CS 747, Autumn 2023: Lecture 18

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Autumn 2023

Reinforcement Learning

- 1. Tile coding
- 2. Issues in control with function approximation
- 3. The case for policy search

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$$\hat{V}_1(x) = w_1 x + w_2.$$

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 $b_1 = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } 0 \le x < 1, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$ $b_2 = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } 1 \leq x < 2, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$ $b_3 = egin{cases} 1 & ext{if } 2 \leq x < 3, \ 0 & ext{otherwise}. \end{cases}$ $\hat{V}_2(x) = w_1 b_1 + w_2 b_2 + w_3 b_3.$



$\hat{V}_3(x)$: 18 piece-wise constants.



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- Is \hat{V}^3 the obvious choice?
- \hat{V}^3 has the highest resolution, but does not generalise well.
- How to achieve high resolution along with generalisation?



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- Each tile is a binary feature.
- Tile width and the number of tilings determine generalisation, resolution.
- Observe that two points more than (tile width / number of tilings) apart can be given arbitrary function values.

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- The usual practice is to have a separate set of tilings *F_{aj}* : ℝ → ℝ for each action *a* and state feature *j* ∈ {1, 2, ..., *d*}. Hence

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 Usually, tile widths and the number of tilings are configured specifically for each feature. For example, in soccer, could use 2m as tile width for "distance" features, and 10° as tile width for "angle" features.

2-d Tile coding

• For representing more complex functions, can also have tilings on conjunctions of features (see below for 2 features).



Introduces more parameters—which could help or hurt.

Tile Coding: Summary

- Linear function approximation does not restrict us to a representation that is linear in the given/raw features.
- Tile coding a standard approach to discretise input features and tune both resolution and generalisation.
- Many empirical successes, especially in conjunction with Linear Sarsa(λ).
- Common to store weights in a hash table (collisions don't seem to hurt much), whose size is set based on practical constraints.
- 1-d tilings most common; rarely see conjunction of 3 or more features.

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- Episodic, start state is *s*₁.
- Observe that $V^{\pi}(s_1) = V^{\pi}(s_2) = 0$.
- Linear function approximation with single parameter *w*: $x(s_1) = 1, x(s_2) = 2$; hence $\hat{V}(s_1) = w, \hat{V}(s_2) = 2w$.



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- w = 0 gives the exact answer!
- We design an iteration $w_0 \rightarrow w_1 \rightarrow w_2 \rightarrow \ldots$, and see if it converges to 0.



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- Starting with *w* = *w*₀, we update *w* so it best-fits the bootstrapped estimate in terms of squared error on the states. For *k* ≥ 0:

$$w_{k+1} \leftarrow \operatorname*{argmin}_{w \in \mathbb{R}} \sum_{s} \left(\mathbb{E}_{\pi}[r + \gamma \hat{V}(w_k, x(s'))] - \hat{V}(w, x(s)) \right)^2.$$



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? Let's see.



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- The failure owes to the combination of three factors: off-policy updating, generalisation, bootstrapping.
- But these are almost always used together in practice!

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Summary of Theoretical Results*

Method	Tabular	Linear FA	Non-linear FA
TD(0)	C, O	С	NK
$TD(\lambda), \lambda \in (0, 1)$	C, O	С	NK
TD(1)	С, О	C, "Best"	C, Local optimum
Sarsa(0)	C, 0	Chattering	NK
Sarsa(λ), $\lambda \in (0, 1)$	NK	Chattering	NK
Sarsa(1)	NK	NK	NK
Q-learning(0)	C, 0	NK	NK

(C: Convergent; O: Optimal; NK: Not known.)

*: to the best of your instructor's knowledge.

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- $(\bar{m}^{\text{RED}}, \bar{c}^{\text{RED}}, \bar{m}^{\text{BLUE}}, \bar{c}^{\text{BLUE}})$ a "bad" approximation of Q^* . But induces optimal actions for all x!
- Perhaps we found $(m^{\text{RED}}, c^{\text{RED}}, m^{\text{BLUE}}, c^{\text{BLUE}})$ by Q-learning.



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- How to find $(\bar{m}^{\text{RED}}, \bar{c}^{\text{RED}}, \bar{m}^{\text{BLUE}}, \bar{c}^{\text{BLUE}})$? Next week: policy search.