# IMPALA: Scalable Distributed Deep-RL with Importance Weighted Actor-Learner Architectures

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## Multi-task DeepRL

- General agents that are able to do many tasks simultaneously.
- Going from one network per task to one network for tens of tasks with many challenges.
- Data Efficiencey- Hundreds of millions of frames for a single task.
- Stability: Do we need task-specific hyperparameters?
- Scale: More complicated architecture and slower to train.
- Task Interference: Will multiple tasks cause interference or positive transfer.

#### RL Formulation

- Agent interacting with the environment. At each step t:
  - Agent takes action  $a_t$
  - 2 Environment returns reward  $r_{t+1}$  and state  $s_{t+1}$
- Maximize total future reward

$$r_{t+1} + \gamma r_{t+2} + \gamma^2 r_{t+3} + \cdots$$

• For a policy  $\pi$  the action value function Q:

$$Q^{\pi}(s, a) = \mathbb{E}[r_t + \gamma r_{t+1} + \gamma^2 r_{t+2} + \dots \mid s_t = s, a_t = a]$$
$$= \mathbb{E}[r_t + \gamma Q^{\pi}(s_{t+1}, a_{t+1}) \mid s_t = s, a_t = a]$$

• Q represents how good an action a is given state s.

#### Optimal Value Functions

• An optimal value function give the maximal achievable value:

$$Q^*(s, a) = \max_{\pi} Q^{\pi}(s, a)$$

• Given an optimal value function we can get an optimal policy:

$$\pi^*(s) = \arg\max_{a} Q^*(s, a)$$

• Optimal value functions also obay a Bellman Equation.

$$Q^*(s_t, a_t) = \mathbb{E}[r_t + \gamma \max_{s'} Q^*(s_{t+1}, a')]$$

# DQN

- High-level idea is to make Q-learning look like supervised learning
- Optimize the Q-learning loss with minibatch SGD
- Apply Q-learning updates on batches of past experience instead of online
  - Experience replay
  - 2 Previously used for better data efficiency
  - 3 Makes the data distribution more stationary
- Use an older set of weights to compute the targets, keeps the target function from changing too quickly

$$L_i(\theta_i) = \mathbb{E}_{s,a,s',r\sim D}(r + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s', a'; \theta_i^-) - Q(s, a; \theta_i))^2$$

## Policy Gradient Methods

• An alternatively class of methods directly optimize the expected return of a policy:

$$\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) = \nabla E[r_1 + \gamma r_2 + \gamma^2 r_3 + \cdots]$$

• For all differentiable policies

$$\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) = E[\nabla_{\theta} log \pi_{\theta}(a \mid s) Q^{\pi}(s, a)]$$

where expectations is over states and actions.

• There is an sample based easy unbiased estimation (REINFORCE)

$$\nabla_{\theta} log \pi_{\theta}(a|s) R_t$$

where

$$R_t = r_t + \gamma r_{t+1} + \gamma^2 r_{t+2} + \cdots$$

- Start with a guess for each Q(s, a)
- Interact with the environment using some policy based on Q collecting tuples of experience  $\{s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t+1}, \cdots\}, e.g.\varepsilon$ -greedy.
- Apply updates based on the Bellman equation

$$Q(s,a) \leftarrow Q(s,a) + (r + \gamma \max_{a} Q(s',a') - Q(s,a))$$

• Q(s, a) is guaranteed to converge to the optimal value function  $Q^*$  under some reasonable assumptions.

# Asynchronous Advantage Actor-Critic (A3C)

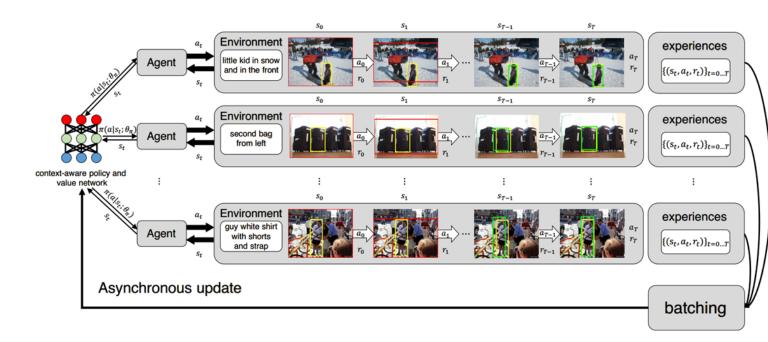
- The agent learns a policy and a state value function
- Uses bootstrapped n-step returns to reduce variance over REINFORCE with a baseline
- The policy gradient multiplied by an estimate of the advantage. Similar to Generalized Advantage Estimation (Schulman et al. 2015)

$$\nabla_{\theta} log \pi(a_t \mid s_t, \theta) (\sum_{k=0}^{N} \gamma^k r_{t+k} + \gamma^{N+1} V(s_{t+N+1}) - V(s_t))$$

