# **COMP9444 Neural Networks and Deep Learning**

# **11. Deep Reinforcement Learning**

## **Outline**

- History of Reinforcement Learning
- Deep Q-Learning for Atari Games
- Actor-Critic
- Asynchronous Advantage Actor Critic (A3C)
- Evolutionary/Variational methods

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## **Reinforcement Learning Timeline**

- model-free methods
  - ▶ 1961 MENACE tic-tac-toe (Donald Michie)
  - > 1986 TD( $\lambda$ ) (Rich Sutton)
  - ▶ 1989 TD-Gammon (Gerald Tesauro)
  - ▶ 2015 Deep Q Learning for Atari Games
  - ▶ 2016 A3C (Mnih et al.)
  - ▶ 2017 OpenAI Evolution Strategies (Salimans et al.)
- methods relying on a world model
  - ▶ 1959 Checkers (Arthur Samuel)
  - ▶ 1997 TD-leaf (Baxter et al.)
  - 2009 TreeStrap (Veness et al.)
  - ▶ 2016 Alpha Go (Silver et al.)







Machine Educable Noughts And Crosses Engine Donald Michie, 1961

## **MENACE**



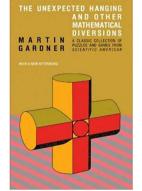
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## **Martin Gardner and HALO**





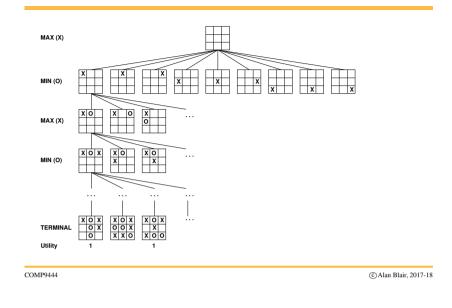
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# Game Tree (2-player, deterministic)



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# Hexapawn Boxes

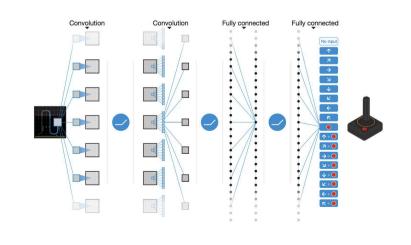


## **Reinforcement Learning with BOXES**

- this BOXES algorithm was later adapted to learn more general tasks such as Pole Balancing, and helped lay the foundation for the modern field of Reinforcement Learning
- for various reasons, interest in Reinforcement Learning faded in the late 70's and early 80's, but was revived in the late 1980's, largely through the work of Richard Sutton
- Gerald Tesauro applied Sutton's TD-Learning algorithm to the game of Backgammon in 1989

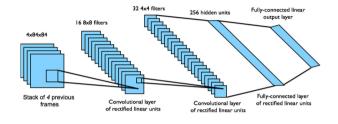
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# **Deep Q-Network**



## **Deep Q-Learning for Atari Games**

- end-to-end learning of values Q(s,a) from pixels s
- input state *s* is stack of raw pixels from last 4 frames
  - ▶ 8-bit RGB images,  $210 \times 160$  pixels
- output is Q(s,a) for 18 joystick/button positions
- reward is change in score for that timestep



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# Q-Learning

$$Q(s_t, a_t) \leftarrow Q(s_t, a_t) + \eta \left[ r_t + \gamma \max_{t} Q(s_{t+1}, b) - Q(s_t, a_t) \right]$$

- with lookup table, Q-learning is guaranteed to eventually converge
- for serious tasks, there are too many states for a lookup table
- instead,  $Q_w(s,a)$  is parametrized by weights *w*, which get updated so as to minimize

$$[r_t + \gamma \max_{b} Q_w(s_{t+1}, b) - Q_w(s_t, a_t)]^2$$

- ▶ note: gradient is applied only to  $Q_w(s_t, a_t)$ , not to  $Q_w(s_{t+1}, b)$
- this works well for some tasks, but is challenging for Atari games, partly due to temporal correlations between samples (i.e. large number of similar situations occurring one after the other)

