

# Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning

## Multi-Agent Deep Reinforcement Learning – Part 1

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Stefano V. Albrecht, Filippos Christianos, Lukas Schäfer

This lecture is based on

## **Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning: Foundations and Modern Approaches**

by Stefano V. Albrecht, Filippos Christianos and  
Lukas Schäfer

MIT Press, 2024

Download book, slides, and code at:

[www.marl-book.com](http://www.marl-book.com)



# Lecture Outline

- Training and execution modes
- Independent learning with deep reinforcement learning
- Multi-agent policy gradient algorithms
- Value decomposition in common-reward games

## Training and Execution Modes

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We often distinguish between training and execution modes in MARL:

- **Training:** what information is available to agents during learning?
- **Execution:** what information is available to agents for action selection?

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We have already seen two single-agent reductions of the MARL problem:

- **Independent learning:** each agent learns its policy independently  
→ decentralized training and decentralized execution

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→ decentralized training and decentralized execution
- **Central learning:** learn single policy over the joint action space  
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- **Independent learning:** each agent learns its policy independently  
→ decentralized training and decentralized execution
- **Central learning:** learn single policy over the joint action space  
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But we can also have **centralised training with decentralised execution (CTDE)**!

# Independent Learning with Deep Reinforcement Learning

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# Independent Learning with Deep Reinforcement Learning

## Reminder

In the independent learning framework, each agent  $i$  learns its policy  $\pi_i$  using only its local history of observations, treating the effects of other agents' actions as part of the environment.

- From the perspective of the individual agent, the environment transition function looks like this:

$$\mathcal{T}_i(s^{t+1}|s^t, a_i) \propto \sum_{a_{-i} \in A_{-i}} \mathcal{T}(s^{t+1}|s^t, \langle a_i, a_{-i} \rangle) \prod_{j \neq i} \pi_j(a_j|s^t)$$

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How about we do this with deep RL? We have already seen several single-agent deep RL algorithms: DQN, REINFORCE, A2C, PPO, etc.

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# Independent Deep Q-Networks

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## Algorithm Independent deep Q-networks

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- 1: Initialize  $n$  value networks with random parameters  $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n$
  - 2: Initialize  $n$  target networks with parameters  $\bar{\theta}_1 = \theta_1, \dots, \bar{\theta}_n = \theta_n$
  - 3: Initialize a replay buffer for each agent  $D_1, D_2, \dots, D_n$
  - 4: **for** time step  $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  **do**
  - 5:     Collect current observations  $o_1^t, \dots, o_n^t$
  - 6:     **for** agent  $i = 1, \dots, n$  **do**
  - 7:         With probability  $\epsilon$ : choose random action  $a_i^t$
  - 8:         Otherwise: choose  $a_i^t \in \arg \max_{a_i} Q(h_i^t, a_i; \theta_i)$
  - 9:     Apply actions  $(a_1^t, \dots, a_n^t)$ ; collect rewards  $r_1^t, \dots, r_n^t$  and next observations  $o_1^{t+1}, \dots, o_n^{t+1}$
  - 10:     **for** agent  $i = 1, \dots, n$  **do**
  - 11:         Store transition  $(h_i^t, a_i^t, r_i^t, h_i^{t+1})$  in replay buffers  $D_i$
  - 12:         Sample random mini-batch of  $B$  transitions  $(h_i^k, a_i^k, r_i^k, h_i^{k+1})$  from  $D_i$
  - 13:         **if**  $s^{k+1}$  is terminal **then**
  - 14:             Targets  $y_i^k \leftarrow r_i^k$
  - 15:         **else**
  - 16:             Targets  $y_i^k \leftarrow r_i^k + \gamma \max_{a_i' \in A_i} Q(h_i^{k+1}, a_i'; \bar{\theta}_i)$
  - 17:         Loss  $\mathcal{L}(\theta_i) \leftarrow \frac{1}{B} \sum_{k=1}^B \left( y_i^k - Q(h_i^k, a_i^k; \theta_i) \right)^2$
  - 18:         Update parameters  $\theta_i$  by minimizing the loss  $\mathcal{L}(\theta_i)$
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- Almost identical to DQN from Chapter 8 but with  $n$  agents!

