MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD APPROACH

FOR.

Model-Free Inverse Reinforcement Learning

by

VINAMRA JAIN

(Under the Direction of Prashant Doshi)

Abstract

Preparing an intelligent system in advance to respond optimally in every possible situation is difficult. Machine learning approaches like Inverse Reinforcement Learning can help learning behavior using a limited number of demonstrations. We present a model-free technique by applying maximum likelihood estimation to an IRL problem. To make our approach model-free, we model the environment using the canonical Markov Decision Process tuple, except we exclude the transition function. We define our reward function as a linear function of a known set of features. We use a modified Q-learning technique, called Q-Averaging. The direction for optimization is guided by the gradient of likelihood function for current feature weights until the unknown reward function is identified.

Experimental results over a grid world problem supports our model-free representation of an IRL technique. We also extend our experiments to real-world freeway merging problem of autonomous cars and the results are significant.

INDEX WORDS: Maximum Likelihood, Inverse Reinforcement Learning, Model Free, Markov Decision Process, Q-Averaging

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VINAMRA JAIN

B.E., Rajiv Gandhi Technical University, 2014

A Thesis Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of The University of Georgia in Partial Fulfillment $\qquad \qquad \text{of the}$

Requirements for the Degree

MASTER OF SCIENCE

ATHENS, GEORGIA

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DEDICATION

To my Mom and Dad.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would first express my deepest gratitude to my major professor Dr. Prashant Doshi for his countless motivation and support. The weekly meetings and discussions held by Prof. Doshi kept me pushing towards the success of this thesis. I would also like to thank Dr. Yi Hong and Dr. Frederick Maier for being a part of my thesis committee. Prof. Maier also helped me in getting access to some of the great resources of university.

I would like to thank Roi Ceren and Helene Halstead for helping me proofread my thesis document. I would like to thank Sanath Bhat for his insights and expertise. His guidance helped me to understand my work even deeper.

I would like to thank my parents and my sister for never losing faith in me and always encouraging me to achieve my goals. I would like to extend a very special thanks to Lovina Dmello for forcing me to keep moving ahead even in difficult times. I would like to thank Jugal Panchal and Chirag Jain for their unfailing support.

Finally, I must express my profound gratitude to the Thinc Lab and Department of Computer Science with all faculties and students for all the stimulating discussions and insightful comments throughout my master's degree.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

In this chapter, we catalog the purpose and significance of this thesis. Section 1.1 describes the problem that is solved during the course of thesis. Section 1.2 illustrates the motivation behind this thesis. The freeway merging problem involving autonomous cars and the need of solving that problem using our approach is well discussed in motivation. The contributions are noted in Section 1.3 and the structure of thesis is outlined in Section 1.4.

1.1 Problem

Machine Learning is the technology that enables computers to become intelligent. Google's self-driving cars and robots are programmed using machine learning algorithms to learn how to make optimal decisions in any given environment. One way of programming an agent is by a Reinforcement Learning (RL) algorithm. In each time-step, the agent makes a decision and performs an action, this results in some specific rewards. If rewards are positive, the agent is more likely to perform similar actions in the future. If rewards are negative, the agent tries to avoid similar actions for this state. Hence, in reinforcement learning, the agent's action in future situations are determined by the rewards achieved in the past for similar situations. However, explicitly defining a reward function is not always easy. Also, RL algorithms usually require a large number of iterations before converging to a near-optimal policy, which is not efficient.

Another way of programming an agent to learn how to perform is using Inverse Reinforcement Learning (IRL). Here, the reward function is not defined explicitly; instead, it is expressed in term of features affecting the reward of an agent. IRL is the inverse of RL as the input and output of each are interchanged. The input to an RL is the rewards from previous actions and the output is the learned optimal policy, whereas the input to IRL is an optimal policy (referred as expert's trajectories) and the output is the learned reward function as shown in figure 1.1. It is also categorized as supervised learning since the expert's demonstrations play a crucial role in an agent's learning. IRL problems are mostly modeled as a Markov Decision Process (MDP). In this thesis, expert's trajectories are modeled as a likelihood function. The solution of the IRL problem over a likelihood function is expected to return the reward function of the expert.

