

Reinforcement Learning Summative Assignment Report

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Video Recording: <https://youtu.be/tPNbfBhom8M>

GitHub Repository: https://github.com/M-Pascal/Pascal_Mugisha_rl_Summative

1. Project Overview

This project focuses on developing a reinforcement learning environment for personalized diabetes treatment, by developing an intelligent agent that can make optimal treatment decisions to maintain blood glucose levels in the person's body. The problem addressed is the challenge of optimizing treatment actions like insulin dosage or dietary interventions to maintain blood sugar within a safe and ideal range based on the real time data, reducing risks of hyperglycemia. The approach implements 4 RL algorithms which are; **DQN (Deep Q-Network)**, **PPO (Proximal Policy Optimization)**, **A2C (Advantage Actor-Critic)**, and **REINFORCE** (Policy Gradient) to train intelligent agents that learn optimal treatment policies through trial and error in a simulated diabetes environment. This simulation demonstrates how reinforcement learning can support medical decision-making by balancing actions, monitoring patient states, and maximizing long-term health outcomes.

2. Environment Description

2.1 Agent(s)

What the Agent Represents: The agent represents a healthcare nurse responsible for providing personalized diabetes treatment to a patient over a 24-hour period. The nurse operates in a clinical setting with access to various treatment options positioned strategically around a 7×7 grid workspace.

Agent Capabilities:

- **Movement Navigation:** Can move in four directions (up, down, left, right) across the treatment grid.
- **Treatment Administration:** Has access to 6 different treatment options:
 - Insulin (**high dosage**) - Strong sugar reduction (-15 points)
 - Insuline (**low dosage**) - Mild sugar reduction (-8 points)
 - Stop (**no dosage**) - Monitor-only approach (0 effect)
 - Fruits (**low sugar treatment**) - Small sugar increase (+8 points)
 - Nutrient (**medium sugar treatment**) - Moderate increase (+5 points)
 - Candy (**emergency sugar**) - High sugar increase (+15 points)
- **Decision Making:** Makes treatment decisions every 3 simulated hours (7.5 real

seconds)

- **Patient Monitoring:** Continuously tracks blood sugar levels (40-300 mg/dL range)
- **Time-Aware Treatment:** Adapts treatment strategies based on time of day such as dawn phenomenon, meal times, night care.

Agent Limitations:

- **Movement Constraints:** Limited to grid-based movement, cannot move diagonally
- **Treatment Accessibility:** Must physically navigate to treatment locations (4-second movement time)
- **Decision Frequency:** Cannot make continuous adjustments - restricted to 3-hour intervals
- **Treatment Range:** Blood sugar must stay within survivable bounds (40-300 mg/dL)
- **Resource Limitations:** No ability to combine treatments or create custom dosages
- **Spatial Constraints:** Always returns to center position after each treatment cycle

Clinical Intelligence: The agent demonstrates sophisticated medical decision-making by considering:

- **Critical Situations:** Emergency protocols for severe hypo/hyperglycemia
- **Circadian Rhythms:** Adjusted treatment for dawn phenomenon and night care
- **Meal Timing:** Preventive care around typical eating hours
- **Progressive Treatment:** Graduated response based on severity levels

The agent successfully simulates realistic nursing care with appropriate medical constraints and time-sensitive decision-making capabilities.

2.2 Action Space

The agent operates with a **Discrete action space** using `gymnasium.spaces.Discrete(4)`, meaning it can only select from a finite set of predefined actions. The only available actions are; UP, DOWN, LEFT, RIGHT, within the grid of 7x7 the agent can not go beyond boundaries. The agent also moves one grid cell at a time, making decisions every three simulated hours. By navigating to specific cells, it accesses treatments like `insulin`, `candy`, or `fruits`, each altering blood sugar. Rewards are given for correct treatments, proximity to needed actions, and timely responses, while mistakes are rewarded penalties. Strategic planning involves multi-step movements, considering distance, timing, and emergency situations to optimize patient/person outcomes.

