Enforcing Hard Constraints with Soft Barriers: Safe Reinforcement Learning in Unknown Stochastic Environments

Abstract

It is quite challenging to ensure the safety of reinforcement learning (RL) agents in an unknown and stochastic environment under hard constraints that require the system state not to reach certain specified unsafe regions. Many popular safe RL methods such as those based on the Constrained Markov Decision Process (CMDP) paradigm formulate safety violations in a cost function and try to constrain the expectation of cumulative cost under a threshold. However, it is often difficult to effectively capture and enforce hard reachability-based safety constraints indirectly with such constraints on safety violation cost. In this work, we leverage the notion of barrier function to explicitly encode the hard safety constraints, and given that the environment is unknown, relax them to our design of *generative-model-based soft barrier functions*. Based on such soft barriers, we propose a safe RL approach that can jointly learn the environment and optimize the control policy, while effectively avoiding the unsafe regions with safety probability optimization. Experiments on a set of examples demonstrate that our approach can effectively enforce hard safety constraints and significantly outperform CMDP-based baseline methods in system safe rate measured via simulations.

1 Introduction

Reinforcement learning (RL) (Sutton & Barto, 2018) has shown promising successes in learning complex policies for games (Silver et al., 2018), robots (Zhao et al., 2020), and recommender systems (Afsar et al., 2021), by maximizing a cumulative reward objective as the optimization goal. However, real-world safety-critical applications, such as autonomous cars and unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs), still hesitate to adopt RL policies due to safety concerns. In particular, these applications often have hard safety constraints that require the system state not reach certain specified unsafe regions, e.g., autonomous cars not deviating into adjacent lanes or UAVs not colliding with trees. And it is very challenging to learn a policy via RL that can meet such hard safety constraints, especially when the environment is stochastic and unknown.

In the literature, the Constrained Markov Decision Process (CMDP) (Altman, 1999) is a popular paradigm for addressing RL safety. Common CMDP-based methods encode safety constraints through a cost function of safety violations, and reduce the policy search space to where the expectation of cumulative discounted cost is less than a threshold. And various RL algorithms are proposed to adaptively solve CMDP through the primal-dual approach for the Lagrangian problem of CMDP. However, it is often hard for CMDP-based methods to enforce reachability-based hard safety constraints (i.e., system state not reaching unsafe regions) by setting *indirect* constraints on the expectation of cumulative cost. In particular, while reachability-based safety constraints are defined on the system state at each time point (i.e., each point on the trajectory), the CMDP constraints only enforce the cumulative behavior. In other words, the cost penalty on the system visiting the unsafe regions at certain time point may be offset by the low cost at other times. There is a recent CMDP approach addressing hard safety constraints by using the indicator function for encoding failure probability (Wagener et al., 2021), but it requires a safe back-up policy for intervention, which is difficult to achieve in unknown environments.

On the other hand, current control-theoretical approaches for safe RL often try to leverage formal methods to handle hard safety constraints, e.g., by establishing safety guarantees through barrier functions or control barrier functions (Luo & Ma, 2021), or by shielding mechanisms based on reachability analysis to check whether the system may enter the unsafe regions within a time horizon (Bastani et al., 2021). However, these approaches either require explicit known system models for barrier or shielding construction, or an initial safe policy to generate safe trajectory data in a deterministic environment. They cannot be applied to our cases of unknown stochastic evironments.

To overcome the above challenges, we propose a safe RL framework by encoding the hard safety constraints via the learning of a *generative-model-based soft barrier function*. Specifically, we formulate and solve a novel bi-level optimization problem to learn the policy with joint soft barrier function learning, generative modeling, and reward optimization. The soft barrier function provides a guidance for avoiding unsafe regions based on safety probability analysis and optimization. The generative model accesses the trajectory data from the environment-policy closed-loop system with stochastic differential equation (SDE) representation to learn the dynamics and stochasticity of the environment. And we further optimize the policy by maximizing the total discounted reward of the sampled synthetic trajectories from the generative model.

Figure 1: An RL-based robot navigation example that shows the difference between our approach and CMDP-based ones in encoding the hard safety constraints.

This joint training framework is fully differentiable and can be efficiently solved via the gradients. Compared to CMDP-based methods, our approach more directly encodes the hard safety constraints along each point of the agent trajectory through the soft barrier function, as shown in Figure 1. While given the unknown stochastic environment, our approach cannot provide a hard barrier and hence no deterministic safety guarantee, experimental results demonstrate that in simulations, ours can significantly outperform the CMDP-based baselines in system safe rate.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces related works, Section 3 presents our approach, including the bi-level optimization formulation, our safe RL algorithm with joint generative modeling, soft barrier function learning, and policy optimization to solve the formulation, and theoretical analysis of safety probability for our approach. Section 4 shows the experimental results and Section 5 concludes the paper.

