MDP and RL: Q-learning, stochastic approximation

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Main references: [2] for Q-learning and variants (Section 1), and [1] (Section 2) for the stochastic approximation part. The rest is from research papers.

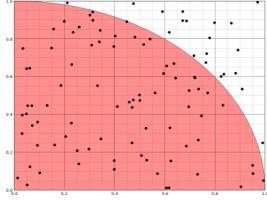
1 Monte-Carlo methods and Q-learning

Recall Bellman's equation:

$$V^*(s) = \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} Q^*(s, a)$$
$$Q^*(s, a) = \mathbf{r}(s, \pi(s)) + \gamma \sum_{s'} V^*(s') p(s' \mid s, a)$$

Our assumption: we have access to a simulator.

1.1 Estimation via Monte-Carlo



Source: https://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mthode_de_Monte-Carlo#Dtermination_ de_la_valeur_de_%CF%80

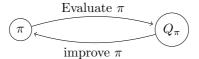
Figure 1: Estimation of π via Monte-Carlo.

See Figure 1. Area is $\pi/4$. A point (x, y) is in the red zone if $x^2 + y^2 \le 1$. Estimation via rollout:

$$V^{\pi}(S_t) = \mathbb{E}\left[G_t \mid S_t = s, \pi\right].$$

- Monte-Carlo = sample G_t by using rollout. Can use every-visit or first-visit.
- Converges in $O(1/\sqrt{n})$

1.1.1 Monte-Carlo optimzation



Recall: improve can be done by using greedy:

$$\pi(s) = \operatorname*{arg\,max}_{a \in \mathcal{A}} Q(s, a).$$

Possible problems:

- One may need many samples for all actions.
- Some action-pair might not be visited.

Solutions: exploration/exploitation tradeoff (previous), importance sampling.

1.2 TD-learning

Bellman's equation states:

$$V(S_t) = \mathbb{E} \left[R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \dots \right]$$
$$= \mathbb{E} \left[R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1}) \right].$$

This is equivalent to

$$0 = \mathbb{E}\left[\underbrace{R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1}) - V(S_t)}_{\text{TD error}}\right]$$

The TD learning algorithm uses the updates:

$$V(S_t) := V(S_t) + \alpha_t (R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1}) - V(S_t))),$$

where α is a learning rate such that $\sum_t \alpha_t = +\infty$ and $\sum_t (\alpha_t)^2 < \infty$.

Proof. Main proof: see later. for some ideas:

Let $\beta_t(s)$ be such that

$$\beta_t(s) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } s = S_t \\ \alpha_t & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Let V_t be the V-table at time t. The definition of β_t implies that for all s:

$$V_{t+1}(s) := V_t(s) + \beta_t(s) \left(\underbrace{\frac{R_{t+1} + \gamma V_t(S_{t+1})}{=T^{\pi} V_t + \text{noise}}}_{=T^{\pi} V_t + \text{noise}} - V_t(s) \right).$$

with $\sum_t \beta_t(s) = \infty$ and $\sum_t \beta_t^2(s) < \infty$.

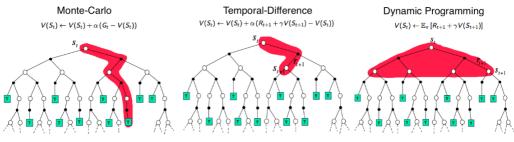
As T^{π} is contracting, Theorem 1 of (On the convergence of stochastic iterative dynamic programming algorithms., Jaakkola, Jordan, Singh, NeurIPS 93) shows that this implies $\lim_{t\to\infty} V_t = V^{\pi}$ almost surely.