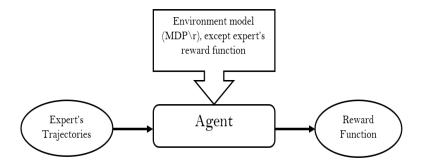


Figure 1.1: The typical framing of an Inverse Reinforcement Learning (IRL) scenario: an agent takes expert's trajectories as input and with prior knowledge of expert's environment, it tries to infer the expert's reward function.

1.2 MOTIVATION

Motivated by a freeway merging domain involving autonomous cars, we develop a model which can be used by an autonomous car in making optimal decisions about merging onto a freeway. The industries investing in self-driving cars are highly concerned with the safety of passengers but they also want an optimal mobility of the vehicle. Researchers focusing on autonomous vehicles have raised the freeway merging problem as one of the significant unresolved challenges. The preferences of a driver for allowing a car to merge on the freeway

occasionally changes depending on multiple factors. We present a novel approach to developing this preference model by maximizing the likelihood of trajectories of vehicles on right-most lane of a freeway using our IRL algorithm. This model can be used by autonomous cars for making strategic decisions.

The complexity of manually specifying rewards in this domain urge us to prefer inverse reinforcement learning over reinforcement learning. Also, IRL helps us to learn the behavior of experts using their trajectories as input. In the freeway merging domain we have the trajectories of drivers of vehicles in the rightmost lane of the freeway and they are assumed to behave optimally in the environment. Hence, using these trajectories as input to an IRL setting, we can learn the preference model of these drivers. The modeling of the transition function in presence of stochastic human drivers in the environment may compromise the safety of passengers in autonomous cars. This inspires the need to develop a model-free approach to perform IRL.

1.3 Contribution

This thesis has three contributions:

- 1. Most of the previous work in the field of IRL depends heavily on the system's ability to learn transition model from a limited number of trajectories, if not available in environment model of the domain. We devise a model-free IRL approach by dropping the need for a transition function from the standard maximum likelihood IRL approach.
- 2. We incorporate a modified Q-learning algorithm, dubbed Q-Averaging, to remove the max operator from the canonical Q-learning algorithm. This would resolve the issue of Q-function being non-differentiable. Also, using Q-Averaging helps us eliminate the dependency of transition function without affecting the learning abilities of an agent.

3. We illustrate the validity of our algorithm on a real-world domain of freeway merging for autonomous cars. The vehicle trajectory data used for learning the behavior is extracted from NGSIM Interstate-80 freeway dataset.

1.4 Structure of Thesis

This thesis is structured as follows. In Chapter 2, we discuss a few concepts that, in general, which will make the thesis more comprehensible. It includes topics like the Markov Decision Process (MDP), Reinforcement Learning (RL), Inverse Reinforcement learning (IRL), with details about two existing IRL algorithms which are used in the body of work. Chapter 3 outlines a survey of related works in the field of IRL. Chapter 4 describes the main algorithm of the thesis. It also includes a mathematical model for our approach. The problem domains and datasets are illustrated in Chapter 5. Chapter 6 demonstrates the experiments and results of the IRL problem and their comparisons with existing methods. Finally, this document concludes in Chapter 7.

1.5 Summary

In this chapter, the focus was to give a very broad idea of the context of this work. We started by describing the problem statement and the motivation behind selecting IRL over RL and the rationale for pursing a model-free approach. In the middle of this chapter we discussed the contributions we made in this thesis. We concluded by giving the basic outline of the rest of the thesis.

Chapter 2

Background

In this chapter, we define several terms and concepts which build the foundation to comprehend the later sections of thesis. We start by defining the Markov Decision Process (MDP) in Section 2.1. In Section 2.2, we discuss the concept of maximum likelihood estimation. In Section 2.3 and Section 2.4, we describe reinforcement learning (RL) and inverse reinforcement learning respectively, followed by their closely related algorithms. The term model-free IRL is discussed significantly in Section 2.5 and the concept of gradient-based optimization is covered in Section 2.6.

2.1 Markov Decision Process

In domains of robotics and automated control systems, the problem of sequential decision making for stochastic environments is often modeled mathematically as the Markov Decision Process (MDP). Sequential decision making requires optimization to maximize the utility from agent's actions in past. MDPs are helpful in exploring optimization problems solved using reinforcement learning, inverse reinforcement learning, and many other dynamic programing techniques. An MDP is defined as tuple $\langle S, A, T, R, \gamma \rangle$, where

- S is a finite set of states.
- A is a finite set of actions.
- T is the state transition probability function, $T: S \times A \times S \rightarrow [0,1]$

$$T(s' \mid s, a) = P(s_{t+1} = s' \mid s_t = s, a_t = a)$$

 $T(s' \mid s, a)$ gives the probability of reaching s' from s executing action a.

