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# DISTRIBUTIONAL REINFORCEMENT LEARNING

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# 1 Chapter 1

## 2 Chapter 2

### 2.1 Random Variables and Their Probability Distributions

### 2.2 Markov Decision Processes

**Definition 2.1** (Transition dynamics). We define transition dynamics  $\mathbf{P} : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R} \times \mathcal{X})$  that provides the joint probability distribution of  $R_t$  and  $X_{t+1}$  in terms of state  $X_t$  and action  $A_t$ .

$$R_t, X_{t+1} \sim \mathbf{P}(\cdot, \cdot | X_t, A_t)$$

**Definition 2.2** (Reward distribution).  $R_t \sim \mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{R}}(\cdot | X_t, A_t)$

**Definition 2.3** (Transition kernel).  $X_{t+1} \sim \mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{X}}(\cdot | X_t, A_t)$

**Definition 2.4** (Markov Decision Process (MDP)). MDP is a tuple  $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{A}, \xi_0, \mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{X}}, \mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{R}})$

**Definition 2.5** (Policy). A policy is a mapping  $\pi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\mathcal{A})$  from state to probability distributions over actions.

$$A_t \sim \pi(\cdot | X_t)$$

### 2.3 The Pinball Model

### 2.4 The Return

**Definition 2.6** (Return  $G$ ).  $G = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t R_t$

The return is a sum of scaled, real-valued random variables and is therefore itself a random variable.

**Assumption 2.7.** For each state  $x \in \mathcal{X}$  and action  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ , the reward distribution  $\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{R}}(\cdot | x, a)$  has finite first moment. This is if  $R \sim \mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{R}}(\cdot | x, a)$ , then

$$\mathbb{E}[|R|] < \infty.$$

**Proposition 2.8.** Under Assumption 2.7, the random return  $G$  exists and is finite with probability 1, in the sense that

$$\mathbb{P}_\pi(G \in (-\infty, \infty)) = 1.$$

## 2.5 Properties of the Random Trajectory

**Definition 2.9** (Probability distribution of random variable  $Z$ ). We denote  $\mathcal{D}(Z)$  as the probability distribution of random variable  $Z$ . When  $Z$  is real-valued, then for  $S \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have

$$\mathcal{D}(Z)(S) = \mathbb{P}(Z \in S)$$

Also, we denote  $\mathcal{D}_\pi(Z)$  as

$$\mathcal{D}_\pi(Z)(S) = \mathbb{P}_\pi(Z \in S)$$

## 2.6 The Random-Variable Bellman Equation

**Definition 2.10** (Return-variable function).  $G^\pi = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t R_t$ ,  $X_0 = x$ .

Formally,  $G^\pi$  is a collection of random variables indexed by an initial state  $x$ , each generated by a random trajectory  $(X_t, A_t, R_t)_{t \geq 0}$  under the distribution  $\mathbf{P}(\cdot | X_0 = x)$ .

**Proposition 2.11** (The random-variable Bellman equation). Let  $G^\pi$  be the return-variable function of policy  $\pi$ . For a sample transition  $(X = x, A, R, X')$ , it holds that for any state  $x \in \mathcal{X}$ ,

$$G^\pi(x) \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} R + \gamma G^\pi(X')$$

## 2.7 From Random Variables to Probability Distributions

Recall the notation that for a real-valued variable  $Z$  with probability distribution  $\nu \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})$ , we define

$$\nu(S) = \mathbb{P}(Z \in S), \quad S \subseteq \mathbb{R}.$$

In a same way, for each state  $x \in \mathcal{X}$ , let us denote the distribution of the random variable  $G^\pi(x)$  by  $\eta^\pi(x)$ . Using this notation, we have

$$\eta^\pi(x)(S) = \mathbb{P}(G^\pi(x) \in S), \quad S \subseteq \mathbb{R}.$$

We call the collection of these per-state distribution the return-distribution function. Note that  $\eta^\pi(x) \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})^{\mathcal{X}}$ .