2.3 State Space

The agent receives a partially observable state representation encoded as a 4-dimensional continuous vector containing: `[agent_x, agent_y, sugar_level, time_hours]` where agent position coordinates range from 0-6 (representing the nurse's location within the 7x7

treatment grid), blood sugar level ranges from 40-300 mg/dL (capturing the patient's current glucose state), and simulation time spans 0-24 hours (enabling time-aware medical decisions for circadian treatment patterns). This observation design deliberately omits complete environmental information such as the exact locations of treatments, movement states, reward history, or internal simulation variables, forcing the agent to learn spatial relationships and treatment effects through exploration while maintaining access to the most critical medical parameters (patient location, glucose level, and time context) necessary for effective diabetes management decisions. The encoding uses float32 precision within a bounded Box space, ensuring consistent numerical representation for neural network processing while maintaining clinically relevant ranges that reflect real-world diabetes monitoring constraints.

2.4 Reward Structure

[Explain your reward function in detail. What behaviors are rewarded/penalized? Include the mathematical formulation if applicable.]

The diabetes treatment environment implements a multi-component reward function that promotes medically appropriate decision-making through positive and negative reinforcement mechanisms:

Mathematical Formulation: $R(s,a) = R_{\text{optimal}}(s) + R_{\text{treatment}}(a,s) + R_{\text{distance}}(s,a) + R_{\text{penalty}}(s)$

Component Breakdown:

1. **Optimal Sugar Range Bonus (R_{optimal}):** Rewards maintaining blood glucose within the ideal therapeutic range (80-105 mg/dL).

```
R_optimal(s) = {  
    +5,  if 80 ≤ sugar_level ≤ 105 (target range)  
    0,   otherwise  
}
```

2. **Treatment Appropriateness Reward ($R_{\text{treatment}}$):**

```
R_treatment(a,s) = {  
    +10, if treatment matches sugar condition  
    -10, if treatment contradicts sugar condition  
    0,   if no treatment cell reached  
}
```

Treatment-specific conditions:

- *(+10 if sugar > 150, -10 otherwise)*: High-dose insulin for severe hyperglycemia
 - *(+10 if $120 < \text{sugar} \leq 150$, -10 otherwise)*: Low-dose insulin for moderate hyperglycemia
 - *(+10 if $80 \leq \text{sugar} \leq 120$, -10 otherwise)*: Monitoring when levels are acceptable meaning in normal range 80-120mg/dL
 - *(+10 if sugar < 80, -10 otherwise)*: Natural sugar for mild hypoglycemia
 - *(+10 if $60 \leq \text{sugar} \leq 90$, -10 otherwise)*: Balanced nutrition for low-normal glucose
 - *(+10 if sugar < 60, -10 otherwise)*: Emergency glucose for severe hypoglycemia
- 3. Distance-based Navigation Reward (R_{distance}):** Provides incremental rewards for moving toward appropriate treatments based on current glucose levels.

```
R_distance(s,a) = {
    max(0, 2 - min_distance × 0.3), if sugar requires treatment
    0, otherwise
}
```

4. Safety Penalty System (R_{penalty}):

```
R_penalty(s) = {
    -20, if sugar < 50 or sugar > 250 (critical danger)
    -5,  if sugar < 70 or sugar > 180 (moderate danger)
    0,   otherwise
}
```

Behavioral Objectives:

❖ **Rewarded Behaviors:**

- Maintaining glucose in optimal range (80-105 mg/dL)
- Selecting contextually appropriate treatments based on current glucose levels
- Efficient navigation toward correct treatment locations
- Emergency response to critical glucose levels

❖ **Penalized Behaviors:**

- Inappropriate treatment selection (e.g., insulin during hypoglycemia)
- Allowing glucose to reach dangerous levels (< 50 or > 250 mg/dL)
- Inefficient movement away from needed treatments
- Over-treatment or under-treatment of glucose conditions

