

6.231 DYNAMIC PROGRAMMING

LECTURE 6

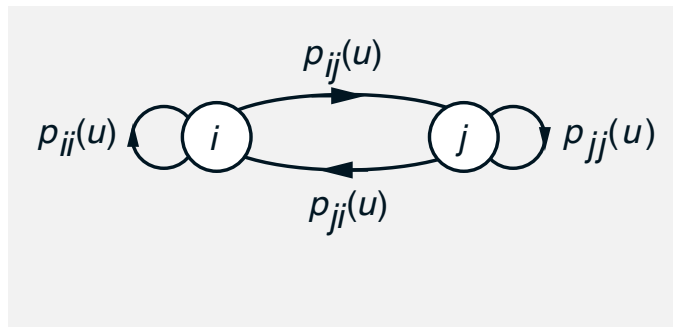
LECTURE OUTLINE

- Review of Q-factors and Bellman equations for Q-factors
- VI and PI for Q-factors
- Q-learning - Combination of VI and sampling
- Q-learning and cost function approximation
- Adaptive dynamic programming
- Approximation in policy space
- Additional topics

REVIEW

DISCOUNTED MDP

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



- Cost of a policy $\pi = \{\mu_0, \mu_1, \dots\}$ starting at state i :

$$J_\pi(i) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} E \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^N \alpha^k g(i_k, \mu_k(i_k), i_{k+1}) \mid i = i_0 \right\}$$

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

- Shorthand notation for DP mappings

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

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

BELLMAN EQUATIONS FOR Q-FACTORS

- The optimal Q -factors are defined by

$$Q^*(i, u) = \sum_{j=1}^n p_{ij}(u) (g(i, u, j) + \alpha J^*(j)), \quad \forall (i, u)$$

- Since $J^* = TJ^*$, we have $J^*(i) = \min_{u \in U(i)} Q^*(i, u)$ so the optimal Q -factors solve the equation

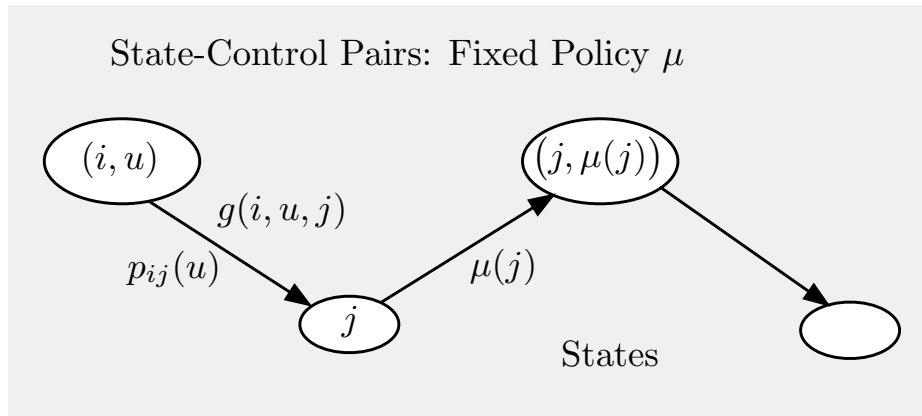
$$Q^*(i, u) = \sum_{j=1}^n p_{ij}(u) \left(g(i, u, j) + \alpha \min_{u' \in U(j)} Q^*(j, u') \right)$$

- Equivalently $Q^* = FQ^*$, where

$$(FQ)(i, u) = \sum_{j=1}^n p_{ij}(u) \left(g(i, u, j) + \alpha \min_{u' \in U(j)} Q(j, u') \right)$$

- This is Bellman's Eq. for a system whose states are the pairs (i, u)
- Similar mapping F_μ and Bellman equation for a policy μ : $Q_\mu = F_\mu Q_\mu$

