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Q-learning Algorithms for Optimal Stopping Based on Least Squares

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Introduction

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Basic Problem and Bellman Equation

- An irreducible Markov chain with *n* states and transition matrix *P* Action: stop or continue Cost at state *i*: *c*(*i*) if stop; *g*(*i*) if continue Minimize the expected discounted total cost till stop
- Bellman equations in vector notation¹

 $J^* = \min\{c, g + \alpha P J^*\}, \qquad Q^* = g + \alpha P \min\{c, Q^*\}$

Optimal policy: stop as soon as the state hits the set

 $\mathcal{D} = \{i \mid c(i) \leq \mathsf{Q}^*(i)\}$

Applications:
search, sequential hypothesis testing, finance

Focus of this paper: Q-learning with linear function approximation²

 $¹_{\alpha}$: discount factor, J^* : optimal cost, Q^* : Q-factor for the continuation action (the cost of continuing for the first stage and using an optimal stopping policy in the remaining stages)

 $^{^{2}}$ Q-learning aims to find the Q-factor for each action-state pair, i.e., the vector Q* (the Q-factor vector for the stop action is c).

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Q-Learning with Function Approximation

(Tsitsiklis and Van Roy 1999)

Subspace Approximation³

$$[\Phi]_{n \times s} = \begin{bmatrix} & \dots \\ & \phi(i)' \\ & \dots \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \mathsf{Q} = \Phi r \quad \text{or,} \ \mathsf{Q}(i,r) = \phi(i)'r$$

Weighted Euclidean Projection

 $\Pi Q = \underset{r \in \Re^{\mathfrak{S}}}{\arg\min} \|Q - \Phi r\|_{\pi}, \qquad \pi = (\pi(1), \dots, \pi(n)) : \text{ invariant distribution of } P$

Key Fact: DP mapping F is $\|\cdot\|_{\pi}$ -contraction and so is ΠF , where

$$\mathsf{FQ} \stackrel{\mathsf{def}}{=} \mathsf{g} + \alpha \mathsf{P}\min\{\mathsf{c},\mathsf{Q}\}$$

Temporal Difference (TD) Learning solves Projected Bellman Equation:

$$\Phi r^* = \Pi F(\Phi r^*)$$

Suboptimal policy μ : stop as soon as the state hits the set $\{i \mid c(i) \le \phi(i)'r^*\}^4$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \pi(i) \big(J_{\mu}(i) - J^*(i) \big) \leq \frac{2}{(1-\alpha)\sqrt{1-\alpha^2}} \| \mathsf{\Pi} \mathsf{Q}^* - \mathsf{Q}^* \|_{\pi}$$

³Assume that Φ has linearly independent columns.

⁴Denote by J_{μ} the cost of this policy.

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Basis of Least Squares Methods I

Projected Value Iteration

Simulation: $(x_0, x_1, ...)$ unstopped state process; implicitly approximate ΠF with increasing accuracy

Projected Value Iteration and LSPE (Bertsekas and loffe 1996):5

 $\Phi r_{t+1} = \Pi F(\Phi r_t), \qquad \Phi r_{t+1} = \widehat{\Pi}_t \widehat{F}_t(\Phi r_t) = \Pi F(\Phi r_t) + \epsilon_t$



Projected Value Iteration

Least Squares Policy Evaluation (LSPE)

⁵Roughly speaking, $\widehat{\Pi}_t \widehat{F}_t \to \Pi F$, $\epsilon_t \to 0$ as $t \to \infty$.

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Basis of Least Squares Methods II

Solving Approximate Projected Bellman Equation

LSTD (Bradtke and Barto 1996, Boyan 1999): find r_{t+1} solving an approximate projected Bellman equation

$$\Phi r_{t+1} = \widehat{\Pi}_t \widehat{F}_t (\Phi r_{t+1})$$

Not viable for optimal stopping because F is non-linear⁶

Comparison with Temporal Difference Learning Algorithm (Tsitsiklis and Van Roy 1999): 7

 $r_{t+1} = r_t + \gamma_t \, \phi(\mathbf{x}_t) \big(g(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_{t+1}) + \alpha \min\{ c(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}), \, \phi(\mathbf{x}_{t+1})' r_t \} - \phi(\mathbf{x}_t)' r_t \big)$

- TD: use each sample state only once; averaging through long time interval, approximately perform the mapping ΠF
- Least squares (LS) methods: use effectively the past information; no need to store the past (in policy evaluation context)

⁶In the case of policy evaluation, this is a linear equation and can be solved efficiently.

