### 6.231 DYNAMIC PROGRAMMING

#### LECTURE 6

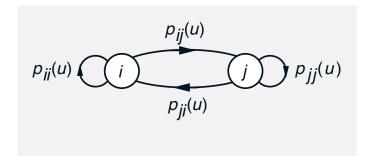
#### LECTURE OUTLINE

- 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



#### DISCOUNTED MDP

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



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

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

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

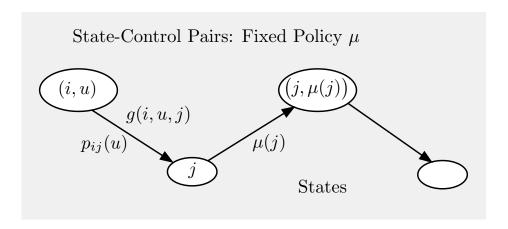
$$Q^*(i, u) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}(u) \left( g(i, u, j) + \alpha \min_{u' \in U(j)} Q^*(j, u') \right)$$

• 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  $F_{\mu}$  and Bellman equation for a policy  $\mu$ :  $Q_{\mu} = F_{\mu}Q_{\mu}$

# BELLMAN EQ FOR Q-FACTORS OF A POLICY



• Q-factors of a policy  $\mu$ : For all (i, u)

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

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

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

- 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

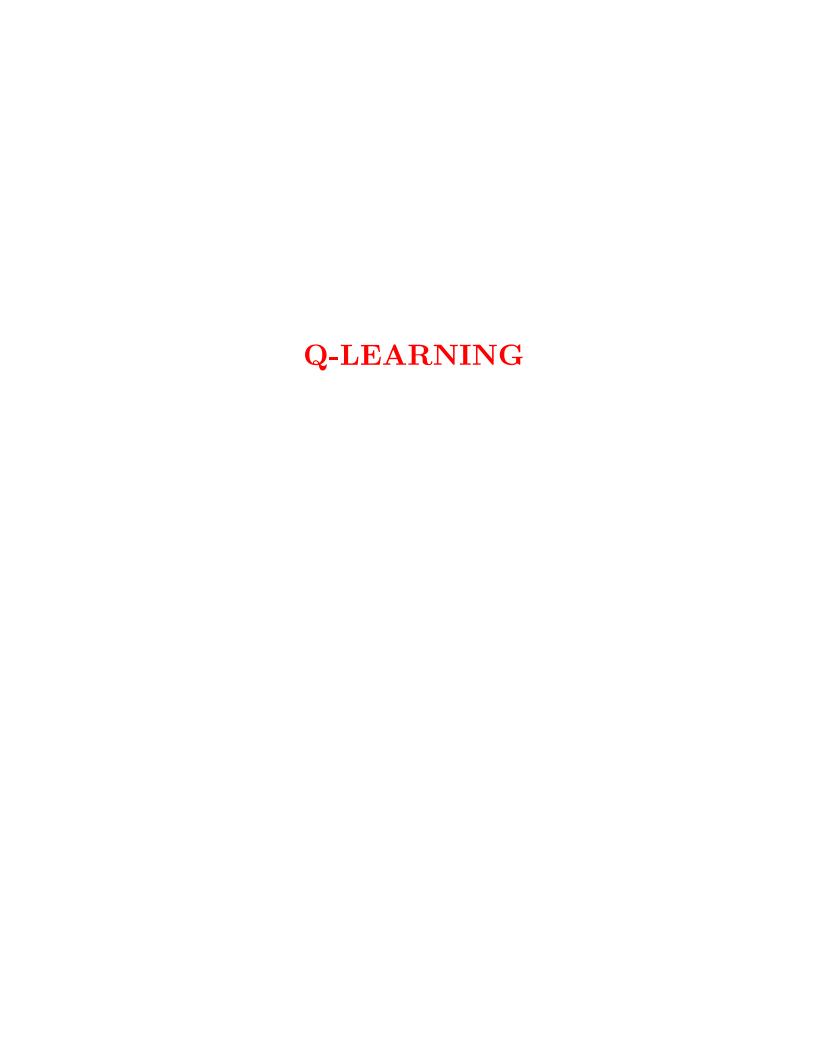
- All the exact theory and algorithms for costs applies to Q-factors
  - Bellman's equations, contractions, optimality conditions, convergence of VI and PI
- All the approximate theory and algorithms for costs applies to Q-factors
  - Projected equations, sampling and exploration issues, oscillations,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

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

- 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**

- 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

- Generate a sequence of samples  $\{w_1, w_2, \ldots\}$ , and approximate the convergent fixed point iteration  $x_{k+1} = E_w\{f(x_k, w)\}$
- $\bullet$  At each iteration k use the approximation

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

- A major flaw: it requires, for each k, the computation of  $f(x_k, w_t)$  for all values  $w_t, t = 1, ..., k$ .
- This motivates the more convenient iteration

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

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"  $\mu_k$
- 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 En-

hanced Policy Iteration in Discounted Dynamic Programming," Math. of OR, Vol. 37, 2012, pp.