BELLMAN EQ FOR Q-FACTORS OF A POLICY



- **Q-factors of a policy μ :** For all (i, u)

$$Q_{\mu}(i, u) = \sum_{j=1}^n p_{ij}(u) (g(i, u, j) + \alpha Q_{\mu}(j, \mu(j)))$$

Equivalently $Q_{\mu} = F_{\mu}Q_{\mu}$, where

$$(F_{\mu}Q)(i, u) = \sum_{j=1}^n p_{ij}(u) (g(i, u, j) + \alpha Q(j, \mu(j)))$$

- This is a linear equation. It can be used for policy evaluation.
- **Generally VI and PI can be carried out in terms of Q-factors.**
- When done exactly they produce results that are mathematically equivalent to cost-based VI and PI.

WHAT IS GOOD AND BAD ABOUT Q-FACTORS

- All the exact theory and algorithms for costs applies to Q-factors
 - Bellman's equations, contractions, optimality conditions, convergence of VI and PI
- All the approximate theory and algorithms for costs applies to Q-factors
 - Projected equations, sampling and exploration issues, oscillations, aggregation
- A MODEL-FREE (on-line) controller implementation
 - Once we calculate $Q^*(i, u)$ for all (i, u) ,

$$\mu^*(i) = \arg \min_{u \in U(i)} Q^*(i, u), \quad \forall i$$

- Similarly, once we calculate a parametric approximation $\tilde{Q}(i, u; r)$ for all (i, u) ,

$$\tilde{\mu}(i) = \arg \min_{u \in U(i)} \tilde{Q}(i, u; r), \quad \forall i$$

- The main bad thing: **Greater dimension and more storage!** (It can be used for large-scale problems only through aggregation, or other approximation.)

Q-LEARNING

Q-LEARNING

- In addition to the approximate PI methods adapted for Q-factors, there is an important additional algorithm:

- **Q-learning**, a sampled form of VI (a stochastic iterative algorithm).

- Q-learning algorithm (in its classical form):

- **Sampling**: Select sequence of pairs (i_k, u_k) [use any probabilistic mechanism for this, but all (i, u) are chosen infinitely often].

- **Iteration**: For each k , select j_k according to $p_{i_k j}(u_k)$. Update just $Q(i_k, u_k)$:

$$Q_{k+1}(i_k, u_k) = (1 - \gamma_k)Q_k(i_k, u_k) + \gamma_k \left(g(i_k, u_k, j_k) + \alpha \min_{u' \in U(j_k)} Q_k(j_k, u') \right)$$

Leave unchanged all other Q-factors.

- **Stepsize conditions**: $\gamma_k \downarrow 0$

- **We move $Q(i, u)$ in the direction of a sample of**

$$(FQ)(i, u) = \sum_{j=1}^n p_{ij}(u) \left(g(i, u, j) + \alpha \min_{u' \in U(j)} Q(j, u') \right)$$

NOTES AND QUESTIONS ABOUT Q-LEARNING

$$Q_{k+1}(i_k, u_k) = (1 - \gamma_k)Q_k(i_k, u_k) + \gamma_k \left(g(i_k, u_k, j_k) + \alpha \min_{u' \in U(j_k)} Q_k(j_k, u') \right)$$

- **Model free implementation.** We just need a simulator that given (i, u) produces next state j and cost $g(i, u, j)$
- **Operates on only one state-control pair at a time.** Convenient for simulation, no restrictions on sampling method. (Connection with asynchronous algorithms.)
- Aims to find the **(exactly) optimal Q-factors.**
- **Why does it converge to Q^* ?**
- **Why can't I use a similar algorithm for optimal costs** (a sampled version of VI)?
- **Important mathematical (fine) point:** In the Q-factor version of Bellman's equation **the order of expectation and minimization is reversed** relative to the cost version of Bellman's equation:

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

CONVERGENCE ASPECTS OF Q-LEARNING

- Q -learning can be shown to converge to true/exact Q -factors (under mild assumptions).
- The proof is sophisticated, based on theories of stochastic approximation and asynchronous algorithms.
- Uses the fact that the Q -learning map F :

$$(FQ)(i, u) = E_j \left\{ g(i, u, j) + \alpha \min_{u'} Q(j, u') \right\}$$

is a sup-norm contraction.

