On-Policy Control with Approximation and Deep Q Networks (DQN)

Reinforcement learning – LM Artificial lintelligence (2022-23)

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- Introduction
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- Deep Q-Networks

Introduction

 Goal: solve the control problem with parametric approximation of the action-value function

 $\hat{q}(s, a, \mathbf{w}) \approx q_*(s, a)$

where $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is a finite dimensional weight vector.

- We first restict our attention on the **on-policy** and **episodic** case
- We feature the semi-gradient Sarsa algorithm, the natural extension of semi-gradient TD(0) to
 - action values
 - on-policy control

Episodic Semi-Gradient Control

- The extension of state-value function approximators $\hat{v}(s, \mathbf{w})$ to action-value function approximators $\hat{q}(s, a, \mathbf{w})$ is straightforward
- State-value functions: training examples in the form $S_t \mapsto U_t$
- Action-value functions: training examples in the form $S_t, A_t \mapsto U_t$
- The update target U_t can be any approximation of $q_{\pi}(S_t, A_t)$ including the usual backed-up values, such as
 - The full Monte Carlo return G_t
 - The Sarsa return

Episodic Semi-gradient Control

• The general gradient-descent update for action-value prediction is

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+1} \doteq \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha \Big[U_t - \hat{q}(S_t, A_t, \mathbf{w}_t) \Big] \nabla \hat{q}(S_t, A_t, \mathbf{w}_t)$$

- For the **one-step Sarsa** method it is $\mathbf{w}_{t+1} \doteq \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha \Big[R_{t+1} + \gamma \hat{q}(S_{t+1}, A_{t+1}, \mathbf{w}_t) - \hat{q}(S_t, A_t, \mathbf{w}_t) \Big] \nabla \hat{q}(S_t, A_t, \mathbf{w}_t)$
- We call this method episodic semi-gradient one-step Sarsa
- For a constant policy it converges as TD(0) and with the same error bound (see previous lecture)

$$\overline{\mathrm{VE}}(\mathbf{w}_{\mathrm{TD}}) \leq \frac{1}{1-\gamma} \min_{\mathbf{w}} \overline{\mathrm{VE}}(\mathbf{w})$$

Episodic Semi-gradient Control

Control methods: we need to couple

- Methods for action-value prediction
- Methods for policy improvement and action selection
- If the action set is discrete and not too large then we can use techniques developed in the previous lecture

Idea:

- For each **action** *a* of the current **state** S_t *w*e compute $\hat{q}(S_t, a, \mathbf{w}_t)$
- Then we find the greedy action $A_t^* = \operatorname{arg\,max}_a \hat{q}(S_t, a, \mathbf{w}_t)$
- Policy improvement is then performed by changing the estimation policy to a soft-approximation of the greedy policy, e.g., the ε -greedy policy

Episodic Semi-gradient Sarsa for Estimating $\hat{q} \approx q_*$

Input: a differentiable action-value function parameterization $\hat{q} : S \times \mathcal{A} \times \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ Algorithm parameters: step size $\alpha > 0$, small $\varepsilon > 0$ Initialize value-function weights $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ arbitrarily (e.g., $\mathbf{w} = \mathbf{0}$)

Loop for each episode:

 $S, A \leftarrow \text{initial state and action of episode (e.g., <math>\varepsilon$ -greedy)

Loop for each step of episode:

Take action A, observe R, S'

If S' is terminal:

 $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + \alpha [R - \hat{q}(S, A, \mathbf{w})] \nabla \hat{q}(S, A, \mathbf{w})$

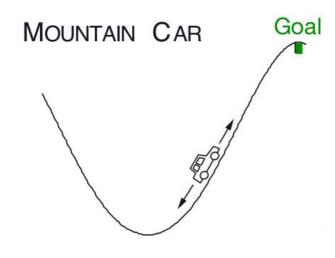
Go to next episode

Choose A' as a function of $\hat{q}(S', \cdot, \mathbf{w})$ (e.g., ε -greedy)

 $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + \alpha \big[R + \gamma \hat{q}(S', A', \mathbf{w}) - \hat{q}(S, A, \mathbf{w}) \big] \nabla \hat{q}(S, A, \mathbf{w})$

 $S \leftarrow S'$

$$A \leftarrow A'$$



- Actions: full throttle forward (+1), full throttle reverse (-1), zero throttle (0)
- **Reward**: -1 at each step (until the car reaches the goal and the episode terminates)

• Simplified physics:

