

# Machine Learning Nanodegree

## Capstone Project

### A Game Bot trained with Deep Q-Learning

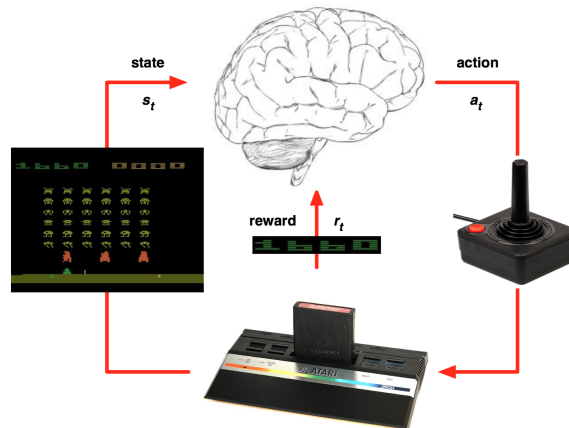
Peng Xu

February 14, 2016

## 1 Definition

### 1.1 Project Overview

Reinforcement Learning is a type of machine learning that allows you to create AI agents that learn from the environment by interacting with it. Just like how we learn to ride a bicycle, this kind of AI learns by trial and error. As seen in Figure 1, the brain represents the AI agent, which acts on the environment. After each action, the agent receives the feedback. The feedback consists of the reward and next state of the environment. The reward is usually defined by a human. If we use the analogy of the bicycle, we can define reward as the distance from the original starting point.



**Figure 1:** How an agent interacts with the environment.

Google's DeepMind published its famous paper Playing Atari with Deep Reinforcement Learning, in which they introduced a new algorithm called Deep Q Network (DQN for short) in 2013. It demonstrated how an AI agent can learn to play games by just observing the screen without any prior information about those games. The result turned out to be pretty impressive. This paper opened the era of what is called 'deep reinforcement learning', a mix of deep learning and reinforcement learning.

### 1.2 Problem Statement

In this project, a deep reinforcement learning method, Deep Q Network, would be implemented and applied to play a Coast Racer game in OpenGym / Universe using TensorFlow.

Q-learning, a model-free online off-policy algorithm, whose main strength is that it is able to compare the expected utility of the available actions without requiring a model of the environment. In Q-Learning Algorithm, there is a function called Q Function, which is used to approximate the reward based on a state. We call it  $Q(s,a)$ , where  $Q$  is a function which calculates the expected future value from state

s and action  $a$ . Similarly in Deep Q Network algorithm, we use a neural network to approximate the reward based on the state. We will discuss how this works in detail.

OpenAI Gym is a toolkit for reinforcement learning research. It includes a growing collection of benchmark problems that expose a common interface, and a website where people can share their results and compare the performance of algorithms. Universe is a software platform for measuring and training an AI's general intelligence across the world's supply of games, websites and other applications. Universe allows an AI agent to use a computer like a human does: by looking at screen pixels and operating a virtual keyboard and mouse. We must train AI systems on the full range of tasks we expect them to solve, and Universe lets us train a single agent on any task a human can complete with a computer. With Universe, any program can be turned into a Gym environment. Universe works by automatically launching the program behind a VNC remote desktop. Hundreds of games have been translated into Gym environments and are ready for reinforcement learning, which mostly can be freely run with the universe Python library as follows:

```
import gym
import universe # register Universe environments into Gym

env = gym.make('flashgames.DuskDrive-v0') # any Universe environment ID here
observation_n = env.reset()

while True:
    # agent which presses the Up arrow 60 times per second
    action_n = [['KeyEvent', 'ArrowUp', True]] for _ in observation_n
    observation_n, reward_n, done_n, info = env.step(action_n)
    env.render()
```

Among the several racing car games provided in Universe, the Coaster Racer flash game arose in front of me since it could be a typical simulation of Autonomous Driving, in which a vehicle is simply controlled by 3 inputs, left, right, forward. It is expected that the racing car can learn a smart driving behavior after a series of training steps leading to a maximal reward or namely score here. The trained bot for the Coaster Racer flash game will determines whether it should turn and which way it turns.

#### Target function:

$Q^\pi : \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , where  $\mathcal{S}$  is the set of *states* and  $\mathcal{A}$  is the set of *actions* (turn left, forward or turn right), and  $\mathbb{R}$  represents the value of being in a state  $s \in \mathcal{S}$ , applying a action  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ , and following policy  $\pi$  thereafter.

#### Target function representation:

Deep neural network.