• The critic/value function is trained with n-step TD learning. i.e. by minimizing the MSE

$$\left(\sum_{k=0}^{N} \gamma^{k} r_{t+k} + \gamma^{N+1} V(s_{t+N+1;\theta^{-}}) - V(s_{t};\theta)\right)^{2}$$

### Asynchronous Advantage Actor-Critic (A3C)

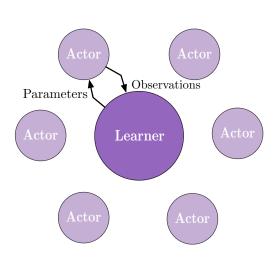


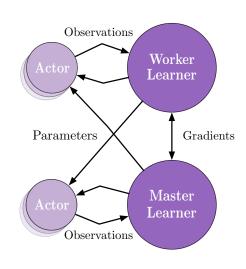
## Scaling Up Distributed RL

- Our goal was to scale up A3C since it has more of the desired properties of a good multi-task agent
- Adding more actor/learners does not scale
- Distributed experience collection is good
- Communicating gradients is bad

#### A Better Architecture

- It is better to use a centralized learner(s) and distribute the acting
- Actors receive parameters but send observations
- The centralized learner can parallelize as much of the forward and backward passes as possible





### Decoupled Backward Pass

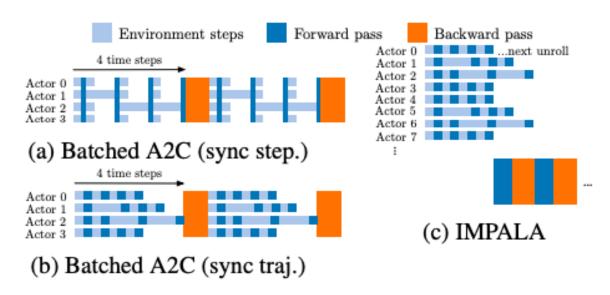


Figure 2. Timeline for one unroll with 4 steps using different architectures. Strategies shown in (a) and (b) can lead to low GPU utilisation due to rendering time variance within a batch. In (a), the actors are synchronised after every step. In (b) after every n steps. IMPALA (c) decouples acting from learning.

## Decoupled Backward Pass

- It is more efficient to decouple the backward pass
- Actors generate trajectories/unrolls and place them into a queue
- The learner continuously dequeues batches of trajectories and performs parameter updates
- Key Challenge:
  - Decoupling the backwards pass requires off-policy learning
  - 2 Actor parameters can lag by several updates
- POD architecture-Parallel Off-policy Decoupled

#### V-Trace

- The experience generated by the actors can lag behind the learner's policy
- We introduce a principled off-policy advantage actor critic called V-Trace
- The V-Trace corrected estimate for the value  $V(x_s)$  is:

$$v_s \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} V(x_s) + \sum_{t=s}^{s+n-1} \gamma^{t-s} \left( \prod_{i=s}^{t-1} c_i \right) \rho_t (r_t + \gamma V(x_{t+1}) - V(x_t))$$

where 
$$\rho_t \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \min \left( \bar{\rho}, \frac{\pi(a_t|x_t)}{\mu(a_t|x_t)} \right)$$
 and  $c_i \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \min \left( \bar{c}, \frac{\pi(a_i|x_i)}{\mu(a_i|x_i)} \right)$ 

• The V-Trace update for the value function is:

$$(v_s - V_\theta(x_s))\nabla_\theta V_\theta(x_s)$$

• The V-Treace update for the policy is:

$$\rho_s \nabla_\omega \log \pi_\omega(a_s|x_s) (r_s + \gamma v_{s+1} - V_\theta(x_s))$$

- In the on-policy case reduces to the on-policy n-steps Bellman target.
- V-trace targets can be computed recursively:

$$v_s = V(x_s) + \delta_s V + \gamma c_s (v_{s+1} - V(x_{s+1})).$$

• Like in Retrace( $\lambda$ ), we can also consider an additional discounting parameter  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$  in the definition of V-trace by setting  $c_i = \lambda \min \left(\bar{c}, \frac{\pi(a_i|x_i)}{\mu(a_i|x_i)}\right)$ . In the on-policy case, when  $n = \infty$ , V-trace then reduces to  $\text{TD}(\lambda)$ .

