AA203 Optimal and Learning-based Control Lecture 17 Model-based RL

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Recap: Model-free RL

• We discussed different ways to estimate value functions

$$\begin{array}{c}
 Dynamic Programming \\
 \hat{V}(x_{t}) \leftarrow \mathbb{E}\left[R_{t} + \gamma \hat{V}(x_{t+1})\right]
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 Exact \\
 Requires \\
 knowledge \\
 of MDP
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 Monte Carlo \\
 \hat{V}(x_{t}) \leftarrow \hat{V}(x_{t}) + \alpha \left(G_{t} - \hat{V}(x_{t})\right)
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 Low variance; can learn online \\
 Biased \\
 Temporal-Difference \\
 \hat{V}(x_{t}) \leftarrow \hat{V}(x_{t}) + \alpha \left(G_{t} - \hat{V}(x_{t})\right)$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \hat{V}(x_{t}) \leftarrow \hat{V}(x_{t+1}) - \hat{V}(x_$$

• And how to scale these ideas through function approximation Tabular representation:

$$\hat{V}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{V}(x_1) \\ \hat{V}(x_2) \\ \vdots \\ \hat{V}(x_n) \end{bmatrix} \hat{Q}(x, u) = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{Q}(x_1, u_1) & \hat{Q}(x_1, u_2) \dots \hat{Q}(x_1, u_m) \\ \hat{Q}(x_2, u_1) & \hat{Q}(x_2, u_2) \dots \hat{Q}(x_2, u_m) \\ \vdots \\ \hat{Q}(x_n, u_1) & \hat{Q}(x_n, u_2) \dots \hat{Q}(x_n, u_m) \end{bmatrix}$$

Function approximation:



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Recap: Model-free RL

Generalized Policy Iteration



• Sarsa & Q-learning

SARSA: on-policy

 $Q(x_t, u_t) \leftarrow Q(x_t, u_t) + \alpha \left(r_t + \gamma Q \left(x_{t+1}, u_{t+1} \right) - Q(x_t, u_t) \right)$

<u>Q-learning:</u> off-policy

$$Q(x_t, u_t) \leftarrow Q(x_t, u_t) + \alpha \left(r_t + \right)$$

On-policy: evaluate or improve the policy that is used to make decisions **Off-policy**: evaluate or improve a policy different from that used to generate the data

In policy optimization, we care about learning an (explicit) parametric policy π_{θ} , with parameters θ to directly maximize: ullet

Policy gradient:
$$\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta} \left(u_{i,t} \mid x_{i,t} \right) \right) \left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} R \left(x_{i,t}, u_{i,t} \right) \right) \right]$$

Maximum Likelihood: $\nabla_{\theta} J_{MLE}(\theta) \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[\left(\sum_{t=1}^{T} \nabla_{\theta} \log \pi_{\theta} \left(u_{i,t} \mid x_{i,t} \right) \right) \right]$



Recap: The skeleton of an RL algorithm

 $\pi(u_t | x_t)$ $\tau = (x_0, u_0, \dots, x_N, u_N)$ Generate samples



Recap: Why so many RL algorithms?

• Different tradeoffs:

- Sample efficiency
- Stability & easy of use

• Different assumptions:

- Stochastic or deterministic
- Continuous or discrete
- Episodic or infinite horizon

• Different things are easy or hard in different settings:

- Easier to represent the policy?
- Easier to represent the model?

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Recap: Comparison: sample efficiency

- Sample efficiency = how many samples do we need to get a good policy?
- Crucial question: is the algorithm off policy?
 - Off policy: able to improve the policy without generating new samples from the current policy
 - **On policy**: each time the policy is changed, even a little bit, we need to generate new samples



Why even bother using less efficient algorithms? Wall-clock time is not the same as efficiency!



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Recap: stability and ease of use

- Does it converge?
- And if it does, to what?
- Does it *always* converge?