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# **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  $\{(i_k, u_k) \mid k = 0, 1, \ldots\}$  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

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

• 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  $\mu$ : Approximate  $Q_{\mu}(i, u)$  with  $\tilde{Q}_{\mu}(i, u; r_{\mu}) = \phi(i, u)'r_{\mu}$ , obtained from

$$r_{\mu} \in \arg\min_{r} \left\| \Phi r - F_{\mu}(\Phi r) \right\|_{\xi}^{2}$$

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

- 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:

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

- For stochastic problems a similar (more complex) least squares approach works. It is closely related to LSTD (but less attractive; see the text).
- Because this approach is model-free, it is often used as the basis for adaptive control of systems with unknown dynamics.



# LINEAR-QUADRATIC PROBLEM

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

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

- $\bullet$  We will consider A and B unknown
- We represent Q-factors using as basis functions all the quadratic functions involving state and control components

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

These are the "rows"  $\phi(x,u)'$  of  $\Phi$ 

• The Q-factor  $Q_{\mu}$  of a linear policy  $\mu$  can be exactly represented within the approximation subspace:

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

where  $r_{\mu}$  consists of the components of  $K_{\mu}$  in (\*)

### PI FOR LINEAR-QUADRATIC PROBLEM

• Policy evaluation:  $r_{\mu}$  is found by the Bellman error approach

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

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

• Policy improvement:

$$\overline{\mu}(x) \in \arg\min_{u} \left( \phi(x, u)' r_{\mu} \right)$$

- 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 continuousspace, (possibly nonlinear) dynamic systems, in both discrete and continuous time



#### APPROXIMATION IN POLICY SPACE

- We parametrize policies by a vector  $r = (r_1, \ldots, r_s)$  (an approximation architecture for policies).
- Each policy  $\tilde{\mu}(r) = \{\tilde{\mu}(i;r) \mid i = 1,\ldots,n\}$  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  $\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n$  are some state-dependent weights.

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

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

- This introduces state features into approximation in policy space.
- A policy approximator is called an actor, while a cost approximator 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 idiosynchratic.
- 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  $\tilde{J}_{\mu}$ , using some policy evaluation method.
- We then consider the policy improvement phase

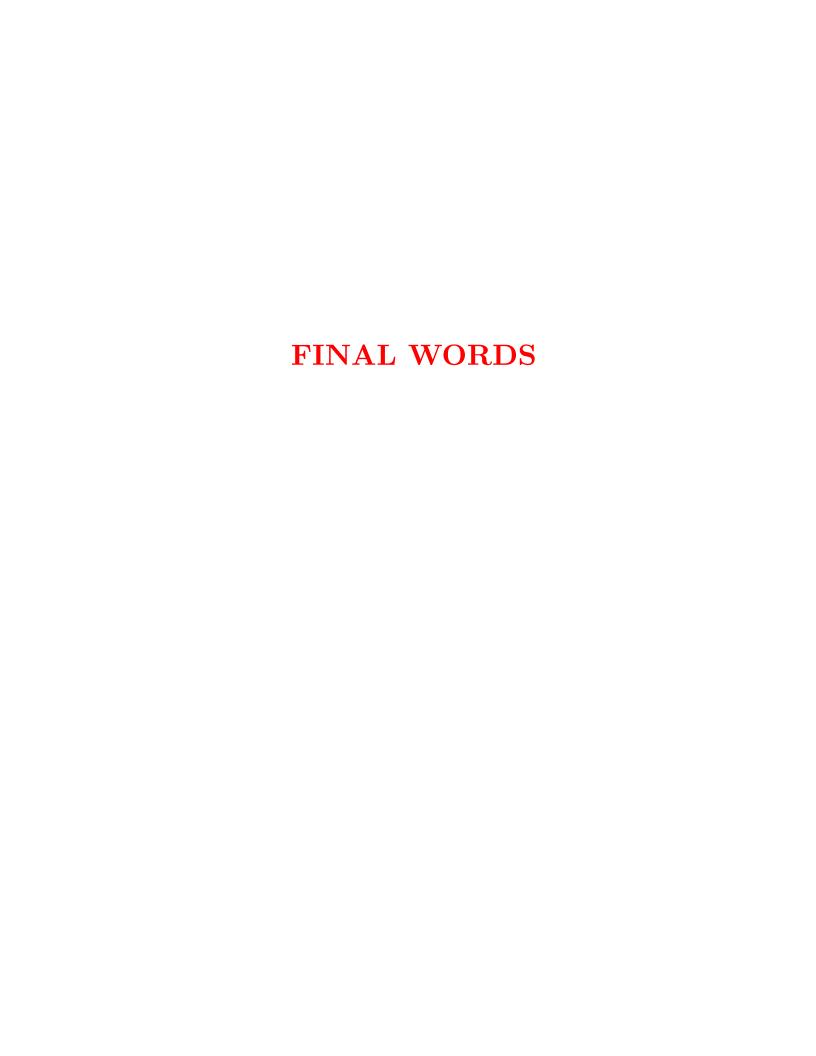
$$\overline{\mu}(i) \in \arg\min_{u} \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}(u) (g(i, u, j) + \alpha \widetilde{J}_{\mu}(j)), \quad \forall i$$

and do it approximately via parametric optimization

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

where  $\xi_i$  are some weights.

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



### 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 often 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!