 $x_{t+1} \doteq bound \left[x_t + \dot{x}_{t+1} \right]$

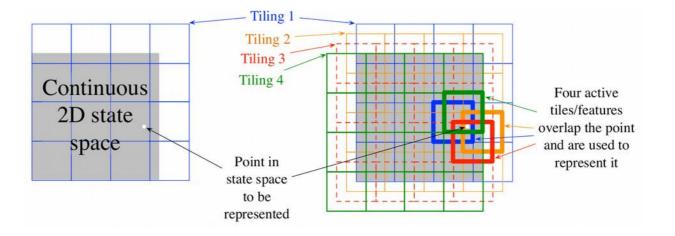
 $\dot{x}_{t+1} \doteq bound [\dot{x}_t + 0.001A_t - 0.0025\cos(3x_t)]$

with bound operator

$$-1.2 \le x_{t+1} \le 0.5$$
 and $-0.07 \le \dot{x}_{t+1} \le 0.07$

• Episodes start in a random position $x_t \in [-0.6, -0.4)$ with zero velocity

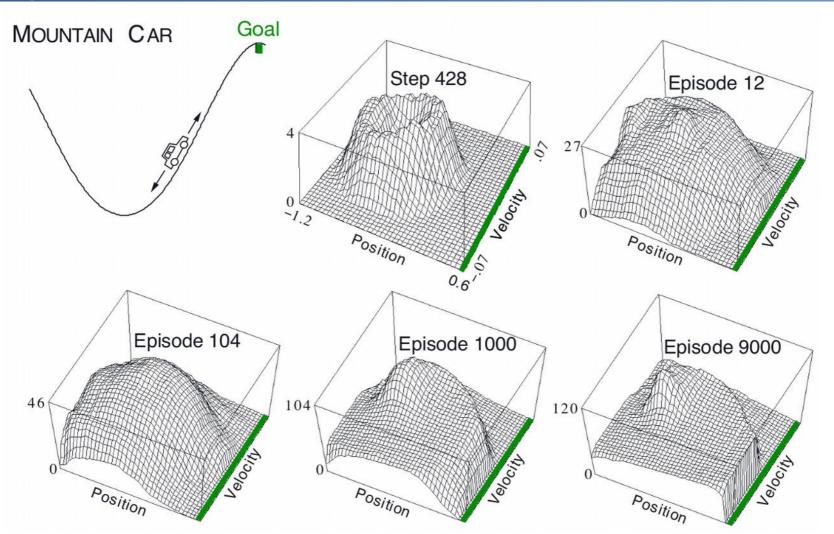
 The two continuous state variables are converted to binary features using grid tiling (8 tilings, each tile covers 1/8th of the bounded distance in each dimension and asymmetrical offset as described in Section 9.5.4 of SutBut)



• The feature vectors created by tile coding are then combined linearly to approximate the action-value function

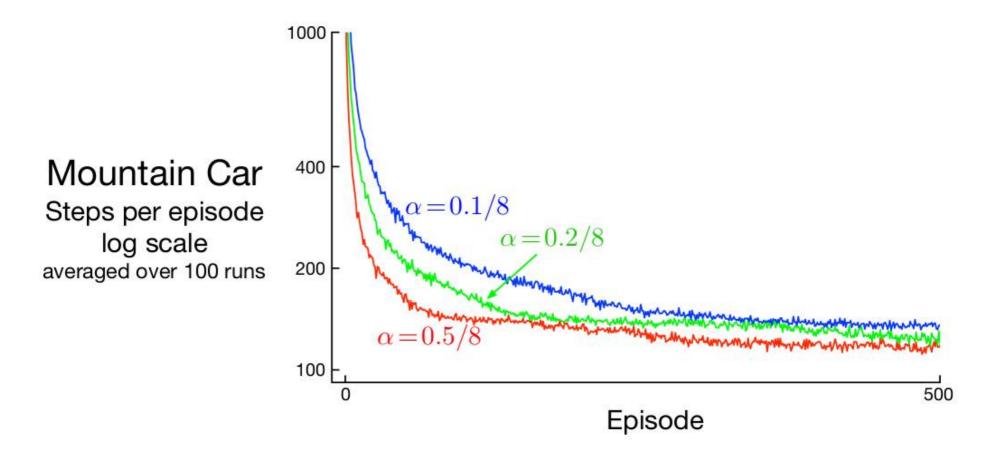
$$\hat{q}(s, a, \mathbf{w}) \doteq \mathbf{w}^{\top} \mathbf{x}(s, a) = \sum_{i=1}^{a} w_i \cdot x_i(s, a)$$

for each pair of state s and action a



Cost-to-go function $(-\max_a \hat{q}(s, a, \mathbf{w}))$ learned during one run

 Initial action values were all zero (optimistic, true values are negative) causing extensive exploration even with null