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- Almost identical to DQN from Chapter 8 but with  $n$  agents!
- Replay buffer contains off-policy experiences due to changing policies
- In MARL, the policies of **all** agents are changing  $\rightarrow$  training can be unstable



# Independent Advantage Actor-Critic

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**Algorithm** Independent A2C with synchronous environments

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- 1: Initialize  $n$  actor networks with random parameters  $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n$
  - 2: Initialize  $n$  critic networks with random parameters  $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n$
  - 3: Initialize  $K$  parallel environments
  - 4: **for** time step  $t = 0 \dots \text{do}$
  - 5:   Batch of observations for each agent and environment: 
$$\begin{bmatrix} o_1^{t,1} & \dots & o_1^{t,K} \\ & \ddots & \\ o_n^{t,1} & \dots & o_n^{t,K} \end{bmatrix}$$
  - 6:   Sample actions  $\begin{bmatrix} a_1^{t,1} & \dots & a_1^{t,K} \\ & \ddots & \\ a_n^{t,1} & \dots & a_n^{t,K} \end{bmatrix} \sim \pi(\cdot \mid h_1^t; \phi_1), \dots, \pi(\cdot \mid h_n^t; \phi_n)$
  - 7:   Apply actions; collect rewards  $\begin{bmatrix} r_1^{t,1} & \dots & r_1^{t,K} \\ & \ddots & \\ r_n^{t,1} & \dots & r_n^{t,K} \end{bmatrix}$  and observations  $\begin{bmatrix} o_1^{t+1,1} & \dots & o_1^{t+1,K} \\ & \ddots & \\ o_n^{t+1,1} & \dots & o_n^{t+1,K} \end{bmatrix}$
  - 8:   **for** agent  $i = 1, \dots, n$  **do**
  - 9:     **if**  $s^{t+1,k}$  is terminal **then**
  - 10:       Advantage  $\text{Adv}(h_i^{t,k}, a_i^{t,k}) \leftarrow r_i^{t,k} - V(h_i^{t,k}; \theta_i)$
  - 11:       Critic target  $y_i^{t,k} \leftarrow r_i^{t,k}$
  - 12:     **else**
  - 13:       Advantage  $\text{Adv}(h_i^{t,k}, a_i^{t,k}) \leftarrow r_i^{t,k} + \gamma V(h_i^{t+1,k}; \theta_i) - V(h_i^{t,k}; \theta_i)$
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  - 16:     Critic loss  $\mathcal{L}(\theta_i) \leftarrow \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K (y_i^{t,k} - V(h_i^{t,k}; \theta_i))^2$
  - 17:     Update parameters  $\phi_i$  by minimizing the actor loss  $\mathcal{L}(\phi_i)$
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8:   **for** agent  $i = 1, \dots, n$  **do**

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- Almost identical to single-agent A2C from Chapter 8
- Similar adaptation can be done for independent REINFORCE and independent PPO

# Challenges of Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning

## Reminder

MARL algorithms suffer from multi-agent specific challenges:

- **Non-stationarity:** exacerbated due to changing policies of all agents
- **Equilibrium selection:** how to converge to a stable equilibrium?
- **Multi-agent credit assignment:** how to attribute rewards to agents' actions?
- **Scaling to many agents:** how to efficiently scale to large numbers of agents?

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Centralised training with decentralised execution (CTDE) can help address some of these challenges.

# Multi-Agent Policy Gradient Algorithms

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# The Policy-Gradient Theorem

## Reminder

Follow this gradient to optimise the parameters  $\phi$  of the policy  $\pi$  to maximise the expected return:

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla_{\phi} J(\phi) &\propto \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} \Pr(s \mid \pi) \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} Q^{\pi}(s, a) \nabla_{\phi} \pi(a \mid s; \phi) \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{s \sim \Pr(\cdot \mid \pi), a \sim \pi(\cdot \mid s; \phi)} [Q^{\pi}(s, a) \nabla_{\phi} \log \pi(a \mid s; \phi)]\end{aligned}$$

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Does this also hold for MARL? Yes, with minor modifications!



# The Multi-Agent Policy-Gradient Theorem

## Solution

In MARL, the expected returns of agent  $i$  under its policy  $\pi_i$  depends on the policies of all other agents  $\pi_{-i} \rightarrow$  the multi-agent policy gradient theorem defines an expectation over the policies of **all** agents:

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We have already seen independent A2C that estimates  $Adv(h_i, a_i) \approx Q_i^\pi(\hat{h}, \langle a_i, a_{-i} \rangle)$

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We have already seen independent A2C that estimates  $\text{Adv}(h_i, a_i) \approx Q_i^\pi(\hat{h}, \langle a_i, a_{-i} \rangle)$

But can we do better? Perhaps by leveraging more information?

## Note

In actor-critic algorithms, only the policy/actor is used during execution and the critic is used only during training → the critic can be conditioned on centralised information  $z$  without compromising decentralised execution.