- **Generic stochastic approximation algorithm:**
 - Consider generic fixed point problem involving an expectation:

$$x = E_w \{ f(x, w) \}$$

- Assume $E_w \{ f(x, w) \}$ is a **contraction** with respect to some norm, so the iteration

$$x_{k+1} = E_w \{ f(x_k, w) \}$$

converges to the unique fixed point

- **Approximate $E_w \{ f(x, w) \}$ by sampling**

STOCH. APPROX. CONVERGENCE IDEAS

- For each k , obtain samples $\{w_1, \dots, w_k\}$ and use the approximation

$$x_{k+1} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{t=1}^k f(x_k, w_t) \approx E\{f(x_k, w)\}$$

- This iteration approximates the convergent fixed point iteration $x_{k+1} = E_w\{f(x_k, w)\}$
- **A major flaw:** it requires, for each k , the computation of $f(x_k, w_t)$ for **all** values $w_t, t = 1, \dots, k$.
- This motivates the more convenient iteration

$$x_{k+1} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{t=1}^k f(x_t, w_t), \quad k = 1, 2, \dots,$$

that is similar, but requires much less computation; it needs **only one** value of f per sample w_t .

- By denoting $\gamma_k = 1/k$, it can also be written as

$$x_{k+1} = (1 - \gamma_k)x_k + \gamma_k f(x_k, w_k), \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

- **Compare with Q-learning**, where the fixed point problem is $Q = FQ$

$$(FQ)(i, u) = E_j \left\{ g(i, u, j) + \alpha \min_{u'} Q(j, u') \right\}$$

Q-LEARNING COMBINED WITH OPTIMISTIC PI

- Each Q-learning iteration requires minimization over all controls $u' \in U(j_k)$:

$$Q_{k+1}(i_k, u_k) = (1 - \gamma_k)Q_k(i_k, u_k) + \gamma_k \left(g(i_k, u_k, j_k) + \alpha \min_{u' \in U(j_k)} Q_k(j_k, u') \right)$$

- To reduce this overhead we may consider replacing the minimization by a simpler operation using just the “current policy” μ_k
- This suggests an asynchronous sampled version of the optimistic PI algorithm which policy evaluates by

$$Q_{k+1} = F_{\mu^k}^{m_k} Q_k,$$

and policy improves by $\mu^{k+1}(i) \in \arg \min_{u \in U(i)} Q_{k+1}(i, u)$

- This turns out not to work (counterexamples by Williams and Baird, which date to 1993), but a simple modification of the algorithm is valid
- See a series of papers starting with D. Bertsekas and H. Yu, “Q-Learning and Enhanced Policy Iteration in Discounted Dynamic Programming,” Math. of OR, Vol. 37, 2012, pp. 66-94

Q-FACTOR APPROXIMATIONS

- We introduce basis function approximation:

$$\tilde{Q}(i, u; r) = \phi(i, u)'r$$

- We can use approximate policy iteration and LSTD/LSPE for policy evaluation
- Optimistic policy iteration methods are frequently used on a heuristic basis
- **An extreme example:** Generate trajectory $\{(i_k, u_k) \mid k = 0, 1, \dots\}$ as follows.
- At iteration k , given r_k and state/control (i_k, u_k) :
 - (1) Simulate next transition (i_k, i_{k+1}) using the transition probabilities $p_{i_k j}(u_k)$.
 - (2) Generate control u_{k+1} from

$$u_{k+1} = \arg \min_{u \in U(i_{k+1})} \tilde{Q}(i_{k+1}, u, r_k)$$

- (3) Update the parameter vector via

$$r_{k+1} = r_k - (\text{LSPE or TD-like correction})$$

- **Complex behavior, unclear validity** (oscillations, etc). There is solid basis for an important special case: optimal stopping (see text)