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## Deep Q-Learning with Experience Replay

- choose actions using current Q function (ε-greedy)
- build a database of experiences  $(s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t+1})$
- sample asynchronously from database and apply update, to minimize

 $[r_t + \gamma \max_b Q_w(s_{t+1}, b) - Q_w(s_t, a_t)]^2$ 

- removes temporal correlations by sampling from variety of game situations in random order
- makes it easier to parallelize the algorithm on multiple GPUs

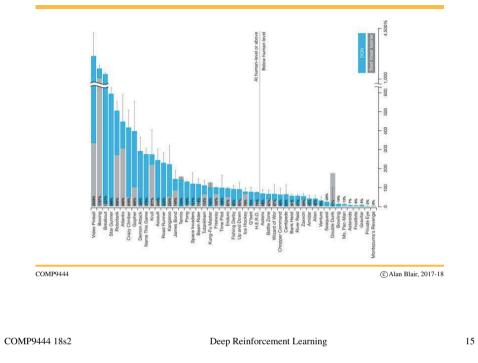
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# **DQN Improvements**

- Prioritised Replay
  - weight experience according to surprise
- Double Q-Learning
  - current Q-network w is used to select actions
  - ▶ older Q-network  $\overline{w}$  is used to evaluate actions
- Advantage Function
  - action-independent value function  $V_u(s)$
  - > action-dependent advantage function  $A_w(s,a)$

 $Q(s,a) = V_u(s) + A_w(s,a)$ 

## **DQN Results for Atari Games**



# **Prioritised Replay**

instead of sampling experiences uniformly, store them in a priority queue according to the DQN error

$$|r_t + \gamma \max_b Q_w(s_{t+1}, b) - Q_w(s_t, a_t)|$$

this ensures the system will concentrate more effort on situations where the Q value was "surprising" (in the sense of being far away from what was predicted)

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## **Double Q-Learning**

- if the same weights w are used to select actions and evaluate actions, this can lead to a kind of confirmation bias
- $\blacksquare$  could maintain two sets of weights w and  $\overline{w}$ , with one used for selection and the other for evaluation (then swap their roles)
- in the context of Deep Q-Learning, a simpler approach is to use the current "online" version of w for selection, and an older "target" version  $\overline{w}$  for evaluation; we therefore minimize

 $[r_t + \gamma Q_{\overline{w}}(s_{t+1}, \operatorname{argmax}_b Q_w(s_{t+1}, b)) - Q_w(s_t, a_t)]^2$ 

 $\blacksquare$  a new version of  $\overline{w}$  is periodically calculated from the distributed values of w, and this  $\overline{w}$  is broadcast to all processors.

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# **Policy Gradients and Actor-Critic**

Recall:

 $\nabla_{\theta}$  fitness $(\pi_{\theta}) = \mathbf{E}_{\pi_{\theta}} [Q^{\pi_{\theta}}(s, a) \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(a|s)]$ 

For non-episodic games, we cannot easily find a good estimate for  $Q^{\pi_{\theta}}(s,a)$ . One approach is to consider a family of Q-Functions  $Q_{W}$ determined by parameters w (different from  $\theta$ ) and learn w so that  $Q_w$  approximates  $Q^{\pi_{\theta}}$ , at the same time that the policy  $\pi_{\theta}$  itself is also being learned.

This is known as an Actor-Critic approach because the policy determines the action, while the Q-Function estimates how good the current policy is, and thereby plays the role of a critic.

