Lecture 5: Model-Free Prediction

Hado van Hasselt

UCL, 2021



Background

Sutton & Barto 2018, Chapters 5 + 6 + 7 + 9 + 12

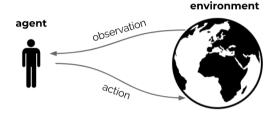
Don't worry about reading all of this at once! Most important chapters, for now: 5 + 6You can also defer some reading, e.g., until the reading week



Don't forget to pause



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



Lecture overview

- ► Last lectures (3+4):
 - Planning by dynamic programming to solve a known MDP
- This and next lectures $(5 \rightarrow 8)$:
 - Model-free prediction to estimate values in an unknown MDP
 - Model-free control to optimise values in an unknown MDP
 - Function approximation and (some) deep reinforcement learning (but more to follow later)
 - Off-policy learning
- Later lectures:
 - Model-based learning and planning
 - Policy gradients and actor critic systems
 - More deep reinforcement learning
 - More advanced topics and current research



Model-Free Prediction: Monte Carlo Algorithms



Monte Carlo Algorithms

- We can use experience **samples** to learn without a model
- We call direct sampling of episodes Monte Carlo
- MC is model-free: no knowledge of MDP required, only samples



Monte Carlo: Bandits

Simple example, **multi-armed bandit**:

► For each action, average reward samples

$$q_t(a) = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^t I(A_i = a) R_{i+1}}{\sum_{i=0}^t I(A_i = a)} \approx \mathbb{E}[R_{t+1}|A_t = a] = q(a)$$

Equivalently:

$$q_{t+1}(A_t) = q_t(A_t) + \alpha_t(R_{t+1} - q_t(A_t))$$

$$q_{t+1}(a) = q_t(a) \qquad \forall a \neq A_t$$

with
$$\alpha_t = \frac{1}{N_t(A_t)} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=0}^t I(A_i=a)}$$

Note: we changed notation $R_t \rightarrow R_{t+1}$ for the reward after A_t In MDPs, the reward is said to arrive on the time step after the action



Monte Carlo: Bandits with States

- Consider bandits with different states
 - episodes are still one step
 - actions do not affect state transitions
 - \blacktriangleright \implies no long-term consequences
- ▶ Then, we want to estimate

$$q(s,a) = \mathbb{E}\left[R_{t+1}|S_t = s, A_t = a\right]$$

These are called contextual bandits



Introduction Function Approximation



Value Function Approximation

So far we mostly considered lookup tables

- Every state *s* has an entry v(s)
- Or every state-action pair *s*, *a* has an entry q(s, a)
- Problem with large MDPs:
 - There are too many states and/or actions to store in memory
 - It is too slow to learn the value of each state individually
 - Individual states are often not fully observable



Value Function Approximation

Solution for large MDPs:

• Estimate value function with **function approximation**

$$v_{\mathbf{w}}(s) \approx v_{\pi}(s)$$
 (or $v_{*}(s)$)
 $q_{\mathbf{w}}(s, a) \approx q_{\pi}(s, a)$ (or $q_{*}(s, a)$)

- ▶ Update parameter **w** (e.g., using MC or TD learning)
- Generalise from to unseen states



Agent state update

Solution for large MDPs, if the environment state is not fully observable

Use the agent state:

$$S_t = u_{\boldsymbol{\omega}}(S_{t-1}, A_{t-1}, O_t)$$

with parameters $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ (typically $\boldsymbol{\omega} \in \mathbb{R}^n$)

- Henceforth, S_t denotes the agent state
- Think of this as either a vector inside the agent, or, in the simplest case, just the current observation: S_t = O_t
- For now we are **not** going to talk about how to learn the agent state update
- Feel free to consider S_t an observation



Linear Function Approximation

Feature Vectors

- A useful special case: linear functions
- Represent state by a feature vector

$$\mathbf{x}(s) = \left(\begin{array}{c} x_1(s) \\ \vdots \\ x_m(s) \end{array}\right)$$

- ▶ $\mathbf{x} : S \to \mathbb{R}^m$ is a fixed mapping from agent state (e.g., observation) to features
- Short-hand: $\mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{x}(S_t)$
- ► For example:
 - Distance of robot from landmarks
 - Trends in the stock market
 - Piece and pawn configurations in chess



Linear Value Function Approximation

Approximate value function by a linear combination of features

$$v_{\mathbf{w}}(s) = \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}(s) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_j(s) w_j$$