BELLMAN EQUATION ERROR APPROACH

- Another model-free approach for approximate evaluation of policy μ : Approximate $Q_\mu(i, u)$ with $\tilde{Q}_\mu(i, u; r_\mu) = \phi(i, u)'r_\mu$, obtained from

$$r_\mu \in \arg \min_r \|\Phi r - F_\mu(\Phi r)\|_\xi^2$$

where $\|\cdot\|_\xi$ is Euclidean norm, weighted with respect to some distribution ξ .

- Implementation for deterministic problems:
 - (1) **Generate a large set of sample pairs (i_k, u_k)** , and corresponding deterministic costs $g(i_k, u_k)$ and transitions $(j_k, \mu(j_k))$ (a simulator may be used for this).
 - (2) **Solve the linear least squares problem:**

$$\min_r \sum_{(i_k, u_k)} \left| \phi(i_k, u_k)'r - (g(i_k, u_k) + \alpha \phi(j_k, \mu(j_k))'r) \right|^2$$

- For stochastic problems a similar (more complex) least squares approach works (see the text).
- Because this approach is model-free, it is often used as the basis for **adaptive control of systems with unknown dynamics**.

ADAPTIVE CONTROL BASED ON ADP

LINEAR-QUADRATIC PROBLEM

- **System:** $x_{k+1} = Ax_k + Bu_k$, $x_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $u_k \in \mathbb{R}^m$
- **Cost:** $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (x_k' Q x_k + u_k' R u_k)$, $Q \geq 0$, $R > 0$
- **Optimal policy is linear:** $\mu^*(x) = Lx$
- **The Q-factor of each linear policy μ is quadratic:**

$$Q_\mu(x, u) = \begin{pmatrix} x' & u' \end{pmatrix} K_\mu \begin{pmatrix} x \\ u \end{pmatrix} \quad (*)$$

- Assume A and B are unknown
- We represent Q-factors using as basis functions all the quadratic functions involving state and control components

$$x^i x^j, \quad u^i u^j, \quad x^i u^j, \quad \forall i, j$$

These are the “rows” $\phi(x, u)'$ of Φ

- The Q-factor Q_μ of a linear policy μ can be **exactly represented** within the approximation subspace:

$$Q_\mu(x, u) = \phi(x, u)' r_\mu$$

where r_μ consists of the components of K_μ in (*)

PI FOR LINEAR-QUADRATIC PROBLEM

- **Policy evaluation:** r_m is found by the Bellman error approach

$$\min_r \sum_{(x_k, u_k)} \left| \phi(x_k, u_k)' r - (x_k' Q x_k + u_k' R u_k + \phi(x_{k+1}, \mu(x_{k+1}))' r) \right|^2$$

where (x_k, u_k, x_{k+1}) are many samples generated by the system or a simulator of the system.

- **Policy improvement:**

$$\bar{\mu}(x) \in \arg \min_u \phi(x, u)' r_\mu$$

- **Knowledge of A and B is not required**
- If the policy evaluation is done exactly, this becomes exact PI, and **convergence to an optimal policy can be shown**
- The basic idea of this example has been generalized and forms the starting point of the field of **adaptive dynamic programming**
- This field deals with adaptive control of continuous-space, (possibly nonlinear) dynamic systems, in both discrete and continuous time

APPROXIMATION IN POLICY SPACE

APPROXIMATION IN POLICY SPACE

- We parametrize policies by a vector $r = (r_1, \dots, r_s)$ (an approximation architecture for policies).
- Each policy $\tilde{\mu}(r) = \{\tilde{\mu}(i; r) \mid i = 1, \dots, n\}$ defines a cost vector $J_{\tilde{\mu}(r)}$ (a function of r).
- We optimize some measure of $J_{\tilde{\mu}(r)}$ over r .
- For example, use a random search, gradient, or other method to minimize over r

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i J_{\tilde{\mu}(r)}(i),$$

where ξ_1, \dots, ξ_n are some state-dependent weights.

