

Reinforcement Learning

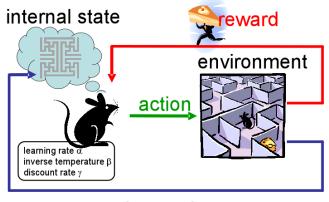
Zihao DENG Wenqian ZHAO

Department of Computer Science and Engineering
The Chinese University of Hong Kong



What is Reinforcement Learning:

different from either supervised or unsupervised learning



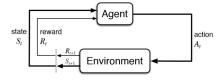
observation





What is Reinforcement Learning:

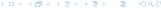
Background



- Agent: take actions
- Action: S set of possible moves that Agent can make
- Environment: input: state and action taken, output: reward
- Policy: the strategy for agent to take actions
- Discount factor: dampen to make discounted future reward
- goal: obtain strategy to optimize:

$$\sum_{t=0}^{t=\infty} \gamma_t r(x(t), a(t)) \tag{1}$$





- The MDP gives us a precise formulation of the environment, given a state st we select an action a_t and observe s_{t+1} and r_t according to the transition probabilities P:
 - S set of possible states
 - $s_t \in S$ state at step t
 - A set of possible actions
 - $a_t \in A$ selected action at step t
 - R Reward function. The reward at step t is given by $r_{t+1} = R(s_t, a_t, s_{t+1})$
 - ullet P transition probabilities such that $s_{t+1} \sim P(s|s_t,a_t)$, i.e.
 - ullet ho Initial state distribution such that $s_0 \sim
 ho(s)$
- Agent is defined with a policy function $\pi(a|s)$, mapping from states to actions and can be either deterministic or non-deterministic





- Given an MDP and a policy, an episode can be produced by repeating of:
 - $\bullet \ a_t \pi(a|s_t)$
 - \bullet $s_{t+1}P(s|s_t,a_t)$
 - $\bullet r_{t+1} = r(s_t, a_t, s_{t+1})$
- which produce:

$$\mathsf{episode} := s_0, a_0, r_1, s_1, a_1, r_1, ..., s_{\tau 1}, a_{\tau 1}, r_{\tau 1}, s_{\tau}$$

Optimal Solution gives:

$$\max_{\pi} E[\sum_{t=1}^{r} r_t] \tag{2}$$





Value function defined as :

$$V^{\pi}(s) = E_{\pi}[\sum_{t=1}^{\tau} r_t | s_0 = s]$$
(3)

$$V^*(s) = \max_{\pi} E_{\pi}[\sum_{t=1}^{r} r_t | s_0 = s]$$
 (4)

Bellman equation: A recursive relation for value function:

$$V^*(s) = \max_{a \in A} E[r_{t+1} + V^*(s_{t+1}) | s_t = s, a_t = a]$$
(5)

(TV)(s) is the Bellman operator and we can recursively calculate it and update V(s) (value iteration) to reach optimal (Monotonicity and Contraction mapping)

$$(TV)(s) = \max_{a \in A} E[r_{t+1} + V_{s_{t+1}}^* | s_t = s, a_t = t]$$
(6)

$$V_{k+1} = TV_k \tag{7}$$

> policy iteration use the same idea, but instead of updating value function, it update Policy π





▶ Another approach: State-Action Value Function: define a quantity $Q: S \times A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$:

$$Q^{\pi}(s,a) = \bar{R}(s,a) + \sum_{s' \in S}^{T} P_{s,a}(s') V^{\pi}(s')$$
 (8)

Recursively Calculate optimal by using Bellman Operator:

•
$$FQ(s,a) = \bar{R}(s,a) + \sum_{s' \in S}^{T} P_{s,a}(s') \max_{a' \in A} Q(s',a')$$

$$\bullet \ Q(s,a) = FQ(s,a)$$

Greedy action selection is simple:

$$\pi(s) = \arg\max_{a \in A} Q(s_t, a) \tag{9}$$





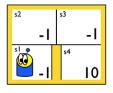
MDP vs RL

- Difference between Markov Decision Process and Reinforcement learning:
 - ullet MDP: the transition matrix P(s'|s,a) is known o used to find the optimal agent
 - RL: P(s'|s,a) unknown and need to be learned :
 - i. Iteracting with environment
 - ii. Requiring explicit knowledge of P
- But the same idea of state-action value function can be used for Reinforcement learning





- Q-learning:
 - i. Build a Q-table which stores Q(s,a) for each s and a (randomly initialized). i.e.



