

Fraunhofer-Institut für Integrierte Schaltungen IIS

# Reinforcement Learning

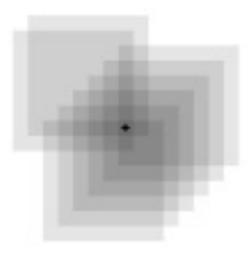
Lecture 6: Policy-based RL 1

Christopher Mutschler

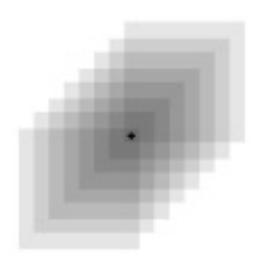
Tile Coding – what makes more sense?



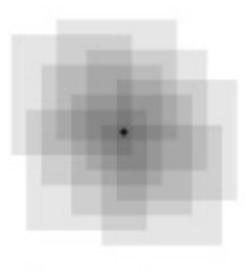
VS.



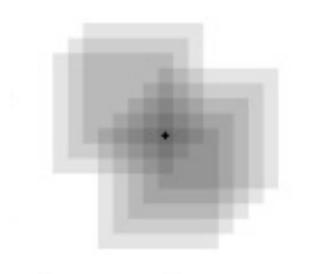
Tile Coding – what makes more sense?



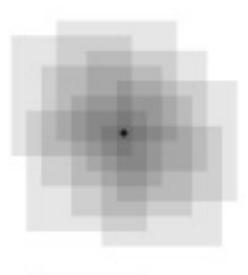
VS.



Tile Coding – what makes more sense?

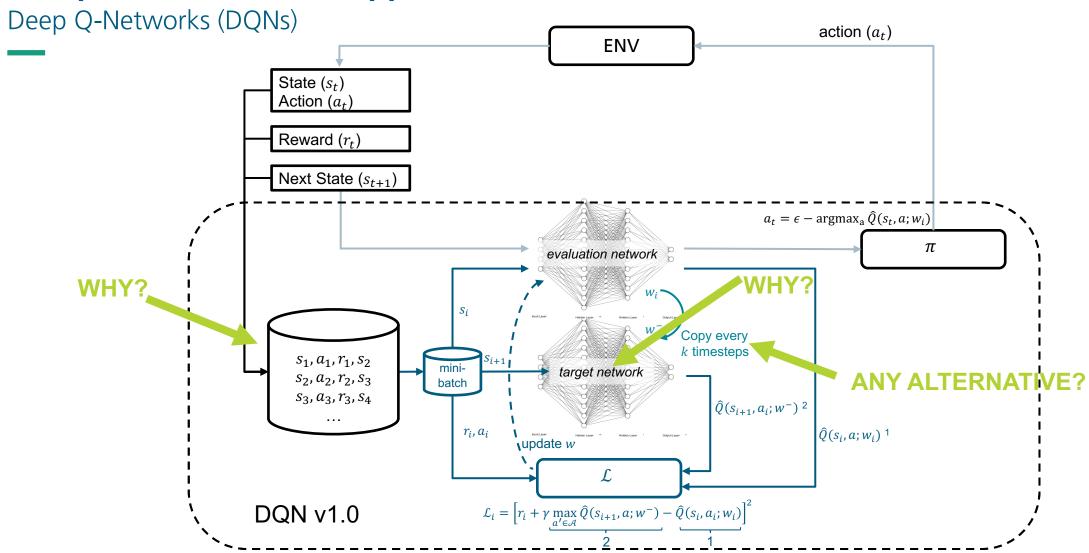


VS.



Tile Coding

Exercise 9.4 Suppose we believe that one of two state dimensions is more likely to have an effect on the value function than is the other, that generalization should be primarily across this dimension rather than along it. What kind of tilings could be used to take advantage of this prior knowledge?



# Vapnik's rule

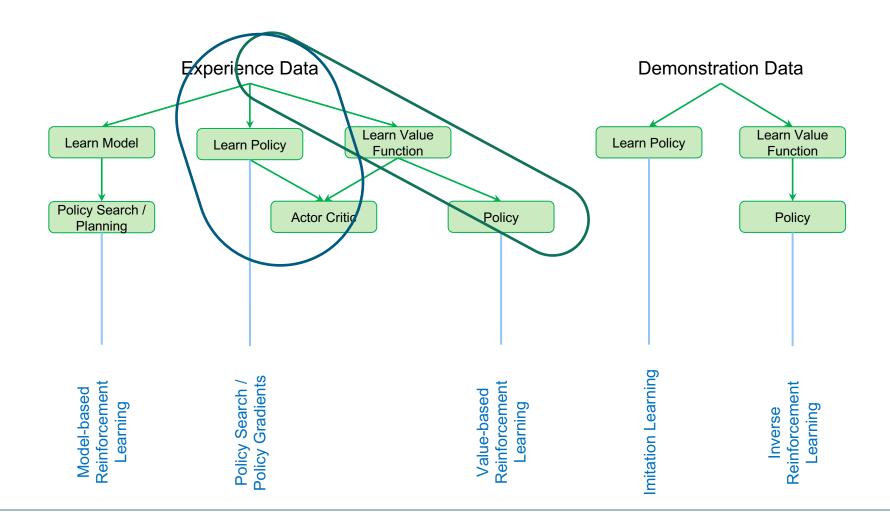
"Never solve a more general problem as an intermediate step."

Vladimir Vapnik, 1998

Remember:

"New goal: find a policy that maximizes the expected return!"

