

# AVG-DICE: Stationary Distribution Correction by Regression

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**Keywords:** Off-Policy Evaluation, State Distribution Correction, Importance Sampling, Distribution Shift.

## Summary

Off-policy policy evaluation (OPE), an essential component of reinforcement learning, has long suffered from stationary state distribution mismatch, undermining both stability and accuracy of OPE estimates. While existing methods correct distribution shifts by estimating density ratios, they often rely on expensive optimization or backward Bellman-based updates and struggle to outperform simpler baselines. We introduce AVG-DICE, a computationally simple Monte Carlo estimator for the density ratio that averages discounted importance sampling ratios, providing an unbiased and consistent correction. AVG-DICE extends naturally to non-linear function approximation using regression, which we roughly tune and test on OPE tasks based on Mujoco Gym environments and compare with state-of-the-art density-ratio estimators using their reported hyperparameters. In our experiments, AVG-DICE is at least as accurate as state-of-the-art estimators and sometimes offers orders-of-magnitude improvements. However, a sensitivity analysis shows that best-performing hyperparameters may vary substantially across different discount factors, so a re-tuning is suggested.

## Contribution(s)

1. We reformulate the state distribution ratio between the discounted stationary distribution of the target policy and the undiscounted stationary distribution of the behaviour policy as a new consistent estimator, leveraging a dataset collected under the behaviour policy.
2. We show that this consistent estimator corrects state distribution shifts in off-policy data, and reweighting each data point with our estimator provides an unbiased estimate for any function.
3. We introduce AVG-DICE, an algorithm that estimates density ratios via regression.
4. We prove the convergence of our update rules under linear function approximation.
5. We evaluate AVG-DICE against prior algorithms and demonstrate that it achieves either dominant or comparable performance across all baselines.

**Context:** Our algorithm is sensitive to changes in the discount factor, and we recommend re-tuning it for each discount setting to ensure optimal performance.

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## Abstract

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## 15 1 Introduction

16 Off-policy evaluation (OPE) aims to estimate the expected cumulative return of a target policy using  
 17 data collected from a different behaviour policy. Assessing a policy with pre-collected data before  
 18 deployment is crucial, as executing an unqualified policy can lead to undesirable consequences  
 19 (Levine et al. 2020), including life-threatening risks in applications such as surgical robotics and self-  
 20 driving vehicles. A straightforward approach is to directly average the observed rewards. However,  
 21 distribution shift introduces bias into value estimation, and even temporal difference methods cannot  
 22 provide an unbiased evaluation of the target policy under such shifts (Sutton et al. 2016).

23 A common approach to addressing distribution shift is importance sampling (IS) (Precup et al. 2001),  
 24 which reweights samples based on the ratio between two distributions to provide an unbiased estima-  
 25 tion. However, when correcting cumulative returns along a trajectory, IS requires multiplying these  
 26 ratios over multiple steps, leading to high variance — a problem known as the curse of the horizon.  
 27 To mitigate this, researchers have explored marginalized IS ratios for stationary state distributions  
 28 (Liu et al. 2018). Current estimators leverage the recursive property of stationary distributions to  
 29 formulate optimization tasks. This recursion results in a backward Bellman-based update, where  
 30 the value at the next step depends on the current step’s value (Hallak & Mannor 2017). However,  
 31 the expectation in the backward Bellman recursion cannot be unbiasedly evaluated without double  
 32 sampling. Moreover, off-policy Bellman updates with function approximation, known as the deadly  
 33 triad (Baird 1995), are prone to instability and typically lack convergence guarantees.

34 Several studies have proposed novel optimization frameworks, such as primal-dual optimization  
 35 (Nachum et al. 2019) or multistage optimization (Uehara et al. 2020), to avoid directly minimizing  
 36 the backward Bellman error. The optimal solutions corresponding to their novel losses equal to the  
 37 desired state density ratio, proven in the tabular case (Liu et al. 2019). However, these methods

introduce additional complexity to the estimation process. This raises an important question: Can we revisit Monte Carlo methods to develop a new estimator that is both theoretically sound and computationally simpler? Previously, a state distribution corrector based on the Monte Carlo expansion of the stationary distribution was developed to account for the missing discount factor in stationary state distributions for policy gradient algorithms (Che et al. 2023). However, the idea was not explored in the off-policy setting.

In this paper, we propose a novel estimator for the stationary state distribution ratio, called the average state distribution correction estimation (AVG-DICE). It leverages the Monte Carlo expansion rather than the recursive property used in prior approaches. Our approach computes the average of all discounted importance sampling ratio products corresponding to a given state in the dataset. We prove that this method provides a consistent estimation of the density ratio between the discounted target and the undiscounted behaviour stationary state distributions. Also, it gives an unbiased estimation of any function.

Furthermore, our estimator can be learned via a least squares regression task, offering a simple and effective approach to approximating the state distribution ratio. In the case of linear function approximation, we establish its asymptotic convergence to the same fixed point as minimizing the mean squared error with the exact density ratio, under standard assumptions used in temporal difference (TD) convergence analysis (Yu 2015).

To evaluate our estimator, we conduct experiments on several discrete classic control tasks and continuous MuJoCo tasks (Todorov et al. 2012), using a pre-collected fixed off-policy dataset with batch updates. Our estimator achieves dominant performance on most tasks when appropriately tuned for the required discount factor and remains competitive on others. Additionally, it demonstrates the fastest convergence to a stable value, making it practical for integration into other algorithms. However, our algorithm is sensitive to changes in the discount factor, and we recommend re-tuning it for each discount setting to ensure optimal performance.

## 2 Background

**Notation** We let  $\Delta(\mathcal{X})$  denote the set of probability distributions over a finite set  $\mathcal{X}$ . Let  $\mathbb{R}$  denote the set of real numbers,  $\mathbb{N}$  be the set of non-negative integers,  $\mathbb{N}^+$  be the set of positive integers, and  $\mathbb{1}$  be the indicator function.

**Markov Decision Process** We consider finite Markov decision process (MDP) (Sutton & Barto 2018) defined by a tuple  $M = \langle \mathcal{S} \cup \{\varsigma\}, \mathcal{A}, r, P, \nu, \gamma \rangle$ , where  $\mathcal{S}$  is a finite state space,  $\varsigma$  is a termination state,  $\mathcal{A}$  is the action space,  $r : \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is the reward function,  $P : \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \Delta(\mathcal{S})$  is the transition matrix,  $\nu \in \Delta(\mathcal{S})$  is the distribution of the initial state, and  $\gamma \in (0, 1)$  is the discount factor. At each step  $j$ , the agent applies an action  $A_j$  sampling from a policy  $\pi : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \Delta(\mathcal{A})$  at state  $S_j$ . Then, the agent receives a reward  $R_j$  and transits to the next state  $S'_j$ . Our paper focuses on episodic tasks, where a trajectory, denoted by  $\tau = \{S_j, A_j, R_j, S'_j\}_{j=0}^{T-1}$ , ends at the termination state  $\varsigma$  at step  $T$ . We define the random variable  $T \in \mathbb{N}^+$  as the length of the trajectory.

The agent’s goal is to evaluate a policy  $\pi$  by estimating the expected discounted cumulative returns. The expected discounted cumulative return, denoted by  $J(\pi)$ , is defined as

$$J(\pi) = (1 - \gamma) \mathbb{E}_\pi \left[ \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \gamma^j r(S_j, A_j) \right],$$

where we use  $\mathbb{E}_\pi$  to denote the expectation under the distribution induced by  $\pi$  and the environment. Notice that after reaching the termination state, the probability of any state showing up is zero, that is,  $\mathbb{P}_\pi(S_j = s) = 0, \forall s \in \mathcal{S}$ , if  $T \leq j$  and rewards also equal zero.

80 The  $Q$ -value represents the expected cumulative rewards starting from a state-action pair  $(s, a)$  fol-  
 81 lowing a policy  $\pi$ , defined as

$$q_\pi(s, a) = \mathbb{E}_\pi \left[ \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \gamma^j r(S_j, A_j) \middle| S_0 = s, A_0 = a \right]. \quad (1)$$

82 **Off-Policy Evaluation** We consider evaluating a target policy  $\pi$  using a dataset  $\mathcal{D}$  that consists of  
 83  $K$  trajectories as  $\{\tau_i\}_{i=1}^K = \left\{ \{S_j^i, A_j^i, R_j^i, (S_j^i)'\}_{j=0}^{T^i-1} \right\}_{i=1}^K$ . When trajectories are collected under  
 84 a *behaviour policy*, denoted by  $\mu$ , differing from the target policy, we call the learning off-policy.

85 To correct this distribution shift, the *importance sampling (IS) ratio*  $\rho(a|s) = \frac{\pi(a|s)}{\mu(a|s)}$  is often used to  
 86 obtain unbiased estimators. The *IS-ratio product*, denoted by  $\rho_{0:j-1} = \prod_{k=0}^{j-1} \rho(A_k|S_k)$ , adjusts the  
 87 distribution of an entire trajectory,  $\{S_0, A_0, \dots, S_j\}$ , from the behaviour policy to the target one.  
 88 Notice the product is initialized at one, denoted as  $\rho_{0:-1} = 1$ , with some abuse of notations.

