6.231 DYNAMIC PROGRAMMING

LECTURE 5

LECTURE OUTLINE

- Review of approximate PI based on projected Bellman equations
- Issues of policy improvement
 - Exploration enhancement in policy evaluation
 - Oscillations in approximate PI
- Aggregation An alternative to the projected equation/Galerkin approach
- Examples of aggregation
- Simulation-based aggregation
- Relation between aggregation and projected equations

REVIEW

DISCOUNTED MDP

- System: Controlled Markov chain with states i = 1, ..., n and finite set of controls $u \in U(i)$
- Transition probabilities: $p_{ij}(u)$

$$p_{ij}(u) \underbrace{p_{ij}(u)}_{i} \underbrace{p_{jj}(u)}_{j} p_{jj}(u)$$

• Cost of a policy $\pi = \{\mu_0, \mu_1, \ldots\}$ starting at state *i*:

$$J_{\pi}(i) = \lim_{N \to \infty} E\left\{\sum_{k=0}^{N} \alpha^{k} g\left(i_{k}, \mu_{k}(i_{k}), i_{k+1}\right) \mid i = i_{0}\right\}$$

with $\alpha \in [0,1)$

• Shorthand notation for DP mappings

$$(TJ)(i) = \min_{u \in U(i)} \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}(u) \left(g(i, u, j) + \alpha J(j) \right), \quad i = 1, \dots, n,$$

$$(T_{\mu}J)(i) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}(\mu(i))(g(i,\mu(i),j) + \alpha J(j)), \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

APPROXIMATE PI



• Evaluation of typical policy μ : Linear cost function approximation

$$\tilde{J}_{\mu}(r) = \Phi r$$

where Φ is full rank $n \times s$ matrix with columns the basis functions, and *i*th row denoted $\phi(i)'$.

• Policy "improvement" to generate $\overline{\mu}$:

$$\overline{\mu}(i) = \arg\min_{u \in U(i)} \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}(u) \left(g(i, u, j) + \alpha \phi(j)' r \right)$$

EVALUATION BY PROJECTED EQUATIONS

• Approximate policy evaluation by solving

$$\Phi r = \Pi T_{\mu}(\Phi r)$$

 Π : weighted Euclidean projection; special nature of the steady-state distribution weighting.

• Implementation by simulation (single long trajectory using current policy - important to make ΠT_{μ} a contraction). LSTD, LSPE methods.

• Multistep option: Solve $\Phi r = \Pi T^{(\lambda)}_{\mu}(\Phi r)$ with

$$T_{\mu}^{(\lambda)} = (1 - \lambda) \sum_{\ell=0}^{\infty} \lambda^{\ell} T_{\mu}^{\ell+1}$$

- As $\lambda \uparrow 1$, $\Pi T^{(\lambda)}$ becomes a contraction for any projection norm
- Bias-variance tradeoff



ISSUES OF POLICY IMPROVEMENT

EXPLORATION

• 1st major issue: exploration. To evaluate μ , we need to generate cost samples using μ

• This biases the simulation by underrepresenting states that are unlikely to occur under μ .

• As a result, the cost-to-go estimates of these underrepresented states may be highly inaccurate, and seriously impact the "improved policy" $\overline{\mu}$.

• This is known as inadequate exploration - a particularly acute difficulty when the randomness embodied in the transition probabilities is "relatively small" (e.g., a deterministic system).

• To deal with this we must change the sampling mechanism and modify the simulation formulas.

• Solve

$$\Phi r = \overline{\Pi} T_{\mu}(\Phi r)$$

where $\overline{\Pi}$ is projection with respect to an explorationenhanced norm [uses a weight distribution $\zeta = (\zeta_1, \ldots, \zeta_n)$].

• ζ is more "balanced" than ξ the steady-state distribution of the Markov chain of μ .

• This also addresses any lack of ergodicity of μ .

EXPLORATION MECHANISMS

• One possibility: Use multiple short simulation trajectories instead of single long trajectory starting from a rich mixture of states. This is known as geometric sampling, or free-form sampling.