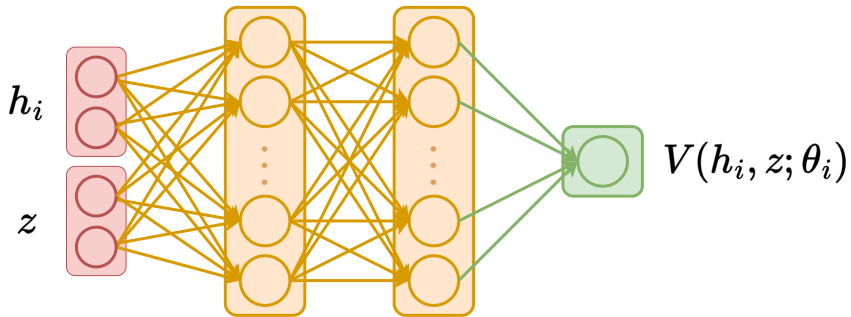
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This might include:

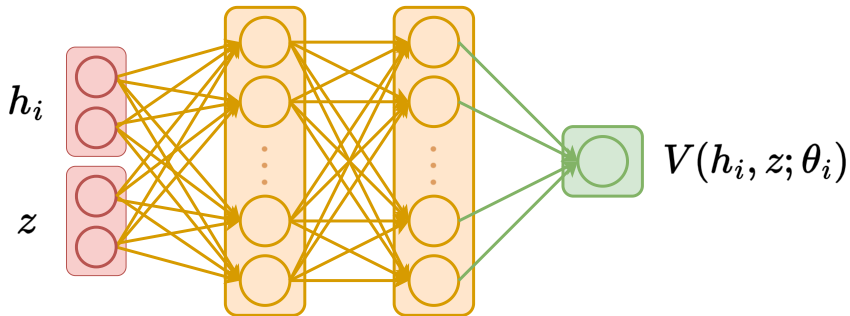
- Global state  $s$
- Joint action  $a$
- Joint observation history  $h$
- ...

## Centralized Critics





## Centralized Critics



Now we can integrate centralized critics into multi-agent policy gradient algorithms.

# Centralized Advantage Actor-Critic

---

## Algorithm Centralized A2C with synchronous environments

---

```

1: Initialize  $n$  actor networks with random parameters  $\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n$ 
2: Initialize  $n$  critic networks with random parameters  $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n$ 
3: Initialize  $K$  parallel environments
4: for time step  $t = 0 \dots \mathbf{do}$ 

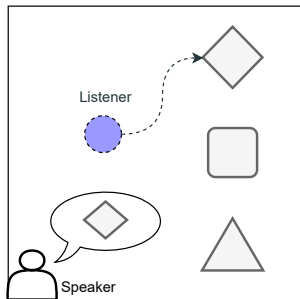
5:   Batch of observations for each agent and environment:  $\begin{bmatrix} o_1^{t,1} \dots o_1^{t,K} \\ \vdots \\ o_n^{t,1} \dots o_n^{t,K} \end{bmatrix}$ 
6:   Batch of centralized information for each environment:  $[z^{t,1} \dots z^{t,K}]$ 
7:   Sample actions  $\begin{bmatrix} a_1^{t,1} \dots a_1^{t,K} \\ \vdots \\ a_n^{t,1} \dots a_n^{t,K} \end{bmatrix} \sim \pi(\cdot \mid h_1^t; \phi_1), \dots, \pi(\cdot \mid h_n^t; \phi_n)$ 
8:   Apply actions; collect rewards  $\begin{bmatrix} r_1^{t,1} \dots r_1^{t,K} \\ \vdots \\ r_n^{t,1} \dots r_n^{t,K} \end{bmatrix}$ , observations  $\begin{bmatrix} o_1^{t+1,1} \dots o_1^{t+1,K} \\ \vdots \\ o_n^{t+1,1} \dots o_n^{t+1,K} \end{bmatrix}$ , and
   centralized information  $[z^{t+1,1} \dots z^{t+1,K}]$ 
9:   for agent  $i = 1, \dots, n$  do
10:     if  $s^{t+1,i}$  is terminal then
11:        $Adv(h_i^{t,i}, z^{t,i}, a_i^{t,i}) \leftarrow r_i^{t,i} - V(h_i^{t,i}, z^{t,i}; \theta_i)$ 
12:       Critic target  $y_i^{t,i} \leftarrow r_i^{t,i}$ 
13:     else
14:        $Adv(h_i^{t,i}, z^{t,i}, a_i^{t,i}) \leftarrow r_i^{t,i} + \gamma V(h_i^{t+1,i}, z^{t+1,i}; \theta_i) - V(h_i^{t,i}, z^{t,i}; \theta_i)$ 
15:       Critic target  $y_i^{t,i} \leftarrow r_i^{t,i} + \gamma V(h_i^{t+1,i}, z^{t+1,i}; \theta_i)$ 
16:     Actor loss  $\mathcal{L}(\phi_i) \leftarrow \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K Adv(h_i^{t,i}, z^{t,i}, a_i^{t,i}) \log \pi(a_i^{t,i} \mid h_i^{t,i}; \phi_i)$ 
17:     Critic loss  $\mathcal{L}(\theta_i) \leftarrow \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K (y_i^{t,i} - V(h_i^{t,i}, z^{t,i}; \theta_i))^2$ 
18:     Update parameters  $\phi_i$  by minimizing the actor loss  $\mathcal{L}(\phi_i)$ 
19:     Update parameters  $\theta_i$  by minimizing the critic loss  $\mathcal{L}(\theta_i)$ 