2 RELATED WORK

Safe RL by CMDP: CMDP-based methods encode the safety violation as a cost function and set constraints on the expectation of cumulative discounted total cost. The primal-dual approaches have been widely adopted to solve the Lagrangian problem of constrained policy optimization, such as PDO (Chow et al., 2017), OPDOP (Ding et al., 2021), CPPO (Stooke et al., 2020), FOCOPS (Zhang et al., 2020), and CRPO (Xu et al., 2021). Other works leverage the Lyapunov function to solve the CMDP (Chow et al., 2018) or add a safety layer for the safety constraint (Dalal et al., 2018). However, the constraints in CMDP cannot directly encode the hard reachability-based safety properties, which hinders its application to many safety-critical systems. A recent CMDP-based work uses the indicator function for encoding failure probability and addressing hard safety constriants, but it requires a safe backup policy for intervention (Wagener et al., 2021).

Safe RL by Formal Methods: Formal analysis and verification techniques have been proposed to enforce the system not reach unsafe regions. Some works develop shielding mechanisms with a backup policy based on reachability analysis (Shao et al., 2021; Li & Bastani, 2020; Bastani et al., 2021). Other works adopt (control) barrier functions or (control) Lyapunov functions for provable safety in RL (Emam et al., 2021; Choi et al., 2020; Cheng et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2022; Ma et al., 2021; Luo & Ma, 2021). Moreover, recent work (Yu et al., 2022) adopts reachability analysis with CMDP to compute safe feasible sets while optimizing the policy. However, these methods do not

Figure 2: The overview of our safe RL framework based on a generative-model-based soft barrier function. The real environment and generative model share the learning policy and the generative model is abstracted as a discrete-time stochastic differential equation.

apply to our setting, where the environment is uncertain and stochastic without explicit dynamics, backup safe policy, or human intervention.

Barrier Function for Safety: Barrier function is introduced as a safety certificate afflicted to the control policy for deterministic and stochastic systems (Prajna & Jadbabaie, 2004; Prajna et al., 2004). In classical control, finding a barrier function is time-consuming and requires a lot of manual effort, where a common idea is to relax the conditions of barrier function into optimization formulations such as linear programming (Yang et al., 2016), quadratic programming (Ames et al., 2016), and sum-of-square programming (Wang et al., 2022). However, these optimization-based approaches can hardly scale to high-dimensional systems. To this end, recent works have shown great promise in jointly training barrier function and safe policy by neural network representation for better scalability (Qin et al., 2021). Our approach leverages the paradigm of barrier function, but develops the concept of soft barrier to address unknown stochastic environments.

RL with Generative Model: Previous works of generative-model-based RL mainly focus on sample efficiency and policy optimization for the total expected return (Agarwal et al., 2020b; Li et al., 2020a; Tirinzoni et al., 2020). Some works (HasanzadeZonuzy et al., 2021; Maeda et al., 2021) address safe RL by CMDP with a generative model, but only solve the tabular discrete state and action space. Besides policy optimization, the generative model in our framework also plays an important role in building a soft barrier function to facilitate the probabilistic safety analysis and optimization.

3 OUR APPROACH

In this section, we present our framework for safe RL in unknown stochastic environment that enforces hard safety constraints with soft barrier functions. In Section 3.1, we present our bi-level optimization formulation for the problem, which maximizes a total expected return while trying to avoid unsafe regions. Specifically, we encode the hard safety constraints with a novel generative-model-based soft barrier function in the lower problem and maximize the performance with generative model learning in the upper problem. We then present our safe RL algorithm to solve the bi-level optimization formulation, by jointly learning the generative model (Section 3.2), soft barrier function (Section 3.3), and policy optimization (Section 3.4) via first-order gradient, as shown in Figure 2. We conduct theoretical analysis for safety probability of the learned policy in Section 3.5.

3.1 BILEVEL OPTIMIZATION PROBLEM FORMULATION FOR SAFE RL

We assume that the environment can be abstracted as a finite-horizon continuous MDP $\mathcal{M} \sim (\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}, r, \gamma, \pi)$, where $\mathcal{S} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ represents the continuous state space, $\mathcal{A} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ indicates the continuous action space, and $\mathcal{P} : \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{S} \to [0, 1]$ denotes the unknown continuous stochastic environment dynamics without jump condition. The rewards function $r(s, a) : \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \to \mathbb{R}$ is

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Algorithm 1 Safe RL with the Generative-model-based Soft Barrier Function

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Input: Unknown environment $\mathcal{M}$, initial policy π_θ, generative model $\hat{\mathcal{M}}_{\theta,\alpha}$, barrier network B_β.
Parameter: $[\theta, \alpha, \beta]$.
Output: Policy π_θ with $\hat{\mathcal{M}}_\alpha$ based soft barrier function B_β.