⁷Abusing notation, we denote by g(i, j) the one-stage cost of transiting from state *i* to *j* under the continuation action.

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Least Squares Q-Learning

(x_0, x_1, \ldots) unstopped state process, $\gamma \in (0, rac{2}{1+lpha})$ constant stepsize

$$r_{t+1} = r_t + \gamma(\hat{r}_{t+1} - r_t)$$
(1)

where \hat{r}_{t+1} is the LS solution:

$$\hat{r}_{t+1} = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{r \in \Re^{s}} \sum_{k=0}^{t} \left(\phi(x_{k})'r - g(x_{k}, x_{k+1}) - \alpha \min\left\{ c(x_{k+1}), \phi(x_{k+1})'r_{t} \right\} \right)^{2}$$
(2)

Can compute \hat{r}_{t+1} almost recursively:

$$\hat{r}_{t+1} = \left(\sum_{k=0}^{t} \phi(x_k)\phi(x_k)'\right)^{-1} \sum_{k=0}^{t} \phi(x_k) \Big(g(x_k, x_{k+1}) + \alpha \min\{c(x_{k+1}), \phi(x_{k+1})'r_t\}\Big)$$

except the calculation of $\min \{c(x_{k+1}), \phi(x_{k+1})'r_t\}, k \le t$ requires repartitioning past states into stopping or continuation sets (a remedy will be discussed later)

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Convergence Analysis

Express LS solution in matrix notation as⁸

$$\Phi \hat{r}_{t+1} = \widehat{\Pi}_t \widehat{F}_t (\Phi r_t) = \widehat{\Pi}_t \left(\hat{g}_t + \alpha \tilde{P}_t \min\left\{ c, \Phi r_t \right\} \right)$$
(3)

With probability 1 (w.p.1), for all t sufficiently large,

- $\widehat{\Pi}_t \widehat{F}_t$ is $\|\cdot\|_{\pi}$ -contraction with modulus $\hat{\alpha} \in (\alpha, 1)$
- $(1 \gamma)I + \gamma \widehat{\Pi}_t \widehat{F}_t$ is $\| \cdot \|_{\pi}$ -contraction for $\gamma \in (0, \frac{2}{1+\alpha})$

Proposition

$$\textit{For all } \gamma \in \left(0\,,\, \frac{2}{1+\alpha}\right), \quad \textit{r}_t \to \textit{r}^*, \;\; \textit{as } t \to \infty, \textit{w.p.1}.$$

Note: Unit stepsize is in the convergence range

⁸Here $\widehat{\Pi}_t$, \hat{g}_t and \tilde{P}_t are increasingly accurate simulation-based approximations of Π , g and P, respectively.

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Comparison to an LSTD Analogue

LS Q-learning:
$$\Phi r_{t+1} = (1 - \gamma)\Phi r_t + \gamma \widehat{\Pi}_t \widehat{F}_t(\Phi r_t)$$
 (4)
LSTD analogue: $\Phi \widetilde{r}_{t+1} = \widehat{\Pi}_t \widehat{F}_t(\Phi \widetilde{r}_{t+1})$ (5)

Eq. (4) is one *single* fixed point iteration for solving Eq. (5). Yet, the LS Q-learning algorithm and the idealized LSTD algorithm have the *same* convergence rate [two-time scale argument, similar to a comparison analysis of LSPE/LSTD (Yu and Bertsekas 2006)]:⁹

Proposition

For all
$$\gamma \in \left(0, \frac{2}{1+\alpha}\right), \quad t(\Phi r_t - \Phi \tilde{r}_t) < \infty, \quad w.p.1.$$

Implications: for all stepsize γ in the convergence range

- empirical phenomenon: r_t "tracks" r̃_t
- more precisely: r_t − r̃_t → 0 at the rate of O(t), faster than r_t, r̃_t → r* at the rate of O(√t)

⁹A coarse explanation is as follows: \tilde{t}_{t+1} changes slowly at the rate of O(t) and can be viewed as if "frozen" for iteration (4), which, being a contraction mapping, has geometric rate of convergence to the vicinity of the "fixed point" \tilde{t}_{t+1} .

