RL Part 3.1: Policy Search Methods using Policy Gradients

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Motivation

Limits of Value Functions:

- Fill-up state-space: Exponential explosion with the number of dimensions
- Continuous actions?
- Value Function Approximation Error might propagate and arbitrarily distort the policy update!
- Exploration on the real system?

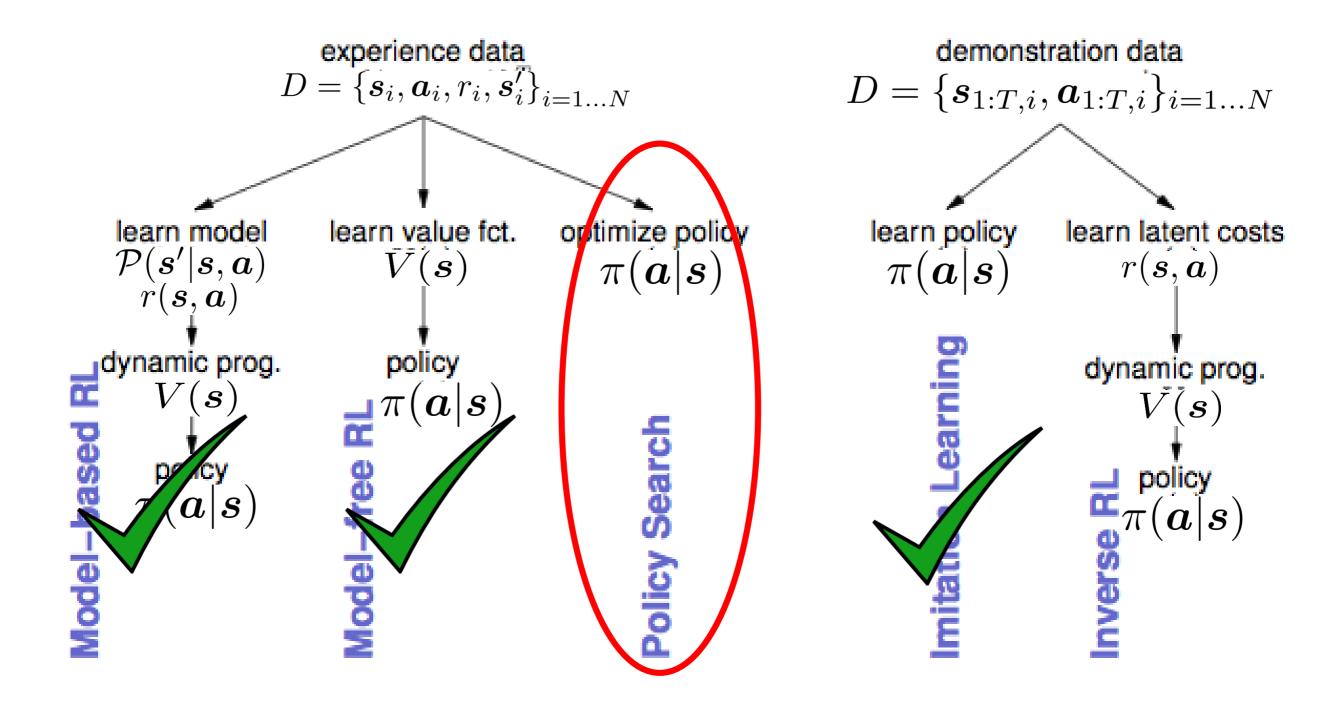
Many of these problems can be fixed by **using** parametric policies and policy search

- Improving upon demonstrations
- Value function is not (always) needed
- Using task-appropriate policies is possible



Bigger Picture







- **1. Categorization of Policy Search**
 - I. Episode-Based versus Step-Based Policy Search

2. Policy Gradients

- I. Episode-Based Policy Gradients
- II. Step-Based Policy Gradients

3. Relative Entropy and Natural Gradients

[Deisenroth, Neumann, Peters: "A survey on Policy Search in Robotics", 2013]

Action Selection



... in value-based algorithms:

Greedy or soft-max policy:
$$\pi(\boldsymbol{a}|\boldsymbol{s}) = \frac{\exp(\beta Q(\boldsymbol{s}, \boldsymbol{a}))}{\sum_{\boldsymbol{a}'} \exp(\beta Q(\boldsymbol{s}, \boldsymbol{a}'))}$$

Difficult in continuous action spaces

Alternatively, we can use parametrized policies for action selection

For example: Gaussian Policies

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{a}|\boldsymbol{s};\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{a}|f_{\boldsymbol{w}}(\boldsymbol{s}), \sigma^{2}\boldsymbol{I}), \quad \boldsymbol{\theta} = \{\boldsymbol{w}, \sigma^{2}\}$$

Continuous actions can be easily incorporated

Policy Search: How to find good parameters θ ?



Pseudo-Algorithm:

Repeat

- **1. Explore:** Generate trajectories $\boldsymbol{\tau}^{[i]}$ following the current policy π_k
- 2. Policy Evaluation: Assess quality of trajectory or actions
 - Episode-Based Policy Evaluation
 - Step-Based Policy Evaluation
- **3.** Policy Update: Compute new policy π_{k+1} from trajectories and evaluations



Evaluation Strategy:

• We directly asses the quality of a parameter vector $\theta^{[i]}$ by the returns

$$R_{[i]} = \sum_{t=1}^{T} r_t^{[i]}$$

• High variance in returns (sum of T random variables)

Data-set used for policy update

$$\mathcal{D}_{\text{episode}} = \left\{ \boldsymbol{\theta}^{[i]}, R^{[i]} \right\}_{i=1...N}$$

- One data-point per trajectory
- Works for a moderate number of parameters

Explore in parameter space at each episode



Step-based evaluation strategy

Evaluation Strategy:

We assess the quality of single state-action pairs by using the reward to come

$$Q_t^{[i]} = \sum_{h=t}^T r_h^{[i]}$$

Less variance in Q_t (sum of T-t random variables)

Data-set used for policy update:

$$\mathcal{D}_{\text{step}} = \left\{ \boldsymbol{s}_{t}^{[i]}, \boldsymbol{a}_{t}^{[i]}, Q_{t}^{[i]} \right\}_{i=1...N, t=1...T}$$

One data-point per state-action pair

Explore in action space at each time step with stochastic low-level policy

$$oldsymbol{a}_t \sim \pi(\cdot | oldsymbol{s}; oldsymbol{ heta})$$

Summary



Step-based:

Exploration in Action Space

Less variance in quality assessment.