89 This dataset can also be expressed in terms of individual transitions as  $\mathcal{D} =$   
 90  $\{(S_t, A_t, R_t, S_t', \text{time}_t, \rho_{\text{prod},t})\}_{t=0}^{n-1}$  where  $n$  is the dataset size,  $t$  is the index for each transi-  
 91 tion,  $\text{time}_t$  represents the step of  $s_t$  in its trajectory and  $\rho_{\text{prod},t}$  for the corresponding IS products  
 92  $\rho_{0:\text{time}_t-1}$  until  $s_t$ . To further simplify notation, let  $I_s$  indicate the set of step  $t$  such that  $S_t = s$ .

93 Off-policy TD estimates Q-values by  $\hat{q}_\theta$  and takes a semi-gradient of the empirical temporal differ-  
 94 ence errors, which equals

$$\min \mathcal{L}(\theta; \mathcal{D}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} (R_t + \gamma \hat{q}_\theta(S_t', A_t') - \hat{q}_\theta(S_t, A_t))^2, \quad (2)$$

95 where the next action used for the bootstrapping target is sampled from the target policy, that is,  
 96  $A_t' \sim \pi(\cdot|S_t')$ . TD evaluates the target policy by expected value estimation of initial state-action  
 97 pairs, that is,  $(1 - \gamma) \mathbb{E}_{S_0 \sim \nu, A_0 \sim \pi(\cdot|S_0)} [\hat{q}_\theta(S_0, A_0)]$ . However, the dataset's state distribution shift is  
 98 not corrected from the behaviour policy to the target policy, leading to bias in the estimation.

99 **Irreducible Markov Chain** The Markov decision process under a policy  $\pi$  forms a Markov chain,  
 100 denoted by  $\langle \mathcal{S} \cup \{\varsigma\}, P_\pi \rangle$ , where  $P_\pi(s'|s) = \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \pi(a|s) P(s'|s, a)$  for any  $s, s' \in \mathcal{S}$ . A Markov  
 101 chain is said to be *irreducible*, if for any two states,  $s$  and  $s'$ , the probability of transiting between  
 102 these two states is positive at some time step, that is,  $P_\pi(S_j = s' \text{ for some } j > 0 | S_0 = s) > 0$  and  
 103  $P_\pi(S_j = s \text{ for some } j > 0 | S_0 = s') > 0$ .

104 The *recurrence time* of a state  $s$ , denoted by  $\tau_s^+(s)$ , is defined as the time elapsed to revisit a state  
 105  $s$ , that is,  $\tau_s^+(s) = \min\{j > 0 : S_j = s, S_0 = s\}$ . A *positive recurrent* state has a finite expected  
 106 recurrence time, that is,  $\mathbb{E}_\pi[\tau_s^+(s)] < \infty$ . Note that no assumptions are made in the background  
 107 section; the terms irreducibility and positive recurrence are presented solely for later use.

108 **Stationary State Distribution** The discounted stationary state distribution, denoted by  $d_{\pi,\gamma}$ , is  
 109 defined as the distribution satisfying the following equation for all states  $s' \in \mathcal{S}$ :

$$\sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} d_{\pi,\gamma}(s) [\gamma P_\pi(s'|s) + (1 - \gamma) \nu(s')] = d_{\pi,\gamma}(s'). \quad (3)$$

110 A common analytical form of the discounted stationary distribution can be written as

$$d_{\pi,\gamma}(s) = (1 - \gamma) \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \gamma^j \mathbb{P}_\pi(S_j = s). \quad (4)$$

111 Given the form of the discounted stationary distribution, the expected discounted cumulative return,  
 112  $J(\pi)$ , can also be written as

$$J(\pi) = \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} d_{\pi,\gamma}(s) r_\pi(s), \quad (5)$$

113 where  $r_\pi(s) = \mathbb{E}_{A \sim \pi(\cdot|s)} [r(s, A)]$ .

The undiscounted stationary distribution, denoted by  $d_\pi$  is defined as the distribution satisfying  $\sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} d_\pi(s) P_\pi(s'|s) = d_\pi(s')$ . This distribution is also regarded as the limiting distribution of state-action visitation at each step. However, in episodic tasks, the step count does not approach infinity. To define a limit distribution in this setting, the trajectory is considered to restart from the initial state distribution upon termination. Note that this restart does not occur in practice and is introduced purely for definitional purposes.

Repeating the transition  $n$  steps can give  $K$  terminated trajectory and one incomplete trajectory, denoted by  $\left\{ \left\{ (S_j^i, A_j^i, R_j^i, (S_j')^i) \right\}_{j=0}^{T^i-1} \right\}_{i=1}^K \cup \left\{ (S_j^{K+1}, A_j^{K+1}, R_j^{K+1}, (S_j')^{K+1}) \right\}_{j=0}^{n-\sum_{k=1}^K T^k}$ . We relabel the transition by  $t$  as  $\{(S_t, A_t, R_t, S'_t)\}_{t=0}^{n-1}$ . The undiscounted stationary distribution has multiple analytical forms stated in Sutton and Barto (2018) and Grimmert and Stirzaker (2020, Theorem 6.4.3), summarized in a lemma from (Che et al. 2023).

**Lemma 2.1** (Forms of Undiscounted Stationary Distribution). *Under the irreducibility of the Markov chain and positive recurrences of all states under all policies  $\pi$ , we have the following:*

$$d_\pi(s) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} \mathbb{P}_\pi(S_t = s) = \frac{1}{\mathbb{E}_\pi[\tau_s^+(s)]}. \quad (6)$$

### 3 Related Works

TD with linear function approximation converges when data is sampled as trajectories under the target policy (Tsitsiklis & Van Roy 1996), but linear TD with off-policy state distribution is not guaranteed to converge (Che et al. 2024). This issue is called the deadly triad. Meanwhile, the policy estimation is biased under the state distribution shift.

The data distribution can be corrected by importance sampling (Precup 2000, Precup et al. 2001). However, these approaches suffer from high variance when correcting the distributions of trajectories with products of IS ratios. Later papers work on estimating state distribution ratios to avoid the ratio product (Hallak & Mannor 2017, Yang et al. 2020, Fujimoto et al. 2021).

The state distribution ratio can be estimated based on the backward recursion for the stationary distribution shown in Equation 3. A backward Bellman recursion for the density ratio  $w(s)$  can then be built for all state  $s'$ , and the temporal difference error for the density ratio estimator, denoted by  $TD(s')$ , is defined as

$$TD(s') := \mathbb{E}_{(S,A,S') \sim d_\mu} \left[ -w(s') + \gamma w(S) \frac{\pi(A|S)}{\mu(A|S)} | S' = s' \right] + (1 - \gamma) \rho(s').$$

This temporal error equals zero, if  $w(s) = \frac{d_{\pi,\gamma}(s)}{d_\mu(s)}$  provided that non-zero target policy  $\pi(a|s) > 0$  implying the behaviour policy being non-zero  $\mu(a|s) > 0$  for all state-action pairs (Nachum et al. 2019). COP-TD (Hallak & Mannor 2017, Gelada & Bellemare 2019) minimizes the above temporal difference (TD) error. However, a backward TD estimate cannot be unbiasedly computed from a dataset without double sampling unless the behaviour policy is concentrated on a single state. Meanwhile, the algorithm lacks a convergence guarantee.

Several other works (Liu et al. 2018- 2019, Uehara et al. 2020) design novel loss functions based on the recursive properties of the state distribution instead of directly minimizing the TD error. These losses reach zero if and only if the solution is the density ratio, providing new multi-stage optimization objectives for ratio approximation. On the other hand, DualDice (Nachum et al. 2019) introduces a primal-dual optimization framework by reformulating the problem with the Fenchel conjugate. GenDice (Zhang et al. 2020a) estimates the density ratio  $w(s)$  and minimizes the f-divergence between the estimated and true stationary distributions  $d_\mu(s)w(s)$  and  $d_{\pi,\gamma}(s)$ , showing greater stability than DualDice for high discount factors but lacking convex-concavity. However, these multi-stage or primal-dual optimization techniques lack the convergence guarantee, and the training is less stable with multiple variables.

GradientDice (Zhang et al. 2020b) replaces f-divergence in GenDice with a weighted L2-norm, ensuring convex-concave and convergence properties under linear function approximation. BestDice (Yang et al. 2020) unifies these multi-stage and primal-dual methods into a general objective, identifying optimal regularization choices in their BestDice algorithm. However, the learning stability still needs improvement.

Successor Representation Distribution Correction Estimation (SR-DICE) (Fujimoto et al. 2021) builds on successor features and derives a loss equivalent to minimizing the mean squared error to the density ratio under linear function approximation. It achieves lower policy evaluation errors than other density estimators but still underperforms deep off-policy TD. Meanwhile, state-action representation features and successor features require pre-training, introducing additional approximation errors and increasing computation.