1: **for** k in $0, \cdots, N$ **do**
2:    **for** i in $0, \cdots, M$ **do**
3:       Sample trajectories τ^i by policy π_θ with $\mathcal{M}$ and trajectories $\hat{\tau}^i$ by π_θ with $\hat{\mathcal{M}}_{\theta,\alpha}$.
4:       Compute generative loss function $\mathcal{L}_g$ with τ^i and $\hat{\tau}^i$ as in equation 3.
5:       $\alpha \leftarrow \alpha - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_g}{\partial \alpha}$.
6:    **end for**
7:    Compute barrier function loss $\mathcal{L}_B$ with the synthetic $\hat{\tau}^i$ as in equation 5.
8:    Compute total discount reward with the synthetic $\hat{\tau}^i$ as $\hat{J}(\pi_\theta)$ as in equation 6.
9:    $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_B}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta}$, $\beta \leftarrow \beta - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_B}{\partial \beta}$.
10: **end for**

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known and the discount factor $\gamma \in [0, 1]$. A deterministic continuous NN-based policy $\pi_\theta : \mathcal{S} \to \mathcal{A}$ maps the states $s(t) \in \mathcal{S}$ to an action $a(t) \in \mathcal{A}$ at time t as $a(t) = \pi_\theta(s(t))$. The environment has several known spaces, i.e., the state space $S \subset \mathcal{S}$, the initial space $S_0 \subset \mathcal{S}$, and the unsafe space $S_u \subset \mathcal{S}$. The RL objective is to maximize the total discounted expected return as $\max_{\pi_\theta} J := \mathbb{E}_{s(0) \in S_0, P(s'|s,a)} \left[\sum_{i=0}^{T} \gamma^i r(s(t), a(t)) \right]$ with $P \in \mathcal{P}$. To encode the hard safety constraint S_u, we formulate a bi-level optimization problem for our framework as the following.

Definition 1 *(Bi-level Optimization Problem for Safe RL)*

$$\max_{\theta,\alpha} J(\pi_\theta) - \lambda(\eta^*_{\theta,\alpha})^2 + \log(l(\tau_\theta, \hat{\tau}_{\theta,\alpha})),$$

where $\eta^*(\theta, \alpha)$ is the optimal objective to a lower-level problem of the generative-model-based soft barrier function:

$$\min_\beta \eta \ \ s.t. \ \begin{cases} B_\beta(\hat{s}) \geq 0, \forall \hat{s} \in S, \\ B_\beta(\hat{s}) \geq 1, \forall \hat{s} \in S_u, \\ B_\beta(\hat{s}) \leq \eta, \forall \hat{s} \in S_0, \\ \mathbb{E}\left[B_\beta(\hat{s}') | s(t) \right] \leq B_\beta(s(t)), \hat{s}' = \hat{\mathcal{M}}_{\theta,\alpha}(s(t)), \forall t \in [0, T], \forall s \in S \setminus S_u, \end{cases} \tag{1}$$

where θ is the parameter of policy π. α is the parameter of the generative model $\hat{\mathcal{M}}_{\theta,\alpha} = (\hat{G}_{\theta,\alpha}, \hat{\Sigma}_\alpha)$, which is a stochastic differential equation (SDE) with $\hat{G}_{\theta,\alpha}$ as the drift function and $\hat{\Sigma}_\alpha$ as the diffusion function for the stochasticity, as in equation 2. $\lambda \geq 0$ is a penalty multiplier, and $\tau = \{s(i)\}_{i=0}^{T}, \hat{\tau} = \{\hat{s}(i)\}_{i=0}^{T}$ is the trajectory from the environment and generative model by the policy π, respectively. $\hat{s}'$ is short for $\hat{s}(t+1)$ by the generative model forwarding. β is the parameter of the generative-model-based soft barrier function $B : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^+$.

We encode the hard safety constraint by the generative-model-based soft barrier function B in the lower problem, which minimizes η^* as the upper bound of the unsafe probability for $\hat{\mathcal{M}}$ in Section 3.3. The upper problem aims to optimize the policy's expected return J and learn the generative model by maximal likelihood loss function $\log(l(\tau_\theta, \hat{\tau}_{\theta,\alpha}))$ between the trajectories τ and $\hat{\tau}$. Moreover, the upper problem penalizes $\eta^*_{\theta,\alpha}$, which back propagates the gradient information through $\hat{\mathcal{M}}$ to π for pushing the agent to avoid S_u in $\mathcal{M}$ as much as possible if $\hat{\mathcal{M}}$ behaves similar to $\mathcal{M}$.