```

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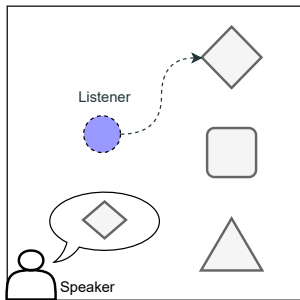
- Simple extension of independent A2C.
- Centralized information  $z$  is added to the critic input.

# Centralized Critics in Action

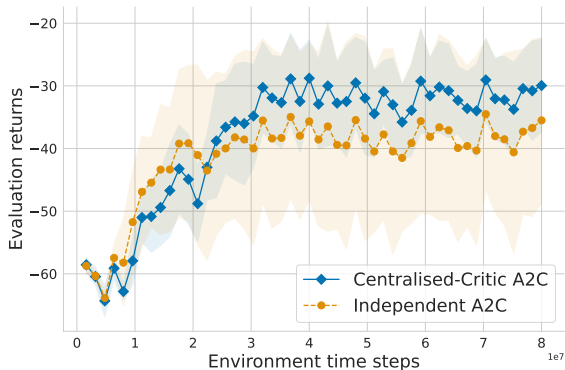


(a) Speaker-listener game

# Centralized Critics in Action



(a) Speaker-listener game

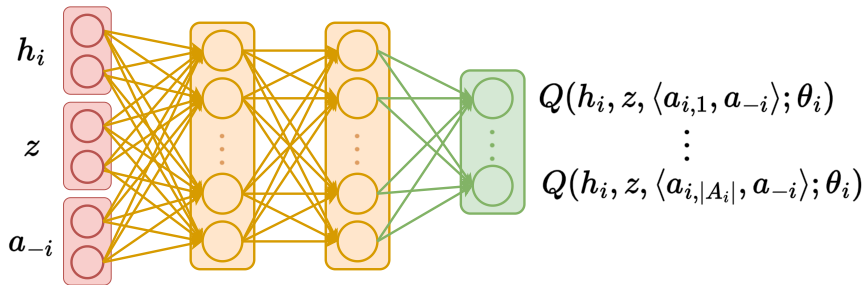


(b) Training curves

Agents with centralized critics converge to higher returns than agents with independent critics in the partially observable speaker-listener game.

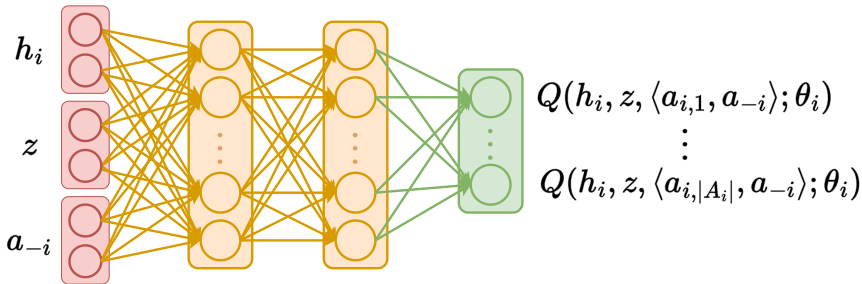
## Centralized Action-Value Critics

Similarly, we can learn an action-value function that receives additional centralized information  $z$ .



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But what for? The centralized action-value critic can reason about the joint action space!

# Counterfactual Multi-Agent Policy Gradient

For example, we can compute a counterfactual advantage for agent  $i$

$$\text{Adv}_i(h_i, z, a) = Q(h_i, z, a; \theta) - \underbrace{\sum_{a'_i \in A_i} \pi(a'_i \mid h_i; \phi_i) Q(h_i, z, \langle a'_i, a_{-i} \rangle; \theta)}_{\text{counterfactual baseline}}$$

with the following components:

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Identify contribution of agent  $i$ 's action  $a_i$  to received rewards  $\Rightarrow$  help to address the **credit assignment problem** in common-reward games

# The Equilibrium Selection Problem

## Problem

Many multi-agent games have multiple equilibria. In such games, it is difficult for all agents to agree on and stably converge to a single equilibrium. This is known as the **equilibrium selection problem**.