## 4 Distribution Corrector

We derive a novel expression for the state density ratio, leading to a consistent estimator. This estimator computes the average of discounted IS-ratio products for each state using an off-policy dataset. Our algorithm, AVG-DICE, is named for its averaging approach in approximating this estimator. As the dataset size approaches infinity, our estimator converges to the true density ratio. Meanwhile, it corrects the distribution shift from the dataset’s sampling distribution to the target policy’s discounted stationary distribution, consequently providing an unbiased estimate for any function by reweighting each state by our estimator.

Recall that a dataset consists of  $K$  trajectories and is presented as  $\mathcal{D} = \{(S_t, A_t, R_t, S'_t, \text{time}_t, \rho_{\text{prod},t})\}_{t=0}^{n-1}$ , where  $\text{time}_t$  represents the step of  $S_t$  in its trajectory and  $\rho_{\text{prod},t}$  for the corresponding IS products until  $S_t$ .  $I_s$  indicates the set of label  $t$  such that  $S_t = s$ .

We first assume the following necessary condition for applying marginalized importance sampling.

**Assumption 4.1.** If  $d_{\pi,\gamma} > 0$ , then  $d_\mu > 0$ .

This assumption is made for all distribution correction estimators (Yu 2015, Zhang et al. 2020b), requiring the off-policy distribution to cover the target distribution.

Also, for episodic tasks, it is normal to consider the trajectory length to have a finite expectation.

**Assumption 4.2.**

$$\mathbb{E}_\mu[T] < \infty.$$

Now we are ready to present the novel formulation of the density ratio.

**Proposition 4.3.** *[Consistency] Given*

- a finite Markov decision process,
- a dataset  $\mathcal{D}$  collected under a behaviour policy  $\mu$ , and
- a target policy  $\pi$

such that Assumption 4.1 and 4.2 are satisfied, then for state  $s$  with

$$d_{\pi,\gamma}(s) > 0,$$

we have the density ratio equal

$$\frac{d_{\pi,\gamma}(s)}{d_\mu(s)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{K} (1 - \gamma) \mathbb{E}_{t \sim I_s} [\gamma^{\text{time}_t} \rho_{\text{prod},t}], \quad (7)$$

where  $n$  is the number of transitions, and  $K$  denotes the number of trajectories.

We derive a consistent estimator based on the above proposition, defined as

$$c_{\mathcal{D}}(s) = \frac{n}{K} (1 - \gamma) \mathbb{E}_{t \sim I_s} [\gamma^{\text{time}_t} \rho_{\text{prod},t}]. \quad (8)$$

192 The expectation is taken over step where state  $s$  appears and can be expressed as

$$\mathbb{E}_{t \sim I_s} [\gamma^{\text{time}_t} \rho_{\text{prod},t}] = \frac{\sum_{t=0}^{n-1} \gamma^{\text{time}_t} \rho_{\text{prod},t} \mathbb{1}[S_t = s]}{\sum_{t=0}^{n-1} \mathbb{1}[S_t = s]}, \quad (9)$$

193 where  $\mathbb{1}[S_t = s]$  equals to one if  $s$  appears at step  $t$ . The denominator counts the number of  
 194 times state  $s$  occurs in the dataset, while the numerator sums the corresponding discounted IS-ratio  
 195 products. Thus, the expectation in our estimator effectively averages all discounted IS products  
 196 associated with state  $s$ .

197 Our main theorem shows that reweighting each data by our estimator gives an unbiased estimator  
 198 for any function.

199 **Theorem 4.4** (Unbiasedness). *Given*

- 200 • a finite Markov decision process,
- 201 • a dataset  $\mathcal{D}$  collected under a behaviour policy  $\mu$ , and
- 202 • a target policy  $\pi$

203 such that Assumption 4.1 and 4.2 are satisfied, reweighting data by our average correction gives  
 204 unbiased estimation for any function  $f : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , that is,

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} [\mathbb{E}_{S \sim \mathcal{D}} [c_{\mathcal{D}}(S) f(S)]] = \mathbb{E}_{S \sim d_{\pi, \gamma}} [f(S)], \quad (10)$$

205 where  $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}$  means expectation over trajectories sampled under the behaviour policy, and  $\mathbb{E}_{S \sim \mathcal{D}}$  rep-  
 206 resenting sampling states uniformly from the dataset.

207 This theorem holds because our estimator equals the ratio of an unbiased and consistent estimation  
 208 of the discounted target distribution, denoted as  $\hat{d}_{\pi, \gamma}(s) = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{j \geq 0} \gamma^j \rho_{0:j-1}^i \mathbb{1}[S_j^i = s]$  to  
 209 the sampling distribution from the dataset, denoted as  $\hat{d}(s) = \frac{\sum_{t=0}^{n-1} \mathbb{1}[S_t = s]}{n}$ . Therefore, as long  
 210 as we can calculate our estimator, the distribution shift can be solved.

## 211 5 AVG-DICE Algorithm

212 In this section, we work on how to evaluate our derived estimator  $c_{\mathcal{D}}(s)$ . Our estimator averages the  
 213 corresponding discounted IS-ratio products for a state  $s$ . However, in high-dimensional state spaces,  
 214 direct averaging by state counting is infeasible. Thus, we propose to approximate the expectation of  
 215 discounted IS-ratio products via regression.

216 We first introduce our regression losses and propose the AVG-DICE algorithm. Then, we show  
 217 that with linear function approximation, incrementally updating our loss results in a convergent  
 218 algorithm. The fixed point of this update corresponds to minimizing the mean squared error (MSE)  
 219 to the true density ratio with regularization.

### 220 5.1 Loss

221 We learn our estimator as a ratio model by minimizing the least squares error. Solving least squares  
 222 regression with Markovian data is well studied but generally requires more samples compared to  
 223 i.i.d. learning tasks (Nagaraj et al. 2020). In our setup, the ratio model takes states as inputs and  
 224 is trained by minimizing the mean squared error between its output  $f_{\theta}(s_t)$  and its corresponding  
 225 regression target  $\gamma^{\text{time}_t} \rho_{\text{prod},t}$ . In this case, the ratio is estimated by  $\frac{n}{K} (1 - \gamma) f_{\theta}(s)$ . The expected  
 226 discounted cumulative return can be estimated by

$$\hat{J}(\pi) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} \frac{n}{K} (1 - \gamma) f_{\theta}(S_t) R_t. \quad (11)$$



227 In the regression with a fixed dataset, a parameter regularization is usually added to avoid overfitting.  
 228 Our algorithm also uses  $\frac{\lambda_1 \|\theta\|_2^2}{2}$  to regularize, where  $\lambda_1$  is the regularization parameter.  
 229 Meanwhile, same as GradientDice, the learnt ratio should ensure that  $\sum_s d_\mu(s) \frac{n}{K} (1 - \gamma) f_\theta(s) \approx$   
 230  $\sum_s d_\mu(s) \frac{d_{\pi, \gamma}(s)}{d_\mu(s)} = 1$ . So our algorithm further regularizes by the loss  $\frac{\lambda_2}{2} (\sum_s d_\mu(s) \frac{n}{K} (1 - \gamma) f_\theta(s) -$   
 231  $1)^2$ , called the *distribution regularization*. An expectation in a square loss cannot be estimated  
 232 unbiasedly using samples. Thus, this regularization term is re-written by the Fenchel conjugate as

$$\lambda_2 (\max_{\eta \in \mathbb{R}} \mathbb{E}_{s \sim d_\mu} [\eta \frac{n}{K} (1 - \gamma) f_\theta(s) - \eta] - \frac{\eta^2}{2}). \quad (12)$$

233 The loss given a dataset  $\mathcal{D}$  is written as

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(\theta; \mathcal{D}) := & \mathbb{E}_{S_t \sim \mathcal{D}} \left[ \frac{1}{2} (f_\theta(S_t) - \gamma_t^{\text{time}} \rho_{\text{prod}, t})^2 \right] + \frac{\lambda_1 \|\theta\|_2^2}{2} \\ & + \lambda_2 \left( \max_{\eta \in \mathbb{R}} \mathbb{E}_{S_t \sim \mathcal{D}} [\eta \frac{n}{K} (1 - \gamma) f_\theta(S_t) - \eta] - \frac{\eta^2}{2} \right). \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

## 234 5.2 Convergence Analysis

235 This section focuses on the linear function approximation with  $f_\theta(s) = \phi(s)^\top \theta$ , where  $\phi(s) \in \mathbb{R}^d$   
 236 is a given state feature and  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is the parameter. We denote  $\Phi \in \mathbb{R}^{|S| \times d}$  as the feature matrix,  
 237 where each row corresponds to the feature vector of a particular state  $s$ .