$$\frac{1}{\alpha} \Delta V_t^{\lambda}(s_t) = R_t^{\lambda} - V_t(s_t) 
= -V_t(s_t) + (1 - \lambda) \lambda^0 [r_{t+1} + \gamma V_t(s_{t+1})] 
+ (1 - \lambda) \lambda^1 [r_{t+1} + \gamma r_{t+2} + \gamma^2 V_t(s_{t+2})] 
+ (1 - \lambda) \lambda^2 [r_{t+1} + \gamma r_{t+2} + \gamma^2 r_{t+3} + \gamma^3 V_t(s_{t+3})]$$

$$\begin{split} \frac{1}{\alpha} \Delta V_t^{\lambda}(s_t) &= -V_t(s_t) \\ &+ (\gamma \lambda)^0 \left[ r_{t+1} + \gamma V_t(s_{t+1}) - \gamma \lambda V_t(s_{t+1}) \right] \\ &+ (\gamma \lambda)^1 \left[ r_{t+2} + \gamma V_t(s_{t+2}) - \gamma \lambda V_t(s_{t+2}) \right] \\ &+ (\gamma \lambda)^2 \left[ r_{t+3} + \gamma V_t(s_{t+3}) - \gamma \lambda V_t(s_{t+3}) \right] \\ &\vdots \\ &= (\gamma \lambda)^0 \left[ r_{t+1} + \gamma V_t(s_{t+1}) - V_t(s_t) \right] \\ &+ (\gamma \lambda)^1 \left[ r_{t+2} + \gamma V_t(s_{t+2}) - V_t(s_{t+1}) \right] \\ &+ (\gamma \lambda)^2 \left[ r_{t+3} + \gamma V_t(s_{t+3}) - V_t(s_{t+2}) \right] \end{split}$$

Figure 1

- The weight  $\rho_t$  appears in the definition of the temporal difference  $\delta_t V$  and defines the fixed point of this update rule. The weights  $c_i$  are similar to the "trace cutting" coefficients in Retrace.
- Notice that (??) estimates the policy gradient for  $\pi_{\bar{\rho}}$  which is the policy evaluated by the V-trace algorithm when using a truncation level  $\bar{\rho}$ . However assuming the bias  $V^{\pi_{\bar{\rho}}} V^{\pi}$  is small (e.g. if  $\bar{\rho}$  is large enough) then we can expect  $q_s$  to provide us with a good estimate of  $Q^{\pi}(x_s, a_s)$ .

$$\mathbb{E}[q_{s}|x_{s}, a_{s}] = r_{s} + \gamma \mathbb{E}[V^{\pi_{\bar{\rho}}}(x_{s+1}) + \delta_{s+1}V^{\pi_{\bar{\rho}}} + \gamma c_{s+1}\delta_{s+2}V^{\pi_{\bar{\rho}}} + \dots]$$

$$= r_{s} + \gamma \mathbb{E}[V^{\pi_{\bar{\rho}}}(x_{s+1})]$$

$$= Q^{\pi_{\bar{\rho}}}(x_{s}, a_{s})$$

whereas

$$\mathbb{E}[v_{s}|x_{s}, a_{s}] = V^{\pi_{\bar{\rho}}}(x_{s}) + \rho_{s}(r_{s} + \gamma \mathbb{E}[V^{\pi_{\bar{\rho}}}(x_{s+1})] - V^{\pi_{\bar{\rho}}}(x_{s})) + \gamma c_{s} \delta_{s+1} V^{\pi_{\bar{\rho}}}$$

$$= V^{\pi_{\bar{\rho}}}(x_{s}) + \rho_{s}(r_{s} + \gamma \mathbb{E}[V^{\pi_{\bar{\rho}}}(x_{s+1})] - V^{\pi_{\bar{\rho}}}(x_{s}))$$

$$= V^{\pi_{\bar{\rho}}}(x_{s})(1 - \rho_{s}) + \rho_{s}Q^{\pi_{\bar{\rho}}}(x_{s}, a_{s}),$$

which is different from  $Q^{\pi_{\bar{\rho}}}(x_s, a_s)$  when  $V^{\pi_{\bar{\rho}}}(x_s) \neq Q^{\pi_{\bar{\rho}}}(x_s, a_s)$ .