 $\alpha = .7$

	1	1	Î	\Rightarrow
S ₁	0	0	0	0
S ₂	0	0	0	0
S ₃	0	0	0	0
S ₄	0	0	0	0

Q-Table





Q-learning:

ii. update Q(s, a) with:

$$Q_{k+1} := (1 - \gamma_k)Q_k + \gamma_k(r + \max_{a' \in A} Q_k(s', a'))$$
(10)

where γ_k is the learning rate, with $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \gamma_k = \infty$ and $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \gamma_k^2 < \infty$:

$$Q_{k+1} = Q_k + \gamma_k (r + \max_{a' \in A} Q_k(s', a') - Q_k(s, a))$$
(11)

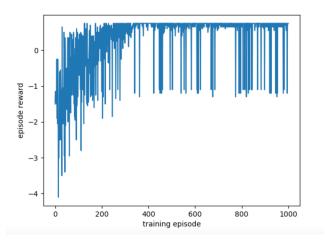
Q-learning Demo: maze 4*4





Q-learning result:

Reward of episodes of experiment on Maze game







Exploration: $\epsilon - greedy$

$$a_t = \begin{cases} \arg \max_{a \in A} Q_{s_t, a}, & \text{w.p. } 1 - \epsilon. \\ unif(A), & \text{w.p. } \epsilon. \end{cases}$$
 (12)

- SARSA:
 - update based on the current play (s, a, r, s', a')

$$Q_{k+1} = Q_k + \gamma_k(r + Q_k(s', a') - Q_k(s, a))$$
(13)

Similar to Q-learning but is On-policy





Deep Q-Networks

- Drawback of Q-learning and SARSA:
 - ullet Q-table can be too big if environment is complicate i.e. $10^6 \times 10^3$ maze
- Alternative Algorithm: DQN:
 - Use a function approximator to estimate action-value function with Q-Network
- Steps:
 - store transition(s_t , a_t , r_{t+1} , s_{t+1}) in memory
 - sample mini-batch of transitions, optimise MSE between Q-network and Q-learning targets:

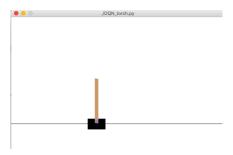
minimize
$$L_w = E_{s,a,r,s'}[(r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a'; w^-) - Q(s, a; w))^2]$$
 (14)

• Important tricks: experience replay and fixed target





Deep Q-Networks(DQN): play games in OpenAl gym



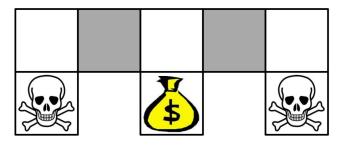
- States are represented by 4-element tuples (position, cart velocity, angle, tip velocity)
- Actions can be either moving left or right
- Function approximator is a feed foward neural network
- ▶ 1 hidden layer with 10 neurons, 2 output neurons representing value estimation for two actions
- Implemented using torch and tensorflow, can stay alive for 1 minute





Policy based method

What's wrong with value based methods?



