Multiagent Adversarial Inverse Reinforcement Learning Extended Abstract

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ABSTRACT

Learning to coordinate is a hard task for reinforcement learning due to a game-theoretic pathology known as *relative overgeneralization*. To help deal with this, we propose two methods which apply forms of imitation learning to the problem of learning coordinated behaviors. The proposed methods have a close connection to multiagent actor-critic models, and will avoid relative overgeneralization if the right demonstrations are given. We compare our algorithms with MADDPG, a state-of-the-art approach, and show that our methods achieve better coordination in multiagent cooperative tasks.

KEYWORDS

Multiagent; Adversarial Learning; Deep Reinforcement Learning

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1 INTRODUCTION

Multiagent Reinforcement Learning (or MARL) applies Reinforcement Learning (RL) to more than one agent. Like RL, the environment is some current *state*, which each agent can only sense through *observations*; each agent performs some *action* while in that state; the agents each receive some *reward*; the state *transitions* to some new state, and the process repeats. In this paper we focus on *cooperative continuous stochastic games*, that is, multiagent reinforcement learning scenarios with continuous actions and an identical reward signal for all agents.

It has been shown that the independent learner setting, where agents are not told what the other agents have done, suffers from a pathology called *relative overgeneralization* [8]. It has also been shown that centralized training can also suffer from the same problem [6]. Some methods [5, 6] have been applied to deal with the problem in simple games with small state or action spaces, but it has not been solved for high dimensional or continuous stochastic games typical of real problems. In this paper we will remedy this.

Relative overgeneralization occurs when a suboptimal Nash Equilibrium in the joint space of actions is preferred over an optimal one because each agent's action in the suboptimal equilibrium is a better choice on average when matched with arbitrary explorative actions from collaborating agents. This pathology generally occurs when we use an average-based learner [5], that is, one which uses the joint Q-values averaged over all the actions of other agents.

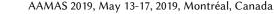
To overcome this problem, we apply Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) [2] to cooperative stochastic games. GANs have been successful in many domains. It has been shown that the variants of GANs, Generative Adversarial Imitation Learning (GAIL) [3] and Adversarial Inverse Reinforcement Learning (AIRL) [1] can be used to train agents to achieve high performance in sequential decisionmaking tasks with demonstration examples. Here we extend these methods to the multiagent cooperative setting and show that they can better coordinate the behaviors of the agents. We also show that, with the right examples, the learned reward function can help the learners avoid relative overgeneralization.

2 MULTIAGENT ADVERSARIAL INVERSE REINFORCEMENT LEARNING

To see how AIRL and GAIL can be apply to cooperative games, we first consider the situation where a coach wants to teach a coordination strategy to players. He may start with some demonstration, then let the players practice following the demonstration while continuing to give advice to the agents during practice. This is much like the training process of AIRL or GAIL with multiple agents: we can think of a discriminator as a coach, and all the other agents as players on the team. During practice, although each player can only sense the environment through his own local observations, the coach usually has more information either through expertise or via a global view of the game state. Thus, if we want to apply AIRL and GAIL to cooperative games, we can make a simple modification to both algorithms by letting each agent have only a local observation o^{i} , and give the discriminator access to the full state information s. We call these modified algorithms Multiagent AIRL (MAIRL) and Multiagent GAIL (MGAIL). It can been shown with this assumption, MAIRL and MGAIL can be viewed as applying MADDPG [4] to the Maximum Entropy RL setting. See [7] for more details.

From a deeper investigation of the policy objective of the proposed methods, we find that it can be decomposed into two parts: a regular policy gradient term with averaged $Q_{soft}(s, a)$, and an entropy term. Since an average-based learner suffers from relative overgeneralization, our proposed method may as well. To fix this, we notice that the difficulty comes from the Q-function. Suppose agent *i* has two actions, *a* and *b*, in state *s*. When the other agents are playing their best response policies π^{*-i} , and $Q(s, a, \pi^{*-i}) > Q(s, b, \pi^{*-i})$, then agent *i* ought to prefer *a* over *b*. However with an average-based learner it is possible that *b* is preferred over *a* when $\overline{Q}(s, b) > \overline{Q}(s, a)$ where \overline{Q} is some averaged Q-function. Thus, a simple way to avoid relative overgeneralization is to make sure the rank ordering among the actions is maintained.

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(a) Marching domain. Agents (b) *Narrow* domain. Valid movneed to march through the exit. ing area is within the gray box.

Figure 1: Sequential Decision Making Tasks

Definition 2.1. A Q-function is relative overgeneralization free if for any agent *i* and any of its two actions a^i and b^i , we always have $\mathbb{E}_{a_t^{-i} \sim \pi^{-i}(a_t^{-i}|o_t^{-i})}[Q(s, a^i, a^{-i})] > \mathbb{E}_{a_t^{-i} \sim \pi^{-i}(a_t^{-i}|o_t^{-i})}[Q(s, b^i, a^{-i})]$ given that $Q(s, a^i, a^{*-i}) > Q(s, b^i, a^{*-i})$, where $\pi^{-i}(a_t^{-i}|o_t^{-i})$ is some arbitrary policy of all the other agents, and a^{*-i} is the best response action of all the other agents.

