
Wasserstein Distance Maximizing Intrinsic Control

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Abstract

1 This paper deals with the problem of learning a skill-conditioned policy that
2 acts meaningfully in the absence of a reward signal. Mutual information based
3 objectives have shown some success in learning skills that reach a diverse set of
4 states in this setting. These objectives include a KL-divergence term, which is
5 maximized by visiting distinct states even if those states are not far apart in the
6 MDP. This paper presents an approach that rewards the agent for learning skills that
7 maximize the Wasserstein distance of their state visitation from the start state of
8 the skill. It shows that such an objective leads to a policy that covers more distance
9 in the MDP than diversity based objectives, and validates the results on a variety of
10 Atari environments.

11 1 Introduction

12 This paper considers the unsupervised reinforcement learning problem of learning a set of skill-
13 conditioned policies that act meaningfully in an environment in the absence of an extrinsic reward
14 signal. Some previous works [16, 13, 6] approached this problem by using a mutual information
15 objective to maximize the empowerment of the skill-conditioned policies. In essence, such a mutual
16 information objective is maximized by learning goal-conditioned policy and a discriminator such that
17 the discriminator can infer which skill was executed by considering the states visited by the policy
18 conditioned on that skill.

19 This type of objective has been shown to learn diverse skills which can be useful for exploration
20 and heirarchical reinforcement learning (HRL) [13, 6]. However, one potential issue with mutual
21 information-based objectives is that they can learn skills that are discriminable but do not move far
22 from the agent’s starting state [9].

23 This paper instead presents an approach which considers the Wasserstein distance between the state
24 visitation distribution of the agent’s skill-conditioned policy and its start state distribution and trains
25 the agent to maximize this distance, an approach we term Wasserstein distance maximizing Intrinsic
26 Control (WIC). WIC also encourages the learning of diverse skills by constructing the reward function
27 to prefer each skill maximizing the Wasserstein distance in a unique direction. We hypothesize that
28 maximizing the Wasserstein distance will lead to policies that cover more distance in the underlying
29 environment. This hypothesis is validated on two grid world environments where the policy learned
30 using WIC maximizes the number of states that it visits, whereas VIC and related techniques are
31 content to reach states that are discernible from each other.

32 Finally, we end with some preliminary results on the Atari benchmark that suggest that WIC is a
33 promising approach to unsupervised intrinsic control.

34 2 Related Work

35 Intrinsic motivations [3, 26, 25] are rewards presented by an agent to itself in addition to the external
36 task-specific reward. Intrinsic motivation has been proposed as a way to encourage RL agents to learn
37 skills [5, 4, 32, 29] that might be useful across a variety of tasks, or as a way to encourage exploration
38 [7, 31, 2, 14]. The optimal reward framework [33, 35] and shaped rewards [23] (if generated by
39 the agent itself) also consider intrinsic motivation as a way to assist an RL agent in learning the
40 optimal policy for a given task. Such an intrinsically motivated reward signal has previously been
41 learned through various methods such as evolutionary techniques [24, 30], meta-gradient approaches
42 [34, 39, 40], and others. The Wasserstein distance, in particular, has been used to present a valid
43 reward for speeding up learning of goal-conditioned policies [11], imitation learning [37, 10, 38], as
44 well as program synthesis [15].

45 Mutual information based objectives have been used to learn skill-conditioned policies that act
46 meaningfully in the absence of an external reward [16, 13, 9, 6]. This paper considers the same
47 problem but uses the Wasserstein distance as the objective the agent seeks to maximize.

48 3 Background and Setup

49 In this section we set up the problem and go over some of the concepts relevant to the setting.

50 3.1 Problem Setting

51 Our environment is a special case of Markov decision processes without a reward function denoted
52 by the tuple $\mathcal{M} : \langle \mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, \mathcal{P}, \mu \rangle$. \mathcal{S} is the state space, \mathcal{A} is the action space, $\mathcal{P} : \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \mapsto \Delta(\mathcal{S})$ is
53 the conditional distribution denoting the transition dynamics when taking action $a \in \mathcal{A}$ from state
54 $s \in \mathcal{S}$ (Δ denotes a distribution over the set given as the argument), and $\mu : \Delta(\mathcal{S})$ is the initial state
55 distribution.

