

Deep reinforcement learning

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Introduction to deep reinforcement learning

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Deep reinforcement learning

Reinforcement learning where

- ▶ the value function,
- ▶ the policy, or
- ▶ the model

is approximated via a neural network is deep reinforcement learning. Neural network approximates a function as a non-linear function which is preferred in reinforcement learning. However, the approximation does not give any interpretation and the estimate is a local optimum which is not always desirable.

Deep representations

- ▶ A deep representation is a composition of many functions
- ▶ Its gradient can be backpropagated by the chain rule

Deep neural networks

Neural network transforms input vector \mathbf{x} into an output \mathbf{y} :

$$\mathbf{h}_0 = g_0(W_0\mathbf{x}^\top + b_0)$$

$$\mathbf{h}_i = g_i(W_i\mathbf{h}_{i-1}^\top + b_i), 0 < i < m$$

$$\mathbf{y} = g_m(W_m\mathbf{h}_{m-1}^\top + b_m)$$

where

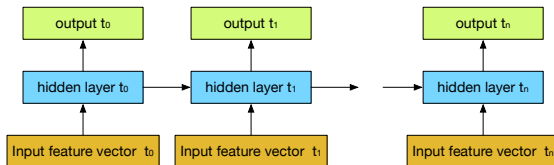
g_i (differentiable) activation functions hyperbolic tangent tanh or sigmoid σ , $0 \leq i \leq m$

W_i, b_i parameters to be estimated, $0 \leq i \leq m$

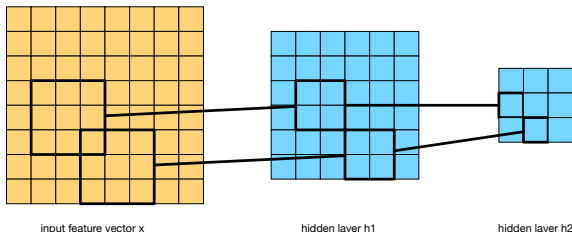
It is trained to minimise the loss function $L = |\mathbf{y}^* - \mathbf{y}|^2$ with stochastic gradient descent in the regression case. In the classification case, it minimises the cross entropy $-\sum_i y_i^* \log y_i$.

Weight sharing

- ▶ Recurrent neural network shares weights between time-steps

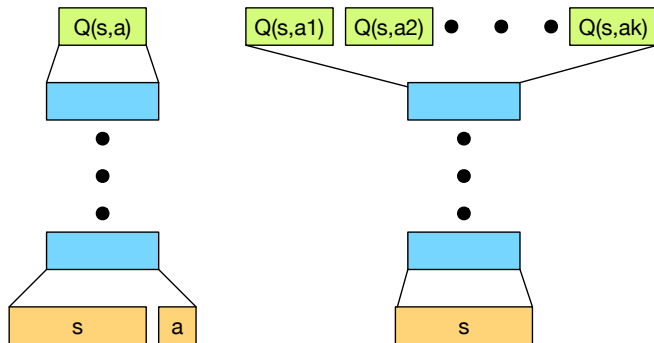


- ▶ Convolutional neural network shares weights between local regions



Q-networks

- ▶ Q-networks approximate the Q-function as a neural network
- ▶ There are two architectures:
 1. Q-network takes an input s, a and produces $Q(s, a)$
 2. Q-network takes an input s and produces a vector $Q(s, a_1), \dots, Q(s, a_k)$



Deep Q-network

$Q(s, a, \theta)$ is a neural network.

$$MSVE = \left(r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a', \theta) - Q(s, a, \theta) \right)^2$$

- ▶ Q-learning algorithm where Q-function estimate is a neural network
- ▶ This algorithm provides a biased estimate

This algorithm diverges because

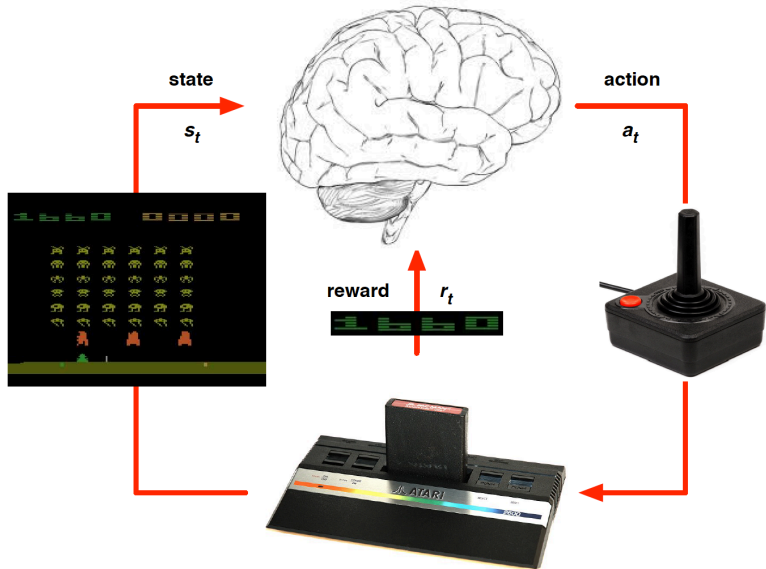
- ▶ States are correlated
- ▶ Targets are non-stationary

