Artificial Intelligence

Reinforcement learning

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Multi-Armed Bandit



A row of N old-style slot machines

Basic definitions

N arms or bandits

[image from wikipedia]

Each arm a yields a random reward r with probability distribution $P(r \mid a)$ For simplicity, only Bernoullian rewards (i.e. either 0 or 1) will be considered here

Each time t in a sequence, the player (i.e. the agent) selects the arm $\pi(t)$ In other words, π is the *policy* adopted by the agent

Problem

Find a policy π that maximizes the <u>total reward</u> over time The policy will include random choices i.e. it will be *stochastic*

Multi-Armed Bandit: strategies

Informed (i.e. optimal) strategy

At all times, select the bandit with higher probability of reward:

$$\pi^*(t) = \operatorname{argmax}_a P(r = 1 \mid a)$$

Clearly, this strategy is optimal but requires knowing all distributions $P(r \mid a)$ With enough data (e.g. from other players), these distributions can be learnt

Random strategy

At all times, select a bandit a at random, with uniform probability

How does the Random strategy compare with the optimal, informed strategy?

Multi-Armed Bandit: basic definitions

Actions, Rewards

$$a \in \mathcal{A}$$
 in this case $a \in \{1, \dots, N\}$ $r \in \mathcal{R}$ in this case $r \in \{0, 1\}$

Probability distribution (unknown)

 $P(R \,|\, A)$ the probability of reward R for action A (i.e. two random variables)

Policy

 $\pi:\mathbb{N}^+ o\mathcal{A}$ at each time, defines which action will be taken, it may be <u>stochastic</u>

Q-value

The <u>expected</u> reward of action a

$$Q(a) := \mathbb{E}[R \, | \, A = a] = \sum_{r} r \, P(r \, | \, A = a)$$

Optimal Value

Maximum <u>expected</u> reward

$$V^* := Q(a^*) = \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}} Q(a)$$

Multi-Armed Bandit: evaluating strategies

Total Expected Regret

How far from optimality a policy is, considering the total reward over T trials For just <u>one</u> sequence of T trials, the *Total Regret with <u>expected</u> rewards* is

action taken at step
$$\,t\,$$
 $L(T) := TV^* - \sum_{t=1}^T Q(\pi(t))$

In a more general definition, the *Total Expected Regret* is

$$\overline{L}(T):=TV^*-\sum_{a=1}^N\mathbb{E}[T_a(T)]Q(a)=\sum_{a=1}^N\mathbb{E}[T_a(T)]\Delta_a$$
 number of times action a is taken in T trials (i.e. a random variable)

where

$$\Delta_a := V^* - Q(a)$$

Multi-Armed Bandit: evaluating strategies

Total Expected Regret

$$\overline{L}(T) := TV^* - \sum_{a=1}^N \mathbb{E}[T_a(T)]Q(a) = \sum_{a=1}^N \mathbb{E}[T_a(T)]\Delta_a$$
 number of times action a is taken in T trials (i.e. a random variable)

where

$$\Delta_a := V^* - Q(a)$$

With the optimal policy π^* the total expected regret is 0.

Whereas, with the random policy the total expected regret grows linearly over time:

$$\overline{L}(T) = rac{T}{N} \sum_{a=1}^N \Delta_a$$
 ... since, with a random strategy $\mathbb{E}[T_a(T)] = rac{T}{N}$

Multi-Armed Bandit: Online learning

Adaptive policy: exploration vs. exploitation

exploration: make trials over the set of N arms to improve on estimates $\hat{Q}(a)$

exploitation: make use of the current best estimates $\hat{Q}(a)$

Greedy policy

Initialize all the estimates $\hat{Q}(a)$ at random Repeat:

- 1) select the bandit with the current best estimated reward $\,a={
 m argmax}_a\hat{Q}(a)\,$
- 2) update the current estimate about a as

$$\hat{Q}(a) := \frac{\sum\limits_{t=1}^{T_a} r_{a,t}}{T_a} \quad \text{reward of arm a at trial t}$$
 Total number of times the arm \$a\$ has been played