56 Agents interact with the environment with a skill conditioned policy $\pi_\theta : \mathcal{S} \times \Omega \mapsto \Delta(\mathcal{A})$ where Ω
57 is the space of skills, and θ denotes the parameters of the policy. We assume that skills are sampled
58 with some probability $P(\omega)$ which we assume to be fixed as a uniform distribution over a discrete
59 set of skills in this paper. In particular, we assume skills are sampled uniformly from set Ω and are
60 then followed for a fixed number of T time steps. A skill-episode starts when a skill to be followed
61 $\omega \in \Omega$ is sampled from the skill distribution, and continues for T time steps. The trajectory of states
62 and actions that are obtained while the agent executing skill ω interacts with the environment is
63 denoted by $s_0, a_0, s_1, \dots, s_{T-1}, a_{T-1}, s_T$. s_T at the end of one skill episode acts as the first state s_0
64 for the next skill episode. We will refer to s_0 and s_T as the start state and end state of a skill episode
65 respectively.

66 Finally we define the state visitation distribution of the policy π_θ conditioned on skill ω and starting
67 at state s_0 as:

$$\rho_\theta(s|s_0, \omega) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T P(s_t = s | \pi_\theta, s_0, \omega) \quad (1)$$

68 3.2 Intrinsic Control by maximizing Mutual Information

69 Variational Intrinsic Control (VIC) [16] takes the above setting and sets up the problem of learning
70 the skill-conditioned policy as one of maximizing the mutual information between the random
71 variable ω denoting the skill and the states s_T reached after executing the skill conditioned policy π_θ
72 conditioned on ω . Practically, this approach is implemented by learning a discriminator $D_\phi(\omega|s_T, s_0)$
73 with parameters ϕ that tries to predict the skill the agent policy was conditioned on given the start
74 and end states of the skill-episode.

75 The output of this discriminator is then used as the reward signal to train the skill-conditioned policy
76 π_θ . This approach encourages the learning of skills that can be distinguished by the end states of their
77 trajectories. However, it does not encourage the learning of skills that travel as far as possible in the
78 environment.

79 Other works that utilize this mutual information objective use a similar setup, but encourage the
 80 discriminator to predict the skill based on the relative direction of the states reached compared to the
 81 start state (RVIC, Baumli et al. [6]) or try to discriminate the entire trajectory (DIAYN, Eysenbach
 82 et al. [13]).

83 3.3 Wasserstein Distance and Optimal Transport

84 The field of optimal transport [27] considers the question of how to transport one distribution to
 85 another while minimizing the amount of effort expended. The Wasserstein distance estimates the
 86 amount of work that needs to be done to convert one probability distribution to the other, as measured
 87 by the ground metric d . More concretely, consider a metric space (\mathcal{M}, d) where \mathcal{M} is a set and d
 88 is a metric on \mathcal{M} . The Wasserstein- p distance between two distributions μ and ν on \mathcal{M} with finite
 89 moments can be defined as:

$$W_d^p(\mu, \nu) := \min_{\zeta \in Z} \mathbb{E}_{x, y \sim \zeta} [d(x, y)^p]^{1/p} \quad (2)$$

90 where Z is the space of joint distributions $\zeta \in \Delta(\mathcal{M} \times \mathcal{M})$ whose marginals are μ and ν respectively.

91 While prior work on using the Wasserstein distance in reinforcement learning has used Euclidean
 92 distance in the state space as the ground metric [15], it may not be appropriate since it does not reflect
 93 the structure of the reinforcement learning problem. In MDPs, if we consider the metric space on the
 94 set of states \mathcal{S} , then the number of time-steps it would take to go from state x to state y under the
 95 current agent policy π is a quasimetric (metric that might not be symmetric between x and y) that
 96 could be considered more appropriate for measuring this work [11, 18] since it reflects distance in
 97 the MDP instead of distance in observation space.