1.3 Relation between MC, TD and DP

$$V(S_t) = \mathbb{E}\left[G_t\right] \tag{MC}$$

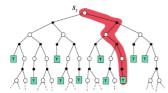
$$V(S_t) = \mathbb{E}\left[R_{t+1} + \gamma V(S_{t+1})\right]$$
 TD

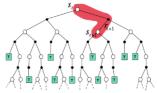
$$V(S_t) = \mathbb{E}\left[R_{t+1}\right] + \gamma \sum_{s'} V(S_{t+1}) \mathbb{P}(S_{t+1} = s') \qquad DP$$



(figure from Sutton and Barto)

- MC simulates a full trajectory
- TD samples one-step and uses a previous estimation of V.
- DP needs all possible values of V(s').





MC: One full trajectory for update TD: Updates take time to propagate The tradeoff comes by using $TD(\lambda)$:

• Use *n*-step returns (see Sutton-Barto, chapter 7).

$$G_{t:t+n} = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \dots + \gamma^{n-1} R_{t+n} + \gamma^{t+n} V(S_{t+n}).$$

• $TD(\lambda)$ (see Sutton-Barto, chapter 12 or Szepesvári, Section 2.1.3).

$$G_t(\lambda) = (1 - \lambda) \sum_{n=1}^T \lambda^{n-1} G_{t:t+n} + \lambda^T G_t.$$

1.4 Q-learning and SARSA

Bellman's equations are:

$$V^{\pi}(S_t) = \mathbb{E}^{\pi} \left[R_{t+1} + \gamma V^{\pi}(S_{t+1}) \right]$$
 to evaluate π
$$Q^*(S_t, A_t) = \mathbb{E} \left[R_{t+1} + \gamma \max_a Q^*(S_{t+1}, a) \right]$$
 to find the best policy

This leads to two variant of:

- Q-learning = off-policy learning.
 - Choose $A_t \sim \pi$.
 - Apply TD-learning replacing V(s) by $\max_a Q(s, a)$.
- SARSA = on-policy learning:
 - Choose $A_{t+1} \sim \arg \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} Q(S_{t+1}, a)$.
 - Apply TD-learning replacing V(s) by $Q(s, A_{t+1})$.

1.4.1 Q-learning

$$A_t \sim \pi$$
$$Q(S_t, A_t) := Q(S_t, A_t) + \alpha_t \left(R_{t+1} + \gamma \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} Q(S_{t+1}, a) - Q(S_t, A_t) \right)$$

Theorem 1. Assume that $\gamma < 1$ and that:

- Any station-action pair (a, s) is visited infinitely often.
- $\sum_t \alpha_t = \infty$ and $\sum_t \alpha_t^2 < \infty$.

Then: Q converges almost surely to the optimal Q^* -table as t goes to infinity.

1.4.2 SARSA

SARSA (name comes from $S_t, A_t, R_{t+1}, S_{t+1}, A_{t+1}$)

$$\begin{split} &A_{t+1} \sim \arg \max Q(S_t, A_t) \ (\text{or} \ \varepsilon\text{-greedy}) \\ &Q(S_t, A_t) := Q(S_t, A_t) + \alpha_t \left(R_{t+1} + \gamma Q(S_{t+1}, A_{t+1}) - Q(S_t, A_t)\right). \end{split}$$

Open questions:

- Does it converge (and why?)
- How to choose the step-size?
- How to explore?

2 Stochastic approximation

2.1 Introduction and example: the ODE method

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + a_n(f(x_n) + \text{noise}),$$

• TD-learning or Q-learning.

• Stochastic gradient descent. We are given N couples $(X_1, Y_1) \dots (X_N, Y_N)$ and a parametric function g_x . We want to find x such that $g_x(X_i) \approx Y_i$ for all i. We model this as an empirical risk minimization by using a loss function ℓ :

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \ell(f_x(X_k), Y_k) = \mathbb{E} \left[\ell(f_x(X), Y) \right],$$

where the expectation is taken uniformly over all data.

We want to do $x_{n+1} = x_n - a_n \nabla_x F(x)$ but this is costly. The stochastic gradient descent is:

- Pick (X_n, Y_n) uniformly at random among all data points.