238 At each step  $t$ , the agent takes an action according to the behaviour policy at state  $s_t$ . If the tra-  
 239 jectory terminates, the agent restarts according to the initial distribution. The algorithm updates the  
 240 parameters  $\theta$  and  $\eta$  in our distribution regularization at each step with the newly collected transi-  
 241 tion following our loss shown in Equation 13. The regression target, denoted by  $y_t = \gamma_t^{\text{time}} \rho_{\text{prod}, t}$ ,  
 242 equals to the discounted IS-ratio products computing using the state's current trajectory, where  $\text{time}_t$   
 243 represents the step of the state in its current trajectory and  $\rho_{\text{prod}, t} = \rho_{0:\text{time}_t - 1}$ .

244 Instead of using a running scalar of  $\frac{t}{K}$  in the loss, we evaluate an average trajectory length  $H$  at the  
 245 beginning and keep it fixed. This fixed multiplier simplifies the proof. We hypothesize that using the  
 246 original one  $\frac{t}{K}$  converges as well but with high probability instead of almost surely, since  $\frac{t}{K}$  may  
 247 not be bounded for all  $t \in \mathbb{N}$ . However, both two scalars are estimating the average trajectory length  
 248  $\mathbb{E}_\mu[T]$  and are close.

249 The update rule is

$$\eta_{t+1} = \eta_t + \alpha_t \lambda_2 (H(1 - \gamma) \phi(s_t)^\top \theta_t - 1 - \eta_t). \quad (14)$$

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \alpha_t (\phi(s_t) (\phi(s_t)^\top \theta_t - y_t) + \lambda_2 \eta_t H(1 - \gamma) \phi(s_t) + \lambda_1 \theta_t), \quad (15)$$

where  $\alpha_t$  is the learning rate. We combine the system of equations into

$$d_{t+1} = d_t + \alpha_t (G_{t+1} d_t + g_{t+1}),$$

where  $d_{t+1} = \begin{bmatrix} \theta_{t+1} \\ \eta_{t+1} \end{bmatrix}$  denotes the concatenation of parameters, and update matrices are

$$G_{t+1} = \begin{bmatrix} -\phi(s_t) \phi(s_t)^\top - \lambda_1 I & -\lambda_2 H(1 - \gamma) \phi(s_t) \\ \lambda_2 H(1 - \gamma) \phi(s_t) & -\lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } g_{t+1} = \begin{bmatrix} \phi(s_t) y_t \\ -\lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

250 **Assumption 5.1.** 1.  $\Phi$  has linearly independent columns.

251 2. Each feature vector  $\phi(s)$  has its L2-norm bounded by  $L$ .

252 3. The behaviour policy  $\mu$  induces an irreducible Markov chain on  $S$  and moreover, for all  $(s, a) \in$   
 253  $S \times \mathcal{A}$ ,  $\mu(a|s) > 0$  if  $\pi(a|s) > 0$ .

254 4. The stepsize sequence  $\{\alpha_t\}$  is deterministic and eventually nonincreasing, and satisfies  $\alpha_t \in$   
 255  $(0, 1]$ ,  $\sum_t \alpha_t = \infty$ , and  $\sum_t \alpha_t^2 < \infty$ .



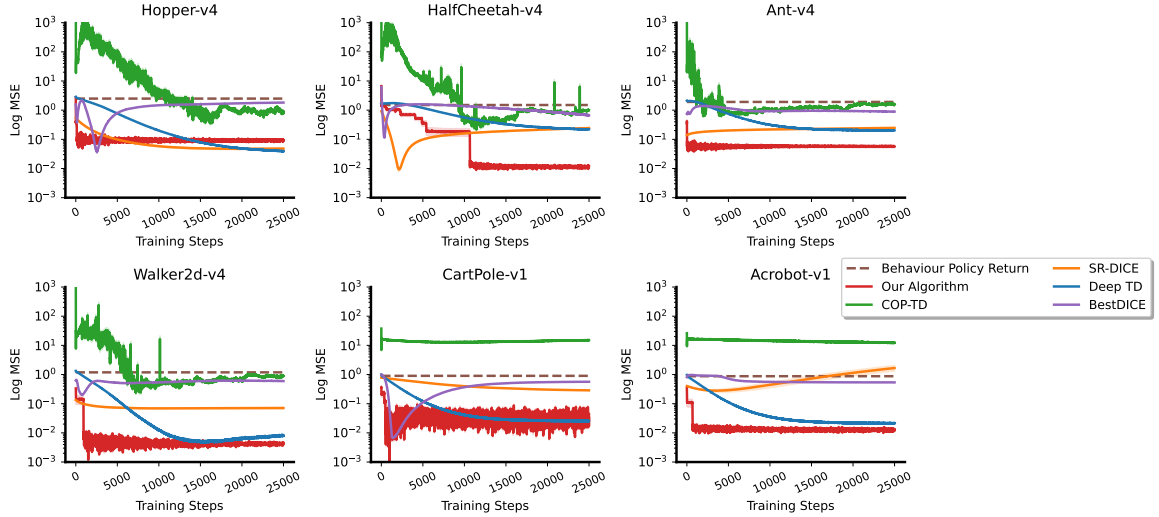


Figure 1: This figure presents the mean square error of estimating the objective  $J(\pi)$  in the log scale for each task. Our method, as the red line, shows dominant behaviour on most tasks and comparable behaviour on Hopper and CartPole.

These four assumptions are also assumed for ETD convergence analysis and are common for analyzing the asymptotic behaviours of linear update rules.

Define two matrices

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} -\Phi^\top D_\mu \Phi - \lambda_1 I & -\lambda_2 H(1-\gamma)\Phi^\top d_\mu \\ \lambda_2 H(1-\gamma)d_\mu^\top \Phi & -\lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ and } g = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{(1-\gamma)\mathbb{E}_\mu[T]}\Phi^\top D_\mu y \\ -\lambda_2 \end{bmatrix},$$

where  $y \in \mathbb{R}^S$  denotes the density ratio  $\frac{d_{\pi,\gamma}(s)}{d_\mu(s)}$ .

Incremental updates under our losses give convergence with linear function approximation. The proof follows the convergence analysis of ETD and is presented in Appendix B. Intuitively, our correction gives a consistent estimator with variance controlled by the discount factor, and thus, the convergence follows.

**Theorem 5.2.** *Based on Assumption 4.2 and 5.1, we have*

$$d_t \rightarrow -G^{-1}g \text{ a.s.} \quad (16)$$

which gives the same fixed point for minimizing the mean square error to the true density ratio,

which is  $\mathbb{E}_{S_t \sim \mathcal{D}} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \left( f_{\theta_{mse}}(S_t) - \frac{1}{(1-\gamma)\mathbb{E}_\mu[T]} \frac{d_{\pi,\gamma}(S_t)}{d_\mu(S_t)} \right)^2 \right]$  with the same regularizations.

## 6 Experiments

We perform OPE on classic control and MuJoCo (Todorov et al. 2012) tasks to evaluate our method and compare it with other distribution correctors, including COP-TD, BestDice, and SR-DICE. Additionally, we include two simple baselines: the average reward, which represents the objective under the behaviour policy, and off-policy TD. In these OPE tasks, the target policy is trained using PPO (Schulman et al. 2017), which can achieve high-performing policies; for example, the agent for CartPole receives above 410 return, close to the optimal return of 500. For discrete actions, the behaviour policy is a combination of the target policy and the uniform random policy. For continuous actions, the behaviour policy is obtained by increasing the variance of the Gaussian target policy.

The hyperparameters are tuned using a dataset with 4000 transitions coming from trajectories each of length 100. The discount factor is fixed at 0.95, which is a common choice. The random policy weights 0.3 in the behaviour policy for discrete-action tasks, and the variance is doubled for continuous-action tasks. We selected the combination of hyperparameters that yields the lowest ob-

jective estimation error, averaged across all tasks. The results are averaged among 10 seeds, and the variance is tiny due to similar rewards received per step for each run.

Our results in Figure 1 show that most of the existing methods underperform compared to off-policy TD, confirming prior work (Fujimoto et al. 2021). Only SR-DICE, in the orange line, can give comparable behaviour. Our method, as the red line, shows dominant behaviour on most tasks and comparable behaviour on Hopper and CartPole. More surprisingly, it gives the fastest convergence to a stable low error. Also, in Figure 1, our method is tuned specifically to the trajectory length, the randomness of the behaviour policy, the size of the dataset, and the discount factor, which gives a small advantage to our algorithm. Thus, in the next step, we test out the robustness against more settings, as illustrated in Figure 2. This figure presents the results of the Walker task, while results for other tasks are provided in Appendix C.

The top-left subfigure of Figure 2 examines robustness against different discount factors. Our algorithm proves less robust to changes in the discount factor and loses its leading performance, yielding worse results than TD and SR-DICE. Because altering the discount factor significantly changes the regression targets for the entire dataset, it is reasonable that our method would require re-tuning for each discount factor to achieve optimal performance.

When the discount factor is fixed at 0.95, our method generally maintains a dominant or at least comparable performance relative to other baselines, except in Acrobot and Hopper. In Acrobot, it still outperforms other density-ratio estimators in most settings and is on par with TD; in Hopper, both our method and SR-DICE perform similarly to TD. Also, an ablation study without the distribution regularization is given in Appendix C.