98 If we restrict our attention to the Wasserstein-1 metric, the Kantorovich-Rubinstein duality allows us
 99 to express the Wasserstein-1 distance (which we refer to simply as the Wasserstein distance hereafter)
 100 in the following manner:

$$W_d^1(\mu, \nu) = \sup_{Lip(f) \leq 1} \mathbb{E}_{y \sim \nu} [f(y)] - \mathbb{E}_{x \sim \mu} [f(x)] \quad (3)$$

101 where the supremum is over all 1-Lipschitz functions $f : \mathcal{M} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ in the metric space. If this metric
 102 space is based on the time-step metric alluded to above, then the Lipschitz constraint can be enforced
 103 using the following equation for Lipschitz smoothness based on transitions experienced by the policy
 104 [11]:

$$Lip(f) = \max_{s \in \mathcal{S}} \mathbb{E}_{s' \sim \pi, \mathcal{P}} [|f(s') - f(s)|] \quad (4)$$

105 The Wasserstein distance between two distributions can then be estimated by means of a function
 106 approximator such as a neural network [1, 17, 11] by solving for equation 3 and ensuring smoothness
 107 according to Equation 4. In Section 4, we lay out the exact objective to train such a function
 108 approximator.

109 4 Wasserstein Distance Maximizing Intrinsic Control

110 This section describes how the Wasserstein distance can be used to learn a skill conditioned policy,
 111 an approach we term Wasserstein distance maximizing Intrinsic Control (WIC). At a high level, it
 112 proposes a method to learn a skill conditioned policy that attempts to get as far away from the skill's
 113 start state as measured through transitions in the MDP, and attempt to go in unique directions for each
 114 skill. That is, WIC will train a policy to maximize $\mathbb{E}_{\omega \sim P(\cdot|\Omega)} [W_d^1(\delta(s_0), \rho_\theta(s|s_0, \omega))]$, and penalize
 115 this policy for maximizing $\mathbb{E}_{\omega' \neq \omega} [W_d^1(\delta(s_0), \rho_\theta(s|s_0, \omega'))]$ for any other skill $\omega' \neq \omega$.

116 For a particular skill $\omega \in \Omega$ that starts executing at a state s_0 , the above Wasserstein distances are
 117 estimated between a Dirac distribution at the skill's start state $\delta(s_0)$ and the skill's state visitation
 118 distribution $\rho_\theta(s|s_0, \omega)$ (Equation 1) with a potential function $f_\phi : \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{S} \times \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with parameters
 119 ϕ . The potential function f_ϕ is trained by minimizing the following objective:

$$L_f(s_0, \rho_\theta, \omega) = f_\phi(s_0, s_0, \omega) - \mathbb{E}_{s \sim \rho_\theta(\cdot|s_0, \omega)} [f_\phi(s, s_0, \omega)] \quad (5)$$

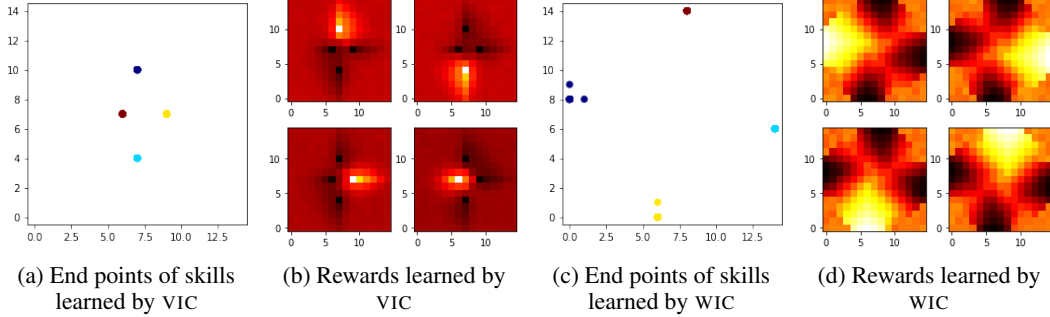


Figure 1: The endpoints reached after executing all the skills multiple times starting in the middle of the room, and reward functions learned for VIC and WIC respectively in a 15×15 grid world where the features are a one-hot encoding. The agent starts executing each skill from the center of the grid world.

