Lecture 18 - Policy Optimization

Guiliang Liu

The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Shenzhen

DDA4230: Reinforcement Learning Course Page: [Click]

Policy Gradient in Episodic MDP

Policy Gradient Methods: Taking gradient (denoted as g) with respect to θ gives us

$$g = \mathbb{E}\left[r(\tau)\nabla_{\theta}\log\left(\sum_{t=0}^{T}P\left(s_{t+1}\mid s_{t}, a_{t}\right)\cdot\pi_{\theta}\left(a_{t}\mid s_{t}\right)\right)\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{t=0}^{T}r_{t}\nabla_{\theta}\log\pi_{\theta}\left(a_{t}\mid s_{t}\right)\right].$$

This gradient is unbiased and we do not need access to the dynamic model to compute this.



Policy Gradient in Stationary MDP

There are several different related expressions for the policy gradient, which have the form

$$g = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t \Psi_t
abla_{ heta} \log \pi_{ heta}\left(a_t \mid s_t
ight)
ight],$$

Policy Gradient in Stationary MDP

 $\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \Psi_t$ could be the following:

- 1. $\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t r_t$: the total reward of the trajectory Monta-Carlo;
- 2. $Q^{\pi}(s_t, a_t)$: the action value function Temporal Difference;
- 3. $\sum_{t'=t}^{\infty} \gamma^t r_{t'}$: the reward following action a_t Monta-Carlo;
- 4. $\sum_{t'=t}^{\infty} \gamma^t [r_{t'} b(s_t)]$: the reward following action a_t with a baseline Monta-Carlo;
- 5. $\sum_{t'=t}^{\infty} A^{\pi}(s_t, a_t)$: the advantage function Temporal Difference;
- 6. $\sum_{t'=t}^{\infty} r_t + \gamma V^{\pi}(s_{t+1}) V^{\pi}(s_t)$: the TD residual Temporal Difference.

The latter formulas use the definitions $A^{\pi}(s_t,a_t):=Q^{\pi}(s_t,a_t)-V^{\pi}(s_t)$, which is the advantage function.

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Motivation: The challenge of step size.

- In the classic supervised learning setting or in the optimization literature, having a
 bad step size may not be terrible. This is because the next update can partially
 correct the error in the previous steps.
- In policy optimization, when the step size is too far, we obtain a terrible policy.
 This indicates that the next batch of data will be collected under this terrible policy. Exploration could be exploratory, but updates should be more conservative.
- It becomes not clear how to recover short of going back and shrinking the step size.



One method of choosing the step size is by line search. The procedure is:

- 1. Calculate the initial loss (e.g., with Monte-Carlo estimation) and initialize the step size to be a large value;
- 2. Update the parameter with the gradients under the current step size can calculate the new loss;
- Decrease the value of step size until we have found a new loss that is less than the initial loss.

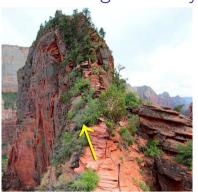
However, 1) it may be expensive to compute so many gradients, 2) this method ignores the quality of our gradients.

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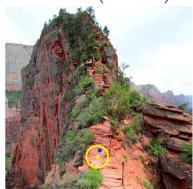
An alternative method is the trust region method.

Let us first denotes $P(\tau \mid \theta) = P(s_0) \cdot \prod_{t=1}^{T} P(s_{t+1} \mid s_t, a_t) \pi_{\theta}(a_t \mid s_t)$. Then the trust region method finds us the next parameter $\theta + \delta \theta$ by solving the following problem.

$$\label{eq:definition} \begin{array}{ll} \max_{\delta\theta} \ g^\top \delta\theta \\ \\ \text{subject to } d_{\mathsf{KL}}\left(P(\tau|\theta)||P(\tau|\theta+\delta\theta)\right) \leq \varepsilon \,, \end{array}$$



Line search (like gradient ascent)