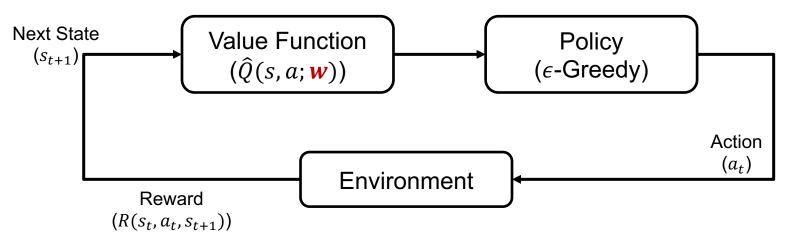
If we care about optimal behavior: why not learn a policy directly?



Previously we approximated parametric value functions:

$$v_w(s) \approx v_{\pi}(s)$$
  
 $q_w(s, a) \approx q_{\pi}(s, a)$ 

- A policy can be generated from these values
  - e.g., greedy or  $\epsilon$ -greedy



Goal: find w that approximates the true Q-function

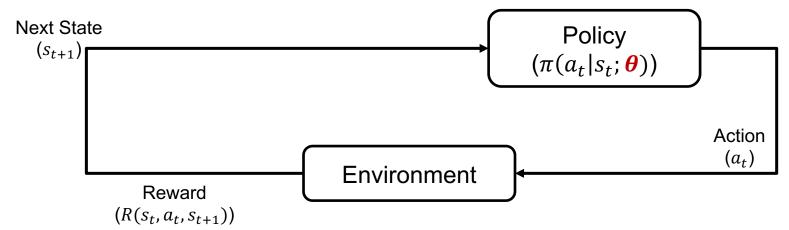
Previously we approximated parametric value functions:

$$v_w(s) \approx v_{\pi}(s)$$
  
 $q_w(s, a) \approx q_{\pi}(s, a)$ 

- A policy can be generated from these values
- In this lesson we will directly parameterize the policy:

$$\pi_{\theta}(a|s) = p(a|s;\theta)$$

We still focus on model-free reinforcement learning



Goal: find  $\theta$  that maximizes long term reward

### General Overview

### Model-based RL:

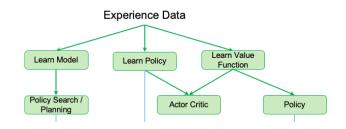
- + "Easy" to learn a model (supervised learning)
- + Learns all there is to know from the data
- Objective captures irrelevant information
- May focus computations/capacity on irrelevant details
- Computing policy (planning) is non-trivial and can be computationally expensive

### Value-based RL:

- + Closer to true objective
- + Fairly well-understood: somewhat similar to regression
- Still not the true objective: may still focus capacity on less-important details

### **Policy-based RL:**

- + Right objective!
- Ignores other learnable knowledge (potentially not the most efficient use of data)



Value-based vs. Policy-based RL

Value-based

Last week

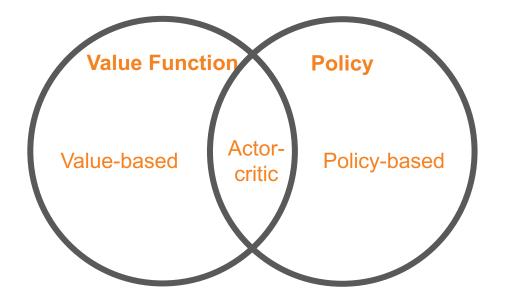
- Learn value function
- Implicit policy (e.g.,  $\epsilon$ -greedy)
- **Policy-based**

Today

- No value function
- Learn policy
- **Actor-critic**

Next week

- Learn value function
- Learn policy





### Advantages of Policy-based RL

### Advantages:

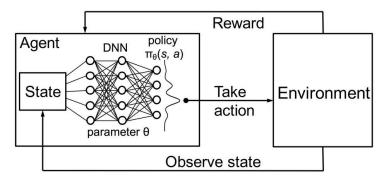
- Good convergence properties
- Easily extended to high-dimensional or continuous state and action spaces
- Can learn stochastic policies
- Sometimes policies are simple while values and models are complex
  - e.g., rich domain, but optimal is always to go left

### Disadvantages:

- Susceptible to local optima (especially with non-linear FA)
- Obtained knowledge is specific, does not always generalize well
- Ignores a lot of information in the data (when used in isolation)

### Stochastic Policies

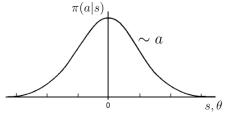
- We have seen deterministic policies like this:
  - State gives Q(s, a; w) and we selected  $\pi(a|s)$  by  $\operatorname{argmax}_a Q(s, a; w)$



• Instead, stochastic policies do something like this:

$$\pi(a|s) = \mathbb{P}[a|s;\theta]$$

(policy is represented as a probability distribution)

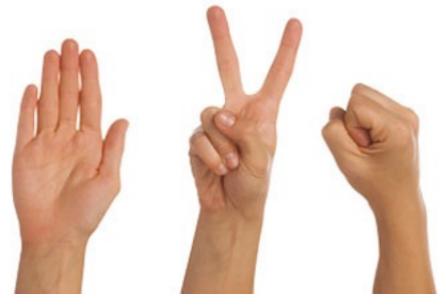


https://towardsdatascience.com/self-learning-ai-agents-iv-stochastic-policy-gradients-b53f088fce20

Why do we need stochastic policies?

### **Example #1: Rock-Paper-Scissors**

- Two-player game of rock-paper-scissors
  - Scissors beats paper
  - Rock beats scissors
  - Paper beats rock
- Consider policies for iterated rock-paper-scissors
  - A deterministic policy (e.g., greedy or even  $\epsilon$ -greedy) is easily exploited
  - A uniform random policy is the optimal policy (i.e., Nash equilibrium)

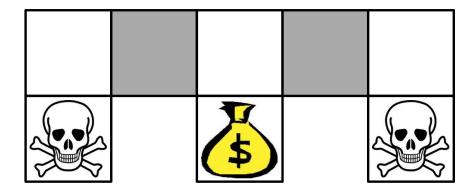


David Silver, UCL Lecture on Reinforcement Learning. 2015

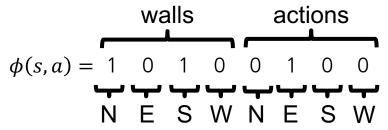


Why do we need stochastic policies?