- **An important special case:** Introduce cost approximation architecture $V(i; r)$ that defines indirectly the parametrization of the policies

$$\tilde{\mu}(i; r) = \arg \min_{u \in U(i)} \sum_{j=1}^n p_{ij}(u) (g(i, u, j) + \alpha V(j; r)), \quad \forall i$$

- This introduces state features into approximation in policy space.
- A policy approximator is called an **actor**, while cost parametrization is also called a **critic**. An actor and a critic may coexist.

APPROXIMATION IN POLICY SPACE METHODS

- **Random search methods** are straightforward and have scored some impressive successes with challenging problems (e.g., tetris).
 - At a given point/ r they generate a random collection of neighboring r . They search within the neighborhood for better points.
 - Many variations (the cross entropy method is one).
 - They are very broadly applicable (to discrete and continuous search spaces).
 - They are idiosyncratic.
- Gradient-type methods (known as **policy gradient methods**) also have been used extensively.
 - They move along the gradient with respect to r of
$$\sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i J_{\tilde{\mu}(r)}(i)$$
 - There are explicit gradient formulas which can be approximated by simulation.
 - Policy gradient methods generally suffer by slow convergence, local minima, and excessive simulation noise.

COMBINATION WITH APPROXIMATE PI

- Another possibility is to try to implement **PI within the class of parametrized policies**.
- Given a policy/actor $\mu(i; r_k)$, we evaluate it (perhaps approximately) with a critic that produces \tilde{J}_μ , using some policy evaluation method.
- We then consider the policy improvement phase

$$\bar{\mu}(i) \in \arg \min_u \sum_{j=1}^n p_{ij}(u) (g(i, u, j) + \alpha \tilde{J}_\mu(j)), \quad \forall i$$

and do it approximately via parametric optimization

$$\min_r \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \sum_{j=1}^n p_{ij}(\bar{\mu}(i; r)) \left(g(i, \bar{\mu}(i; r), j) + \alpha \tilde{J}_\mu(j) \right)$$

where ξ_i are some weights.

- This can be attempted by a **gradient-type method in the space of the parameter vector r** .
- Schemes like this have been extensively applied to continuous-space deterministic problems.
- Many unresolved theoretical issues, particularly for stochastic problems.

FINAL WORDS

TOPICS THAT WE HAVE NOT COVERED

- Extensions to discounted semi-Markov, stochastic shortest path problems, average cost problems, sequential games ...
- Extensions to continuous-space problems
- Extensions to continuous-time problems
- Adaptive DP - Continuous-time deterministic optimal control. Approximation of cost function derivatives or cost function differences
- Random search methods for approximate policy evaluation or approximation in policy space
- Basis function adaptation (automatic generation of basis functions, optimal selection of basis functions within a parametric class)
- Simulation-based methods for general linear problems, i.e., solution of linear equations, linear least squares, etc - Monte- Carlo linear algebra

CONCLUDING REMARKS

- There is no clear winner among ADP methods
- There is interesting theory in all types of methods (which, however, does not provide ironclad performance guarantees)
- There are major flaws in all methods:
 - Oscillations and exploration issues in approximate PI with projected equations
 - Restrictions on the approximation architecture in approximate PI with aggregation
 - Flakiness of optimization in policy space approximation
- Yet these methods have impressive successes to show with enormously complex problems, for which there is no alternative methodology
- There are also other competing ADP methods (rollout is simple, often successful, and generally reliable; approximate LP is worth considering)
- Theoretical understanding is important and nontrivial
- Practice is an art and a challenge to our creativity!

THANK YOU