Function Approximation

CMPUT 366: Intelligent Systems

S&B §9.0-9.5.4

Lecture Outline

- Recap 1.
- 2. Parameterized Value Functions
- 3. Gradient Descent
- 4. Approximation Schemes

- Temporal Difference Learning bootstraps and learns from experience
 - Dynamic programming bootstraps, but doesn't learn from lacksquareexperience (requires full dynamics)
 - Monte Carlo learns from experience, but doesn't bootstrap \bullet
- Prediction: **TD(0) algorithm**
- **Sarsa** estimates action-values of **actual** *e*-greedy policy •
- **Q-Learning** estimates action-values of **optimal** policy while executing an *ε*-greedy policy

Recap: TD Learning

Tabular Value Functions

- We have been assuming a **tabular representation** for value function estimates *V*(*s*) and *Q*(*s*,*a*)
 - We can **separately** set the value of V(s) or Q(s,a) for every possible $s \in \mathcal{J}$ and $a \in \mathcal{A}$
- This implicitly means that we must store a separate value for every possible input for the value function
- Question: What should we do if there are too many states to store a value for each? (e.g., pixel values in the Atari setting)
- Question: What should we do if the state isn't fully observable?

Example: Number Line Walk

$$\begin{array}{c} -1 \\ \hline 1 \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array} \\ \end{array}$$

 $\pi(a \mid s) = 0.5 \quad \forall s \in \mathcal{S}, a \in \{\text{left}, \text{right}\}$

- **Question:** Would dynamic programming, Monte Carlo, or TD(0) work to estimate v_{π} ?
- **Question:** How much storage would that require?
- Question: What could we do instead?

 $(500) \xleftarrow{0} (501) \xleftarrow{0} (1000) \xleftarrow{+1} (1000) \mathbin{+1} (1000)$

Parameterized Value Functions

• A parameterized value function's values are set by setting the values of a weight vector $\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$:

- \hat{v} could be a linear function: **w** is the feature weights
- \hat{v} could be a **neural network**: **w** is the weights, biases, kernels, etc.
- Many fewer weights than states: $d \ll |\mathcal{J}|$
 - Changing one weight changes the estimated value of many states
 - Updating a single state **generalizes** to affect many other states' values

 $\hat{V}(S, \mathbf{W}) \approx \nabla_{\Pi}(S)$

Decoupled Estimates

- With **tabular** estimates:
 - \bullet
- For **parameterized** estimates:

 - Cannot independently adjust state values

Can update the value of a single state **individually**

• Estimates can be **exactly correct** for **each state**

• Estimates cannot be correct for each state (e.g., when two states have identical features but different values)

Prediction Objective

- Since we cannot guarantee that every state will be correct, we must **trade off** estimation quality of one state vs. another
- We will use a distribution μ (s) to specify how much we care about the quality of our value estimate for each state
- We will optimize the mean squared value error:

$$\overline{VE}(\mathbf{w}) \doteq \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} \mu(s) \left[v_{\pi}(s) - \hat{v}(s, \mathbf{w}) \right]^2$$

• Question: What should we use for $\mu(s)$?

Stochastic Gradient Descent with Known True Values

- Suppose we are given a **new example**: $(S_t, v_{\pi}(S_t))$
- How should we update our weight vector **w**?
- Stochastic Gradient Descent: After each example, adjust weights a tiny bit in **direction** that would most **reduce error** on that exa

ample:

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+1} \doteq \mathbf{w}_t - \frac{1}{2} \alpha \nabla \left[v_{\pi}(S_t) - \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_t) \right]^2$$

$$= \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha \left[v_{\pi}(S_t) - \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_t) \right] \nabla \hat{v}(s, t)$$

 $, \mathbf{W}_{t})$

Stochastic Gradient Descent with Unknown True Values

- If we knew $v_{\pi}(s)$, we would be done!
- Instead, we will update toward an **approximate target** U_t : $\mathbf{w}_{t+1} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha \left[U_t - \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w}_t) \right] \nabla \hat{v}(s, \mathbf{w}_t)$
- U_t can be any of our update targets from previous lectures

Gradient Monte Carlo

- Monte Carlo target: $U_t = G_t$

Gradient Monte Carlo Algorithm for Estimating $\hat{v} \approx v_{\pi}$

Input: the policy π to be evaluated Input: a differentiable function $\hat{v} : S$ Algorithm parameter: step size $\alpha > 0$ Initialize value-function weights $\mathbf{w} \in$