Objective function ('loss') is quadratic in w

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = \mathbb{E}_{S \sim d}[(v_{\pi}(S) - \mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x}(S))^{2}]$$

- Stochastic gradient descent converges on global optimum
- Update rule is simple

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} v_{\mathbf{w}}(S_t) = \mathbf{x}(S_t) = \mathbf{x}_t \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad \Delta \mathbf{w} = \alpha (v_{\pi}(S_t) - v_{\mathbf{w}}(S_t)) \mathbf{x}_t$$

Update = step-size × prediction error × feature vector



Table Lookup Features

- ► Table lookup is a special case of linear value function approximation
- Let the *n* states be given by $S = \{s_1, \ldots, s_n\}$.
- Use one-hot feature:

$$\mathbf{x}(s) = \begin{pmatrix} I(s = s_1) \\ \vdots \\ I(s = s^n) \end{pmatrix}$$

Parameters w then just contains value estimates for each state

$$v(s) = \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}(s) = \sum_{j} w_{j} x_{j}(s) = w_{s} \,.$$



Model-Free Prediction: Monte Carlo Algorithms

(Continuing from before...)



Monte Carlo: Bandits with States

 \blacktriangleright *q* could be a parametric function, e.g., neural network, and we could use loss

$$L(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E} \left[(R_{t+1} - q_{\mathbf{w}}(S_t, A_t))^2 \right]$$

Then the gradient update is

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{w}_{t+1} &= \mathbf{w}_t - \alpha \nabla_{\mathbf{w}_t} L(\mathbf{w}_t) \\ &= \mathbf{w}_t - \alpha \nabla_{\mathbf{w}_t} \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E} \left[(R_{t+1} - q_{\mathbf{w}_t}(S_t, A_t))^2 \right] \\ &= \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha \mathbb{E} \left[(R_{t+1} - q_{\mathbf{w}_t}(S_t, A_t)) \nabla_{\mathbf{w}_t} q_{\mathbf{w}_t}(S_t, A_t) \right] \,. \end{split}$$

We can sample this to get a stochastic gradient update (SGD)

- The tabular case is a special case (only updates the value in cell $[S_t, A_t]$)
- ▶ Also works for large (continuous) state spaces S this is just regression



Monte Carlo: Bandits with States

• When using linear functions, $q(s, a) = \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}(s, a)$ and

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}_t} q_{\mathbf{w}_t}(S_t, A_t) = \mathbf{x}(s, a)$$

Then the SGD update is

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+1} = \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha (R_{t+1} - q_{\mathbf{w}_t}(S_t, A_t)) \mathbf{x}(s, a) \,.$$

- Linear update = step-size × prediction error × feature vector
- Non-linear update = step-size × prediction error × gradient



Monte-Carlo Policy Evaluation

- Now we consider sequential decision problems
- ► Goal: learn v_{π} from episodes of experience under policy π

$$S_1, A_1, R_2, ..., S_k \sim \pi$$

The return is the total discounted reward (for an episode ending at time T > t):

$$G_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \dots + \gamma^{T-t-1} R_T$$

The value function is the expected return:

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

- We can just use **sample average** return instead of **expected** return
- We call this Monte Carlo policy evaluation

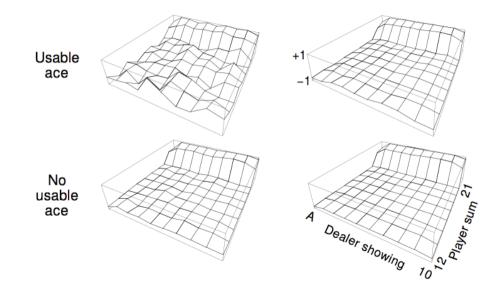
Example: Blackjack

Blackjack Example

- States (200 of them):
 - Current sum (12-21)
 - Dealer's showing card (ace-10)
 - Do I have a "useable" ace? (yes-no)
- Action stick: Stop receiving cards (and terminate)
- Action draw: Take another card (random, no replacement)
- Reward for stick:
 - +1 if sum of cards > sum of dealer cards
 - 0 if sum of cards = sum of dealer cards
 - -1 if sum of cards < sum of dealer cards</p>
- Reward for draw:
 - -1 if sum of cards > 21 (and terminate)
 - 0 otherwise
- Transitions: automatically draw if sum of cards < 12</p>



