

The Role of Uncertainty in Model-based Reinforcement Learning

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 Vision: Autonomous robots support humans in everyday activities
 Fast learning and automatic adaptation





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- Currently: Data-hungry learning or human guidance





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Fully **autonomous learning and decision making with little data** in real-life situations



Data-Efficient Reinforcement Learning

Ability to learn and make decisions in complex domains without requiring large quantities of data



Data-Efficient Reinforcement Learning

Ability to learn and make decisions in complex domains without requiring large quantities of data

➤ Model-based reinforcement learning

Reinforcement Learning





Reinforcement Learning





Objective (Controller Learning)

Find policy parameters θ^* that minimize the expected long-term cost

$$J(oldsymbol{ heta}) = \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{E}[c(oldsymbol{x}_t)|oldsymbol{ heta}], \qquad p(oldsymbol{x}_0) = \mathcal{N}ig(oldsymbol{\mu}_0, oldsymbol{\Sigma}_0ig).$$

Instantaneous cost $c(\boldsymbol{x}_t)$, e.g., $\|\boldsymbol{x}_t - \boldsymbol{x}_{target}\|^2$

➤ Typical objective in optimal control and reinforcement learning (Bertsekas, 2005; Sutton & Barto, 1998)

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- Idea: Build simulator based on observed trajectories
- Issue: Model errors can lead to catastrophic failures
- Policy is learned only based on simulator data
- How can we build better models? ▶ **Probabilistic models**

Model learning problem: Find a function $f : x \mapsto f(x) = y$



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Predictions? Decision Making?

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Model Learning (System Identification)

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Predictions? Decision Making? Model Errors!

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Distribution over plausible functions

Express uncertainty about the underlying function to be robust to model errors

Gaussian processes, Bayesian linear regression, ensembles for model learning

Minimize expected long-term cost $J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_t \mathbb{E}[c(\boldsymbol{x}_t)|\boldsymbol{\theta}]$

PILCO Framework: High-Level Steps

Probabilistic model for transition function f

System identification



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- 2 Compute long-term predictions $p(\boldsymbol{x}_1|\boldsymbol{\theta}), \dots, p(\boldsymbol{x}_T|\boldsymbol{\theta})$



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Long-Term Predictions





• Uncertainty propagation: Iteratively compute state distributions $p(\boldsymbol{x}_t), t = 1, ..., T$.

Uncertainty Propagation





- Deterministic approximate inference (implicit local linearization)
 - Exact moment matching
 - Approximate moment matching (e.g., linearization, unscented transformation)
- Stochastic approximate inference
 - Trajectory sampling Important: Compute the GP posterior after every fantasized sample (augment dataset with fantasy data)

Linearization





- Approximate nonlinear function at the mean of the distribution with a linear function (1st-order Taylor series)
- Push Gaussian through this linear function: Closed-form mean and covariance of predictive distribution

Linearization





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- Push Gaussian through this linear function: Closed-form mean and covariance of predictive distribution
- Requires gradients of nonlinear function
- Can get the true moments catastrophically wrong

Unscented Transformation





- Approximate distribution with a small number of sigma points
- Evaluate nonlinear function at those points
- Compute sample statistics (mean, covariance) of predictive distribution

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Moment Matching





- Compute mean and covariance of predictive distribution
- Approximate predictive distribution with a Gaussian that possesses the correct moments
- Higher-order moments ignored
- Exact moments can only be computed in special cases



• Iteratively compute $p(\boldsymbol{x}_1|\boldsymbol{\theta}), \dots, p(\boldsymbol{x}_T|\boldsymbol{\theta})$

Deisenroth et al. (IEEE-TPAMI, 2015): Gaussian Processes for Data-Efficient Learning in Robotics and Control





• Iteratively compute $p(\boldsymbol{x}_1|\boldsymbol{\theta}), \dots, p(\boldsymbol{x}_T|\boldsymbol{\theta})$

$$\underbrace{p(\boldsymbol{x}_{t+1}|\boldsymbol{x}_t, \boldsymbol{u}_t)}_{\text{GP prediction}} \underbrace{p(\boldsymbol{x}_t, \boldsymbol{u}_t|\boldsymbol{\theta})}_{\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})}$$