### 2.7.1 Mixing

Recall that for return-variable  $G^\pi$  and return-distribution function  $\eta^\pi$ , we have defined

$$\mathcal{D}_\pi(G^\pi(X')|X = x)(S) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbb{P}_\pi(G^\pi(X') \in S|X = x).$$

Now, let's take a look at  $\mathbb{P}_\pi$  term.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{D}_\pi(G^\pi(X')|X = x)(S) &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbb{P}_\pi(G^\pi(X') \in S|X = x) \\ &= \sum_{x' \in \mathcal{X}} \mathbb{P}_\pi(X' = x'|X = x) \mathbb{P}_\pi(G^\pi(X') \in S|X' = x', X = x) \\ &= \sum_{x' \in \mathcal{X}} \mathbb{P}_\pi(X' = x'|X = x) \mathbb{P}_\pi(G^\pi(x') \in S) \\ &= \left( \sum_{x' \in \mathcal{X}} \mathbb{P}_\pi(X' = x'|X = x) \eta^\pi(x') \right) (S) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we can conclude that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{D}_\pi(G^\pi(X')|X = x)(S) &= \sum_{x' \in \mathcal{X}} \mathbb{P}_\pi(X' = x'|X = x) \eta^\pi(x') \\ &= \mathbb{E}_\pi[\eta^\pi(X') | X = x] \end{aligned}$$

The indexing step  $(S)$  also has a simple expression in terms of cumulative distribution functions as follows. Let  $X = (\infty, z]$ . Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}_\pi(G^\pi(X') \in S | X = x) &= P_\pi(G^\pi(X') \leq z | X = x) \\ &= \sum_{x' \in \mathcal{X}} P_\pi(X' = x' | X = x) P_\pi(G^\pi(x') \leq z | X = x) \\ &= \sum_{x' \in \mathcal{X}} P_\pi(X' = x' | X = x) P_\pi(G^\pi(x') \leq z) \end{aligned}$$

Then if we let  $F_{G^\pi(X')}(z)$  to be the c.d.f of random variable  $G^\pi(X')$  up to  $z$ , we have

$$F_{G^\pi(X')}(z) = \sum_{x' \in \mathcal{X}} P_\pi(X' = x' | X = x) F_{G^\pi(x')}(z)$$

### 2.7.2 Scaling and translation

Suppose we know the distribution of  $G^\pi(X')$ . Then what is the distribution of  $R + \gamma G^\pi(X')$ ? This is an instance of a more general question: given a random variable  $Z \sim \nu$  and a transformation  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , how should we express the distribution of  $f(Z)$  in terms of  $f$  and  $\nu$ ? Within this sense, we define *pushforward distribution* as  $f_{\#}\nu := \mathcal{D}(f(Z))$ . Now, for  $r \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\gamma \in [0, 1)$ , we define bootstrap function  $b_{r,\gamma}z \mapsto r + \gamma z$ . Then we have

$$(b_{r,\gamma})_{\#}\nu = \mathcal{D}(r + \gamma Z)$$

where  $Z \sim \nu$ . Now, let's regard that  $\nu = \eta^\pi(x')$  as a return distribution of state  $x'$  and we have corresponding random variable  $G^\pi(x')$ , i.e.  $Z = G^\pi(x')$ . Then, we have

$$(b_{r,\gamma})_{\#}\eta^\pi(x') = \mathcal{D}(r + \gamma G^\pi(x')).$$

**Proposition 2.12** (The distributional Bellman equation). Let  $\eta^\pi$  be the return-distribution function of policy  $\pi$ . Then, for any state  $x \in \mathcal{X}$ , we have

$$\eta^\pi(x) = \mathbb{E}_\pi [(b_{r,\gamma})_{\#}\eta^\pi(X') \mid X = x] \quad (1)$$

Just want to leave remark that  $\mathbb{E}_\pi [g(X') \mid X = x] = \sum_{x' \in \mathcal{X}} \mathbb{P}_\pi(X' = x' \mid X = x)g(x')$  for any real-value function  $g : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

*Proof.* □

It is also possible to omit these random variables and write Equation (1) purely in terms of probability distributions, by making the expectation explicit:

$$\eta^\pi(x) = \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \pi(a \mid x) \sum_{x' \in \mathcal{X}} P(x' \mid x, a) \int_{\mathbb{R}} P_{\mathbb{R}}(dr \mid x, a) (b_{r,\gamma})_{\#}\eta^\pi(x')$$