More data-points to fit policy

Less likely to create unstable policies

Uses the structure of the RL problem

decomposition in single timesteps

Episode-based:

Exploration in Parameter Space

Allows for more sophisticated exploration strategies

Is often very efficient for a small amount of parameters

Generalization and multi-task learning

E.g. open loop policies such as DMPs

Structure-less optimization

"Black-Box Optimizer"

Episode-based Policy Search



We learn a search distribution $\pi(\theta; \omega)$ over the parameters of the low-level control policy $\pi(a|s; \theta)$

 $\pi(\pmb{\theta};\pmb{\omega})$ is called **upper-level policy**

For example, $\pi(\theta; \omega) = \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$

 $oldsymbol{\omega} = \{oldsymbol{\mu}, oldsymbol{\Sigma}\}$... parameters of upper level policy

To reduce variance in the returns, $\pi(a|s; \theta)$ is often modelled as determinstic policy, i.e.,

$$\pi(\boldsymbol{a}|\boldsymbol{s};\boldsymbol{\theta})
ightarrow \boldsymbol{a} = \pi(\boldsymbol{s})$$

Episode-based Policy Search



Search for policy $\pi(\theta; \omega)$ that maximizes the expected return

$$J_{\boldsymbol{\omega}} = \int \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \boldsymbol{\omega}) R_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$

Upper-Level Policy $\pi({m heta};{m \omega})$:

Stochastic, chooses parameters of low-level policy / movement primitive Implements exploration in parameter space for information gathering

Return R_{θ} : Expected long-term reward for the trajectory $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ that corresponds to $\boldsymbol{\theta}$

$$R_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{T} r_t | \boldsymbol{\theta}\right]$$

Episode-based Policy Search Algorithms

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Policy Search Algorithms:

Given: initial upper level policy $\pi(\theta; \omega_0)$ Repeat until convergence

Exploration:

Sample from stochastic policy:

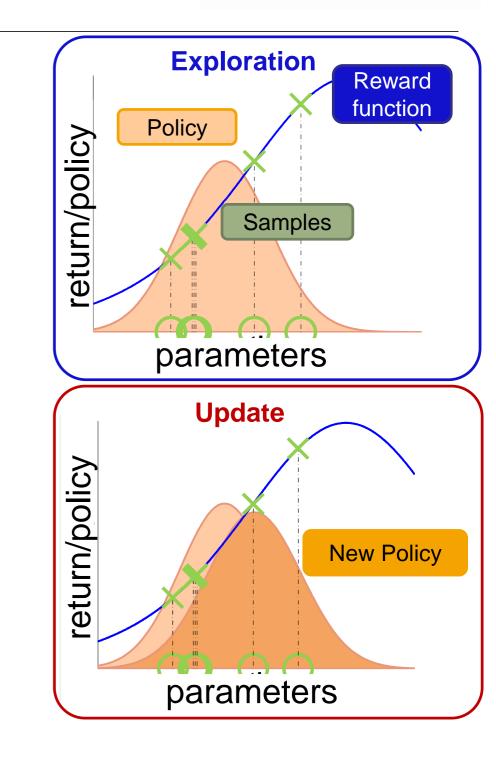
$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_i \sim \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \boldsymbol{\omega}_k), i = 1 \dots N$$

Collect returns by executing θ_i

$$R_i = R_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_i}$$

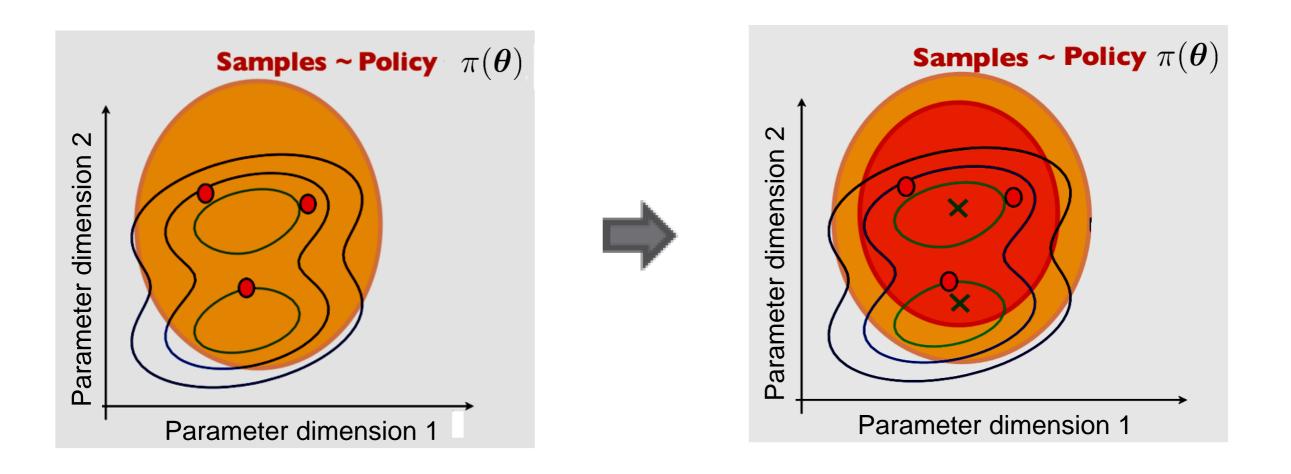
Update:

Obtain new policy $\pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \boldsymbol{\omega}_{k+1})$ from samples



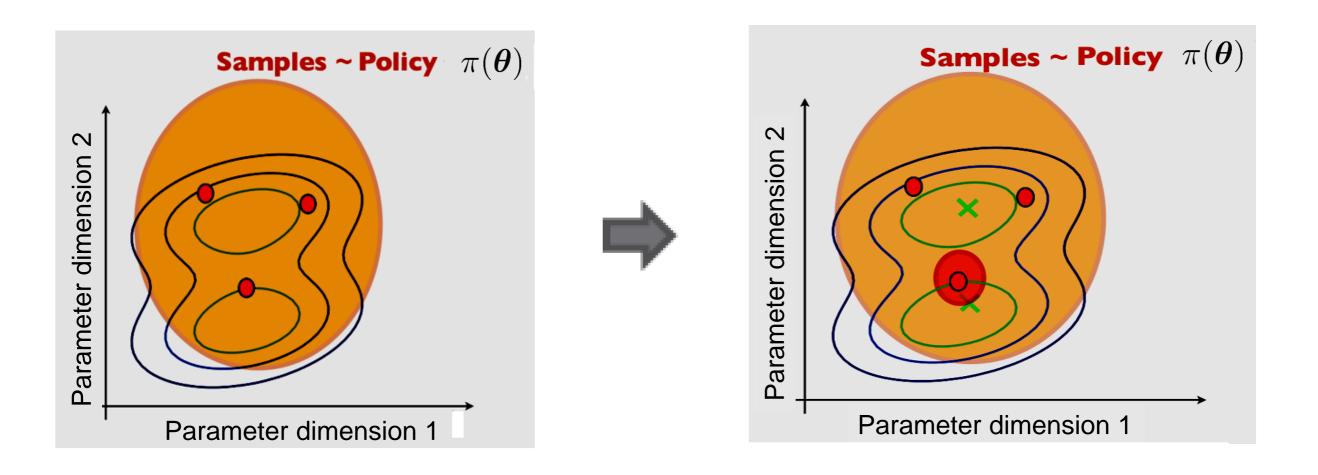


How should we update the policy?