• R is the reward function. Reward functions can be modeled as $R(s, a, s') : S \times A \times S \to \mathbb{R}$ or as $R(s, a) : S \times A \to \mathbb{R}$ depending upon the environment in play.

R(s, a, s') is the reward expected when an agent in state s takes an action a and lands in state s'.

R(s, a) is the immediate reward associated with the agent executing an action a being in state s.

 \bullet γ is the discount factor, parameter that determines the importance of future rewards.

$$\gamma \in [0,1]$$

The solution of an MDP is a policy that associates an action with every state that the agent might reach. The utility of a state sequence is the sum of all the rewards over the sequence, often discounted over time. The goal is to solve the MDP to find an optimal policy that maximizes the utility of the state sequences.

The utility of a state is the expected utility of the state sequences encountered when an optimal policy is executed when starting in that state. The value iteration algorithm for solving MDPs works by iteratively solving the equations relating the utility of each state to those of its neighbors, whereas the policy iteration algorithm alternates between calculating the utilities of states under the current policy and improving the current policy with respect to the current known utilities.

2.2 Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Maximum likelihood estimation is a widely applicable statistical method of estimating unknown parameter values for fixed sets of data and a known statistical model. The likelihood of a set of data is the probability of obtaining that particular set of data, given the probability distribution model. In simple terms, it is the value of parameters which makes the observed data most probable. Maximum likelihood estimation gives a unified approach

to estimation, which is well-defined in the case of the normal distribution and many other problems.

Suppose $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$ is a sample of n independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) observations. The assumed probability distribution depends on some unknown parameter θ . The goal of maximum likelihood estimation in this case is to find the values of unknown parameters that maximize the probabilistic likelihood of the observed data.

The joint density function of all observations can be denoted as f_{θ} . For an i.i.d. sample, this joint density function is

$$f_{\theta}(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n \mid \theta) = f(x_1 \mid \theta) \times f(x_2 \mid \theta) \times ... \times f(x_n \mid \theta)$$
 (2.1)

In the maximum likelihood method, we represent the joint density function as likelihood function, $L(\theta)$,

$$L(\theta; x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i \mid \theta)$$
 (2.2)

The value of each $f(x_i \mid \theta)$ is a fraction and multiplying these fractions tends to reach the total value of likelihood towards zero. Rather than maximizing this product, which can be quite tedious and also could lead to extremely small value, we often use the fact that the logarithm is a monotonically increasing function, so it will be equivalent to maximize the log-likelihood:

$$L(\theta; x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log f(x_i \mid \theta)$$
 (2.3)

The maximum likelihood estimation method the calculates the value of $\hat{\theta}$ that maximizes the value of $L(\theta)$.

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg\max_{\theta} L(\theta; x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)$$
(2.4)

2.3 Reinforcement Learning

Reinforcement learning (RL) is a type of machine learning technique which allows an agent to learn its behavior in order to maximize its performance. The agent does not know a priori which action to take, but instead it must explore which action yields the most reward, based on reward feedback from the environment, also known as a reinforcement signal. This behavior is adaptive in nature. If the problem is modeled with care, some RL algorithms can converge to the global optimum; this is the ideal behavior that maximizes the reward.

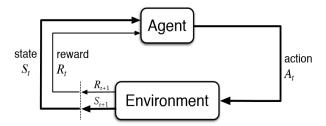


Figure 2.1: The typical framing of a Reinforcement Learning (RL) scenario: an agent takes actions in an environment, which results into a reward and a representation of the state, which are fed back to the agent [21].

Reinforcement signals are different than supervised learning. In supervised learning, an agent learns from the feedback of an expert's behavior, but such feedback is not always available. If no feedback is available, an agent can learn a transition model for its own moves and can perhaps learn to predict the opponent's moves, but the agent will have no grounds for deciding which moves to make. Reinforcement signals from the environment can be received at each time step or together at the end. For example, in games like chess, the reinforcement is received at the end, which helps agents learn what moves not to make when playing the next turn. In games like darts, each point scored is a reward and it helps in improving the agent in the next shot.

