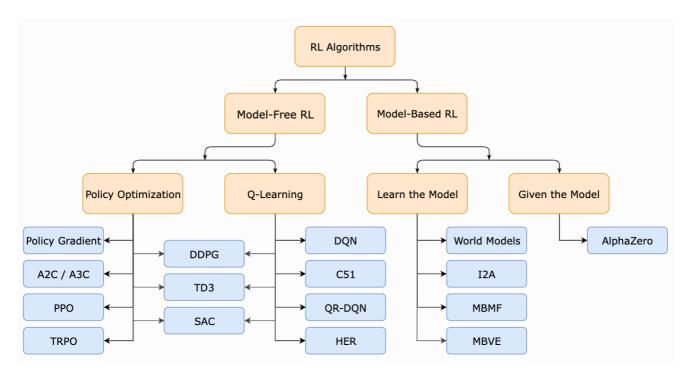
# Policy Gradient methods for RL



Policy Gradient methods are a class of **Reinforcement Learning (RL)** algorithms that directly optimize the **policy** (the agent's behavior) by gradient ascent on the expected reward. Unlike value-based methods (e.g., Q-learning), which learn a value function and derive a policy from it, policy gradient methods **parametrize the policy** and adjust the parameters to maximize performance.

## Key Idea

The goal is to maximize the **expected return** (cumulative reward) by updating the policy parameters  $\theta$  in the direction of the gradient of the performance measure  $J(\theta)$ :

$$\theta \leftarrow \theta + \alpha \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta)$$

where:

- $\alpha$  = learning rate
- $\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta)$  = gradient of the objective function w.r.t. policy parameters

#### **Objective Function**

The performance measure  $J(\theta)$  is typically the **expected return** under the policy:

$$J( heta) = \mathbb{E}_{ au \sim \pi_{ heta}}[R( au)]$$

where:

- $\tau = (s_0, a_0, r_0, s_1, a_1, r_1, \ldots)$  is a trajectory (sequence of states, actions, and rewards).
- $R( au) = \sum_{t=0}^T \gamma^t r_t$  is the discounted return of the trajectory.

#### **Policy Gradient Theorem**

The **Policy Gradient Theorem** provides a way to compute the gradient analytically:

$$abla_{ heta}J( heta) = \mathbb{E}_{ au \sim \pi_{ heta}}\left[\sum_{t=0}^{T} 
abla_{ heta} \log \pi_{ heta}(a_t|s_t) \cdot R( au)
ight]$$

This means:

- We sample trajectories using the current policy  $\pi_{\theta}$ .
- For each action taken, compute the gradient of the log-probability of that action.
- Weight this gradient by the total reward  $R(\tau)$ .

#### Variants of Policy Gradient Methods

#### 1. REINFORCE (Monte Carlo Policy Gradient)

- Uses full trajectory returns  $R(\tau)$  as the reward signal.
- High variance but unbiased.

#### 2. Actor-Critic Methods

- Combines policy gradient (actor) with a value function (critic).
- The critic reduces variance by using a baseline (e.g., state-value V(s)) instead of raw returns.
- Example: Advantage Actor-Critic (A2C/A3C), where the advantage A(s,a) = Q(s,a) V(s) is used.

#### 3. Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO)

- Improves stability by limiting policy updates to avoid drastic changes.
- Uses a clipped objective function to ensure small updates.

#### 4. Trust Region Policy Optimization (TRPO)

- Uses constrained optimization to ensure updates stay within a "trust region."
- More stable but computationally expensive.

#### Advantages of Policy Gradient Methods

- Can learn **stochastic policies** (useful in partially observable environments).
- Naturally handle continuous action spaces.
- Directly optimize the policy, avoiding issues like policy degradation in value-based methods.

#### **Disadvantages**

- High variance in gradient estimates (can be mitigated with baselines or actor-critic methods).
- Sample-inefficient compared to some value-based methods (e.g., DQN).

#### Example: REINFORCE Algorithm

- 1. Initialize policy parameters  $\theta$ .
- 2. Generate a trajectory  $\tau$  using  $\pi_{\theta}$ .
- 3. Compute  $R(\tau)$ .
- 4. Update  $\theta \leftarrow \theta + \alpha \sum_{t} \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(a_{t}|s_{t}) \cdot R(\tau)$ .
- 5. Repeat until convergence.

