# **Reinforcement Learning** Lecture 2: Foundations of Reinforcement Learning

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- 1. General Reinforcement Learning (RL) Problems
- 2. Markov Decision Processes (MDPs)
- 3. Time-Varying MDPs and Partially Observable MDPs
- 4. Policy, Return and Value
- 5. The Existence of the Optimal Policy

### Lecture Outline (Cont'd)



Figure: Causal diagrams for MDPs, TMDPs and POMDPs. Solid lines represent the causal relationships. Dashed lines indicate the information needed to implement the optimal policy.  $\{H_t\}_t$  denotes latent variables. The parallel sign  $\parallel$  indicates that the conditional probability function given parent nodes is equal.

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### **Sequential Decision Making**



Objective: find an optimal policy that maximizes the cumulative reward

### **Atari Games**





- **S**<sub>t</sub>: images
- A<sub>t</sub>: Legal game actions
- R<sub>t</sub>: Scores & lives

### **Diabetes**

- Management of Type-I diabetes
- Subject: Patients with diabetes.
- **Objective**: Develop treatment policy to determine whether patients need to inject insulin at each time to improve their health
- S<sub>t</sub>: Patient's glucose levels, food intake, exercise intensity
- At: Insulin doses injected
- *R<sub>t</sub>*: Index of Glycemic Control (function of patient's glucose level)



# Intern Health Study

- Physical & mental health management
- Subject: First-year medical interns
- **Objective**: Develop treatment policy to determine whether to send certain text messages to interns to improve their health
- *S<sub>t</sub>*: Interns' mood scores, sleep hours and step counts
- At: Send text notifications or not
- R<sub>t</sub>: Mood scores or step counts



### **Ridesharing: Order-Dispatching**



- **S**<sub>t</sub>: **Supply** (drivers: availability, location) and **demand** (call orders: origin, destination)
- A<sub>t</sub>: Order-dispatching: match a driver with an order
- *R<sub>t</sub>*: Answer rate/Completion rate/Drivers' income

Supervised learning consider

- **Prediction** problems
- examples provided by a **supervisor**
- Independent data
- Applications:
  - Voice recognition
  - Image classification

#### $\mathsf{RL}\xspace$ is concerned with

- Sequential decision making
- No supervisor, only a **reward** signal
- Time-dependent data
- Applications:
  - Games
  - Robotics

### 1. General Reinforcement Learning (RL) Problems

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### Introduction to MDPs

- Markov decision processes formally describe an environment for reinforcement learning where the environment is **fully-observable**
- The current **state**-action pair completely characterizes the process (**Markov** property)
- Most RL problems can be formalised as MDPs, e.g.,
  - **Bandits** are MDPs with independent transitions
  - Many **non-Markov decision processes** (e.g., time-varying MDPs) can be converted into MDPs by
    - including time in the state
    - concatenating measurements over multiple times

# (Time-Homogeneous) Markov Chains

#### Definition

- $\{S_t\}_t$  forms a time-homogeneous Markov chain if and only if
  - $\Pr(\mathbf{S}_{t+1}|\mathbf{S}_t) = \Pr(\mathbf{S}_{t+1}|\mathbf{S}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{S}_t)$
  - $\Pr(S_{t+1}|S_t = s) = \Pr(S_t|S_{t-1} = s)$

#### More on the Markov property:

- The future is independent of the past given the present
- The current state captures all relevant information from the history
- Once the state is known, the history may be thrown away
- The state can be viewed as a sufficient statistic of the history

(Markov property) (time-homogeneity)

### Example: Random Walk on a Line

- You go into a casino with  $\pounds k$ , and at each time step, you bet  $\pounds 1$  on a fair game
- For each game, you win or lose with probability 0.5. The outcomes are **independent** across different games.
- You leave when you are broke or have £n



• A very popular model in finance to model stock price

### Example: Two-Dimensional Random Walk



- The drunkard starts at a "home" vertex **0**
- Then independently chooses at random a neighbouring vertex (left, right, forward, backward) to walk next at each time