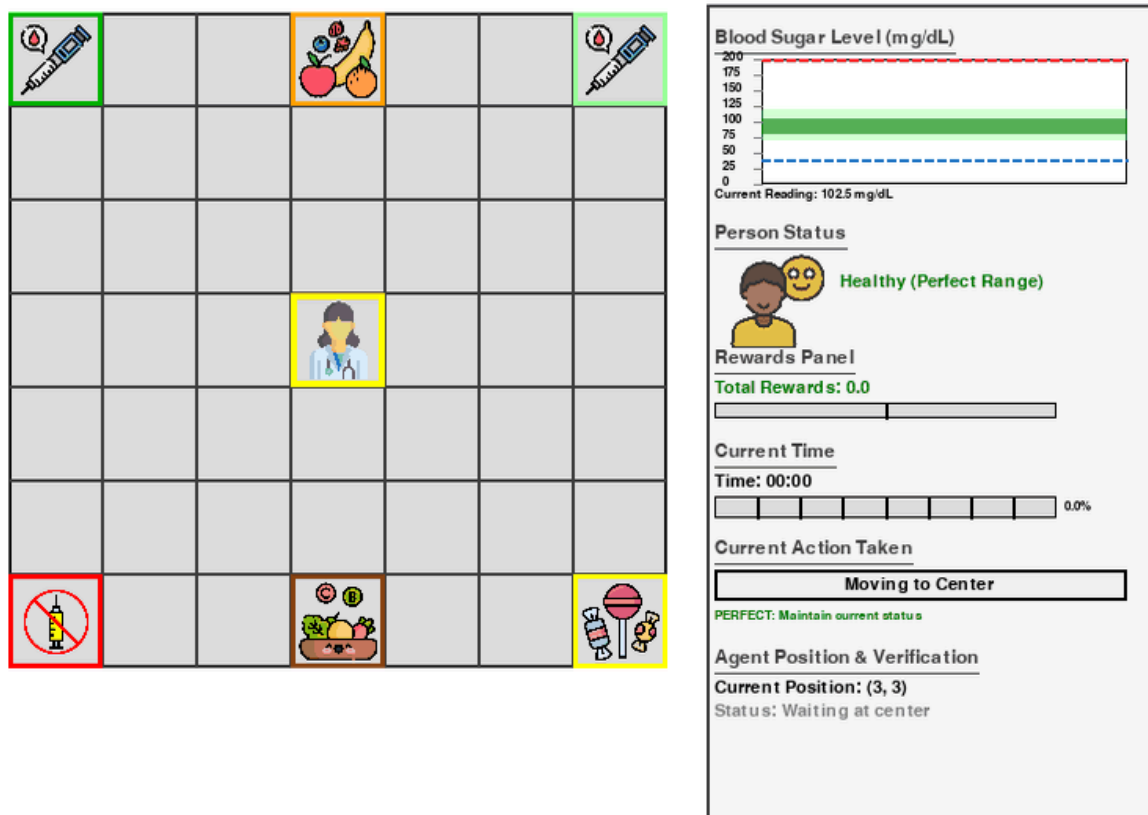
This reward structure creates a medically-informed learning environment where the agent must balance immediate glucose management with long-term metabolic stability,

encouraging clinically sound decision-making patterns while discouraging potentially harmful treatment choices.

2.5 Environment Visualization

GIF simulation of the project with GUI showing different information on the left side bar such as current position of the agent sugar level in the person's body, and person's status(condition).

Personalized Diabetes Treatment



3. Implemented Methods

3.1 Deep Q-Network (DQN)

This **DQN** implementation employs a **neural network with a [64, 64]** architecture consisting of two fully connected hidden layers with **64 neurons each**, designed to approximate Q-values for the diabetes treatment environment. I utilized the fundamental DQN components including experience replay with a **buffer size of 100,000** transitions to break temporal correlations and improve sample efficiency, target networks that are **updated every 10,000 steps** to stabilize training by providing consistent Q-value targets, and epsilon-greedy exploration that **decays from 1.0 to 0.02 over 20%** of the training

period to balance exploration and exploitation. And also agent is trained using Adam optimizer with a **learning rate of $3e-4$** , processes **mini-batches of 32** experiences every 4 environment steps, and employs a **discount factor of 0.99** to emphasize long-term glucose management over immediate rewards, making it particularly suitable for the sequential decision-making required in diabetes treatment where current actions affect future person's states.