Learning curves for **semi-gradient Sarsa** with **tile-coding** function approximation and ε -greedy action selection

References

• R. S. Sutton, A. G. Barto. Reinforcement learning, An Introduction. Second edition. Chapter 10 Deep Q Networks

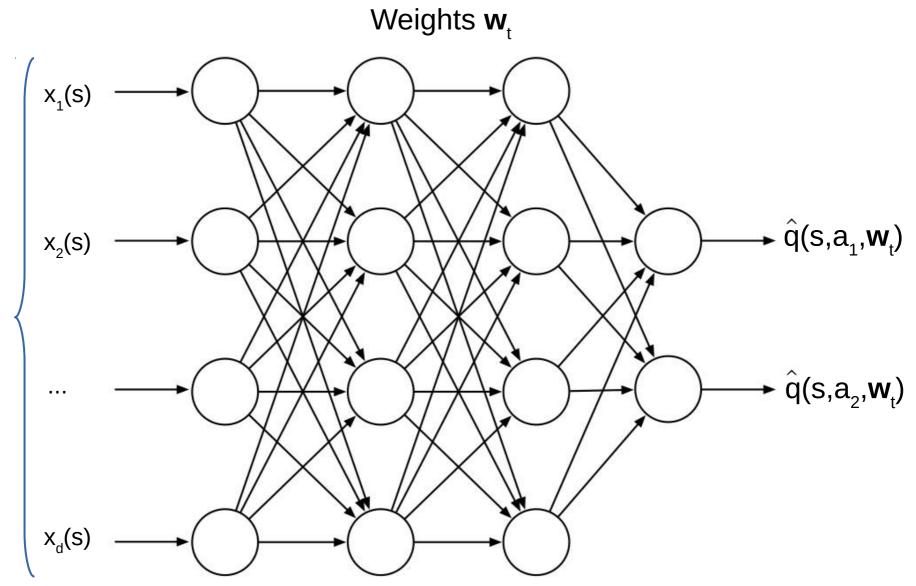
ANNs for value function approximation in RL

- Multi-layer ANNs have been used for function approximation in RL since **1986**, when the **backpropagation** algorithm became popular as a method for learning internal representations (Rummelhart et al, 1986)
- Striking results have been obtained by coupling RL and backpropagation by Tesauro and colleagues with TD-Gammon and WATSON (Tesauro et al., 1994; Tesauro et al., 2012)
- In 2013, Mnih and colleagues of Google DeepMind developed the first RL agent, called Deep Q Network (DQN) merging Q-learning and deep convolutional ANNs achieving human level performance in Atari games
- As TD-Gammon, **DQN** uses a **semi-gradient** form of a **TD** algorithm with gradients computed by **backpropagation** but DQN uses Q-learning instead of $TD(\lambda)$

Deep Q Networks

- Basic idea: to use deep neural networks as a non-linear function approximator for the action value function in a semi-gradient form of Q-learning
- We parametrize an approximate value function q(s,a,w_t) using a deep convolutional neural network in which w_t are the parameters (weights) at iteration *t*.
- The neural network approximator is said Q network (e.g., see Fig. 1 of Mnih et al., 2015)
- Input of the Q network: raw sensor signals (current state). Deep NN can perform feature construction "automatically", i.e., generating meaningful hierarchical abstractions in their layers
- Output of the Q network: estimated optimal action values for the input state (i.e., one value for each action)

Deep Q Networks



State s

• The **semi-gradient form of Q-learning** used by DQN to update the network's weight is

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+1} = \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha \Big[\underbrace{R_{t+1} + \gamma \max_a \hat{q}(S_{t+1}, a, \mathbf{w}_t)}_{\text{Target value}} - \underbrace{\hat{q}(S_t, A_t, \mathbf{w}_t)}_{\text{Action value}} \Big] \nabla \hat{q}(S_t, A_t, \mathbf{w}_t)$$

where \mathbf{w}_{t} is the vector of network weights, A_{t} is the action selected at step *t*, and S_{t} and S_{t+1} are the states at time *t* and *t+1* (i.e., network inputs)

• The gradient $\nabla \hat{q}(S_t, A_t, \mathbf{w}_t)$ can be computed by **backpropagation**