120 while also enforcing that the potential function f_ϕ is 1-Lipschitz with the following objective:

$$L_c(s_0, \rho_\theta, \omega) = \mathbb{E}_{s, s' \sim \rho_\theta(\cdot | s_0, \omega)} \text{maximum}(\|f_\phi(s', s_0, \omega) - f_\phi(s, s_0, \omega)\|^2 - 1, 0) \quad (6)$$

121 where s is a state drawn according to the state visitation distribution ρ_θ and s' is a sample of the next
 122 state the agent would visit if following policy π_θ conditioned on skill ω in that state. Maximizing the
 123 Wasserstein distance thus estimated will lead to a skill that attempts to get as far away from the start
 124 state as possible.

125 In order to maximize this distance, the agent is trained with rewards that encourage it to move its
 126 state visitation distribution to regions of higher potential, and thus increase the Wasserstein distance
 127 of the state visitation distribution. Since the potential function is state-based, it is enough for the
 128 reward to be a difference in potentials [23]. Further, WIC also includes a term to encourage diverse
 129 skills, meaning ones that move in unique directions in the state space. This diversity is encouraged
 130 by including a penalty term for overlapping with the positive potential gradient of any other skill.
 131 Consequently, the reward we present to the agent is as follows:

$$r(s_t, a_t, s_{t+1}, s_0, \omega) := [f(s_{t+1}, s_0, \omega) - f(s_t, s_0, \omega)] - \eta \max_{\omega' \neq \omega} [f(s_{t+1}, s_0, \omega') - f(s_t, s_0, \omega')] \quad (7)$$

132 where $\eta \in [0, 1]$ specifies how much of a penalty skills get for encouraging a direction that overlaps
 133 with other skills.

134 5 Experiments

135 We compare WIC with VIC in domains with increasing order of complexity in order to probe the
 136 difference between the skills learned by maximizing the Wasserstein distance to its start state
 137 as opposed to maximizing a mutual information objective with respect to a fixed skill sampling
 138 distribution.

139 5.1 Tabular

140 First, we evaluate WIC and VIC on a tabular grid world domain. The grid is 15×15 giving us 225
 141 distinct states with 5 possible actions (up, down, left, right, and no-op), and the agent starts off in the
 142 center of the grid. Since this domain is tabular, the agent’s state is communicated as a one-hot vector.

143 There are no obstacles, and $|\Omega| = 4$ skills which are sampled uniformly. Once the skill ω is sampled,
 144 the agent executes its skill-conditioned policy for $T = 10$ time steps. After executing this policy for
 145 T time steps, the state is reset back to the center, a new skill is sampled, and the policy executes again
 146 for T time steps. We compare two methods to learn and present the intrinsic reward, VIC and WIC.
 147 Both the agent policy and the discriminator (VIC) or potential function (WIC) are linear functions of
 148 the features. For WIC, a penalty $\eta = 0.9$ is used to avoid learning skills that overlap in their state
 149 visitation.

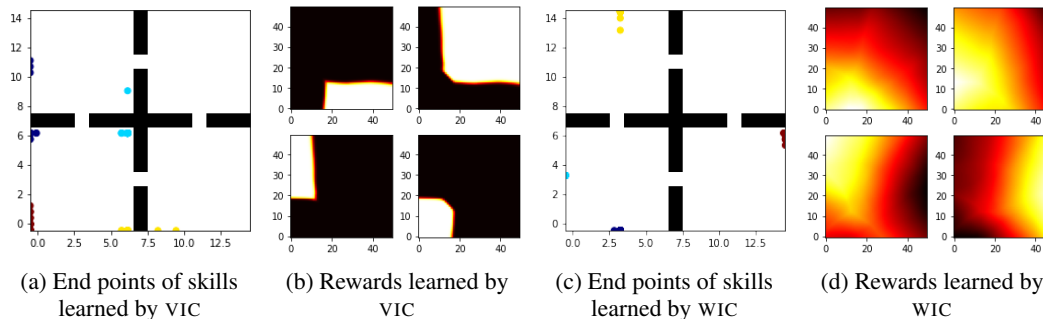


Figure 2: Visualizing the endpoints after executing all the skills multiple times starting in the middle of the bottom-left room, and the reward functions used to learn them by VIC and WIC respectively in the Four Rooms environment. The features of the state here are the (x, y) coordinates of the point at which the agent is. The agent starts executing each skill from the center of the bottom left room.