#### **Conclusion**

Policy Gradient methods are powerful for RL tasks, especially when dealing with **complex action spaces** or **stochastic environments**. Modern improvements like PPO and A2C make them more stable and scalable.

#### Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) - A Deep Dive

**PPO** is a state-of-the-art **policy gradient** method designed to improve training stability and sample efficiency. It addresses key issues in traditional policy optimization, such as **large policy updates** that can destabilize learning.

## 1. Core Idea of PPO

PPO belongs to the Actor-Critic family, where:

- The **Actor** (policy) selects actions.
- The Critic (value function) evaluates actions and provides feedback.

The key innovation in PPO is its **constrained optimization approach**, ensuring that policy updates are **not too large**, preventing catastrophic performance drops.

# 2. Key Components of PPO

## (1) Policy Objective Function

The objective is to maximize:

$$J( heta) = \mathbb{E}_t \left[ \min \left( r_t( heta) \hat{A}_t, \operatorname{clip}(r_t( heta), 1 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon) \hat{A}_t 
ight) 
ight]$$

where:

- $r_t( heta)=rac{\pi_{ heta}(a_t|s_t)}{\pi_{ heta_{
  m old}}(a_t|s_t)}$  (probability ratio of new vs. old policy).
- $\hat{A}_t$  = advantage estimate (how much better an action is compared to average).
- $\epsilon$  = clipping hyperparameter (typically **0.1 to 0.3**).

## (2) Clipped Surrogate Objective

- The **clipping** prevents drastic updates by limiting how much  $r_t(\theta)$  can deviate from 1.
- If the advantage  $\hat{A}_t$  is positive (good action), the update is capped at  $1 + \epsilon$ .
- If the advantage  $\hat{A}_t$  is negative (bad action), the update is floored at  $1 \epsilon$ .

This ensures small, stable policy updates.

#### (3) Advantage Estimation

PPO typically uses Generalized Advantage Estimation (GAE) to compute  $\hat{A}_t$ :

$$\hat{A}_t = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (\gamma \lambda)^k \delta_{t+k}$$

where:

- $\delta_t = r_t + \gamma V(s_{t+1}) V(s_t)$  (TD error).
- $\lambda = \text{smoothing parameter (usually } 0.9-0.99).$
- $\gamma$  = discount factor.

This reduces variance while maintaining bias control.

## 3. PPO Algorithm Steps

- 1. Collect trajectories using the current policy  $\pi_{\theta_{\text{old}}}$ .
- 2. Compute advantages  $\hat{A}_t$  using GAE.
- 3. Optimize the clipped objective via stochastic gradient ascent (usually over multiple epochs).
- 4. Update the policy  $\theta \leftarrow \theta_{\text{new}}$ .

## 4. Why PPO? Key Benefits

- ✓ Stable Training (clipping prevents destructive updates).
- Sample Efficient (reuses data via multiple epochs).
- **✓** Works Well in Continuous & Discrete Action Spaces.
- Hyperparameter Robustness (less sensitive than TRPO).

## 5. PPO Variants

- **PPO-Clip** (Standard version, uses clipping).
- **PPO-Penalty** (Uses KL divergence penalty instead of clipping).
- PPO with Adaptive KL (Dynamically adjusts KL penalty).

## 6. Practical Implementation Tips

- **Batch Size**: Larger batches reduce variance (e.g., 64–2048).
- Learning Rate: Typically 3e-4 (Adam optimizer works well).
- GAE Lambda: 0.9–0.99 balances bias-variance tradeoff.
- Clipping Range  $\epsilon$ : 0.1–0.3 (0.2 is common).
- Number of Epochs per Update: 3–10 (avoids overfitting).

## 7. PPO vs. Other Policy Gradients

Method	Key Feature	Pros	Cons
PPO	Clipped updates	Stable, efficient	Slightly complex
TRPO	Constrained KL divergence	Theoretically sound	Computationally heavy
A2C/A3C	Advantage-based	Simple, parallelizable	High variance
REINFORCE	Pure Monte Carlo	Simple	High variance, inefficient

## 8. Applications of PPO

- **Robotics** (continuous control).
- Game AI (Dota 2, StarCraft II).
- Autonomous Driving.
- Finance (portfolio optimization).