## 3 Chapter 3

### 3.1 The Monte Carlo Backup

Suppose we have  $K$  sample trajectories for state  $x$  and action  $a$  and reward  $r$  where each trajectory have total  $T_k$  steps as follows.

$$\{(x_{k,t}, a_{k,t}, x_{k,t})_{t=0}^{T_k-1}\}_{k=1}^K \quad (2)$$

For now, assume that  $T_k = T$  and  $x_{k,0} = x_0$  for all  $k$ . We are interested in estimating the expected return

$$\mathbb{E}_\pi \left[ \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \gamma^t R_t \right] = V^\pi(x_0).$$

*Monte Carlo methods* estimate the expected return by averaging the outcomes of observed trajectories. Let us denote the sample return for  $k$ th trajectory as  $g_k$  which is defined as

$$g_k = \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \gamma^t r_{k,t} \quad (3)$$

Then the sample-mean Monte Carlo estimate is the average of these  $K$  sample returns

$$\hat{V}^\pi(x_0) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K g_k \quad (4)$$

### 3.2 Incremental Learning

Rather than after sample  $K$  samples, then compute all at once, it is much more useful to consider a learning model under which sample trajectories are processed sequentially. We call this algorithm as *incremental algorithms*. Consider an infinite sequence of sample trajectories

$$\{(x_{k,t}, a_{k,t}, x_{k,t})_{t=0}^{T_k-1}\}_{k \geq 0} \quad (5)$$

suppose that initial states  $\{(x_{k,0})_{k \geq 0}\}$  may be different. At  $k$ th stage, the agent is given a  $k$ th trajectory, and the algorithm computes the sample return  $g_k$  (Equation (4)) which we call as *Monte Carlo target*. It then adjusts the value function of initial state  $x_{k,0}$  toward this target ( $g_k$ ) by the following *update rule*,

$$V(x_{k,0}) \leftarrow (1 - \alpha_k)V(x_{k,0}) + \alpha_k g_k$$

where  $\alpha_k$  is a time-varying step size.

Note that this *incremental Monte Carlo Update rule* only depends on the starting state and the sample return pairs:

$$(x_k, g_k)_{k \geq 0} \quad (6)$$

We assume that the sample return  $g_k$  is assumed drawn from the return distribution  $\eta^\pi(x_k)$ . Then we have the following update rule

$$V(x_k) \leftarrow (1 - \alpha_k)V(x_k) + \alpha_k g_k \quad (7)$$

This could be more expressed by

$$\begin{aligned} V_{k+1}(x_k) &= (1 - \alpha_k)V_k(x_k) + \alpha_k g_k \\ V_{k+1}(x) &= V_k(x) \text{ for } x \neq x_k \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

### 3.3 Temporal-Difference Learning

Incremental learning algorithms are useful since they update for every episode. Temporal-difference learning (TD learning) is more fine-grained update version. It learn from sample transitions, rather than entire trajectories.

Let us consider a sequence of sample transitions drawn independently as follows

$$(x_k, a_k, r_k, x'_k)_{k \geq 0} \quad (9)$$

As with the incremental Monte Carlo algorithm, the update rule of temporal difference learning is

$$V(x_k) \leftarrow (1 - \alpha_k)V(x_k) + \alpha_k(r_k + \gamma V(x'_k)) \quad (10)$$

We call the term  $r_k + \gamma V(x'_k)$  as the *temporal-difference target*, and by arranging the term, we call the term  $r_k + \gamma V(x'_k) - V(x_k)$  as the *temporal-difference error* as

$$V(x_k) \leftarrow V(x_k) + \alpha_k(r_k + \gamma V(x'_k) - V(x_k)).$$

Incremental Monte Carlo algorithm updates its value function estimate toward a fixed target

$g_k$ , but in TD learning we don't have such fixed target. Temporal-difference learning instead depends on the value function at the next state  $V(x'_k)$  being approximately correct. As such, it is said to *bootstrap* from its own value function estimate.