- Supervised learning: almost always gradient descent
- Reinforcement learning: often not gradient descent
 - Q-learning: fixed point iteration
 - Model-based RL: model estimator is not optimized for expected reward
 - Policy gradient actually is gradient descent (but can be sample inefficient)

or expected reward be sample inefficient)



Outline (from last week)

Intro to policy gradients

- REINFORCE algorithm
- Reducing variance of policy gradient

Actor-Critic methods

- Advantage
- Architecture design

Deep RL Algorithms & Applications

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Practical implementation (and alternative formulation)

- To implement this using modern auto-diff tools (e.g., Torch, Jax, Tensorflow), this means writing the following • loss function:

$$L^{PG}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim p_{\theta}(\tau)} \left[\log p_{\theta}(\tau) A(\tau) \right]$$

- But we don't want to optimize it too far, since we are not working with the *true* advantage, rather with a noisy • estimate
- Let's define an alternative loss

$$L^{IS}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim p_{\theta}(\tau)} \left[\frac{\pi_{\theta}(u_t | x_t)}{\pi_{\theta_{old}}(u_t | x_t)} A(\tau) \right]$$

• If we take the derivative of L^{IS} and evaluate at $\theta = \theta_{old}$, we get the same gradient

$$\nabla_{\theta} \log f(\theta) \Big|_{\theta_{\text{old}}} = \frac{\nabla_{\theta} f(\theta) \Big|_{\theta_{\text{old}}}}{f(\theta_{\text{old}})} = \nabla_{\theta} \left(\frac{f(\theta)}{f(\theta_{\text{old}})} \right) \Big|_{\theta_{\text{old}}}$$

• We discussed how, in PO, we want to compute the following gradient $\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{\tau \sim p_{\theta}(\tau)} \left[\nabla_{\theta} \log p_{\theta}(\tau) A(\tau) \right]$

Trust Region Policy Optimization (TRPO)

$$\begin{array}{l} \underset{\theta}{\text{maximize}} \hat{\mathbb{E}}_{t} \left[\frac{\pi_{\theta} \left(u_{t} \mid x_{t} \right)}{\pi_{\theta_{old}} \left(u_{t} \mid x_{t} \right)} \hat{A}_{t} \right] \\ \text{subject to } \hat{\mathbb{E}}_{t} \left[\text{KL}[\pi_{\theta_{old}} \left(\cdot \mid x_{t} \right), \pi_{\theta} \left(\cdot \mid x_{t} \right) \right] \leq \delta \end{array}$$

Main idea: use trust region to constrain change in distribution space (opposed to e.g., parameter space) •

- Hard to use with architectures with multiple outputs, e.g., policy and value function
- Empirically performs poorly on tasks requiring CNNs and RNNs
- Conjugate gradient makes implementation more complicated

Proximal Policy Optimization (PPO)

Can we solve the problem defined in TRPO without second-order optimization?

PPO v1 - Surrogate loss with Lagrange multipliers

$$\underset{\theta}{\text{maximize }} \hat{\mathbb{E}}_{t} \left[\frac{\pi_{\theta} \left(u_{t} \mid x_{t} \right)}{\pi_{\theta_{old}} \left(u_{t} \mid x_{t} \right)} \hat{A}_{t} \right] + \beta \left(\hat{\mathbb{E}}_{t} \left[\text{KL}[\pi_{\theta_{old}} \left(\cdot \mid x_{t} \right), \pi_{\theta} \left(\cdot \mid x_{t} \right) \right] - \delta \right)$$

- Run SGD on the above objective
- Do dual descent update for β

PPO v2 - Clipped surrogate loss

$$r(\theta) = \frac{\pi_{\theta} \left(u_t \mid x_t \right)}{\pi_{\theta_{old}} \left(u_t \mid x_t \right)}, \quad r(\theta_{old}) = 1$$

 $\underset{\theta}{\text{maximize }} \hat{\mathbb{E}}_t \left[\min(r(\theta)A(\tau), \operatorname{clip}(r(\theta), 1 - \epsilon, 1 + \epsilon)A(\tau)) \right]$

- Heuristically replicates constraint in the objective
- One of the (if not the) most popular PO algorithm ullet

A taxonomy of RL



A taxonomy of RL



Basics of model-based RL

- A basic recipe (and its limitations)
- Learning with high-capacity models: distributional shift

Uncertainty quantification in model-based RL

- Gaussian Processes
- Bootstrap Ensembles

Examples & Applications (e.g., PETS)

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Examples & Applications (e.g., PETS)

Approach 1: "Learn a model and use it to plan"



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Approach 1: "Learn a model and use it to plan"

Approach 2:

"Learn a model and improve modelfree learning"



General recipe

- If we knew the dynamics $T(x_{t+1} | x_t, u_t)$, we could use tools from optimal control
- Main idea: learn a model $f_{\theta}(x_t, u_t) \approx T(x_{t+1} | x_t, u_t)$ from data (or $p(x_{t+1} | x_t, u_t)$ in the stochastic case)