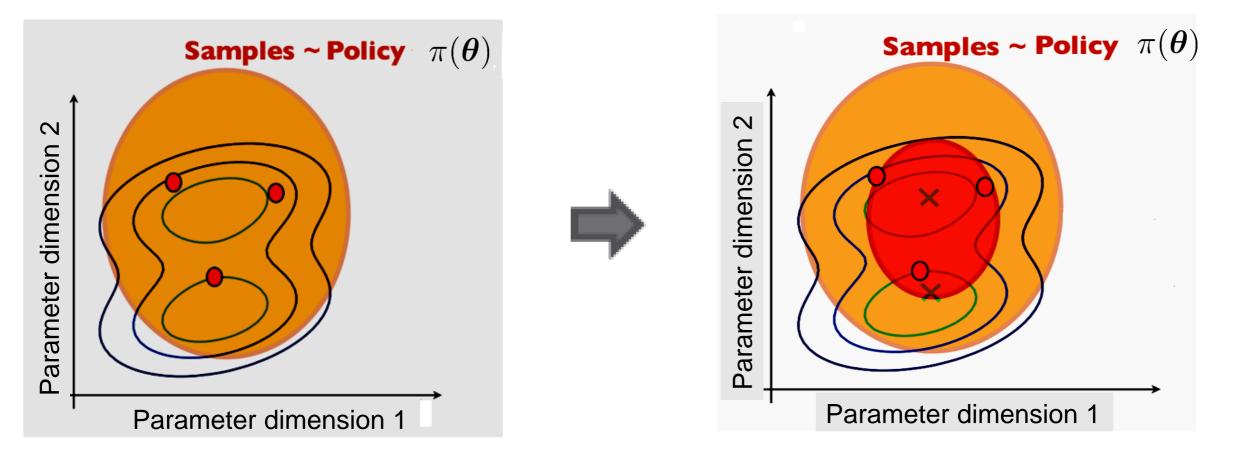
How greedily should we update the policy?





How greedily should we update the policy?

How can we control this update?



We need to find a metric to measure the "distance" between two policies



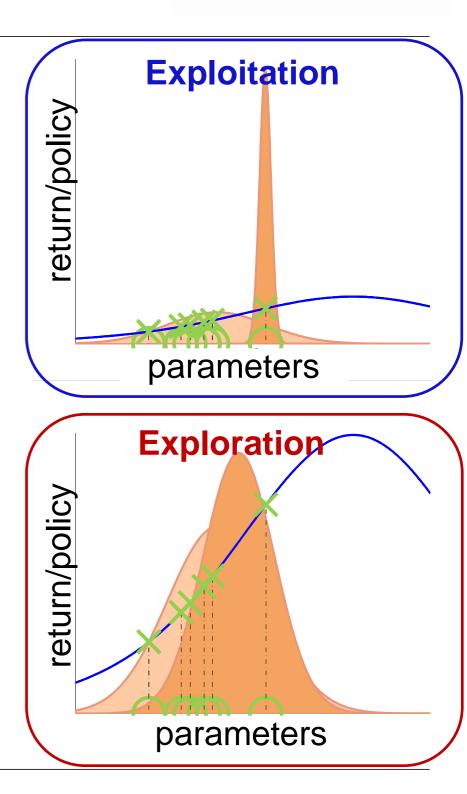
We have to choose a tradeoff between

- Exploitation: Maximizes reward on the samples
- Exploration: Continue to explore in the next iteration

Fundamental Question in Policy Search

- How can we control the trade-off between exploration and exploitation?
- We need to quantify the difference between two policies
- We will get to know different metrics for policies

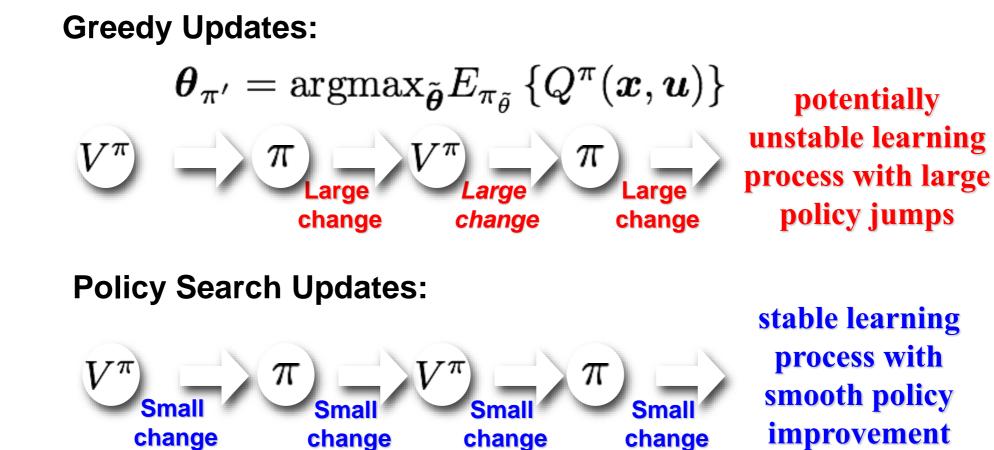
Typically, we want to limit the distance between two subsequent policies for the update



Greedy vs Incremental



Why is it useful to control the step-width of the policy update?





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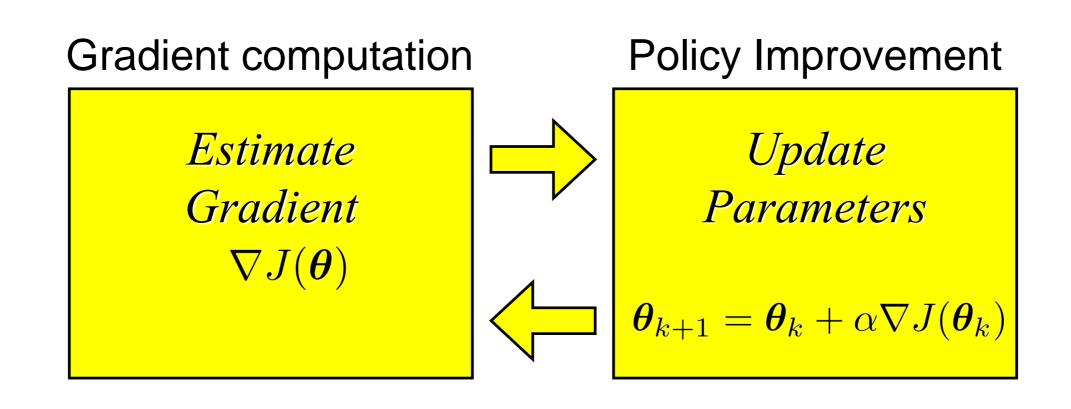
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Gradient-based Policy Updates



Finite Differences

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1. Perturb the parameters of your policy:

$$\theta + \delta \theta$$
 System
 $\delta J = J(\theta + \delta \theta) - J(\theta)$
Policy

2. Approximate J by first order Taylor approximation

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta} + \delta\boldsymbol{\theta}) = J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \frac{\partial J(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} \delta\boldsymbol{\theta}$$

3. Solve for $\frac{\partial J(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}}$ in a least squares sense (linear regression)
 $\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{\text{FD}}J = \frac{\partial J(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} = (\Delta \boldsymbol{\Theta}^T \Delta \boldsymbol{\Theta})^{-1} \Delta \boldsymbol{\Theta}^T \Delta \boldsymbol{J}$

Can be used to update a single parameter estimate θ (e.g. mean)

A large class of algorithms includes Kiefer-Wolfowitz procedure, Robbins-Monroe, Simultaneous Perturbation Stochastic Approximation SPSA, ...



