

CSC421/2516 Lecture 20: Policy Gradient

Roger Grosse and Jimmy Ba

Overview

- Most of this course was about supervised learning, plus a little unsupervised learning.
- Final 3 lectures: reinforcement learning
 - Middle ground between supervised and unsupervised learning
 - An agent acts in an environment and receives a reward signal.
- Today: policy gradient (directly do SGD over a stochastic policy using trial-and-error)
- Next lecture: Q-learning (learn a value function predicting returns from a state)
- Final lecture: policies and value functions are way more powerful in combination

Reinforcement learning



- An **agent** interacts with an **environment** (e.g. game of Breakout)
- In each time step t ,
 - the agent receives **observations** (e.g. pixels) which give it information about the **state** \mathbf{s}_t (e.g. positions of the ball and paddle)
 - the agent picks an **action** \mathbf{a}_t (e.g. keystrokes) which affects the state
- The agent periodically receives a **reward** $r(\mathbf{s}_t, \mathbf{a}_t)$, which depends on the state and action (e.g. points)
- The agent wants to learn a **policy** $\pi_{\theta}(\mathbf{a}_t | \mathbf{s}_t)$
 - Distribution over actions depending on the current state and parameters θ

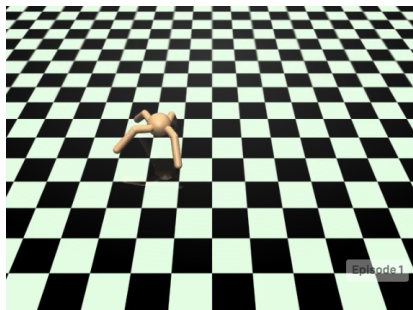
Markov Decision Processes

- The environment is represented as a **Markov decision process** \mathcal{M} .
- Markov assumption: all relevant information is encapsulated in the current state; i.e. the policy, reward, and transitions are all independent of past states given the current state
- Components of an MDP:
 - initial state distribution $p(\mathbf{s}_0)$
 - policy $\pi_{\theta}(\mathbf{a}_t | \mathbf{s}_t)$
 - transition distribution $p(\mathbf{s}_{t+1} | \mathbf{s}_t, \mathbf{a}_t)$
 - reward function $r(\mathbf{s}_t, \mathbf{a}_t)$
- Assume a **fully observable** environment, i.e. \mathbf{s}_t can be observed directly
- **Rollout**, or **trajectory** $\tau = (\mathbf{s}_0, \mathbf{a}_0, \mathbf{s}_1, \mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{s}_T, \mathbf{a}_T)$
- Probability of a rollout

$$p(\tau) = p(\mathbf{s}_0) \pi_{\theta}(\mathbf{a}_0 | \mathbf{s}_0) p(\mathbf{s}_1 | \mathbf{s}_0, \mathbf{a}_0) \cdots p(\mathbf{s}_T | \mathbf{s}_{T-1}, \mathbf{a}_{T-1}) \pi_{\theta}(\mathbf{a}_T | \mathbf{s}_T)$$

Markov Decision Processes

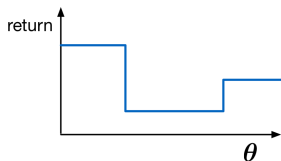
Continuous control in simulation, e.g. teaching an ant to walk



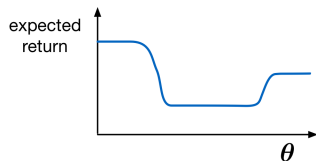
- State: positions, angles, and velocities of the joints
- Actions: apply forces to the joints
- Reward: distance from starting point
- Policy: output of an ordinary MLP, using the state as input
- More environments: <https://gym.openai.com/envs/#mujoco>

Markov Decision Processes

- **Return** for a rollout: $r(\tau) = \sum_{t=0}^T r(\mathbf{s}_t, \mathbf{a}_t)$
 - Note: we're considering a finite **horizon** T , or number of time steps; we'll consider the infinite horizon case later.
- Goal: maximize the expected return, $R = \mathbb{E}_{p(\tau)}[r(\tau)]$
- The expectation is over both the environment's dynamics and the policy, but we only have control over the policy.
- The stochastic policy is important, since it makes R a continuous function of the policy parameters.
 - Reward functions are often discontinuous, as are the dynamics (e.g. collisions)



deterministic policies



stochastic policies

REINFORCE

- **REINFORCE** is an elegant algorithm for maximizing the expected return $R = \mathbb{E}_{p(\tau)} [r(\tau)]$.
- Intuition: trial and error
 - Sample a rollout τ . If you get a high reward, try to make it more likely. If you get a low reward, try to make it less likely.
- Interestingly, this can be seen as stochastic gradient ascent on R .