We can compute the gradient from $\eta^*_{\theta,\alpha}$ for π through $\hat{\mathcal{M}}$ with current auto-differential tools. This cannot be done in $\mathcal{M}$ as it is unknown. Therefore, the overall bi-level problem is end-to-end differentiable and can be solved efficiently. Figure 2 shows how the components in our framework interact with each other. The overall algorithm to solve the bi-level problem is shown in Algorithm 1. Next, we are going to introduce the details of each module.

3.2 GENERATIVE MODELING

The role of the generative model in our framework is two folds:

- Because the barrier function requires an environment model to encode the hard safety constraints, the generative model serves as a surrogate model to build this barrier function, where $\eta_{\theta,\alpha}^*$ propagates the gradient to π through $\hat{\mathcal{M}}$ to improve the system safety probability.
- The generative model can generate synthetic data $\hat{\tau}$ to optimize the performance of the policy efficiently by gradient propagation.

We learn the generative model $\hat{\mathcal{M}}_{\theta,\alpha}$ as a discrete-time SDE to capture the dynamics and stochasticity of the environment and serve as a base for the construction of the soft barrier function:

$$\hat{\mathcal{M}}_{\theta,\alpha} : \hat{s}(t+1) = \hat{G}_\alpha(\hat{s}(t), \pi_\theta(\hat{s}(t))) + \hat{\Sigma}_\alpha(\hat{s}(t))W(t), \tag{2}$$

where $\hat{G}_\alpha(\hat{s}, \pi_\theta(\hat{s})) : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is an unknown drift function, $\hat{\Sigma}_\alpha : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ is an unknown $n \times d$ matrix based on $\hat{s}$, and $W(t) \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the Brownian motion (also known as Wiener Process) with dimension d, encoding the stochasticity. When the environment is deterministic, we can simply set the $\hat{\Sigma}(s)$ as $\mathbf{0}$. We design the generative model to share the learning control policy with the real environment, as shown in Figure 2. For the inference, the generative model starts from a sample $s(0) \in S_0$ and rolls out by drift function $\hat{G}$, diffusion function $\hat{\Sigma}$, and policy π. Therefore, the computation graph contains the learning policy; thus, the auto-differential tools can obtain the gradient for the learning policy by back-propagating through the generative model.

Remark 1 *We use the feed-forward fully-connected neural networks to encode such an SDE. Due to the continuity of the neural net, such SDE specification cannot handle a hybrid environment with jump conditions in its dynamics, which is also stated in our problem formulation.*

The generative model training is to reduce the following loss function.

$$\min_\alpha \mathcal{L}_g = -\log_{\theta,\alpha}(l(\tau, \hat{\tau})), \text{s.t. } \hat{s}(t+1) = \hat{G}_\alpha(\hat{s}(t), \pi_\theta(\hat{s}(t))) + \hat{\Sigma}_\alpha(\hat{s}(t))W(t), \forall t \in [0, T], \tag{3}$$

where $\mathcal{L}_g$ is the maximum likelihood loss, τ is the trajectory obtained by π from the environment and $\hat{\tau}$ is the synthetic trajectory from the generative model $\hat{\mathcal{M}}_{\theta,\alpha}$ with π. We use torchsde (Li et al., 2020b) to fit the data τ to the generative model by updating its parameter α, which is shown in Lines 2 to 6 in the Algorithm 1.

3.3 SOFT BARRIER FUNCTION LEARNING

To encode the hard safety constraints into RL, we introduce a novel generative-model-based soft barrier function.

Definition 2 *(Safety Probability of Policy) Let $\tau = \{s(t)\}_{t=0}^T$ denote the trajectory collected by the policy π, then its safety probability is defined as $P(\tau(t) \notin S_u), \forall t \in [0, T]$.*

Definition 3 *(Barrier Function for SDE) Given a policy π, B_β is a generative-model-based soft barrier function for the discrete-time SDE $\hat{\mathcal{M}}_{\theta,\alpha}$ as in equation 2, if it is twice differentiable and satisfies the constraints of the lower problem in equation 1.*

Lemma 1 *With such a barrier function, the generative-model SDE with policy π is safe for the entire trajectory with at least probability $1 - \eta^*$, as $\forall t \in [0, T], P(\hat{s}(t) \notin S_u) \geq 1 - \eta^*, \hat{s}' = \hat{\mathcal{M}}_{\theta,\alpha}(\hat{s}(t))$.*

Proof: With the last condition of the barrier function we can now conclude that

$$\mathbb{E}\left[B(\hat{s}(t_2))|\hat{s}(t_1)\right] \leq B(\hat{s}(t_1)), \forall t_2 \geq t_1 \geq 0,$$

which indicates that the barrier function $B(\hat{s})$ is a supermartingale.