### 3.4 From Values to Probabilities

We are highly interested in how we can learn the return-distribution function  $\eta^\pi$ . Let's first take a scenario for binary reward, i.e.  $R_t \in \{0, 1\}$  and we are interested in distribution of undiscounted finite-horizon return function

$$G^\pi(x) = \sum_{t=0}^{H-1} R_t, \quad X_0 = x. \quad (11)$$

Since the  $G^\pi(x)$  takes an integer value between 0 to  $H$ , these form the support of the probability distribution  $\eta^\pi(x)$ . To learn  $\eta^\pi(x)$ , we assign a probability  $p_i(x) \geq 0$  where  $\sum_{i=0}^H p_i(x) = 1$  as

$$\eta(x) = \sum_{i=0}^H p_i(x) \delta_i \quad (12)$$

We call this equation *categorical representation*. It's kind of classification problem for given state  $x$ . Now, let us consider the problem that we have a state-return pairs  $(x_k, g_k)_{k \geq 0}$  where each  $g_k$  is drawn from the distribution  $\eta^\pi(x_k)$ . Now, we have *categorical update rule* as

$$\begin{aligned} p_{g_k}(x_k) &\leftarrow (1 - \alpha_k) p_{g_k}(x_k) + \alpha_k \\ p_i(x_k) &\leftarrow (1 - \alpha_k) p_i(x_k) \text{ for } i \neq g_k \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

Combining equations (12) and (13) provide the following equation

$$\eta(x_k) \leftarrow (1 - \alpha_k) \eta(x_k) + \alpha_k \delta_{g_k} \quad (14)$$

We call Equation (14) as *undiscounted finite-horizon categorical Monte Carlo algorithm*.

### 3.5 The Projection Step

For  $H$  steps binary rewards ( $N_{\mathcal{R}} = 2$ ), the number of possible returns is  $N_G = H + 1$ . However, what if  $N_{\mathcal{R}} > 2$  or if we have discounted factor  $\gamma$ ? Note that when  $\gamma$  is introduced, then  $N_G$  grows exponentially on  $H$ .

To handle this large set of possible returns, we insert a *projection step* prior to the mixture update on Equation (14). We will consider return distributions that assign probability mass to  $m \geq 2$  evenly spaced values or locations  $\theta_1 \leq \theta_2 \leq \dots \leq \theta_m$  where the gap  $\zeta_m := \theta_{i+1} - \theta_i$  is identical. A common design is take  $\theta_1 = V_{\min}, \theta_m = V_{\max}$  and set

$$\vartheta_m = \frac{V_{\max} - V_{\min}}{m - 1}$$

which is just identical gap. We express the corresponding return distribution  $\eta(x)$  as



weighted sum of Dirac deltas as follows.

$$\eta(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m p_i(x) \delta_{\theta_i}$$

Now, consider a sample return  $g \sim \eta(x)$  and we denote the  $g$  falls between  $\theta_{i^*}$  and  $\theta_{i^*+1}$  which could be defined as  $i^* = \arg \max_{i \in \{0, \dots, m\}} \{\theta_i : \theta_i \leq g\}$ . We write

$$\Pi_-(g) = \theta_{i^*}, \quad \Pi_+(g) = \theta_{i^*+1}.$$

Then define  $\zeta(g)$  term corresponds to the distance of  $g$  to the two closest elements of the support, scaled to lie in the interval  $[0, 1]$  as

$$\zeta(g) = \frac{g - \Pi_-(g)}{\Pi_+(g) - \Pi_-(g)}.$$

Then, we define *stochastic projection* of  $g$  as

$$\Pi_{\pm}(g) = \begin{cases} \Pi_-(g) & \text{with probability } 1 - \zeta(g) \\ \Pi_+(g) & \text{with probability } \zeta(g) \end{cases}$$

Use this projection to construct the update rule as

$$\eta(x) \leftarrow (1 - \alpha)\eta(x) + \alpha \delta_{\Pi_{\pm}(g)}$$

which is similar to Equation (14). We could also write as

$$\begin{aligned} p_{i^{\pm}}(x) &\leftarrow (1 - \alpha)p_{i^{\pm}}(x) + \alpha \\ p_i(x) &\leftarrow (1 - \alpha)p_i(x) \text{ for } i \neq i^{\pm} \end{aligned}$$

where  $i^{\pm}$  is the index of location  $\Pi_{\pm}g$ . Note that the stochastic projection could be improved by putting both  $\Pi_-(g)$  and  $\Pi_+(g)$  information. We define *deterministic projection* as

$$\eta(x) \leftarrow (1 - \alpha)\eta(x) + \alpha [(1 - \zeta(g))\delta_{\Pi_-(g)} + \zeta(g)\delta_{\Pi_+(g)}] \quad (15)$$

Within this sense, we define projection operator  $\Pi_c$  that applies to the distribution  $\delta_g$  as

$$\Pi_c \delta_g = (1 - \zeta(g))\delta_{\Pi_-(g)} + \zeta(g)\delta_{\Pi_+(g)} \quad (16)$$

We call this method the *categorical Monte Carlo algorithm*.