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Variants with Reduced Computation

LS solution

$$\hat{r}_{t+1} = \left(\sum_{k=0}^{t} \phi(x_k)\phi(x_k)'\right)^{-1} \sum_{k=0}^{t} \phi(x_k) \Big(g(x_k, x_{k+1}) + \alpha \min\{c(x_{k+1}), \phi(x_{k+1})'r_t\}\Big)$$

requires extra overhead/repartition per iteration:

$$\min \{c(x_{k+1}), \phi(x_{k+1})'r_t\}, \ k \le t$$

Introduce algorithms with limited repartition at the expense of likely worse asymptotic convergence rate

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First Variant: Forgo Repartition

With an Optimistic Policy Iteration Flavor

Set of past stopping decisions for state samples

$$\mathcal{K} = \left\{ k \mid c(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) \leq \phi(\mathbf{x}_{k+1})' r_k \right\}$$

Replace the terms min $\{c(x_{k+1}), \phi(x_{k+1})'r_t\}, k \leq t$ by

$$\tilde{q}(x_{k+1}, r_t) = \begin{cases} c(x_{k+1}) & \text{if } k \in K \\ \phi(x_{k+1})' r_t & \text{if } k \notin K \end{cases}$$

Algorithm

$$r_{t+1} = \left(\sum_{k=0}^{t} \phi(\mathbf{x}_k)\phi(\mathbf{x}_k)'\right)^{-1} \left(\sum_{k=0}^{t} \phi(\mathbf{x}_k)g(\mathbf{x}_k, \mathbf{x}_{k+1}) + \alpha \sum_{k \le t, \ k \in K} \phi(\mathbf{x}_k)c(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) + \alpha \sum_{k \le t, \ k \notin K} \phi(\mathbf{x}_k)\phi(\mathbf{x}_{k+1})'r_t\right)$$

Can compute recursively; LSTD approach is also applicable¹⁰ But we have no proof of convergence at present¹¹

¹⁰This is because the r.h.s. above is linear in r_t .

¹¹Note that if the algorithm converges, it converges to the correct solution r^* .

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Second Variant: Repartition within a Finite Window

Repartition at most *m* times per state sample, $m \ge 1$: window size Replace the terms min $\{c(x_{k+1}), \phi(x_{k+1})'r_t\}, k \le t$ by

 $\min \{c(x_{k+1}), \phi(x_{k+1})'r_{l_{k,t}}\}, \qquad l_{k,t} = \min\{k+m-1, t\}$

Algorithm

$$r_{t+1} = \underset{r \in \Re^{S}}{\arg\min} \sum_{k=0}^{t} \left(\phi(x_{k})'r - g(x_{k}, x_{k+1}) - \alpha \min\left\{ c(x_{k+1}), \phi(x_{k+1})'r_{l_{k,t}} \right\} \right)^{2}$$
(6)

Special cases

- $m \rightarrow \infty$: LS Q-learning algorithm
- m = 1: the fixed point Kalman filter (TD with scaling), (Choi and Van Roy 2006)

$$r_{t+1} = r_t + \frac{1}{t+1}B_t^{-1}\phi(x_t)(g(x_t, x_{t+1}) + \alpha \min\{c(x_{t+1}), \phi(x_{t+1})'r_t\} - \phi(x_t)'r_t)$$

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Second Variant: Convergence

Proposition

For all $m \ge 1$, r_t defined by Eq. (6) converges to r^* as $t \to \infty$, w.p.1.

About Proof

• Two proofs are given in the extended report (Yu and Bertsekas 2006): a proof based on o.d.e. analysis (Borkar 2006, Borkar and Meyn 2001), and an alternative "direct" proof. (A weaker result w/ a boundedness assumption is mentioned in the ECC paper.)

Convergence Rate Comparison

• A simple example illustrates that

for LS Q-learning :	$tE\{\ r_t-r^*\ ^2\}<\infty$
for variant with $m \ge 1$:	$tE\{\ r_t - r^*\ ^2\} = \infty$

 Expect m > 1 to have practical (but not likely asymptotic) improvement of convergence speed over m = 1

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New Q-learning Algorithm for Optimal Stopping

- Based on projected value iteration and least squares
- Convergence/convergence rate analysis
- · Variants with reduced computation overhead

Future Work

- · Convergence analysis of the first variant
- Empirical studies

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References

For a detailed presentation and analysis see:

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