

Robotics

Part II: From Learning Model-based Control to Model-free Reinforcement Learning

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Where Did We Stop ...





Outline

- A Bit of Robotics History
- Foundations of Control
- Adaptive Control
- Learning Control
 - Model-based Robot Learning
 - Reinforcement Learning





Characteristics of Function Approximation in Robotics

- Incremental Learning
 - large amounts of data
 - continual learning
 - to be approximated functions of growing and unknown complexity
- Fast Learning
 - data efficient
 - computationally efficient
 - real-time
- Robust Learning
 - minimal interference
 - hundreds of inputs





Linear Regression: One of the Simplest Function Approximation Methods

Recall the simple adaptive control model with: $f(x) = \theta x$

- find the line through all data points
- imagine a spring attached between the line and each data point
- all springs have the same spring constant
- points far away generate more "force" (danger of outliers)
- springs are vertical
- solution is the minimum energy solution achieved by the springs





Linear Regression: One of the Simplest Function Approximation Methods

• The data generating model:

$$y = \tilde{\mathbf{w}}^T \tilde{\mathbf{x}} + w_0 + \varepsilon = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + \varepsilon$$

where
$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}^T, 1 \end{bmatrix}^T$$
, $\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{\mathbf{w}} \\ w_0 \end{bmatrix}$, $E\{\varepsilon\} = 0$

The Least Squares cost function

$$J = \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{y})^{T} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{y}) = \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w})^{T} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w})$$

where : $\mathbf{t} = \begin{bmatrix} t_{1} \\ t_{2} \\ \dots \\ t_{n} \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_{1}^{T} \\ \mathbf{x}_{2}^{T} \\ \dots \\ \mathbf{x}_{n}^{T} \end{bmatrix}$

• Minimizing the cost gives the least-square solution

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = 0 = \frac{\partial J}{\partial \mathbf{w}} \left(\frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^T (\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}) \right) = -(\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^T \mathbf{X}$$
$$= -\mathbf{t}^T \mathbf{X} + (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w})^T \mathbf{X} = -\mathbf{t}^T \mathbf{X} + \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$$
thus: $\mathbf{t}^T \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X}$ or $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{t} = \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{w}$ thus: $\mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{t}$



Recursive Least Squares: An Incremental Version of Linear Regression

• Based on the matrix inversion theorem:

$$(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}\mathbf{C})^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} + \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{I} + \mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{B})^{-1}\mathbf{C}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$$

Incremental updating of a linear regression model

Initialize:
$$\mathbf{P}^n = \mathbf{I} \frac{1}{\gamma}$$
 where $\gamma \ll 1$ (note $\mathbf{P} \equiv (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1}$

For every new data point (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{t})

(note that **x** includes the bias):

$$\mathbf{P}^{n+1} = \frac{1}{\lambda} \left(\mathbf{P}^n - \frac{\mathbf{P}^n \mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{P}^n}{\lambda + \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{P}^n \mathbf{x}} \right) \text{ where } \lambda = \begin{cases} 1 \text{ if no forgetting} \\ <1 \text{ if forgetting} \end{cases}$$
$$\mathbf{W}^{n+1} = \mathbf{W}^n + \mathbf{P}^{n+1} \mathbf{x} \left(\mathbf{t} - \mathbf{W}^{nT} \mathbf{x} \right)^T$$

- NOTE: RLS gives exactly the same solution as linear regression if no forgetting



Traversing Zoubin's Diagram















Learn forward model of task dynamics, then computer controller



Locally Weighted Regression

Model-based Reinforcement Learning of Devilsticking

Stefan Schaal & Chris Atkeson

Learn forward model of task dynamics, then computer controller



- Breaks down in high-dimensional spaces
- Computationally expensive and numerically brittle due to (incremental) dxd matrix inversion
- Not compatible with modern probabilistic statistical learning algorithms
- Too many "manual tuning parameters"



The Curse of Dimensionality

- The power of local learning comes from exploiting the discriminative power of local neighborhood relations.
- But the notion of a "local" breaks down in high dim. spaces!