Apart from the agent and the environment, the reinforcement learning problem needs to define following four elements as well: a policy, a reward function, a value function, and a model of the environment.

A policy is mapping each state of the environment to an action taken from those states. A policy can be stochastic or deterministic. An optimal policy, usually denoted by π^* , is the best policy, i.e. one that maximizes the cumulative reward over the likelihood of all possible states.

A reward function maps each state or a state-action pair of the environment to a real number. The action selected by the policy results in the reward for that event. As the sole objective of reinforcement learning is to receive maximum reward, if the reward is poor the policy needs to be altered in order to improve the reward.

Value iteration is an algorithm used to calculate the utility of each state from the environment. The utility of a state is the immediate reward for that state plus the expected discounted utility of the next state, assuming that the agent responds according to the most optimal policy available. The value iteration algorithm helps produce an optimal policy that maximizes the accumulated reward.

The environment is modeled as stochastic finite state machine with inputs being actions sent from the agent and outputs being observations and rewards sent to the agent. MDPs are widely used for modeling sequential decision-making environments. Algorithms for solving reinforcement learning problems that use models and planning are known as model-based algorithms, whereas model-free algorithms can be conceived of as trial and error learners with no transition model or planning involved.

2.3.1 Q-LEARNING

Learning by an agent can be passive or active. In passive learning, the agent learns the utilities of states or state-action pairs using a fixed policy. In contrast, in active learning an agent explores a model of the environment to learn how to behave by altering its policy to maximize the cumulative reward over time. Q-learning is a very popular model-free active learning technique used to solve reinforcement learning problems. A Q-learning agent learns an action-value function, Q, also known as Q-function,

$$Q: S \times A \to \mathbb{R}$$

giving the expected utility of taking an action in a given state. Q-learning is an off-policy method for Temporal Difference (TD) learning. Off-policy means that the Q-learning calculates an optimal Q-function, Q^* , and hence learns the optimal policy, π^* even when actions

are selected in a more random or exploratory fashion rather than directly from the policy in play. The basic Q-update equation for Q-learning is defined as:

$$Q(s,a) \leftarrow Q(s,a) + \alpha (R + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s',a') - Q(s,a))$$
 (2.5)

Equation 2.5 is calculated whenever the agent executes action $a \in A$ from state $s \in S$ and moves to $s' \in S$, receiving the reward stimulus specified in the reward function R. The Q-table is initiated with random values. Then, at each iteration, the agent selects an action and observes the reward and the next state. The action selected by agent at each step is the action that has the highest observed reward. The overall reward resulting from all the actions of agent is accumulated as the weighted sum of individual rewards at each time step. R is the immediate reward received from the behavior of the agent.

The learning schedule $\alpha \in [0, 1]$, governs the magnitude of the update. If $\alpha = 0$, then the Q-function will never be updated, and if $\alpha = 1$, only the most recent information is considered.

The learning schedule $\gamma \in [0, 1]$, weights the rewards of all future steps reachable from current steps. If $\gamma = 0$, it means that the agent will consider only the current rewards and neglects the future ones, while if $\gamma = 1$, the utilities might reach infinite value for non-terminating or lengthy episodes.

```
Initialize Q(s,a), \forall s \in \mathcal{S}, a \in \mathcal{A}(s), arbitrarily, and Q(terminal\text{-}state, \cdot) = 0
Repeat (for each episode):
Initialize S
Repeat (for each step of episode):
Choose A from S using policy derived from Q (e.g., \varepsilon-greedy)
Take action A, observe R, S'
Q(S,A) \leftarrow Q(S,A) + \alpha[R + \gamma \max_a Q(S',a) - Q(S,A)]
S \leftarrow S';
until S is terminal
```

Figure 2.2: Q-learning algorithm for an exploratory agent [21].