Therefore, I seek to build a Q-learning agent trained via a deep convolutional neural network to approximate the optimal action-value function:

$$Q^*(s, a) = \max_{\pi} Q^\pi(s, a), \forall s \in \mathcal{S}, a \in \mathcal{A} \quad (1)$$

which is the maximum sum of rewards achievable by a behavior policy  $\pi$ .

### 1.3 Metrics

Since Q learning is recursively defined, we did not consider fitting errors such as RMSE to be good metrics for evaluation. Instead, given our ultimate our goal to make a good game AI, we evaluated gameplay directly in order to gauge performance. We evaluated the performance of our algorithms using two metrics: game length and game score. Game length is the number of moves the player makes before they reach a game over, and game score is the score based on the number of lines they clear. While the game score is ultimately more important, it can only be used to judge the performance of sufficiently advanced networks because there is a large initial barrier to overcome before the algorithm can score with any degree of consistency. Thus, game length, which was typically correlated with game score, is a

good metric for showing intermediate performance since an algorithm can incrementally learn to survive longer.

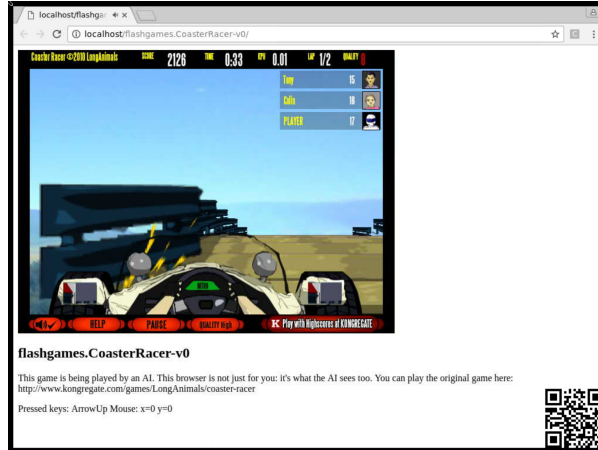
## 2 Analysis

To tackle the problem described in Section 1.2, we will use Reinforcement learning with Deep Learning to automatically learn evaluation functions by playing games by itself. Unlike other approaches that need a very large dataset, this approach will try to learn to play games without any domain knowledge (no dataset will be used). This is a promising approach for creating game-playing algorithms for playing other two-player games of perfect information.

### 2.1 Data Exploration and Visualization

#### 2.1.1 Coaster Racer Game environment

The browser screenshot as shown in Figure 2 is both for the user and the AI Gamebot. Namely, that is the raw vision of the Gamebot which apparently contains lots of pixels useless for deciding the steering. For more efficient and faster computing, some preprocessing procedures would be done before we throw the image data into a deep learning model, which will be described in later paragraph.



**Figure 2:** A browser screenshot of Coaster Racer Game.

#### 2.1.2 States

For the purposes of winning the game, the state of the game at time  $t$  is simply the pixel array of the game screen at that particular time. I experimented with using only a cropped version of the game screen that contained the view of the driver. In order to avoid unnecessary computation and memory usage, we downsample this image. By reducing the size of each state, this allows us to fit more training examples in our replay history without running out of memory, which is a crucial component of the experience replay technique we used. In addition, with lower-dimensional input, our network requires fewer matrix multiplications and fewer parameters in the fully connected layers, greatly improving speed.

- State Space: Preprocessed screenshots of the browser loading the game

#### 2.1.3 Actions

Coaster Racer Flash Game is a typical car racing game which is simply controlled by moving forward, left turn and right turn. With this simple setting, we only have an action space of three actions, namely, moving forward, left turn and right turn.

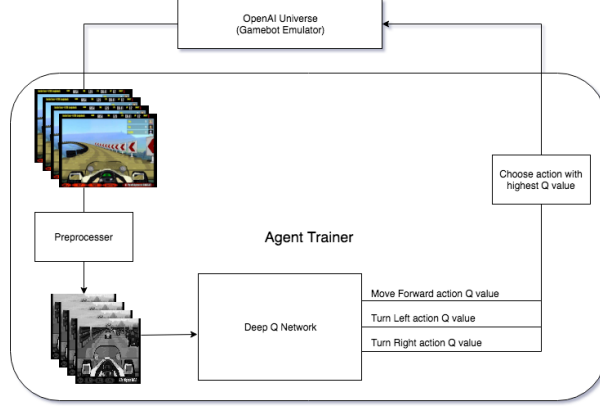
- Action Space: Move Forward action, Turn Left action, Turn Right action

### 2.1.4 Rewards

Rewards are primarily based off of the game score.