Blackjack Value Function after Monte-Carlo Learning After 10,000 episodes After 500,000 episodes



Disadvantages of Monte-Carlo Learning

- We have seen MC algorithms can be used to learn value predictions
- But when episodes are long, learning can be slow
 - ...we have to wait until an episode ends before we can learn
 - ...return can have high variance
- Are there alternatives? (Spoiler: yes)

Temporal-Difference Learning

Temporal Difference Learning by Sampling Bellman Equations

Previous lecture: Bellman equations,

$$v_{\pi}(s) = \mathbb{E}\left[R_{t+1} + \gamma v_{\pi}(S_{t+1}) \mid S_t = s, A_t \sim \pi(S_t)\right]$$

Previous lecture: Approximate by iterating,

$$v_{k+1}(s) = \mathbb{E} \left[R_{t+1} + \gamma v_k(S_{t+1}) \mid S_t = s, A_t \sim \pi(S_t) \right]$$

We can sample this!

$$v_{t+1}(S_t) = R_{t+1} + \gamma v_t(S_{t+1})$$

This is likely quite noisy — better to take a small step (with parameter α):

$$v_{t+1}(S_t) = v_t(S_t) + \alpha_t \left(\underbrace{R_{t+1} + \gamma v_t(S_{t+1})}_{\text{target}} - v_t(S_t) \right)$$

(Note: tabular update)



Temporal difference learning

- **Prediction** setting: learn v_{π} online from experience under policy π
- Monte-Carlo
 - Update value $v_n(S_t)$ towards sampled return G_t

$$v_{n+1}(S_t) = v_n(S_t) + \alpha \left(\mathbf{G}_t - v_n(S_t) \right)$$

- Temporal-difference learning:
 - Update value $v_t(S_t)$ towards estimated return $R_{t+1} + \gamma v(S_{t+1})$

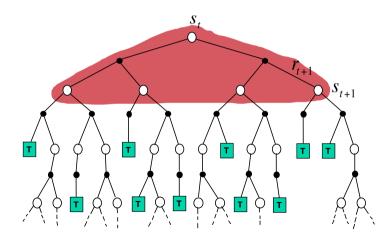
$$v_{t+1}(S_t) \leftarrow v_t(S_t) + \alpha \left(\underbrace{\underbrace{\frac{\text{TD error}}{R_{t+1} + \gamma v_t(S_{t+1})} - v_t(S_t)}_{\text{target}} \right)$$

► $\delta_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma v_t(S_{t+1}) - v_t(S_t)$ is called the TD error



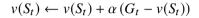
Dynamic Programming Backup

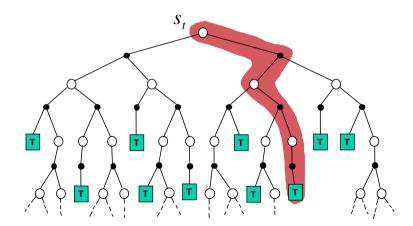
$$v(S_t) \leftarrow \mathbb{E} \left[R_{t+1} + \gamma v(S_{t+1}) \mid A_t \sim \pi(S_t) \right]$$





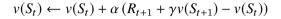
Monte-Carlo Backup

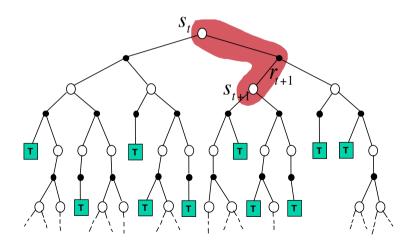






Temporal-Difference Backup







Bootstrapping and Sampling

Bootstrapping: update involves an estimate

- MC does not bootstrap
- DP bootstraps
- TD bootstraps
- Sampling: update samples an expectation
 - MC samples
 - DP does not sample
 - ► TD samples



Temporal difference learning

- We can apply the same idea to action values
- ► Temporal-difference learning for action values:
 - ► Update value $q_t(S_t, A_t)$ towards estimated return $R_{t+1} + \gamma q(S_{t+1}, A_{t+1})$

$$q_{t+1}(S_t, A_t) \leftarrow q_t(S_t, A_t) + \alpha \left(\underbrace{\frac{\text{TD error}}{\underset{t \neq 1}{\textbf{K}_{t+1} + \gamma q_t(S_{t+1}, A_{t+1})} - q_t(S_t, A_t)}_{\text{target}}\right)$$