## 9. Code Example (Pseudocode)

```
for iteration in range(num_iterations):
2
        # Collect trajectories using current policy
3
        trajectories = collect_data(pi_old)
4
        # Compute advantages using GAE
6
        advantages = compute_gae(trajectories)
7
8
        # Optimize policy for K epochs
9
        for epoch in range(K):
10
             batches = split_into_minibatches(trajectories)
            for batch in batches:
11
                 # Compute clipped surrogate loss
12
13
                 loss = -min(
                     ratio * advantages,
14
15
                     clip(ratio, 1-eps, 1+eps) * advantages
16
                 )
17
                 # Update policy via gradient ascent
18
19
                 optimizer.step(loss)
20
        # Update old policy
21
22
        pi_old = pi_new
```

## 10. Conclusion

PPO is **one of the most popular RL algorithms** due to its balance between **stability**, **efficiency**, **and performance**. Its **clipped objective** makes it robust, while **GAE** reduces variance. If you're implementing policy gradients, PPO is often the best choice.

## In-Depth Explanation of PPO's Policy Objective Function

The Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) objective function is designed to maximize policy performance while preventing excessively large updates that could destabilize training. The key formula is:

$$J( heta) = \mathbb{E}_t \left[ \min \left( r_t( heta) \hat{A}_t, \operatorname{clip}(r_t( heta), 1 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon) \hat{A}_t 
ight) 
ight]$$

Let's break down each component and explain its mathematical intuition.

# 1. Probability Ratio $r_t(\theta)$

$$r_t( heta) = rac{\pi_{ heta}(a_t|s_t)}{\pi_{ heta_{ ext{old}}}(a_t|s_t)}$$

#### What it Represents:

- Measures how much the new policy  $\pi_{\theta}$  deviates from the old policy  $\pi_{\theta_{\mathrm{old}}}$ .
- If  $r_t(\theta) > 1$ , the new policy is **more likely** to take action  $a_t$  in state  $s_t$ .
- If  $r_t(\theta) < 1$ , the new policy is **less likely** to take that action.

#### Intuition:

- Encourages increasing the probability of good actions (where advantage  $\hat{A}_t > 0$ ).
- Discourages **bad actions** (where  $\hat{A}_t < 0$ ) by reducing their probability.

# 2. Advantage Estimate $\hat{A}_t$

$$\hat{A}_t = R_t - V(s_t)$$

(where  $R_t$  is the **discounted return**, and  $V(s_t)$  is the **value function**)

## What it Represents:

- Measures how much better an action is compared to the average action in that state.
- If  $\hat{A}_t > 0$ , the action was **better than expected**.
- If  $\hat{A}_t < 0$ , the action was worse than expected.

#### Intuition:

- Acts as a **weight** for policy updates:
  - High  $\hat{A}_t \to \text{Stronger push to increase } \pi_{\theta}(a_t|s_t)$ .
  - Low  $\hat{A}_t \to \text{Decrease } \pi_{\theta}(a_t|s_t)$ .

# 3. Clipping Function $\mathrm{clip}(r_t(\theta), 1-\epsilon, 1+\epsilon)$

$$\operatorname{clip}(r_t( heta), 1 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon) = egin{cases} 1 + \epsilon & ext{if } r_t( heta) > 1 + \epsilon \ 1 - \epsilon & ext{if } r_t( heta) < 1 - \epsilon \ r_t( heta) & ext{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

#### What it Represents:

- Limits how much the policy can change in a single update.
- $\epsilon$  (e.g., 0.2) controls the **clipping range**.

#### Intuition:

- Prevents **destructive updates** where  $r_t(\theta)$  becomes too large or too small.
- Ensures **smooth learning** by keeping updates within a **trust region**.

# **4. The Min Operator** $min(\cdot)$

$$\min\left(r_t( heta)\hat{A}_t, \operatorname{clip}(r_t( heta), 1-\epsilon, 1+\epsilon)\hat{A}_t
ight)$$

## What it Represents:

• Takes the minimum between the unclipped and clipped objectives.