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	A	B
A	4,4‡	0,3
B	3,0	2,2†

Figure: Stag Hunt

	A	B	C
A	11‡	-30	0
B	-30	7†	0
C	0	6	5

Figure: Climbing

The Stag Hunt and Climbing matrix games have multiple equilibria.

†: Pareto-dominated equilibria

‡: Pareto-optimal equilibria

## Example for the Equilibrium Selection Problem

	A	B	C
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**Figure:** Climbing game

- Pareto-optimal equilibrium (‡):  
(A, A) with +11
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	A	B	C
A	11 $\ddagger$	-30	0
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**Figure:** Climbing game

- All agents prefer the Pareto-optimal equilibrium
- **But** deviation from the equilibrium by any agent results in lower returns → e.g. risk of receiving -30 if one agent deviates from A to B

- Pareto-optimal equilibrium ( $\ddagger$ ):  
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Due to the risk of deviations, agents often converge to the safer Pareto-dominated equilibrium or even the suboptimal solution (C, C) with +5.

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How can we overcome this problem and robustly converge to the optimal equilibrium?



## Pareto Actor-Critic for Equilibrium Selection

Both shown matrix games are **no-conflict games** where agents agree on the optimal policy:

$$\arg \max_{\pi} U_i(\pi) = \arg \max_{\pi} U_j(\pi) \quad \forall i, j \in I$$

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We can use this property! Agent  $i$  during training assumes that all other agents follow the policy  $\pi_{-i}^+$  that is best for agent  $i$ , i.e.  $\pi_{-i}^+ \in \arg \max_{\pi_{-i}} U_i(\pi_i, \pi_{-i})$ .

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We can compute  $\pi_{-i}^+$  using a centralized critic that receives the joint action  $a$  as input:

$$\pi_{-i}^+ \in \arg \max_{a_{-i}} Q(h_i^t, z^t, \langle a_i^t, a_{-i} \rangle)$$

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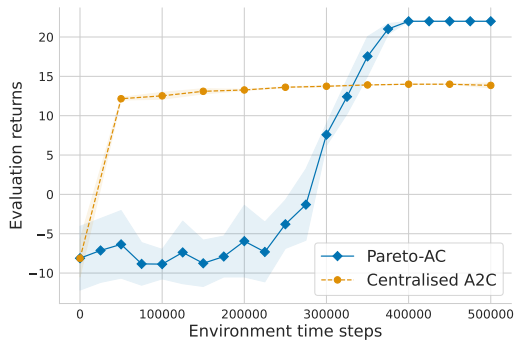
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During training, agent  $i$  optimises its policy  $\pi_i$  by minimising the following loss:

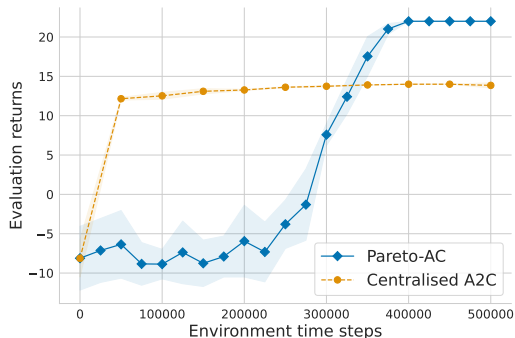
$$\mathcal{L}(\phi_i) = -\mathbb{E}_{a_i^t \sim \pi_i, a_{-i}^t \sim \pi_{-i}^+} \left[ \log \pi(a_i^t \mid h_i^t; \phi_i) \left( Q^{\pi^+}(h_i^t, z^t, \langle a_i^t, a_{-i}^t \rangle; \theta_i^q) - V^{\pi^+}(h_i^t, z^t; \theta_i^v) \right) \right]$$

# Pareto Actor-Critic for Equilibrium Selection in Climbing Game



**Figure:** Learning curves in the Climbing game.

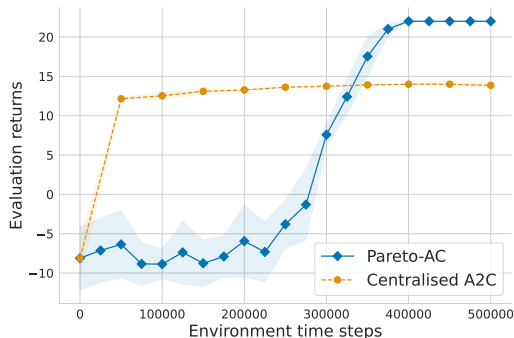
# Pareto Actor-Critic for Equilibrium Selection in Climbing Game



- A2C with centralized state-value critic converges to the Pareto-dominated equilibrium (B, B) with +7 (per agent).