How can we update a distribution $\pi(\theta; \omega)$ over the parameter vector (including variance)? Log-ratio trick

$$\nabla \log f(x) = \frac{1}{f(x)} \nabla f(x)$$
 \longrightarrow $\nabla f(x) = f(x) \nabla \log f(x)$

Gradient of the expected return

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\omega}} J_{\boldsymbol{\omega}} = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\omega}} \int \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \boldsymbol{\omega}) R_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} d\boldsymbol{\theta} = \int \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\omega}} \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \boldsymbol{\omega}) R_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$
$$= \int \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \boldsymbol{\omega}) \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\omega}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}; \boldsymbol{\omega}) R_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} d\boldsymbol{\theta}$$
$$\approx \sum_{i=1}^{N} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\omega}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i}; \boldsymbol{\omega}) R_{i} \qquad \begin{array}{c} \text{Only needs} \\ \text{samples!} \end{array}$$

This gradient is called Parameter Exploring Policy 23 Gradient (PGPE)

Baselines...



We can always **subtract a baseline** from the gradient...

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\omega}} J_{\boldsymbol{\omega}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\omega}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{\theta}_i; \boldsymbol{\omega}) (R_i - b)$$

Why?

The gradient estimate can have a high variance Subtracting a baseline can reduce the variance Its still unbiased...

$$\mathbb{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{x};\boldsymbol{\omega})}[\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\omega}}\log p(\boldsymbol{x};\boldsymbol{\omega})b] = b\int \nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}} p(\boldsymbol{x};\boldsymbol{\omega}) = b\nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}} \int p(\boldsymbol{x};\boldsymbol{\omega}) = 0$$

Good baseline: Average reward

but there are optimal baselines for each alg. that minimize the variance



The returns can still have a lot of variance

$$R_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{t=1}^{T} r_t | \boldsymbol{\theta}\right]$$

It is the sum over T random variables

There is less variance in the rewards to come: $Q_t^{[i]} = \sum_{h=t}^T r_h^{[i]}$

- Step-based algorithms can be more efficient when estimating the gradient
- For step-based algorithms, we have to compute the gradient $\nabla_{\theta} J$ for the low-level policy $\pi(a|s;\theta)$



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Some more basic notation

Trajectory distribution: $p(\boldsymbol{\tau}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = p(\boldsymbol{s}_1) \prod_{t=1}^{T-1} \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_t | \boldsymbol{s}_t; \boldsymbol{\theta}) p(\boldsymbol{s}_{t+1} | \boldsymbol{s}_t, \boldsymbol{a}_t)$

Return for a single trajectory: $R(\boldsymbol{\tau}) = \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} r_t + r_T$

Expected long term reward $J(\theta)$ can be written as expectation over the trajectory distribution

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{\tau};\boldsymbol{\theta})}[R(\boldsymbol{\tau})] = \int p(\boldsymbol{\tau};\boldsymbol{\theta})R(\boldsymbol{\tau})d\tau$$



Instead of computing the gradient of the upper-level policy, we compute the gradient of the trajectory distribution

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log p(\boldsymbol{\tau}^{[i]}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) R(\boldsymbol{\tau}^{[i]})$$

How do we compute $\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log p(\boldsymbol{\tau}^{[i]}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$?

$$p(\boldsymbol{\tau};\boldsymbol{\theta}) = p(\boldsymbol{s}_1) \prod_{t=1}^{T-1} \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_t | \boldsymbol{s}_t; \boldsymbol{\theta}) p(\boldsymbol{s}_{t+1} | \boldsymbol{s}_t, \boldsymbol{a}_t)$$
$$\log p(\boldsymbol{\tau}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_t | \boldsymbol{s}_t; \boldsymbol{\theta}) + \text{const}$$

Model-dependent terms do not depend on parameters, derivative is now easy

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log p(\boldsymbol{\tau}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_t | \boldsymbol{s}_t; \boldsymbol{\theta})$$



Lets plug it in...

Result:

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_{t}^{[i]} | \boldsymbol{s}_{t}^{[i]}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) R(\boldsymbol{\tau}^{[i]})$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_{t}^{[i]} | \boldsymbol{s}_{t}^{[i]}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \left(\sum_{h=1}^{T-1} r_{h}^{[i]} + r_{T}^{[i]}\right)$$

This algorithm is called the **REINFORCE** Policy Gradient

- ➡ Wait... we still use the returns $R(\tau) = \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} r_t + r_T$ (high variance)
- What did we gain with our step-based version? Not too much yet...



Using the rewards to come...

Simple Observation:

Rewards in the past are not correlated with actions in the future

$$\mathbb{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{\tau})}[r_t \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_h | \boldsymbol{s}_h)] = 0, \forall t < h$$

This observation leads to the Policy Gradient Theorem

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{\mathrm{PG}} J = \sum_{\substack{i=1\\N}}^{N} \sum_{\substack{t=1\\T-1}}^{T-1} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_{t}^{[i]} | \boldsymbol{s}_{t}^{[i]}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \left(\sum_{\substack{h=t\\h=t}}^{T-1} r_{h}^{[i]} + r_{T}^{[i]}\right)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_{t}^{[i]} | \boldsymbol{s}_{t}^{[i]}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) Q_{h}^{[i]}$$

- The rewards to come have less variance
- ➡ We can do it again with a baseline...



How can we choose the step-size to control our policy update?

Simple (naive) idea:

- Use distance in parameter space as metric
- → Episode-based: $L_2(\pi_{k+1}, \pi_k) = ||\boldsymbol{\omega}_{k+1} \boldsymbol{\omega}_k||$
- → Step-based: $L_2(\pi_{k+1},\pi_k) = ||\boldsymbol{\theta}_{k+1} \boldsymbol{\theta}_k||$

Choose step size, such that $L_2(\pi_{k+1}, \pi_k) \leq \epsilon$ $\alpha_k = \frac{1}{||\nabla J||} \epsilon$



Is the distance in parameter space a good idea?