#### Intuition:

- Clipping is only active when it helps (i.e., when the unclipped update would be too large).
- Forms a **pessimistic bound** (lower bound) on policy improvement:
  - If  $\hat{A}_t > 0$ , the objective is **capped** at  $(1 + \epsilon)\hat{A}_t$ .
  - If  $\hat{A}_t < 0$ , the objective is **floored** at  $(1 \epsilon)\hat{A}_t$ .

## 5. Full Objective Interpretation

The complete objective:

$$J( heta) = \mathbb{E}_t \left[ \min \left( r_t( heta) \hat{A}_t, \operatorname{clip}(r_t( heta), 1 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon) \hat{A}_t 
ight) 
ight]$$

#### **Key Behaviors:**

- 1. When  $\hat{A}_t > 0$  (Good Action):
  - We want to increase  $\pi_{\theta}(a_t|s_t)$ , but not too much.
  - The update is capped at  $(1+\epsilon)\hat{A}_t$ .
- 2. When  $\hat{A}_t < 0$  (Bad Action):
  - We want to **decrease**  $\pi_{\theta}(a_t|s_t)$ , but **not too much**.
  - The update is **floored at**  $(1 \epsilon)\hat{A}_t$ .
- 3. When  $r_t(\theta)$  is within  $[1 \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon]$ :
  - The update follows the **standard policy gradient**  $r_t(\theta)\hat{A}_t$ .

## 6. Why This Works: The Intuition Behind PPO

- Prevents Overly Large Updates:
  - Without clipping, a large  $r_t(\theta)$  could lead to **catastrophic policy collapse** (e.g., the policy becomes deterministic too quickly).
  - Clipping ensures conservative updates, improving stability.
- Balances Exploration & Exploitation:
  - The probability ratio  $r_t(\theta)$  allows **controlled exploration** while avoiding extreme deviations.
- Lower Variance than REINFORCE:
  - Using  $\hat{A}_t$  (instead of Monte Carlo returns) reduces variance.

## 7. Comparison to Unclipped Policy Gradient

Update Rule	Behavior	Problem
Standard PG: $r_t( heta)\hat{A}_t$	Can make unbounded updates	May destabilize training
PPO (Clipped): min(⋅)	Limits update size	More stable, avoids collapse

## 8. Practical Implications

#### **Clipping Range** $\epsilon$ :

- Too small ( $\epsilon = 0.1$ ) → Slow learning.
- Too large ( $\epsilon = 0.3$ )  $\rightarrow$  Risk of instability.
- **Default:**  $\epsilon = 0.2$ .
- Advantage Normalization:
  - Often,  $\hat{A}_t$  is normalized (mean=0, std=1) to improve stability.
- Multiple Epochs per Batch:
  - PPO reuses data for **3-10 gradient steps**, improving sample efficiency.

# 9. Summary of Key Intuitions

- 1.  $r_t(\theta) \hat{A}_t$ : The core policy gradient term.
- 2. Clipping: Preovershooting updates.
- 3. Min Operator: Ensures updates are conservative.
- 4. Advantage  $\hat{A}_t$ : Guides whether to increase or decrease action probability.

#### Final Thoughts

PPO's objective is a smart balance between performance and stability, making it one of the most reliable RL algorithms. The **clipping mechanism** is the key innovation, preventing the policy from changing too rapidly while still allowing efficient learning.

## How Clipping Works in PPO's Surrogate Objective

The **clipping mechanism** in Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO) is the key innovation that prevents excessively large policy updates, ensuring stable training. Let's break it down step-by-step.

## 1. Recap: PPO's Surrogate Objective

The core objective is:

$$J( heta) = \mathbb{E}_t \left[ \min \left( r_t( heta) \hat{A}_t, \operatorname{clip}(r_t( heta), 1 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon) \hat{A}_t 
ight) 
ight]$$

where:

- $r_t( heta) = rac{\pi_{ heta}(a_t|s_t)}{\pi_{ heta_{ ext{old}}}(a_t|s_t)}$  (**probability ratio** of new vs. old policy).
- $\hat{A}_t = \mathbf{advantage}$  (how much better  $a_t$  is than average).
- $\epsilon$  = clipping hyperparameter (typically **0.1–0.3**).

