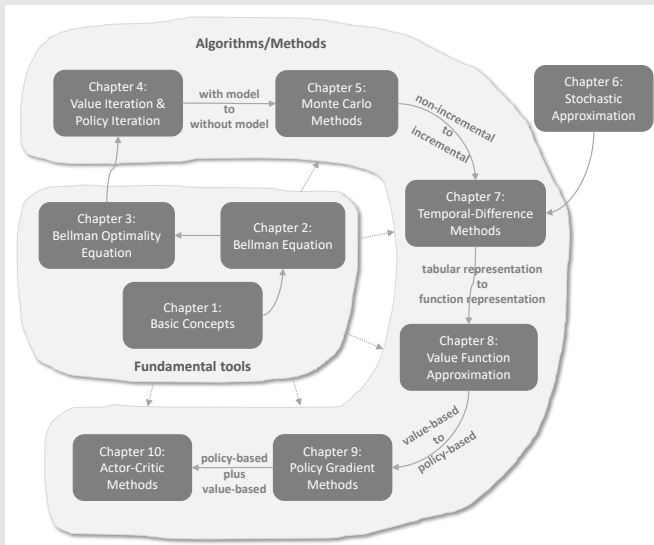


Lecture 9: Policy Gradient Methods

Shiyu Zhao

Outline



In this lecture, we will move

- from value-based methods to policy-based methods
- from value function approximation to policy function approximation

- 1 Basic idea of policy gradient
- 2 Metrics to define optimal policies
 - Metric 1: Average value
 - Metric 2: Average reward
 - Summary of the two metrics
- 3 Gradients of the metrics
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Basic idea of policy gradient

Previously, policies have been represented by tables:

- The action probabilities of all states are stored in a table $\pi(a|s)$. Each entry of the table is indexed by a state and an action.

	a_1	a_2	a_3	a_4	a_5
s_1	$\pi(a_1 s_1)$	$\pi(a_2 s_1)$	$\pi(a_3 s_1)$	$\pi(a_4 s_1)$	$\pi(a_5 s_1)$
\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots	\vdots
s_9	$\pi(a_1 s_9)$	$\pi(a_2 s_9)$	$\pi(a_3 s_9)$	$\pi(a_4 s_9)$	$\pi(a_5 s_9)$

Now, policies can be represented by parameterized functions:

$$\pi(a|s, \theta)$$

where $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is a parameter vector.

- The function can be, for example, a neural network, whose input is s , output is the probability to take each action, and parameter is θ .
- **Advantage:** when the state space is large, the tabular representation will be of low efficiency in terms of storage and generalization.
- The function representation is also sometimes written as $\pi(a, s, \theta)$, $\pi_\theta(a|s)$, or $\pi_\theta(a, s)$.

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Differences between tabular and function representations:

- First, how to define optimal policies?
 - In the tabular case, a policy π is optimal if it can maximize *every state value*.
 - In the function case, a policy π is optimal if it can maximize certain *scalar metrics*.

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Differences between tabular and function representations:

- Second, how to access the probability of an action?
 - In the tabular case, the probability of taking a at s can be directly accessed by looking up the tabular policy.
 - In the function case, we need to calculate the value of $\pi(a|s, \theta)$ given the function structure and the parameter.

Differences between tabular and function representations:

- Third, how to update policies?
 - In the tabular case, a policy π can be updated by directly changing the entries in the table.
 - In the function case, a policy π cannot be updated in this way anymore. Instead, it can only be updated by changing *the parameter θ* .

Basic idea of policy gradient

The basic idea of the policy gradient is simple:

- First, metrics (or objective functions) to define optimal policies: $J(\theta)$, which can define optimal policies.
- Second, gradient-based optimization algorithms to search for optimal policies:

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + \alpha \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta_t)$$

Although the idea is simple, the complication emerges when we try to answer the following questions.

- What appropriate metrics should be used?
- How to calculate the gradients of the metrics?

These questions will be answered in detail in this lecture.

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Metric 1: average value

The first metric is the **average state value** or simply called **average value**:

$$\bar{v}_\pi = \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} d(s) v_\pi(s)$$

- \bar{v}_π is a weighted average of the state values.
- $d(s) \geq 0$ is the weight for state s .

Since $\sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} d(s) = 1$, we can interpret $d(s)$ as a probability distribution. Then, the metric can be written as

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An important equivalent expression:

You will see the following metric often in the literature:

$$J(\theta) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{t=0}^n \gamma^t R_{t+1} \right] = \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t R_{t+1} \right].$$

Question: What is its relationship to the metric we introduced just now?

Answer: They are the same. That is because

$$J(\theta) = \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t R_{t+1} \right] = \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} d(s) \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t R_{t+1} | S_0 = s \right]$$

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How to select the distribution d ? There are two cases.

Case 1: d is **independent** of the policy π .

- This case is relatively simple because the gradient of the metric is easier to calculate.
- In this case, we specifically denote d as d_0 and \bar{v}_π as \bar{v}_π^0 .

