Lecture 11: Off-policy and multi-step learning

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Background

Sutton & Barto 2018, Chapter 5, 7, 11







Recap



- Reinforcement learning is the science of learning to make decisions
- Agents can learn a policy, value function and/or a model
- The general problem involves taking into account time and consequences
- Decisions affect the reward, the agent state, and environment state



High level

Previous lectures:

- Model-free prediction & control
- Multi-step updates (and eligibility traces)
- Understanding dynamic programming operators
- Predictions with function approximation
- Model-based algorithms
- Policy gradients and actor-critic algorithms
- This lecture:
 - Off-policy learning, especially when combined with multi-step updates and function approximation



Motivation

Why learn off-policy?

Why learn off-policy?

- Off-policy learning is important to learn about hypothetical, counterfactual events (i.e, "what if" question)
- Use cases include
 - learning about the greedy policy
 - learning about (many) other policies
 - learning from observed data (e.g., stored logs / other agents)
 - learning from past policies
- This is also important to correct for mismatch in data distributions, for instance for policy gradients



One-step off-policy

With action values, **one-step** off-policy learning seems relatively straightforward:

$$q(S_t, A_t) \leftarrow q(S_t, A_t) + \alpha_t (R_{t+1} + \sum_a \pi(a|S_{t+1})q(S_{t+1}, a) - q(S_t, A_t))$$

For instance

- ► Q-learning: let π be greedy $\implies \sum_a \pi_{sa} q_{sa} = \max_a q_{sa}$
- Expected Sarsa: let π be the current behaviour policy
- Sarsa: let π put all probability mass on the action the behaviour picked



Multi-step off-policy

For multi-step updates, we can use importance-sampling corrections E.g., for a Monte Carlo return on a trajectory $\tau_t = \{S_t, A_t, R_{t+1}, \dots, S_T\}$

$$\hat{G}_t \equiv \frac{p(\tau_t|\pi)}{p(\tau_t|\mu)}G_t = \frac{\pi(A_t|S_t)}{\mu(A_t|S_t)}\cdots\frac{\pi(A_T|S_T)}{\mu(A_T|S_T)}G_t,$$

then $\mathbb{E}[\hat{G}_t \mid \mu] = \mathbb{E}[G_t \mid \pi]$



Multi-step off-policy

- ▶ We know multi-step updates often more efficiency propagate information
- ▶ Neither full Monte Carlo, nor one-step bootstrapping, is typically the best trade-off





Off-policy corrections for policy gradients

Recall: for policy gradient methods we want to sample/estimate

 $\mathbb{E}[q_{\pi}(S_t, A_t)\nabla \log \pi(A_t|S_t)].$

- On-policy can sample multi-step returns G_t such that $\mathbb{E}[G_t \mid \pi] \approx q_{\pi}(s, a)$
- But what if the behaviour is $\mu \neq \pi$?
- $\blacktriangleright \implies$ we might not be following a gradient direction

Issues in off-policy learning

Issues with off-policy learning

The following issues (especially) arise when learning off-policy

- High variance (especially when using multi-step updates)
- Divergent and inefficient learning (especially when using one-step updates)
 We will discuss both in this lecture

Issues in off-policy learning: Variance



Variance of importance sampling corrections

- A big issue in using importance-sampling corrections is high variance
- First, consider a one-step reward
- Verify the expectation, for a given state s:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\pi(A_t|s)}{\mu(A_t|s)}R_{t+1} \mid A_t \sim \mu\right] = \sum_a \mu(a|s)\frac{\pi(a|s)}{\mu(a|s)}r(s,a)$$
$$= \sum_a \pi(a|s)r(s,a)$$
$$= \mathbb{E}[R_{t+1} \mid A_t \sim \pi]$$

But typically the variance will be larger, sometimes greatly so



Variance example

Variance of importance sampling corrections

 In some cases the variance of an importance-weighting return can even be infinite (see: Sutton & Barto, Example 5.5)





Mitigating variance

- There are multiple ways to reduce variance
- We will discuss three:
 - Per-decision importance weighting
 - Control variates
 - (Adaptive) bootstrapping

Reducing variance: Per-decision importance weighting



Mitigating variance: with per-decision importance weighting

Consider some state *s*. For any random *X* that does not correlate with (random) action *A* we have $\begin{bmatrix} x & y \\ y & y \end{bmatrix}$

$$\mathbb{E}[X \mid \pi] = \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\pi(A|s)}{\mu(A|s)}X \mid \mu\right] = \mathbb{E}[X \mid \mu]$$

Intuition: the expectation does not depend on the policy, so we don't need to correct

Mitigating variance: with per-decision importance weighting

Proof:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\pi(A|s)}{\mu(A|s)}X \mid \mu\right]$$