### **Example #2: Aliased Gridworld**



Consider features of the following form (for all N, E, S, W):



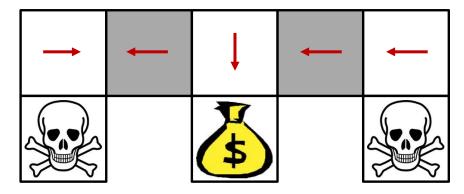
- The agent cannot differentiate the grey states
- Compare deterministic and stochastic policies

David Silver, UCL Lecture on Reinforcement Learning. 2015



Why do we need stochastic policies?

### **Example #2: Aliased Gridworld**



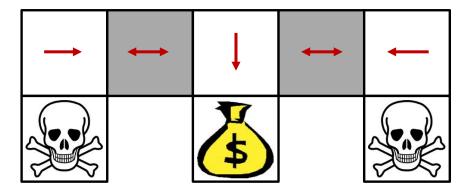
- Value-based RL learns a near-deterministic policy
  - e.g., greedy or  $\epsilon$ -greedy
- Under aliasing, an optimal deterministic policy will either
  - Move W in both grey states (shown by red arrows)
  - Move E in both grey states
- Either way, it can get stuck and never reach the money
- Hence, it will traverse the corridor for a long time

David Silver, UCL Lecture on Reinforcement Learning. 2015



Why do we need stochastic policies?

### **Example #2: Aliased Gridworld**



 Instead, an optimal stochastic policy moves randomly E or W in grey states:

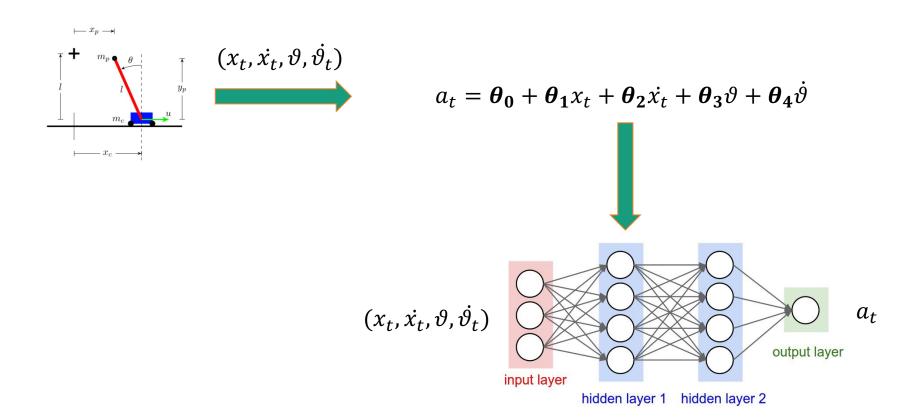
$$\pi_{\theta}$$
 (wall to N and S, move E) = 0.5  $\pi_{\theta}$  (wall to N and S, move W) = 0.5

- Will reach the goal state in a few steps with high probability
- Policy-based RL can learn the optimal stochastic policy!



Why is it better to learn the policy directly?

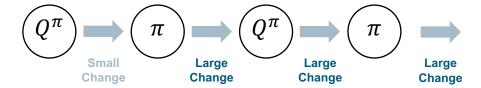
### **Example #3: Cartpole**



Why is it better to learn the policy directly?

- Learn directly a policy without calculating value functions in between
- Why?
  - Greedy updates

$$\theta_{n+1} = \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} E_{\pi_{\theta}} \{ Q^{\pi}(s, a) \}$$



#### The Phenomenon of Policy Churn

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#### Abstract

We identify and study the phenomenon of policy churn, that is, the rapid change of the greedy policy in value-based reinforcement learning. Policy churn operates at a surprisingly rapid pace, changing the greedy action in a large fraction of states within a handful of learning updates (in a typical deep RL set-up such as DQN on Atari). We characterise the phenomenon empirically, verifying that it is not limited to specific algorithm or environment properties. A number of ablations help whittle down the plausible explanations on why churn occurs, the most likely one being deep learning with high-variance updates. Finally, we hypothesise that policy churn is a potentially beneficial but overlooked form of implicit exploration, which casts e-greedy exploration in a fresh light, namely that \(\epsilon\)-noise plays a much smaller role than expected.

#### 1 The Phenomenon

Reinforcement learning (RL) involves agents that incrementally update their policy. This process is driven by the objective of maximising reward, and based on experience that the agent generates via exploration. The sequence of policies  $\pi_0, \dots, \pi_k, \dots, \pi_T$  usually starts from a randomly initialised policy  $\pi_0$  and aims to end at a near-optimal policy  $\pi_T \approx \pi^*$ . Ideally, steps in that sequence  $(\pi_k \to \pi_{k+1})$  are policy improvements that increase expected reward.

This paper studies the amount of *policy change* that goes along with such a policy update process (for a definition, see Section 1.1). In particular, it makes the core observation that policy change *in practice* (as illustrated in some typical deep RL settings) is orders of magnitude larger than could have been expected, and stands in contrast to various reference algorithms (Sections 1.2 and 3.3).

Key observation 1: The greedy policy changes much more rapidly than you probably think.  $^a$ 

<sup>a</sup>As a coarse magnitude for the impatient reader: in a typical run of DQN on Atari, the greedy policy changes in  $\approx 10\%$  of all states after a single gradient update (Figure 1 and Section 1.2).