Under the right condition, Equation (15) is correlated with a return distribution  $\hat{\eta}^{\pi}(x)$  where we have  $\hat{\eta}^{\pi}(x) = \mathbb{E} [\Pi_c \delta_{G^{\pi}(x)}]$ . In fact, we may write as

$$\mathbb{E} [\Pi_c \delta_{G^{\pi}(x)}] = \Pi_c \eta^{\pi}(x)$$

where  $\Pi_c \eta^{\pi}(x)$  is a distribution supported on  $\{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_m\}$  produced by projecting all possible outcomes under distribution  $\eta^{\pi}(x)$ .

### 3.6 Categorical Temporal-Difference Learning

What TD learning do is

- learn from sample transition rather than full trajectory
- It learns by bootstrapping from its current return function estimates.

Suppose we have a transition data  $(x, a, r, x')$ . CTD maintains a return function estimate  $\eta(x)$  supported on evenly spaced locations  $\{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_m\}$ . Let the return distribution of  $x'$  as

$$\eta(x') = \sum_{i=1}^m p_i(x') \delta_{\theta_i}$$

then the intermediate target is

$$\tilde{\eta}(x) = \sum_{i=1}^m p_i(x') \delta_{r+\gamma\theta_i}$$

which can also be expressed in terms of a pushforward distribution (Recall Subsection 2.7) as

$$\tilde{\eta}(x) = (b_{r,\gamma})_{\#} \eta(x'). \quad (17)$$

Note that each particles of  $\eta(x')$  are supports of  $\{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_m\}$ , but pushing forward those particles actually does not makes lying in the support of the original distribution. This motivates the use of projection step  $\Pi_c$ . We let notation  $\tilde{\theta}_i = r + \gamma\theta_i$ . Then, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Pi_c \tilde{\eta}(x) &= \Pi_c \sum_{j=1}^m p_j(x') \delta_{r+\gamma\theta_j} \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^m p_j(x') \Pi_c \delta_{r+\gamma\theta_j} \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^m p_j(x') \left[ (1 - \zeta(\tilde{\theta}_j)) \delta_{\Pi_-(\tilde{\theta}_j)} + \zeta(\tilde{\theta}_j) \delta_{\Pi_+(\tilde{\theta}_j)} \right] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m \delta_{\theta_i} \left( \sum_{j=1}^m p_j(x') \zeta_{i,j}(r) \right) \end{aligned}$$

where  $\zeta_{i,j}(r) = (1 - \zeta(\tilde{\theta}_j)) \mathbf{1}_{\{\Pi_-(\tilde{\theta}_j)=\theta_j\}} + \zeta(\tilde{\theta}_j) \mathbf{1}_{\{\Pi_+(\tilde{\theta}_j)=\theta_j\}}$ . Note that third equality holds by definition of deterministic projection (equation (16)). Also, the last line highlights that the CTD target lies on a support of  $\{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_m\}$ . Note that the assignment is obtained by weighting the next-state probabilities  $p_j(x')$  by the coefficients  $\zeta_{i,j}(r)$ . Using the projected intermediate target, i.e.  $\Pi_c \tilde{\eta}(x)$ , we have the following CTD update rule:

$$\begin{aligned} \eta(x) &\leftarrow (1 - \alpha)\eta(x) + \alpha(\Pi_c \tilde{\eta}(x)) \\ &\leftarrow (1 - \alpha)\eta(x) + \alpha(\Pi_c(b_{r,\gamma}\eta(x'))) \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

Now, note that  $\eta(x)$  and  $\eta(x')$  are the categorical distribution which is a mixture of dirac-delta function. Plugging its definition into Equation (18), we have the following update

rule:

$$p_i(x) \leftarrow (1 - \alpha)p_i(x) + \alpha \sum_{j=1}^m \zeta_{i,j}(r)p_j(x') \quad (19)$$

With this form, we see that the CTD update rule adjusts each probability  $p_i(x)$  of the return distribution at state  $x$  toward a mixture of the probabilities  $\zeta_{i,j}(r)$  of the return distribution at the next state  $x'$ .