A Q-function can be decomposed into an advantage function and a state value function, and the state value function does not have the action involved. Thus, we are really looking for an advantage function that is relative overgeneralization free. A natural choice would be a quadratic function with a block diagonal matrix.

PROPOSITION 2.2. Suppose $A(s, \vec{a}) = -\frac{1}{2}(\vec{a}-\mu(s))^T M(s)(\vec{a}-\mu(s))$ is the advantage function for some state *s* and joint actions \vec{a} of all *n* agents, where M(s) is a positive definite block diagonal matrix with *n* blocks with each block of size d_i by d_i , namely, the action dimension of agent *i*. Then the corresponding state-action value function $Q(s, \vec{a})$ is relative overgeneralization free. (See [7] for proof).

3 EXPERIMENTS

We applied three problems to test our methods: *Max of Two Quadratics* (described in [6]); and *Marching* and *Narrow*, sequential decision making tasks which pose difficulties in cooperation in simple games.

In the Marching and Narrow games there are two agents, each with a radius of 0.05. Both games terminate after 200 steps. In Marching the agents must march towards a red dot. A shaped reward is provided for the two agents based on the distance between the agent's center point and the red dot. The agents receive a large penalty (-10) if they collide or are too far from one another (the distance between them is \geq 0.11), and receive a large reward (10) if they reach the red dot. The purpose of this game is to test whether the agents can coordinate their moving speeds.

Narrow requires the two agents to swap positions. They start at opposite ends in an aisle, and must pass one another to reach their goals. The aisle is narrow and requires coordination between two agents, because when they collide they receive a large penalty (-10). If both agents reach their goal positions, they both receive a large reward (10). We considered several variations of this game, with different aisle width and shaped reward functions.

Table 1 shows the results of the proposed algorithms in different domains compared against other algorithms. In the repeated game Max of Two Quadratics, MADDPG generally converged to a suboptimal Nash Equilibrium, while MAIRL and MGAIL made use of the demonstration and converged to the optimal Nash Equilibrium. In Marching, MGAIL performed the best. Although MADDPG and

Max of Two	MAIRL		MGAIL	MADDPG		TRPO	
Max of Two Ouadratics	9.78	± 0.07	$8.98 \hspace{0.2cm} \pm 0.35$	-0.03	± 0.02		
- Marching	152.88±129.76		-80.88 ± 52.08	-178.36 ± 89.46		-324.58 ± 111.88	
Narrow (u, 0.2)	5.99	± 0.84	$5.49 \hspace{0.2cm} \pm 1.79$	-2.00	±0.00	-2.00	±0.00
Narrow (u, 0.205)	4.53	±2.51	$5.54 \hspace{0.2cm} \pm 2.15$	-2.00	±0.00	-2.08	±0.16
Narrow (sh, 0.2)	-4.40	±0.85	-4.94 ±1.80	-23.46	±6.10	-79.21	±6.96
Narrow (sh, 0.205)	-6.76	±3.78	-5.23 ±2.13	-39.98±	37.06	-79.34	±4.54
Narrow (s, 0.2)	5.95	±0.83	5.44 ±1.78	-2.80	±1.32	-2.63	±0.14
Narrow (s, 0.205)	4.50	± 2.51	5.50 ±2.15	-3.68	±1.04	-2.66	±0.17
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u=*unshaped reward* sh=*shaped reward* s=*scaled shaped reward* Number in the parentheses marks the width of the field.

Table 1: Convergence results of algorithms by domain, showing the mean \pm standard error over 5 trials. The best-performing algorithms on each task are shown in boldface.

TRPO learned to march to the exit and to avoid relative overgeneralization, they had to make many collisions during movement.

In all cases of Narrow, MGAIL and MAIRL agents successfully reached the target. However, in the unshaped reward and scaled shaped reward setting, both MADDPG and TRPO agents failed to learn to pass one another. To understand the difference, we noticed that our imitation learning agents used an advantage function as reward, and $A_{soft}(s, a) = \mathbb{E}_{s'}[R(s, a) + V_{soft}(s') - V_{soft}(s)]$, which can be thought of as an original reward function shaped by a soft value function. Thus, our imitation learners were receiving a better reward signal for exploration.

4 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In this paper we proposed two methods to achieve better coordination in cooperative continuous games based on imitation learning. We showed that the proposed combined with coordination samples can avoid relative overgeneralization in cooperative games. A drawback of our approach is that the input space of our discriminator can grow linearly with the number of agents. We will investigate how to solve this issue in future work.

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