### **Example: High-Dimensional Random Walk**

- A drunk man will find his way home, but a drunk bird may get lost forever
- In a two-dimensional space, the drunkard will return home infinitely many times

$$\sum_{t\geq 0}\mathbb{I}(\boldsymbol{S}_t=\boldsymbol{S}_0)=\infty$$

• In a three-dimensional space, the bird can only return home some **finite** number of times. After its last return home the bird then flies off never to return again

$$\sum_{t\geq 0}\mathbb{I}(\boldsymbol{S}_t=\boldsymbol{S}_0)<\infty$$

# **Causal Diagram**

• Markov chain



- $X \to Y$  if and only if X directly impacts Y
- **X** and **Y** are **independent** if and only if (iff) **X** and **Y** are d-separated i.e., there does not exist a connecting path between **X** and **Y**
- X and Y are conditionally independent given Z iff X and Y are d-separated by Z. In our examples, it requires Z to block every path between X and Y.

# **Causal Diagram**

• Markov chain



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- X and Y are conditionally independent given Z iff X and Y are d-separated by Z. In our examples, it requires Z to block every path between X and Y.

### Causal Diagram (Cont'd)

Without the Markov property



#### Definition

 $\{S_t, A_t, R_t\}_t$  forms a Markov decision process if and only if

- $\Pr(S_{t+1}, R_t | A_t, S_t) = \Pr(S_{t+1}, R_t | A_t, S_t, R_{t-1}, A_{t-1}, S_{t-1}, \cdots)$  (Markovianity)
- $\Pr(S_{t+1}, R_t | A_t = a, S_t = s) = \Pr(S_t, R_{t-1} | A_{t-1} = a, S_{t-1} = s)$ (time-homogeneity)
- The current state-action pair captures all relevant information from the history
- When  $A_t$  depends the history only through  $S_t$ ,  $\{S_t, A_t, R_t\}_t$  forms a Markov chain.

### **Markov Assumption**



### **Markov Assumption**



### **Stationarity Assumption**



# **OpenAl Gym Example: CartPole**

frame: 53, Obs: (0.018, 0.669, 0.286, 0.618) Action: 1.0, Cumulative Reward: 47.0, Done: 1



- *S<sub>t</sub>*: *x* (Position); *ν* (velocity); *θ* (Angle); *ϖ* (Angular velocity)
- A<sub>t</sub>: Pushing to the **right** or **left**
- $R_t$ : Binary, depending on whether  $|\theta| > 15 \deg$  or not

- $R_t$  depends on the history only through  $heta_t$
- $(S_t, A_t)$  captures all relevant information (position, velocity, acceleration)
- The dependencies are homogeneous over time (according to laws of physics)
- Most OpenAI Gym Examples satisfy the MDP model assumption

### **Bandits Example: Precision Medicine**



Patients

- Patients' states (baseline characteristics) are independent
- A patient's reward (outcome) depends only on their own state-treatment pair
- State-treatment-reward triples are identically distributed

### **MDP vs Contextual Bandits**



### MDP v.s. Contextual Bandits (Cont'd)



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- The **time-homogeneity** assumption is likely to be violated in real applications (e.g., mobile health, ridesharing)
- Nonstationarity is the case most commonly encountered in reinforcement learning [Sutton and Barto, 2018]

#### Definition

 $\{S_t, A_t, R_t\}_t$  forms a time-varying Markov decision process iff

 $\Pr(\mathbf{S}_{t+1}, \mathbf{R}_t | \mathbf{A}_t, \mathbf{S}_t) = \Pr(\mathbf{S}_{t+1}, \mathbf{R}_t | \mathbf{A}_t, \mathbf{S}_t, \mathbf{R}_{t-1}, \mathbf{A}_{t-1}, \mathbf{S}_{t-1}, \cdots)$  (Markovianity)

### Causal Diagram: TMDP



Figure: Causal diagrams for MDPs. Solid lines represent causal relationships. The parent nodes for the action is **not** specified in the model.  $A_t$  could either depend on  $S_t$  or the history.