Loop forever (for each episode):

Generate an episode $S_0, A_0, R_1, S_1, A_1, \ldots, R_T, S_T$ using π Loop for each step of episode, t = 0, 1, ..., T - 1: $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + \alpha [G_t - \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w})] \nabla \hat{v}(S_t, \mathbf{w})$

• U_t is an **unbiased** estimate of $v_{\pi}(S_t)$: $\mathbb{E}[U_t \mid S_t = s] = v_{\pi}(s)$

×
$$\mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$$

)
 \mathbb{R}^d arbitrarily (e.g., $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{0}$)

- **TD(0)** target: $U_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma \hat{v}(S_{t+1}, \mathbf{w}_t)$
- Bootstrapping targets like TD(0) depend on the current value of *w*_t, so they are **not unbiased**
- Gradient $\nabla \hat{v}(s, \boldsymbol{w}_t)$ accounts for change in the estimate from change in \boldsymbol{w}_t
- But updates to w change both the estimate and the target
- We call these updates **semi-gradient** updates

Semi-gradient

Semi-gradient TD(0)

• **TD(0)** target: $U_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma \hat{v}(S_{t+1}, \mathbf{w}_t)$

Semi-gradient TD(0) for estimating $\hat{v} \approx v_{\pi}$

Input: the policy π to be evaluated Algorithm parameter: step size $\alpha > 0$ Initialize value-function weights $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ arbitrarily (e.g., $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{0}$)

Loop for each episode: Initialize SLoop for each step of episode: Choose $A \sim \pi(\cdot | S)$ Take action A, observe R, S' $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + \alpha [R + \gamma \hat{v}(S', \mathbf{w}) - \hat{v}(S, \mathbf{w})] \nabla \hat{v}(S, \mathbf{w})$ $S \leftarrow S'$ until S is terminal

Input: a differentiable function $\hat{v}: \mathbb{S}^+ \times \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $\hat{v}(\text{terminal}, \cdot) = 0$

 $\begin{array}{c} \xrightarrow{-1} (1) \xrightarrow{0} (499) \xrightarrow{0} (500) \xrightarrow{0} (501) \xrightarrow{0} (1000) \xrightarrow{+1} ($

- $\pi(a \mid s) = 0.5 \quad \forall s \in \mathcal{S}, a \in \{\text{left}, \text{right}\}$
- One easy way to reduce the memory usage for a large state space is to aggregate states together
- In the Number Line Walk example, we could group the states into 10. groups of 100 states each
- w is a 10-element vector
- $\hat{v}(s, \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}_{x(s)}$, where x(s) = floor(s / 100)

State Aggregation





Figure 9.1: Function approximation by state aggregation on the 1000-state random walk task, using the gradient Monte Carlo algorithm (page 202).

State Aggregation Performance

Linear Approximation

- Every state s is assigned a **feature vector x**(s) $\mathbf{x}(s) \doteq (x_1(s), x_2(s), \dots, x_d(s))$
- State-value function approximation:
- **Gradient** is easy:

Gradient updates are easy: \bullet

State aggregation is a special case of linear approximation (why?)

- $\hat{v}(s, \mathbf{w}) \doteq \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}(s) = \sum w_i x_i(s)$ i=1
 - $\nabla \hat{v}(s, \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{x}(s)$
- $\mathbf{w}_{t+1} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha \left| U_t \hat{v}(s, \mathbf{w}_t) \right| \mathbf{x}(s)$

Feature Construction: Coarse Coding

- Divide state space up into overlapping cells
- One indicator feature for each cell, set to 1 if the state is in the cell
- This is another form of state aggregation
- Updating one state **generalizes** to other states that share a cell





Narrow generalization

Broad generalization





Tile Coding

- The most practical form of coarse coding
- Partition state space into a uniform grid called a tiling
 - Use multiple tilings that are offset



Summary

- possible state and/or action
- to specify the values of states
- Weights can be set using gradient descent and semigradient descent
- especially coarse coding and tile coding

• It is often impractical to track the estimated value for every

• Parameterized value function $\hat{v}(s, w)$ uses weights $w \in \mathbb{R}^d$

Most efficient forms of approximation: Linear approximations,