We dub this phenomenon "policy churn" to highlight that most of this policy change may be unnecessary. We study the phenomenon in depth, determining the range of deep RL scenarios it appears in, fleshing out its properties, and in the process narrowing the space of potential causes and mechanisms involved using a set of ablations (Section 3).

Our second key message relates the phenomenon of churn to exploration, specifically in the context of  $\epsilon$ -greedy exploration (Section 2), with some more speculative ramifications in Section 4.

Key observation 2: Policy churn is a significant driver of exploration.<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>This holds both in the sense that reducing churn can reduce performance, and in the sense that explicitly adding noise becomes unnecessary in the presence of churn (i.e.,  $\epsilon=0$  is viable).

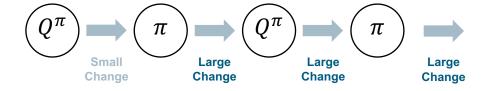
36th Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS 2022).



Why is it better to learn the policy directly?

- Learn directly a policy without calculating value functions in between
- Why?
  - Greedy updates

$$\theta_{n+1} = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\theta} E_{\pi_{\theta}} \{ Q^{\pi}(s, a) \}$$



**Potentially** unstable learning process with large policy "jumps"

Smooth updates

$$\theta_{n+1} = \theta_n + \alpha_n \nabla G_{\theta_n}$$

### Reminder:

$$G = r_0 + \gamma r_1 + \gamma^2 r_2 + \gamma^3 r_3 + \dots = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t r_t$$



**Stable** learning process with smooth policy improvement

Why is it better to learn the policy directly?

- Learn directly a policy without calculating value functions in between
- How to calculate the gradient term?

$$\theta_{n+1} = \theta_n + \alpha_n \nabla G_{\theta_n}$$

- Simple optimization: Finite Difference Stochastic Approximation (FDSA)
- Idea: to evaluate the gradient, for each dimension  $k \in [1, n]$ :
  - Estimate k-th partial derivative of objective function w.r.t.  $\theta$  by perturbation  $\theta$  by a small amount  $\epsilon$  in k-th dimension:

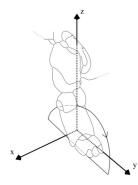
$$\frac{\partial J(\theta)}{\partial \theta_k} \approx \frac{J(\theta + \epsilon u_k) - J(\theta)}{\epsilon},$$

where  $u_k$  is a unit vector with 1 in k-th component, 0 elsewhere;  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\epsilon=0$ 

- In RL literature: "Finite Difference Gradient Estimator"
- **Note:** a variation in control literature is called Simultaneous Perturbation Stochastic Approximation (SPSA)
- Simple, noisy, inefficient but sometimes effective
  - → works for arbitrary policies (even if they are not differentiable)!

### Example: AIBO with FDSA

- Learn fast walking patterns for RoboCup (speed decides on win/lose)
- Policy parametrized as an ellipsoid (12 parameters)
- Adapt parameters by (sampled) FDSA
- Policy evaluated by field traversal time







http://www.cs.utexas.edu/users/AustinVilla/?p=research/learned\_walk

		$\pi_1$	$\pi_2 - \pi$	N Score	
	ſ	$\theta_1 - \epsilon_1$		207	
$-\epsilon_1$	{	$\theta_1 - \epsilon_1$		214	$\Rightarrow$ Average: 210
	l				
	ſ	$\theta_1 + 0$		225	
+0	{	$\theta_1 + 0$		220	⇒ Average: 220
	Ţ				
	ſ	$\theta_1 + \epsilon_1$		239	
$+\epsilon_1$	{	$\theta_1 + \epsilon_1$		244	$\Rightarrow$ Average: 240
(					

Kohl et al.: Policy gradient reinforcement learning for fast quadrupedal locomotion. ICRA '2004.



Example: AIBO with FDSA

- Learn fast walking patterns for RoboCup (speed decides on win/lose)
- Policy parametrized as an ellipsoid (12 parameters)
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### **Problems:**

- Requires A LOT of samples/trajectories
- In stochastic environments, with small  $c_n$  it is really hard to distinguish the difference between  $R^+$  and  $R^-$

Better: Augmented Random Search (ARS)

- Builds on the Basic Random Search (BRS) Algorithm:
  - 1. Pick a policy  $\pi_{\theta}$ , perturb the parameters  $\theta$  by applying  $+v\delta$  and  $-v\delta$  (v < 1 is constant noise and  $\delta$  is a random number sampled from a normal distribution)
  - 2. Run the policies and apply actions based on  $\pi(\theta + v\delta)$  and  $\pi(\theta v\delta)$  and collect the rewards  $r(\theta + v\delta)$  and  $r(\theta v\delta)$
  - 3. For all  $\delta$  compute the average  $\Delta = \frac{1}{N} \cdot \Sigma [r(\theta + v\delta) r(\theta v\delta)] \delta$  and update the parameters  $\theta$  using  $\Delta$  and a learning rate  $\alpha$ :

$$\theta_{j+1} = \theta_j + \frac{\alpha}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} [r(\pi_{j,k,+}) - r(\pi_{j,k,-})] \delta_k$$

- Augmented Random Search (ARS) adds 3 improvements:
  - 1. Divide by the rewards by their standard deviation  $\sigma_r$
  - Normalize the states
  - 3. Only use the top-k best rollouts to compute the average

#### Algorithm 1 Basic Random Search (BRS)

- 1: **Hyperparameters:** step-size  $\alpha$ , number of directions sampled per iteration N, standard deviation of the exploration noise  $\nu$
- 2: Initialize:  $\theta_0 = \mathbf{0}$ , and j = 0.
- 3: while ending condition not satisfied do
- 4: Sample  $\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_N$  of the same size as  $\theta_j$ , with i.i.d. standard normal entries.
- 5: Collect 2N rollouts of horizon H and their corresponding rewards using the policies

$$\pi_{j,k,+}(x) = \pi_{\theta_j + \nu \delta_k}(x)$$
 and  $\pi_{j,k,-}(x) = \pi_{\theta_j - \nu \delta_k}(x)$ ,

with  $k \in \{1, 2, ..., N\}$ .