- By properly choosing the starting states, we enhance exploration
- The simulation formulas for $LSTD(\lambda)$ and $LSPE(\lambda)$ have to be modified to yield the solution of $\Phi r = \overline{\Pi}T(\Phi r)$ (see the DP text)

• Another possibility: Use a modified policy to generate a single long trajectory. This is called an off-policy approach.

- Modify the transition probabilities of μ to enhance exploration
- Again the simulation formulas for $LSTD(\lambda)$ and $LSPE(\lambda)$ have to be modified to yield the solution of $\Phi r = \overline{\Pi}T(\Phi r)$ (use of importance sampling; see the DP text)
- With larger values of $\lambda > 0$ the contraction property of $\overline{\Pi}T^{(\lambda)}_{\mu}$ is maintained.
- LSTD may be used without $\overline{\Pi}T_{\mu}^{(\lambda)}$ being a contraction ...

POLICY ITERATION ISSUES: OSCILLATIONS

• 2nd major issue: oscillation of policies

• Analysis using the greedy partition: R_{μ} is the set of parameter vectors r for which μ is greedy with respect to $\tilde{J}(\cdot; r) = \Phi r$

$$R_{\mu} = \left\{ r \mid T_{\mu}(\Phi r) = T(\Phi r) \right\}$$

• There is a finite number of possible vectors r_{μ} , one generated from another in a deterministic way



• The algorithm ends up repeating some cycle of policies $\mu^k, \mu^{k+1}, \ldots, \mu^{k+m}$ with

$$r_{\mu^k} \in R_{\mu^{k+1}}, r_{\mu^{k+1}} \in R_{\mu^{k+2}}, \dots, r_{\mu^{k+m}} \in R_{\mu^k};$$

• Many different cycles are possible

MORE ON OSCILLATIONS/CHATTERING

• In the case of optimistic policy iteration a different picture holds



• Oscillations are less violent, but the "limit" point is meaningless!

- Fundamentally, oscillations are due to the lack of monotonicity of the projection operator, i.e., $J \leq J'$ does not imply $\Pi J \leq \Pi J'$.
- If approximate PI uses an evaluation of the form

$$\Phi r = (WT_{\mu})(\Phi r)$$

with W: monotone and WT_{μ} : contraction, the policies converge (to a possibly nonoptimal limit).

• The operator W in the aggregation approach has the monotonicity and contraction properties.

AGGREGATION

PROBLEM APPROXIMATION - AGGREGATION

• Another major idea in ADP is to approximate the cost-to-go function of the given problem with the cost-to-go function of a simpler problem.

• Aggregation is a systematic approach for problem approximation. Main elements:

- Introduce a few "aggregate" states, viewed as the states of an "aggregate" system
- Define transition probabilities and costs of the aggregate system, by relating original system states with aggregate states
- Solve (exactly or approximately) the "aggregate" problem by any kind of VI or PI method (including simulation-based methods)

• If $\hat{R}(y)$ is the optimal cost of aggregate state y, we use the approximation

$$J^*(j) \approx \sum_y \phi_{jy} \hat{R}(y), \qquad \forall \ j$$

where ϕ_{jy} are the aggregation probabilities, encoding the "degree of membership of j in the aggregate state y"

• This is a linear architecture: ϕ_{jy} are the features of state j

HARD AGGREGATION EXAMPLE

• Group the original system states into subsets, and view each subset as an aggregate state

• Aggregation probs.: $\phi_{jy} = 1$ if j belongs to aggregate state y (piecewise constant approx).



• What should be the transition probes out of x? Select $i \in x$ and use the transition probes of i.

• Suppose I am at aggregate state x, what does this tell me about which of the states $i \in x$ I am?

• The simplest possibility is to assume that all states in x are equally likely.

• A generalization is to use the disaggregation probabilities d_{xi} : Roughly, the "degree to which *i* is representative of *x*."

AGGREGATION/DISAGGREGATION PROBS



- Define the aggregate system transition probabilities via two (somewhat arbitrary) choices.
- For each original system state j and aggregate state y, the aggregation probability ϕ_{jy}
 - Roughly, the "degree of membership of j in the aggregate state y."
 - In hard aggregation, $\phi_{jy} = 1$ if state j belongs to aggregate state/subset y.
- For each aggregate state x and original system state i, the disaggregation probability d_{xi}
 - Roughly, the "degree to which i is representative of x."