Define the V-trace operator  $\mathcal{R}$ :

$$\mathcal{R}V(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} V(x) + \mathbb{E}_{\mu} \Big[ \sum_{t>0} \gamma^t (c_0 \dots c_{t-1}) \rho_t (r_t + \gamma V(x_{t+1}) - V(x_t)) \Big]$$

#### Theorem

Let  $\rho_t = \min\left(\bar{\rho}, \frac{\pi(a_t|x_t)}{\mu(a_t|x_t)}\right)$  and  $c_t = \min\left(\bar{c}, \frac{\pi(a_t|x_t)}{\mu(a_t|x_t)}\right)$  be truncated importance sampling weights, with  $\bar{\rho} \geq \bar{c}$ . Assume that there exists  $\beta \in (0,1]$  such that  $\mathbb{E}_{\mu}\rho_0 \geq \beta$ . Then the operator  $\mathcal{R}$  defined by (2) has a unique fixed point  $V^{\pi_{\bar{\rho}}}$ , which is the value function of the policy  $\pi_{\bar{\rho}}$  defined by

$$\pi_{\bar{\rho}}(a|x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\min\left(\bar{\rho}\mu(a|x), \pi(a|x)\right)}{\sum_{b \in A} \min\left(\bar{\rho}\mu(b|x), \pi(b|x)\right)},\tag{3}$$

Furthermore,  $\mathcal{R}$  is a  $\eta$ -contraction mapping in sup-norm, with

$$\eta \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \gamma^{-1} - (\gamma^{-1} - 1) \mathbb{E}_{\mu} \left[ \sum_{t \ge 0} \gamma^{t} \left( \prod_{i=0}^{t-2} c_{i} \right) \rho_{t-1} \right] \le 1 - (1 - \gamma) \beta < 1.$$

First notice that we can rewrite  $\mathcal{R}$  as

$$\mathcal{R}V(x) = (1 - \mathbb{E}_{\mu}\rho_0)V(x) + \mathbb{E}_{\mu}$$

$$\left[ \sum_{t\geq 0} \gamma^t \Big( \prod_{s=0}^{t-1} c_s \Big) \Big( \rho_t r_t + \gamma [\rho_t - c_t \rho_{t+1}] V(x_{t+1}) \Big) \right].$$

Thus

$$\mathcal{R}V_1(x) - \mathcal{R}V_2(x) = \mathbb{E}_{\mu} \left[ \sum_{t \geq 0} \gamma^t \left( \prod_{s=0}^{t-2} c_s \right) \left[ \underbrace{\rho_{t-1} - c_{t-1} \rho_t}_{\alpha_t} \right] \left[ V_1(x_t) - V_2(x_t) \right] \right],$$

#### Theorem

Assume a tabular representation, i.e. the state and action spaces are finite. Consider a set of trajectories, with the  $k^{th}$  trajectory  $x_0, a_0, r_0, x_1, a_1, r_1, \ldots$  generated by following  $\mu$ :  $a_t \sim \mu(\cdot|x_t)$ . For each state  $x_s$  along this trajectory, update

$$V_{k+1}(x_s) = V_k(x_s) + \alpha_k(x_s) \sum_{t \ge s} \gamma^{t-s} (c_s \dots c_{t-1}) \rho_t (r_t + \gamma V_k(x_{t+1}) - V_k(x_t))$$

with  $c_i = \min(\bar{c}, \frac{\pi(a_i|x_i)}{\mu(a_i|x_i)})$ ,  $\rho_i = \min(\bar{\rho}, \frac{\pi(a_i|x_i)}{\mu(a_i|x_i)})$ ,  $\bar{\rho} \geq \bar{c}$ . Assume that (1) all states are visited infinitely often, and (2) the stepsizes obey the usual Robbins-Munro conditions: for each state x,  $\sum_k \alpha_k(x) = \infty$ ,  $\sum_k \alpha_k^2(x) < \infty$ . Then  $V_k \to V^{\pi_{\bar{\rho}}}$  almost surely.