DQN - Experience replay

- ▶ In order to deal with the correlated states, the agent builds a dataset of experience and then makes random samples from the dataset.
- ▶ In order to deal with non-stationary targets, the agent fixes the parameters θ^- and then with some frequency updates them

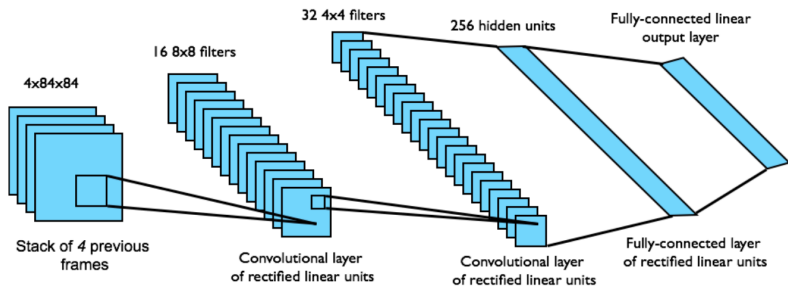
$$MSVE = \left(r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a', \theta^-) - Q(s, a, \theta) \right)^2$$

Atari

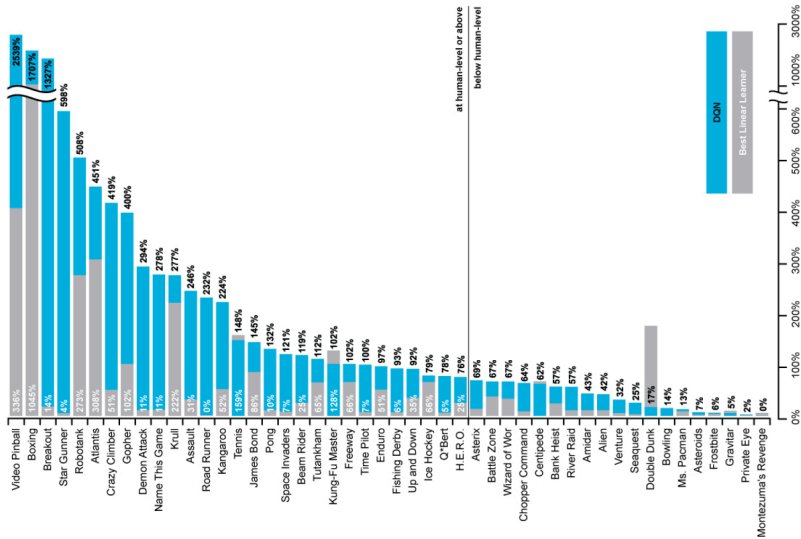


DQN for Atari [Mnih et al., 2015]

- ▶ End-to-end learning of values $Q(s, a)$ from pixels s
- ▶ State s is stack of raw pixels from last 4 frames
- ▶ Action a is one of 18 joystick/button positions
- ▶ Reward r is change in score for that step



Results - Atari



Prioritised replay [Schaul et al., 2015]

- ▶ Related to prioritised sweeping in Dyna-Q framework
- ▶ Instead of randomly selecting experience order the experience by some measure of priority
- ▶ The priority is typically proportional to the TD-error

$$\delta = |r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a', \theta^-) - Q(s, a, \theta)|$$

Double DQN [van Hasselt et al., 2015]

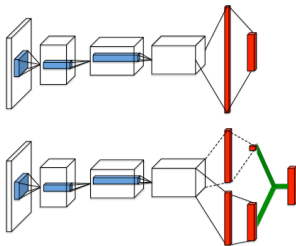
- ▶ Remove upward bias caused by $\max_{a'} Q(s', a', \theta^-)$
- ▶ The idea is to produce two Q-networks
 1. Current Q-network θ is used to select actions
 2. Older Q-network θ^- is used to evaluate actions

$$MSVE = \left(r + \gamma Q(s', \arg \max_{a'} Q(s', a', \theta), \theta^-) - Q(s, a, \theta) \right)^2$$

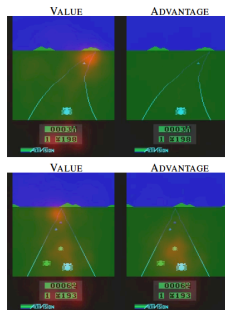
Dueling Q-network [Wang et al., 2015]