# **Advantage Function**

The Q Function  $Q^{\pi}(s,a)$  can be written as a sum of the value function  $V^{\pi}(s)$  plus an advantage function  $A^{\pi}(s,a) = Q^{\pi}(s,a) - V^{\pi}(s)$ 

 $A^{\pi}(s, a)$  represents the advantage (or disadvantage) of taking action a in state s, compared to taking the action preferred by the current policy  $\pi$ . We can learn approximations for these two components separately:

 $O(s,a) = V_{\mu}(s) + A_{\nu}(s,a)$ 

Note that actions can be selected just using  $A_w(s, a)$ , because

$$\operatorname{argmax}_{b} Q(s_{t+1}, b) = \operatorname{argmax}_{b} A_{w}(s_{t+1}, b)$$

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# **Actor Critic Algorithm**

for each trial  
sample 
$$a_0$$
 from  $\pi(a|s_0)$   
for each timestep  $t$  do  
sample reward  $r_t$  from  $\mathcal{R}(r|s_t, a_t)$   
sample next state  $s_{t+1}$  from  $\delta(s|s_t, a_t)$   
sample action  $a_{t+1}$  from  $\pi(a|s_{t+1})$   
 $\frac{dE}{dQ} = -[r_t + \gamma Q_w(s_{t+1}, a_{t+1}) - Q_w(s_t, a_t)]$   
 $\theta \leftarrow \theta + \eta_\theta Q_w(s_t, a_t) \nabla_\theta \log \pi_\theta(a_t | s_t)$   
 $w \leftarrow w - \eta_w \frac{dE}{dQ} \nabla_w Q_w(s_t, a_t)$   
end  
end

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## **Advantage Actor Critic**

Recall that in the REINFORCE algorithm, a baseline b could be subtracted from  $r_{\text{total}}$ 

 $\theta \leftarrow \theta + \eta (r_{\text{total}} - b) \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(a_t | s_t)$ 

In the actor-critic framework,  $r_{\text{total}}$  is replaced by  $Q(s_t, a_t)$ 

$$\theta \leftarrow \theta + \eta_{\theta} Q(s_t, a_t) \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(a_t | s_t)$$

We can also subtract a baseline from  $Q(s_t, a_t)$ . This baseline must be independent of the action  $a_t$ , but it could be dependent on the state  $s_t$ . A good choice of baseline is the value function  $V_u(s)$ , in which case the Q function is replaced by the advantage function

$$A_w(s,a) = Q(s,a) - V_u(s)$$

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# Hill Climbing (Evolution Strategy)

- Initialize "champ" policy  $\theta_{champ} = 0$
- for each trial, generate "mutant" policy

 $\theta_{\text{mutant}} = \theta_{\text{champ}} + \text{Gaussian noise (fixed } \sigma)$ 

- champ and mutant are evaluated on the same task(s)
- if mutant does "better" than champ,

$$\theta_{champ} \leftarrow (1 - \alpha) \theta_{champ} + \alpha \theta_{mutant}$$

in some cases, the size of the update is scaled according to the difference in fitness (and may be negative)

## Asynchronous Advantage Actor Critic

- use policy network to choose actions
- learn a parameterized Value function  $V_u(s)$  by TD-Learning
- estimate Q-value by n-step sample

$$Q(s_t, a_t) = r_{t+1} + \gamma r_{t+2} + \ldots + \gamma^{n-1} r_{t+n} + \gamma^n V_u(s_{t+n})$$

update policy by

$$\theta \leftarrow \theta + \eta_{\theta} [Q(s_t, a_t) - V_u(s_t)] \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta}(a_t | s_t)$$

update Value function my minimizing

$$[Q(s_t, a_t) - V_u(s_t)]^2$$

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# **Evolutionary/Variational Methods**

- initialize mean  $\mu = {\mu_i}_{1 \le i \le m}$  and standard deviation  $\sigma = {\sigma_i}_{1 \le i \le m}$
- for each trial, collect *k* samples from a Gaussian distribution

$$\theta_i = \mu_i + \eta_i \sigma_i$$
 where  $\eta_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ 

- sometimes include "mirrored" samples  $\overline{\theta}_i = \mu_i \eta_i \sigma_i$
- evaluate each sample  $\theta$  to compute score or "fitness"  $F(\theta)$
- update mean  $\mu$  by

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- $\mu \leftarrow \mu + \alpha (F(\theta) \overline{F})(\theta \mu)$
- $\triangleright \alpha =$ learning rate,  $\overline{F} =$  baseline
- sometimes,  $\sigma$  is updated as well

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## **OpenAl Evolution Strategies**