## 2.2 Algorithms and Techniques

### 2.2.1 Overall Representation



**Figure 3:** A flowchart of training the Coaster Racer Gamebot.

An overall representation of how the different components relate during a play evaluation, centered around the deep Q-network for playing, the main decision component is shown in Fig 3. Each game screen is resized to a desaturated 80x80 pixels image (opposed to 84x84 on DeepMind’s papers), and if you might be wondering why each state is a sequence of four game screens instead of one, that is because the agent’s history is used for better motion perception. Achieving this requires a sequence of preprocessed images to be stacked in channels (like you would stack RGB channels on a colored image) and fed to the network.

### 2.2.2 Deep Neural Network

Convolutional Neural Networks, or CNNs, are a special type of neural network that has a known grid-like topology. Like most other neural networks they are trained with a variant of the back-propagation algorithm. CNN’s strength is pattern recognition directly from pixels of images with minimal processing. We use a convolutional network as a function mapping the preprocessed images to Q values, since the actions are highly based on what would be seen as pixel matrix.

The network’s architecture is essentially the same used by DeepMind, except for the first convolutional neural network’s input (80x80x4 instead of 84x84x4, to account for the different input sizes) and the linear layer’s output (3 instead of 18, to account for the different number of actions available).

### 2.2.3 Q-learning

One of the most basic and popular methods to estimate action-value functions is the *Q-learning* algorithm. It is model-free online off-policy algorithm, whose main strength is that it is able to compare the expected utility of the available actions without requiring a model of the environment. Q-learning works by learning an action-value function that gives the expected utility of taking a given action in a given state and following a fixed policy thereafter.

A value function estimates what is good for an agent over the long run. It estimates the expected outcome from any given state, by summarizing the total amount of reward that an agent can expect to accumulate into a single number. Value functions are defined for particular policies.

The *state value function* (or V-function), is the expected return when starting in state  $s$  and following policy  $\pi$  thereafter (1),

$$V^{\pi}(s) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi} [R_t | s_t = s] \quad (2)$$

The *action value function* (or Q-function), is the expected return after selecting action  $a$  in state  $s$  and then following policy  $\pi$ ,

$$Q^\pi(s, a) = \mathbb{E}_\pi [R_t | s_t = s, a_t = a] \quad (3)$$

The *optimal value function* is the unique value function that maximises the value of every state, or state-action pair,

$$Q^*(s, a) = \max_\pi Q^\pi(s, a), \forall s \in \mathcal{S}, a \in \mathcal{A} \quad (4)$$

An *optimal policy*  $\pi^*(s, a)$  is a policy that maximises the action value function from every state in the MDP,

$$\pi^*(s, a) = \operatorname{argmax}_\pi Q^\pi(s, a) \quad (5)$$

The update rule uses action-values and a built-in max-operator over the action-values of the next state in order to update  $Q(s_t, a_t)$  as follows,

$$Q(s_t, a_t) \leftarrow Q(s_t, a_t) + \alpha \left[ r_{t+1} + \gamma \max_a Q(s_{t+1}, a) - Q(s_t, a_t) \right] \quad (6)$$

The agent makes a step in the environment from state  $s_t$  to  $s_{t+1}$  using action  $a_t$  while receiving reward  $r_t$ . The update takes place on the action-value  $a_t$  in the state  $s_t$  from which this action was executed. This version of Q-learning works well for tasks with a small a state-space, since it uses arrays or tables with one entry for each state-action pair.

In this project the policy is using the  **$\epsilon$ -greedy** policy:

- **$\epsilon$ -greedy.** Selects the best action for a proportion  $1 - \epsilon$  of the trials, and another action is randomly selected (with uniform probability) for a proportion,

$$\pi_\epsilon(s) = \begin{cases} \pi_{\text{rand}}(s, a) & \text{if } \text{rand}() < \epsilon \\ \pi_{\text{greedy}}(s, a) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

where  $\epsilon \in [0, 1]$  and  $\text{rand}()$  returns a random number from a uniform distribution  $\in [0, 1]$ .

## 2.3 Benchmark

This benchmark consists in playing against an agent that takes uniformly random moves. This is the most basic benchmark, but first we have to be sure that our learned evaluation function can play better than a random agent before moving into a harder benchmark. Also, this will help us to detect bugs in the code and algorithms: if a learned value function does not play significantly better than a random agent, is not learning. The idea is to test against this benchmark using Alpha-beta pruning at 1, 2 and 4-ply search.