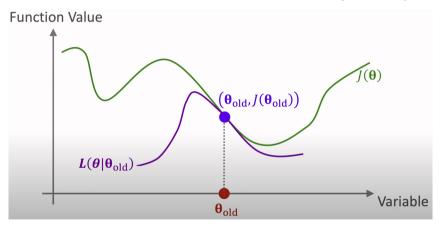
Trust region



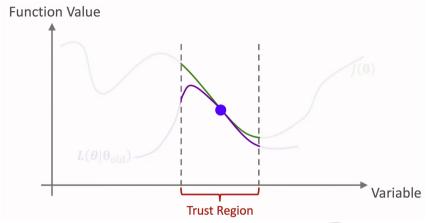
¹https://jonathan-hui.medium.com/



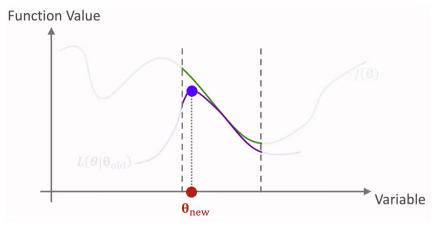
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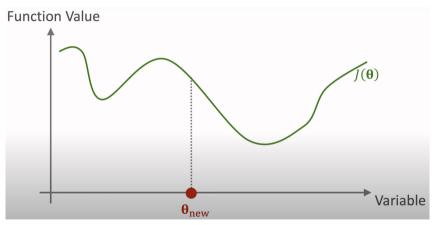














Using the expression of the KL divergence, we have

$$\begin{split} d_{\mathsf{KL}}(P(\tau;\theta) \| P(\tau;\theta+\delta\theta)) &= \sum_{\tau} P(\tau;\theta) \log \frac{P(\tau;\theta)}{P(\tau;\theta+\delta\theta)} \\ &= \sum_{\tau} P(\tau;\theta) \log \frac{P(s_0) \prod_{t=0}^{T-1} \pi_{\theta} (a_t \mid s_t) P(s_{t+1} \mid s_t, a_t)}{P(s_0) \prod_{t=0}^{T-1} \pi_{\theta+\delta\theta} (a_t \mid s_t) P(s_{t+1} \mid s_t, a_t)} \\ &= \sum_{\tau} P(\tau;\theta) \log \frac{\prod_{t=0}^{T-1} \pi_{\theta} (a_t \mid s_t)}{\prod_{t=0}^{T-1} \pi_{\theta} (a_t \mid s_t)}. \end{split}$$



With M samples, this term can be approximated by the sample average and we may rewrite the maximization problem to be

$$\begin{array}{ll} \max\limits_{\delta\theta} \ \ g^{\top}\delta\theta \\ \text{subject to} \ \ \frac{1}{M} \sum_{(s,a)} \log \frac{\pi_{\theta}\left(a \mid s\right)}{\pi_{\theta+\delta\theta}\left(a \mid s\right)} \leq \varepsilon \,. \end{array}$$

This maximization problem with the constraint can be hard to enforce given complicated policies like neural networks.

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We would need to approximate the KL divergence further for a feasible objective. This is done through second-order approximation with fisher matrix F_{θ} .

$$egin{aligned} d_{\mathsf{KL}}\left(\pi_{ heta}(a \,|\, s) \| \pi_{ heta + \delta heta}(a \,|\, s)
ight) &pprox \delta heta^ op \left(\sum_{(s,a) \sim heta}
abla_{ heta} \log \pi_{ heta}(a \,|\, s)
abla_{ heta} \log \pi_{ heta}(a \,|\, s)^ op
ight) \delta heta \ &= \delta heta^ op F_{ heta} \delta heta \,. \end{aligned}$$

Our problem is simplified to linear objective quadratic constrained optimization:

$$\max_{\delta\theta} \ \ g^\top \delta\theta$$
 subject to $\delta\theta^\top F_\theta \delta\theta \leq arepsilon$,



The above linear objective quadratic constrained optimization problem could be solved analytically using the Karush-Kuhn-Tucker (KKT) conditions. Thus the final TRPO objective is given as

$$\begin{array}{l} \textit{Surrogate loss}: \max_{\pi} L(\pi) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi_{\text{old}}} \left[\frac{\pi(\textit{a} \mid \textit{s})}{\pi_{\text{old}}(\textit{a} \mid \textit{s})} A^{\pi_{\text{old}}}(\textit{s}, \textit{a}) \right] \\ \text{Constraint: } \mathbb{E}_{\pi_{\text{old}}} \left[d_{\text{KL}} \left(\pi \| \pi_{\text{old}} \right) \right] \leq \varepsilon \,, \end{array}$$

The PPO method enforces a "soft" constraint by adding a proximal value to the objective function. The objective is the following

$$L(\pi) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi_{\mathrm{old}}} \left[rac{\pi_{ heta} \left(\left. a_{t} \mid s_{t}
ight)}{\pi_{ heta_{\mathrm{old}}} \left(\left. a_{t} \mid s_{t}
ight)} A^{\pi_{\mathrm{old}}}(s, a) - eta \, d_{\mathsf{KL}} \left(\pi_{ heta_{\mathrm{old}}} \right., \pi_{ heta}
ight)
ight].$$

The β can be fixed or adaptively chosen (or simply set to 0).