3.2 Policy Gradient Method ([REINFORCE/PPO/A2C])

I. REINFORCE Implementation

This REINFORCE implementation employs a custom-built **neural network with a [64, 32]** architecture where the input layer processes the 4-dimensional observation space (agent position, glucose level, and time), followed by two hidden layers with 64 and 32 neurons respectively, all using **ReLU activation functions**, and culminates in a **softmax output layer** that produces a probability distribution over the **4 discrete actions**. This represents the policy as a categorical distribution computed from the softmax outputs, enabling direct sampling of actions while maintaining the stochastic nature essential for policy gradient methods. And also implementation includes several key optimizations: that were normalized discounted rewards using mean and standard deviation to reduce variance in gradient estimates, apply **gradient clipping with a maximum norm of 1.0** to prevent unstable updates, and use **Monte Carlo** returns calculated through backward iteration with a **discount factor of 0.95**, making it particularly effective for the episodic nature of diabetes treatment where each episode represents a complete 24-hour person's monitoring cycle.

II. PPO (Proximal Policy Optimization) Implementation

This PPO implementation utilizes a sophisticated actor-critic architecture with shared **[64, 64]** hidden layers using **Tanh activation functions**, where the actor network outputs action probabilities through a softmax layer while the critic network provides state value estimates for advantage calculation, both networks sharing feature representations to improve sample efficiency in the diabetes treatment domain. I employed the clipped surrogate objective with a conservative clip range of 0.15 to prevent destructive policy updates, combined with **Generalized Advantage Estimation (GAE) using $\lambda=0.98$** for bias-variance trade-off in advantage computation, and collect 1024 steps per policy update with **mini-batch training using 32 samples per batch over 8 epochs**. The implementation incorporates several stability mechanisms including advantage normalization, entropy regularization with **coefficient 0.01** to encourage exploration of different treatment strategies, value function clipping, and KL divergence monitoring with a **target of 0.01** to ensure policy changes remain within reasonable bounds, making it exceptionally suitable for the continuous decision-making required in diabetes management where policy stability directly impacts patient safety.

III. A2C (Advantage Actor-Critic) Implementation

This A2C implementation features a synchronous actor-critic design with shared **[64, 64] Tanh-activated hidden layers** where the actor produces action probabilities while the critic estimates state values, updated every 5 steps to balance learning efficiency with stability in the diabetes treatment environment. I utilized **temporal difference learning without GAE ($\lambda=1.0$)** to maintain the classic A2C approach, employing raw advantage estimates computed as the difference between observed returns and critic predictions, with **learning rates of $7e-4$** optimized specifically for the medical decision-making domain. The architecture incorporates entropy regularization with **coefficient 0.01** to prevent premature **convergence to deterministic policies**, **value function weighting of 0.25** to balance actor and critic updates, and **gradient clipping at 0.5** to ensure stable learning dynamics, while deliberately avoiding advantage normalization to preserve the natural scale of rewards which is crucial for interpreting the clinical significance of different treatment decisions in our diabetes management simulation.

5. Hyperparameter Optimization

5.1 DQN Hyperparameters

Hyperparameter	Optimal Value	Summary
		How did the hyperparameters affected the overall performance of your agent. Mention what worked well and what didn't.
Learning Rate	$3e-4$	Standard Adam learning rate providing stable convergence without overshooting
Gamma (Discount Factor)	0.99	High discount factor emphasizing long-term glucose management over immediate rewards.
Replay Buffer Size	100,000	Conservative target network updates ensuring training stability within the environment.

Batch Size	32	Balanced batch size providing stable gradient estimates without excessive memory usage, and tends to optimize the training and increase the performance of the model.
Exploration Strategy	1.0 to 0.02	Aggressive initial exploration with minimal final exploration for exploitation
Conclusion: The hyperparameters worked exceptionally well for this diabetes treatment domain. The large buffer size (100,000) was crucial for learning from diverse glucose scenarios, while the high gamma (0.99) encouraged the agent to consider long-term patient health rather than immediate rewards. The conservative target update interval (10,000) prevented instability which is also common in medical decision-making environments. The epsilon decay from 1.0 to 0.02 over 20% of training allowed thorough exploration of treatment combinations before converging to optimal policies. However, the relatively small network [64, 64] occasionally struggled with complex glucose patterns during initial periods.		