2.4 Inverse Reinforcement Learning

RL problems assume that the reward function is known and fixed, but is not always the case. Stuart Russell [2] proposed the need for a technique that could achieve the same task as RL but without specifying the reward function manually, called Inverse reinforcement learning (IRL). IRL is the problem of learning the most favorable reward function with the help of an expert agent's demonstrations. In IRL, the agent that tries to learn the reward function is usually referred to as the learner, and the agent whose behavior is mimicked by learner is known as the expert. The expert is assumed to behave optimally and, hence, its demonstrations are assumed to generate maximum rewards. The learner does not have access to expert's reward function. In IRL, the environment is modeled as an MDP without the reward function, MDP\r : $\langle S, A, T, \gamma \rangle$. IRL is based on Learning from Demonstrations (LfD), also known as Imitation Learning or Apprenticeship Learning (AL). Unlike AL, where the goal is to find a policy that performs like the expert, in IRL the goal is to find a reward function that is similar to that of the expert.

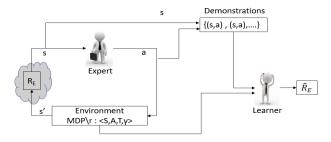


Figure 2.3: Relationship between the RL and IRL problems. The expert tries to learn the optimal policy using RL technique. The learner, however, uses the expert's trajectories (optimal policies) and infers expert's rewards using IRL technique.

Figure 2.3 illustrates the basic difference between RL problems and IRL problems. As the name suggests, IRL is essentially the inverse of RL. The input in RL problems is the reinforcement signal or reward function, R_E , and the output is policy. However, in IRL, the input is a policy or demonstrations and the output is the inferred reward function, \hat{R}_E . Demonstrations are assumed to maximize the reward as the expert behaves as in canonical

RL, choosing an action according to the previous rewards. The learner receives the expert's demonstrations and infers a reward function using the IRL method.

In IRL problems, the reward function is widely expressed as weighted sum of binary features [4]. $R(s,a) = \sum_i \phi_i(s,a)\theta_i$, where $\theta_i \in \mathbb{R}$ are weights and $\phi_i(s,a) \to 0,1$ are binary feature functions for each state-action pair. However, there might be multiple reward functions that corresponds to an expert's behavior. Ng and Russell [3] proposed a solution for removing this degeneracy by formulating the IRL problem as linear program which results in a unique optimal policy.

The demonstrations are a set of trajectories, each of which is a sequence of state-action pairs recorded from expert's behavior.

$$D = \{\zeta_1, \zeta_2, ..., \zeta_n\}$$

$$\zeta_i = \{(s_1, a_1)^i, (s_2, a_2)^i, ..., (s_m, a_m)^i\}$$

2.4.1 Bayesian IRL

IRL has always been seen to accomplish either of the two tasks: reward learning or apprenticeship learning. Ramachandran and Amir [9] proposed a different way to model an IRL problem using a Bayesian inferencing approach. As we discussed before, multiple reward functions might explain the expert's behavior. Bayesian IRL (BIRL), allows us to derive a probability distribution over the space of reward functions. The actions of the expert are considered as evidence and the prior knowledge on an expert's reward function can be included in the inference. BIRL relaxes the assumption that the expert always behaves optimally and that its demonstrations will produce maximum rewards.

The mathematical model for BIRL derives a posterior distribution for rewards from the prior distribution. Let us consider an agent E, operating in a $MDP :< S, A, T, \gamma >. R$ is the reward function of the expert, chosen from prior distribution P_R . The demonstrations $D_E = \{(s_1, a_1), (s_2, a_2), ..., (s_m, a, m)\}$, recorded from an expert's behavior, is also given as an input to IRL problem. BIRL models the likelihood of an state-action pair given prior

distribution as an exponential distribution of the Q-function. The larger the $Q^*(s, a)$, the more likely this state-action pair is in demonstration.

$$P_E((s_i, a_i) \mid R) = \frac{1}{Z_i} e^{\alpha_E Q^*(s_i, a_i, R)}$$
 (2.6)

where, α_E is a confidence parameter that controls the expert's ability to choose the action with highest value. Similarly, the likelihood of an expert's entire demonstrations is:

$$P_E(D_E \mid R) = \frac{1}{Z} e^{\alpha_E E(D_E, R)}$$
(2.7)

where, $E(D_E, R) = \sum_i Q^*(s_i, a_i, R)$ and Z is a normalization constant.