Lemma 2 *Let $B(\hat{s}(t))$ be a supermartingale of the process $\hat{s}(t)$ and $B(\hat{s}) \geq 0, \forall \hat{s} \in S$. Then for any $\hat{s}(0) \in S_0, c > 0, P(\sup_{t \geq 0} B(\hat{s}(t)) \geq c \mid \hat{s}(0)) \leq \frac{B(\hat{s}(0))}{c}$.*

Then by leveraging the above lemma, we have

$$P(\hat{\tau}(t) \in S_u, \forall t \geq 0 \mid \hat{s}(0) \in S_0) = P\left(\sup_{t \geq 0} B(\hat{s}(t)) \geq 1 \mid \hat{s}(0) \in S_0)\right) \leq B(\hat{s}(0)) \leq \eta^*.$$

Therefore, Lemma 1 holds. □

We further translate the constraints of the lower problem in equation 1 with their sampling mean:

$$\min_{\beta} \eta \ \text{ s.t. } \begin{cases} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} B_{\beta}(\hat{s}^i(0)) \leq \eta, \hat{s}^i(0) \in S_0, \\ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} B_{\beta}(\hat{s}^i_u) \geq 1, \hat{s}^i_u \in S_u, \\ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} B_{\beta}(\hat{s}^i) \geq 0, \hat{s}^i \in S, \\ \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} B(\hat{s}'^i) \leq B(\hat{s}^i(t)), \hat{s}'^i = \hat{\mathcal{M}}_{\theta,\alpha}(\hat{s}^i(t)), \forall t \in [0,T], \forall s \in S \setminus S_u. \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

The third non-negative condition is easy to satisfy by setting the output activation function as *Sigmoid* for the barrier neural network. The last condition is to make B as a supermartingale, which is the key to deriving the lower bound of safety probability. In practice, we use a supervised-learning-based method to optimize this problem by minimizing the following loss function:

$$\min_{\theta,\beta} \mathcal{L}_B = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} B(s^i(0)) + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (1 - B(s^i_u)) + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left(\frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^{M} B(\hat{s}^{i,j}(t+1)) - B(\hat{s}^i(t)) \right),$$

$$\forall t \in [0,T], \hat{s}(t+1) = \hat{G}_{\alpha}(\hat{s}(t), \pi_{\theta}(\hat{s}(t))) + \hat{\Sigma}_{\alpha}(\hat{s}(t))W(t)$$

(5)

where $\hat{s}^{i,j}(t+1)$ is the next state of $\hat{s}(t)$ sampled from the generative model $\hat{\mathcal{M}}_{\theta,\alpha}$ with policy π_{θ}. Thus the gradient from $\mathcal{L}_B$ can be propagated to the policy π_{θ}. $\mathcal{L}_B$ essentially reduces the barrier mapping value on S_0 (the maximum is η^*) and projects the unsafe space S_u to 1 with *Sigmoid* output, and decreases the expectation of the barrier function along with trajectory. It is worthy to note that $\mathcal{L}_B$ cannot be approximated by the real environment $\mathcal{M}$, as we cannot sample from any intermediate time point $s(t)$ to $s(t+1)$ in the space $S \setminus S_u$ to compute the third sample mean in equation 5, which is relatively feasible and simple to do with $\hat{\mathcal{M}}_{\theta,\alpha}$ as in equation 2. The barrier training can be terminated if the second and third sample mean in equation 5 are non-positive. The soft barrier training is shown as Line 7 in Algorithm 1.

3.4 POLICY OPTIMIZATION

As stated before , we use the generative model to generate synthetic data $\hat{D} = \{\tau^i\}(i = 1, \cdots, N)$ with policy π to maximize the total expected return $\hat{J}$ of policy π as:

$$\max_{\pi_{\theta}} \hat{J}(\pi) = \mathbb{E}_{\hat{s}(0), \hat{\mathcal{M}}} \left[\sum_{t=0}^{T} \gamma^t r(\hat{s}, \pi_{\theta}(\hat{s})) \right], \text{s.t. } \hat{s}(t+1) = \hat{G}_{\alpha}(\hat{s}(t), \pi_{\theta}(\hat{s}(t))) + \hat{\Sigma}_{\alpha}(\hat{s}(t))W(t).$$

We use the sample mean from the trajectories as an estimate for the expectation:

$$\max_{\pi_{\theta}} \hat{J}(\pi) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N} \sum_{t=0}^{T} \gamma^t r(\hat{s}, \pi_{\theta}(\hat{s})), \text{s.t. } \hat{s}(t+1) = \hat{G}_{\alpha}(\hat{s}(t), \pi_{\theta}(\hat{s}(t))) + \hat{\Sigma}_{\alpha}(\hat{s}(t))W(t). \quad (6)$$

With policy π in the forward computation graph of latent SDE $\hat{\mathcal{M}}$, we can directly obtain the backwards gradient for π from equation 6. The policy optimization is shown as Line 8 in the Algorithm 1.