## 3 Methodology

Q-learning, a model-free online off-policy algorithm, whose main strength is that it is able to compare the expected utility of the available actions without requiring a model of the environment:

$$Q(s_t, a_t) \leftarrow Q(s_t, a_t) + \alpha [r_{t+1} + \gamma \max_a Q(s_{t+1}, a) - Q(s_t, a_t)] \quad (8)$$

### 3.1 Data Preprocessing

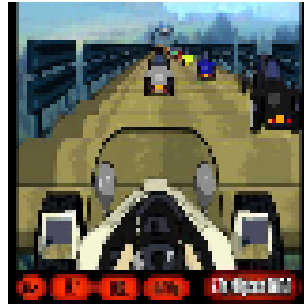
- Crop.

The raw input image is captured by Universe in the function "step()" which is simply a screenshot of the browser as shown in Figure 2. Obviously the useful vision information are only from the game screen. If we go further, the top half of the game screen displaying the sky does not change very much and the bottom half of the is heavily effected by the turning actions. Thus a region of interest is carefully chosen by whether considering whether it relates to decide an expected steering behavior. Then the image is simply cropped by a new window with the "cropFrame()" function. An example cropped image is as shown in Fig 4.



**Figure 4:** Cropped input image.

- Downscale the resolution.



**Figure 5:** Downsized input image.

A high resolution is usually redundant for a computer vision task. By resizing with a smaller size, the space information are almost remained and the computing time are greatly saved. The cropped image is then downsized to as smaller size,  $[80, 80]$  as in Fig 5. Downscaling the resolution doesn't hurt the information for turning left or right but highly accelerating the computing since much smaller data are being processed.

- Grayscale.



**Figure 6:** Grayscaled input image.

Grayscale processing is another useful technique in computer vision tasks since it is a great help for accelerating the computing and is at least three times faster than that of color image processing. This is because grayscale image has only one color channel as opposed to three in a color image. The color information are usually dumped when unnecessary for the computer vision tasks. As here, the downsized image is gray scaled as in Fig 6, because the color information does not help much for the steering control.

## 3.2 Implementation

### 3.2.1 Environment Setting

OpenAI Universe is designed with using Docker so it can reset the Game continuously. Docker is a tool that lets you run virtual machines on the local computer. I created an image wrapping up everything necessary, like TensorFlow, OpenCV, Gym and Universe.

To start up a very first Game Environment, only gym and universe modules are needed. Since we are to generate some random behaviors, "random" is also imported.

```
import gym
import universe # register the universe environments
import random

env = gym.make('flashgames.CoasterRacer-v0') # You can run many environment in parallel
env.configure(remotes=1) # automatically creates a local docker container
# env.configure(remotes='vnc://localhost:5900+15901')

# define our turns or keyboard actions
left = [('KeyEvent', 'ArrowUp', True),
        ('KeyEvent', 'ArrowLeft', True),
        ('KeyEvent', 'ArrowRight', False)]
right = [('KeyEvent', 'ArrowUp', True),
         ('KeyEvent', 'ArrowLeft', False),
         ('KeyEvent', 'ArrowRight', True)]
forward = [('KeyEvent', 'ArrowUp', True),
           ('KeyEvent', 'ArrowLeft', False),
           ('KeyEvent', 'ArrowRight', False)]

observation_n = env.reset() # Initiate the environment
while True:
    action = random.choice([left, right, forward])
    action_n = [action for ob in observation_n] # your agent here
    observation_n, reward_n, done_n, info = env.step(action_n) # rl action by agent
    print("ACTION", action, "\t/ REWARD", reward_n)
    env.render() # Run the agent on the environment
```