- Evolutionary Strategy with fixed  $\sigma$
- since only  $\mu$  is updated, computation can be distributed across many processors
- applied to Atari Pong, MuJoCo humanoid walking
- competitive with Deep Q-Learning on these tasks

## Methods for Updating Sigma

- Evolutionary Strategy
  - ▶ select top 20% of samples and fit a new Gaussian distribution
- Variational Inference
  - minimize Reverse KL-Divergence
  - ► backpropagate differentials through network, or differentiate with respect to  $\mu_i$ ,  $\sigma_i$

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# Variational Inference

- let  $q(\theta)$  be the Gaussian distribution determined by  $\mu$ ,  $\sigma$
- we want  $q(\theta)$  to be concentrated in regions where  $F(\theta)$  is high
- score function  $F(\theta)$  determines a Boltzmann (softmax) distribution

$$p_T(\theta) = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{T}F(\theta)}}{Z}$$

- $\triangleright$  T = temperature, Z = normalizing constant
- we can try to minimize the reverse Kullback-Leibler (KL) Divergence between  $q(\theta)$  and  $p_T(\theta)$

$$D_{\mathrm{KL}}(q \| p_T) = \int_{\theta} q(\theta) (\log q(\theta) - \log p_T(\theta)) d\theta$$

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# Variational Inference

$$D_{\mathrm{KL}}(q || p_T) = \int_{\theta} q(\theta) (\log q(\theta) - \log p_T(\theta)) d\theta$$
$$= \frac{1}{T} \int_{\theta} q(\theta) (F(\theta) + T \log q(\theta) + T \log Z) d\theta$$

- the last term  $T \log Z$  is constant, so its value is not important (in fact, an arbitrariy baseline  $\overline{F}$  can be subtracted from  $F(\theta)$ )
- $T \log q(\theta)$  can be seen as a regularizing term which maintains some variation and prevents  $q(\theta)$  from collapsing to a single point
  - ▶ if we only update  $\mu$  and not  $\sigma$ , this term is not needed

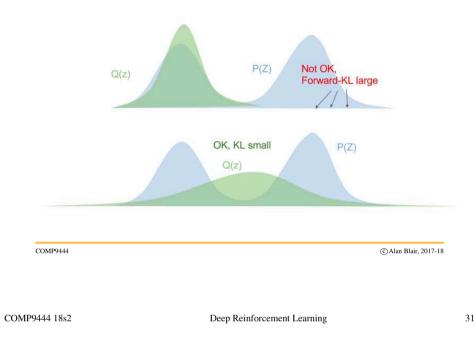
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## **KL-Divergence and Entropy**

- the entropy of a distribution q() is  $H(q) = \int_{\theta} q(\theta)(-\log q(\theta)) d\theta$
- in Information Theory, H(q) is the amount of information (bits) required to transmit a random sample from distribution q()
- for a Gaussian distribution,  $H(q) = \sum \log \sigma_i$
- **KL-Divergence**  $D_{KL}(q || p) = \int_{\theta} q(\theta) (\log q(\theta) \log p(\theta)) d\theta$
- D<sub>KL</sub>(q || p) is the number of extra bits we need to trasmit if we designed a code for p() but then the samples are drawn from q() instead.

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Reverse KI	Divergence	
Not OK, Reverse-KL large	P(Z)	
Q(z)	OK, KL small P(Z)	

## **Forward KL-Divergence**



## **KL-Divergence**

- KL-Divergence is used in some policy-based deep reinforcement learning algorithms such as Trust Region Policy Optimization (TPRO) (but we will not cover these in detail).
- KL-Divergence is also important in other areas of Deep Learning, such as Variational Autoencoders.

## Latest Research in Deep RL

- augment A3C with unsupervised auxiliary tasks
- encourage exploration, increased entropy
- encourage actions for which the rewards are less predictable
- concentrate on state features from which the preceding action is more predictable
- transfer learning (between tasks)
- inverse reinforcement learning (infer rewards from policy)
- hierarchical RL
- multi-agent RL

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