The PPO method enforces a "soft" constraint by adding a proximal value to the objective function. The objective is the following

$$L(\pi) = \mathbb{E}_{\pi_{ ext{old}}} \left[rac{\pi_{ heta} \left(\left. a_{t} \mid s_{t}
ight)}{\pi_{ heta_{ ext{old}}} \left(\left. a_{t} \mid s_{t}
ight)} A^{\pi_{ ext{old}}}(s, a) - eta \, d_{ ext{KL}} \left(\pi_{ heta_{ ext{old}}} \left. , \pi_{ heta}
ight)
ight] \, .$$

The β can be fixed or adaptively chosen (or simply set to 0). One reason why one may wish to adaptively choose β is because it can be hard to find one β that performs well across different problems.

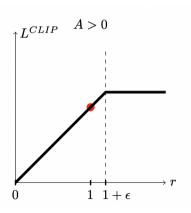
The policy's performance can fluctuate greatly when $\rho_t(\theta) = \frac{\pi_{\theta}(a_t|s_t)}{\pi_{\theta_{\text{old}}}(a_t|s_t)}$ changes too quickly. Thus PPO limits ρ to a range of $[1-\varepsilon,1+\varepsilon]$ such that no abrupt updates to the policy will be made. The surrogate objective is then written as

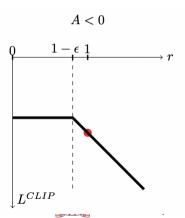
$$L^{CLIP}(\pi) = \mathbb{E}\left[\min\{\rho_t(\theta)A(s,a), \text{clip}(\rho_t(\theta), 1-\varepsilon, 1+\varepsilon)A(s,a)\}\right].$$

We take the minimum of the constrained and unconstrained objectives such that our final objective is a lower bound of the unclipped objective. With this scheme, we only ignore the change in probability ratio when it would make the objective improve, and we include it when it makes the objective worse.

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In the following plots, r denotes the rate s.t. $r = \rho_t(\theta) = \frac{\pi_{\theta}(a_t|s_t)}{\pi_{\theta_{\text{old}}}(a_t|s_t)}$





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In the following algorithm, g denotes the clipping function.

Algorithm 1 PPO-Clip

- 1: Input: initial policy parameters θ_0 , initial value function parameters ϕ_0
- 2: for k = 0, 1, 2, ... do
- 3: Collect set of trajectories $\mathcal{D}_k = \{\tau_i\}$ by running policy $\pi_k = \pi(\theta_k)$ in the environment.
- 4: Compute rewards-to-go \hat{R}_t .
- Compute advantage estimates, Â_t (using any method of advantage estimation) based on the current value function V_{φ_t}.
- 6: Update the policy by maximizing the PPO-Clip objective:

$$\theta_{k+1} = \arg\max_{\theta} \frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}_k|T} \sum_{\tau \in \mathcal{D}_k} \sum_{t=0}^{T} \min\left(\frac{\pi_{\theta}(a_t|s_t)}{\pi_{\theta_k}(a_t|s_t)} A^{\pi_{\theta_k}}(s_t, a_t), \ g(\epsilon, A^{\pi_{\theta_k}}(s_t, a_t))\right),$$

typically via stochastic gradient ascent with Adam.

7: Fit value function by regression on mean-squared error:

$$\phi_{k+1} = \arg\min_{\phi} \frac{1}{|\mathcal{D}_k|T} \sum_{\tau \in \mathcal{D}_k} \sum_{t=0}^{T} \left(V_{\phi}(s_t) - \hat{R}_t \right)^2,$$

typically via some gradient descent algorithm.

8: end for



Proximal Policy Optimization Algorithms

John Schulman, Filip Wolski, Prafulla Dhariwal, Alec Radford, Oleg Klimov OpenAI {joschu, filip, prafulla, alec, oleg}@openai.com