3.5 THEORETICAL ANALYSIS OF SAFETY PROBABILITY BY SOFT BARRIER

For the final learned policy, we conduct a theoretical analysis of its safety probability (as defined in Definition 2), derived from the generative-model-based soft barrier function in our framework.

Proposition 1 *(Asymptotic Lower Bound of Safety Probability) Given the learned policy π, let the generative model fit n sample trajectories $\tau^i(i = 1, \cdots, n)$ from environment $\mathcal{M}$ with π by equation 3, learn the generative-model-based soft barrier function B by equation 5 with η^* and assume that it formally satisfies the constraints in equation 1, then the real environment $\mathcal{M}$ with policy π is safe with at least probability $(1 - \eta^*)$ when $n \to \infty$.*

Lemma 3 *(Theorem 21 in (Agarwal et al., 2020a))* *Given $\delta \in (0, 1)$, a learned deterministic policy $\pi(s)$ and assume the environment-policy transition dynamics as $P(s'|s) \in \mathcal{P}$ with the function class $|\mathcal{P}| < \infty$, let the environment and policy generate a dataset of n trajectories $D := \{(s^j(t), s^j(t + 1))\}_{t=0}^{T}(j = 1, \cdots, n)$, $s \in D^i = (s^j(0 : i - 1), s'^j(0 : i - 1))$. Note that D^i is a martingale depending on the previous examples. Let the generate model $\hat{\mathcal{M}}$ maximize the likelihood of the dataset by $\hat{P} := \arg\max_{P \in \mathcal{P}} \sum_{i=0}^{nT} \log(P(s(i + 1)|s(i)))$. Then with at least probability $1 - \delta$, the expectation of total variation distance between P^* and $\hat{P}$ can be bounded as:*

$$\sum_{i=0}^{T} \mathbb{E}_{s \sim D^i} \left\| \hat{P}(s'|s) - P^*(s'|s) \right\|_{\text{TV}}^2 \leq \frac{2\log(|\mathcal{F}|/\delta)}{n} \tag{7}$$

Given $(S, \mathcal{B})$ as the measure spaces with S as the state space and $\mathcal{B} = \{B : \mathcal{S} \to \mathbb{R}, \|B\|_\infty \leq 1\}$, where B is a generative-model-based soft barrier function with $Sigmoid$ output, then according to the definition of total variation distance, we have

$$\sum_{i=0}^{T} \mathbb{E}_{s \sim D^i} \left[d_{\text{TV}}(P^*, \hat{P}) \right] = \sum_{i=0}^{T} \mathbb{E}_{s \sim D^i} \left[\frac{1}{2} \sup_{B \in \mathcal{B}} \mathbb{E}_{P^*(s'|s)}[B(s')] - \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(s'|s)}[B(s')] \right] \leq \frac{2\log(|\mathcal{F}|/\delta)}{n}.$$

Lemma 4 *Given a random variable $X_n \geq 0$ on a probability space Ω, if $\mathbb{E}_\Omega[X_n] \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$, then $P(X_n = 0) \to 1$.*

We provide the proof of Lemma 4 in the Appendix A. When $n \to \infty$, set $\delta = \frac{1}{n}$, let $X_n = \frac{1}{2} \sup_{B \in \mathcal{B}} \mathbb{E}_{P^*(s'|s)}[B(s')] - \mathbb{E}_{\hat{P}(s'|s)}[B(s')]$, and therefore $\mathbb{E}[X_n] \to 0$. We know $X_n \geq 0$ as $X_n = 0$ when $P^* = \hat{P}$. Therefore according to Lemma 4, $P(X_n \to 0) \to 1$. We then further assume D^i can uniformly cover the space S as $n \to \infty$, thus the soft barrier becomes a true barrier function for the real environment and Proposition 1 holds. $\qquad\square$

Remark 2 *(Practical Safety Probability Lower Bound)* *In addition to the asymptotic safety probability, we propose a finite-sample practical safety probability lower bound. We first sample the generative model and the environment with the final learned policy to quantify their maximum distance per state as $\Delta = \max_{t \in [0,T], i=1,\cdots,N} |s(t)^i - \hat{s}(t)^i|$, and then enlarge the unsafe region with Δ by Minkowski sum as $S'_u = S_u \bigoplus \Delta$. Next, we retrain another generative-model-based soft barrier function B with S'_u. Finally, we conservatively report $(1 - \max_{(\hat{s} \in \hat{\tau}^i_t, i=1,\cdots,N)} B(\hat{s}^i_t))$ as the final lower bound of safety probability by the soft barrier function.*