REINFORCE

- Recall the derivative formula for log:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log p(\tau) = \frac{\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} p(\tau)}{p(\tau)} \quad \implies \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} p(\tau) = p(\tau) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log p(\tau)$$

- Gradient of the expected return:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \mathbb{E}_{p(\tau)} [r(\tau)] &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \sum_{\tau} r(\tau) p(\tau) \\ &= \sum_{\tau} r(\tau) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} p(\tau) \\ &= \sum_{\tau} r(\tau) p(\tau) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log p(\tau) \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{p(\tau)} \left[r(\tau) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log p(\tau) \right] \end{aligned}$$

- Compute stochastic estimates of this expectation by sampling rollouts.

REINFORCE

- For reference:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \mathbb{E}_{p(\tau)} [r(\tau)] = \mathbb{E}_{p(\tau)} \left[r(\tau) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log p(\tau) \right]$$

- If you get a large reward, make the rollout more likely. If you get a small reward, make it less likely.
- Unpacking the REINFORCE gradient:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log p(\tau) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log \left[p(\mathbf{s}_0) \prod_{t=0}^T \pi_{\theta}(\mathbf{a}_t | \mathbf{s}_t) \prod_{t=1}^T p(\mathbf{s}_t | \mathbf{s}_{t-1}, \mathbf{a}_{t-1}) \right] \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log \prod_{t=0}^T \pi_{\theta}(\mathbf{a}_t | \mathbf{s}_t) \\ &= \sum_{t=0}^T \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(\mathbf{a}_t | \mathbf{s}_t) \end{aligned}$$

- Hence, it tries to make *all* the actions more likely or less likely, depending on the reward. I.e., it doesn't do **credit assignment**.
 - This is a topic for next lecture.

REINFORCE

Repeat forever:

Sample a rollout $\tau = (\mathbf{s}_0, \mathbf{a}_0, \mathbf{s}_1, \mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{s}_T, \mathbf{a}_T)$

$$r(\tau) \leftarrow \sum_{k=0}^T r(\mathbf{s}_k, \mathbf{a}_k)$$

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

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta} + \alpha r(\tau) \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{a}_t | \mathbf{s}_t)$$

- Observation: actions should only be reinforced based on future rewards, since they can't possibly influence past rewards.
- You can show that this still gives unbiased gradient estimates.

Repeat forever:

Sample a rollout $\tau = (\mathbf{s}_0, \mathbf{a}_0, \mathbf{s}_1, \mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{s}_T, \mathbf{a}_T)$

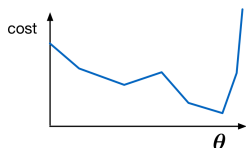
For $t = 0, \dots, T$:

$$r_t(\tau) \leftarrow \sum_{k=t}^T r(\mathbf{s}_k, \mathbf{a}_k)$$

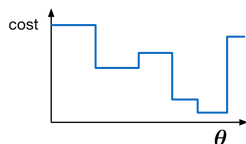
$$\boldsymbol{\theta} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta} + \alpha r_t(\tau) \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{a}_t | \mathbf{s}_t)$$

Optimizing Discontinuous Objectives

- Edge case of RL: handwritten digit classification, but maximizing accuracy (or minimizing 0–1 loss)
- Gradient descent completely fails if the cost function is discontinuous:



Non-differentiable: OK



Discontinuous: not OK

- Original solution: use a surrogate loss function, e.g. logistic-cross-entropy
- RL formulation: in each episode, the agent is shown an image, guesses a digit class, and receives a reward of 1 if it's right or 0 if it's wrong
- We'd never actually do it this way, but it will give us an interesting comparison with backprop

Optimizing Discontinuous Objectives

- RL formulation
 - one time step
 - state \mathbf{x} : an image
 - action \mathbf{a} : a digit class
 - reward $r(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a})$: 1 if correct, 0 if wrong
 - policy $\pi(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{x})$: a distribution over categories
 - Compute using an MLP with softmax outputs – this is a **policy network**

Optimizing Discontinuous Objectives

- Let z_k denote the logits, y_k denote the softmax output, t the integer target, and t_k the target one-hot representation.
- To apply REINFORCE, we sample $\mathbf{a} \sim \pi_{\theta}(\cdot | \mathbf{x})$ and apply:

$$\begin{aligned}\boldsymbol{\theta} &\leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta} + \alpha r(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{t}) \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} \log \pi_{\theta}(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{x}) \\ &= \boldsymbol{\theta} + \alpha r(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{t}) \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} \log y_a \\ &= \boldsymbol{\theta} + \alpha r(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{t}) \sum_k (a_k - y_k) \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} z_k\end{aligned}$$

- Compare with the logistic regression SGD update:

$$\begin{aligned}\boldsymbol{\theta} &\leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta} + \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} \log y_t \\ &\leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta} + \alpha \sum_k (t_k - y_k) \frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{\theta}} z_k\end{aligned}$$

Reward Baselines

- For reference:

$$\theta \leftarrow \theta + \alpha r(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{t}) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(\mathbf{a} | \mathbf{x})$$