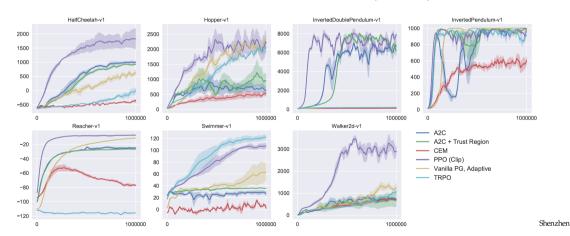


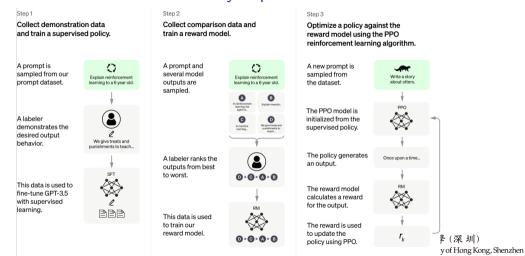
algorithm	avg. normalized sco	ore
No clipping or penalty	-0.	39
Clipping, $\epsilon = 0.1$	0.	.76
Clipping, $\epsilon = 0.2$	0.	82
Clipping, $\epsilon = 0.3$	0.	.70
Adaptive KL $d_{\text{targ}} = 0.003$	0.	.68
Adaptive KL $d_{\text{targ}} = 0.01$	0.	74
Adaptive KL $d_{\text{targ}} = 0.03$	0.	.71
Fixed KL, $\beta = 0.3$	0.	.62
Fixed KL, $\beta = 1$.	0.	.71
Fixed KL, $\beta = 3$.	0.	.72
Fixed KL, $\beta = 10$.	0.	.69

Table 1: Results from continuous control benchmark. Average normalized scores (over 21 runs of the algorithm, on 7 environments) for each algorithm / hyperparameter setting . β was initialized at 1.

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Results of robot control tasks in the MuJoCo environments (click me).





GRPO is an improvement over PPO, particularly in large-scale or structured sampling setups such as those used in LLM alignment training.

Aspect	PPO	GRPO
Reward Type	Absolute scalar reward	Relative (group or rank-based) reward
Advantage Source	Individual trajectory	Within-group comparison
Update Mechanism	Clipped policy ratio	Clipped group-relative policy ratio
Primary Use Case	General RL tasks	Preference-based LLM alignment



GRPO does not rely on the computation of Vthe alue function.

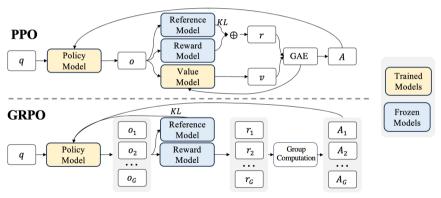


Figure 4 | Demonstration of PPO and our GRPO. GRPO foregoes the value model, instead estimating the baseline from group scores, significantly reducing training resources.

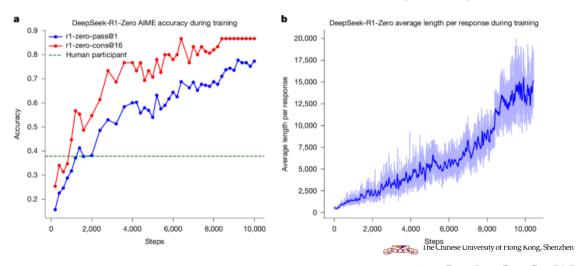
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$$\begin{split} L^{\text{GRPO}}(\theta) &= \mathbb{E}_{g \sim \mathcal{G}} \left[\frac{1}{|g|} \sum_{i \in g} \min \left(r_i(\theta) \, \hat{A}_i^{(g)}, \, \text{clip} \big(r_i(\theta), 1 - \varepsilon, 1 + \varepsilon \big) \, \hat{A}_i^{(g)} \right) \right] \\ \hat{A}_i^{(g)} &= f_{\text{rel}}(R_i, \, \{R_j\}_{j \in g}) = \frac{\exp(\beta \, R_i)}{\sum_{j \in g} \exp(\beta \, R_j)} - \frac{1}{|g|} \end{split}$$

Algorithm 1 Iterative Group Relative Policy Optimization

```
Input initial policy model \pi_{\theta_{\text{init}}}; reward models r_{\omega}; task prompts \mathcal{D}; hyperparameters \varepsilon, \beta, \mu
 1: policy model \pi_{\theta} \leftarrow \pi_{\theta_{\text{init}}}
 2: for iteration = 1, ..., I do
          reference model \pi_{ref} \leftarrow \pi_{\theta}
 3:
          for step = 1, \ldots, M do
 4:
              Sample a batch \mathcal{D}_b from \mathcal{D}
 5:
               Update the old policy model \pi_{\theta_{old}} \leftarrow \pi_{\theta}
 6:
              Sample G outputs \{o_i\}_{i=1}^G \sim \pi_{\theta_{old}}(\cdot \mid q) for each question q \in \mathcal{D}_b
              Compute rewards \{r_i\}_{i=1}^G for each sampled output o_i by running r_{\omega}
 8:
              Compute \hat{A}_{i,t} for the t-th token of o_i through group relative advantage estimation.
 9:
               for GRPO iteration = 1, \dots, u do
10:
11:
                    Update the policy model \pi_{\theta} by maximizing the GRPO objective (Equation 21)
12:
          Update r_{\alpha} through continuous training using a replay mechanism.
```

Output π_{θ}



Question and Answering (Q&A)