- Main problem: deterministic policy
- No good for partially observable environment
- ► The agent cannot differentiate the grey states (Horizontally symmetric)
- An optimal deterministic will either go left or right
- In this case, if change starting point, the agent may not reach optimal:run





Policy Gradient: problem formulation

- ▶ Policy is a function of observation: $\pi_{\theta}(\cdot)$
- ▶ Trajectory τ : $\{s_0, a_0, r_0, s_1, a_1, r_1, ...\}$ is treated as random variable
- ▶ Distribution of τ is determined by policy π_{θ}
- For each trajectory, total reward is defined as $R(\tau)$
- Ultimate goal: optimize expectation $E_{\pi_{\theta}}[R(au)]$ w.r.t heta





Policy Gradient: approximate the gradient

What does the gradient look like?

$$\nabla_{\theta} E_{\pi_{\theta}}[R(\tau)] = \nabla_{\theta} \sum_{\tau} P_{\theta}(\tau) R(\tau)$$

$$= \sum_{\tau} \nabla_{\theta} P_{\theta}(\tau) R(\tau)$$

$$= \sum_{\tau} P_{\theta}(\tau) \frac{\nabla_{\theta} P_{\theta}(\tau)}{P_{\theta}(\tau)} R(\tau) = E_{\pi_{\theta}}[\nabla_{\theta} \ln P_{\theta}(\tau) R(\tau)]$$
(15)

- Equation 15 tell us: gradient can be represented as an expectation
- Why it is important: expectation can be approximated by sampling





Policy Gradient: approximate the gradient

Why the gradient even exists?

$$P(\tau) = P(s_0) \prod_{i=0}^{\infty} \pi_{\theta}(a_i, s_i) P(s_{i+1}|s_i, a_i)$$
(16)

Assumption: there is an underlying MDP specifying $P(s_{i+1}|s_i,a_i)$ and $P(s_0)$

$$\nabla_{\theta} \ln P(\tau) = \nabla_{\theta} \ln[P(s_0) \prod_{i=0}^{\infty} \pi_{\theta}(a_i, s_i) P(s_{i+1}|s_i, a_i)]$$

$$= \nabla_{\theta} \ln P(s_0) + \nabla_{\theta} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} [\ln \pi_{\theta}(a_i, s_i) + \ln P(s_{i+1}|s_i, a_i)]$$

$$= \nabla_{\theta} \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \ln \pi_{\theta}(a_i, s_i)$$
(17)





Policy Gradient: understanding the formula

Combine all equation in previous slides, one important formula:

$$\nabla_{\theta} E_{\pi_{\theta}}[R(\tau)] = E_{\pi_{\theta}}[R(\tau) \sum_{s_i, a_i \in \tau} \frac{\nabla_{\theta} \pi_{\theta}(a_i, s_i)}{\pi_{\theta}(a_i, s_i)}]$$
(18)

Intuition from equation 18, adjustment magnitude of policy on $\pi_{\theta}(a, s)$:

- In proportion to the total reward gained from trajectories containing (a, s)
 - Rationale: good actions lead to good trajectories, while bad actions lead to bad ones
 - What about good actions in trajectories with bad overall performance? work on it later
- In inverse proportion to the probability of performing action a on state s
 - consider actions sampled frequently but with small positive effect
 - mitigate case where 'not-so-good' actions are rewarded frequently



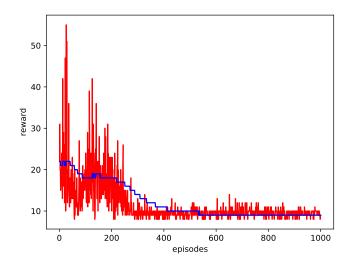


Vanilla Policy Gradient: REINFORCE

So far, we obtain the first policy gradient algorithm called **REINFORCE** [Williams, R. J.]

Experiment on CartPole game:

Bad performance, worse than random play after 1000 episodes of training







Improvement for **REINFORCE**: baseline

- One natural quetion: what if reward is always positive?
- **D** Do we have to always increase $\pi_{\theta}(a, s)$ because $R(\tau)$ is positive (as in formula 18)?
- Actually, we only cares about the relative performance of trajectories
- Observation from formula 19: we can remove any constant term A from the expectation with out introducing bias.
- A can be the average performance for all trajectories, it is referenced as a baseline