Consider the following policy:

$$\pi(a|\boldsymbol{s};\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathcal{N}(a|\theta_1 s_1 + \theta_2 s_2, \sigma^2)$$

with $s_1 \in [0, 1]$ and $s_2 \in [0, 1000]$

Lets consider the distances of $\boldsymbol{\theta}_1 = [1, 1]^T$, $\boldsymbol{\theta}_2 = [1.1, 1]^T$, $\boldsymbol{\theta}_3 = [1, 1.1]^T$

The distances $||\theta_1 - \theta_2||$ and $||\theta_1 - \theta_3||$ are the same

Policy $\pi(a|s, \theta_3)$ is much more different from $\pi(a|s, \theta_1)$ than $\pi(a|s, \theta_2)$

The euclidian metric is not invariant to scaling of the variables!



Can we define a metric that is invariant to transformation of the parameters?

Idea:

- Define a matrix M that captures the "influence" of the parameters on the policy
- Use matrix M to define a new metric that incorporates this influence
- $= L_M(\pi_{k+1}, \pi_k) = ||\boldsymbol{\theta}_{k+1} \boldsymbol{\theta}_k||_{\boldsymbol{M}} = (\boldsymbol{\theta}_{k+1} \boldsymbol{\theta}_k)^T \boldsymbol{M}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_{k+1} \boldsymbol{\theta}_k)^T \boldsymbol{M}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k)^T \boldsymbol{M}(\boldsymbol{\theta}$
- Large change in parameters are more expensive in directions with large influence



Metric in standard gradients

How to use such metric for gradient ascent?

Find an update direction $\Delta \theta$ that is most similar to the standard gradient $\nabla_{\theta} J = \left[\frac{dJ}{d\theta_1}, \dots, \frac{dJ}{d\theta_n}\right]$

$$\Delta \boldsymbol{\theta}^* = \operatorname{argmax}_{\Delta \boldsymbol{\theta}} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J \Delta \boldsymbol{\theta}$$

with limited distance, i.e.,

s.t.:
$$L_M(\pi_{k+1}, \pi_k) = \Delta \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{M} \Delta \boldsymbol{\theta} \leq \epsilon$$

Solution to this constraint optimization problem (see lecture notes)

$$\Delta \boldsymbol{\theta}^* = \lambda \boldsymbol{M}^{-1} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J \propto \boldsymbol{M}^{-1} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J$$

Now we "only" have to find a proper matrix M



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We need to find a better metric...

What do we want?

- 1. Invariance to the representation of the policy (e.g. parameter transformations)
- 2. Invariance to transformations of the rewards

Alternative way to measure the distance between two policies

Policies are probability distributions

We can measure "distances" of distributions

For example, Relative Entropy or Kullback-Leibler divergence

$$\mathrm{KL}(p||q) = \sum_{\boldsymbol{x}} p(\boldsymbol{x}) \log \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x})}{q(\boldsymbol{x})}$$

Information-theoretic "distance" measure between distributions



Kullback-Leibler Divergence

Properties: $\operatorname{KL}(p||q) = \sum_{\boldsymbol{x}} p(\boldsymbol{x}) \log \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x})}{q(\boldsymbol{x})}$ $\operatorname{KL}(q||p) \ge 0, \quad \operatorname{KL}(q||p) = 0 \Rightarrow p = q$

Not symetric, so not a real distance $\operatorname{KL}(q||p) \neq \operatorname{KL}(p||q)$

KL for Gaussians:

$$\mathrm{KL}(p||q) = \log \frac{|\boldsymbol{B}|}{|\boldsymbol{A}|} + \mathrm{tr}(\boldsymbol{B}^{-1}\boldsymbol{A}) + (\boldsymbol{b} - \boldsymbol{a})^T \boldsymbol{B}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{b} - \boldsymbol{a}) - n$$

with $p({\boldsymbol{x}}) = \mathcal{N}({\boldsymbol{a}}, {\boldsymbol{A}})$ and $q({\boldsymbol{x}}) = \mathcal{N}({\boldsymbol{b}}, {\boldsymbol{B}})$

... compare with euclidian metric:

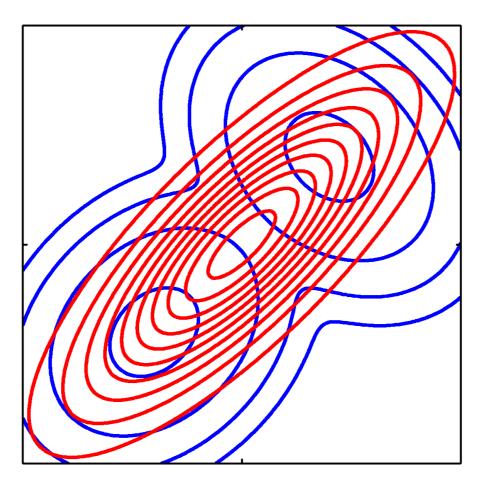
Distance scales with inverse covariance matrix of q

2 types of KL:

Moment projection: $\operatorname{argmin}_{q} \operatorname{KL}(p||q) = \sum_{\boldsymbol{x}} p(\boldsymbol{x}) \log \frac{p(\boldsymbol{x})}{q(\boldsymbol{x})}$

q is large whereever p is large

Same as Maximum Likelihood estimate (blackboard)!

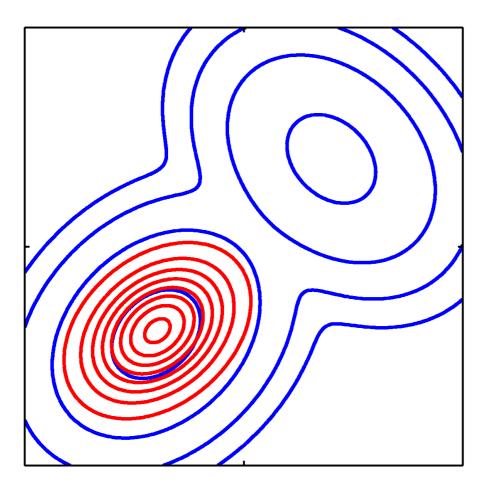


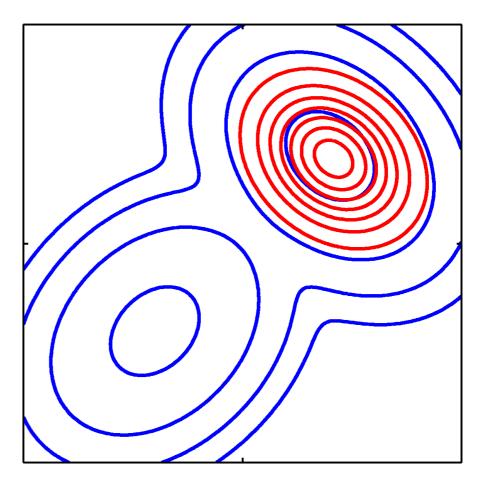
2 types of KL:

Information projection: $\operatorname{argmin}_{q} \operatorname{KL}(q||p) = \sum_{\boldsymbol{x}} q(\boldsymbol{x}) \log \frac{q(\boldsymbol{x})}{p(\boldsymbol{x})}$

q is zero whereever p is zero (zero forcing)

not unique for most distributions





The Kullback Leibler divergence can be approximated by the Fisher information matrix (2nd order Taylor approximation)