### 3.2.2 Build the Deep Neural Network

The Deep Neural Network is based on the DeepMind paper except for the changes of input and output sizes.

```
def createGraph():

    W_conv1 = tf.Variable(tf.zeros([8, 8, 4, 32]), name='W_conv1')
    b_conv1 = tf.Variable(tf.zeros([32]), name='b_conv1')

    W_conv2 = tf.Variable(tf.zeros([4, 4, 32, 64]), name='W_conv2')
    b_conv2 = tf.Variable(tf.zeros([64]), name='b_conv2')

    W_conv3 = tf.Variable(tf.zeros([3, 3, 64, 64]), name='W_conv3')
    b_conv3 = tf.Variable(tf.zeros([64]), name='b_conv3')
```

```

W_fc4 = tf.Variable(tf.zeros([2304, 512]), name='W_fc4')
b_fc4 = tf.Variable(tf.zeros([512]), name='b_fc4')

W_fc5 = tf.Variable(tf.zeros([512, ACTIONS]), name='W_fc5')
b_fc5 = tf.Variable(tf.zeros([ACTIONS]), name='b_fc5')

# input for pixel data
inp = tf.placeholder("float", [None, 80, 80, 4], name='input')

# Computes rectified linear unit activation function on a 2-D convolution
# given 4-D input and filter tensors. and
conv1 = tf.nn.relu(tf.nn.conv2d(inp, W_conv1, strides=[1, 4, 4, 1], padding="VALID")
                    + b_conv1)
conv2 = tf.nn.relu(tf.nn.conv2d(conv1, W_conv2, strides=[1, 2, 2, 1], padding="VALID")
                    + b_conv2)
conv3 = tf.nn.relu(tf.nn.conv2d(conv2, W_conv3, strides=[1, 1, 1, 1], padding="VALID")
                    + b_conv3)

# flatten conv3:
conv3_flat = tf.reshape(conv3, [-1, 2304])

fc4 = tf.nn.relu(tf.matmul(conv3_flat, W_fc4) + b_fc4)

out = tf.matmul(fc4, W_fc5) + b_fc5

return inp, out

```

### 3.2.3 Preprocessing Functions

As described in the previous chapters, the crop, downsample and grayscale operations are done with the following functions:

```

# crop video frame so NN is smaller and set range between 1 and 0; and
# stack-a-bitch!
def processFrame(observation_n):
    if observation_n is not None:
        obs = observation_n[0]['vision']
        # crop
        obs = cropFrame(obs)
        # downscale resolution
        obs = cv2.resize(obs, (80, 80))
        # grayscale
        obs = cv2.cvtColor(obs, cv2.COLOR_BGR2GRAY)
        # Convert to float
        obs = obs.astype(np.float32)
        # scale from 1 to 255
        obs *= (1.0 / 255.0)
        # re-shape a bitch
        obs = np.reshape(obs, [80, 80])
    return obs

# crop frame to only flash portion:

```



```
def cropFrame(obs):
    # adds top = 84 and left = 18 to height and width:
    return obs[284:564, 18:658, :]
```

## 4 Results

### 4.1 Model Evaluation and Validation

The network was trained over 10,000 time steps and the behavior has been learned gradually. Compared to random bot, it has shown obvious better performance. For better or human level behavior, more training time steps are needed. Currently, I would show a video of Gamebot playing Coaster Racing by itself. The following the a screenshot when the car reach the finishing line and it got a score of . You can also check the whole video in this Youtube link: <https://youtu.be/VdVA3od4tVs>.



Figure 7: Downsize input image.

### 4.2 Justification

## 5 Conclusion

### 5.1 Reflection

The most difficult aspect of this project was that is extremely hard to stabilize reinforcement learning with non-linear function approximators. There are plenty of tricks that can be used and hyperparameters that need to be tuned to get it to work, such as:

- **Q-learning:** exploration policy, discount factor, learning rate, number of episodes.
- **Experience Replay:** batch size, experience pool size.
- **Deep Neural Network:** convnets, number of layers, number of filters, number of kernels, optimizer (vanilla sgd, adam, rprop), learning rate, pooling, activation functions, etc.
- **$\epsilon$ -greedy:** fixed  $\epsilon$  or decrease  $\epsilon$ , initial value for  $\epsilon$ , how many episodes to decrease it, final value.

All these techniques and parameters were selected by trial and error, and no systematic grid search was done due to the high computational cost. More than once it seemed that the implementation of the algorithms and techniques was incorrect, and it turned out that the wrong parameters were being used. A “simple” change such as decreasing  $\epsilon$ , or changing the neural network optimizer made big changes in the performance of the value function.

## 5.2 Improvement

There are at least two aspects we can improve in the next stage,

1. **Better benchmarks:** In most of this project we used simple benchmarkers, such as playing against random players. While testing against random is probably the first thing to test against (if you can't beat a random player your learning algorithm is not working), it would be better to find a few heuristics and better players that can be used for testing.
2. **Incorporate other RL techniques:** The field of RL has been advancing fast in recent years. There are a few new and old techniques that I would like to try, such as asynchronous RL, double Q-learning, prioritized experience replay.

## References

- [1] R. S. Sutton and A. G. Barto. *Reinforcement Learning: An Introduction*. MIT Press, 1998.
- [2] V. Mnih et al. Human-level control through deep reinforcement learning. *Nature*, pages 529–533, 2015.