NPFL122, Lecture 7



# PAAC, Continuous Actions, DDPG

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unless otherwise stated

An alternative to independent workers is to train in a synchronous and centralized way by having the workes to only generate episodes. Such approach was described in May 2017 by Clemente et al., who named their agent *parallel advantage actor-critic* (PAAC).



Figure 1 of the paper "Efficient Parallel Methods for Deep Reinforcement Learning" by Alfredo V. Clemente et al.

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Algorithm 1 Parallel advantage actor-critic 1: Initialize timestep counter N = 0 and network weights  $\theta, \theta_v$ 2: Instantiate set e of  $n_e$  environments 3: repeat for t = 1 to  $t_{max}$  do 4: Sample  $a_t$  from  $\pi(a_t|s_t;\theta)$ 5: Calculate  $\boldsymbol{v}_t$  from  $V(\boldsymbol{s}_t; \theta_v)$ 6: 7: parallel for i = 1 to  $n_e$  do 8: Perform action  $a_{t,i}$  in environment  $e_i$ 9: Observe new state  $s_{t+1,i}$  and reward  $r_{t+1,i}$ 10: end parallel for 11: end for  $\boldsymbol{R}_{t_{\max}+1} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for terminal } \boldsymbol{s}_t \\ V(\boldsymbol{s}_{t_{\max}+1}; \boldsymbol{\theta}) & \text{for non-terminal } \boldsymbol{s}_t \end{cases}$ 12: 13: for  $t = t_{\text{max}}$  down to 1 do 14:  $\boldsymbol{R}_t = \boldsymbol{r}_t + \gamma \boldsymbol{R}_{t+1}$ 15: end for  $d\theta = \frac{1}{n_e \cdot t_{max}} \sum_{i=1}^{n_e} \sum_{t=1}^{t_{max}} (R_{t,i} - v_{t,i}) \nabla_\theta \log \pi(a_{t,i} | s_{t,i}; \theta) + \beta \nabla_\theta H(\pi(s_{e,t}; \theta))$ 16:  $d\theta_v = \frac{1}{n_e \cdot t_{max}} \sum_{i=1}^{n_e} \sum_{t=1}^{t_{max}} \nabla_{\theta_v} \left( R_{t,i} - V(s_{t,i};\theta_v) \right)^2$ 17: 18: Update  $\theta$  using  $d\theta$  and  $\theta_v$  using  $d\theta_v$ . 19:  $N \leftarrow N + n_e \cdot t_{\max}$ 20: until  $N \geq N_{max}$ 

Algorithm 1 of the paper "Efficient Parallel Methods for Deep Reinforcement Learning" by Alfredo V. Clemente et al.

Game	Gorila	A3C FF	GA3C	PAAC arch <sub>nips</sub>	PAAC arch <sub>nature</sub>
Amidar	1189.70	263.9	218	701.8	1348.3
Centipede	8432.30	3755.8	7386	5747.32	7368.1
Beam Rider	3302.9	22707.9	N/A	4062.0	6844.0
Boxing	94.9	59.8	92	99.6	99.8
Breakout	402.2	681.9	N/A	470.1	565.3
Ms. Pacman	3233.50	653.7	1978	2194.7	1976.0
Name This Game	6182.16	10476.1	5643	9743.7	14068.0
Pong	18.3	5.6	18	20.6	20.9
Qbert	10815.6	15148.8	14966.0	16561.7	17249.2
Seaquest	13169.06	2355.4	1706	1754.0	1755.3
Space Invaders	1883.4	15730.5	N/A	1077.3	1427.8
Up n Down	12561.58	74705.7	8623	88105.3	100523.3
Training	4d CPU cluster	4d CPU	1d GPU	12h GPU	15h GPU

Table 1 of the paper "Efficient Parallel Methods for Deep Reinforcement Learning" by Alfredo V. Clemente et al.

The authors use 8 workers,  $n_e = 32$  parallel environments, 5-step returns,  $\gamma = 0.99$ ,  $\varepsilon = 0.1$ ,  $\beta = 0.01$  and a learning rate of  $\alpha = 0.0007 \cdot n_e = 0.0224$ .

The  $\operatorname{arch}_{\operatorname{nips}}$  is from A3C: 16 filters  $8 \times 8$  stride 4, 32 filters  $4 \times 4$  stride 2, a dense layer with 256 units. The  $\operatorname{arch}_{\operatorname{nature}}$  is from DQN: 32 filters  $8 \times 8$  stride 4, 64 filters  $4 \times 4$  stride 2, 64 filters  $3 \times 3$  stride 1 and 512-unit fully connected layer. All nonlinearities are ReLU.