Multi-Armed Bandit: Online learning

Adaptive policy: exploration vs. exploitation

exploration: make trials over the set of N arms to improve on estimates $\hat{Q}(a)$ **exploitation**: make use of the current best estimates $\hat{Q}(a)$

• ε -greedy policy $(0 < \varepsilon < 1)$

Initialize all the estimates $\hat{Q}(a)$ at random Repeat:

- 1) with probability (1ε) select the bandit $a = \operatorname{argmax}_a \hat{Q}(a)$ else (i.e. with probability ε) select one bandit at random
- 2) update the current estimate about a

$$\hat{Q}(a) := \frac{\sum\limits_{t=1}^{T_a} r_{a,t}}{T_a} \quad \text{reward of arm } a \text{ at trial } t$$
 total number of times the arm a has been played

Multi-Armed Bandit: Online learning

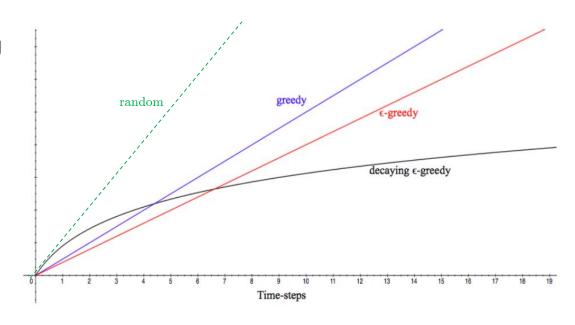
Adaptive policy: exploration vs. exploitation

exploration: make trials over the set of N arms to improve on estimates $\hat{Q}(a)$

exploitation: make use of the current best estimates $\hat{Q}(a)$

■ Experimental comparison of different strategies (*Total Expected Regret*)

After a certain period of time, the *greedy* strategy stops exploring and exploits its estimates whereas, the ε -greedy strategy keeps exploring and improving



Decaying
$$\varepsilon$$
-greedy strategy: $\varepsilon = \frac{\varepsilon_{initial}}{t}$

Multi-Armed Bandit: evaluating strategies

The two greedy strategies

They are *biased*: they depend on the initial random estimates

Optimistic variant: initially, set all $\hat{Q}(a) := 1$

The average total regret grows <u>linearly</u>, in the long run In fact:

- on the average, the *greedy* strategy will get stuck in a suboptimal choice
- the ε -greedy strategy will continue to choose an arm at random (with probability ε)

Can we do any better?

The decaying ε -greedy strategy does that... Is there a minimum, i.e. a lower bound?

Multi-Armed Bandit: Optimal online learning

■ Lower bound theorem [Lai & Robbins 1985]

Consider a generic, adaptive (i.e. learning) strategy for the multi-armed bandit problem with Bernoulli reward (i.e. $r \in \{0,1\}$)

$$\lim_{T \to \infty} \overline{L}(T) \ge \ln T \sum_{a \mid \Delta_a > 0} \frac{\Delta_a}{\text{kl}(Q(a), V^*)} \qquad \Delta_a := V^* - Q(a)$$

where

$$\mathrm{kl}(Q(a),V^*) := Q(a)\ln\frac{Q(a)}{V^*} + (1-Q(a))\ln\frac{(1-Q(a))}{(1-V^*)}$$
 the Kullback-Leibler divergence

In other words, we can achieve logarithmic growth for the total expected regret, but not better: on average, any adaptive strategy will choose suboptimal bandits a minimum number of times

$$\lim_{T \to \infty} \mathbb{E}[T_a(T)] \ge \frac{\ln T}{\mathrm{kl}(Q(a), V^*)}$$

Multi-Armed Bandit: UCB strategy

Upper confidence bound (UCB) strategy [Auer, Cesa-Bianchi and Fisher 2002]

Initialize all the estimates of the expected reward $\hat{Q}(a) := 0$ Play each arm once (to avoid zeroes in the formula below)