4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Experiment Settings and Examples: We compare our approach with two state-of-the-art open-source CMDP-based methods, PPO-L (Ray et al., 2019) and FOCOPS (Zhang et al., 2020). For these two baselines, we design the cost function such that the state is safe if its cost is less than 0. It is worth noting that PPO-L has a stronger safety constraint than FOCOPS as we implemented the PPO-L with the expectation of cost per state as $\mathbb{E}[c(s, a)] \leq 0$, rather than the cumulative cost in FOCOPS as $\mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{t=0}^{T} c(s, a) \leq D'\right]$. In FOCOPS, We conservatively set $D' = -60$ for the 2D and cartpole examples below, and -200 for the Rocket and UAV examples, to improve its safety. We mark this safety-oriented version FOCOPS*. We mainly compare the converged final policy of each method in system safe rate measured via simulations – we call it *empirical safe rate*. We also perform safety probability analysis for our method (CMDP cannot provide one), and compare different methods in total reward return.

2-Dimensional SDE (Prajna et al., 2004) has the unknown dynamics $\mathcal{M}$ as $\dot{s}_1 = 0.8s_2, \mathrm{d}s_2 = (a - 0.3s_1^3)dt + 0.2\mathrm{d}W(t)$ with $W(t)$ as the Wiener process. Initial space is $S_0 = \{(s_1, s_2)|(s_1 + 2)^2 + s_2 \leq 0.01\}$, and unsafe space is $S_u = \{(s_1, s_2)|s_1 \in [-1, 0] \times s_2 \in [1.2, 1.7]\}$. The goal is to stabilize the system near the original point.

Cartpole Balancing (Brockman et al., 2016) has a 4-dimensional vector $s = [x, \theta, \dot{x}, \dot{\theta}]$ as the system state, where x is the position and θ is the angular error to the upright. The initial space

Table 1: Comparison of our approach with CMDP-based baselines PPO-L and FOCOPS*. s_e is the safe rate by simulating 500 random initial states from S_0. $1 - \eta$ is the practical lower bound of safety probability in our approach as $(1 - \max_{(\hat{s} \in \hat{\tau}_t^i, i=1,\cdots,n)} B(\hat{s}_t^i))$, derived by **Remark 2**. Our approach achieves significantly higher s_e than the baselines. It is observed that $1 - \eta$ is a lower bound of s_e.

Metric	Methods	2D	Cartpole	Rocket	UAV
	Ours	**100%**	**100%**	**100%**	**100%**
s_e, empirical safe rate	PPO-L	98.4%	93.6%	79.4%	**100%**
	FOCOPS*	98.2%	83.2%	**100%**	89.2%
$1 - \eta$, lower bound	Ours	95.1%	89.5%	90.6%	94.7%
	PPO-L, FOCOPS*	-	-	-	-
	Ours	-67.3(4.9)	-24.4(4.7)	**-143.2**(1.6)	-847.1(6.5)
$J(\pi)$, performance	PPO-L	**-66.3**(5.3)	-34.1(6.7)	-151.4(3.6)	-895.5(4.3)
	FOCOPS*	-69.8(3.2)	**-15.2**(2.3)	-249.1(1.4)	**-734.1**(3.3)

$S_0 = \{(x, \theta, \dot{x}, \dot{\theta}) | x \in [-0.167, 0.033], \theta \in [-0.6, -0.5], \dot{x} = -0.35, \dot{\theta} = 0.53\}$, and unsafe space $S_u = \{(x, \theta, \dot{x}, \dot{\theta}) \mid x \leq -0.75\}$. The goal is to keep the cartpole balanced upright.

Powered Rocket Landing (Jin et al., 2021) has 6 DoF (degrees of freedom) with 13 system states and 3 action variables. The goal is to land the rocket close to the original point while avoiding an unsafe region. Its state vector is $\mathbf{s} = [\mathbf{p} \ \mathbf{v} \ \mathbf{q} \ \omega] \in \mathbb{R}^{13}$, where $[\mathbf{p} \ \mathbf{v} \ \mathbf{q} \ \omega]$ represent position, velocity, unit quaternion, and angular velocity concerning the inertial frame, respectively. There are three trust forces for the rocket as the control input $\mathbf{u} = [T_x, T_y, T_z] \in \mathbb{R}^3$. The initial space $X_0 : \mathbf{p} = (x, y, z)(x - 10)^2 + (y + 8)^2 + (z - 5)^2 \leq 0.01, \mathbf{v} = 0, \mathbf{q} = (0.73, 0, 0, 0.68), \omega = 0$, and unsafe space $X_u : \mathbf{p} = (x, y, z)(x - 5)^2 + y^2 \leq 1, -2 \leq z \leq 5, \|\mathbf{v}\|_1 \leq 10, \|\omega\|_1 \leq 10$.