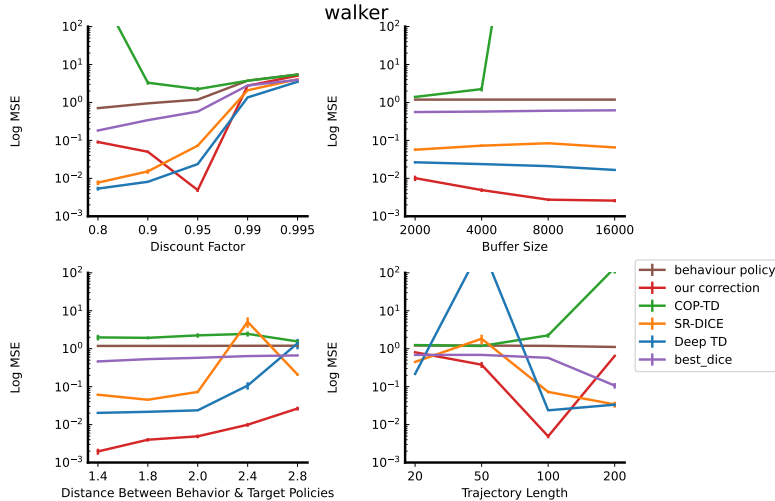


Figure 2: We evaluate the robustness of our method under varying dataset sizes, trajectory lengths, behaviour policies, and discount factors. This figure presents the results of the Walker task. Our algorithm is less robust only to changes in the discount factor and excessively long trajectory length.

## 7 Conclusion

We introduced AVG-DICE, a novel regression-based estimator for the stationary state density ratio. Our key contributions include deriving an alternative form of the state density ratio, proposing a novel distribution corrector and designing the learning algorithm for our distribution corrector. Furthermore, we showed that incremental updates converge under linear function approximation, demonstrating that the resulting fixed point coincides with the minimum MSE solution to the true ratio up to regularization. Empirical results on discrete and continuous tasks confirmed that AVG-DICE provides stable and accurate off-policy evaluation. Looking forward, integrating this density ratio correction into policy gradient algorithms could address distribution mismatches more effectively than current conservative policy updates.

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## Supplementary Materials

*The following content was not necessarily subject to peer review.*

### Appendix A: Derivation of Our Distribution Corrector

#### Proof of the Consistency Theorem

We first present a theorem used for the proof.

**Theorem 7.1** (Theorem 1.0.2 Ergodic theorem, Norris (1998)). *Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be an irreducible and positive recurrent Markov decision process for all policies. Then, for each state  $s$ ,*

$$\mathbb{P} \left( \frac{\sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \mathbb{1}[S_t = s]}{T} \rightarrow \frac{1}{\mathbb{E}[\tau_s^+(s)]} \text{ as } T \rightarrow \infty \right) = 1.$$

Next, we present our main theorem and show that our correction term equals the distribution ratio,  $\frac{d_{\pi, \gamma}(s)}{d_{\mu}(s)}$  and thus, this term successfully corrects the state distribution shift.

**Theorem 7.2** (Consistency). *Given*

- *a finite Markov decision process,*
- *a dataset  $\mathcal{D}$  collected under a behaviour policy  $\mu$ , and*
- *a target policy  $\pi$*

*such that Assumption 4.1 is satisfied, then for state  $s$  with*

$$d_{\pi, \gamma}(s) > 0,$$

*we have the density ratio equal*

$$\frac{d_{\pi, \gamma}(s)}{d_{\mu}(s)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{K} (1 - \gamma) \mathbb{E}_{t \sim I_s} [\gamma^{\text{time}_t} \rho_{\text{prod}, t}]. \quad (17)$$

**Proof. Reformulate the RHS.**

When sampling  $t \sim I_s$  uniformly, the probability equals  $\frac{\mathbb{1}[S_t = s]}{\sum_{k=1}^n \mathbb{1}[S_k = s]}$ . Furthermore,

$$\frac{n}{K} (1 - \gamma) \mathbb{E}_{t \sim I_s} [\gamma^{\text{time}_t} \rho_{\text{prod}, t}] = \frac{n}{K} (1 - \gamma) \sum_{t=1}^n \frac{\mathbb{1}[S_t = s] \gamma^{\text{time}_t} \rho_{\text{prod}, t}}{\sum_{k=1}^n \mathbb{1}[S_k = s]} \quad (18)$$

$$= (1 - \gamma) \frac{n}{\sum_{t=0}^{n-1} \mathbb{1}[S_t = s]} \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{j \geq 0} \mathbb{1}[S_j^i = s] \gamma^j \rho_{0:j-1}^i. \quad (19)$$

Note that  $n$  is the number of transitions, and  $K$  is the number of trajectories.

Define two functions:

$$g_n(s) = \frac{n}{\sum_{t=0}^{n-1} \mathbb{1}[S_t = s]}. \quad (20)$$

$$f_n(s) = (1 - \gamma) \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{j \geq 0} \mathbb{1}[S_j^i = s] \gamma^j \rho_{0:j-1}^i. \quad (21)$$

Note that

$$\frac{n}{K} (1 - \gamma) \mathbb{E}_{t \sim I_s} [\gamma^{\text{time}_t} \rho_{\text{prod}, t}] = g_n(s) f_n(s). \quad (22)$$

**Prove the irreducibility.** When studying states with non-negative discounted stationary distribution values under the target policy  $\pi$ , they can form an irreducible set with restarts.

$d_{\pi,\gamma}(s) > 0$  implies that  $d_\mu(s) > 0$ . Thus,

$$\mathbb{P}_\mu(S_j = s, \text{ for some } j > 0 \text{ and } j < T) > 0.$$

394 Meanwhile, we have  $\mathbb{P}_\mu(S_j = s, \text{ for some } j > 0 | S_0 = s) > 0$  for episodic tasks. Thus, with  
 395 restarts, given any two states  $s$  and  $s'$  with positive stationary distribution values,

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{P}_\mu(S_j = s' | S_0 = s) \\ & > \mathbb{P}_\mu(S_j = s, \text{ for some } j > 0 | S_0 = s) \mathbb{P}_\mu(S_j = s', \text{ for some } j > 0 \text{ and } j < T) \\ & > 0. \end{aligned}$$

396 **Prove the positive recurrence.** Note that a finite and irreducible Markov chain is positive recurrent.

397 **Prove the infinite number of trajectories.** By Assumption 4.2, the termination state is positive  
 398 recurrent and is visited infinitely many times as the step  $n$  goes to zero. Thus, there are infinitely  
 399 many trajectories.

400 **Compute the almost sure limit of two functions.** The function  $g_n(s)$  is proven to converge to  
 401  $g(s) = \mathbb{E}_\mu[\tau_s^+(s)]$  by the ergodic theorem.

402 Apparently,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(s) = \lim_{K \rightarrow \infty} (1 - \gamma) \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{j \geq 0} \mathbb{1}[S_j = s] \gamma^j \rho_{0:j-1}$ . By the central  
 403 limit theorem, we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(s) = \mathbb{E}_\mu \left[ (1 - \gamma) \sum_{j \geq 0} \mathbb{1}[S_j = s] \gamma^j \rho_{0:j-1} \right] = d_{\pi,\gamma}(s). \quad (23)$$

404 Thus,

$$L.H.S = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g_n(s) f_n(s) \quad (24)$$

$$= g(s) f(s) \quad (25)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_\mu[\tau_s^+(s)] d_{\pi,\gamma}(s) \quad (26)$$

$$= \frac{d_{\pi,\gamma}(s)}{d_\mu(s)}. \quad (27)$$

405 The last line follows Lemma 2.1, and the proof is completed.  $\square$

#### 406 Proof of the Unbiasedness

407 **Theorem 7.3** (Unbiasedness). *Given*

- 408 • a finite Markov decision process,
- 409 • a dataset  $\mathcal{D}$  collected under a behaviour policy  $\mu$ , and
- 410 • a target policy  $\pi$

411 such that Assumption 4.1 is satisfied, reweighting data by our average correction gives unbiased  
 412 estimation for any function  $f : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , that is,

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} [\mathbb{E}_{S \sim \mathcal{D}} [c_{\mathcal{D}}(S) f(S)]] = \mathbb{E}_{S \sim d_{\pi,\gamma}} [f(S)], \quad (28)$$

413 where  $\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}}$  means expectation over trajectories sampled under the behaviour policy, and  $\mathbb{E}_{S \sim \mathcal{D}}$  rep-  
 414 resenting sampling states uniformly from the dataset.

415 *Proof.* Denote the sampling distribution from the dataset as  $\hat{d}(s) = \frac{\sum_{t=0}^{n-1} \mathbb{1}[S_t = s]}{n}$ .