## 4 Chapter 4

We have defined *value function*  $V^\pi$  as

$$V^\pi(x) := \mathbb{E}_\pi \left[ \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t R_t \mid X_0 = x \right],$$

and the *bellman equation* which make relationship between expected return of one state and from its successor as

$$V^\pi(x) := \mathbb{E}_\pi [R + \gamma V^\pi(X') \mid X = x].$$

Now, consider a state-indexed collection of real variables, written  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}}$ , which we call a *value function estimate*. By substituting  $V^\pi$  for  $V$  in the original Bellman equation, we obtain the system of equations

$$V(x) = \mathbb{E} [R + \gamma V(X') \mid X = x], \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}. \quad (20)$$

We know  $V^\pi$  is the solution of above equations. Is there other solution?. Let's investigate this in this section. First, we define *operators* which is a function that map elements of a space onto itself, such as this one (from estimates to estimates).

**Definition 4.1** (Bellman operator). The *bellman operator* is the mapping  $T^\pi : \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}}$  defined by

$$(T^\pi V)(x) = \mathbb{E}_\pi [R + \gamma V(X') \mid X = x]. \quad (21)$$

Bellman operator provides a good way to re-express the Equation (20) as

$$V = T^\pi V.$$

We can also write the full expectation as

$$T^\pi V = r^\pi + \gamma P^\pi V \quad (22)$$

where  $r^\pi(x) = \mathbb{E}_\pi [R \mid X = x]$  and  $P^\pi$  is the transition operator defined as

$$(P^\pi V)(x) = \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \pi(a \mid x) \sum_{x' \in \mathcal{X}} \mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{X}}(x' \mid x, a) V(x').$$

Note that the  $\mathbb{E}_\pi$  means expectation when  $\pi$  is fixed. We say vector  $\tilde{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}}$  is a solution

to Equation (20) if it is unchanged by RHS transformation. Namely, it should be a fixed point with respect to bellman operator  $T^\pi$ . This also means  $V^\pi$  is a fixed point of  $T^\pi$ . We will show  $V^\pi$  is the *only fixed point* as following subsection.

#### 4.1 Contraction mappings

We need to define how close  $V$  and  $T^\pi V$  are. So we define *metric* as follows.

**Definition 4.2** (Metric). Given a set  $M$ , a metric  $d : M \times M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a function that satisfies, for all  $U, V, W \in M$ ,

1.  $d(U, V) \geq 0$ ,
2.  $d(U, V) = 0$  iff  $U = V$ ,
3.  $d(U, V) \leq d(U, W) + d(W, V)$ ,
4.  $d(U, V) = d(V, U)$ .

We call the pair  $(M, d)$  as a metric space.

In our setting,  $M = \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}}$  and we can thought of as a infinity large vector with total  $|\mathcal{X}|$  entries. We define  $L^\infty$  metric for  $V, V' \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}}$  as

$$\|V - V'\|_\infty = \max_{x \in \mathcal{X}} |V(x) - V'(x)| \quad (23)$$

We will show Bellman operator  $T^\pi$  is a contraction mapping with respect to this metric. Informally, this means that its application to different value function estimates brings them closer by at least a constant multiplicative factor, called its *contraction modulus*.

**Definition 4.3** (Contraction modulus). Let  $(M, d)$  is a metric space. A function  $\mathcal{O} : M \rightarrow M$  is a contraction mapping with respect to  $d$  with contraction modulus *beta*  $\in [0, 1)$  if for all  $U, U' \in M$ ,

$$d(\mathcal{O}U, \mathcal{O}U') \leq \beta d(U, U').$$

**Proposition 4.4** (Contraction mapping of Bellman operator). The operator  $T^\pi : \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}}$  is a contraction mapping with respect to the  $L^\infty$  metric on  $\mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}}$  with contraction modulus given by the discount factor  $\gamma$ . That is, for any two value functions  $V, V' \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}}$ ,

$$\|T^\pi V - T^\pi V'\|_\infty \leq \gamma \|V - V'\|_\infty$$

*Proof.* To be continue. □

**Proposition 4.5** (Unique fixed point of contraction mapping). Let  $(M, d)$  be a metric space and  $\mathcal{O} : M \rightarrow M$  be a contraction mapping. Then  $\mathcal{O}$  has at most one fixed point in  $M$ .