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**Figure:** Learning curves in the Climbing game.

- A2C with centralized state-value critic converges to the Pareto-dominated equilibrium (B, B) with +7 (per agent).
- **Pareto actor-critic** converges to the Pareto-optimal equilibrium (A, A) with +11 (per agent).

# Value Decomposition in Common-Reward Games

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## Centralized Value Functions in Value-Based MARL

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## Problem

In value-based MARL algorithms (e.g. IDQN) agents learn value functions and derive their policy from them. However, learning and deriving a policy from centralized value functions would prevent decentralized execution.

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How can we overcome this limitation and leverage the benefits of centralized value functions in value-based MARL algorithms?

# Value Decomposition

We will focus on **value decomposition** methods for common-reward games. These methods aim to decompose a centralized action-value function of all agents

$$Q(h^t, z^t, a^t; \theta) = \mathbb{E} \left[ \sum_{\tau=t}^{\infty} \gamma^{\tau-t} r^{\tau} \mid h^t, z^t, a^t \right]$$

into individual utility functions of each agent:  $Q(h_i, a_i; \theta_i)$  for  $i \in I$

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This decomposition has several benefits:

- Agents benefit from centralized information during training
- Simplify learning by decomposing the centralized value function
- Agents learn their individual utility functions to represent their contribution to the centralized value function, helping to address the **credit assignment problem**

## Individual-Global-Max Property

How to ensure that decentralized action selection with respect to the agents' individual utility functions leads to effective joint actions with respect to the centralized action-value function?

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## Solution

Let  $\hat{h}$  be a full history with joint-observation histories  $h = \sigma(\hat{h})$ , individual observation histories,  $h_i = \sigma_i(\hat{h})$ , and centralized information  $z$ . The **individual-global-max (IGM) property** is satisfied if and only if:

$$\forall a = (a_1, \dots, a_n) \in A : a \in A^*(h, z; \theta) \iff \forall i \in I : a_i \in A_i^*(h_i; \theta_i)$$

with  $A^*(h, z; \theta) = \arg \max_{a \in A} Q(h, z, a; \theta)$  and  $A_i^*(h_i; \theta_i) = \arg \max_{a_i \in A_i} Q(h_i, a_i; \theta_i)$ .

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2. The greedy joint action with respect to the centralized action-value function can be efficiently obtained by selecting the greedy action for each agent with respect to their individual utility functions → **efficient centralized training**

## Note

It is not guaranteed that for a given environment, there exists a decomposition of the centralized action-value function that satisfies the IGM property.

# Linear Value Decomposition

Value decomposition networks (VDN) uses a simple linear decomposition of the centralized action-value function:

$$Q(h^t, z^t, a^t; \theta) = \sum_{i \in I} Q(h_i^t, a_i^t; \theta_i)$$

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This decomposition satisfies the IGM property and we can jointly optimise the parameters of all networks by minimising the following loss on sampled batches of experiences  $\mathcal{B}$ :

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{(h^t, a^t, r^t, h^{t+1}) \in \mathcal{B}} \left( r^t + \gamma \sum_{i \in I} \max_{a_i \in A_i} Q(h_i^{t+1}, a_i; \bar{\theta}_i) - \sum_{i \in I} Q(h_i^t, a_i^t; \theta_i) \right)^2$$

with  $\bar{\theta}_i$  denoting the parameters of agent  $i$ 's target network.

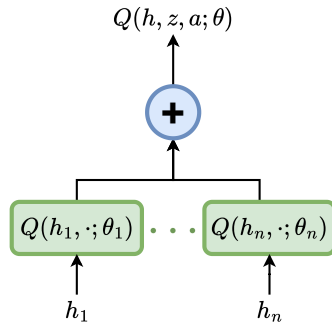
# Value Decomposition Networks

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## Algorithm Value decomposition networks (VDN)