# Mobile Health Example: Intern Health Study

- Physical & mental health management
- Subject: First-year medical interns
- *S<sub>t</sub>*: Interns' mood scores, sleep hours and step counts
- At: Send text notifications or not
- R<sub>t</sub>: Mood scores or step counts
- The study lasts for half an year
- Treatment effects are usually time-inhomogeneous (decays over time)
- Leading to TMDPs



### **Ridesharing Example: Order-Dispatching**



- **S**<sub>t</sub>: **Supply** (drivers: availability, location) and **demand** (call orders: origin, destination)
- At: Order-dispatching: match a driver with an order
- *R<sub>t</sub>*: Answer rate/Completion rate/Drivers' income
- Weekday-weekend differences, peak and off-peak differences lead to time-inhomogeneity

- Difference between MDPs and POMDPs: states **fully-observable** or **partially-observable**
- The fully-observability assumption might be violated in practice
- In healthcare, patients' characteristics might not be fully recorded

### **Causal Diagram: POMDP**



Figure: Causal diagrams for MDPs. Solid lines represent causal relationships.  $\{H_t\}_t$  denotes latent states. The parent nodes for the action is **not** specified in the model.  $A_t$  could either depend on  $S_t$  or the history.

### **Example: the Tiger Problem**



#### **Reward Function**

- Penalty for wrong opening: -100
- Reward for correct opening: +10
- Cost for listening action: -1

#### Observations

- to hear the tiger on the left (TL)
- to hear the tiger on the right(TR)

### Example: the Tiger Problem (Cont'd)

Suppose we choose to listen at each time



Figure: Causal diagram for the tiger problem. TL denotes the tiger location.  $S_t$  denotes the inferred location of the tiger at time t.

### **Converting non-MDPs into MDPs**

- MDP assumptions: Markovianity & time-homogeneity
- To ensure time-homogeneity: include time variables in the state
- In ridesharing, include dummy variables weekdays/weekends & peak/off-peak hours
- In mobile health, use more recent observations
- To ensure Markovianity: concatenate measurements over multiple time steps

### **Stacking Frames in Atari Games**

Input is a stack of 4 most recent frames [Mnih et al., 2015]





### **Concatenating Observations in Diabetes Study**

- Management of **Type-I diabetes**
- **Subject**: Patients with diabetes.
- *S<sub>t</sub>*: Patient's glucose levels, food intake, exercise intensity
- At: Insulin doses injected
- *R<sub>t</sub>*: Index of Glycemic Control (function of patient's glucose level)



- Markovianity holds when concatenating 4 most recent observations [Shi et al., 2020]
- Concatenating observations also yield better policies

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### The Agent's Policy

- The agent implements a mapping π<sub>t</sub> from the observed data to a probability distribution over actions at each time step
- The collection of these mappings  $\pi = {\pi_t}_t$  is called **the agent's policy**:

$$\pi_t(\boldsymbol{a}|\boldsymbol{\bar{s}}) = \Pr(\boldsymbol{A}_t = \boldsymbol{a}|\boldsymbol{\bar{S}}_t = \boldsymbol{\bar{s}}),$$

where  $\bar{S}_t = (S_t, R_{t-1}, A_{t-1}, S_{t-1}, \dots, R_0, A_0, S_0)$  is the set of observed data history up to time t.

- **History-Dependent** Policy:  $\pi_t$  depends on  $\overline{S}_t$ .
- Markov Policy:  $\pi_t$  depends on  $\overline{S}_t$  only through  $S_t$ .
- Stationary Policy:  $\pi$  is Markov &  $\pi_t$  is homogeneous in t, i.e.,  $\pi_0 = \pi_1 = \cdots$ .

### The Agent's Policy (Cont'd)

#### **History-dependent policy**



• The collection of these mappings  $\pi = {\pi_t}_t$  is called **the agent's policy**:

$$oldsymbol{\pi_t}(oldsymbol{a}|ar{oldsymbol{s}}) = \mathsf{Pr}(oldsymbol{A_t} = oldsymbol{a}|ar{oldsymbol{S}_t} = ar{oldsymbol{s}}),$$

where  $\bar{S}_{t} = (S_{t}, R_{t-1}, A_{t-1}, S_{t-1}, \cdots, R_{0}, A_{0}, S_{0}).$ 

- Random Policy:  $\pi_t(\bullet|\bar{s})$  is a probability distribution over the action space
- Deterministic Policy: each probability distribution is degenerate
  - i.e., for any t and  $\overline{s}$ ,  $\pi_t(a|\overline{s}) = 1$  for some a and 0 for other actions
  - use  $\pi_t(\bar{s})$  to denote the action that the agent selects