150 The agent policy is trained using REINFORCE [36] with a state-conditioned baseline. The policy is
 151 additionally regularized with an entropy loss weighted by 0.01 to prevent premature convergence.
 152 Both the discriminator and the policy are trained using stochastic gradient descent [28, 19] with a
 153 learning rate of 0.003.

154 Figure 1 shows the states reached after executing each skill multiple times from the same start state at
 155 the middle of the room (Figure 1a) and the reward function used to train the policy (Figure 1b) for
 156 VIC. Figures 1c and 1d show the same respectively for WIC. As hypothesized, VIC is satisfied with
 157 reaching states that are distinct enough for the discriminator to tell apart, and does not necessarily
 158 attempt to learn a policy that travels far in the environment. WIC on the other hand, learns a reward
 159 function and a policy that attempt to travel as far away from the start state as possible.

160 5.2 Four Rooms

161 Next, we evaluate how WIC and VIC behave differently when the features are not one-hot vectors. We
 162 use a four room domain with the location of the agent communicated as its (x, y) coordinate, and
 163 each feature scaled to $[-1, 1]$. The agent starts in the center of the bottom left room and each skill is
 164 allowed $T = 40$ time steps to execute. This duration is enough for an agent to make it to the room
 165 diagonally opposite if the skill-conditioned policy is deterministic.

166 The number of skills $|\Omega| = 4$ and they are sampled uniformly. After the agent finishes executing one
 167 skill it samples a new skill and begins executing it from the state that was reached. The agent is reset
 168 to the middle of the bottom left room after sampling and executing skills 17 times.

169 Both the policy and the potential function (WIC) or discriminator (VIC) are instantiated as multi-layer
 170 perceptrons with 2 hidden layers of 128 units each, and ReLU [22] activation functions internally.
 171 The other training details remain the same as in the tabular case, except for the use of the Adam
 172 optimizer [20] with its default learning rate of 0.001.

173 The end states reached after executing the skill-conditioned policy for each skill multiple times from
 174 the middle of the bottom-left room are shown in Figure 2. Here again, we see that the discriminative
 175 objective of VIC is satisfied with learning skills that go to the corners of the bottom left room, whereas
 176 WIC learns a policy that travels deep into the adjoining two rooms. The reward functions visualized
 177 in both these domains makes it clear that the Wasserstein distance maximizing approach pushes the
 178 agent to go as far from the start state as it can.

179 5.3 Atari

180 So far, we have validated that WIC encourages the learning of skill-conditioned policies that try to go
 181 as far away from the state that the skill was invoked. We now apply WIC to the Atari domain [8, 21]
 182 and evaluate how well this approach scales to image based inputs and deeper function approximators.
 183 WIC is compared to VIC and RVIC, and the metrics we use for comparison are average episodic
 184 coverage, average lifetime coverage, and average episodic return.