A Bayesian Approach to Locally Weighted Learning

Linear Regression as a Graphical Model



$$y_{i} = \mathbf{x}_{i}^{T} \boldsymbol{\beta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}$$
$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \sim N(0, \boldsymbol{\psi}_{y})$$
$$\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{y}$$



A Bayesian Approach to Locally Weighted Learning

Inserting a Partial-Least-Squares-like projection as a set of hidden variables





A Bayesian Approach to Locally Weighted Learning

 Robust linear regression with automatic relevance detection (ARD, sparsification)





A Full Bayesian Treatment of Locally Weighted Learning

• The final model for full Bayesian parameter adaptation for regression and locality





• Learning the "cross" function in 20-dimensional space





Learning the "cross" function in 20-dimensional space







Locally Weighted Learning In High Dimensional Spaces

Learning inverse kinematics in 60 dimensional space





Locally Weighted Learning In High Dimensional Spaces

• Skill learning





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Trial & Error Learning Reinforcement Learning from Trajectories

• Problem:

- How can a motor system learn a novel motor skill?
- Reinforcement learning is a general approach to this problem, but little work has been done to scale to the highdimensional continuous stateaction domains of humans

• Approach:

- Teach with imitation learning the initial skill using a parameterized control policy
- Provide an objective function for the skill
- Perform trial-and-error learning from exploratory trajectories





Reinforcement Learning Terminology

- Policies
 - perceived state to action mapping (can be probabilistic)
- Reward functions
 - maps the perceived stateaction pair into a a single number, an immediate reward (stochastic)
- Value functions
 - maps the state into the accumulated expected reward that would be received if starting in the state
- Models
 - predicts the next state given the current state and action (can be probabilistic)

- Policy: what to do
- **Reward**: what is good
- Value: what is good because it predicts reward
- Model: what follows what

Objective: Optimize Reward!



Value Functions

• The value of a state is the expected return starting from that state; depends on the agent's policy:

State - value function for policy π :

$$V^{\pi}(\mathbf{x}) = E_{\pi} \left\{ R_t \mid \mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{x} \right\} = E_{\pi} \left\{ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k r_{t+k+1} \mid \mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{x} \right\}$$

 The value of taking an action in a state under policy π is the expected return starting from that state, taking that action, and thereafter following π:

Action - value function for policy π :

$$Q^{\pi}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{u}) = E_{\pi}\left\{R_{t} \mid \mathbf{x}_{t} = \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}_{t} = \mathbf{u}\right\} = E_{\pi}\left\{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{k} r_{t+k+1} \mid \mathbf{x}_{t} = \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}_{t} = \mathbf{u}\right\}$$



Bellman Equation for a Policy π

The basic idea:

$$R_{t} = r_{t+1} + \gamma r_{t+2} + \gamma^{2} r_{t+3} + \gamma^{3} r_{t+4} \cdots$$

= $r_{t+1} + \gamma \left(r_{t+2} + \gamma r_{t+3} + \gamma^{2} r_{t+4} \cdots \right)$
= $r_{t+1} + \gamma R_{t+1}$

So:

$$V^{\pi}(\mathbf{x}) = E_{\pi} \left\{ R_{t} \, \big| \, \mathbf{x}_{t} = \mathbf{x} \right\}$$
$$= E_{\pi} \left\{ r_{t+1} + \gamma V(\mathbf{x}_{t+1}) \big| \, \mathbf{x}_{t} = \mathbf{x} \right\}$$



Bellman Optimality Equation for V*

 The value of a state under an optimal policy must equal the expected return for the best action from that state:

$$V * (\mathbf{x}) = \max_{\mathbf{u} \in A(\mathbf{x})} Q^{\pi} (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u})$$

=
$$\max_{\mathbf{u} \in A(\mathbf{x})} E \left\{ r_{t+1} + \gamma V * (\mathbf{x}_{t+1} | \mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}_t = \mathbf{u}) \right\}$$

 V^* is the unique solution of this system of equations.



Bellman Optimality Equation for Q*

• The value of a state/action under an optimal policy must equal the expected return for this action from that state, and then following the optimal policy:

$$Q^*(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{u}) = E\left\{r_{t+1} + \gamma \max_{\mathbf{u}'} Q^*(\mathbf{x}_{t+1},\mathbf{u}') \middle| \mathbf{x}_t = \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}_t = \mathbf{u}\right\}$$

 Q^* is the unique solution of this system of equations.

Example: Learning a Pendulum Swing-Up



Learning

Perception

Action

Note: Both policy and value function are rather complex landscapes with discontinuities!





