

# Provably Efficient Offline RL with Options

## Extended Abstract

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### ABSTRACT

Temporal abstraction helps to reduce the sample complexity in long-horizon planning in reinforcement learning (RL). One powerful approach is the *options* framework, where the agent interacts with the environment using closed-loop policies, i.e., options, instead of primitive actions. Recent works show that in the *online* setting, where the agent can continuously explore the environment, lower PAC-like sample complexity or regret can be attained by learning with options. However, these results are no longer applicable in scenarios where collecting data in an online manner is impossible, e.g., automated driving and healthcare. In this paper, we provide the first analysis of the sample complexity for *offline* RL with options, where a dataset is provided and no further interaction with the environment is allowed. Two procedures of the data collecting process are considered, which adapt to different scenes of applications and are of great importance to study. Inspired by previous works on offline RL, we propose **PEssimistic Value Iteration for Learning with Options** (PEVIO) and derive suboptimality bounds for both datasets, which are near-optimal according to a novel information-theoretic lower bound for offline RL with options. Further, the suboptimality bound shows that learning with options can be more sample-efficient than learning with primitive actions in the offline setting.

### KEYWORDS

learning with options; offline reinforcement learning; sample complexity; sample-efficient learning

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## 1 INTRODUCTION

Long-horizon planning is a great challenge in reinforcement learning (RL) [2, 5, 11]. Rather than learning with primitive actions, exploiting the hierarchical structures in RL and planning with temporally-extended action has long been explored [3, 4, 6, 13, 16, 17, 19]. One powerful and popular approach is the *options* framework [21, 24]. In this framework, the agent is provided with a set of *options*, i.e., closed-loop policies for taking action over a period of time. Upon arriving at a state, the option used in the previous timestep is terminated with a pre-specified probability, and (if terminated) the agent selects a new option according to a hierarchical

policy. She then takes primitive actions according to the chosen option in the following steps until the option is replaced. Empirical success [22, 23] shows that options help to accelerate learning and achieve sample-efficient performance.

Recent works analyze the sample complexity of RL with options in the *online* setting, where the agent continuously explores the environment and learns a near-optimal policy. Brunskill and Li [1] derive a PAC-like sample complexity of RL with options in the semi-Markov decision processes (SMDPs). They show that the use of options may reduce the sample complexity of a lifelong learning agent. However, these results cannot be immediately translated into a reduction of the sample complexity of learning with options in *Markov decision processes* (MDPs) due to the fundamental difference in the formulation between SMDPs and MDPs (see the discussion of Sutton, Precup, and Singh [21, Section 0]). Fruit and Larzarc [7] provide the first regret analysis of RL with options in MDPs. They show that an SMDP-variant of the UCRL algorithm [12] attains a sublinear regret. Nonetheless, the algorithm requires prior knowledge of the environment, which is not usually available in practice. This problem is addressed later by Fruit, Pirotta, Lazaric, and Brunskill [8]. They propose an algorithm that does not require prior knowledge, yet achieving a near-optimal regret bound. While these results report the regret bounds when options are used in learning in an unknown environment, they are applicable only when dealing with scenarios where online exploration is possible. However, in many real-world applications, having to learn in an online manner is undesirable. For examples, it has been argued that online learning in healthcare [10] and automated driving [20] is risky and costly. In such scenarios, *offline* learning, where a dataset is provided and the agent is then asked to learn a near-optimal policy by only using the dataset, is preferred. We note that there has been a rich literature on regret bound analysis for offline RL with primitive actions only (i.e., without the use of options) [9, 15, 18]. Unfortunately, to the best of our knowledge, there have been no results reported on the analysis of regret bounds for offline RL under the options framework.

In this paper, we provide the first analysis of the sample complexity of offline RL with options in episodic MDP. We consider two procedures to collect the offline dataset. The first dataset  $\mathcal{D}_1$  contains state transitions and cumulative rewards by interacting with the environment using options. The second dataset  $\mathcal{D}_2$  contains state transitions and (single-timestep) rewards by taking primitive actions. The distinctive structure yields advantages in different real-world applications. In short,  $\mathcal{D}_1$  enables direct evaluation of options and requires smaller storage, while  $\mathcal{D}_2$  provides more information about the environment and allows the design of new options. Hence, both datasets are of great importance to study. Inspired by the PEVI algorithm [14], we propose the **PEssimistic Value Iteration for Learning with Options** (PEVIO) algorithm. To

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analyze the suboptimality of the hierarchical policy output by PEVIO, we extend important results in previous works on RL with primitive actions. Compared to offline RL with primitive actions, our suboptimality bound enjoys a better dependence on the length of each episode and the size of state space. This shows that the options help to reduce the sample complexity and facilitate more efficient learning not only in the online setting but also the offline setting. To our best knowledge, this is the first study to provide such theoretical guarantees for the options framework in offline RL.