### Goals, Objectives and the Return

The agent's goal: find a policy that maximizes the expected return received in long run

#### Definition (Return, Average Reward Setting)

The **return**  $G_t$  is the average reward from time-step t.

$$G_t = \lim_{T\to\infty} \frac{1}{T} \sum_{i=t}^{t+T-1} R_i.$$

#### Definition (Return, Discounted Reward Setting)

The return  $G_t$  is the cumulative discounted reward from time-step t.

$$G_t = \sum_{i=0}^{+\infty} \gamma^i R_{i+t}.$$

# **Discounted Reward Setting (Our Focus)**

#### Definition (Return)

The return  $G_t$  is the cumulative discounted reward from time-step t.

$$G_t = \sum_{i=0}^{+\infty} \gamma^i R_{i+t}.$$

- The discount factor  $0 \leq \gamma < 1$  represents the trade-off between immediate and future rewards.
- The value of receiving reward **R** after **k** time steps is  $\gamma^k R$ .
- $\gamma=0$  leads to "myopic" evaluation
- $\gamma$  close to 1 leads to "far-sighted" evaluation (close to the average reward)

- Mathematically convenient: avoids infinite returns.
- Computationally convenient: easier to develop practical algorithms.
- In finance, immediate rewards earn more interests than delayed rewards
- Animal/human behaviour shows preference for immediate reward
  - Go to bed late and you'll be tired tomorrow
  - Eat heartily in winter and you'll need to trim fat in summer
- Possible to set  $\gamma = 1$  in **finite horizon** settings (number of decision steps is finite; e.g., precision medicine applications where patients receive only a finite number of treatments)

# (State) Value Function

#### Definition

The (state) value function  $V^{\pi}(s)$  is expected return starting from s under  $\pi$ ,

$$oldsymbol{V}^{\pi}(oldsymbol{s}) = \mathbb{E}^{\pi}(oldsymbol{G}_t | oldsymbol{S}_t = oldsymbol{s}) = \mathbb{E}^{\pi}\left(\sum_{i=0}^{+\infty} oldsymbol{\gamma}^i oldsymbol{R}_{i+t} | oldsymbol{S}_t = oldsymbol{s}
ight).$$

- $V^{\pi}$  is **independent** of the time **t** in its definition, under **time-homogeneity**
- $\mathbb{E}^{\pi}$  denotes the expectation assuming the system follows  $\pi$

#### Definition

The Bellman equation for the state value function is given by

$$\boldsymbol{V}^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{s}) = \mathbb{E}^{\pi}\{\boldsymbol{R}_t + \gamma \boldsymbol{V}^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{S}_{t+1}) | \boldsymbol{S}_t = \boldsymbol{s}\}.$$

- The value function can be **decomposed** into two parts:
  - Immediate reward **R**
  - discounted value of success state  $\gamma V^{\pi}(S_{t+1})$
- Forms the basis for value evaluation (more in later lectures)

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{V}^{\pi}(s) &= \mathbb{E}^{\pi}(G_{t}|\mathbf{S}_{t}=s) \\
&= \mathbb{E}^{\pi}(R_{t}+\gamma(R_{t+1}+\gamma R_{t+2}+\cdots)|\mathbf{S}_{t}=s) \\
&= \mathbb{E}^{\pi}(R_{t}|\mathbf{S}_{t}=s)+\gamma \mathbb{E}^{\pi}(G_{t+1}|\mathbf{S}_{t}=s) \\
&= \mathbb{E}^{\pi}(R_{t}|\mathbf{S}_{t}=s)+\gamma \mathbb{E}^{\pi}\{\mathbb{E}^{\pi}(G_{t+1}|\mathbf{S}_{t+1},\mathbf{S}_{t})|\mathbf{S}_{t}=s\} \\
&= \mathbb{E}^{\pi}(R_{t}|\mathbf{S}_{t}=s)+\gamma \mathbb{E}^{\pi}\{\mathbb{E}^{\pi}(G_{t+1}|\mathbf{S}_{t+1})|\mathbf{S}_{t}=s\} \\
&= \mathbb{E}^{\pi}(R_{t}|\mathbf{S}_{t}=s)+\gamma \mathbb{E}^{\pi}\{\mathbf{V}^{\pi}(\mathbf{S}_{t+1})|\mathbf{S}_{t}=s\},
\end{aligned}$$

The second last equation holds due to the Markov assumption.