416 As proven in Corollary 4.3 in Equation 22,

$$c_{\mathcal{D}}(S) = \frac{1}{\hat{d}(s)} (1 - \gamma) \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{j \geq 0} \mathbb{1}[S_j^i = s] \gamma^j \rho_{0:j-1}^i. \quad (29)$$

417 Thus,  $\mathbb{E}_{S \sim \mathcal{D}} [c_{\mathcal{D}}(S) f(S)] = \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} f(s) (1 - \gamma) \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{j \geq 0} \mathbb{1}[S_j^i = s] \gamma^j \rho_{0:j-1}^i$ .

418 After taking expectation over all  $K$  trajectories, we have

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathcal{D}} \left[ \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} f(s) (1 - \gamma) \frac{1}{K} \sum_{i=1}^K \sum_{j \geq 0} \mathbb{1}[S_j^i = s] \gamma^j \rho_{0:j-1}^i \right] \quad (30)$$

$$= \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} f(s) (1 - \gamma) \sum_{j \geq 0} \gamma^j \mathbb{P}_{\pi}(S_j = s) \quad (31)$$

$$= \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} f(s) d_{\pi, \gamma}(s). \quad (32)$$

419

□

## 420 Appendix B: Asymptotic Convergence

421 We first introduce and prove the necessary lemmas. The proof of the convergence theorem is given  
422 in the second subsection.

### 423 Proof of the Required Lemma

424 Denote the number of trajectories until step  $t$  by  $K(t)$ . Recall our update rule is  $d_{t+1} = d_t +$

425  $\alpha_t(G_{t+1}d_t + g_{t+1})$  where  $d_{t+1} = \begin{bmatrix} \theta_{t+1} \\ \eta_{t+1} \end{bmatrix}$ ,  $G_{t+1} = \begin{bmatrix} -\phi(s_t)\phi(s_t)^\top - \lambda_1 I & -\lambda_2 H(1 - \gamma)\phi(s_t) \\ \lambda_2 H(1 - \gamma)\phi(s_t) & -\lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}$ ,

426 and  $g_{t+1} = \begin{bmatrix} \phi(s_t)y_t \\ -\lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}$ .

427 **Lemma 7.4.** Define two matrices  $G = \begin{bmatrix} -\Phi^\top D_\mu \Phi - \lambda_1 I & -\lambda_2 H(1 - \gamma)\Phi^\top d_\mu \\ \lambda_2 H(1 - \gamma)d_\mu^\top \Phi & -\lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $g =$

428  $\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{(1-\gamma)\mathbb{E}_\mu[T]} \Phi^\top D_\mu y \\ -\lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}$ .

429 When Assumption 4.2 and 5.1 are satisfied, we have

430 1.  $\frac{1}{t+1} \sum_{k=0}^{t+1} G_k \rightarrow G$  a.s. , and  $\frac{1}{t+1} \sum_{k=0}^{t+1} g_k \rightarrow g$  a.s. and in  $L1$ , as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ .

431 2. The real parts of all eigenvalues of  $G$  are strictly negative.

432 *Proof.* **Let's prove the first point about almost sure convergence.** We will prove the convergence  
433 of each sub-matrix separately.

434 Note that the ergodic theorem gives that the convergence of the top-left sub-matrix of  $G_t$  as

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{t+1} \sum_{k=0}^{t+1} -\phi(s_k)\phi(s_k)^\top - \lambda_1 I \\ & \xrightarrow{t \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} -d_\mu(s)\phi(s)\phi(s)^\top - \lambda_1 I \\ & = -\Phi^\top D_\mu \Phi - \lambda_1 I. \end{aligned}$$

435 Similar convergence can be gained for the term  $\lambda_2 H(1 - \gamma)\phi(s_t)$  by the ergodic theorem as well.

436 Combining these two results, we gain the almost sure convergence of  $G_t$ .



437 Now we analyze the term  $y_t \phi(s_t) = \sum_s \phi(s) \sum_{i \in I_s(t)} y_i$  where  $I_s(t)$  denotes the showing up steps  
 438 for a state  $a$  until step  $t$ . It can be further expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{t+1} \sum_{k=0}^t y_t \phi(s_t) \\ &= \sum_s \frac{K(t)}{t+1} \phi(s) \frac{1}{1-\gamma} (1-\gamma) \frac{1}{K(t)} \sum_{i \in I_s(t)} y_i \\ &\rightarrow \frac{1}{1-\gamma} \sum_s d_{\pi, \gamma}(s) \phi(s) \frac{1}{\mathbb{E}_\mu[T]} \\ &= \frac{1}{(1-\gamma)\mathbb{E}_\mu[T]} \sum_s d_\mu(s) \frac{d_{\pi, \gamma}(s)}{d_\mu(s)} \phi(s). \end{aligned}$$

439 Note that the third line uses the convergence of  $\frac{K(t)}{t+1}$  to  $\frac{1}{\mathbb{E}_\mu[T]}$ .  $K(t)$  goes to infinity as  $t \rightarrow \infty$  since  
 440 the recurrence time for the termination state has a finite expectation by Assumption 4.2. Similarly,  
 441 the ergodic theorem implies the almost sure convergence of  $\frac{t+1}{K(t)}$  to  $\mathbb{E}_\mu[T]$ .

442 Furthermore, by central limit theorem,  $(1-\gamma) \frac{1}{K(t)} \sum_{i \in I_s(t)} y_i$  converges to  $d_{\pi, \gamma}(s)$ . Since the  
 443 limits of these two terms are bounded, the limit of the product converges to the product of limits.

444 For the L1-convergence, we analyze the expectation of  $y_t \phi(s_t)$ . Define  $T_{K(t)}$  as the termination step  
 445 of  $K(t)$ -th trajectory.

$$\frac{1}{t+1} \sum_{k=0}^{t+1} \mathbb{E}_\mu[y_t \phi(s_t)] \quad (33)$$

$$= \frac{1}{t+1} \sum_{k=0}^{t+1} \gamma^t \mathbb{P}_\pi(S_t = s) \phi(s) \quad (34)$$

$$= \sum_s \frac{K(t)}{t+1} \phi(s) \frac{1}{1-\gamma} (1-\gamma) \frac{1}{K(t)} [K(t) \sum_{j \geq 0} \gamma^j \mathbb{P}_\pi(S_j = s) + \sum_{j=0}^{t-T_{K(t)}} \gamma^j \mathbb{P}_\pi(S_j = s)] \quad (35)$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{1}{(1-\gamma)\mathbb{E}_\mu[T]} \sum_s d_\mu(s) \frac{d_{\pi, \gamma}(s)}{d_\mu(s)} \phi(s). \quad (36)$$

446 Note that  $\frac{1}{K(t)} \sum_{j=0}^{t-T_{K(t)}} \gamma^j \mathbb{P}_\pi(S_j = s) \rightarrow 0$  as  $K(t) \rightarrow \infty$  and  $t \rightarrow \infty$ .

447 **Let's prove the second point about eigenvalues.**

448 Let  $\vartheta \in \mathbb{C}$ ,  $\vartheta \neq 0$  be a nonzero eigenvalue of  $G$  with normalized eigenvector  $x$ , that is  $x^* x = 1$ ,  
 449 where  $x^*$  is the complex conjugate of  $x$ . Hence,  $x^* G x = \vartheta$ ,  $x \neq 0$ . Let  $x^\top = (x_1^\top, x_2^\top)$ , where  
 450  $x_1 \in \mathbb{C}^d$  and  $x_2 \in \mathbb{C}$ . We can verify that

$$\vartheta = -x_1^* (\Phi^\top D_\mu \Phi + \lambda_1 I) x_1 + \lambda_2 x_2^* H (1-\gamma) d_\mu^\top \Phi x_1 - \lambda_2 x_1^* H (1-\gamma) d_\mu \Phi^\top x_2 - \lambda_2 x_2^* x_2. \quad (37)$$

451 Since  $d_\mu^\top \Phi$  is real,  $\lambda_2 x_1^* H (1-\gamma) d_\mu \Phi^\top x_2 = (\lambda_2 x_2^* H (1-\gamma) d_\mu^\top \Phi x_1)^*$ . It yields that the real part  
 452 of their difference equals zero. Therefore, we have the real part of  $\vartheta$ , denoted by  $\mathcal{R}(\vartheta)$ , equals

$$\mathcal{R}(\vartheta) = -x_1^* (\Phi^\top D_\mu \Phi + \lambda_1 I) x_1 - \lambda_2 x_2^* x_2. \quad (38)$$

453 By the first point in Assumption 5.1, we have  $-x_1^* (\Phi^\top D_\mu \Phi + \lambda_1 I) x_1 \geq 0$ , where the equality holds  
 454 iff  $x_1 = 0$ . At least one of  $\{x_1, x_2\}$  is nonzero. Consequently, we have  $\mathcal{R}(\vartheta) < 0$ .  $\square$

455 **Proof of the Convergence**

456 **Theorem 7.5.** Based on Assumption 4.2 and 5.1, and Lemma 7.4, we have

$$d_t \rightarrow -G^{-1} g \text{ a.s.} \quad (39)$$

457 which is the same fixed point for minimizing the following mean square error loss in Equation 40.