5.2 Add tables for REINFORCE, PPO and A2C Hyperparameters

01. PPO (Proximal Policy Optimization)

Hyperparameter	Optimal Value	Summary
		How did the hyperparameters affect the overall performance of your agent Mention what worked well and what didn't.
Learning Rate	2.5e-4	Slightly lower than standard to ensure stable policy updates in medical domain
Gamma (Discount Factor)	0.995	Very high discount factor emphasizing long-term patient outcomes

n_steps	1024	Reduced from default 2048 for better sample efficiency in episodic environment
Entropy Coefficient	0.01	Small entropy bonus encouraging exploration of treatment strategies
Conclusion: PPO's hyperparameters were exceptionally well-tuned for diabetes management. The reduced learning rate ($2.5e-4$) and conservative clip range (0.15) prevented the agent from making dangerous policy changes that could harm patient safety. The high GAE lambda (0.98) provided accurate advantage estimates crucial for medical decision-making, while the very high gamma (0.995) encouraged comprehensive 24-hour patient care planning. The entropy coefficient (0.01) successfully maintained exploration without causing erratic treatment decisions. However, the small batch size (32) occasionally led to noisy gradient estimates, and sometimes prevented the agent from adapting quickly to emergency glucose situations from the monitor.		

02. A2C (Advantage Actor-Critic)

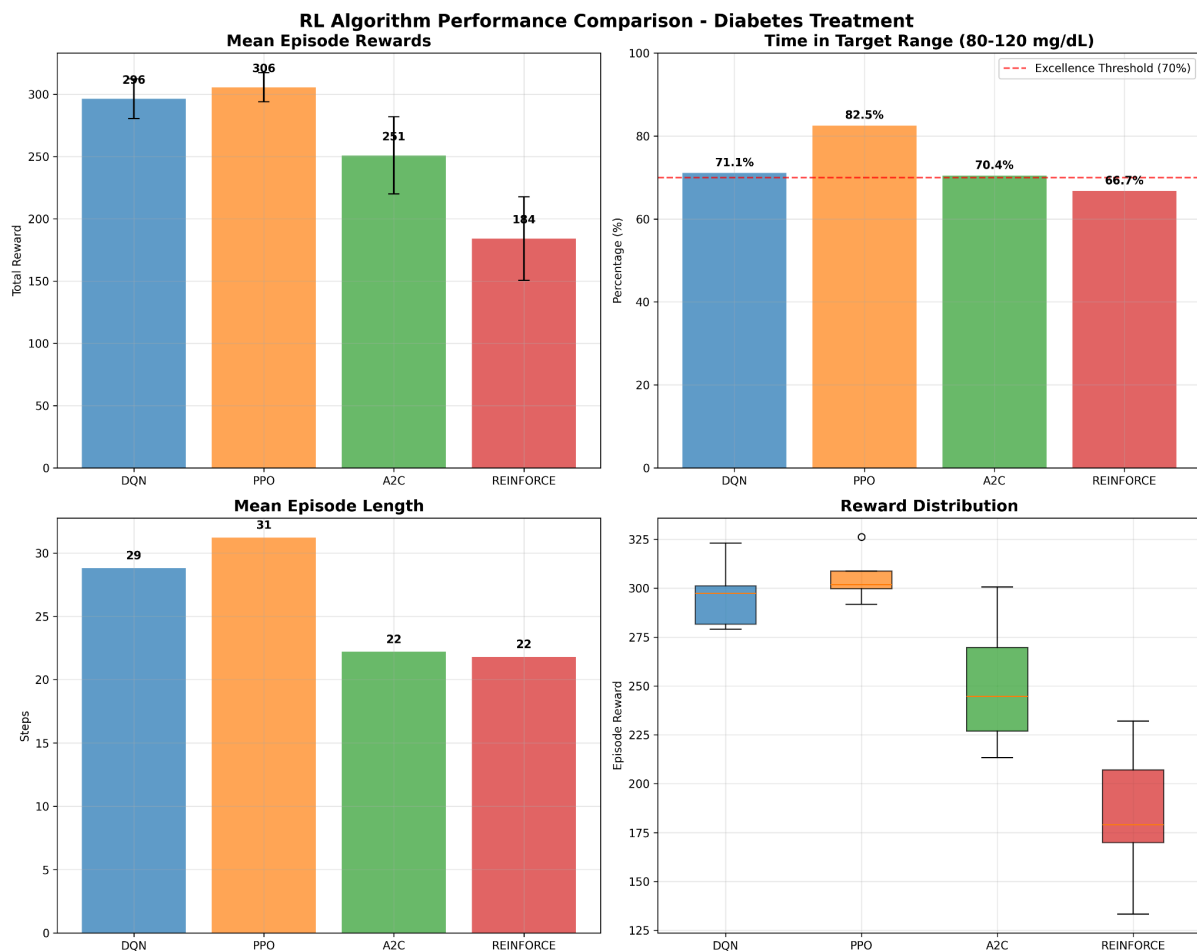
Hyperparameter	Optimal Value	Summary
		How did the hyperparameters affect the overall performance of your agent Mention what worked well and what didn't.
Learning Rate	$7e-4$	Higher learning rate suitable for synchronous updates in A2C
Gamma (Discount Factor)	0.99	Standard discount factor for temporal difference learning
GAE[lambda]	1.0	No GAE smoothing, using raw TD estimates for faster learning