6: Make the update step:

$$heta_{j+1} = heta_j + rac{lpha}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N \left[ r(\pi_{j,k,+}) - r(\pi_{j,k,-}) \right] \delta_k \,.$$

- 7:  $j \leftarrow j + 1$ .
- 8: end while



Better: Augmented Random Search (ARS)

#### Algorithm 1 Augmented Random Search (ARS): four versions V1, V1-t, V2 and V2-t

- 1: **Hyperparameters:** step-size  $\alpha$ , number of directions sampled per iteration N, standard deviation of the exploration noise  $\nu$ , number of top-performing directions to use b (b < N is allowed only for V1-t and V2-t)
- 2: Initialize:  $M_0 = \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$ ,  $\mu_0 = \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $\Sigma_0 = \mathbf{I}_n \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , j = 0.
- 3. while ending condition not satisfied do
- Sample  $\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_N$  in  $\mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$  with i.i.d. standard normal entries.
- Collect 2N rollouts of norizon H and their corresponding rewards using the 2N policies

Sample N different variations for the policy parameters  $(\delta_i)$ 

In Vx-t version of the algorithm, select only the best b rollouts for the

parameter update

Run 2N simulations/rollouts for the positive and negative directions

V1: 
$$\begin{cases} \pi_{j,k,+}(x) = (M_j + \nu \delta_k)x \\ \pi_{j,k,-}(x) = (M_j - \nu \delta_k)x \end{cases}$$

**V2:** 
$$\begin{cases} \pi_{j,k,+}(x) = (M_j + \nu \delta_k) \operatorname{diag}(\Sigma_j)^{-1/2} (x - \mu_j) \\ \pi_{j,k,-}(x) = (M_j - \nu \delta_k) \operatorname{diag}(\Sigma_j)^{-1/2} (x - \mu_j) \end{cases}$$

- **V1-t, V2-t:** Sort the directions  $\delta_k$  by  $\max\{r(\pi_{j,k,+}), r(\pi_{j,k,-})\}$ , denote by  $\delta_{(k)}$  the k-th largest direction, and by  $\pi_{i,(k),+}$  and  $\pi_{i,(k),-}$  the corresponding policies.
- Make the update step:

To avoid tuning the learning rate, scale the update by the standard deviation ( $\sigma_{P}$ ) of the 2b returns used for the update

$$M_{j+1} = M_j - \frac{\alpha}{b\sigma_R} \sum_{k=1}^{b} \left[ r(\pi_{j,(k),+}) - r(\pi_{j,(k),-}) \right] \delta_{(k)},$$

here  $\sigma_R$  is the standard deviation of the 2b rewards used in the update step. **V2:** Set  $\mu_{j+1}$ ,  $\Sigma_{j+1}$  to be the mean and covariance of the 2NH(j+1) states encountered

from the start of training.

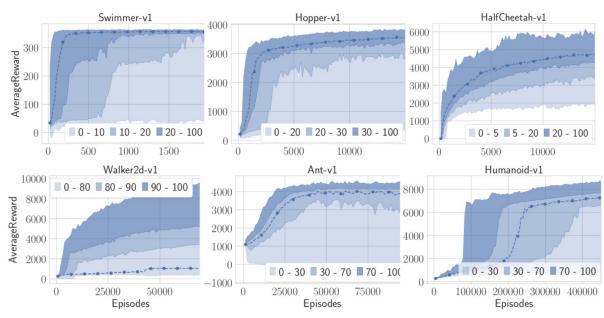
9: 
$$j \leftarrow j + 1$$
  
10: **end while**

In V2 of the algorithm, do not use the state observed as input but normalize states using the running mean and variance of all states observed so far

Better: Augmented Random Search (ARS)

- State-of-the Art algorithm extending classical random search method
- Comparable performance to modern Deep RL algorithms
- Robust to hyper-parameters and minimum tuning required
- Developed by the Control Engineering Community!

#### Average reward evaluated over 100 random seeds, shown by percentile



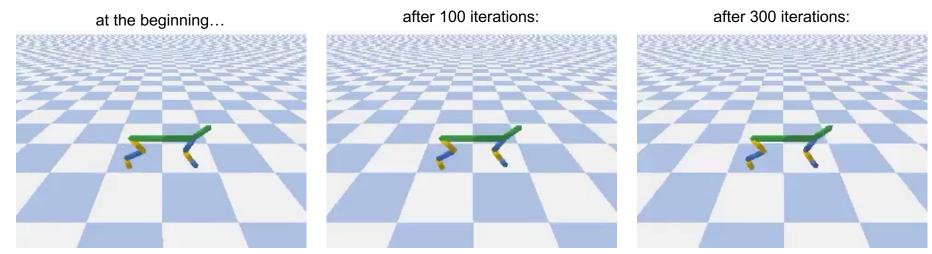
Mania et al.: Simple random search of static linear policies is competitive for reinforcement learning. NeurIPS 2018.

see also: https://towardsdatascience.com/introduction-to-augmented-random-search-d8d7b55309bd