- Computes $x_{n+1} - = a_n \nabla_x \ell(g_{x_n}(X), Y).$

This rewrites as:

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + a_n(f(x_n) + \text{noise}),$$

where $f(x) = \nabla_x F(x)$.

In what follows, we want to show that the stochastic system behaves as the solutions of the $\dot{x} = f(x)$. This helps us to show where the iterates concentrate.

2.2 Decreasing step-size

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + a_n(f(x_n) + M_{n+1}),$$

We need the assumptions:

- 1. $f : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^d$ is Lipschitz-continuous.
- 2. The step-sizes $a_n \ge 0$ is such that $\sum_n a_n = +\infty$ and $\sum_n (a_n)^2 = +\infty$.
- 3. M_n Martingale difference sequence : $\mathbb{E}[M_{n+1}|\mathcal{F}_n] = 0$ and $\mathbb{E}[||M_{n+1}||^2|\mathcal{F}_n] \leq \sigma^2$.
- 4. $\sup_n ||x_n||$ remains bounded a.s.

We define $t_n = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k$ and \bar{x} a piecewise linear function such that $\bar{x}(t(n)) = x_n$. We also write $x_s(t)$ the solution of the ODE $\dot{x} = f(x)$ with $x_s(s) = \bar{x}(s)$.

Theorem 2. For all T > 0, we have:

$$\lim_{s \to \infty} \sup_{t \in [s,s+T]} \|\bar{x}(t) - x_s(t)\| = 0 \text{ almost surely}$$

The sequence x_n converges almost surely to the invariant sets of the ODE $\dot{x} = f(x)$, that is, the set A such that if $x(0) \in A$, then $x(t) \in A$ for all t > 0. In particular, if the ODE has a unique attractor x^* , then

$$\lim_{s \to \infty} x_n = x^*$$

Proof. For the first part, we consider s = 0 and use the following tools:

- 1. We compare the ODE and the discrete ODE $y_{n+1} = y_n + a_n f(x_n)$: to show that at t(n): $||y_n \bar{x}_n|| = O(\sum_k (a_k)^2)$ by Gronwall's inequality. Recall the discrete-Gronwall's lemma: if $d_{n+1} = \varepsilon + L \sum_{k=0}^n a_k d_k$, then $d_n \leq e^{Lt_n} \varepsilon$ (proof = recurrence + log is convex).
- 2. Let $B_n = \sum_{k=0}^{L} a_n M_{n+1}$. We have $\operatorname{var}(B_n) \leq \sum_n (a_n)^2 \sigma^2$. In particular, $\mathbb{P}(||B_n|| \geq \varepsilon) \leq \sum_n (a_n)^2 \sigma^2 / \varepsilon^2$ (Chebyshev's inequality). We can extend that to sup by using Doob's inequality and use the supermartingale $B_n^+ = \max_{k \leq b} B_n$?
- 3. Fix T. The idea is now to consider $K_n = \min_{K>n}$ such that $t(K_n) = t_n + T$. By what the assumption on a_n , we have $\sum_{k=1}^{K_n} (a_k)^2 \to 0$.

Similar to our way of defining y_n , we can define a $y_{k,n}$ that starts at x_k when n = k. Let m(k) be such that $\sum_{\ell=k}^{m(k)} \approx T$. We can show that:

$$\left\|y_{k,k+m(k)} - x_k + m(k)\right\| \le e^{LT}\varepsilon,$$

with probability at least $\sum_{\ell=k}^{m(k)} (a_{\ell})^2 \sigma^2 / \varepsilon^2 < \sum_{\ell=k}^{\infty} (a_{\ell})^2 \sigma^2 / \varepsilon^2$. This probability converges to 0 because $\sum_{\ell=1}^{\infty} (a_{\ell})^2 < \infty$.

For $t = +\infty$, we write $A = \bigcap_{t \ge 0} \overline{\bigcup_{s \ge t} \{\bar{x}(t)\}}$. If should be clear that $x_n \to A$ a.s. A is invariant by using the first part of the lemma and the fact that the flow is invariant. \Box

Note: we can say more (A is chain transitive).