UAV Maneuvering (Jin et al., 2021) is to maneuver an UAV close to the original point while avoiding an obstacle. The 6-DoF UAV has 13 system states and 4 action variables. Its state vector is $\mathbf{s} = [\mathbf{p} \ \mathbf{v} \ \mathbf{q} \ \omega] \in \mathbb{R}^{13}$, where $\mathbf{p} = (x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ and $\mathbf{v} = (v_x, v_y, v_z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ represent the position and velocity of the rocket, respectively. $\mathbf{q} \in \mathbb{R}^4$ is the unit quaternion for attitude and $\omega \in \mathbb{R}^3$ is the angular velocity with respect to the inertial frame. The control input $\mathbf{u} = [T_1, T_2, T_3, T_4] \in \mathbb{R}^4$ for the rocket is the four rotating propellers of the quadrotor. The initial region X_0 and unsafe region X_u are $X_0 : \mathbf{p} = (x, y, z)(x + 8)^2 + (y + 6)^2 + (z - 9)^2 \leq 0.01, \mathbf{v} = 0, \mathbf{q} = (1, 0, 0, 0), \omega = 0, X_u : \mathbf{p} = (x, y, z)(x + 4.5)^2 + (y + 4)^2 \leq 1, -2 \leq z \leq 5$.

Comparison and Effectiveness of Our Approach: Table 1 shows the comparison results in simulation-based system safe rate (based on 500 simulations for each example, with random initial states), safety probability, and performance. We can see that by directly enforcing hard safety constraints via soft barrier functions, **our approach can achieve significantly higher system safe rate than the CMDP-based baselines**. In fact, our approach is safe in all simulation runs. Our approach also provides a practical lower bound of safety probability, which the CMDP-based methods cannot provide. CMDP achieves better performance (total reward return) in some cases, but we view safety as the first priority for these systems and the focus of this work.

Figure 3 shows the control trajectories by the learned policies from our approach and the baselines. The agent is always safe with our learned policy, while there exist some unsafe cases by PPO-L or FOCOPS. Moreover, our generative model behaves very similarly to the real environment, which shows the usefulness of the generative modeling for constructing the soft barrier function and optimizing the control policy. We also show the learning process of the soft barrier function on the generative model and its testing in the real environment in Figures 4 and 5 for the 2D system and UAV examples (results of the other two examples are in the Appendix A). The learned barrier function maps the initial space to near 0 and the unsafe space to 1 with the third sample mean in equation 5 to 0 (marked as Lie in Figures). The barrier function has a similar value along with the trajectories in the real environment and the generative model. Again, this indicates that the generative model behaves very similarly to the environment, as shown in Figure 3. Although the barrier function decreases or stays constant most of the time, it can increase at some point. This is due to that 1) we restrict the generative model as an SDE for approximating the real environment, and thus there might exist modeling errors, 2) the soft barrier is trained by supervised learning which we cannot guarantee to cover all possible cases.

(a) 2D system

(b) Cartpole balancing

(c) Rocket powered landing

(d) UAV maneuvering

Figure 3: Control trajectories by the learned policies from our approaches and baselines. We can see that our approach learns safer policies than the baselines.

Figure 4: Barrier function training and testing in 2D SDE.

Figure 5: Barrier function training and testing in UAV example.

5 CONCLUSION

We present a safe RL approach for unknown stochastic environment that enforces hard reachability-based safety constraints through generative-model-based soft barrier functions. Our approach formulates a novel bi-level optimization formulation, and develops a safe RL algorithm that jointly learns the generative model, soft barrier function, and policy optimization. Experiments demonstrate that our approach can significantly improve empirical system safe rate over CMDP-based baselines and also provide a practical lower bound of safety probability. It remains future work to obtain a non-asymptotically probabilistic guarantee with finite samples for the policy during the exploration and address MDPs with hybrid dynamics.

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Figure 6: Barrier function training and testing in Rocket powered landing.

Figure 7: Barrier function training and testing in Cartpole balancing.

A APPENDIX

A.1 PROOF OF LEMMA 4 IN THE MAIN TEXT

For any $m \in \mathbb{N}$, let $E_m = \{\omega \in \Omega : X_n(w) > \frac{1}{m}\}$. Since $X_n \geq 0$, we have:

$$\mathbb{E}_\Omega[X_n] = \int_\Omega X_n \mathrm{d}P \geq \int_{E_m} X_n \mathrm{d}P \geq \frac{1}{m} P(E_m).$$

Therefore, $P(E_m) \to 0$, and then:

$$0 \leq P(\omega \in \Omega : X_n(w) \neq 0) = P(\bigcup E_m) = \lim_{m \to \infty} P(E_m) \to 0,$$

$$P(\omega \in \Omega : X_n(w) \neq 0) \to 0 \implies P(\omega \in \Omega : X_n(w) = 0) \to 1.$$

A.2 ADDITIONAL EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The barrier function training and testing results for the Rocket powered landing and the Cartpole balancing examples are shown here in Figures 6 and 7.