Some More Exciting Examples









State-Based vs. Trajectory-based Reinforcement Learning

- From about 1980-2000, value function-based (i.e., state-based) reinforcement learning has been dominant (textbook Sutton&Barto)
 - Pros:
 - well-understood theory
 - convergence proofs for discrete state-action systems
 - a useful set of algorithms to work with (model-based and model-free)
 - ideally a globally optimal solution
 - Cons:
 - problematic in continuous state-action spaces (max-operator in continuous spaces)
 - curse of dimensionality in high-dimensional systems
 - hard to combine with function approximation
 - greed (= agressive) updating

Trajectory-based reinforcement learning

- Pros:
 - can work in high dimensional continuous state-action spaces
 - does not suffer from the curse of dimensionality
- Cons:
 - Locally optimal solutions
 - classical methods learn very slowly

Trajectory-based Reinforement Learning with Parameterized Policies



$$\mathbf{u}(t) = \pi \left(\mathbf{x}(t), t, \alpha \right)$$

or
$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_{d}(t) = \pi \left(\mathbf{x}_{d}(t), t, \alpha \right)$$

Example: Dynamic Systems Policies, initalized by imitation

Learning

Perception

Action

$$\tau \ddot{y} = \alpha_z \left(\beta_z (g - y) - \dot{y} \right) + \frac{\sum_{i=1}^k w_i b_i x}{\sum_{i=1}^k w_i}$$
$$\tau \dot{x} = -\alpha_x x$$



Trajectory-based Reinforcement Learning

• Define a cost function <u>along the trajectory</u>:

Learning

Perception

Action

$$J = E_{\tau} \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^{T} r_i \right\}$$

• And a parameterized control policy (e.g., a movement primitive)

$$\tau \dot{\mathbf{y}} = f(\mathbf{y}, goal, \mathbf{b})$$

Optimize J with respect to parameters b, e.g., by gradient descent

$$\mathbf{b}^{n+1} = \mathbf{b}^n + \alpha \frac{\partial J}{\partial \mathbf{b}}$$





Reinforcement Learning from Trajectories

- State-of-the-art of Reinforcement Learning from Trajectories:
 - Given the cost per trajectory au :
 - The motor primitives with parameters **b**:
 - RL with Natural Gradients

$$J = E_{\tau} \left\{ \sum_{i=0}^{T} r_i \right\}$$

$$\tau \dot{\mathbf{y}} = f(\mathbf{y}, goal, \mathbf{b})$$

$$\mathbf{b}^{new} = \mathbf{b}^{old} + \alpha \frac{\partial J_{NAC}}{\partial \mathbf{b}}$$

 $\mathbf{b}^{new} \propto \sum_{\tau} R_{\tau} \mathbf{b}_{\tau} / \sum_{\tau} R_{\tau}$

- Probabilistic RL with Reward-Weighted Regression
- Trajectory-based Q-learning (fitted Q-iteration)
 - an actor-critic based method based on an action-value function over trajectories
- RL with path-integrals (a probabilistic, model-based/model-free approach derived from stochastic optimal control)



Pre-requisites

System Dynamics (Control-Affine): $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x},t) + \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x})(\mathbf{u}(t) + \mathbf{\varepsilon}(t)) = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{u},t)$

Cost Function:

$$r_{t} = q(\mathbf{x}_{t}) + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{u}_{t}^{T} \mathbf{R} \mathbf{u}_{t}$$
$$J_{\mathbf{x}_{t}} = E_{\mathbf{x}_{t}} \left\{ q_{T} + \int_{t'=t}^{T} r_{t'} dt' \right\}$$

Note: this is a more structured approach to RL

 \rightarrow Goal: find commands **u** that minimize this cost



Sketch of the Path-Integral Derivation

Stochastic HJB Equations:

$$-\partial_{t}V(\mathbf{x}_{t},t) = \min_{\mathbf{u}_{tt_{m}}} \left[r_{t} + \partial_{\mathbf{x}}V(\mathbf{x}_{t},t)^{T} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{u},t) + \frac{1}{2} Tr \left\{ \Omega(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{u},t) \partial_{\mathbf{x}}^{2}V(\mathbf{x}_{t},t) \right\} \right]$$

$$\min_{\mathbf{u}_{tx_{m}}} \left[\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{u}_{t}^{T} \mathbf{R} \mathbf{u}_{t} + q_{t} + \partial_{\mathbf{x}} V(\mathbf{x}_{t}, t)^{T} \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, t) + \partial_{\mathbf{x}} V(\mathbf{x}_{t}, t)^{T} \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{u}(t) + \frac{1}{2} Tr \left\{ \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}) \Sigma \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x})^{T} \partial_{\mathbf{x}}^{2} V(\mathbf{x}_{t}, t) \right\} \right] = 0$$
$$\mathbf{u}_{t}^{T} \mathbf{R} + \partial_{\mathbf{x}} V(\mathbf{x}_{t}, t)^{T} \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}_{t}) = 0$$

$$\mathbf{u}_{t} = -\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}_{t})^{T} \partial_{\mathbf{x}} V(\mathbf{x}_{t}, t)$$