How to select d_0 ?

- One trivial way is to treat all the states equally important and hence select $d_0(s) = 1/|S|$.
- Another important case is that we are only interested in a specific state s_0 . For example, the episodes in some tasks always start from the same state s_0 . Then, we only care about the long-term return starting from s_0 . In this case,

$$d_0(s_0) = 1, \quad d_0(s \neq s_0) = 0$$

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How to select the distribution d ? There are two cases.

Case 2: d **depends** on the policy π .

- A common way is to select d as $d_\pi(s)$, which is the stationary distribution under π .
Details of stationary distribution can be found in the last lecture and the book.
- The interpretation of selecting d_π is as follows.
 - d_π reflects the long-run behavior of the Markov decision process under a given policy π .
 - If one state is frequently visited in the long run, it is more important and deserves more weight.
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Metric 2: average reward

The second metric is **average one-step reward** or simply **average reward**:

$$\bar{r}_\pi \doteq \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} d_\pi(s) r_\pi(s) = \mathbb{E}[r_\pi(S)],$$

where $S \sim d_\pi$,

$$r_\pi(s) = \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \pi(a|s) r(s, a)$$

$$r(s, a) = \mathbb{E}[R|s, a] = \sum_r r p(r|s, a)$$

Remarks:

- $r_\pi(s)$ is the average immediate reward that can be obtained starting from state s .
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An important equivalent expression:

- Suppose an agent follows a given policy and generate a trajectory with the rewards as (R_1, R_2, \dots) .
- The average single-step reward along this trajectory is

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{E} [R_1 + R_2 + \dots + R_n | S_0 = s_0] \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{t=0}^{n-1} R_{t+1} | S_0 = s_0 \right] \end{aligned}$$

where s_0 is the starting state of the trajectory.

An important fact is that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{t=0}^{n-1} R_{t+1} | S_0 = s_0 \right] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_{t=0}^{n-1} R_{t+1} \right]$$

Remarks:

- The derivation of the above equation is nontrivial and can be found in my book.
- Highlight: the starting state s_0 does not matter.

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Summary of the two metrics

Metric	Expression 1	Expression 2	Expression 3
\bar{v}_π	$\sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} d(s) v_\pi(s)$	$\mathbb{E}_{S \sim d}[v_\pi(S)]$	$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}[\sum_{t=0}^n \gamma^t R_{t+1}]$
\bar{r}_π	$\sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} d_\pi(s) r_\pi(s)$	$\mathbb{E}_{S \sim d_\pi}[r_\pi(S)]$	$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{E}[\sum_{t=0}^{n-1} R_{t+1}]$

Table: Summary of the different but equivalent expressions of \bar{v}_π and \bar{r}_π .

Remark 1 about the metrics:

- All these metrics are functions of π .
- Since π is parameterized by θ , these metrics are functions of θ .
- In other words, different values of θ can generate different metric values.

Therefore, we can search for the optimal values of θ to maximize these metrics.
This is the basic idea of policy gradient methods.

Remark 2 about the metrics:

- One complication is that the metrics can be defined in either the **discounted case** where $\gamma \in (0, 1)$ or the **undiscounted case** where $\gamma = 1$.
- The undiscounted case is nontrivial.
- We only consider the discounted case so far in this book. For details about the undiscounted case, see the book.

Remark 3 about the metrics:

- Intuitively, \bar{r}_π is more **short-sighted** because it merely considers the immediate rewards, whereas \bar{v}_π considers the total reward over all steps.
- However, the two metrics are **equivalent** to each other. Specifically, in the discounted case where $\gamma < 1$, it holds that

$$\bar{r}_\pi = (1 - \gamma)\bar{v}_\pi.$$

Therefore, they can be optimized simultaneously. See the proof in the book.

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Given a metric, we next

- derive its gradient
- and then, apply gradient-based methods to optimize the metric.

The gradient calculation is one of the most complicated parts of policy gradient methods! That is because

- first, we need to distinguish different metrics \bar{v}_π , \bar{r}_π , \bar{v}_π^0
- second, we need to distinguish the discounted and undiscounted cases.

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I simply give the expression of the gradient without proof:

$$\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) = \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} \eta(s) \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} \nabla_{\theta} \pi(a|s, \theta) q_{\pi}(s, a)$$

The above is a unified expression of many cases:

- $J(\theta)$ can be \bar{v}_{π} , \bar{r}_{π} , or \bar{v}_{π}^0 .
- "=" may denote strict equality, approximation, or proportional to.
- η is a distribution or weight of the states.

The derivation of this expression is **very complex**.

Details are not given here. Interested readers can read my book.

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A compact and useful form of the gradient:

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First, why is this expression useful?

- Because we can use samples to approximate the gradient:

$$\nabla_{\theta} J \approx \nabla_{\theta} \ln \pi(a|s, \theta) q_{\pi}(s, a)$$

where s, a are samples. This is the idea of stochastic gradient descent.