## 2 PRELIMINARIES

An episodic MDP with options is a sextuple  $\mathcal{M} = (\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{O}, H, \mathcal{P}, r)$ , where  $\mathcal{S}$  is the state space,  $\mathcal{A}$  the (primitive) action set,  $\mathcal{O}$  the finite set of options,  $H$  the length of each episode,  $\mathcal{P} = \{P_h : \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \Delta(\mathcal{S})\}_{h \in [H]}$  the transition kernel,<sup>1</sup>  $r = \{r_h : \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow [0, 1]\}_{h \in [H]}$  the deterministic reward function.<sup>2</sup> We define  $S := |\mathcal{S}|$ ,  $A := |\mathcal{A}|$ , and  $O := |\mathcal{O}|$ . A (Markov) option [21, 24]  $o \in \mathcal{O}$  is a pair  $(\pi^o, \beta^o)$  where  $\pi^o = \{\pi_h^o : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \Delta(\mathcal{A})\}_{h \in [H]}$  is the option's policy and  $\beta^o = \{\beta_h^o : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow [0, 1]\}_{h \in [H]}$  is a probability of the option's *termination*. Upon arriving at state  $s_h$  at timestep  $h$ , if  $h = 1$  (at the beginning of an episode), the agent selects option  $o_1 \sim \mu_1(\cdot|s_1)$ , where  $\mu = \{\mu_h : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \Delta(\mathcal{O})\}_{h \in [H]}$  is a hierarchical policy to select option at each state. Otherwise ( $h \geq 2$ ), the agent first terminates option  $o_{h-1}$  with probability  $\beta_{h-1}^{o_{h-1}}(s_h)$ . If option  $o_{h-1}$  is terminated, she then selects a new option  $o_h \sim \mu_h(\cdot|s_h)$  according to the hierarchical policy  $\mu$ . If option  $o_{h-1}$  is not terminated, the agent keeps using option  $o_{h-1}$  at timestep  $h$ , i.e.,  $o_h = o_{h-1}$ . After that, the agent takes action  $a_h \sim \pi_{h-1}^{o_{h-1}}(\cdot|s_h)$ , receives a reward of  $r_h(s_h, a_h)$ , and transits to the next state  $s_{h+1} \sim P_h(\cdot|s_h, a_h)$ . An episode terminates at timestep  $H + 1$ . The value function of hierarchical policy  $\mu$  is denoted by  $V_h^\mu(s) := \mathbb{E}_\mu[\sum_{h'=h}^H r_{h'}|s_h = s]$  for any  $(h, s) \in [H] \times \mathcal{S}$ . There exists an optimal (and deterministic) hierarchical policy  $\mu^* = \{\mu_h^* : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}\}_{h \in [H]}$  that attains the optimal value function, which is denoted by  $V^* = \{V_h^*\}_{h \in [H]}$ . We denote by  $\theta^\mu = \{\theta_h^\mu : \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{O} \rightarrow [0, 1]\}_{h \in [H]}$  the state-option occupancy measure of the hierarchical policy  $\mu$ , where  $\theta_h^\mu(s, o)$  is the probability that the agent selects a particular option  $o$  at state  $s$  at timestep  $h$ . Further, we define  $Z_O^\mu := \sum_{h \in [H]} \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} \sum_{o \in \mathcal{O}} \theta_h^\mu(s, o)$  and  $\bar{Z}_O^\mu := \sum_{h \in [H]} \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} \sum_{o \in \mathcal{O}} \mathbb{I}[\theta_h^\mu(s, o) > 0]$  for any hierarchical policy  $\mu$ , where  $\mathbb{I}[\cdot]$  is the indicator function. Note that for a deterministic hierarchical policy  $\mu = \{\mu_h : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{O}\}_{h \in [H]}$ , it holds that  $Z_O^\mu \leq H$  and  $\bar{Z}_O^\mu \leq HS$ .

In the offline setting, a dataset collected by an experimenter through interacting with the environment is provided, which consists of trajectories of state transitions and rewards. We consider two procedures to collect the dataset and the details are presented in Section 3. Given any such dataset  $\mathcal{D}$ , the algorithm is asked to learn a near-optimal hierarchical policy. Let  $\hat{\mu}$  denote the hierarchical policy output from the algorithm. We aim to minimize its

<sup>1</sup>We use the notation  $\Delta(\mathcal{X})$  to denote the probability simplex on space  $\mathcal{X}$  throughout the paper, i.e., each element in  $\Delta(\mathcal{X})$  is a probability distribution on space  $\mathcal{X}$ . For any positive integer  $N$ , we define  $[N] = \{1, \dots, N\}$ .