Repeat:

1) select the bandit $a = \operatorname{argmax}_k \left(\hat{Q}(a) + \sqrt{\frac{2 \ln T}{T_a}} \right)$

2) update the current estimate $\hat{Q}(a)$ as the *average* reward

Theorem

With the UCB strategy, $\lim_{T \to \infty} \mathbb{E}[T_a(T)] \leq \frac{8 \ln T}{\Delta_a^2} + c$ where it can be shown that $\frac{8}{\Delta_a^2} \geq \frac{1}{\mathrm{kl}(Q(a), V^*)}$ i.e. a (small) constant

(i.e. there is a reasonably small gap between the two bounds – near optimality)

total number of trials

the arm k has been played

Numerical example of the

confidence bound term

number of times

Multi-Armed Bandit: Thompson Sampling

Thompson Sampling strategy (also 'Bayesian Bandit') [Thompson, 1933]

Initialize all the expected reward $\ \hat{Q}(a) : \sim \operatorname{Beta}(x;1,1)$ i.e. assume this as a random variable

Repeat:

- 1) sample each of the N distributions to obtain an estimate $\,\hat{Q}(a)$
- 2) select the bandit $a = \operatorname{argmax}_a \hat{Q}(a)$
- 3) update the *posterior* distribution

$$\hat{Q}(a):\sim \mathrm{Beta}(x;R_a+1,\ T_a-R_a+1)$$
 total number of times the arm has been played total (Bernoulli) reward from this arm (i.e. number of wins)

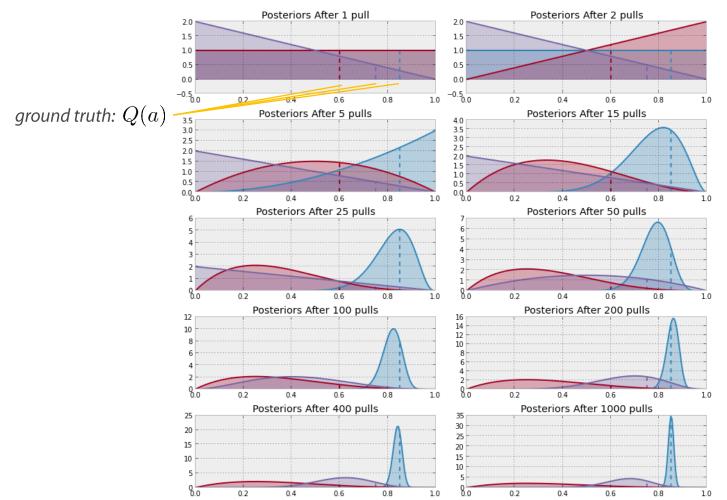
with this distribution

Theorem [Kaufmann et al., 2012]

The Thompson Sampling strategy has essentially the same theoretical bounds of the UCB strategy

Multi-Armed Bandit: Thompson Sampling

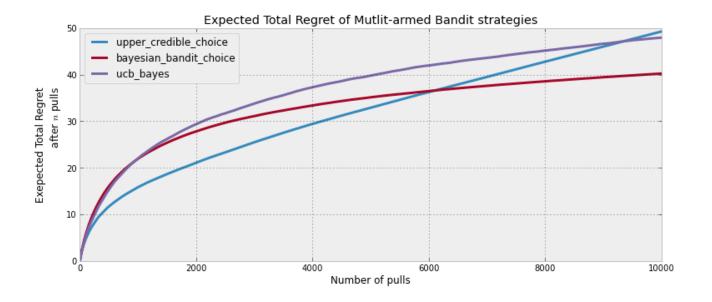
Thompson Sampling strategy (also 'Bayesian Bandit') [Thompson, 1933] Example run with 3 arms: trace of the posterior probabilities for each $\hat{Q}(a)$



Multi-Armed Bandit: Thompson Sampling

■ Thompson Sampling strategy (also 'Bayesian Bandit') [Thompson, 1933]