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Second, how to prove the above equation?

Consider the function $\ln \pi$ where \ln is the natural logarithm. It is easy to see that

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$$\pi(a|s, \theta) > 0$$

- This can be achieved by using softmax functions that can normalize the entries in a vector from $(-\infty, +\infty)$ to $(0, 1)$.
- For example, for any vector $x = [x_1, \dots, x_n]^T$,

$$z_i = \frac{e^{x_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^n e^{x_j}}$$

where $z_i \in (0, 1)$ and $\sum_{i=1}^n z_i = 1$.

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$$\pi(a|s, \theta) = \frac{e^{h(s, a, \theta)}}{\sum_{a' \in \mathcal{A}} e^{h(s, a', \theta)}}$$

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- Such a form based on the softmax function can be realized by a neural network whose input is s and parameter is θ . The network has $|\mathcal{A}|$ outputs, each of which corresponds to $\pi(a|s, \theta)$ for an action a . The activation function of the output layer should be softmax.
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- 1 Basic idea of policy gradient
- 2 Metrics to define optimal policies
 - Metric 1: Average value
 - Metric 2: Average reward
 - Summary of the two metrics
- 3 Gradients of the metrics
- 4 Gradient-ascent algorithm
- 5 Summary

Now, we are ready to present **the first policy gradient algorithm** to find optimal policies!

- The gradient-ascent algorithm maximizing $J(\theta)$ is

$$\begin{aligned}\theta_{t+1} &= \theta_t + \alpha \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) \\ &= \theta_t + \alpha \mathbb{E} \left[\nabla_{\theta} \ln \pi(A|S, \theta_t) q_{\pi}(S, A) \right]\end{aligned}$$

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- If $q_{\pi}(s_t, a_t)$ is estimated by Monte Carlo estimation, the algorithm has a specific name, **REINFORCE**.
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Pseudocode: Policy Gradient by Monte Carlo (REINFORCE)

Initialization: Initial parameter θ ; $\gamma \in (0, 1)$; $\alpha > 0$.

Goal: Learn an optimal policy to maximize $J(\theta)$.

For each episode, do

 Generate an episode $\{s_0, a_0, r_1, \dots, s_{T-1}, a_{T-1}, r_T\}$ following $\pi(\theta)$.

 For $t = 0, 1, \dots, T - 1$:

Value update: $q_t(s_t, a_t) = \sum_{k=t+1}^T \gamma^{k-t-1} r_k$

Policy update: $\theta \leftarrow \theta + \alpha \nabla_\theta \ln \pi(a_t | s_t, \theta) q_t(s_t, a_t)$

Remark 1: How to do sampling?

$$\mathbb{E}_{S \sim \eta, A \sim \pi} \left[\nabla_{\theta} \ln \pi(A|S, \theta_t) q_{\pi}(S, A) \right] \longrightarrow \nabla_{\theta} \ln \pi(a|s, \theta_t) q_{\pi}(s, a)$$

- How to sample S ?
 - $S \sim \eta$, where the distribution η is a long-run behavior under π .
 - In practice, people usually do not care about it.
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Since

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the algorithm can be rewritten as

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Math: When $\theta_{t+1} - \theta_t$ is sufficiently small, the definition of differential implies

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Interpretation:

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$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + \alpha \underbrace{\left(\frac{q_t(s_t, a_t)}{\pi(a_t|s_t, \theta_t)} \right)}_{\beta_t} \nabla_{\theta} \pi(a_t|s_t, \theta_t)$$

Interpretation (continued): β_t can balance exploration and exploitation.

The reason is as follows.

- First, β_t is proportional to $q_t(s_t, a_t)$.

$$\text{greater } q_t(s_t, a_t) \implies \text{greater } \beta_t \implies \text{greater } \pi(a_t|s_t, \theta_t)$$

Therefore, the algorithm intends to exploit actions with greater values.

- Second, β_t is inversely proportional to $\pi(a_t|s_t, \theta_t)$.

$$\text{smaller } \pi(a_t|s_t, \theta_t) \implies \text{greater } \beta_t \implies \text{greater } \pi(a_t|s_t, \theta_t)$$

Therefore, the algorithm intends to explore actions that have low probabilities.

Gradient-ascent algorithm

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + \alpha \underbrace{\left(\frac{q_t(s_t, a_t)}{\pi(a_t|s_t, \theta_t)} \right)}_{\beta_t} \nabla_{\theta} \pi(a_t|s_t, \theta_t)$$

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- 1 Basic idea of policy gradient
- 2 Metrics to define optimal policies
 - Metric 1: Average value
 - Metric 2: Average reward
 - Summary of the two metrics
- 3 Gradients of the metrics
- 4 Gradient-ascent algorithm
- 5 Summary**

Contents of this lecture:

- Metrics for optimality
- Gradients of the metrics
- Gradient-ascent algorithm
- A special case: REINFORCE

Next lecture: Actor-critic