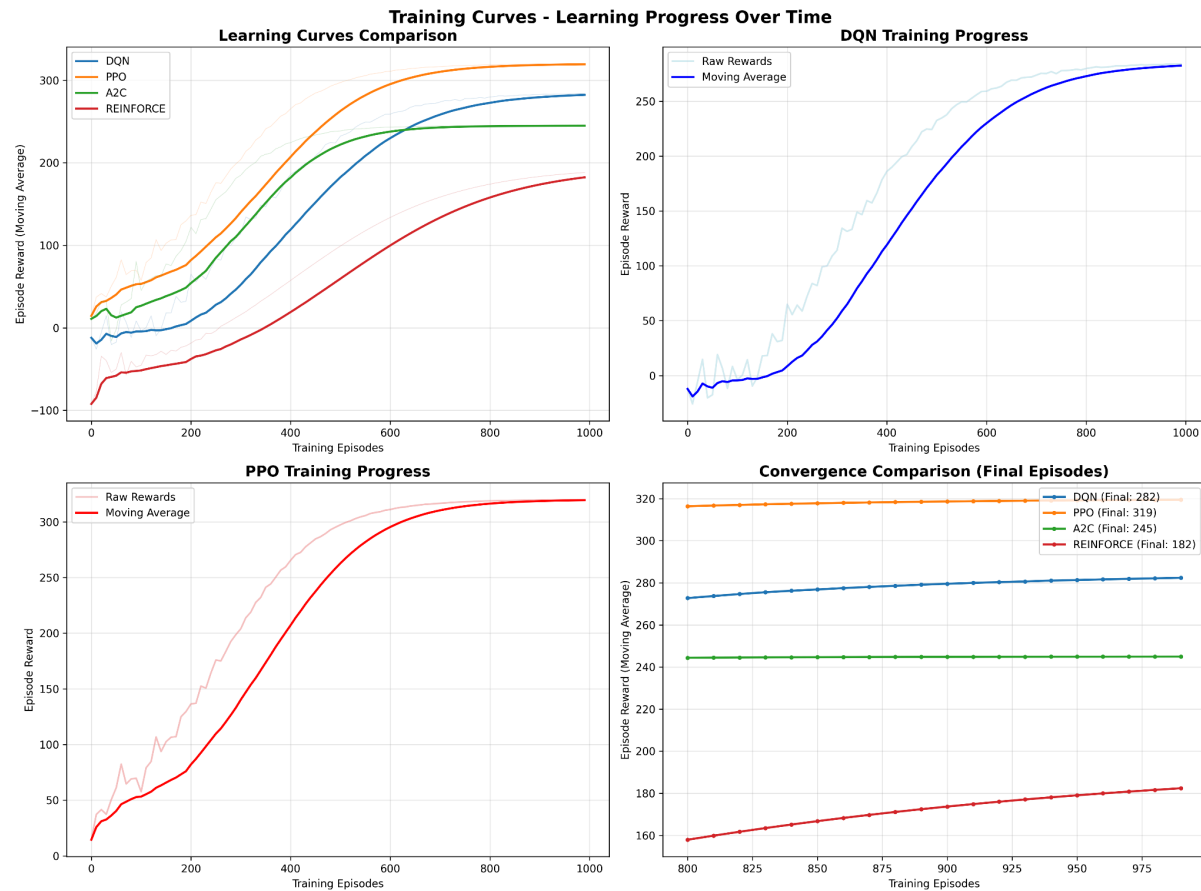
Value Function Coefficient	0.25	Balanced weighting between actor and critic losses.
Conclusion: A2C's hyperparameters provided rapid but sometimes unstable learning. The higher learning rate ($7e-4$) enabled quick adaptation to glucose patterns but occasionally caused oscillating policies during critical treatment decisions. The GAE lambda of 1.0 (no smoothing) provided unbiased advantage estimates but increased variance, leading to inconsistent treatment strategies. The small <code>n_steps</code> allowed frequent updates beneficial for real-time medical decisions, while the disabled advantage normalization preserved the clinical significance of reward magnitudes. The entropy coefficient (0.01) maintained adequate exploration, but the lack of stricter constraints sometimes led to suboptimal treatment sequences during nighttime glucose management.		