This algorithm is known as SARSA, because it uses $(S_t, A_t, R_{t+1}, S_{t+1}, A_{t+1})$



Temporal-Difference Learning

- > TD is model-free (no knowledge of MDP) and learn directly from experience
- TD can learn from **incomplete** episodes, by **bootstrapping**
- TD can learn **during** each episode



Example: Driving Home

Driving Home Example

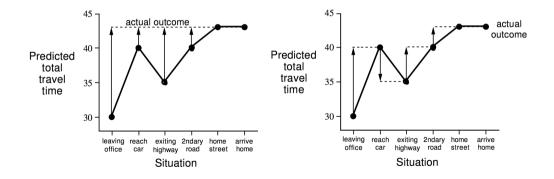
State	Elapsed Time (minutes)	Predicted Time to Go	Predicted Total Time
leaving office	0	30	30
reach car, raining	5	35	40
exit highway	20	15	35
behind truck	30	10	40
home street	40	3	43
arrive home	43	0	43



Driving Home Example: MC vs. TD

Changes recommended by Monte Carlo methods (α =1)

Changes recommended by TD methods (α =1)



Comparing MC and TD



Advantages and Disadvantages of MC vs. TD

- TD can learn **before** knowing the final outcome
 - TD can learn online after every step
 - MC must wait until end of episode before return is known
- TD can learn without the final outcome
 - TD can learn from incomplete sequences
 - MC can only learn from complete sequences
 - TD works in continuing (non-terminating) environments
 - MC only works for episodic (terminating) environments
- ► TD is independent of the temporal span of the prediction
 - TD can learn from single transitions
 - MC must store all predictions (or states) to update at the end of an episode
- TD needs reasonable value estimates

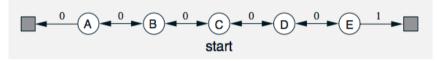
- MC return $G_t = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \dots$ is an **unbiased** estimate of $v_{\pi}(S_t)$
- TD target $R_{t+1} + \gamma v_t(S_{t+1})$ is a **biased** estimate of $v_{\pi}(S_t)$ (unless $v_t(S_{t+1}) = v_{\pi}(S_{t+1})$)
- But the TD target has lower variance:
 - Return depends on many random actions, transitions, rewards
 - ▶ TD target depends on one random action, transition, reward

Bias/Variance Trade-Off

- ▶ In some cases, TD can have irreducible bias
- The world may be partially observable
 - MC would implicitly account for all the latent variables
- ► The function to approximate the values may fit poorly
- ▶ In the tabular case, both MC and TD will converge: $v_t \rightarrow v_{\pi}$

Example: Random Walk

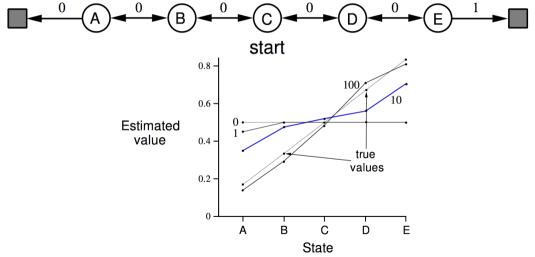
Random Walk Example



- Uniform random transitions (50% left, 50% right)
- Initial values are v(s) = 0.5, for all *s*
- True values happen to be $v(A) = \frac{1}{6}, v(B) = \frac{2}{6}, v(C) = \frac{3}{6}, v(D) = \frac{4}{6}, v(E) = \frac{5}{6}$

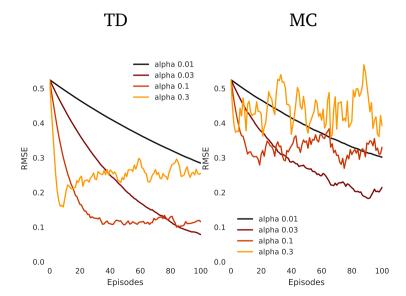


Random Walk Example





Random Walk: MC vs. TD



6

Batch MC and TD



Batch MC and TD

- ► Tabular MC and TD converge: $v_t \rightarrow v_\pi$ as experience $\rightarrow \infty$ and $\alpha_t \rightarrow 0$
- But what about finite experience?
- Consider a fixed batch of experience:

episode 1:
$$S_1^1, A_1^1, R_2^1, ..., S_{T_1}^1$$

:
episode K: $S_1^K, A_1^K, R_2^K, ..., S_{T_K}^K$

- ▶ Repeatedly sample each episode $k \in [1, K]$ and apply MC or TD(0)
 - sampling from an empirical model



Example: Batch Learning in Two States

Example: Batch Learning in Two States

Two states A, B; no discounting; 8 episodes of experience

A, 0, B, 0 B, 1 B, 1 B, 1 B, 1 B, 1

B, 1

B, 1

B, 0

What is v(A), v(B)?