#### Network Architecture

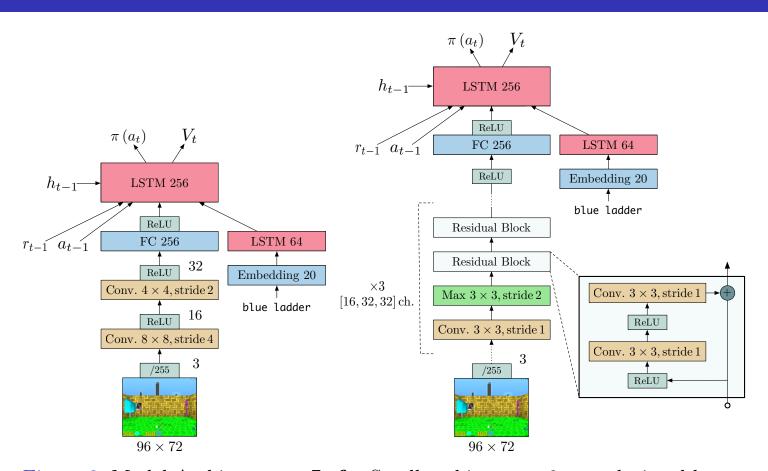


Figure 2: Model Architectures. Left: Small architecture, 2 convolutional layers and 1.2 million parameters. Right: Large architecture, 15 convolutional layers Huizhuo Yuan (Peking University)

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## Throughput Comparison

| Architecture                               | CPUs | $\mathrm{GPUs^1}$ | $\mathrm{FPS}^2$ |        |
|--------------------------------------------|------|-------------------|------------------|--------|
| Single-Machine                             |      |                   | Task 1           | Task 2 |
| A3C 32 workers                             | 64   | 0                 | 6.5K             | 9K     |
| Batched A2C (sync step)                    | 48   | 0                 | 9K               | 5K     |
| Batched A2C (sync step)                    | 48   | 1                 | 13K              | 5.5K   |
| Batched A2C (sync traj.)                   | 48   | 0                 | 16K              | 17.5K  |
| Batched A2C (dyn. batch)                   | 48   | 1                 | 16K              | 13K    |
| IMPALA 48 actors                           | 48   | 0                 | 17K              | 20.5K  |
| IMPALA (dyn. batch) 48 actors <sup>3</sup> | 48   | 1                 | 21K              | 24K    |
| Distributed                                |      |                   |                  |        |
| A3C                                        | 200  | 0                 | 46K              | 50K    |
| IMPALA                                     | 150  | 1                 | $80\mathrm{K}$   |        |
| IMPALA (optimised)                         | 375  | 1                 | $200\mathrm{K}$  |        |
| IMPALA (optimised) batch 128               | 500  | 1                 | $250\mathrm{K}$  |        |

Nvidia P100 <sup>2</sup> In frames/sec (4 times the agent steps due to action repeat). <sup>3</sup> Limited by amount of rendering possible on a single machine.

### Single Task Results

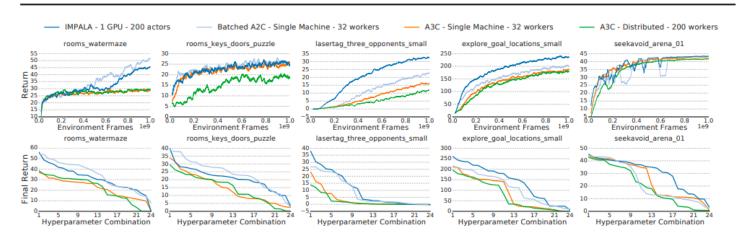
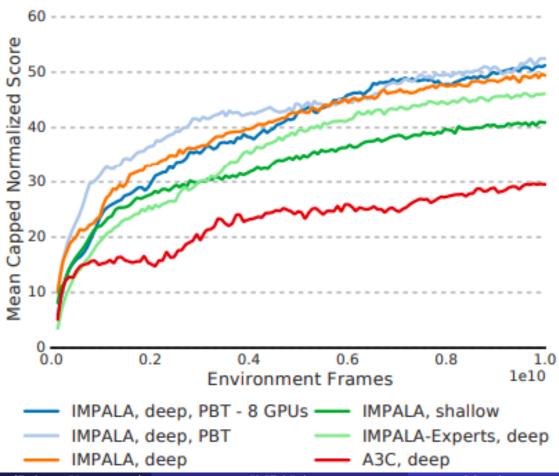


Figure 4. **Top Row:** Single task training on 5 DeepMind Lab tasks. Each curve is the mean of the best 3 runs based on final return. IMPALA achieves better performance than A3C. **Bottom Row:** Stability across hyperparameter combinations sorted by the final performance across different hyperparameter combinations. IMPALA is consistently more stable than A3C.

#### DMLab-30 Multi-Task



#### DMLab-30 Multi-Task Results



#### Conclusions

- New distributed RL architecture allows for stable learning with very high throughput
- Especially well-suited to the multi-task deep RL setting
- Synchronous batch learning is more robust to hyperparameters than async SGD
- Multi-task RL on the DMLab-30:
  - Positive transfer
  - 2 Deep ResNets finally outperforms 3 layer ConvNets (Atari was too simple)