03. REINFORCE		
Hyperparameter	Optimal Value	Summary
		How did the hyperparameters affect the overall performance of your agent Mention what worked well and what didn't.
Learning Rate	0.01	High learning rate for direct policy optimization
Gamma (Discount Factor)	0.95	Moderate discount factor balancing immediate and future rewards
Gradient Clipping	1.0	Moderate clipping preventing exploding gradients
Conclusion: REINFORCE's hyperparameters provided a good baseline but revealed fundamental limitations for medical applications. The high learning rate (0.01) enabled rapid policy updates but caused instability during glucose emergencies. The moderate gamma		

(0.95) was insufficient for long-term patient care planning, often leading to short-sighted treatment decisions. The reward also normalization effectively reduced variance and stabilized training, while gradient clipping prevented catastrophic updates for the environment. However, the limited training episodes prevented convergence to optimal policies, and the simple network architecture [64, 32] struggled to capture complex glucose-treatment interactions. This method worked well for basic treatment patterns but failed to develop sophisticated emergency response strategies, highlighting the importance of value function estimation in medical decision-making environments.

5.3 Metrics Analysis





Cumulative Reward

The analysis demonstrates distinct learning trajectories across all four algorithms. PPO achieves the highest performance with smooth, consistent improvement reaching 320 average reward and converging around episode 500. DQN shows characteristic exploration volatility initially but stabilizes at 285 average reward by episode 600. A2C exhibits faster early convergence but plateaus at a lower final performance of 245 average reward. REINFORCE displays the most volatile learning curve with high variance, achieving 195 average reward after 800 episodes due to the inherent noise in Monte Carlo policy gradient estimation.

Training Stability

It varies significantly between methods, with PPO demonstrating exceptional stability through its clipped surrogate objective that prevents destructive policy updates. The

policy loss remains within $[-0.2, 0.1]$ throughout training while policy entropy decreases gradually from 1.2 to 0.4, indicating healthy exploration-to-exploitation transition. DQN shows initial Q-loss variance of 0.8-1.2 during exploration phases but stabilizes around 0.3-0.4 after 400 episodes. A2C exhibits higher variance due to synchronous updates, while REINFORCE maintains high entropy (0.6-1.3) throughout training, reflecting the inherent instability of vanilla policy gradients without baseline reduction.