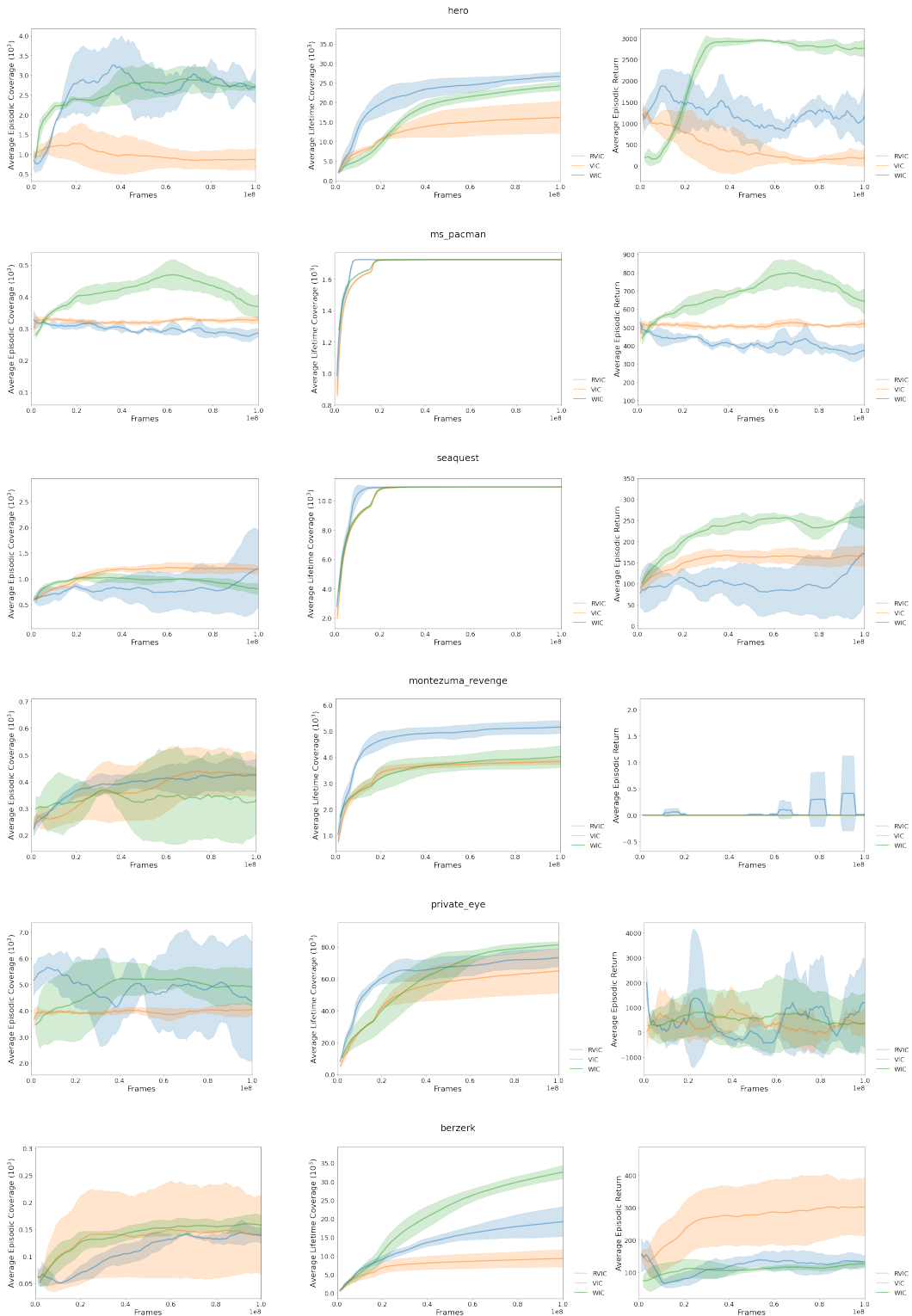


Figure 3: Comparing how well WIC does compared to mutual information based methods in Atari domains

185 The potential function (WIC) or discriminator (RVIC and VIC) are trained just as before, but the
186 agent’s policy is now instantiated as a Q-function trained using $Q(\lambda)$ with $\lambda = 0.9$ and discount
187 factor $\gamma = 0.98$. A replay buffer of size 5×10^5 is used to store the data, and each minibatch samples
188 64 trajectories of length $T = 40$ from the buffer to train from. The Q-function and the potential
189 function share a common torso in this setting, and the architecture of this torso is equivalent to the
190 one suggested in IMPALA [12].

191 As can be seen from Figure 3, the skill-conditioned policy learned through WIC leads to episodic
192 returns better than VIC or RVIC on three of the six games we test on: Hero, Montezuma’s Revenge,
193 and Ms. Pacman, and roughly equivalent returns on the other three. These improved returns are
194 indicative of more directed policies, even in games where the episodic coverage is similar to the
195 mutual information based approaches (Hero and Seaquest). In the game Berzerk, we additionally
196 see that even though the episodic returns do not outperform VIC, in terms of lifetime coverage WIC
197 widens the gap over time.

198 6 Conclusion

199 This paper considers the question of unsupervised learning of skills in an environment, and hypothe-
200 sizes that maximizing the Wasserstein distance from the start state distribution of a skill could lead to
201 skill-conditioned policies that cover more distance in the underlying MDP than mutual information
202 based approaches like VIC and RVIC. This approach is crystallized as Wasserstein distance maximiz-
203 ing intrinsic control (WIC), and the above hypothesis is validated on a tabular grid world as well as
204 a continuous four rooms domain. Finally, we have validated that the approach scales up to visual
205 inputs and complex environments by evaluating it on the Atari domain.

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