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#### **Continuous Action Space**

Until now, the actions were discrete. However, many environments naturally accept actions from continuous space. We now consider actions which come from range [a, b] for  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ , or more generally from a Cartesian product of several such ranges:

 $\prod [a_i, b_i].$ 

A simple way how to parametrize the action distribution is to choose them from the normal distribution. Given mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ , probability density function of  $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$  is





# **Continuous Action Space in Gradient Methods**

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Utilizing continuous action spaces in gradient-based methods is straightforward. Instead of the softmax distribution we suitably parametrize the action value, usually using the normal distribution. Considering only one real-valued action, we therefore have

$$\pi(a|s;oldsymbol{ heta}) \stackrel{ ext{\tiny def}}{=} P\Big(a \sim \mathcal{N}ig(\mu(s;oldsymbol{ heta}), \sigma(s;oldsymbol{ heta})^2ig)\Big),$$

where  $\mu(s; \theta)$  and  $\sigma(s; \theta)$  are function approximation of mean and standard deviation of the action distribution.

The mean and standard deviation are usually computed from the shared representation, with

- the mean being computed as a regular regression (i.e., one output neuron without activation);
- the standard deviation (which must be positive) being computed again as a single neuron, but with either exp or softplus, where  $\operatorname{softplus}(x) \stackrel{\text{\tiny def}}{=} \log(1 + e^x)$ .

# **Continuous Action Space in Gradient Methods**

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During training, we compute  $\mu(s; \theta)$  and  $\sigma(s; \theta)$  and then sample the action value (clipping it to [a, b] if required). To compute the loss, we utilize the probability density function of the normal distribution (and usually also add the entropy penalty).

```
mus = tf.keras.layers.Dense(actions)(hidden_layer)
sds = tf.keras.layers.Dense(actions)(hidden_layer)
sds = tf.math.exp(sds)  # or sds = tf.math.softplus(sds)
```

action\_dist = tfp.distributions.Normal(mus, sds)

# **Continuous Action Space**



When the action consists of several real values, i.e., action is a suitable subregion of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  for n > 1, we can:

- either use multivariate Gaussian distribution;
- or factorize the probability into a product of univariate normal distributions.

Modeling the action distribution using a single normal distribution might be insufficient, in which case a mixture of normal distributions is usually used.

Sometimes, the continuous action space is used even for discrete output -- when modeling pixels intensities (256 values) or sound amplitude ( $2^{16}$  values), instead of a softmax we use discretized mixture of distributions, usually logistic (a distribution with a sigmoid cdf). Then,

$$\pi(a) = \sum_i p_i \Big( \sigmaig((a+0.5-\mu_i)/\sigma_iig) - \sigmaig((a-0.5-\mu_i)/\sigma_iig)ig).$$

However, such mixtures are usually used in generative modeling, not in reinforcement learning.

# **Deterministic Policy Gradient Theorem**

Combining continuous actions and Deep Q Networks is not straightforward. In order to do so, we need a different variant of the policy gradient theorem.

Recall that in policy gradient theorem,

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$$abla_{oldsymbol{ heta}} J(oldsymbol{ heta}) \propto \sum_{s \in \mathcal{S}} \mu(s) \sum_{a \in \mathcal{A}} q_{\pi}(s,a) 
abla_{oldsymbol{ heta}} \pi(a|s;oldsymbol{ heta}).$$

#### **Deterministic Policy Gradient Theorem**

Continuous Action Space

Assume that the policy  $\pi(s; \theta)$  is deterministic and computes an action  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . Further, assume the reward r(s, a) is actually a deterministic function of the given state-action pair. Then, under several assumptions about continuousness, the following holds:

$$abla_{oldsymbol{ heta}} J(oldsymbol{ heta}) \propto \mathbb{E}_{s \sim \mu} \Big[ 
abla_{oldsymbol{ heta}} \pi(s;oldsymbol{ heta}) 
abla_a q_{\pi}(s,a) ig|_{a=\pi(s;oldsymbol{ heta})} \Big].$$

The theorem was first proven in the paper Deterministic Policy Gradient Algorithms by David Silver et al in 2014.

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# **Deterministic Policy Gradient Theorem – Proof**

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The proof is very similar to the original (stochastic) policy gradient theorem. However, we will be exchanging derivatives and integrals, for which we need several assumptions:

- we assume that  $h(s), p(s'|s, a), \nabla_a p(s'|s, a), r(s, a), \nabla_a r(s, a), \pi(s; \theta), \nabla_{\theta} \pi(s; \theta)$  are continuous in all parameters and variables;
- we further assume that  $h(s), p(s'|s, a), \nabla_a p(s'|s, a), r(s, a), \nabla_a r(s, a)$  are bounded.