<sup>2</sup>While we assume deterministic rewards for simplicity, our results can be directly generalized to stochastic rewards, as the major difficulty is in learning the transitions rather than learning the rewards.

suboptimality at state  $s$ , which is given by

$$\text{SubOpt}_{\mathcal{D}}(\hat{\mu}, s) = V_1^*(s) - V_1^{\hat{\mu}}(s)$$

## 3 MAIN RESULTS

### 3.1 Offline Learning with options Using Dataset $\mathcal{D}_1$

We consider dataset  $\mathcal{D}_1 := \{(s_h^k, o_h^k, u_h^k)\}_{h \in \mathcal{H}^k}\}_{k \in [K]}$  collected by the first procedure, where  $\mathcal{H}^k := \{t_i^k | 1 = t_1^k < t_2^k < \dots < t_{j_k}^k \leq H\}_{i=1}^{j_k}$  is a set of timesteps within the  $k$ th episode. Particularly, at timestep  $t_i^k$  of the  $k$ th episode, the experimenter randomly selects a new option  $o_{t_i^k}^k$  according to the hierarchical behavior policy  $\rho$ , uses it for  $(t_{i+1}^k - t_i^k)$  timesteps, collects a cumulative reward of  $u_{t_i^k}^k$  within these  $(t_{i+1}^k - t_i^k)$  timesteps, and finally terminates this option at state  $s_{t_{i+1}^k}^k$  at timestep  $t_{i+1}^k$ . Define the concentrability

$$C_1^{\text{option}} := \max_{(h, s, o) \in [H] \times \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{O}} \frac{\theta_h^{\mu^*}(s, o)}{\theta_h^\rho(s, o)}$$

for dataset  $\mathcal{D}_1$ . We show that the PEVIO algorithm attains the following suboptimality bound.

$$\text{SubOpt}_{\mathcal{D}_1}(\hat{\mu}, s) \leq \tilde{O} \left( \sqrt{\frac{C_1^{\text{option}} H^3 Z_O^{\mu^*} \bar{Z}_O^{\mu^*}}{K}} \right)$$

Compared to the suboptimality bound  $\tilde{O}(\sqrt{H^5 SC^*/K})$  attained by the VI-LCB algorithm that learns with primitive actions [25, Theorem 1], where  $C^*$  is defined in [25, Assumption A], our suboptimality bound is smaller w.r.t the horizon  $H$  and state space  $\mathcal{S}$  when  $Z_O^* \ll H$  and  $\bar{Z}_O^* \ll HS$ . This shows that the options can accelerate learning by temporal abstraction (i.e.,  $Z_O^* \ll H$ ) and the reduction of the state space (i.e.,  $\bar{Z}_O^* \ll HS$ ), as pointed out by Fruit and Lazaric [7]. While recent works [7, 8] testify this statement in online RL, our results provide theoretical guarantee for offline RL.

### 3.2 Offline Learning with options Using Dataset $\mathcal{D}_2$

We also consider dataset  $\mathcal{D}_2 := \{(s_h^k, a_h^k, r_h^k)\}_{k, h=1}^{K, H}$  collected by the second procedure. Particularly, the experimenter randomly takes action  $a_h^k$  at state  $s_h^k$  at timestep  $h$  of the  $k$ th episode according to the behavioral policy  $\rho$ , receives a reward of  $r_h^k$ , and transits to state  $s_{h+1}^k$ . Define the concentrability

$$C_2^{\text{option}} := \max_{(h, s, o) \in [H] \times \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{O}} \max_{(s', a') \in \mathcal{S}_{h, s, o}^m, h \leq m \leq H} \frac{\theta_h^{\mu^*}(s, o)}{d_m^\rho(s', a')}$$

for dataset  $\mathcal{D}_2$ , where  $d_h^\rho(s, a)$  is the probability that the agent takes action  $a$  at state  $s$  at timestep  $h$ . We show that the PEVIO algorithm attains the following suboptimality bound.

$$\text{SubOpt}_{\mathcal{D}_2}(\hat{\mu}, s) \leq \tilde{O} \left( \sqrt{\frac{C_2^{\text{option}} H^4 S^2 A Z_O^{\mu^*} \bar{Z}_O^{\mu^*}}{K}} + \frac{H^5 S^5 A O C_2^{\text{option}}}{K} \right)$$

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