 $\mathrm{KL}(p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}+\Delta\boldsymbol{\theta}}||p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}) \approx \Delta\boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{G}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \Delta\boldsymbol{\theta}$

where $G(\theta)$ is the Fisher information matrix (FIM)

 $\boldsymbol{G}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_p[\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}) \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x})^T]$

Captures information how the single parameters influence the distribution



 $\boldsymbol{G}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \mathbb{E}_p[\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x}) \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\boldsymbol{x})^T]$

If the distribution is Gaussian, i.e., $p(x) = \mathcal{N}(x|\mu_{\alpha}, \Sigma_{\beta})$ with $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^m$

then the FIM is $a(n+m) \times (n+m)$ matrix and is given by

$$G(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \operatorname{diag}(\boldsymbol{G}_{1}(\boldsymbol{\alpha}), \boldsymbol{G}_{2}(\boldsymbol{\beta})) \text{ with } \boldsymbol{\theta} = [\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{T}, \boldsymbol{\beta}^{T}]^{T}$$
$$\boldsymbol{G}_{1}(\boldsymbol{\alpha})_{i,j} = \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{i}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\mu}_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{j}}^{T}$$
$$\boldsymbol{G}_{2}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = 0.5 \operatorname{tr}\left(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{-1} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{\beta}}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}_{i}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{\beta}}^{-1} \frac{\partial \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\boldsymbol{\beta}}}{\partial \boldsymbol{\beta}_{j}}\right)$$

Homework: Check G_1 for $\mu_{\alpha} = \alpha$ and $\mu_{\alpha} = \phi(s)^T \alpha$



The Natural gradient uses the Fisher information matrix as metric $\nabla_{\theta}^{\text{NG}} J = \operatorname{argmax}_{\Delta \theta} \Delta \theta^T \nabla_{\theta} J$ s.t.: $\operatorname{KL}(p_{\theta+\Delta \theta}||p_{\theta}) \approx \Delta \theta^T G(\theta) \Delta \theta \leq \epsilon$

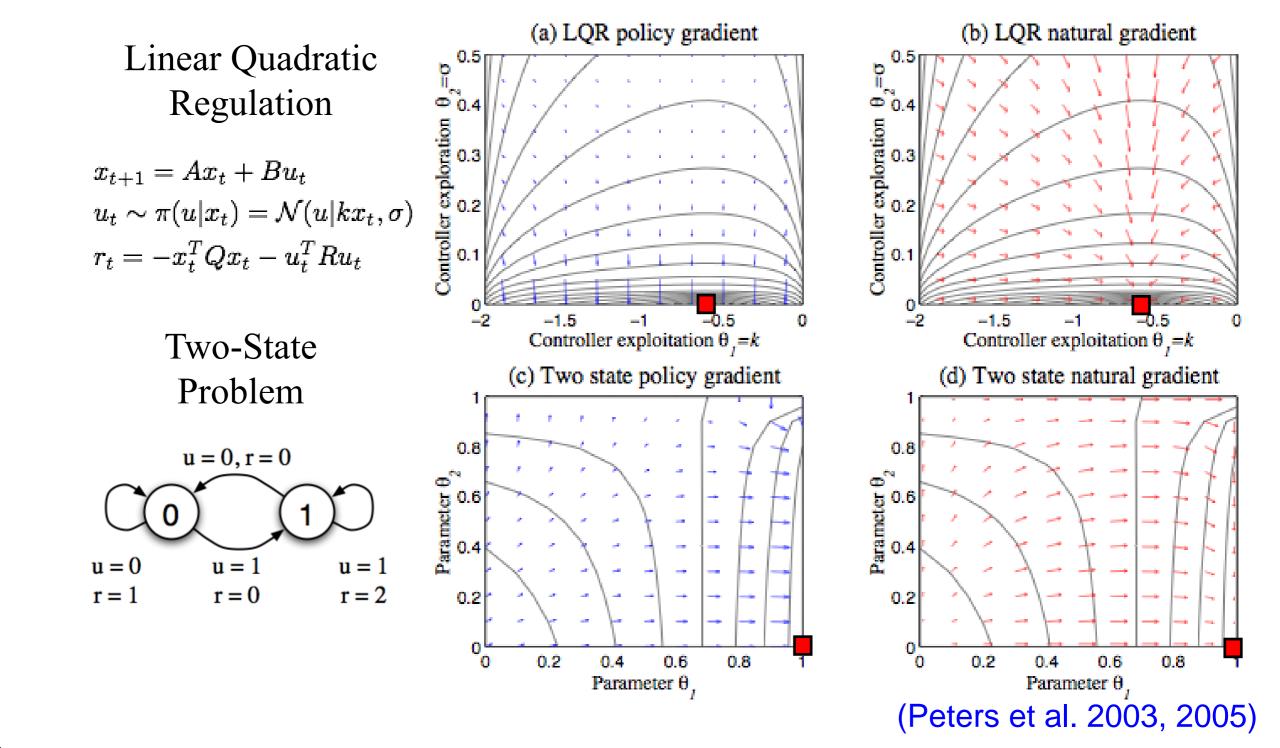
The solution to this optimization problem is given as:

 $\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{\mathrm{NG}} J \propto G(\boldsymbol{\theta})^{-1} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J$

As every parameter has the same influence under metric M, the natural gradient is invariant to linear transformations of the parameter space!



Are they useful?



43 The standard gradient reduces the exploration too quickly!

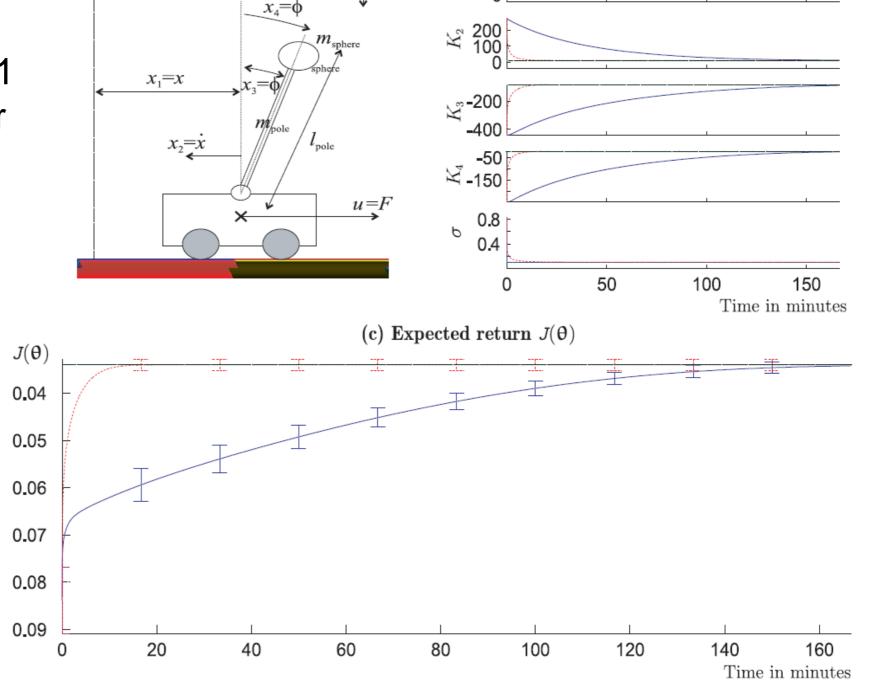
Comparison



(b) A sample learning run

Cart-Pole Balancing

- Learn 4 gains and 1
 variance parameter
- Blue: standard gradient



200 100 ½

g

(a) Cart-pole problem

Red: natural gradient



In the episode-based case, if the distribution is Gaussian, the Fisher Information matrix can be computed in closed form