## 2. The Clipping Function

The clip operation restricts  $r_t(\theta)$  to the range  $[1 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon]$ :

$$\operatorname{clip}(r_t( heta), 1 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon) = egin{cases} 1 + \epsilon & ext{if } r_t( heta) > 1 + \epsilon, \ 1 - \epsilon & ext{if } r_t( heta) < 1 - \epsilon, \ r_t( heta) & ext{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

## Visualization of Clipping

- Inside the bounds  $(1 \epsilon \le r_t \le 1 + \epsilon)$ : No clipping; normal update.
- Outside the bounds: The gradient is "clipped" to avoid drastic changes.

# 3. The Min Operator: Why It Matters

The min operator ensures the update is **pessimistic** (i.e., it takes the **worst-case** improvement to avoid instability):

$$\min \left( r_t(\theta) \hat{A}_t, \operatorname{clip}(r_t(\theta)) \hat{A}_t \right)$$

#### Two Cases:

# (1) When $\hat{A}_t > 0$ (Good Action)

- We want to **increase**  $\pi_{\theta}(a_t|s_t)$ , but not too much.
- The update is **capped** at  $(1+\epsilon)\hat{A}_t$ .

# (2) When $\hat{A}_t < 0$ (Bad Action)

- We want to **decrease**  $\pi_{\theta}(a_t|s_t)$ , but not too much.
- The update is **floored** at  $(1 \epsilon)\hat{A}_t$ .

## 4. Numerical Example

#### Suppose:

- $\epsilon = 0.2$
- $\hat{A}_t = +0.5$  (good action),
- Old policy probability  $\pi_{ heta_{
  m old}}(a_t|s_t)=0.4.$

#### Case 1: New Policy Increases Probability ( $\pi_{\theta} = 0.6$ )

$$r_t(\theta) = \frac{0.6}{0.4} = 1.5$$

- Unclipped update:  $1.5 \times 0.5 = 0.75$ .
- Clipped update:  $clip(1.5, 0.8, 1.2) \times 0.5 = 1.2 \times 0.5 = 0.6$ .
- Final update: min(0.75, 0.6) = 0.6.
- $\rightarrow$  The update is **capped at 0.6** instead of 0.75.

## Case 2: New Policy Decreases Probability ( $\pi_{\theta} = 0.2$ )

$$r_t(\theta) = \frac{0.2}{0.4} = 0.5$$

- Unclipped update:  $0.5 \times 0.5 = 0.25$ .
- Clipped update:  $clip(0.5, 0.8, 1.2) \times 0.5 = 0.8 \times 0.5 = 0.4$ .
- Final update: min(0.25, 0.4) = 0.25.
- $\rightarrow$  The update is **not clipped** because  $r_t(\theta)\hat{A}_t$  is already conservative.

# 5. Why Clipping Works

- Prevents Catastrophic Updates: Without clipping, a large  $r_t(\theta)$  could lead to policy collapse (e.g., the policy becomes deterministic too quickly).
- Smoother Learning: Ensures updates are conservative and incremental.
- Robust to Hyperparameters: Less sensitive to learning rate choices than vanilla policy gradients.

# 6. Connection to Trust Region Optimization

PPO is a **first-order approximation** of Trust Region Policy Optimization (TRPO), which enforces a hard constraint on policy updates using KL divergence.

- TRPO: Uses complex second-order methods.
- PPO: Simpler (just clipping), but empirically works as well.

## 7. Practical Tips for Clipping

- **Typical**  $\epsilon$ : 0.1–0.3 (0.2 is a good default).
- Normalize Advantages: Reduces variance in updates.
- Multiple Epochs: Reuse data for 3–10 epochs per batch.

## 8. Summary

Scenario	Clipping Effect	
$\hat{A}_t > 0$	Caps $r_t(\theta)$ at $1+\epsilon$ ; prevents over-optimism.	
$\hat{A}_t < 0$	Floors $r_t(\theta)$ at $1 - \epsilon$ ; prevents over-pessimism.	
$r_t(\theta)$ in bounds	No clipping; standard policy gradient update.	