Propositions 4.4 and 4.5 guarantees the Bellman operator  $T^\pi$  has a unique fixed point  $V^\pi$ .

Now, how to compute a fixed point? We can do it by iterative process. For given contraction mapping  $\mathcal{O} : M \rightarrow M$ , we can approximate the fixed point by a sequence  $(U_k)_{k \geq 0}$  by iterative process  $U_{k+1} = \mathcal{O}U_k$ .

**Proposition 4.6.** Let  $(M, d)$  be a metric space and let  $\mathcal{O}$  be a contraction mapping with contraction modulus  $\beta \in [0, 1)$  and have a fixed point  $U^* \in M$ . Then for *any* initial point  $U_0$ , the sequence  $(U_k)_{k \geq 0}$  generated by  $U_{k+1} = \mathcal{O}U_k$  satisfies

$$d(U_k, U^*) \leq \beta^k d(U_0, U^*) \quad (24)$$

and particular  $d(U_k, U^*) \rightarrow 0$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ .

*Proof.* To be continue. □

In case of Bellman operator  $T^\pi$ , what Proposition 4.6 tells us is that for any initial point  $V_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathcal{X}}$ , the sequence  $(V_k)_{k \geq 0}$  converges to a fixed unique point  $V^\pi$ .

## 4.2 The Distributional Bellman Operator

one important question of distributional reinforcement learning is that how to represent probability distribution into computer memory.

Let's recall *random variable bellman equation* (Proposition 2.8),

$$G^\pi(x) \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} R + \gamma G^\pi(X'), \quad X = x. \quad (25)$$

Recall that  $G^\pi(x)$  is a random variable sampled from a distribution  $\eta^\pi(x)$  which is a return distribution when initial state is  $x$ . The RHS of Equation 25 could be decomposed into following three process.

1.  $G^\pi(X')$ : indexing of the collection of random variables  $G^\pi$  by  $X'$ .
2.  $\gamma G^\pi(X')$ : multiplication of the random variable  $G(X')$  with scalar  $\gamma$ .
3.  $R + \gamma G^\pi(X')$  addition of two random variables  $R$  and  $\gamma G(X')$

We can apply above process to any state-indexed collection of random variables  $G^\pi = (G^\pi(x) : x \in \mathcal{X})$ . Now, we introduce *random vairable bellman operator* as

$$(\mathcal{T}^\pi G)(x) \stackrel{\mathcal{D}}{=} R + \gamma G(X'), \quad X = x \quad (26)$$

Equation (26) states that the application of the Bellman operator to  $G$  (evaluated at  $x$ ; the left-hand side) produces a random variable that is equal in distribution to the random

variable constructed on the right-hand side. Because this holds for all  $x$ , we think of  $\mathcal{T}^\pi$  as mapping  $G$  to a new collection of random variables  $\mathcal{T}^\pi G$ .

Let's recall Proposition 2.11 to define bellman operator at probability distribution.

**Definition 4.7** (Distributional Bellman Operator  $\mathcal{T}^\pi$ ). The distributional bellman operator  $\mathcal{T}^\pi : \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})^{\mathcal{X}} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R})^{\mathcal{X}}$  is mapping defined by

$$(\mathcal{T}^\pi \eta)(x) = \mathbb{E}_\pi [(b_{r,\gamma})_\# \eta(X') \mid X = x] \quad (27)$$

Note that distributional bellman operator maps between distribution and distribution. With  $\mathcal{T}^\pi$  and Proposition 4.5, we could say its fixed point is  $\eta^\pi$  and its unique.

**Proposition 4.8** (Unique fixed point of distributional bellman operator). The return-distribution function  $\eta^\pi$  satisfies

$$\eta^\pi = \mathcal{T}^\pi \eta^\pi$$

and is the unique fixed point of the distributional Bellman operator  $\mathcal{T}^\pi$ .