2.2.1 Application to *Q*-learning

For *Q*-learning, we can rewrite the ODE in vector form as:

$$\dot{Q}_{s,a} = \underbrace{r_{s,a} + \gamma \sum_{s'} p(s'|s,a) \max_{a' \in \mathcal{A}} Q_{s',a'} - Q_{s,a}}_{=:f_{s,a}(Q)}$$

The ODE is $\dot{Q} = f(Q)$, the variable is Q.

We can verify that this satisfy all assumption for the finite case:

- f is Lipschitz-continuous (because max is.)
- Moreover, the noise is *i.i.d.* if
- – If we apply to "synchronous" Q-learning (for all state s, a); or
 - If we apply to "asynchronous" Q-learning with a generative model (we pick one (s_t, a_t)) at random each time.

If we want to treat the general case, the problem is that the noise is not i.i.d.. In this case, we need to treat that we have a "Markovian" noise. This is out of scope of this course.

For $T = +\infty$, we have:

- f can be written as f(Q) = F(Q) Q. We know that F is contrating or the $\|\|_{\infty}$ (see first course on MDP). Hence, it has a unique fixed point Q^* .
- Proving that the ODE converges to Q^* is more complicated. For that, let us denote $u(t) = Q(t) Q^*$ and assume for now that F is α -contracting for the L_p norm. We have:

$$\begin{split} &\frac{d}{dt} \|u(t)\| \\ &= \frac{d}{dt} (\sum_{i} |u_{i}|^{p}) 1/p \\ &= \frac{1}{p} (\sum_{i} |u_{i}|^{p}) 1/p - 1 \frac{d}{dt} (\sum_{i} |u_{i}|^{p}) \\ &= \|u\|^{1-p} \sum_{i} \operatorname{sgn}(u_{i}) |u_{i}|^{p-1} (F(Q) - Q). \\ &= \|u\|^{1-p} \left[\sum_{i} \operatorname{sgn}(u_{i}) |u_{i}|^{p-1} (F_{i}(Q) - F_{i}(Q^{*})) - \underbrace{\sum_{i} \operatorname{sgn}(u_{i}) |u_{i}|^{p-1} (Q_{i} - Q_{i}^{*})}_{=\|u\|^{p}} \right] \end{split}$$

Recall Hölder: if 1/p + 1/q = 1, *i.e.*, q = p/(p - 1), we have:

$$\sum_{i} x_{i} y_{i} \leq (\sum_{i} |x_{i}|^{p})^{1/p} (\sum_{i} |y_{i}|^{q})^{1/q}.$$

Using this with $x_i = F_i(Q) - F_i(Q^*)$ and $y_i = \operatorname{sgn}(u_i)|u_i|^{p-1}$, the first term is smaller than:

$$\|F(Q) - F(Q^*)\|_p \left(\sum_i (|u_i|^{p-1})^{p/(p-1)}\right)^{(p-1)/p} = \|F(Q) - F(Q^*)\|_p \|Q - Q^*\|^{p-1}$$

$$\leq \alpha \|Q - Q^*\|_p^p$$

$$= \alpha \|u\|^p$$

This shows that $\frac{d}{dt} \|u(t)\| \le (\alpha - 1) \|u(t)\|.$

The proof for $p = +\infty$ comes by continuity of the norm.

2.3 Going further

2.3.1 Fluctuations and averaging

Let us go back to $x_{n+1} = x_n + a_n(f(x_n) + M_{n+1})$ and we assume in addition that:

- $\mathbb{E}\left[M_{n+1}M_{n+1}^T|\mathcal{F}_n\right] = Q(x_n)$
- f is twice differentiable.
- The ODE has a unique fixed point that is exponentially stable.