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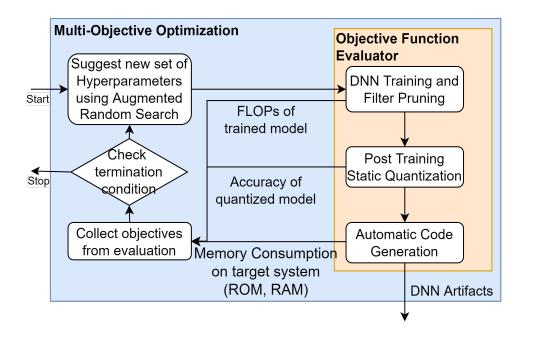


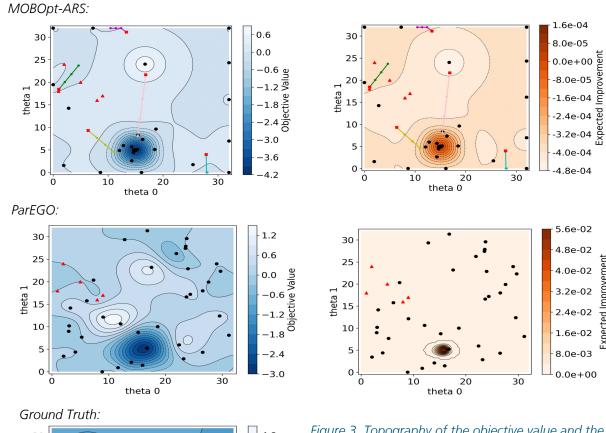
see also: https://towardsdatascience.com/introduction-to-augmented-random-search-d8d7b55309bd



### **ARS in Practice**

### Augmented Random Search for Multi-Objective Bayesian Optimization of Neural Networks





theta 0

Figure 3. Topography of the objective value and the expected improvement for MOBOpt-ARS and ParEGO after a total of 40 samples, given an initial prior of 5 samples, marked as red triangles.

The global minimum can be found at  $\theta_0 = 15$  and  $\theta_1 = 5$ . For MOBOpt-ARS, the rollouts for all competing trained policies are shown as lines with their starting points marked by red crosses.

### **ARS in Practice**

Augmented Random Search for Multi-Objective Bayesian Optimization of Neural Networks

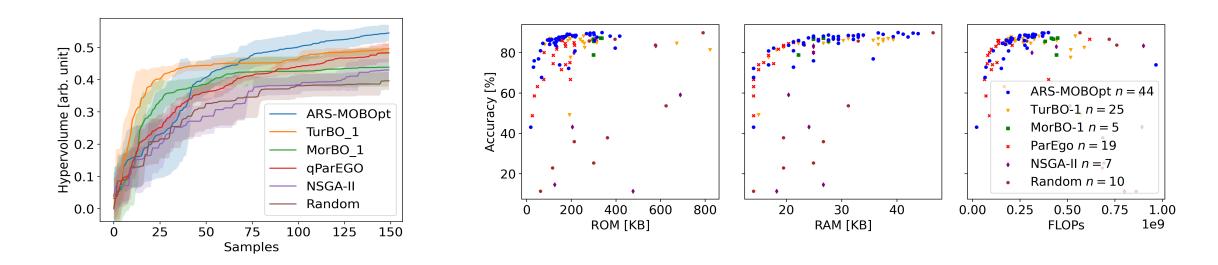


Figure 2. Hypervolume and feasible Pareto fronts of optimizations performed for two problems (ResNet18, CIFAR10 and MobileNetV3, DaLiAc) with a search budget of 150 samples and 5 seeds each.

Better: Augmented Random Search (ARS)

### **Pros:**

- Simple to understand and implement
- Less parameter tuning and robust to hyper-parameters
- Embarrassingly easy to parallelize

### Cons:

- They tend to favor "lucky" rollouts
- In stochastic environments it is not easy to distinguish if good performance is due to parameter variation or environment noise
- They do not exploit the sequential structure of the problem
- They require 10x more samples (approx.) compared to properly tuned Deep RL algorithms



But...wait...uh... What are we doing here?



### **Policy Gradients**

Assume a state-action sequence in a complete trajectory with T steps (with  $s_T$  being a terminal state):

$$\tau = (s_0, a_0, ..., s_{T-1}, a_{T-1}, s_T)$$

- As usual,
  - $R(s_t, a_t)$  is the reward received after observing  $s_t$  and performing action  $a_t$
  - $G(\tau) := \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \gamma^t R(s_t, a_t)$  is the (discounted) sum of rewards (return)
- Our goal is to maximize the expected reward:

$$\max_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{\pi_{\theta}} G(\tau)$$

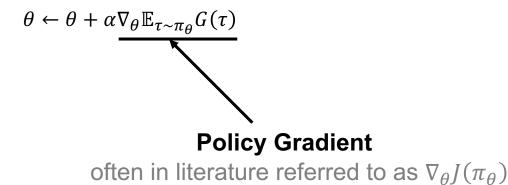
(where  $\pi_{\theta}$  is a parameterized policy, e.g., a neural network)

### **Policy Gradients**

- But how do we maximize this?
  - → **Gradient Ascent!** Suppose we know how to calculate the gradient w.r.t. the parameters:

$$\nabla_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim \pi_{\theta}} G(\tau)$$

Then we can update our parameters  $\theta$  with a learning rate  $\alpha$  in the direction of the gradient:



### **Policy Gradients**

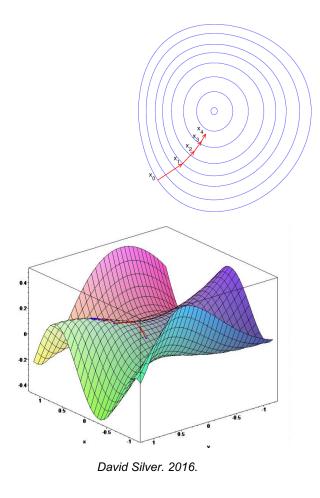
- Let  $J(\theta)$  be any policy objective function
- Policy gradient algorithms search for a local maximum in  $J(\theta)$  by ascending the gradient of the policy w.r.t. the parameters  $\theta$ :

$$\Delta\theta = \alpha\nabla_{\theta}J(\theta)$$

where  $\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta)$  is the **policy gradient** 

$$\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial J(\theta)}{\partial \theta_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial J(\theta)}{\partial \theta_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

and  $\alpha$  is a step-size parameter.