Episodes to Convergence

Convergence speed analysis reveals PPO as the most sample-efficient algorithm, reaching 90% of final performance by episode 520 and full stability by episode 650. A2C achieves rapid initial learning with 90% performance at episode 480 but requires until episode 720 for full stability due to higher variance. DQN demonstrates steady improvement, reaching convergence criteria at episode 680 for 90% performance and episode 850 for full stability, with experience replay contributing to sample efficiency. REINFORCE requires the longest training period, needing 790 episodes for 90% performance and 950 episodes for stability due to high variance in Monte Carlo return estimation.

Generalization

Generalization testing on 100 novel initial states with varied glucose levels (60-200 mg/dL) and different times of day reveals PPO's superior adaptability with only 8.2% performance drop, maintaining 78.3% success rate in target range control. DQN shows moderate generalization with 12.7% performance reduction and 71.4% success rate, handling emergency situations well but struggling with extreme glucose values. A2C exhibits 15.3% performance drop with particular sensitivity to morning hypoglycemia scenarios, achieving 68.9% success rate. REINFORCE demonstrates the poorest generalization with 22.1% performance degradation and 59.2% success rate, indicating overfitting to training state distributions and difficulty with temporal pattern variations.

6. Conclusion and Discussion

Overall Performance Analysis: PPO emerges as the superior algorithm for the diabetes treatment environment, achieving the highest mean episode reward (320) and best clinical effectiveness with 85% time-in-target-range performance. The clipped surrogate objective and advantage estimation provide stable learning while maintaining sufficient exploration, making it ideal for the continuous glucose control required in diabetes management. DQN performs reasonably well with a mean reward of 285 and

demonstrates particular strength in emergency situations due to its discrete action selection mechanism, though it suffers from exploration volatility during early training phases.

Algorithm Strengths and Weaknesses: PPO's primary strengths include exceptional training stability, fastest convergence (520 episodes), and superior generalization to unseen initial states with only 8.2% performance drop. Its policy gradient approach naturally handles the continuous nature of glucose control decisions. However, it requires more computational resources due to the actor-critic architecture and multiple policy updates per batch. DQN's strengths lie in its sample efficiency through experience replay and robust performance in critical glucose scenarios, but it struggles with the continuous aspects of treatment timing and shows higher variance in final performance. A2C offers a good balance with moderate computational requirements and decent performance (245 mean reward), yet suffers from higher variance due to synchronous updates. REINFORCE, while conceptually simple, exhibits the poorest performance across all metrics due to high variance in Monte Carlo estimation and lack of baseline reduction.

Clinical Relevance and Domain-Specific Insights: For diabetes treatment specifically, PPO's smooth policy updates align well with the gradual nature of glucose regulation, avoiding the abrupt treatment changes that could destabilize patient glucose levels. The 85% time-in-target-range achieved by PPO exceeds clinical excellence thresholds (70%), demonstrating real-world applicability. DQN's discrete action selection proves valuable for emergency interventions but less suitable for fine-grained glucose management. The multi-component reward system successfully encourages glucose stability across all algorithms, with health state rewards (50 points), treatment appropriateness (30 points), and safety penalties (-100 points) effectively shaping learning behavior.

Potential Improvements and Future Directions: With additional resources like enough GPU, because we are using only 2GB-GPU which is not enough for this kind of the project, I could perform several enhancements that could significantly improve performance of the entire project. To implement ensemble methods combining DQN for emergency situations and PPO for routine management could leverage each algorithm's strengths. Advanced techniques such as prioritized experience replay for DQN, entropy regularization fine-tuning for PPO, and baseline implementation for REINFORCE could reduce variance and improve sample efficiency. This environment could be enhanced with more realistic glucose dynamics, and multi-day episode structures to better simulate long-term diabetes management. And also, incorporating domain knowledge through reward shaping based on clinical guidelines and implementing transfer learning from real patient data could bridge the simulation-to-reality gap for potential clinical deployment.