Details about which assumptions are required when can be found in Appendix B of *Deterministic Policy Gradient Algorithms: Supplementary Material* by David Silver et al.

# **Deterministic Policy Gradient Theorem – Proof**

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} v_{\pi}(s) &= \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} q_{\pi}(s, \pi(s; \boldsymbol{\theta})) \\ &= \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \left( r\big(s, \pi(s; \boldsymbol{\theta})\big) + \int_{s'} p\big(s'|s, \pi(s; \boldsymbol{\theta})\big) \gamma v_{\pi}(s') \, \mathrm{d}s' \right) \\ &= \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \pi(s; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \nabla_{a} r(s, a) \big|_{a=\pi(s; \boldsymbol{\theta})} + \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \int_{s'} \gamma p\big(s'|s, \pi(s; \boldsymbol{\theta})\big) v_{\pi}(s') \, \mathrm{d}s' \\ &= \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \pi(s; \boldsymbol{\theta}) \nabla_{a} \left( r(s, a) + \int_{s'} \gamma p\big(s'|s, a\big) v_{\pi}(s') \, \mathrm{d}s' \right) \Big|_{a=\pi(s; \boldsymbol{\theta})} \\ &+ \int_{s'} \gamma p\big(s'|s, \pi(s; \boldsymbol{\theta})\big) \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} v_{\pi}(s') \, \mathrm{d}s' \end{aligned}$$

We finish the proof as in the gradient theorem by continually expanding  $\nabla_{\theta} v_{\pi}(s')$ , getting  $\nabla_{\theta} v_{\pi}(s) = \int_{s'} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k P(s \to s' \text{ in } k \text{ steps } |\pi) \left[ \nabla_{\theta} \pi(s'; \theta) \nabla_a q_{\pi}(s', a) \Big|_{a=\pi(s'; \theta)} \right] \mathrm{d}s'$  and then  $\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{s \sim h} \nabla_{\theta} v_{\pi}(s) \propto \mathbb{E}_{s \sim \mu} \left[ \nabla_{\theta} \pi(s; \theta) \nabla_a q_{\pi}(s, a) \Big|_{a=\pi(s; \theta)} \right].$ 

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Note that the formulation of deterministic policy gradient theorem allows an off-policy algorithm, because the loss functions no longer depends on actions (similarly to how expected Sarsa is also an off-policy algorithm).

We therefore train function approximation for both  $\pi(s; \theta)$  and  $q(s, a; \theta)$ , training  $q(s, a; \theta)$  using a deterministic variant of the Bellman equation:

$$q(S_t, A_t; oldsymbol{ heta}) = \mathbb{E}_{R_{t+1}, S_{t+1}}ig[R_{t+1} + \gamma q(S_{t+1}, \pi(S_{t+1}; oldsymbol{ heta}))ig]$$

and  $\pi(s; \theta)$  according to the deterministic policy gradient theorem.

The algorithm was first described in the paper Continuous Control with Deep Reinforcement Learning by Timothy P. Lillicrap et al. (2015).

The authors utilize a replay buffer, a target network (updated by exponential moving average with  $\tau = 0.001$ ), batch normalization for CNNs, and perform exploration by adding a Ornstein-Uhlenbeck noise to predicted actions. Training is performed by Adam with learning rates of 1e-4 and 1e-3 for the policy and critic network, respectively.



#### Algorithm 1 DDPG algorithm

Randomly initialize critic network  $Q(s, a|\theta^Q)$  and actor  $\mu(s|\theta^\mu)$  with weights  $\theta^Q$  and  $\theta^\mu$ . Initialize target network Q' and  $\mu'$  with weights  $\theta^{Q'} \leftarrow \theta^Q$ ,  $\theta^{\mu'} \leftarrow \theta^\mu$ Initialize replay buffer Rfor episode = 1, M do Initialize a random process  $\mathcal{N}$  for action exploration Receive initial observation state  $s_1$ for t = 1, T do Select action  $a_t = \mu(s_t|\theta^\mu) + \mathcal{N}_t$  according to the current policy and exploration noise Execute action  $a_t$  and observe reward  $r_t$  and observe new state  $s_{t+1}$ Store transition  $(s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t+1})$  in RSample a random minibatch of N transitions  $(s_i, a_i, r_i, s_{i+1})$  from RSet  $y_i = r_i + \gamma Q'(s_{i+1}, \mu'(s_{i+1}|\theta^{\mu'})|\theta^{Q'})$ Update critic by minimizing the loss:  $L = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i (y_i - Q(s_i, a_i|\theta^Q))^2$ Update the actor policy using the sampled policy gradient:

$$\nabla_{\theta^{\mu}} J \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \nabla_a Q(s, a | \theta^Q) |_{s=s_i, a=\mu(s_i)} \nabla_{\theta^{\mu}} \mu(s | \theta^{\mu}) |_{s=s_i, a=\mu(s_i)} \nabla_{\theta^{\mu}} \nabla_{\theta^{\mu}}$$

Update the target networks:

$$\begin{aligned} \theta^{Q'} &\leftarrow \tau \theta^Q + (1 - \tau) \theta^{Q'} \\ \theta^{\mu'} &\leftarrow \tau \theta^\mu + (1 - \tau) \theta^{\mu'} \end{aligned}$$

end for

end for

Algorithm 1 of the paper "Continuous Control with Deep Reinforcement Learning" by Timothy P. Lillicrap et al.



Figure 2: Performance curves for a selection of domains using variants of DPG: original DPG algorithm (minibatch NFQCA) with batch normalization (light grey), with target network (dark grey), with target networks and batch normalization (green), with target networks from pixel-only inputs (blue). Target networks are crucial.

Figure 3 of the paper "Continuous Control with Deep Reinforcement Learning" by Timothy P. Lillicrap et al.



Results using low-dimensional (*lowd*) version of the environment, pixel representation (pix) and DPG reference (*cntrl*).

environment	$R_{av,lowd}$	$R_{best,lowd}$	$R_{av,pix}$	$R_{best,pix}$	$R_{av,cntrl}$	$R_{best,cntrl}$
blockworld1	1.156	1.511	0.466	1.299	-0.080	1.260
blockworld3da	0.340	0.705	0.889	2.225	-0.139	0.658
canada	0.303	1.735	0.176	0.688	0.125	1.157
canada2d	0.400	0.978	-0.285	0.119	-0.045	0.701
cart	0.938	1.336	1.096	1.258	0.343	1.216
cartpole	0.844	1.115	0.482	1.138	0.244	0.755
cartpoleBalance	0.951	1.000	0.335	0.996	-0.468	0.528
cartpoleParallelDouble	0.549	0.900	0.188	0.323	0.197	0.572
cartpoleSerialDouble	0.272	0.719	0.195	0.642	0.143	0.701
cartpoleSerialTriple	0.736	0.946	0.412	0.427	0.583	0.942
cheetah	0.903	1.206	0.457	0.792	-0.008	0.425
fixedReacher	0.849	1.021	0.693	0.981	0.259	0.927
fixedReacherDouble	0.924	0.996	0.872	0.943	0.290	0.995
fixedReacherSingle	0.954	1.000	0.827	0.995	0.620	0.999
gripper	0.655	0.972	0.406	0.790	0.461	0.816
gripperRandom	0.618	0.937	0.082	0.791	0.557	0.808
hardCheetah	1.311	1.990	1.204	1.431	-0.031	1.411
hopper	0.676	0.936	0.112	0.924	0.078	0.917
hyq	0.416	0.722	0.234	0.672	0.198	0.618
movingGripper	0.474	0.936	0.480	0.644	0.416	0.805
pendulum	0.946	1.021	0.663	1.055	0.099	0.951
reacher	0.720	0.987	0.194	0.878	0.231	0.953
reacher3daFixedTarget	0.585	0.943	0.453	0.922	0.204	0.631
reacher3daRandomTarget	0.467	0.739	0.374	0.735	-0.046	0.158
reacherSingle	0.981	1.102	1.000	1.083	1.010	1.083
walker2d	0.705	1.573	0.944	1.476	0.393	1.397
torcs	-393.385	1840.036	-401.911	1876.284	-911.034	1961.600

Table 1 of the paper "Continuous Control with Deep Reinforcement Learning" by Timothy P. Lillicrap et al.

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#### **Ornstein-Uhlenbeck Exploration**

While the exploration policy could just use Gaussian noise, the authors claim that temporarilycorrelated noise is more effective for physical control problems with inertia.

They therefore generate noise using Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process, by computing

$$n_t \leftarrow n_{t-1} + heta \cdot (\mu - n_{t-1}) + arepsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0,\sigma^2),$$

utilizing hyperparameter values au=0.15 and  $\sigma=0.2$ .