In practical experiments, this strategy shows better performances in the long run
[Chapelle & Li, 2011]



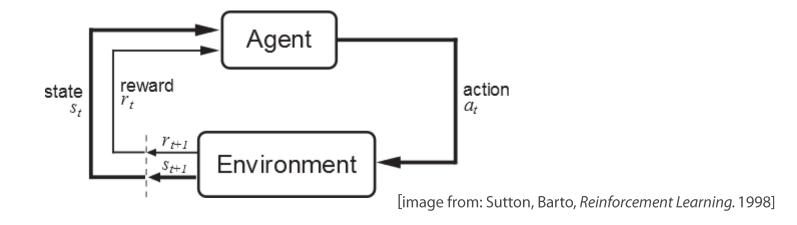
Actually, Thompson Sampling is a preferred strategy at Google Inc. (see https://support.google.com/analytics/answer/2846882?hl=en)

[image from: http://camdp.com/blogs/multi-armed-bandits]

Agent/Environment Interactions

With multi-armed bandits, the <u>context</u> never changes in the sense that the optimal choice does **not** depend on the current <u>state</u>

What if the actions of the agent change the state of its interaction with the environment?

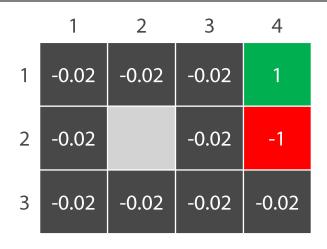


Examples:

- a_t could be a *move in a game*, whereby the agent changes the state of the game
- a_t could be a movement, whereby the agent changes its position in the environment

The agent could be wanting to learn an optimal strategy towards a given goal...

An example: gridworld



The <u>state</u> of the agent is the position on the grid: e.g. (1,1), (3,4), (2,3)

At each time step, the agent can <u>move</u> one box in the directions $\leftarrow \uparrow \downarrow \rightarrow$ with probability 0.8

The effect of each move is somewhat stochastic, however: for example, a move ↑ has a slight probability of producing a different (and perhaps unwanted) effect

Entering each state yields the *reward* shown in each box above

but with probability 0.2 it might end up here

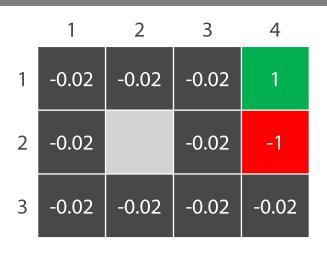
0.8

the agent will end up here

There are two <u>absorbing states</u>: entering either the green or the red box means exiting the *gridworld* and completing the game

What is the best (i.e. maximally rewarding) movement policy?

Markov Decision Process (MDP)



Formalization and abstraction of the gridworld example

Markov Decision Process: $\langle S, A, r, P, \gamma \rangle$

A set of *states*: $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots\}$

A set of <u>actions</u>: $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots\}$

A <u>reward function</u>: $r: \mathcal{S} \to \mathbb{R}$

A <u>transition probability distribution</u>: $P(S_{t+1} \mid S_t, A_t)$ (also called a <u>model</u>)

Markov property: the transition probability depends only on the previous state and action

$$P(S_{t+1} \mid S_t, A_t) = P(S_{t+1} \mid S_t, A_t, S_{t-1}, A_{t-1}, S_{t-2}, A_{t-2}, \dots)$$

A discount factor: $0 \le \gamma < 1$

Markov Decision Process (MDP): policies and values

The agent is supposed to adopt a *deterministic* <u>policy</u>: $\pi: \mathcal{S} \to \mathcal{A}$ In other words, the agent always chooses its *action* depending on the *state* alone

Given a policy π , the **state value function** is defined, for each state s as:

$$V^{\pi}(s) := \mathbb{E}[r(S_t) + \gamma r(S_{t+1}) + \gamma^2 r(S_{t+2}) + \dots \mid \pi, S_t = s]$$