Example: Batch Learning in Two States

Two states A, B; no discounting; 8 episodes of experience

A, 0, B, 0**B**, 1 r =**B**, 1 75% **B**, 1 r = 0**B**, 1 100%= 0**B**, 1 25 **B**, 1 **B**, 0 What is v(A), v(B)?

Differences in batch solutions

MC converges to best mean-squared fit for the observed returns

$$\sum_{k=1}^{K} \sum_{t=1}^{T_k} \left(G_t^k - \nu(S_t^k) \right)^2$$

- In the AB example, v(A) = 0
- > TD converges to solution of max likelihood Markov model, given the data
 - Solution to the empirical MDP $(S, \mathcal{A}, \hat{p}, \gamma)$ that best fits the data
 - ▶ In the AB example: $\hat{p}(S_{t+1} = B | S_t = A) = 1$, and therefore v(A) = v(B) = 0.75



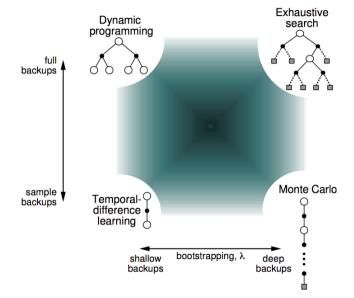
Advantages and Disadvantages of MC vs. TD

- TD exploits Markov property
 - Can help in fully-observable environments
- MC does not exploit Markov property
 - Can help in partially-observable environments
- ▶ With finite data, or with function approximation, the solutions may differ

Between MC and TD: Multi-Step TD



Unified View of Reinforcement Learning



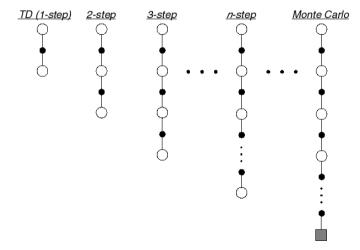


Multi-Step Updates

- ▶ TD uses value estimates which might be inaccurate
- ▶ In addition, information can propagate back quite slowly
- ▶ In MC information propagates faster, but the updates are noisier
- We can go in between TD and MC

Multi-Step Prediction

Let TD target look *n* steps into the future





Multi-Step Returns

Consider the following *n*-step returns for $n = 1, 2, \infty$:

$$n = 1 \quad (TD) \quad G_t^{(1)} = R_{t+1} + \gamma v(S_{t+1})$$

$$n = 2 \qquad G_t^{(2)} = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \gamma^2 v(S_{t+2})$$

$$\vdots \qquad \vdots$$

$$n = \infty \quad (MC) \quad G_t^{(\infty)} = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \dots + \gamma^{T-t-1} R_T$$

▶ In general, the *n*-step return is defined by

$$G_t^{(n)} = R_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+2} + \dots + \gamma^{n-1} R_{t+n} + \gamma^n \nu(S_{t+n})$$

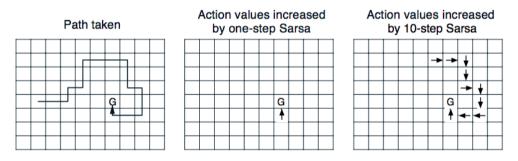
Multi-step temporal-difference learning

$$v(S_t) \leftarrow v(S_t) + \alpha \left(G_t^{(n)} - v(S_t) \right)$$



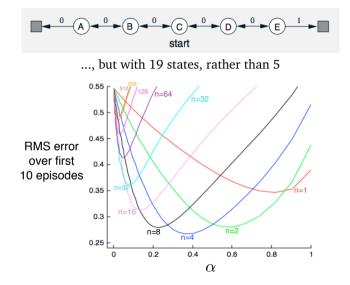
Multi-Step Examples

Grid Example



(Reminder: SARSA is TD for action values q(s, a))