• Aggregation scheme is defined by the two matrices D and Φ . The rows of D and Φ must be probability distributions.

AGGREGATE SYSTEM DESCRIPTION

• The transition probability from aggregate state x to aggregate state y under control u

$$\hat{p}_{xy}(u) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{xi} \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}(u)\phi_{jy}, \text{ or } \hat{P}(u) = DP(u)\Phi$$

where the rows of D and Φ are the disaggregation and aggregation probs.

• The expected transition cost is

$$\hat{g}(x,u) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{xi} \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}(u)g(i,u,j), \text{ or } \hat{g} = DPg$$



AGGREGATE BELLMAN'S EQUATION



• The optimal cost function of the aggregate problem, denoted \hat{R} , is

$$\hat{R}(x) = \min_{u \in U} \left[\hat{g}(x, u) + \alpha \sum_{y} \hat{p}_{xy}(u) \hat{R}(y) \right], \qquad \forall x$$

Bellman's equation for the aggregate problem.

• The optimal cost function J^* of the original problem is approximated by \tilde{J} given by

$$\widetilde{J}(j) = \sum_{y} \phi_{jy} \widehat{R}(y), \quad \forall j$$

EXAMPLE I: HARD AGGREGATION

• Group the original system states into subsets, and view each subset as an aggregate state

• Aggregation probs.: $\phi_{jy} = 1$ if j belongs to aggregate state y.



• Disaggregation probs.: There are many possibilities, e.g., all states i within aggregate state x have equal prob. d_{xi} .

• If optimal cost vector J^* is piecewise constant over the aggregate states/subsets, hard aggregation is exact. Suggests grouping states with "roughly equal" cost into aggregates.

• A variant: Soft aggregation (provides "soft boundaries" between aggregate states).

EXAMPLE II: FEATURE-BASED AGGREGATION

- Important question: How do we group states together?
- If we know good features, it makes sense to group together states that have "similar features"



• A general approach for passing from a featurebased state representation to an aggregation-based architecture

• Essentially discretize the features and generate a corresponding piecewise constant approximation to the optimal cost function

• Aggregation-based architecture is more powerful (nonlinear in the features)

• ... but may require many more aggregate states to reach the same level of performance as the corresponding linear feature-based architecture

EXAMPLE III: REP. STATES/COARSE GRID

• Choose a collection of "representative" original system states, and associate each one of them with an aggregate state



• Disaggregation probabilities are $d_{xi} = 1$ if *i* is equal to representative state *x*.

• Aggregation probabilities associate original system states with convex combinations of representative states

$$j \sim \sum_{y \in \mathcal{A}} \phi_{jy} y$$

• Well-suited for Euclidean space discretization

• Extends nicely to continuous state space, including belief space of POMDP

EXAMPLE IV: REPRESENTATIVE FEATURES

• Here the aggregate states are nonempty subsets of original system states. Common case: Each S_x is a group of states with "similar features"



- Restrictions:
 - The aggregate states/subsets are disjoint.
 - The disaggregation probabilities satisfy $d_{xi} > 0$ if and only if $i \in x$.
 - The aggregation probabilities satisfy $\phi_{jy} = 1$ for all $j \in y$.

• Hard aggregation is a special case: $\cup_x S_x = \{1, \ldots, n\}$

• Aggregation with representative states is a special case: S_x consists of just one state

APPROXIMATE PI BY AGGREGATION



• Consider approximate PI for the original problem, with policy evaluation done by aggregation.

• Evaluation of policy μ : $\tilde{J} = \Phi R$, where $R = DT_{\mu}(\Phi R)$ (*R* is the vector of costs of aggregate states for μ). Can be done by simulation.

• Looks like projected equation $\Phi R = \Pi T_{\mu}(\Phi R)$ (but with ΦD in place of Π).

• Advantages: It has no problem with oscillations.