Note the role of the discount factor: a value $\,\gamma < 1\,$ means that that future rewards could be weighted less (by the agent) than immediate ones

Note also that all states $\,S_t\,$ must be described by $\it random\ \it variables$: i.e. the policy is deterministic but the state transition is not

Note also that when the reward is *bounded*, i.e. $r(S) \leq r_{\text{max}}$

$$\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t \ r(S_t) \ \leq \ r_{\max} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t = \ r_{\max} \ \frac{1}{1-\gamma}$$
 for $\gamma < 1$ this is the *geometric series*

Markov Decision Process (MDP): policies and values

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Note the role of the discount factor: a value $\ \gamma < 1$ means that that future rewards could be weighted less (by the agent) than immediate ones Note also that all states $\ S_t$ must be described by random variables: i.e. the policy is deterministic but the state transition is not

In the *gridworld* example:

- The set of states is finite
- The set of actions is finite
- For every policy, each entire story is <u>finite</u>
 Sooner or later the agent will fall into one of the absorbing states

Bellman equations

By working on the definition of value function:

$$V^{\pi}(s) := \mathbb{E}[r(S_t) + \gamma r(S_{t+1}) + \gamma^2 r(S_{t+2}) + \dots \mid \pi, S_t = s]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[r(S_t) + \gamma (r(S_{t+1}) + \gamma r(S_{t+2}) + \dots) \mid \pi, S_t = s]$$

$$= r(s) + \gamma \mathbb{E}[r(S_{t+1}) + \gamma r(S_{t+2}) + \dots \mid \pi, S_t = s]$$

$$= r(s) + \gamma \sum_{s'} P(s' \mid s, \pi(s)) \cdot \mathbb{E}[r(S_{t+1}) + \gamma r(S_{t+2}) + \dots \mid \pi, S_{t+1} = s']$$

$$= r(s) + \gamma \sum_{S_{t+1}} P(S_{t+1} \mid s, \pi(s)) \cdot V^{\pi}(S_{t+1})$$

This means that in a Markov Decision Process:

$$V^{\pi}(s) = r(s) + \gamma \sum_{S_{t+1}} P(S_{t+1} \mid s, \pi(s)) \cdot V^{\pi}(S_{t+1})$$

This is true for any state, so there is one such equation for each of those If the set of states is <u>finite</u>, there are exactly |S| (linear) Bellman equations for |S| variables: in general, for any <u>deterministic</u> policy, V^{π} <u>can</u> be computed analytically

Optimal policy - Optimal value function

Basic definitions

$$V^*(s) := \max_{\pi} V^{\pi}(s), \ \forall s \in S$$
$$\pi^*(s) := \operatorname{argmax}_{\pi} V^{\pi}(s), \ \forall s \in S$$

Property: for every MDP, there exists such an optimal deterministic policy (possibly non-unique)

With Bellman Equations:

$$\max_{\pi} V^{\pi}(s) = r(s) + \gamma \max_{\pi} \left(\sum_{S_{t+1}} P(S_{t+1} \mid s, \pi(s)) \cdot V^{\pi}(S_{t+1}) \right)$$
$$V^{*}(s) = r(s) + \gamma \max_{\pi} \left(\sum_{S_{t+1}} P(S_{t+1} \mid s, \pi(s)) \cdot V^{*}(S_{t+1}) \right)$$
$$= r(s) + \gamma \max_{a} \left(\sum_{S_{t+1}} P(S_{t+1} \mid s, a) \cdot V^{*}(S_{t+1}) \right)$$

Therefore:

$$\pi^*(s) = \operatorname{argmax}_a \left(\sum_{S_{t+1}} P(S_{t+1} \mid s, a) V^*(S_{t+1}) \right)$$

Computing V^* directly from these equations is unfeasible, however There are in fact $|A|^{|S|}$ possible strategies