Large Random Walk Example





Mixed Multi-Step Returns



Mixing multi-step returns

• Multi-step returns bootstrap on one state, $v(S_{t+n})$:

$$\begin{aligned} G_t^{(n)} &= R_{t+1} + \gamma G_{t+1}^{(n-1)} & \text{(while } n > 1, \text{ continue}) \\ G_t^{(1)} &= R_{t+1} + \gamma \nu (S_{t+1}) \,. & \text{(truncate & bootstrap)} \end{aligned}$$

> You can also bootstrap a little bit on multiple states:

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

This gives a weighted average of *n*-step returns:

$$G_t^{\lambda} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1-\lambda) \lambda^{n-1} G_t^{(n)}$$

(Note, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1 - \lambda) \lambda^{n-1} = 1$)



Mixing multi-step returns

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

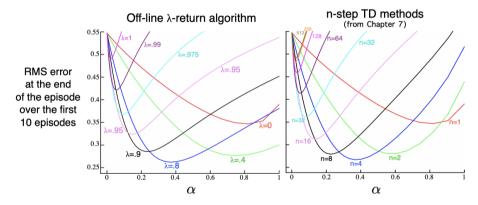
Special cases:

$$G_t^{\lambda=0} = R_{t+1} + \gamma \nu(S_{t+1}) \tag{TD}$$

$$G_t^{\lambda=1} = R_{t+1} + \gamma G_{t+1} \tag{MC}$$



Mixing multi-step returns



Intuition: $1/(1 - \lambda)$ is the 'horizon'. E.g., $\lambda = 0.9 \approx n = 10$.



Benefits of Multi-Step Learning

Benefits of multi-step returns

- Multi-step returns have benefits from both TD and MC
- Bootstrapping can have issues with bias
- Monte Carlo can have issues with variance
- ► Typically, intermediate values of *n* or λ are good (e.g., *n* = 10, λ = 0.9)

Independence of temporal span

- MC and multi-step returns are not independent of span of the predictions: To update values in a long episode, you have to wait
- > TD can update immediately, and is independent of the span of the predictions
- Can we get both?

Recall linear function approximation

▶ The Monte Carlo and TD updates to $v_{\mathbf{w}}(s) = \mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x}(s)$ for a state $s = S_t$ is

$$\Delta \mathbf{w}_t = \alpha (G_t - v(S_t)) \mathbf{x}_t \tag{MC}$$

$$\Delta \mathbf{w}_t = \alpha (R_{t+1} + \gamma v(S_{t+1}) - v(S_t)) \mathbf{x}_t$$
(TD)

• MC updates all states in episode k at once:

$$\Delta \mathbf{w}_{k+1} = \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \alpha (G_t - v(S_t)) \mathbf{x}_t$$

where $t \in \{0, ..., T - 1\}$ enumerate the time steps in this specific episode Recall: tabular is a special case, with one-hot vector \mathbf{x}_t



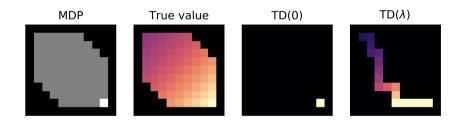
Accumulating a whole episode of updates:

$$\Delta \mathbf{w}_t \equiv \alpha \delta_t \mathbf{e}_t \qquad \text{(one time step)}$$

where $\mathbf{e}_t = \gamma \lambda \mathbf{e}_{t-1} + \mathbf{x}_t$

- Note: if $\lambda = 0$, we get one-step TD
- ▶ Intuition: decay the eligibility of past states for the current TD error, then add it
- This is kind of magical: we can update all past states (to account for the new TD error) with a single update! No need to recompute their values.
- This idea extends to function approximation: \mathbf{x}_t does not have to be one-hot







We can rewrite the MC error as a sum of TD errors:

$$G_{t} - v(S_{t}) = R_{t+1} + \gamma G_{t+1} - v(S_{t})$$

= $R_{t+1} + \gamma v(S_{t+1}) - v(S_{t}) + \gamma (G_{t+1} - v(S_{t+1}))$
= δ_{t}
= $\delta_{t} + \gamma (G_{t+1} - v(S_{t+1}))$
= ...
= $\delta_{t} + \gamma \delta_{t+1} + \gamma^{2} (G_{t+2} - v(S_{t+2}))$
= ...
= $\sum_{k=t}^{T} \gamma^{k-t} \delta_{k}$

(used in the next slide)