### **Bellman Optimality Equation**

#### Definition

The Bellman optimality equation for the state-value function is given by

$$\boldsymbol{V}^{\pi^{\mathrm{opt}}}(\boldsymbol{s}) = \max_{\boldsymbol{a}} \mathbb{E}\{\boldsymbol{R}_t + \gamma \boldsymbol{V}^{\pi^{\mathrm{opt}}}(\boldsymbol{S}_{t+1}) | \boldsymbol{A}_t = \boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{S}_t = \boldsymbol{s}\}.$$

• According to the Bellman equation,

$$oldsymbol{V}^{\pi^{\mathrm{opt}}}(s) = \mathbb{E}^{\pi^{\mathrm{opt}}}\{oldsymbol{R}_t + oldsymbol{\gamma}oldsymbol{V}^{\pi^{\mathrm{opt}}}(oldsymbol{S}_{t+1})|oldsymbol{S}_t = oldsymbol{s}\}.$$

• The optimal policy selects the action that maximizes the value:  $\mathbb{E}^{\pi^{opt}} = \max_{a} \mathbb{E}$ 

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#### Theorem (See also Puterman [2014], Theorem 6.2.10)

Assume the state-action space is **discrete** and the rewards are **bounded**. Then there exists an **optimal stationary policy**  $\pi^{opt} = {\pi_t^{opt}}_t$  such that

• 
$$\pi_1^{opt} = \pi_2^{opt} = \cdots = \pi_t^{opt} = \cdots$$

- $\mathbb{E}^{\pi^{opt}} G_0 \geq \mathbb{E}^{\pi} G_0$  for any history-dependent policy  $\pi$
- When the system dynamics satisfies the **Markov** and **time-homogeneity** assumption, so does the **optimal policy**.
- Lay the **foundation** for most existing RL algorithms
- Simplify the calculation since it suffices to focus on stationary policies

### **Existence of Optimal Markov Policy in TMDPs**

#### Theorem (See also Puterman [2014], Theorem 5.5.1)

Assume the state-action space is discrete. Then there exists an optimal Markov policy  $\pi^{opt} = {\{\pi_t^{opt}\}_t \text{ such that }}$ 

- each  $\pi_t^{opt}$  depends on the data history only through  $S_t$
- $\mathbb{E}^{\pi^{opt}} G_0 \geq \mathbb{E}^{\pi} G_0$  for any history-dependent policy  $\pi$

When the system dynamics satisfies the Markov assumption, so does the optimal policy.

### In TMDPs







### In MDPs

#### **History-Dependent Policy**

**Markov Policy** 

 $\pi^{opt}$ 

Stationary Policy

### Summary



Figure: Causal diagrams for MDPs, TMDPs and POMDPs. Solid lines represent the causal relationships. Dashed lines indicate the information needed to implement the optimal policy.  $\{H_t\}_t$  denotes latent variables. The parallel sign  $\parallel$  indicates that the conditional probability function given parent nodes is equal.

### Seminar

- Solution to HW1 (Deadline: Web 12pm)
- Demonstrating the difference between the form of optimal policy in MDPs and that in POMDPs using the Tiger problem



• A sketch of the proof of the Existence of the Optimal Stationary Policy

- Volodymyr Mnih, Koray Kavukcuoglu, David Silver, Andrei A Rusu, Joel Veness, Marc G Bellemare, Alex Graves, Martin Riedmiller, Andreas K Fidjeland, Georg Ostrovski, et al. Human-level control through deep reinforcement learning. *nature*, 518(7540):529–533, 2015.
- Martin L Puterman. *Markov decision processes: discrete stochastic dynamic programming*. John Wiley & Sons, 2014.
- Chengchun Shi, Runzhe Wan, Rui Song, Wenbin Lu, and Ling Leng. Does the markov decision process fit the data: Testing for the markov property in sequential decision making. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2002.01751*, 2020.
- Richard S Sutton and Andrew G Barto. *Reinforcement learning: An introduction*. MIT press, 2018.

# Questions