Deep Q Networks: problems and improvements

- Problem: RL is unstable or even deverges with nonlinear function approximators (e.g., ANNs) of the action-value function (Minh et al., 2015)
- Causes:
 - C1: correlations in the sequences of observations (states/features);
 - C2: small updates to *q* may significantly change the policy and change data distribution
 - C3: correlation between action-values $\hat{q}(S_t, A_t, \mathbf{w}_t)$ and target values $R_{t+1} + \gamma \max_{a} \hat{q}(S_{t+1}, a, \mathbf{w}_t)$
- Solutions (Minh et al., 2015):
 - 1) A biologically inspired mechanism for experience replay
 - 2) The usage of **two separate networks** to estimate action values in the Q-network and the target value

Deep Q Networks: experience replay

- Idea: Store agent experience in a replay memory then used to perform weight updates
- After each step a tuple $(S_{t}, A_{t}, R_{t+1}, S_{t+1})$ is added to the replay memory. This experience is accumulated over many episodes
- At each step multiple Q-learning updates (a mini-batch) are performed based on experience sampled uniformly at random from the replay memory
 - Q-learning is **off-policy**, it can be applied along unconnected trajectories
- Advantages:
 - **Reduced variance** of weight update (reduces cause **C2**)
 - The correlation in the sequences of observations is eliminated → one source instability is removed (reduces cause C1)

Deep Q Networks: double DQN

• **Two networks are used**. One for estimating **action values**, another for estimating **target values**

• The new update rule is

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+1} = \mathbf{w}_t + \alpha \Big[R_{t+1} + \gamma \max_a \tilde{q}(S_{t+1}, a, \mathbf{w}_t) - \hat{q}(S_t, A_t, \mathbf{w}_t) \Big] \nabla \hat{q}(S_t, A_t, \mathbf{w}_t)$$

• After C updates of the weights **w** of the action-value network (ANN 1) these weights are copied to the second network (ANN 2) used to compute the target values

Advantages:

• This improves stability reducing cause C3

Deep Q Network: Algorithm (Minh et al., 2015)

• See Algorithm 1 in (Minh et al., 2015)

Deep Q Networks: experimental settings

- In the popular works where DQN was first presented (Minh et al. 2013; Minh et al. 2015) the approach was evaluated on 49 Atari games
- Input: 210x160 pixel image frames, 128 colors, 60Hz
- **Preprocessing**: images reduced to 84x84 arrays of luminecence
- Stacked images: the four most recent images were provided at each step to the agent → actual input had dimension 84x84x4
- Network architecture:
 - 3 hidden convolutional layers (rectifier nonlinearities act. function)
 - \rightarrow 32 20x20 feature maps
 - \rightarrow 64 9x9 feature maps
 - \rightarrow 64 7x7 feature maps
 - 1 fully connected hidden layer (512 neurons)
 - Output layer (18 neurons)
- **Reward**: +1 (increased game score), -1 (decreased game score), 0

Deep Q Networks: experimental setting

- ε -greedy policy with ε decreasing linearly over the first million frames, low value afterwards (50M frames in total, i.e., 38 days)
- Input, output, ANN architecture and parameters (e.g., step size, discount factor, etc.) were selected to perform well on a small selection of games, then kept fixed for all games (generalization)
- Learning was performed independently for each game (i.e., different parameters were learned for each game)

- Evaluations performed on 30 sessions of each game, each lasting up to 5 minutes and beginning in a random initial state
- DQN performed (Minh et al. 2015)
 - better than state-of-the-art algorithm (linear function approximation with hand-crafted features (Bellemare et al., 2013)) in 43 games
 - at a level comparable to professional humans in 29 games

- R. S. Sutton, A. G. Barto. Reinforcement learning, An Introduction. Second edition. Chapter 16.5
- Mnih, V., Kavukcuoglu, K., Silver, D., Graves, A., Antonoglou, I., Wierstra, D., Riedmiller, M. (2013). Playing atari with deep reinforcement learning. ArXiv:1312.5602.
- Mnih, V., Kavukcuoglu, K., Silver, D., Rusu, A. A., Veness, J., Bellemare, M. G., Graves, A., Riedmiller, M., Fidjeland, A. K., Ostrovski, G., Petersen, S., Beattie, C., Sadik, A., Antonoglou, I., King, H., Kumaran, D., Wierstra, D., Legg, S., Hassabis, D. (2015).
 Human-level control through deep reinforcement learning. Nature, 518(7540):529–533.