The main idea is to use generators. For $n \ge k$, let $y_{k,n}$ be the hybrid term:

$$y_{k,k} = x_k$$

$$y_{k,n+1} = y_{k,n} + a_n f(y_{k,n}).$$

We have:

$$x_n - y_k = y_{n,n} - y_{0,n}$$
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} y_{k+1,n} - y_{k,n}.$$

Hence, if we can bound $y_{k+1,n} - y_{k,n}$, we are "done".

We can do that by showing that the function $x_k \mapsto y_{k,n}$ is smooth.

This can be used to show variance of order O(1/n) when using $a_n = 1/(n+1)$.

We can do acceleration via averaging. Polyak & Juditsky 92.

2.3.2 Constant step-size

Most of the results above also work for the constant step-size, in which case we can show that if there is a unique attractor of the ODE x^* , and we use $a = \alpha$, then:

$$\lim_{\alpha \to 0} \lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{P}(\operatorname{dist}(x_n^{(\alpha)}) - x^*) = 0$$

We can also obtain fluctuation results. In particular, if the function f is smooth, we get:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{E}\left[x_n^{(\alpha)}\right] = x^* + C\alpha + O(\alpha^2),$$

but the constant C is a non-zero.

3 Monte-Carlon Tree Search

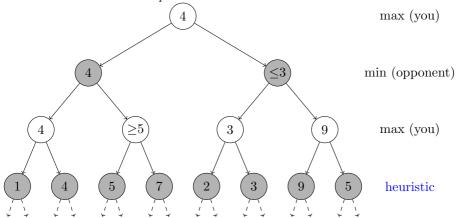
3.0.1 Turn-based two players zero sum games



From a given position, takes the best decision. To do so, one can generate a tree of possibilities and explore this tree (e.g.), min-max algorithm. But: what if the tree is too big?

3.1 Min-max and alpha-beta pruning

You can construct the tree of possibilities



If the tree is two big, you stop at depth D and use a heuristic.

- You can backtrack with the min-max algorithm.
- For optimization, you can use alpha-beta pruning.

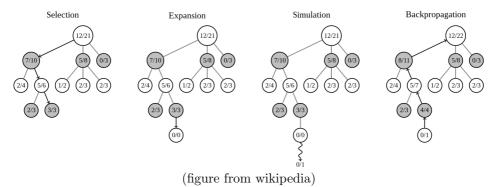
3.2 MCTS and exploration

3.2.1 Motivation for MCTS

Min-max and alpha-beta perform well (ex: Chess)... but can be limited (ex: go).

- Tree can still be very big (A^D)
- You need a good heuristic.
 - Result is only available at the end
- You might want to avoid the exploration of not promising parts.
 - For that you need a good heuristic.

3.2.2 MCTS algorithm



The algorithm:

- Creates one or multiple children of the leaf.
- Obtains a value of the node (e.g. rollout)
- Backpropagates to the root

For the exploration, one typically uses bandit-like formulas: For each child, let S(c) be the number of success and N(c) be the number of time you played c, and $t = \sum_{c'} N(c')$.

• Explore
$$\arg \max_c \frac{S(c)}{N(c)} + 2\sqrt{\frac{\log t}{N(c)}}$$
.

Open question: no guarantee with $\sqrt{\log t/N(c)}$. Is $\sqrt{t}/N(c)$ better?

 1: while Some time is left do
 #UCB-like

 2: Select a leaf node
 #UCB-like

 3: Expand a leaf
 #

 4: Use rollout (or equivalent) to estimate the leaf
 #random sampling

 5: Backpropagate to the root
 #random sampling

6: end while

7: Return $\arg \max_{c \in \text{children(root)}} N(c)$ #or S(c)/N(c).

3.2.3 Demo / exercice

See the file connect4.tar.gz on the website.

References

- [1] Vivek S Borkar. Stochastic approximation: a dynamical systems viewpoint, volume 48. Springer, 2009.
- [2] Richard S Sutton, Andrew G Barto, et al. *Introduction to reinforcement learning*, volume 135. MIT press Cambridge, 1998.