458 The loss given a dataset  $\mathcal{D}$  to the true density ratio is written as

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\theta_{\text{mse}}} \mathcal{L}(\theta_{\text{mse}}; \mathcal{D}) := & \mathbb{E}_{s_t \sim \mathcal{D}} \left[ \left( f_{\theta_{\text{mse}}}(s_t) - \frac{1}{(1-\gamma)\mathbb{E}_{\mu}[T]} \frac{d_{\pi, \gamma}(s_t)}{d_{\mu}(s_t)} \right)^2 \right] + \frac{\lambda_1 \|\theta_{\text{mse}}\|_2^2}{2} \\ & + \lambda_2 \left( \max_{\eta \in \mathbb{R}} \mathbb{E}_{s_t \sim \mathcal{D}} [\eta \frac{n}{K} (1-\gamma) f_{\theta_{\text{mse}}}(s_t) - \eta] - \frac{\eta^2}{2} \right). \end{aligned} \quad (40)$$

459 *Proof.* First, we can verify some properties on our labels. Based on these properties and L1-  
460 convergence of  $\frac{1}{t+1} \sum_{k=0}^t g_k$ , we conclude that our label  $(y_t, \phi(s_t)y_t)$  gives a unique invariant  
461 probability and is ergodic.

462 The proof is the same as the corresponding proofs of (Yu, 2012, Theorem 3.2 and Prop. 3.2) for the  
463 case of off-policy LSTD.

- 464 1. For any initial value of  $\rho_{0:-1}$ ,  $\sup_{t \geq 0} \mathbb{E}[\|(y_t, \phi(s_t)y_t)\|] < \infty$ .
- 465 2. Let  $(y_t, \phi(s_t)y_t)$  and  $(\hat{y}_t, \phi(s_t)\hat{y}_t)$  be defined by the same recursion and the same random  
466 variables, but with different initial conditions  $\rho_{0:-1} \neq \hat{\rho}_{0:-1}$ . Then,  $y_t - \hat{y}_t \rightarrow 0$  a.s. and  
467  $\phi(s_t)y_t - \phi(s_t)\hat{y}_t \rightarrow 0$  a.s..
- 468 3.  $Z_t = (S_t, A_t, y_t, \phi(s_t)y_t)$  is a weak Feller Markov chain and bounded in probability.

469 The proof follows ETD, since  $y_t = \gamma^{\text{time}_t} \rho_{\text{prod}, t}$  is a term in the ETD traces. For the second term,  
470 the difference between traces with different initializations for our correction and ETD is the same,  
471 so their proof also works here. The proof for the third claim follows the ETD paper.

472 Three conditions are required to use Theorem 6.1.1 in Kushner and Yin (2003) and follow the ETD  
473 proof (Theorem 4.1). Define  $\xi_t = (y_t, S_t, A_t, S_{t+1})$  and  $h(d, \xi_t) = G_t d + g_t$ .

1.

$$\frac{1}{t+1} \sum_{k=0}^t G_k \rightarrow G \text{ and } \frac{1}{t+1} \sum_{k=0}^t g_k \rightarrow g \text{ almost surely.} \quad (41)$$

- 474 2. There exist nonnegative measurable functions  $g_1(d)$ ,  $g_2(\xi)$  such that  $\|h(d, \xi)\| \leq$   
475  $g_1(d)g_2(\xi)$  such that  $g_1(d)$  is bounded on each bounded set,  $\sum_{t \geq 0} \mathbb{E}[g_2(\xi)] < \infty$ , and  
476  $\frac{1}{t+1} \sum_{k=0}^t (g_2(\xi_k) - \mathbb{E}[g_2(\xi_k)]) \rightarrow 0$  almost surely.
- 477 3. There exist nonnegative measurable functions  $g_3(d)$ ,  $g_4(\xi)$  such that for each  $d$  and  $d'$ ,  $\|h(d, \xi) -$   
478  $h(d', \xi)\| \leq g_3(d-d')g_4(\xi)$  such that  $g_3(d)$  is bounded on each bounded set,  $g_3(d) \rightarrow 0$  as  $d \rightarrow 0$ ,  
479  $\sum_{t \geq 0} \mathbb{E}[g_4(\xi)] < \infty$ , and  $\frac{1}{t+1} \sum_{k=0}^t (g_4(\xi_k) - \mathbb{E}[g_4(\xi_k)]) \rightarrow 0$  almost surely.

480 In our proof, the function  $h(d, \xi)$  equals

$$h(d, \xi) = \begin{bmatrix} -\phi(s)\phi(s)^\top - \lambda_1 I & -\lambda_2 H(1-\gamma)\phi(s_t) \\ \lambda_2 H(1-\gamma)\phi(s_t) & -\lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} d + \begin{bmatrix} \phi(s)y \\ -\lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (42)$$

481 Then, for the second and third points, we first bound the norm of the matrix as followings.

$$\left\| \begin{bmatrix} -\phi(s)\phi(s)^\top - \lambda_1 I & -\lambda_2 H(1-\gamma)\phi(s_t) \\ \lambda_2 H(1-\gamma)\phi(s_t) & -\lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \right\| \quad (43)$$

$$\leq \left\| \begin{bmatrix} -\phi(s)\phi(s)^\top - \lambda_1 I & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\| + \left\| \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\lambda_2 H(1-\gamma)\phi(s_t) \\ \lambda_2 H(1-\gamma)\phi(s_t) & -\lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \right\| \quad (44)$$

$$\leq \|-\phi(s)\phi(s)^\top - \lambda_1 I\| + \sqrt{2} \|\lambda_2 H(1-\gamma)\phi(s_t)\|^2 + \lambda_2 \quad (45)$$

$$\leq L^2 + \lambda_1 + \sqrt{2} \lambda_2 H(1-\gamma)L + \lambda_2. \quad (46)$$

$$\|h(d, \xi)\| \leq \left\| \begin{bmatrix} -\phi(s)\phi(s)^\top - \lambda_1 I & -\lambda_2 H(1-\gamma)\phi(s_t) \\ \lambda_2 H(1-\gamma)\phi(s_t) & -\lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \right\| \|d\| + \left\| \begin{bmatrix} \phi(s)y \\ -\lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \right\| \quad (47)$$

$$\leq (L^2 + \lambda_1 + \sqrt{2}\lambda_2 H(1-\gamma)L + \lambda_2) \|d\| + (\|\phi(s)y\| \lambda_2) \quad (48)$$

$$\leq (L^2 + \lambda_1 + \sqrt{2}\lambda_2 H(1-\gamma)L + \lambda_2 + Ly)(\|d\| + 1). \quad (49)$$

482 Thus,  $g_1(d) = (\|d\| + 1)$  and  $g_2(\xi) = L^2 + \lambda_1 + \sqrt{2}\lambda_2 H(1-\gamma)L + \lambda_2 + Ly$ .

483 We can bound the function norm using the matrix norm bound in Equation 46.

$$\|h(d, \xi) - h(d', \xi)\| \leq \left\| \begin{bmatrix} -\phi(s)\phi(s)^\top - \lambda_1 I & -\lambda_2 H(1-\gamma)\phi(s_t) \\ \lambda_2 H(1-\gamma)\phi(s_t) & -\lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \right\| \|d - d'\| \quad (50)$$

$$\leq (L^2 + \lambda_1 + \sqrt{2}\lambda_2 H(1-\gamma)L + \lambda_2) \|d - d'\|. \quad (51)$$

484 Thus,  $g_3(d) = \|d\|$  and  $g_4(\xi) = L^2 + \lambda_1 + \sqrt{2}\lambda_2 H(1-\gamma)L + \lambda_2$  is a constant.

485 To show the fixed point is the same as minimizing the MSE to the true density ratio, we need to  
 486 repeat the convergence proof for the new loss. But the only change is in the regression target and all  
 487 other steps follow.  $\square$

## 488 Appendix C: Experimental Materials

489 The hyperparameters of COP-TD are tuned the same as our method in the setting of dataset size  
 490 4000, trajectory length 100, discount factor 0.95 and randomness coefficient 0.3 for discrete-action  
 491 tasks and 2.0 for continuous-action tasks. Only one combination of the hyperparameters is used for  
 492 all tasks.

493 For our algorithms, we test out the combination from parameter regularization coefficient  $\lambda_1 \in$   
 494  $[0, 0.001, 0.01, 0.1]$ , distribution regularization parameter  $\lambda_2 \in [0.5, 2, 10, 20]$ , and learning rate  
 495  $\alpha \in [0.00005, 0.0001, 0.0005, 0.001, 0.005]$ .

496 The neural network is set to be a two-hidden-layer neural network with hidden units 256, which is  
 497 the setting used by SR-DICE. The batch size is set the same as SR-DICE, equaling 512.

498 The final choice of hyperparameters is shown in Table 1.

Parameter Regularizer $\lambda_1$	0.001
Distribution Regularizer $\lambda_2$	0.5
Learning Rate	0.0005
Activation	ReLU

Table 1

## 499 Ablation Study

500 When training without the distribution regularization, the hyperparameters are also tuned with the  
 501 regularization coefficient fixed,  $\lambda_2 = 0$ . Notice that the training step is much fewer than Figure 1.  
 502 The results are plotted on a validation set. Without the distribution regularization, the ratio model is  
 503 not learning except on CartPole.