Used by the Natural Evolution Strategy (NES)

Initialize: μ_0, Σ_0

For k = 0 to L

Create evaluate samples: $\theta_i \sim \pi(\theta | \mu_k, \Sigma_k)$ $R_i = \sum_{t=1}^T r_{i,t}$ Compute Gradient: $\nabla_{\omega} J = \sum_{i=1}^N \nabla_{\omega} \log \pi(\theta_i | \omega) R_i$ Compute FIM $G(\omega)$ in closed form for Gaussians Compute Natural Gradient: $\nabla_{\omega}^{\text{NES}} J = G(\omega)^{-1} \nabla_{\omega} J$ Update Parameters: $\omega_{k+1} = \omega_k + \eta \nabla_{\omega}^{\text{NES}} J$

end



Policy Gradient Theorem with baseline

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{\mathrm{PG}} J = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_{t}^{[i]} | \boldsymbol{s}_{t}^{[i]}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) (Q_{h}^{[i]} - b_{h}(\boldsymbol{s}))$$

To further improve the gradient estimate we can try to estimate the reward to come

$$f_{\boldsymbol{w}}(\boldsymbol{s}, \boldsymbol{a}) = \psi(\boldsymbol{s}, \boldsymbol{a})^T \boldsymbol{w} \approx (Q_h^{[i]} - b_h(\boldsymbol{s}^{[i]}))$$

and use $\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{\text{FA}} J = \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_t^{[i]} | \boldsymbol{s}_t^{[i]}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) f_w(\boldsymbol{s}^{[i]}, \boldsymbol{a}^{[i]})$ as gradient

It can be shown that this gradient is still unbiased if:

$$\psi(\boldsymbol{s}, \boldsymbol{a}) = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}|\boldsymbol{s})$$



Compatible Function Approximation:

 $f_{\boldsymbol{w}}(\boldsymbol{s}, \boldsymbol{a}) = \psi(\boldsymbol{s}, \boldsymbol{a})^T \boldsymbol{w} \approx (Q_h^{[i]} - b_h(\boldsymbol{s}^{[i]})) \qquad \psi(\boldsymbol{s}, \boldsymbol{a}) = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}|\boldsymbol{s})$

Basis functions of Q(s,a) are combatible to the policy

The compatible function approximation is mean-zero!

$$\mathbb{E}_{p(\boldsymbol{\tau})}\left[\nabla \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}|\boldsymbol{s};\boldsymbol{\theta})^T \boldsymbol{w}\right] = 0$$

Thus, it can only represent the Advantage Function: Baseline $f_{w}(s, a) = \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi(a|s; \theta)^{T} w = Q^{\pi}(s, a) - V^{\pi}(s)$

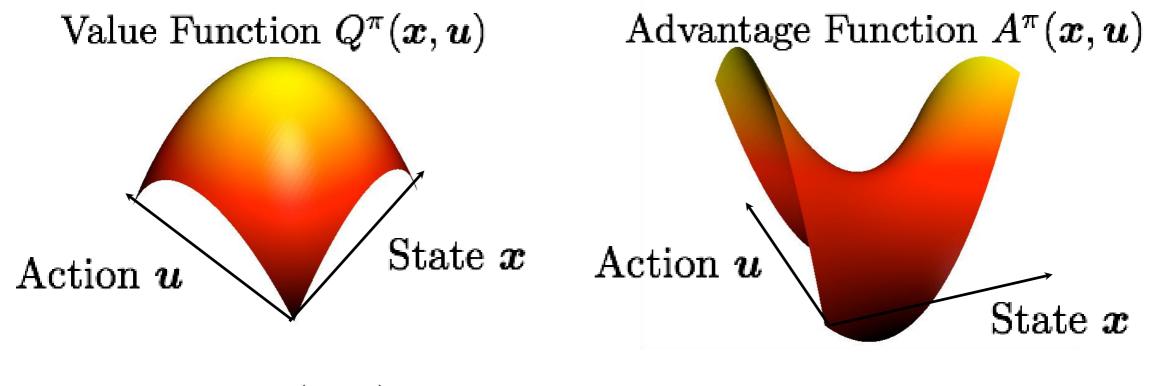
The advantage function tells us, how much better an action is in comparison to the expected performance



The compatible function approximation represents an advantage function

$$f_{\boldsymbol{w}}^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{u}) = Q^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{u}) - V^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{x}) = A^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{u}).$$

The advantage function is very different from the value functions



In order to learn $f_{m{w}}(m{s},m{a})$ we need to learn $V^{\pi}(m{s})$



Gradient with Compatible Function Approximation:

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{\mathrm{FA}} J = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_{t}^{[i]} | \boldsymbol{s}_{t}^{[i]}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_{t}^{[i]} | \boldsymbol{s}_{t}^{[i]}; \boldsymbol{\theta})^{T} \boldsymbol{w}$$
$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{\mathrm{FA}} J = \mathbb{E}_{p(\tau)} \left[\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_{t}^{[i]} | \boldsymbol{s}_{t}^{[i]}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_{t}^{[i]} | \boldsymbol{s}_{t}^{[i]}; \boldsymbol{\theta})^{T} \right] \boldsymbol{w}$$
$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{\mathrm{FA}} J = \boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \boldsymbol{w}$$

We showed [Peters & Schaal, 2008]:

$$\begin{aligned} \boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) &= \mathbb{E}_{p(\tau)} \left[\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_{t}^{[i]} | \boldsymbol{s}_{t}^{[i]}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_{t}^{[i]} | \boldsymbol{s}_{t}^{[i]}; \boldsymbol{\theta})^{T} \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{p(\tau)} \left[\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log p(\boldsymbol{\tau}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log p(\boldsymbol{\tau}; \boldsymbol{\theta})^{T} \right] = \boldsymbol{G}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \end{aligned}$$



Combatible Function Approximation:

 $abla_{oldsymbol{ heta}}^{\mathrm{FA}}J = oldsymbol{F}(oldsymbol{ heta})oldsymbol{w}$

We showed: F is the Fisher information matrix!

 $oldsymbol{F}(oldsymbol{ heta}) = oldsymbol{G}(oldsymbol{ heta})$

That makes the natural gradient very simple !