• Sketch of the Path-Integral Derivation

$$-\partial_{t}V(\mathbf{x}_{t},t) = \min_{\mathbf{u}_{t_{i_{m}}}} \left[r_{t} + \partial_{\mathbf{x}}V(\mathbf{x}_{t},t)^{T} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{u},t) + \frac{1}{2}Tr\left\{ \Omega(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{u},t)\partial_{\mathbf{x}}^{2}V(\mathbf{x}_{t},t) \right\} \right]$$
$$\mathbf{u}_{t} = -\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}_{t})^{T} \partial_{\mathbf{x}}V(\mathbf{x}_{t},t)$$
$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x},t) + \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x})(\mathbf{u}(t) + \mathbf{\varepsilon}(t))$$

$$-\partial_{t}V(\mathbf{x}_{t},t) = -\frac{1}{2}\partial_{\mathbf{x}}V(\mathbf{x}_{t},t)^{T}\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x})^{T}\partial_{\mathbf{x}}V(\mathbf{x}_{t},t) + q_{t} + \partial_{\mathbf{x}}V(\mathbf{x}_{t},t)^{T}\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x},t) + \frac{1}{2}Tr\{\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x})\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x})^{T}\partial_{\mathbf{x}}^{2}V(\mathbf{x}_{t},t)\}$$



• Sketch of the Path-Integral Derivation

 $-\partial_{t}V(\mathbf{x}_{t},t) = -\frac{1}{2}\partial_{\mathbf{x}}V(\mathbf{x}_{t},t)^{T}\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{R}^{-1}\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x})^{T}\partial_{\mathbf{x}}V(\mathbf{x}_{t},t) + q_{t} + \partial_{\mathbf{x}}V(\mathbf{x}_{t},t)^{T}\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x},t) + \frac{1}{2}Tr\left\{\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x})\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x})^{T}\partial_{\mathbf{x}}^{2}V(\mathbf{x}_{t},t)\right\}$

Simplification: $\lambda \mathbf{R}^{-1} = \Sigma$ Log-Transformation Trick: $V(\mathbf{x}_{t},t) = -\lambda \log \psi(\mathbf{x}_{t},t)$

$$\partial_t \psi(\mathbf{x}_t, t) = \frac{1}{\lambda} \psi(\mathbf{x}_t, t) q_t - \partial_\mathbf{x} \psi(\mathbf{x}_t, t)^T \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, t) - \frac{1}{2} Tr \Big\{ \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}) \Sigma \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x})^T \partial_\mathbf{x}^2 \psi(\mathbf{x}_t, t) \Big\}$$

Chapman Kolmogorov PDE: 2nd Order and Linear



Sketch of the Path-Integral Derivation

$$\partial_t \psi(\mathbf{x}_t, t) = \frac{1}{\lambda} \psi(\mathbf{x}_t, t) q_t - \partial_\mathbf{x} \psi(\mathbf{x}_t, t)^T \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, t) - \frac{1}{2} Tr \left\{ \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}) \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x})^T \partial_\mathbf{x}^2 \psi(\mathbf{x}_t, t) \right\}$$



Application of Feynman-Kac Theorem: A numerical method to solve certain PDEs

$$\boldsymbol{\psi}(\mathbf{x}_{t},t) = E_{\tau} \left\{ \boldsymbol{\psi}(\mathbf{x}_{T},T) \exp\left(-\int_{t'=t}^{t'=T} \frac{1}{\lambda} q_{t'} dt'\right) \right\}$$



• Sketch of the Path-Integral Derivation

$$\psi(\mathbf{x}_{t},t) = E_{\tau} \left\{ \psi(\mathbf{x}_{T},T) \exp\left(-\int_{t'=t}^{t'=T} \frac{1}{\lambda} q_{t'} dt'\right) \right\}$$
$$\mathbf{u}_{t} = -\mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{x}_{t})^{T} \partial_{\mathbf{x}} V(\mathbf{x}_{t},t)$$

A bit of algebra ...