At a high-level, we could apply the following strategy:

- 1. Run base policy $\pi_0(u_t | x_t)$ in the environment (e.g., range $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_t, u_t, x_{t+1})_i\}$
- 2. Fit dynamics model to data to minimize error (or equivale $\theta^* = \arg \min_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} e^{i\theta_i \theta}$
- 3. Use the learned model to plan a sequence of actions

pols from optimal control n data (or $p(x_{t+1} | x_t, u_t)$ in the stochastic case)

1. Run base policy $\pi_0(u_t | x_t)$ in the environment (e.g., random policy, exploration policy) and collect dataset of transitions

Lently, maximize (log) likelihood
$$\int \|f_{\theta}(x_t, u_t) - x_{t+1}\|^2$$

Will this work?

YES

- In cases with e.g., linear-time invariant dynamics, this tends to work pretty well
- few parameters
 - design a good base policy)
- This is essentially how system identification works

NO

and can be misleading

• Particularly effective if we can hand-engineer a dynamics representation using our knowledge of physics, and fit just a • If the dataset is generated with sufficient excitation, it gives global knowledge (i.e., some care should be taken to

• If we're dealing with non-linear dynamics (and high-capacity models! e.g., neural networks) extrapolation is difficult

Motivating example



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The goal is to go as further north as possible The base policy defines state distribution (under π_0) When planning under the model we observe a different state distribution, i.e., $p_{\pi_f}(x)$

The more (i) the dynamics are complex, (ii) we use high-capacity models, the easier it is incur in distribution mismatch



A simple improvement

- We can leverage ideas from adaptive and receding-horizon control:
- 1. Run base policy $\pi_0(u_t | x_t)$ in the environment (e.g., random policy, exploration policy) and collect dataset of transitions $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_t, u_t, x_{t+1})_i\}$
- 2. Fit dynamics model to data to minimize error (or equivalently, maximize (log) likelihood)

$$\theta^* = \arg\min_{\theta} \sum_{i} \left\| f_{\theta}(x_t, u_t) - x_{t+1} \right\|$$

- Use the learned model to plan a sequence of actions З.
- 4. Execute only the first action and measure the new state x_{t+1} (i.e., MPC)
- 5. Add the observed transition (x_t, u_t, x_{t+1}) to the dataset \mathscr{D} and update model (i.e., gradually closing the gap between $p_{\pi_0}(x) \text{ and } p_{\pi_f}(x)$

Basics of model-based RL

- A basic recipe (and its limitations)
- Learning with high-capacity models: distributional shift

Uncertainty quantification in model-based RL

- Gaussian Processes
- Bootstrap Ensembles

Examples & Applications (e.g., PETS)



The main challenge in MBRL

- Ideally, we'd want our model to:
 - Have high-capacity to represent complex dynamics in the high-data regime
 - Not overfit to observed data in the low-data regime
- For example, consider the case where we fit our model to observed data and use it to plan, according to the previous scheme
- Run base policy $\pi_0(u_t | x_t)$ in the environment (e.g., random policy, exploration policy) and collect dataset of transitions $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_t, u_t, x_{t+1})_i\}$
- Fit dynamics model to data to minimize error (or equivalently, maximize (log) likelihood) 2.

$$\theta^* = \arg\min_{\theta} \sum_{i} \left\| f_{\theta}(x_t, u_t) - x_{t+1} \right\|$$

- Use the learned model to plan a sequence of actions З.
- Execute only the first action and measure the new state x_{t+1} (i.e., MPC) 4.
- Add the observed transition (x_t, u_t, x_{t+1}) to the dataset \mathscr{D} and update model (i.e., gradually closing the gap 5. between $p_{\pi_0}(x)$ and $p_{\pi_f}(x)$)

Problem: we'll likely *erroneously* exploit our model where it is less knowledgeable (Possible) Solution: consider how "certain" we our about the prediction

 $R(\tau)$ $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ L

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The role of uncertainty estimation

• Specifically, by uncertainty on our predictions, we mean an expression of a distribution over possible outcomes • This allows us to reason in terms of expectations under our model





Expected reward under high-variance prediction is low

• Let's consider regression as an example:



x



• Let's consider regression as an example:



 $y = f_{\theta}(x) = \theta_1 x^2 + \theta_2 x + \theta_3$

x



• Let's consider regression as an example:



 $y = f_{\theta}(x) = \theta_1 x^2 + \theta_2 x + \theta_3$

Learning through minimization of squared error

$$\theta^* = \underset{\theta}{\arg\min} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - f_{\theta}(x_i))^2$$

x



• Let's consider regression as an example:



$$(x) = \theta_1 x^2 + \theta_2 x + \theta_3$$

$$= \mathcal{N}(y \mid f_{\theta}(x), \sigma^2)$$

x

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• Let's consider regression as an example:



$$(x) = \theta_1 x^2 + \theta_2 x + \theta_3$$
$$= \mathcal{N}(y \mid f_{\theta}(x), \sigma^2)$$

Learning through likelihood maximization n $\theta^* = \arg\max_{\theta} \prod_{i=1} \mathcal{N}(y_i \,|\, f_{\theta}(x_i), \sigma^2)$ i=1



How can we model uncertainty?

- Idea 1: use output entropy (spoiler: this does not work)
- Suppose we estimated a model, why not use its entropy?



Doing so will not take *epistemic* uncertainty into account \bullet



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How can we model uncertainty?

• Idea 2: estimate model uncertainty



- Typically, given a dataset \mathcal{D} , we estimate: $\arg\max\log p(\mathcal{D} \mid \theta)$
- To express model uncertainty means estimating:

$$p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D})$$

and predict according to the predictive posterior $\int p(x_{t+1} \mid x_t, u_t, \theta) p(\theta \mid \mathcal{D}) d\theta$ distribution

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(1) Gaussian Processes

• Represent "distribution over functions"

Samples from **prior** distribution



- Strengths
 - Data efficient
 - Exact posterior
 - Predictable behavior via the choice of kernel

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Bayesian inference



- Weaknesses \bullet
 - High computational complexity
 - Cannot learn expressive features

(2) Bootstrap ensembles

- High level idea: "train multiple models and see if they agree" ullet
 - Different models will likely agree in regions where we have data and disagree where we do not ullet



- Formally, we approximate the posterior with a mixture of Dirac • distributions: $p(\theta \mid \mathscr{D}) \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} \delta\left(\theta_{i}\right)$ $\int p\left(x_{t+1} \mid x_{t}, u_{t}, \theta\right) p(\theta \mid \mathscr{D}) d\theta \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum p\left(x_{t+1} \mid x_{t}, u_{t}, \theta_{i}\right)$ 1
- Usually, no need for resampling or independent datasets: SGD and random initialization make the models ulletsufficiently independent

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Planning with uncertainty

- How can we use this additional knowledge in planning?
- Given a candidate action sequence u_1, \ldots, u_T :
 - 1. Sample $\theta_i \sim p(\theta | \mathcal{D})$ (in the case of ensembles, this is equivalent to choosing one among the models)
 - 2. Propagate forward the learned dynamics according to $x_{t+1} \sim p_{\theta_i}(x_{t+1} | x_t, u_t)$, for all t
 - 3. Compute (predicted) rewards $\sum r(x_t, u_t)$
 - 4. Repeat steps 1-3 and compute the average reward $J(u_1, ..., u_T) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{t=1}^{H} r(x_{t,i}, u_t)$, where x_{t+1}
- Caveat: this is only a choice, one could think of other ways to approximate the posterior predictive distribution.
 - The general idea is that, when planning, we want to evaluate the expected reward under our model

is is equivalent to choosing one among the models) to $x_{t+1} \sim p_{\theta_i}(x_{t+1} | x_t, u_t)$, for all t

$$_{1,i} \sim p_{\theta_i} \left(x_{t+1,i} \,|\, x_{t,i}, u_t \right)$$

vs to approximate the posterior predictive distribution.

Case study: PETS

- Probabilistic Ensembles with Trajectory Sampling
- Key idea:
 - **Model:** Use ensemble of NNs to approximate posterior over model
 - **Propagation:** sample different models and use them to generate predictions of different "futures"
 - **Planning:** apply MPC (compute action sequence via sampling, i.e., cross-entropy method (CEM))

Deep Reinforcement Learning in a Handful of Trials using Probabilistic Dynamics Models

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Case study: PETS





(a) Mean squared error.



(b) Negative log likelihood.



Next time

Model-based RL: Policy learning

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