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{\mathrm{NG}} J = \boldsymbol{G}(\boldsymbol{\theta})^{-1} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}^{\mathrm{FA}} J = \boldsymbol{G}(\boldsymbol{\theta})^{-1} F(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \boldsymbol{w} = \boldsymbol{w}$$

So we just have to learn w



What about this additional FA?

In many cases, we don't have a good basis functions for $V^{\pi}(s)$

For one rollout i, if we sum up the Bellman Equations

$$Q_1^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{s}_1^{[i]}, \boldsymbol{a}_1^{[i]}) = r(\boldsymbol{s}_1^{[i]}, \boldsymbol{a}_1^{[i]}) + V_2^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{s}_2^{[i]})$$

$$V_1^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{s}_1^{[i]}) + f_{\boldsymbol{w}}(\boldsymbol{s}_1^{[i]}, \boldsymbol{a}_1^{[i]}) = r(\boldsymbol{s}_1^{[i]}, \boldsymbol{a}_1^{[i]}) + V_2^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{s}_2^{[i]})$$

$$V_1^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{s}_1^{[i]}) + \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_1^{[i]} | \boldsymbol{s}_1^{[i]}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \boldsymbol{w} = r(\boldsymbol{s}_1^{[i]}, \boldsymbol{a}_1^{[i]}) + V_2^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{s}_2^{[i]})$$
for each time step

$$V_{1}^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{s}_{1}^{[i]}) + \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_{1}^{[i]} | \boldsymbol{s}_{1}^{[i]}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \boldsymbol{w} = r(\boldsymbol{s}_{1}^{[i]}, \boldsymbol{a}_{1}^{[i]}) + V_{2}^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{s}_{2}^{[i]}) \qquad |+\text{both sides}$$
$$V_{2}^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{s}_{2}^{[i]}) + \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_{2}^{[i]} | \boldsymbol{s}_{2}^{[i]}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \boldsymbol{w} = r(\boldsymbol{s}_{2}^{[i]}, \boldsymbol{a}_{2}^{[i]}) + V_{3}^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{s}_{3}^{[i]}) \qquad |+\text{both sides}$$

+ both sides

$$V_{T-1}^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{s}_{T-1}^{[i]}) + \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_{T-1}^{[i]} | \boldsymbol{s}_{T-1}^{[i]}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \boldsymbol{w} = r(\boldsymbol{s}_{T-1}^{[i]}, \boldsymbol{a}_{T-1}^{[i]}) + V_T^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{s}_T^{[i]})$$

(Peters et al. 2003, 2005)



What about this additional FA?

We can now eliminate the values $V^{\pi}(s)$ of the intermediate states, we obtain

$$\underbrace{V^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{s}_{1}^{[i]})}_{J} + \underbrace{\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_{t}^{[i]} | \boldsymbol{s}_{t}^{[i]}; \boldsymbol{\theta})\right)}_{\boldsymbol{\varphi}^{T}} \boldsymbol{w} = \sum_{t=1}^{T} r(\boldsymbol{s}_{t}^{[i]}, \boldsymbol{a}_{t}^{[i]})$$

ONE offset parameter J suffices as additional function approximation!

at least if we only have one initial state

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Episodic Natural Actor-Critic

In order to get w, we can use linear regression

$$\underbrace{V^{\pi}(\boldsymbol{s}_{1}^{[i]})}_{J} + \underbrace{\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T-1} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi(\boldsymbol{a}_{t}^{[i]} | \boldsymbol{s}_{t}^{[i]}; \boldsymbol{\theta})\right)}_{\boldsymbol{\omega}^{T}} \boldsymbol{w} = \sum_{t=1}^{T} r(\boldsymbol{s}_{t}^{[i]}, \boldsymbol{a}_{t}^{[i]})$$

T

Critic: Episodic Evaluation

Evan van

Policy Evaluation

Linear Regression 54

$$\mathbf{\Phi} = \begin{bmatrix} \varphi_1, & \varphi_2, & \dots, & \varphi_N \\ 1, & 1, & \dots, & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} R_1, R_2^T, \dots, R_N^T \end{bmatrix}^T$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{w} \\ J \end{bmatrix} = \left(\boldsymbol{\Phi}^T \boldsymbol{\Phi} \right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{\Phi}^T \boldsymbol{R}$$

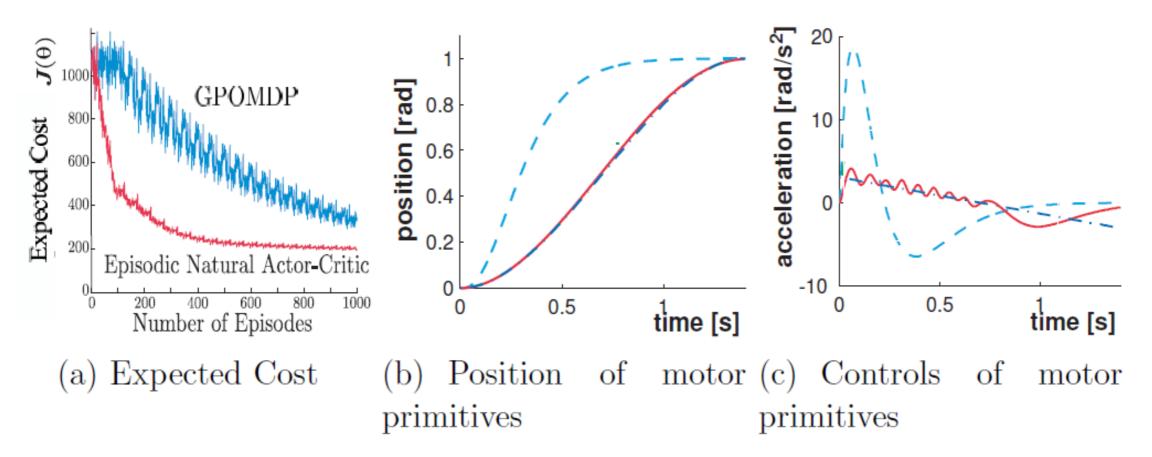
Actor: Natural Policy Gradient Improvement

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t+1} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_t + \alpha_t \boldsymbol{w}_t.$$





Results...



Toy Task: Optimal point to point movements with DMPs

GPOMP: Standard Gradient (Equivalent to Policy Gradient Theorem)

Learning T-Ball



1) Teach motor primitives by imitation

2) Improve movement by Episodic Natural-Actor Critic

Good performance often after 150-300 trials.





Points worth highlighting:

The metric really matters in policy search

Natural policy gradients are *independent* of the chosen policy parameterization!

They correspond to steepest descent in policy space and not in the parameter space.

Convergence to a local minimum is guaranteed!

Conclusion



- Policy Search is a powerful and practical alternative to value function and model-based methods.
- Policy gradients have dominated this area for a long time and solidly working methods exist.
- ➡ Say still need a lot of samples and we need to tune the learning rate
- Learning the learning rate is still an open problem
- Newer methods focus on probabilistic policy search approaches.