$$\mathbf{u}_{t} = E_{\tau} \left\{ w_{\tau} \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{G} (\mathbf{x}_{t})^{T} \left(\mathbf{G} (\mathbf{x}_{t}) \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{G} (\mathbf{x}_{t})^{T} \right)^{-1} \mathbf{G} (\mathbf{x}_{t}) \mathbf{\varepsilon}_{t} \right\}$$

Optimal Control Law



 Note that a version of motor primitives can be written as control affine stochastic differential equations

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = f(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{g}^{T}(\boldsymbol{\theta} + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon})$$

- ε is interpreted as intentionally injected exploration noise
- the parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ are the control vector
- f(x) is the spring-damper of the primitives
- g(x) are the basis functions of the function approximator
- It is also necessary to create a iterative version of path integral optimal control
 - the original path integral optimal control framework explores only based on the passive dynamics, i.e., u=0



Pl² Reinforcement Learning

• For parameterized policies like dynamic motor primitives, a beautifully simple algorithm results:

1) Create K trajectories of the motor primitive for a given task with noise.

2) We can write the cost to go from every time step t of the trajectory as:

$$R_t = q_T + \sum_{i=t}^T r_i$$

3) The probability of a trajectory becomes

$$P(\xi_t^k) = \frac{\exp\left(-\frac{1}{\lambda}R_t^k\right)}{\sum_{j=1}^{K}\exp\left(-\frac{1}{\lambda}R_t^j\right)}$$

4) Update the parameter θ of the motor primitive as

$$\Delta \boldsymbol{\theta}_{t} = \sum_{k=1}^{K} P\left(\boldsymbol{\xi}_{t}^{k}\right) \frac{\mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{g}^{k}(\mathbf{x}_{t}) \mathbf{g}^{k}(\mathbf{x}_{t})^{T}}{\mathbf{g}^{k}(\mathbf{x}_{t})^{T} \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{g}^{k}(\mathbf{x}_{t})} \boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_{t}^{k}$$

5) Final parameter update

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{new} = \boldsymbol{\theta}^{old} + \overline{\Delta \boldsymbol{\theta}}$$

Note that there a NO open tuning parameters except for the exploration noise



Pl² Reinforcement Learning

• The Intuition of Path Integral Reinforcement Learning

position

- Generate multiple trials *i* with some variation, e.g., due to noise or exploration
- For every time t, compute the cost R_t^i for every trial:

$$R_t^i = q_T + \int_t^T q(\mathbf{x}_t) + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{u}_t^T \mathbf{R} \mathbf{u}_t d\tau_t$$

 Convert the cost into a positive weight

$$w_t^i = \exp\left(-\lambda R_t^i\right)$$

- Update the motor command at every time step to be the reward weighted average of all experienced commands in the trial $\sum w_t^i \mathbf{u}_t^i$

$$\mathbf{u}_t^{new} = \frac{\sum_{i} w_t^{i} \mathbf{u}_t}{\sum_{i} w_t^{i}}$$



Surprisingly, this intuition turns out to be the optimal solution



Pl² Reinforcement Learning: Some Remarks

• Pl² can be model-based to model-free

Rigid Body Dynamics:
$$\ddot{\mathbf{q}} = \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{q})^{-1} (\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{C}(\mathbf{q}, \dot{\mathbf{q}}) \dot{\mathbf{q}} + \mathbf{G}(\mathbf{q}))$$

Control Law: $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}_{ff} + \mathbf{K}_p (\mathbf{q}_d - \mathbf{q}) + \mathbf{K}_D (\dot{\mathbf{q}}_d - \dot{\mathbf{q}})$
Motor Primitives: $\ddot{q}_d^i = \alpha_z (\beta_z (g^i - q_d^i) - \dot{q}_d^i) + \boldsymbol{\psi}^T \boldsymbol{\theta}$

- Pl² can optimize trajectory plans, controllers, or both
- PI² has only one open parameter, i.e., the level of exploration noise
- Pl² allows a rather simple derivation of inverse reinforcement learning















Example: Dog Jump





This is a 12 DOF motor system, using 50 basis functions per primitive. Learning converges after about 20-30 trial! Performance improved by 15cm (0.5 body lengths)









Peter Pastor Mrinal Kalakrishnan Sachin Chitta Research conducted at Willow Garage Learning Locomotion over Rough Terrain

Learning Locomotion with LittleDog

Learning

Action

http://www-clmc.usc.edu

Mrinal Kalakrishnan, Jonas Buchli, Peter Pastor, Michael Mistry, and Stefan Schaal



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What Comes Next?



Towards Truly Autonomous Robots



Very Big Robots

Very Little Robots