$$E_{\pi_{\theta}}\left[\sum_{a} A \cdot \nabla \ln \pi(a, S)\right] = \sum_{a} \pi_{\theta}(a, S) A \frac{\nabla_{\theta} \pi_{\theta}(a, S)}{\pi_{\theta}(a, S)}$$

$$= A \sum_{a} \nabla_{\theta} \pi(a, S)$$

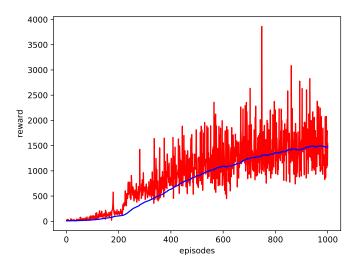
$$= A \cdot \nabla_{\theta} \sum_{a} \pi_{\theta}(a, S) = A \nabla_{\theta}(1) = 0$$
(19)





Improvement for **REINFORCE**: baseline

Experiment on CartPole game:
Better than before: an upgoing trend of rewards







Improvement for **REINFORCE**: advantage function

- Why we award/punish an action (s,a) based on the entire trajectory reward?
- ightharpoonup Markov property: the action a_t only affects rewards after time t.

$$E_{\pi_{\theta}}[R_{0:i-1}(\tau)\nabla_{\theta}\ln \pi_{\theta}(a_i, s_i)] = 0$$
(20)

Actually, we can exploit the markov property to refine formula 18

$$\nabla_{\theta} E_{\pi_{\theta}}[R(\tau)] = E_{\pi_{\theta}}\left[\sum (\nabla_{\theta} \ln \pi_{\theta}(a_i, s_i)(R_{0:i-1}(\tau) + R_{i:\infty}(\tau)))\right]$$

$$= E_{\pi_{\theta}}\left[\sum (\nabla_{\theta} \ln \pi_{\theta}(a_i, s_i)R_{i:\infty}(\tau))\right]$$
(21)

Recall that subtraction of baseline doesn't change the expectation

$$\nabla_{\theta} E_{\pi_{\theta}}[R(\tau)] = E_{\pi_{\theta}}[\sum \nabla_{\theta} \ln \pi_{\theta}(a_i, s_i) (R_{i:\infty}(\tau) - V_{\pi_{\theta}}(s_i))]$$
 (22)





Improvement for **REINFORCE**: advantage function

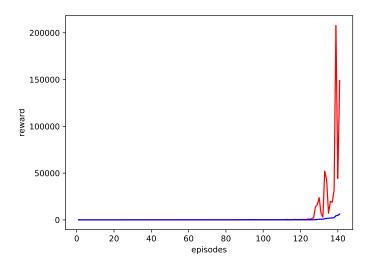
- As shown in equation 22, $R_{i:\infty}(\tau) V_{\pi_{\theta}}(s_i)$ is the actual term that determines the magnitude we adjust probability $\pi_{\theta}(a_i, s_i)$
- $ightharpoonup R_{i:\infty}(au) V_{\pi_{\theta}}(s_i)$ is also known as the advantage function
- ▶ Rationale: extra reward gained when performing certain action a_i on state s_i compared to average reward from that state under policy π_{θ}





Improvement for **REINFORCE**: advantage function

Experiment on CartPole game:
Only after 141 episodes of training, surviving time boosted to 20k!







Actor-Critic: a combination

So far, we mainly focused on pure value-based and pure policy-based methods ...

- Value-based: problem of deterministic policy in partially observed environments
- Policy-based: credit assignment problem (delay between action and reward)
- Why not combine them?
- Still use policy function
- Also adopt an estimator for state values to approximate advantage function
- Policy updates without delay!