Now consider accumulating a whole episode (from time t = 0 to T) of updates:

$$\Delta \mathbf{w}_{k} = \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \alpha (G_{t} - v(S_{t})) \mathbf{x}_{t}$$
$$= \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \alpha \left(\sum_{k=t}^{T-1} \gamma^{k-t} \delta_{k} \right) \mathbf{x}_{t}$$
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{T-1} \alpha \sum_{t=0}^{k} \gamma^{k-t} \delta_{k} \mathbf{x}_{t}$$
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{T-1} \alpha \delta_{k} \underbrace{\sum_{t=0}^{k} \gamma^{k-t} \mathbf{x}_{t}}_{\equiv \mathbf{e}_{k}}$$

(Using result from previous slide)

$$(\text{Using } \sum_{i=0}^{m} \sum_{j=i}^{m} z_{ij} = \sum_{j=0}^{m} \sum_{i=0}^{j} z_{ij})$$
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{T-1} \alpha \delta_k \mathbf{e}_k = \underbrace{\sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \alpha \delta_t \mathbf{e}_t}_{\text{renaming}} .$$

Accumulating a whole episode of updates:

 $\Delta \mathbf{w}_k = \sum_{i=0}^{T-1} \alpha \delta_i \mathbf{e}_i \qquad \text{where} \qquad \mathbf{e}_t = \sum_{i=0}^{t} \gamma^{t-j} \mathbf{x}_j$ $=\sum_{i=0}^{t-1}\gamma^{t-j}\boldsymbol{x}_j+\boldsymbol{x}_t$ $= \gamma \sum_{i=0}^{t-1} \gamma^{t-1-j} \boldsymbol{x}_j + \boldsymbol{x}_t$ $= e_{t-1}$ $= \gamma \mathbf{e}_{t-1} + \mathbf{x}_t$.

The vector \mathbf{e}_t is called an eligibility trace

Every step, it decays (according to γ) and then the current feature \mathbf{x}_t is added



Accumulating a whole episode of updates:

$$\Delta \mathbf{w}_t \equiv \alpha \delta_t \mathbf{e}_t \qquad \text{(one time step)}$$
$$\Delta \mathbf{w}_k = \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \Delta \mathbf{w}_t \qquad \text{(whole episode)}$$
where $\mathbf{e}_t = \gamma \mathbf{e}_{t-1} + \mathbf{x}_t$.

(And then apply $\Delta \mathbf{w}$ at the end of the episode)

Intuition: the same TD error shows up in multiple MC errors—grouping them allows applying it to all past states in one update



Eligibility Traces: Intuition



Consider a batch update on an episode with four steps: $t \in \{0, 1, 2, 3\}$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \Delta \mathbf{v} = & \delta_0 \mathbf{e}_0 & \delta_1 \mathbf{e}_1 & \delta_2 \mathbf{e}_2 & \delta_3 \mathbf{e}_3 \\ (G_0 - v(S_0)) \mathbf{x}_0 & \delta_0 \mathbf{x}_0 & \gamma \delta_1 \mathbf{x}_0 & \gamma^2 \delta_2 \mathbf{x}_0 & \gamma^3 \delta_3 \mathbf{x}_0 \\ (G_1 - v(S_1)) \mathbf{x}_1 & & \delta_1 \mathbf{x}_1 & \gamma \delta_2 \mathbf{x}_1 & \gamma^2 \delta_3 \mathbf{x}_1 \\ (G_2 - v(S_2)) \mathbf{x}_2 & & \delta_2 \mathbf{x}_2 & \gamma \delta_3 \mathbf{x}_2 \\ (G_3 - v(S_3)) \mathbf{x}_3 & & \delta_3 \mathbf{x}_3 \end{array}$$



Mixed Multi-Step Returns and Eligibility Traces



Mixing multi-step returns & traces

Reminder: mixed multi-step return

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

The associated error and trace update are

$$G_t^{\lambda} = \sum_{k=0}^{T-t} \lambda^k \gamma^k \delta_{t+k} \qquad (\text{same as before, but with } \lambda \gamma \text{ instead of } \gamma)$$
$$\implies \mathbf{e}_t = \gamma \lambda \mathbf{e}_{t-1} + \mathbf{x}_t \qquad \text{and} \qquad \Delta \mathbf{w}_t = \alpha \delta_t \mathbf{e}_t .$$

- This is called an **accumulating trace** with decay $\gamma \lambda$
- ▶ It is exact for batched episodic updates ('offline'), similar traces exist for online updating

End of Lecture

Next lecture: Model-free control