= $\mathbb{E}[X \mid \mu]\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{\pi(A|s)}{\mu(A|s)} \mid \mu\right]$
= $\mathbb{E}[X \mid \mu]\sum_{a}\mu(a|s)\frac{\pi(a|s)}{\mu(a|s)}$
= $\mathbb{E}[X \mid \mu]\sum_{a}\pi(a|s)$
= $\mathbb{E}[X \mid \mu]$

Similarly, in general, we have $\mathbb{E}[\frac{\pi(A|s)}{\mu(A|s)} \mid \mu] = 1$

(Because *X* and $\frac{\pi}{\mu}$ are uncorrelated)

(Because $\sum_{a} \pi(a|s) = 1$)



Notation

Shorthand notations:

$$\boldsymbol{\rho_t} \equiv \frac{\pi(A_t \mid S_t)}{\mu(A_t \mid S_t)} \qquad \qquad \boldsymbol{\rho_{t:t+n}} \equiv \prod_{k=t}^{t+n} \rho_k = \prod_{k=t}^{t+n} \frac{\pi(A_k \mid S_k)}{\mu(A_k \mid S_k)}$$

Then the reweighted MC return from state S_t terminating at time T can be written as

$$\underbrace{\left(\prod_{k=t}^{T-1} \frac{\pi(A_k|S_k)}{\mu(A_k|S_k)}\right)}_{(\sum_{k=t}^{T-1} \gamma^{k-t}R_{k+1})} = \rho_{t:T-1}G_t = \sum_{k=t}^{T-1} \rho_{t:T-1}\gamma^{k-t}R_{k+1}$$

We can interpret the importance-weight $\rho_{t:T-1}$ as applying to each reward



Mitigating variance: with per-decision importance weighting

$$\rho_{t:T-1}G_t = \sum_{k=t}^{T-1} \rho_{t:T-1} \gamma^{k-t} R_{k+1}$$

Earlier rewards cannot depend on later actions. This means:

$$\mathbb{E}[\rho_{t:T-1}G_t \mid \mu] = \mathbb{E}[\sum_{k=t}^{T-1} \rho_{t:T-1}\gamma^{k-t}R_{k+1} \mid \mu]$$
$$= \mathbb{E}[\sum_{k=t}^{T-1} \rho_{t:k}\gamma^{k-t}R_{k+1} \mid \mu]$$

Recursive definition of the latter:

$$G_t^{\rho} = \rho_t (R_{t+1} + \gamma G_{t+1}^{\rho})$$



Mitigating variance: with per-decision importance weighting

Per-decision importance-weighted return

$$G_t^\rho = \rho_t(R_{t+1} + \gamma G_{t+1}^\rho)$$

We can use this to learn v_{π} from data generated under $\mu \neq \pi$

To learn action values q_{π} , we can use

$$G_t^{\rho} = R_{t+1} + \gamma \rho_{t+1} G_{t+1}^{\rho}$$

How and why are these different?



Reducing variance: Control variates



Example: control variates

Control variates for multi-step returns

The idea of control variates can be extended to multi-step returns

► First, recall

$$\begin{split} \delta_t^{\lambda} &\equiv G_t^{\lambda} - v(S_t) \\ &= R_{t+1} + \gamma((1-\lambda)v(S_{t+1}) + \gamma\lambda G_{t+1}^{\lambda}) - v(S_t) \\ &= \underbrace{R_{t+1} + \gamma v(S_{t+1}) - v(S_t)}_{= \delta_t} + \gamma\lambda \underbrace{(G_{t+1}^{\lambda} - v(S_{t+1}))}_{= \delta_{t+1}}_{= \delta_t + \gamma\lambda \delta_{t+1}^{\lambda}} \end{split}$$



Control variates for multi-step returns

The idea of control variates can be extended to multi-step returns

Now, lets add per-decision importance weights

$$\delta_t^{\lambda} = \delta_t + \gamma \lambda \delta_{t+1}^{\lambda}$$
$$\delta_t^{\rho \lambda} = \rho_t (\delta_t + \gamma \lambda \delta_{t+1}^{\rho \lambda})$$

- ▶ By design this includes the $(1 \rho_t)v(S_t)$ control variate terms
- Sometimes called 'error weighting' (to contrast to 'reward weighting')



Control variates for multi-step returns

$$\delta_t^{\rho\lambda} = \rho_t (\delta_t + \gamma\lambda\delta_{t+1}^{\rho\lambda})$$

One can show that

$$\mathbb{E}[\delta_t^{\rho\lambda} \mid \mu] = \mathbb{E}[G_t^{\rho\lambda} - v(S_t) \mid \mu]$$

where

$$G_t^{\rho\lambda} = \rho_t \left(R_{t+1} + \gamma \left((1 - \lambda) \nu(S_{t+1}) + \lambda G_{t+1}^{\rho\lambda} \right) \right)$$

is the per-decision importance-weighted λ -return. • But $\delta_t^{\rho\lambda}$ can have lower variance than $G_t^{\rho\lambda} - v(S_t)$