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Uncertainty in Model-based RL

AUC



• Iteratively compute $p(\boldsymbol{x}_1|\boldsymbol{\theta}), \dots, p(\boldsymbol{x}_T|\boldsymbol{\theta})$

$$p(\boldsymbol{x}_{t+1}|\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \iiint \underbrace{p(\boldsymbol{x}_{t+1}|\boldsymbol{x}_t, \boldsymbol{u}_t)}_{\text{GP prediction}} \underbrace{p(\boldsymbol{x}_t, \boldsymbol{u}_t|\boldsymbol{\theta})}_{\mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})} df \, d\boldsymbol{x}_t \, d\boldsymbol{u}_t$$

▶ GP moment matching (Girard et al., 2002; Quiñonero-Candela et al., 2003)

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Moment Matching: Long-Term Predictions



- Left: Early stages of learning (model not confident)
- Right: More confident model
- ▶ Predictive error bars seem reasonable

Minimize expected long-term cost $J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_t \mathbb{E}[c(\boldsymbol{x}_t)|\boldsymbol{\theta}]$

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- **3** Policy improvement
 - Compute expected long-term cost $J(\theta)$
 - Find parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ that minimize $J(\boldsymbol{\theta})$
- 4 Apply controller





Minimize expected long-term cost $J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{t} \mathbb{E}[c(\boldsymbol{x}_{t})|\boldsymbol{\theta}]$

• Know how to predict $p(\boldsymbol{x}_1|\boldsymbol{\theta}), \dots, p(\boldsymbol{x}_T|\boldsymbol{\theta})$

Minimize expected long-term cost $J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_t \mathbb{E}[c(\boldsymbol{x}_t)|\boldsymbol{\theta}]$

- Know how to predict $p(\boldsymbol{x}_1|\boldsymbol{\theta}), \dots, p(\boldsymbol{x}_T|\boldsymbol{\theta})$
- Compute

$$\mathbb{E}[c(\boldsymbol{x}_t)|\boldsymbol{\theta}] = \int c(\boldsymbol{x}_t) \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{x}_t | \boldsymbol{\mu}_t, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_t) d\boldsymbol{x}_t, \quad t = 1, \dots, T,$$

and sum them up to obtain $J(\boldsymbol{\theta})$



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- Analytically compute gradient $dJ(\theta)/d\theta$
- Standard gradient-based optimizer (e.g., BFGS) to find θ^*



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Standard Benchmark: Cart-Pole Swing-up



- Swing up and balance a freely swinging pendulum on a cart
- No knowledge about nonlinear dynamics → Learn from scratch
- Cost function $c(\boldsymbol{x}) = 1 \exp(-\|\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{x}_{\text{target}}\|^2)$

■ Code: https://github.com/ICL-SML/pilco-matlab

Deisenroth & Rasmussen (ICML, 2011): PILCO: A Model-based and Data-efficient Approach to Policy Search

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Uncertainty in Model-based RL

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- Cost function $c(\boldsymbol{x}) = 1 \exp(-\|\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{x}_{\text{target}}\|^2)$
- Unprecedented learning speed compared to state-of-the-art
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Wide Applicability









with D Fox

with P Englert, A Paraschos, J Peters with A Kupcsik, J Peters, G Neumann



B Bischoff (Bosch), ESANN 2013

A McHutchon (U Cambridge)

▶ Application to a wide range of robotic systems

Deisenroth et al. (RSS, 2011): Learning to Control a Low-Cost Manipulator using Data-efficient Reinforcement Learning Englert et al. (ICRA, 2013): Model-based Imitation Learning by Probabilistic Trajectory Matching Deisenroth et al. (ICRA, 2014): Multi-Task Policy Search for Robotics Kupcsik et al. (AIJ, 2017): Model-based Contextual Policy Search for Data-Efficient Generalization of Robot Skills

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Some More Details

Computational Demand (Inference)



- Graphs: Time required to compute gradient (one time step; 2013 laptop; single CPU)
- Left: Moment matching
- Right: Linearization

▶ Linearization is significantly faster than moment matching

Linearization vs Moment Matching





- These are NOT learning curves on training data.
 Success evaluated on unseen test data
- Linearization is faster (compute), but performs worse than moment matching
- ▶ Meaningful error bars are useful in RL





- Typical loss function: quadratic
- We use a saturating cost function instead. Why is that?