However, once V^* has been determined, π^* can be determined as well

Optimal value function: value iteration

Value iteration algorithm

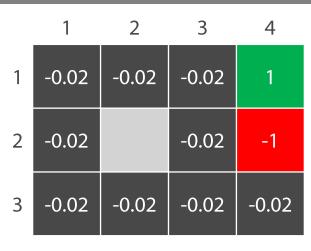
Initialize: $V(s) := r(s), \ \forall s \in S$ Repeat:

Note that there is no policy: all actions must be explored

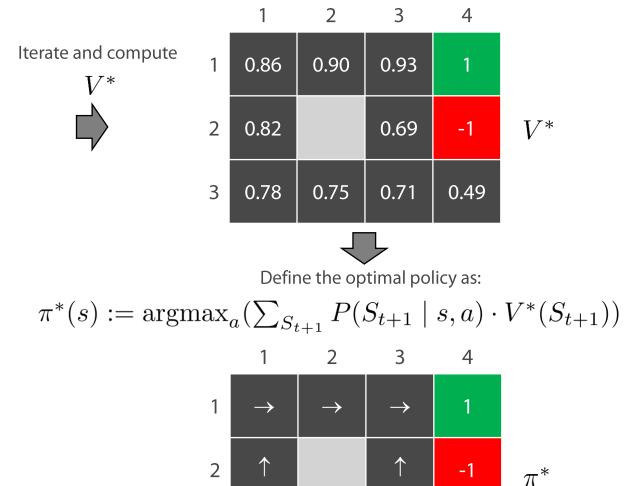
1) For every state, update:
$$V(s) := r(s) + \gamma \max_{a} \sum_{s'} P(s' \mid s, a) V(s')$$

Theorem: for every fair way (i.e. giving an equal chance) of visiting the states in S, this algorithm converges to V^{st}

Value iteration and optimal policy



Initialize states (e.g. using rewards as initial values)



 \leftarrow

3

Optimal policy: policy iteration

Policy iteration algorithm

Initialize $\pi(s), \forall s \in S$ at random *Repeat*:

This step is computationally expensive: either solve the equations or use value iteration (with fixed policy π)

- 1) For each state, compute: $V(s) := V^{\pi}(s)$
- 2) For each state, define: $\pi(s) := \operatorname{argmax}_a \sum_{s'} P(s' \mid s, a) V(s')$

Theorem: for every fair way (i.e. giving an equal chance) of visiting the states in S , this algorithm converges to π^*

As with the value iteration algorithm, this algorithm uses partial estimates to compute new estimates.

It is also greedy, in the sense that it exploits its current estimate $V^\pi(s)$

Policy iteration converges with very few number of iterations, but every iteration takes much longer time than that of value iteration

The tradeoff with value iteration is the <u>action space</u>: when action space is large and state space is small, policy iteration could be better

Offline vs. Online learning

Value iteration and policy iteration are offline algorithms

The \underline{model} , i.e. the Markov Decision Process is known What needs to be learn is the optimal policy π^*

In the algorithms, visiting states just means considering: there is no agent actually playing the game.

Different conditions: learning by doing ...

Suppose the <u>model</u> (i.e. the MDP) is NOT known, or perhaps known only in part Then the agent must learn by doing...

Action value function

An analogous of the value function $\,V^{\pi}$

Given a policy π , the **action value function** is defined, for each pair (s,a) as:

$$Q^{\pi}(s, a) := \sum_{S_{t+1}} P(S_{t+1} \mid s, a) \cdot V^{\pi}(S_{t+1})$$

$$= \sum_{S_{t+1}} P(S_{t+1} \mid s, a) \cdot \mathbb{E}[r(S_{t+1}) + \gamma r(S_{t+2}) + \dots \mid \pi, S_{t+1}]$$

$$= \sum_{S_{t+1}} P(S_{t+1} \mid s, a) \cdot [r(S_{t+1}) + \mathbb{E}[\gamma r(S_{t+2}) + \dots \mid \pi, S_{t+1}]]$$

$$= \sum_{S_{t+1}} P(S_{t+1} \mid s, a) \cdot [r(S_{t+1}) + \gamma Q^{\pi}(S_{t+1}, \pi(S_{t+1}))]$$