• **Disadvantage:** The rows of D and Φ must be probability distributions.

ADDITIONAL ISSUES OF AGGREGATION

ALTERNATIVE POLICY ITERATION

• The preceding PI method uses policies that assign a control to each aggregate state.

• An alternative is to use PI for the combined system, involving the Bellman equations:

$$R^*(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n d_{xi} \tilde{J}_0(i), \qquad x \in \mathcal{A},$$

$$\tilde{J}_0(i) = \min_{u \in U(i)} \sum_{j=1}^n p_{ij}(u) (g(i, u, j) + \alpha \tilde{J}_1(j)), \ i = 1, \dots, n,$$

$$\tilde{J}_1(j) = \sum_{y \in \mathcal{A}} \phi_{jy} R^*(y), \qquad j = 1, \dots, n.$$



• Simulation-based PI and VI are still possible.

RELATION OF AGGREGATION/PROJECTION

• Compare aggregation and projected equations

 $\Phi R = \Phi DT(\Phi R), \qquad \Phi r = \Pi T(\Phi r)$

• If ΦD is a projection (with respect to some weighted Euclidean norm), then the methodology of projected equations applies to aggregation

• Hard aggregation case: ΦD can be verified to be projection with respect to weights ξ_i proportional to the disaggregation probabilities d_{xi}

• Aggregation with representative features case: ΦD can be verified to be a semi-norm projection with respect to weights ξ_i proportional to d_{xi}

• A (weighted) Euclidean semi-norm is defined by $\|J\|_{\xi} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \xi_i (J(i))^2}$, where $\xi = (\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n)$, with $\xi_i \ge 0$.

• If $\Phi' \Xi \Phi$ is invertible, the entire theory and algorithms of projected equations generalizes to semi-norm projected equations [including multistep methods such as LSTD/LSPE/TD(λ)].

• Reference: Yu and Bertsekas, "Weighted Bellman Equations and their Applications in Approximate Dynamic Programming," MIT Report, 2012.

DISTRIBUTED AGGREGATION I

- We consider decomposition/distributed solution of large-scale discounted DP problems by hard aggregation.
- Partition the original system states into subsets S_1, \ldots, S_m
- Distributed VI Scheme: Each subset S_{ℓ}
 - Maintains detailed/exact local costs

J(i) for every original system state $i \in S_{\ell}$

using aggregate costs of other subsets

- Maintains an aggregate cost $R(\ell) = \sum_{i \in S_{\ell}} d_{\ell i} J(i)$
- Sends $R(\ell)$ to other aggregate states
- J(i) and $R(\ell)$ are updated by VI according to

 $J_{k+1}(i) = \min_{u \in U(i)} H_{\ell}(i, u, J_k, R_k), \quad \forall i \in S_{\ell}$ with R_k being the vector of $R(\ell)$ at time k, and

$$\begin{aligned} H_{\ell}(i, u, J, R) &= \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}(u)g(i, u, j) + \alpha \sum_{j \in S_{\ell}} p_{ij}(u)J(j) \\ &+ \alpha \sum_{j \in S_{\ell'}, \ \ell' \neq \ell} p_{ij}(u)R(\ell') \end{aligned}$$

DISTRIBUTED AGGREGATION II

• Can show that this iteration involves a supnorm contraction mapping of modulus α , so it converges to the unique solution of the system of equations in (J, R)

$$J(i) = \min_{u \in U(i)} H_{\ell}(i, u, J, R), \quad R(\ell) = \sum_{i \in S_{\ell}} d_{\ell i} J(i),$$
$$\forall i \in S_{\ell}, \ \ell = 1, \dots, m.$$

• This follows from the fact that $\{d_{\ell i} \mid i = 1, \ldots, n\}$ is a probability distribution.

• View these equations as a set of Bellman equations for an "aggregate" DP problem. The difference is that the mapping H involves J(j) rather than R(x(j)) for $j \in S_{\ell}$.

• In an asynchronous version of the method, the aggregate costs $R(\ell)$ may be outdated to account for communication "delays" between aggregate states.

• Convergence can be shown using the general theory of asynchronous distributed computation (see the text).