Reducing variance: Adaptive Bootstrapping



Reducing variance: bootstrapping

- For our last technique, we consider bootstrapping
- This amounts to picking $\lambda < 1$ when using either $\delta_t^{\rho\lambda}$ or $G_t^{\rho\lambda}$
- Note that to learn action values, we can use

$$G_t^{\rho\lambda} = R_{t+1} + \gamma \left((1-\lambda) \sum_a \pi(a \mid S_{t+1})q(S_{t+1}, a) + \rho_{t+1}\lambda G_{t+1}^{\rho\lambda} \right)$$

Then, if $\lambda = 0$, we get

$$G_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma \sum_a \pi(a \mid S_{t+1})q(S_{t+1}, a)$$

 \implies no more importance weighted \implies low variance

However, bootstrapping too much may open us to the deadly triad!



- ▶ Recall, the deadly triad refers to the possibility of divergence when we combine
 - Bootstrapping
 - **Function approximation**
 - Off-policy learning



What if we use TD only on this transition?





$$w_{t+1} = w_t + \alpha_t (r + \gamma v(s') - v(s)) \nabla v(s)$$

= $w_t + \alpha_t (2\gamma - 1) w_t$

Suppose $\gamma > \frac{1}{2}$. Then, When $w_t > 0$ and , then $w_{t+1} > w_t$ When $w_t < 0$ and , then $w_{t+1} < w_t \implies w_t$ diverges to $+\infty$ of $-\infty$





- What if we use multi-step returns?
- Still consider only updating the left-most state

$$\Delta w = \alpha (r + \gamma (G_t^{\lambda} - v(s)))$$
$$= \alpha (2\gamma (1 - \lambda) - 1)w$$

- The multiplier is negative when $2\gamma(1-\lambda) < 1 \implies \lambda > 1 \frac{1}{2\gamma}$
- E.g., when $\gamma = 0.9$, then we need $\lambda > 4/9 \approx 0.45$
- Conclusion: if we do not bootstrap too much, we can learn better



Reducing variance: adaptive bootstrapping

- ► We don't want to bootstrap too much ⇒ deadly triad
- We don't want to bootstrap too little \implies high variance
- Can we adaptively bootstrap 'just enough'?
- ▶ Idea: bootstrap adaptively only in as much as you go off-policy

Reducing variance: adaptive bootstrapping

• Recall
$$\delta_t^{\rho\lambda} = \rho_t (\delta_t + \gamma \lambda \delta_{t+1}^{\rho\lambda})$$

Let's add an initial bootstrap parameter, and make these time-dependent

$$\delta_t^{\rho\lambda} = \lambda_t \rho_t (\delta_t + \gamma \delta_{t+1}^{\rho\lambda})$$

(If $\lambda_t = 1$, we obtain the previous version)

- We can pick λ_t separately on each time step
- Idea: pick it such that, for all t, $\lambda_t \rho_t \leq 1$:

 $\lambda_t = \min(1, 1/\rho_t)$

- Intuition: when we are too off-policy (ρ is far from one) truncate the sum of errors
- This is the same as bootstrapping there

Reducing variance: adaptive bootstrapping

 $\lambda_t = \min(1, 1/\rho_t)$

- ► This is known as **ABTD** (Mahmood et al. 2017) or **v-trace** (Espeholt et al. 2018)
- We are free to choose different ways to bootstrap: in the tabular case all these methods will be updating towards some mixture of multi-step returns, and therefore converge
- In deep RL this really helps, especially for policy gradients (Policy gradients do not like biased return estimates – we will get back to that)
- This is used a lot these days



Reducing variance: tree backup

- Picking $\lambda_t = \min(1, 1/\rho_t)$ is not the only way to adaptively bootstrap
- One more option, consider the Bellman operator for action values

$$q_{\pi}(s,a) = \mathbb{E}[R_{t+1} + \gamma \sum_{a} \pi(a|S_{t+1})q_{\pi}(S_{t+1},a) \mid A_{t} = a, S_{t} = s]$$

- Note: the expectation does not depend on π , because we condition on the action *a*
- ► Idea: sample this, then replace only the action you selected:

$$G_{t} = R_{t+1} + \gamma \sum_{a \neq A_{t+1}} \pi(a|S_{t+1})q(S_{t+1}, a) + \gamma \pi(A_{t+1}|S_{t+1})G_{t+1}$$

- We remove only the expectation $q(S_{t+1}, A_{t+1})$ of the action actually selected, and replace it with the return
- This is **unbiased**, and **low variance**! ($\pi(A_{t+1}|S_{t+1})$ plays a role similar to λ)
- It might bootstrap too early though beware of deadly triads!

Lecture End