Assume
$$\boldsymbol{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$
 and $c(\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{x}^{\top} \boldsymbol{x}$. Then

$$\mathbb{E}[c(\boldsymbol{x})] = \mathbb{E}_{\boldsymbol{x}}[\boldsymbol{x}^{\top}\boldsymbol{x}] = \operatorname{tr}(\boldsymbol{\Sigma}) + \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\mu}$$

- Scales quadratically in the length of *µ* (mean deviation from target)
- Scales linearly in the marginal uncertainty of x



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- Scales quadratically in the length of μ (mean deviation from target)
- Scales linearly in the marginal uncertainty of x
- If the *p*(*x*) is either centered far from the origin (target state) or the marginal uncertainties are large, we incur high cost
- In the early stages of learning, our models are uncertain, and we are far from the target



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- ➡ Finding a path to the target may be very costly and even suboptimal (if the planning horizon is not sufficiently large)



Assume
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$$\mathbb{E}[c(\boldsymbol{x})] = 1 - \underbrace{|\boldsymbol{I} + \boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{-\frac{1}{2}}}_{\in [0,1]} \underbrace{\exp(-\frac{1}{2}\boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top}(\boldsymbol{I} + \boldsymbol{\Sigma})^{-1}\boldsymbol{\mu})}_{\in [0,1]} \in [0,1]$$

• For large μ (far away from the target) the cost tends to 1



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- The cost is only 0 if the mean prediction hits the target (μ ≈ 0) and the prediction is certain (Σ ≈ 0)



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- For large μ (far away from the target) the cost tends to 1
- The cost is only 0 if the mean prediction hits the target (μ ≈ 0) and the prediction is certain (Σ ≈ 0)
- Large Σ can be good (especially if μ is also large)
- If $\mu \approx 0$ then large Σ is not good

Automatic Exploration



■ Far away from the target, uncertainty is favored

Automatic Exploration





■ Far away from the target, uncertainty is favored

■ Close to the target, uncertainty is discouraged

Automatic Exploration





■ Far away from the target, uncertainty is favored

- Close to the target, uncertainty is discouraged
- Saturating cost automatically deals with the exploration/exploitation trade-off (in some sense)

DEMO

- Probabilistic model: GP
- Deterministic model: Mean function of GP (still nonparametric)



DEMO

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- Deterministic model: Mean function of GP (still nonparametric)

Table: Average learning success with non-parametric transition models

	GP	"Deterministic" GP
Learning success	94.52%	0%

Deisenroth et al. (IEEE-TPAMI, 2015): Gaussian Processes for Data-Efficient Learning in Robotics and Control

DEMO

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Table: Average learning success with non-parametric transition models

	GP	"Deterministic" GP
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Reasons for failure of deterministic model:

- Model errors: Long-term predictions make absolutely no sense, and the predicted states are nowhere near the target
 No gradient signal
- No automatic exploration (model and policy are deterministic)
 Stochastic policy fixes this to some degree

Deisenroth et al. (IEEE-TPAMI, 2015): Gaussian Processes for Data-Efficient Learning in Robotics and Control



- Predictive error bars are useful for debugging (code, model, RL algorithm, ...)
- Learning with sparse rewards (get reward only in a tiny area around the goal state) can work, even in continuous state spaces (Deisenroth & Rasmussen, 2011)
- Use predictive uncertainty for **safe exploration** (e.g., Sui et al., 2015; Berkenkamp et al., 2017; Kamthe & Deisenroth, 2018)
- Use BO-type acquisition functions for exploration incentives (McAllister 2017)
- Meta reinforcement learning (Sæmundsson et al., 2018)

....



- Data-efficient RL is often critical when working with real-world systems
- Model-based RL is one way to accelerate learning
- Key: Probabilistic models reduce the effect of model errors
- "Faithful" uncertainty propagation leads to faster learning
- Classical quadratic losses are not good when working with uncertainty
- Saturating loss allows for automatic exploration/exploitation

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