---

- 1: Initialize  $n$  utility networks with random parameters  $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n$
  - 2: Initialize  $n$  target networks with parameters  $\bar{\theta}_1 = \theta_1, \dots, \bar{\theta}_n = \theta_n$
  - 3: Initialize a shared replay buffer  $D$
  - 4: **for** time step  $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  **do**
  - 5:   Collect current observations  $o_1^t, \dots, o_n^t$
  - 6:   **for** agent  $i = 1, \dots, n$  **do**
  - 7:     With probability  $\epsilon$ : choose random action  $a_i^t$
  - 8:     Otherwise: choose  $a_i^t \in \arg \max_{a_i} Q(h_i^t, a_i; \theta_i)$
  - 9:   Apply actions; collect shared reward  $r^t$  and next observations  $o_1^{t+1}, \dots, o_n^{t+1}$
  - 10:   Store transition  $(h^t, a^t, r^t, h^{t+1})$  in shared replay buffer  $D$
  - 11:   Sample mini-batch of  $B$  transitions  $(h^k, a^k, r^k, h^{k+1})$  from  $D$
  - 12:   **if**  $s^{k+1}$  is terminal **then**
  - 13:     Targets  $y^k \leftarrow r^k$
  - 14:   **else**
  - 15:     Targets  $y^k \leftarrow r^k + \gamma \sum_{i \in I} \max_{a_i' \in A_i} Q(h_i^{k+1}, a_i'; \bar{\theta}_i)$
  - 16:   Loss  $\mathcal{L}(\theta) \leftarrow \frac{1}{B} \sum_{k=1}^B \left( y^k - \sum_{i \in I} Q(h_i^k, a_i^k; \theta_i) \right)^2$
  - 17:   Update parameters  $\theta$  by minimizing the loss  $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$
  - 18:   In a set interval, update target network parameters  $\bar{\theta}_i$  for each agent  $i$
- 



# Monotonic Value Decomposition

A more general decomposition (that also ensures the IGM property) can be formulated by assuming that the centralized action-value function is a (strictly) monotonically increasing function with respect to any individual utility function:

$$\forall i \in I, \forall a \in A : \frac{\partial Q(h, z, a; \theta)}{\partial Q(h_i, a_i; \theta_i)} > 0$$

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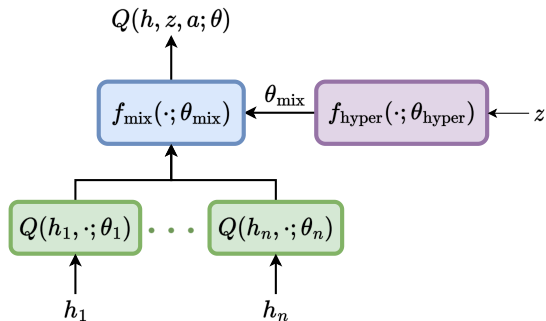
$$\forall i \in I, \forall a \in A : \frac{\partial Q(h, z, a; \theta)}{\partial Q(h_i, a_i; \theta_i)} > 0$$

The **QMIX** algorithm implements this assumption using a mixing function  $f_{\text{mix}}$  that aggregates individual utilities to approximate the centralized action-value function:

$$Q(h, z, a, \theta) = f_{\text{mix}}(Q(h_1, a_1; \theta_1), \dots, Q(h_n, a_n; \theta_n); \theta_{\text{mix}})$$



# QMIX Architecture



The centralized action-value function is monotonic with respect to individual utilities if all weights of  $f_{\text{mix}}$  are positive

⇒ Ensure positive weights by obtaining the parameters of the mixing function from a hypernetwork  $f_{\text{hyper}}$  conditioned on centralized information  $z$

Parameters of all utility functions and hypernetwork are jointly optimised by minimising the following loss on batches of experiences  $\mathcal{B}$  sampled from a replay buffer:

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{(h^t, z^t, a^t, r^t, h^{t+1}, z^{t+1}) \in \mathcal{B}} \left( r^t + \gamma \max_{a \in A} Q(h^{t+1}, z^{t+1}, a; \bar{\theta}) - Q(h^t, z^t, a^t; \theta) \right)^2$$

with the following decomposed value estimates:

$$Q(h^t, z^t, a^t, \theta) = f_{\text{mix}} (Q(h_1^t, a_1^t; \theta_1), \dots, Q(h_n^t, a_n^t; \theta_n); \theta_{\text{mix}})$$
$$\max_{a \in A} Q(h^{t+1}, z^{t+1}, a; \bar{\theta}) = f_{\text{mix}} \left( \max_{a_1 \in A_1} Q(h_1^{t+1}, a_1; \bar{\theta}_1), \dots, \max_{a_n \in A_n} Q(h_n^{t+1}, a_n; \bar{\theta}_n); \bar{\theta}_{\text{mix}} \right)$$

# Value Decomposition in Matrix Games

To better understand how value decomposition works in practise, we will look at several exemple tasks and the learned decompositions of both VDN and QMIX.

