$$J(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left[ Q_{\pi}(x, u) - \hat{Q}_{\theta}(x, u) \right]$$

Use stochastic gradient descent to find a local minimum •

$$\Delta \theta = \alpha \left( Q_{\pi}(x, u) - \hat{Q}_{\theta}(x, u) \right) \nabla_{\theta} \hat{Q}_{\theta}(x, u)$$

**Fitted Q-Iteration:** update  $\theta$  via stochastic gradient descent on TD target  $\Delta \theta = \alpha \left( r_t + \gamma \max_{u'_{t+1}} Q_\theta \left( x_{t+1} \right) \right)$ 

$$(x_{t+1}, u_{t+1}') - \hat{Q}_{\theta}(x_t, u_t)) \nabla_{\theta} \hat{Q}_{\theta}(x_t, u_t)$$

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# Review: The skeleton of an RL algorithm

Generate samples

![](_page_27_Figure_3.jpeg)

# The skeleton of fitted Q-learning

Run the policy and observe  $(x_t, u_t, r_t, x_{t+1})$ 

Generate samples

![](_page_28_Figure_4.jpeg)

)

# Deep Q-Networks (DQN)

One of the most popular Deep RL algorithms and arguably one of the first successes of RL with neural networks

![](_page_29_Picture_2.jpeg)

(1) Use **deep neural nets** to represent  $Q_{\theta}$  in Qlearning

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![](_page_29_Picture_5.jpeg)

(2) Uses experience replay and fixed Q-targets

![](_page_29_Picture_9.jpeg)

# Deep Q-Networks (DQN)

(2) Uses experience replay and fixed Q-targets

- issues:
  - Samples within a trajectory are highly correlated  $\rightarrow$  makes supervised learning unstable i)
  - ii)  $\mathcal{U}_{t+1}'$ changes)

Intuitively:

- Take action  $u_t$  according to  $\epsilon$ -greedy policy
- Store transition  $(x_t, u_t, r_t, x_{t+1})$  in replay memory  $\mathscr{D}$
- Sample batch of transitions  $\{(x_t, u_t, r_t, x_{t+1})_i\}_{i=1}^B$  from  $\mathcal{D}$  (Experience replay decorrelates data)
- Compute Q-learning targets w.r.t. old, fixed parameters  $\phi$
- Optimize MSE between Q-network prediction and Q-learning targets (Fixed targets stabilize the objective)

$$J(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{(x_t, u_t, r_t, x_{t+1}) \sim \mathcal{D}} \left[ r_t + \gamma \max_{u} Q_{\phi}(x_{t+1}, u) - \hat{Q}_{\theta}(x_t, u_t) \right]$$

![](_page_30_Picture_13.jpeg)

• These two ideas turned out to be very important to stabilize training. Specifically, these concepts attempt to solve two

The target  $r_t + \gamma \max Q_{\theta}(x_{t+1}, u'_{t+1})$  is a moving target (i.e., as we update  $\theta$ , the target of our regression also

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### Next time

Model-free RL: policy optimization methods

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