### **Policy Gradients**

Let  $P(\tau|\theta)$  be the probability of a trajectory  $\tau$  under policy  $\pi_{\theta}$ , then

$$\begin{split} \nabla_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim \pi_{\theta}} G(\tau) &= \nabla_{\theta} \sum_{\tau} P(\tau | \theta) G(\tau) \\ &= \sum_{\tau} \nabla_{\theta} P(\tau | \theta) G(\tau) \\ &= \sum_{\tau} \frac{P(\tau | \theta)}{P(\tau | \theta)} \nabla_{\theta} P(\tau | \theta) G(\tau) \\ &= \sum_{\tau} P(\tau | \theta) \nabla_{\theta} \log P(\tau | \theta) G(\tau) \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim \pi_{\theta}} (\nabla_{\theta} \log P(\tau | \theta) G(\tau)) \end{split}$$

definition of expectation

swap sum/integral and gradient

multiply and divide by  $P(\tau|\theta)$ 

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \log f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x})}{f(\mathbf{x})}$$

definition of expectation

https://www.janisklaise.com/post/rl-policy-gradients/



### **Policy Gradients**

The probability of a trajectory  $\tau$  can be formulated as (note: MDP):

$$P(\tau|\theta) = p(s_0) \prod_{t=0}^{T-1} \underline{p(s_{t+1}|s_t, a_t)} \pi_{\theta}(a_t|s_t)$$
 argh...we do not like this!

But wait, let's take the gradient of the log-prob first:

$$\nabla_{\theta} \log P(\tau | \theta) = \nabla_{\theta} \left( \log p(s_0) + \sum_{t=0}^{T} (\log p(s_{t+1} | s_t, a_t) + \log \pi_{\theta}(a_t | s_t)) \right)$$
$$= \sum_{t=0}^{T} \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(a_t | s_t)$$

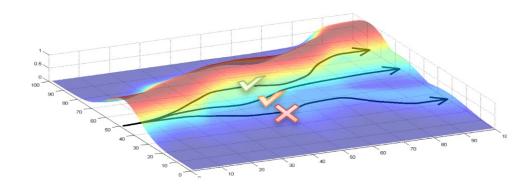
dynamics model disappears!

### **Policy Gradients**

Plugging grad-log-prob into the gradient update gives:

$$\nabla_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim \pi_{\theta}} G(\tau) = \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim \pi_{\theta}} (\nabla_{\theta} \log P(\tau | \theta) G(\tau))$$
$$= \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim \pi_{\theta}} \left( \sum_{t=0}^{T} \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(a_{t} | s_{t}) G(\tau) \right)$$

- But what is the intuition behind this gradient?
- The gradient tries to
  - Increase probability of paths with positive G
  - Decrease probability of paths with negative G



Pieter Abbeel. DeepRL Bootcamp 4A Policy Gradients.

### **Policy Gradients**

Plugging grad-log-prob into the gradient update gives:

$$\nabla_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim \pi_{\theta}} G(\tau) = \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim \pi_{\theta}} (\nabla_{\theta} \log P(\tau | \theta) G(\tau))$$
$$= \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim \pi_{\theta}} \left( \sum_{t=0}^{T} \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(a_{t} | s_{t}) G(\tau) \right)$$

As this is an expectation, we can estimate it with a sample mean using Monte-Carlo sampling of  $|\tau| = L$ trajectories: each action in the episode in influenced

$$\nabla_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim \pi_{\theta}} G(\tau) \approx \frac{1}{L} \sum_{\tau} \sum_{t=0}^{T} \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(a_{t}|s_{t}) G(\tau)$$

by the reward of the whole episode???

→ reward-to-go policy gradient

### **Policy Gradients**

Plugging grad-log-prob into the gradient update gives:

$$\nabla_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim \pi_{\theta}} G(\tau) = \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim \pi_{\theta}} (\nabla_{\theta} \log P(\tau | \theta) G(\tau))$$
$$= \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim \pi_{\theta}} \left( \sum_{t=0}^{T} \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(a_{t} | s_{t}) G(\tau) \right)$$

• Reduce variance: as this is an expectation, we can estimate it with a sample mean using Monte-Carlo sampling of L trajectories:
• each action in the episode in influenced