Further improvement: clipped objective function

In previous section, policy gradient method works by computing gradient estimator in form

$$\hat{g} = \hat{E}_t [\nabla_\theta \ln \pi_\theta(a_t, s_t) \hat{A}_t]$$
 (23)

lacktriangle The estimator \hat{g} can be obtained by differentiating the objective

$$L^{PG}(\theta) = \hat{E}_t[\ln \pi_{\theta}(a_t, s_t) \hat{A}_t]$$
 (24)

- Multiple steps to optimize L^{PG} on same trajectory: destructively large policy updates [Schulman, John et al.].
- To improve sample efficiency, they adopt strategy of clipping the surrogate objective function in form $L^{CPI}(\theta)$:





Further improvement: clipped objective function

$$L^{CPI}(\theta) = \hat{E}_t \left[\frac{\pi_{\theta}(a_t, s_t)}{\pi_{\theta_{old}}(a_t, s_t)} \hat{A}_t \right]$$
 (25)

- $ightharpoonup \pi_{\theta_{old}}$: fixed term generated by old policy
- \blacktriangleright π_{θ} : current policy being optimized.
- ► The ratio $\frac{\pi_{\theta}(a_t, s_t)}{\pi_{\theta_{old}}(a_t, s_t)}$ is denoted as $r_t(\theta)$
- $lacktriangleq r_t(heta)$ measures the difference between current policy and old policy
- lacktriangle we don't want too big a update step, hence some constraint based on $r_t(heta)$
- In practise we use the gradient of following objective function

$$L^{CLIP}(\theta) = \hat{E}_t[\min(r_t(\theta)\hat{A}_t, \text{clip}(r_t(\theta), 1 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon)\hat{A}_t]$$
(26)





Further improvement: clipped objective function

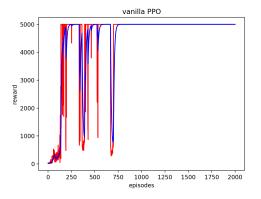
- ▶ Why $\hat{E}_t[\frac{\pi_{\theta}(a_t,s_t)}{\pi_{\theta_{old}}(a_t,s_t)}\hat{A}_t]$ in equation 25?
- Well justified in "Trust Region Policy Optimization" [Schulman, John et al.]
- My understanding: a case of importance sampling
- Importance sampling: adjusted rewards, learn from different policy
- Trajectories generated from π_{old} are learned multiple times to update a different policy π , through importance sampling
- ▶ More on importance sampling: On a Connection between Importance Sampling and the Likelihood Ratio Policy Gradient [Tang Jie and Pieter Abbeel.]

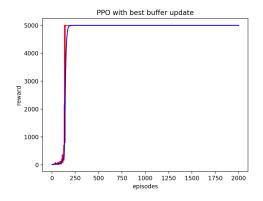




Further improvement: high score buffer replay

The learning curve is like:









Proximal Policy Optimization(PPO): some demo

Test on OpenAl gym Agents implemented and trained using Pytorch

For detailed information about task environment, check this list

- CartPole-v0: no training and trained
- MountainCar-v0: no training and trained
- LunarLander-v2: no training and trained
- Pendulum-v0: no training and trained

Some strategyies in our training:

- For continous action space (like Pendulum-v0): discretize it
- Set a maximum number (5000) of steps for each episode during training
- Use a large batch size (512) to perform gradient descent
- Adopt different step size for Actor and Critic updates
- Have a look at our code on github





Reference

- Williams, Ronald J. Simple statistical gradient-following algorithms for connectionist reinforcement learning. Machine learning, 8(3-4):229-256, 1992.
- Mnih, V., Kavukcuoglu, V., Silver, D., Graves, A., Antonoglou, I., Wierstra, D., Riedmiller, M. (2013). Playing Atari with Deep Reinforcement Learning. NIPS, arXiv:1312.5602
- Schulman, J., Levine, S., Moritz, P., Jordan, M.I., & Abbeel, P. (2015). Trust Region Policy Optimization. ICML.
- Tang, J., & Abbeel, P. (2010). On a Connection between Importance Sampling and the Likelihood Ratio Policy Gradient. NIPS.
- Schulman, J., Wolski, F., Dhariwal, P., Radford, A., & Klimov, O. (2017). Proximal Policy Optimization Algorithms. CoRR, abs/1707.06347.

Github link for the whole project: https://github.com/JamesTuna/RL_collects