- Clearly, we can add a constant offset to the reward, and we get an equivalent optimization problem.
- Behavior if $r = 0$ for wrong answers and $r = 1$ for correct answers
 - wrong: do nothing
 - correct: make the action more likely
- If $r = 10$ for wrong answers and $r = 11$ for correct answers
 - wrong: make the action more likely
 - correct: make the action more likely (slightly stronger)
- If $r = -10$ for wrong answers and $r = -9$ for correct answers
 - wrong: make the action less likely
 - correct: make the action less likely (slightly weaker)

Reward Baselines

- Problem: the REINFORCE update depends on arbitrary constant factors added to the reward.
- Observation: we can subtract a **baseline** b from the reward without biasing the gradient.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}_{p(\tau)} \left[(r(\tau) - b) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log p(\tau) \right] &= \mathbb{E}_{p(\tau)} \left[r(\tau) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log p(\tau) \right] - b \mathbb{E}_{p(\tau)} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log p(\tau) \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{p(\tau)} \left[r(\tau) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log p(\tau) \right] - b \sum_{\tau} p(\tau) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log p(\tau) \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{p(\tau)} \left[r(\tau) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log p(\tau) \right] - b \sum_{\tau} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} p(\tau) \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{p(\tau)} \left[r(\tau) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log p(\tau) \right] - 0\end{aligned}$$

- We'd like to pick a baseline such that good rewards are positive and bad ones are negative.
- $\mathbb{E}[r(\tau)]$ is a good choice of baseline, but we can't always compute it easily. There's lots of research on trying to approximate it.

More Tricks

- We left out some more tricks that can make policy gradients work a lot better.
 - Natural policy gradient corrects for the geometry of the space of policies, preventing the policy from changing too quickly.
 - Rather than use the actual return, evaluate actions based on estimates of future returns. This is a class of methods known as actor-critic, which we'll touch upon next lecture.
- Trust region policy optimization (TRPO) and proximal policy optimization (PPO) are modern policy gradient algorithms which are very effective for continuous control problems.

Discussion

- What's so great about backprop and gradient descent?
 - Backprop does credit assignment – it tells you exactly which activations and parameters should be adjusted upwards or downwards to decrease the loss on some training example.
 - REINFORCE doesn't do credit assignment. If a rollout happens to be good, all the actions get reinforced, even if some of them were bad.
 - Reinforcing all the actions as a group leads to random walk behavior.

Discussion

- Why policy gradient?
 - Can handle discontinuous cost functions
 - Don't need an explicit model of the environment, i.e. rewards and dynamics are treated as black boxes
 - Policy gradient is an example of **model-free reinforcement learning**, since the agent doesn't try to fit a model of the environment
 - Almost everyone thinks model-based approaches are needed for AI, but nobody has a clue how to get it to work

Evolution Strategies (optional)

- REINFORCE can handle discontinuous dynamics and reward functions, but it requires a differentiable network since it computes $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(\mathbf{a}_t | \mathbf{s}_t)$
- Evolution strategies (ES) take the policy gradient idea a step further, and avoid backprop entirely.
- ES can use deterministic policies. It randomizes over the choice of policy rather than over the choice of actions.
 - I.e., sample a random policy from a distribution $p_{\eta}(\theta)$ parameterized by η and apply the policy gradient trick

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} \mathbb{E}_{\theta \sim p_{\eta}} [r(\tau(\theta))] = \mathbb{E}_{\theta \sim p_{\eta}} \left[r(\tau(\theta)) \frac{\partial}{\partial \eta} \log p_{\eta}(\theta) \right]$$

- The neural net architecture itself can be discontinuous.

Evolution Strategies (optional)

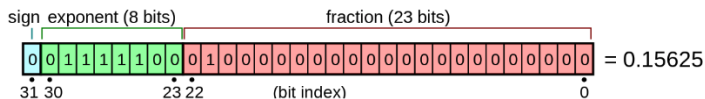
Algorithm 1 Evolution Strategies

- 1: **Input:** Learning rate α , noise standard deviation σ , initial policy parameters θ_0
 - 2: **for** $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ **do**
 - 3: Sample $\epsilon_1, \dots, \epsilon_n \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$
 - 4: Compute returns $F_i = F(\theta_t + \sigma\epsilon_i)$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$
 - 5: Set $\theta_{t+1} \leftarrow \theta_t + \alpha \frac{1}{n\sigma} \sum_{i=1}^n F_i \epsilon_i$
 - 6: **end for**
-

<https://arxiv.org/pdf/1703.03864.pdf>

Evolution Strategies (optional)

- The IEEE floating point standard is nonlinear, since small enough numbers get truncated to zero.



- This acts as a discontinuous activation function, which ES is able to handle.
- ES was able to train a good MNIST classifier using a “linear” activation function.
- <https://blog.openai.com/nonlinear-computation-in-linear->