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B	5	9

**Figure:** Linear game

	A	B
A	0	0
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**Figure:** Monotonic game

	A	B	C
A	11	-30	0
B	-30	7	0
C	0	6	5

**Figure:** Climbing game

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	Linear game	Monotonic game	Climbing game
Linearly decomposable	✓	✗	✗
Monotonically decomposable	✓	✓	✗

# Value Decomposition in Linearly Decomposable Matrix Game

	A	B
A	1	5
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(a) True rewards

	0.12	<b>4.12</b>
0.88	1.00	5.00
<b>4.88</b>	5.00	<b>9.00</b>

(b) VDN decomposition

	-0.21	<b>0.68</b>
0.19	1.00	5.00
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We can make several observations from the learned decompositions:

- VDN and QMIX are able to learn the true centralized action-value function
- The learned decompositions are not unique and can vary between different runs
- Individual utility values, in particular for QMIX, can be difficult to interpret (besides larger values indicating higher return estimates)

# Value Decomposition in Monotonically Decomposable Matrix Game

	A	B
A	0	0
B	0	10

(a) True rewards

	-1.45	3.45
-0.94	-2.43	2.51
4.08	2.60	7.53

(b) VDN decomposition

	-4.91	0.82
-4.66	0.00	0.00
1.81	0.00	10.00

(c) QMIX decomposition

# Value Decomposition in Monotonically Decomposable Matrix Game

	A	B
A	0	0
B	0	10

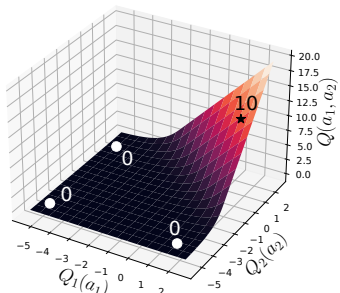
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(b) VDN decomposition

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-4.66	0.00	0.00
1.81	0.00	10.00

(c) QMIX decomposition



Only QMIX is able to represent the non-linear but monotonic relationship between the individual utility functions and the centralized action-value function.

# Value Decomposition in Climbing Game

	A	B	C
A	11	-30	0
B	-30	7	0
C	0	6	5

**Figure:** True rewards

In the Climbing game, neither VDN nor QMIX are able to learn the true centralized action-value function and converge to sub-optimal policies.

	-4.56	-4.15	<b>3.28</b>
-4.28	-8.84	-8.43	-1.00
-6.10	-10.66	-10.25	-2.82
<b>5.31</b>	0.75	1.16	<b>8.59</b>

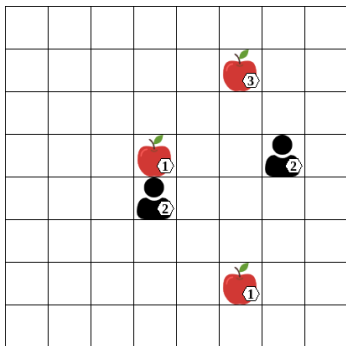
**(a)** VDN decomposition

	-16.60	<b>-0.24</b>	-4.68
-7.44	-11.16	-11.16	-11.16
7.65	-11.15	2.34	-1.37
<b>11.27</b>	-4.95	<b>8.72</b>	5.01

**(b)** QMIX decomposition

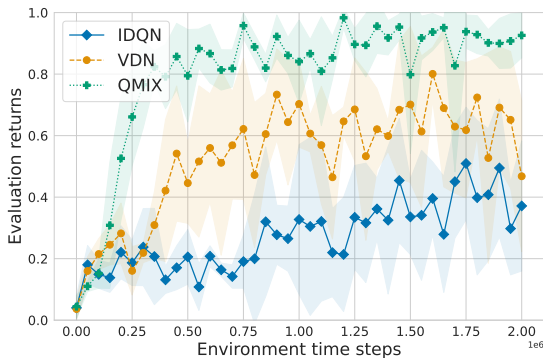
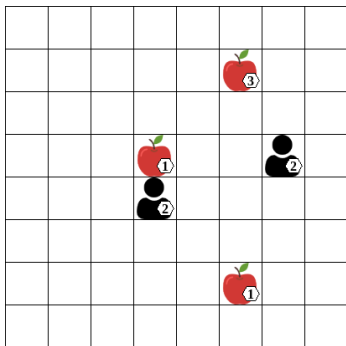
## Value Decomposition in LBF

Now compare IDQN, VDN and QMIX in a common-reward level-based foraging task where two agents need to collect three items:



# Value Decomposition in LBF

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# Summary

## We covered:

- Training and execution modes
- Independent learning with deep reinforcement learning
- Multi-agent policy gradient algorithms
- Value decomposition in common-reward games

## Next we'll cover:

- Agent modeling with deep learning
- Parameter and experience sharing
- Policy self-play in zero-sum games
- Population-based training