In other words, $Q^{\pi}(s,a)$ is the expected value of the reward in S_{t+1} by taking action a in state s and then following policy π from that point on

Following a similar line of reasoning, the *optimal* action value function is

$$Q^*(s, a) = \sum_{S_{t+1}} P(S_{t+1} \mid s, a) \cdot [r(S_{t+1}) + \gamma \max_{a'} Q^*(S_{t+1}, a')]$$

Q-Learning

• Q-learning algorithm (ε -greedy version)

Initialize $\hat{Q}(s,a)$ at random, put the agent is in a random state s Repeat:

- 1) Select the action $\arg\max_a \hat{Q}(s,a)$ with probability $(1-\varepsilon)$ otherwise, select a at random
- 2) The agent is now in state s^\prime and has received the reward r
- 3) Update $\hat{Q}(s,a)$ by

$$\Delta \hat{Q}(s,a) = \alpha [r + \gamma \max_{a'} \hat{Q}(s',a') - \hat{Q}(s,a)]$$
 Exponential Moving Average (see later ...)

Note that step 1) is closely similar to a **multi-armed bandit**: in each state, the agent has to choose one among all actions in \mathcal{A} and this will produce a random reward...

Q-Learning

Q-learning algorithm

Theorem (Watkins, 1989): in the limit of that each action is played infinitely often and each state is visited infinitely often and $\alpha \to 0$ as experience progresses, then

$$\hat{Q}(s,a) \to Q^*(s,a)$$

with probability 1

The Q-learning algorithm bypasses the MDP entirely, in the sense that the optimal strategy is learnt without learning the model $P(S_{t+1} \mid S_t, A_t)$

An aside: moving averages

Following non-stationary phenomena

Average

Definition:
$$\overline{v}_T := \frac{1}{T} \sum_{k=1}^{T} v_k$$

Running implementation:

$$\overline{v}_T = \frac{1}{T}(v_T + \sum_{k=1}^{T-1} v_k) = \frac{1}{T}(v_T + (T-1)\overline{v}_{T-1})$$

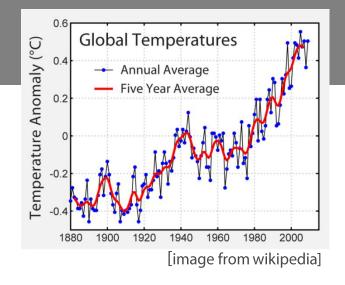
$$= \overline{v}_{T-1} + \frac{1}{T}(v_T - \overline{v}_{T-1}) = \frac{1}{T}v_T + (1 - \frac{1}{T})\overline{v}_{T-1}$$



$$\overline{v}_{T,n} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=T-n}^{T} v_k$$

Exponential Moving Average (EMA)

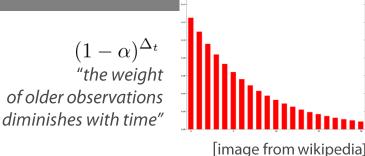
$$\overline{v}_{T,lpha}:=lpha\,v_T+(1-lpha)\,\overline{v}_{T-1,lpha},\ \ lpha\in[0,1]$$
 "the weight of newer observations remains constant"



An aside: moving averages

Exponential Moving Average (EMA)

$$\overline{v}_{T,\alpha} := \alpha v_T + (1-\alpha) \overline{v}_{T-1,\alpha}, \ \alpha \in [0,1]$$



Expanding:

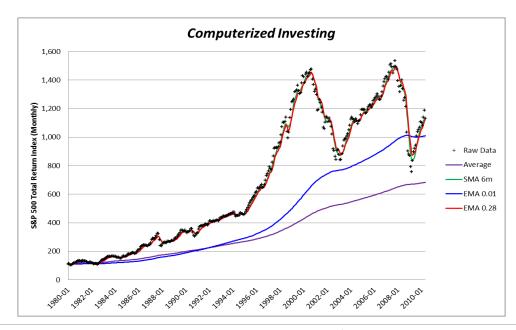
$$\overline{v}_{t,\alpha} = \alpha \, v_t + (1 - \alpha) \, \overline{v}_{t-1,\alpha}
= \alpha \, v_t + (1 - \alpha)(\alpha \, v_{t-1} + (1 - \alpha) \overline{v}_{t-2,\alpha})
= \alpha \, v_t + (1 - \alpha)(\alpha \, v_{t-1} + (1 - \alpha)(\alpha \, v_{t-2} + (1 - \alpha) \overline{v}_{t-3,\alpha}))
= \alpha \, (v_t + (1 - \alpha) \, v_{t-1} + (1 - \alpha)^2 \, v_{t-2}) + (1 - \alpha)^3 \, \overline{v}_{t-3,\alpha}$$

The weight of past contributions decays as

$$(1-\alpha)^{\Delta_t}$$

A SMA with n previous values is approximately equal to an EMA with

$$\alpha = \frac{2}{n+1}$$



Q-Learning revisited

• Q-learning algorithm (ε -greedy version)

Initialize $\hat{Q}(s,a)$ at random, put the agent is in a random state s Repeat:

- 1) Select the action $a=\mathrm{argmax}_a\hat{Q}(s,a)$ with probability $(1-\varepsilon)$ otherwise, select a at random
- 2) The agent is now in state s^\prime and has received the reward r
- 3) Update $\hat{Q}(s,a)$ by

$$\Delta \hat{Q}(s, a) = \alpha [r + \gamma \max_{a'} \hat{Q}(s', a') - \hat{Q}(s, a)]$$

By rewriting step 3)

$$\hat{Q}(s, a) = \hat{Q}(s, a) + \Delta \hat{Q}(s, a) = \hat{Q}(s, a) + \alpha [r + \gamma \max_{a'} \hat{Q}(s', a') - \hat{Q}(s, a)]$$

$$= \alpha [r + \gamma \max_{a'} \hat{Q}(s', a')] + (1 - \alpha) \hat{Q}(s, a)$$

Exponential Moving Average

compare with (see before):

$$Q^*(s, a) = \sum_{S_{t+1}} P(S_{t+1} \mid s, a) \cdot [r(S_{t+1}) + \gamma \max_{a'} Q^*(S_{t+1}, a')]$$

Expectation

SARSA

• SARSA algorithm (ε -greedy version)

Initialize $\hat{Q}(s,a)$ at random, put the agent is in a random state s Repeat:

- 1) Select the action $a=\mathrm{argmax}_a\hat{Q}(s,a)$ with probability $(1-\varepsilon)$ otherwise, select a at random
- 2) The agent is now in state s^\prime and has received the reward r
- 3) Select the action $a'=\mathrm{argmax}_a\hat{Q}(s',a)$ with probability $(1-\varepsilon)$ otherwise, select a' at random
- 4) Update $\hat{Q}(s,a)$ by

$$\Delta \hat{Q}(s,a) = \alpha [r + \gamma \hat{Q}(s',a') - \hat{Q}(s,a)]$$
 No more 'max' here

Q-learning is a an *off-policy* algorithm: each update involves $\max_{a'} \hat{Q}(s',a')$ (i.e. *exploration* is not taken into account) SARSA is a an *on-policy* algorithm: each update involves $\hat{Q}(s',a')$ (which involves the next policy action, *exploration* included)

SARSA vs Q-Learning

Cliff World

'S' is the start 'G' is the goal Each white box has $\,r=-1\,$ 'The Cliff' region has $\,r=-100\,$ and entails going back to 'S'

Experimental Results

SARSA finds a sub-optimal but safer path since its learning takes into account the ε risk of going off the cliff

Q-learning finds the optimal path but, occasionally, it falls off the cliff during learning due to the \mathcal{E} -greedy strategy