## 504 Robustness

505 The top-left subfigure of Figure 2 examines robustness against different discount factors. The main  
 506 message is that our algorithm proves less robust to changes in the discount factor and would require  
 507 re-tuning for each discount factor to achieve optimal performance. Our algorithm is robust to other  
 508 changes except for a trajectory length that is too long. Results for other tasks are presented in Figure  
 509 4 and 5 and the conclusion holds for all tasks.

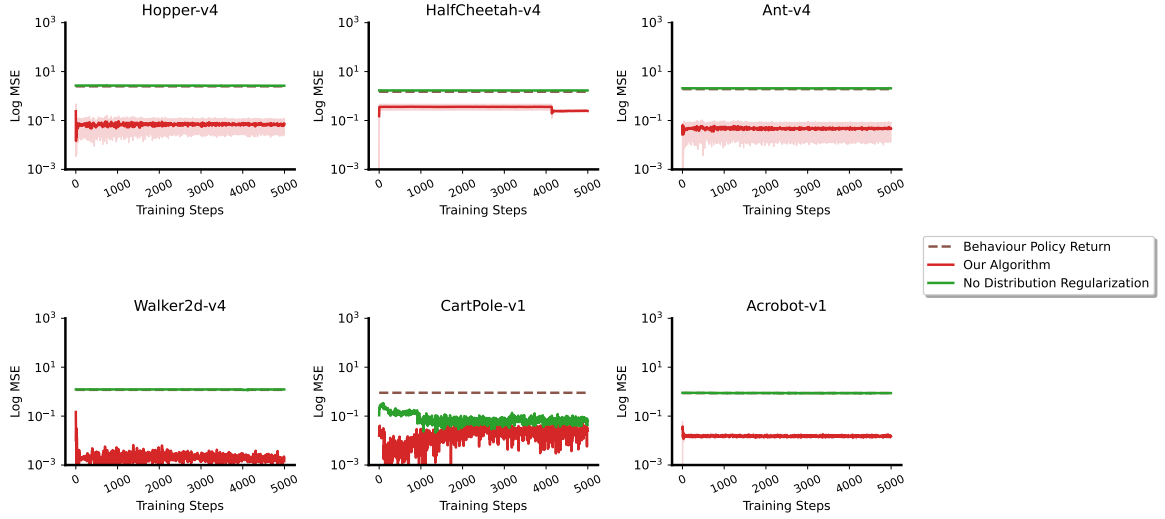


Figure 3: This figure presents the mean square error of estimating the objective  $J(\pi)$  in the log scale for each task. We present our method with and without the distribution regularization.

510 Turning to the bottom-right subfigure of Figure 2, performance degrades when the trajectory length  
 511 is set to 200. A similar phenomenon is observed in Hopper and HalfCheetah. We propose two  
 512 hypotheses for this drop. First, our method may struggle with very long trajectories, suggesting  
 513 that users might benefit from truncating trajectories since longer horizons lead to heavily discounted  
 514 and, thus, tiny labels. Second, the total dataset size is fixed at 4,000, so increasing the length  
 515 of each trajectory decreases the number of available trajectories. The approximation error decays  
 516 sublinearly with the number of trajectories; thus, fewer trajectories can hinder performance.

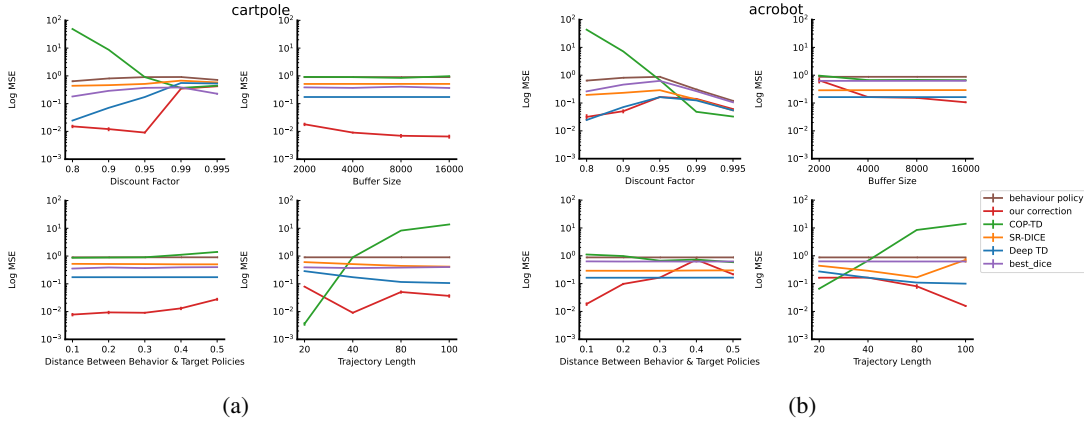


Figure 4: This figure shows the robustness results on discrete-action tasks.

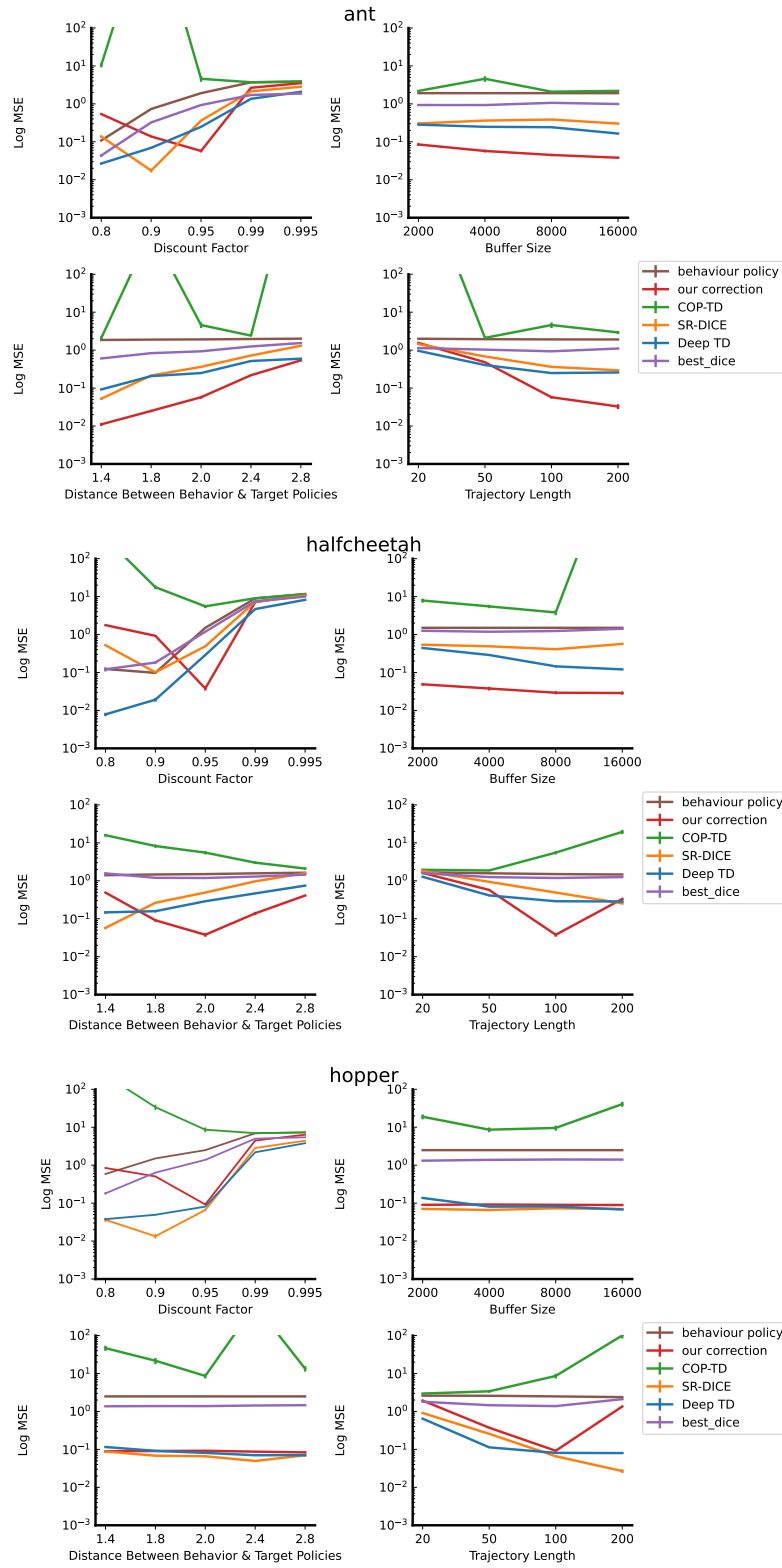


Figure 5: This figure shows the robustness results on continuous-action tasks.