- ▶ Dueling Q-network combined two streams to produce Q-function:
 1. one for state values
 2. another for advantage function
- ▶ The network learns state values for which actions have no effect
- ▶ Dueling architecture can more quickly identify correct action in the case of redundancy

Dueling Q-network



- ▶ Traditional DQN and dueling DQN architecture



- ▶ The value stream learns to pay attention to the road.
- ▶ The advantage stream learns to pay attention only when there are cars immediately in front

Asynchronous deep reinforcement learning

- ▶ Exploits multithreading of standard CPU
- ▶ Execute many instances of agent in parallel
- ▶ Network parameters shared between threads
- ▶ Parallelism decorrelates data
- ▶ Viable alternative to experience replay

Policy approximation

- ▶ Policy π is a neural network parametrised with $\omega \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\pi(a, s, \omega)$
- ▶ Performance measure $J(\omega)$ is the value of the initial state $V_{\pi(\omega)}(s_0) = E_{\pi(\omega)}[r_0 + \gamma r_1 + \gamma^2 r_2, + \dots]$
- ▶ The update of the parameters is

$$\omega_{t+1} = \omega_t + \alpha \nabla J(\omega_t)$$

- ▶ And the gradient is given by the policy gradient theorem

$$\nabla J(\omega) = E_{\pi} [\gamma^t R_t \nabla_{\omega} \log \pi(a|s_t, \omega)]$$

- ▶ This gives REINFORCE algorithm for a neural network policy

Natural actor-critic with neural network approximations

- ▶ Approximate the advantage function as a neural network $\gamma^t A(s, a, \theta)$
- ▶ Approximate the policy as a neural network $\pi(a, s, \omega)$

Critic evaluation Choose θ and J to minimise

$$(\sum_t \gamma^t A(s_t, a_t, \theta) + J - R)^2$$

Actor update $\omega \leftarrow \omega + \alpha \theta$ using compatible function approximation, where θ is natural gradient of $J(\omega)$

Advantage actor-critic [Mnih et al., 2016]

Approximate the policy as a neural network $\pi(a, s, \omega)$

- ▶ Define the objective

$$J(\omega) = V_{\pi(\omega)}(s_0) = E_{\pi(\omega)}[r_0 + \gamma r_1 + \gamma^2 r_2 + \dots]$$

- ▶ Update ω with $\nabla J(\omega)$

$$\nabla J(\omega) = E_{\pi}[\gamma^t(R_t - V(s_t, \theta))\nabla_{\omega} \log \pi(a_t, s_t, \omega)]$$

Approximate the value function as a neural network $V(s, \theta)$

- ▶ Define the loss $L(\theta) = \gamma^t(R_t - V(s_t, \theta))^2$
- ▶ Update θ with $\nabla L(\theta)$

Compatible function approximation: $\nabla J(\omega)$ depends on the current estimate of $V(s, \theta)$

Advantage actor-critic

Algorithm 1 Advantage actor-critic

- 1: Input: neural network parametrisation of $\pi(\omega)$
 - 2: Input: neural network parametrisation of $V(\theta)$
 - 3: **repeat**
 - 4: Initialise $\theta, \omega, V(\text{terminal}, \theta) = 0$
 - 5: Initialise s_0
 - 6: Obtain an episode $s_0, a_0, r_1, \dots, r_T, s_T$ according to $\pi(\omega)$
 - 7: $R_T = 0$
 - 8: **for** $t = T$ downto 0 **do**
 - 9: $R_{t-1} = r_t + \gamma V(s_t, \theta)$
 - 10: $\nabla J = \nabla J + \gamma^t (R_t - V(s_t, \theta)) \nabla_{\omega} \log \pi(a_t, s_t, \omega)$
 - 11: $\nabla L = \nabla L + \gamma^t \nabla_{\theta} (R_t - V(s_t, \theta))^2$
 - 12: **end for**
 - 13: $\omega = \omega + \alpha \nabla J$
 - 14: $\theta = \theta + \beta \nabla L$
 - 15: **until** convergence
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Model-based Deep RL

- ▶ Dyna-Q framework can be used where transitions probabilities, rewards and the Q-function are all approximated by a neural network.
- ▶ Challenging to plan due to compounding errors
- ▶ Errors in the transition model compound over the trajectory
- ▶ Planning trajectories differ from executed trajectories
- ▶ At end of long, unusual trajectory, rewards are totally wrong

Summary

- ▶ Neural networks can be used to approximate the value function, the policy or the model in reinforcement learning.
- ▶ Any algorithms that assumes a parametric approximation can be applied with neural networks
- ▶ However, vanilla versions might not always converge due to biased estimates and correlated samples
- ▶ With methods such as prioritised replay, double Q-network or duelling networks the stability can be achieved
- ▶ Neural networks can also be applied to actor-critic methods
- ▶ Using them for model-based method does not always work well due to compounding errors

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