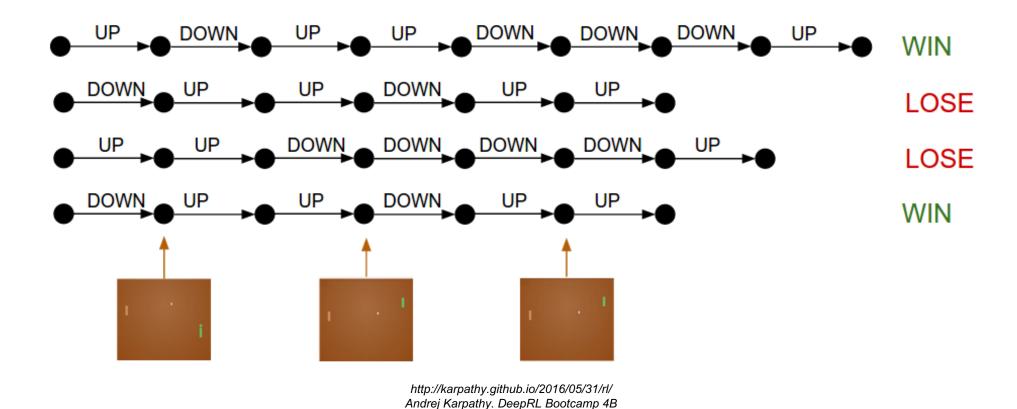
$$\nabla_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim \pi_{\theta}} G(\tau) \approx \frac{1}{L} \sum_{t=0}^{T} \sum_{t=0}^{T} \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(a_{t}|s_{t}) G(\tau)$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{L} \sum_{t=0}^{T} \sum_{t=0}^{T} \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(a_{t}|s_{t}) \sum_{t'=t}^{T} \gamma^{t'-t} R(s_{t'}, a_{t'})$$

by the reward of the whole episode???

### **Policy Gradients**

How does the reward-to-go help?



### Policy Gradient: REINFORCE

- Monte-Carle Policy Gradient Control
  - Update parameters by stochastic gradient ascent
  - Using policy gradient theorem
  - Using return-to-go  $Q^{\pi_{\theta}}(s_t, a_t)$  as an unbiased sample of G:

$$\Delta\theta_t = \alpha \nabla_\theta \log \pi_\theta(a_t|s_t) \gamma G_t$$

### REINFORCE: Monte-Carlo Policy-Gradient Control (episodic) for $\pi_*$

Input: a differentiable policy parameterization  $\pi(a|s, \theta)$ 

Algorithm parameter: step size  $\alpha > 0$ 

Initialize policy parameter  $\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathbb{R}^{d'}$  (e.g., to 0)

Loop forever (for each episode):

Generate an episode  $S_0, A_0, R_1, \ldots, S_{T-1}, A_{T-1}, R_T$ , following  $\pi(\cdot|\cdot, \boldsymbol{\theta})$ 

Loop for each step of the episode t = 0, 1, ..., T - 1:

$$G \leftarrow \sum_{k=t+1}^{T} \gamma^{k-t-1} R_k$$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta} + \alpha \gamma^t G \nabla \ln \pi (A_t | S_t, \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$$(G_t)$$

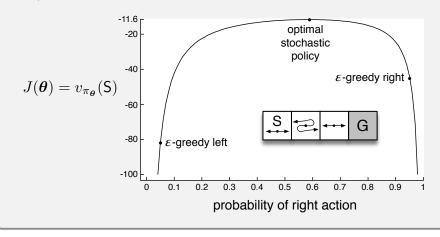
Sutton, R. S., & Barto, A. G. (2018). Reinforcement learning: An introduction. MIT press.



Policy Gradient: REINFORCE

#### Example 13.1 Short corridor with switched actions

Consider the small corridor gridworld shown inset in the graph below. The reward is -1 per step, as usual. In each of the three nonterminal states there are only two actions, right and left. These actions have their usual consequences in the first and third states (left causes no movement in the first state), but in the second state they are reversed, so that right moves to the left and left moves to the right. The problem is difficult because all the states appear identical under the function approximation. In particular, we define  $\mathbf{x}(s, \text{right}) = [1, 0]^{\top}$  and  $\mathbf{x}(s, \text{left}) = [0, 1]^{\top}$ , for all s. An action-value method with  $\varepsilon$ -greedy action selection is forced to choose between just two policies: choosing right with high probability  $1 - \varepsilon/2$  on all steps or choosing left with the same high probability on all time steps. If  $\varepsilon = 0.1$ , then these two policies achieve a value (at the start state) of less than -44 and -82, respectively, as shown in the graph. A method can do significantly better if it can learn a specific probability with which to select right. The best probability is about 0.59, which achieves a value of about -11.6.



Sutton, R. S., & Barto, A. G. (2018). Reinforcement learning: An introduction. MIT press.

Policy Gradient: REINFORCE

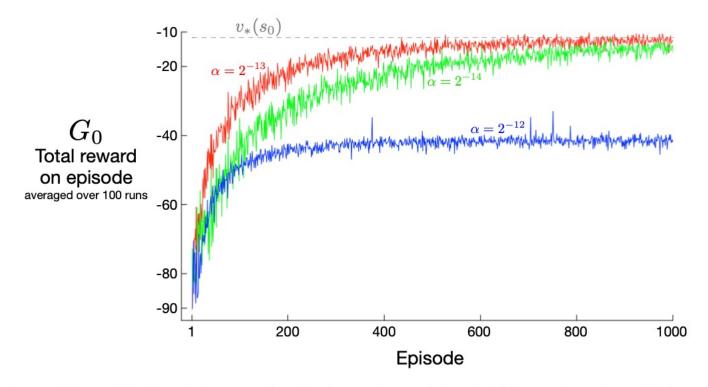


Figure 13.1: REINFORCE on the short-corridor gridworld (Example 13.1). With a good step size, the total reward per episode approaches the optimal value of the start state.

Sutton, R. S., & Barto, A. G. (2018). Reinforcement learning: An introduction. MIT press.

### **Policy Gradients**

- Policy Gradient:
  - On-policy algorithm that also works w/ continuous action-spaces

```
Initialize a policy network randomly.
Repeat forever:
       collect a bunch of rollouts with the policy.
       Increase the probability of actions that worked well.
333
Profit.
```

- Good & easy-to-follow implementations available<sup>1</sup>
- Intuitive algorithm
- Easy to parallelize
- High variance
- Not capable of solving modern continuous action control problems

<sup>1</sup> https://www.janisklaise.com/post/rl-policy-gradients



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