Applying Bayes theorem to calculate the posterior probability of reward function R conditioned on expert's evidence,

$$P_{E}(R \mid D_{E}) = \frac{P_{E}(D_{E} \mid R)P_{R}(R)}{P(D_{E})}$$

$$= \frac{1}{Z'}e^{\alpha_{E}E(D_{E},R)}P_{R}(R)$$
(2.8)

The normalization constant, Z', is hard to compute, hence the posterior is estimated using a sampling technique. The authors [9] use modified Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) with a uniform prior for inferencing. Now the two tasks of IRL becomes reward estimation and policy estimation from reward learning and apprenticeship learning, respectively. The reward estimation task can be achieved by minimizing the loss function, calculated as the norm distance between the actual and estimated rewards. This loss function is minimized by setting the estimated rewards as the mean of the posterior from which the actual rewards are drawn. In the case of policy estimation, the loss function is defined as the norm distance between the value of each state achieved by the optimal policy and the value of the expected policy that minimizes the loss over posterior rewards.

Ramachandran and Amir [9], were the first to propose the idea of Bayesian inferencing in IRL problems which later become the framework of many other algorithms [15, 16]

2.4.2 Maximum Likelihood IRL

Since Maximum Likelihood IRL (MLIRL) is just another approach to solve an IRL problem, the framework still remains the same. As such, the expert, learner, and environment are modeled as an $MDP :< S, A, T, \gamma >$, the expert's demonstrations $D_E = \{\zeta_1, \zeta_2 ..., \zeta_n\}$ and other IRL settings. Babes et al. [1] expressed the reward function as $R_{\theta}(s, a) = \theta^T \phi(s, a)$, where, θ is a set of reward weights and $\phi(s, a)$ is feature set for state $s \in S$ and action $a \in A$ pair. Since the learner is unaware of the expert's reward function, the goal of learner is to use the available information from the environment and the expert's trajectories to estimate the feature weights θ_L that mimic the values that are used to generate those demonstrations.

```
Algorithm: Maximum Likelihood IRL

Input: MDP\r, features φ, trajectories \{\xi_1, \ldots, \xi_N\}, number of iterations M, step size for each iteration (t) \alpha_t, 1 \le t < M.

Initialize: Choose random set of reward weights \theta_1.

for t = 1 to M do

Compute Q_{\theta_t}, \pi_{\theta_t}.

L = \sum_i \sum_{(s,a) \in \xi} \log(\pi_{\theta_t}(s,a)).

\theta_{t+1} \leftarrow \theta_t + \alpha_t \nabla L.

end for

Output: Return \theta_A = \theta_M.
```

Figure 2.4: Maximum Likelihood IRL algorithm[1].

Figure 2.4 shows the MLIRL algorithm [1], which starts by assigning a random set of values to the learner's feature weights. This helps in assigning the likelihood to the expert's trajectory. The optimization is guided by the gradient of the likelihood function at current known feature weight values θ_L .

Let us scrutinize the implementation details of the MLIRL [1] approach. First, θ_L is used to calculate the expected values discounted over horizon:

$$Q_{\theta_L}(s, a) = R_{\theta_L}(s, a) + \gamma \sum_{s'} T(s, a, s') \frac{\sum_a Q(s, a) e^{\beta Q(s, a)}}{\sum_{a'} e^{\beta Q(s, a')}}$$
(2.9)

The max operator from the conventional Bellman equation was making the likelihood function non-differentiable. In order to use the gradient approach for optimization of likelihood function, it needs to be differentiable. Babes et al. [1] replaces the max operator by using the Boltzmann exploration for calculating the Q-values and thus making the likelihood function differentiable.

Instead of calculating the likelihood of trajectories in [1], authors calculate the loglikelihood of trajectories as we discussed above the advantages of doing so. The log-likelihood function is defined as:

$$L(D \mid \theta) = \log \prod_{i=1}^{N} \prod_{(s,a)\in\zeta_i} \pi_{\theta}(s,a) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{(s,a)\in\zeta_i} \log \pi_{\theta}(s,a)$$
 (2.10)

The policy $\pi_{\theta}(s, a)$ is calculated using the Boltzmann exploration as:

$$\pi_{\theta}(s, a) = \frac{e^{\beta Q_{\theta}(s, a)}}{\sum_{a'} e^{\beta Q_{\theta}(s, a')}} \tag{2.11}$$

Thus, the solution for maximum likelihood in MLIRL [1] is expressed as:

$$\theta_L = \arg\max_{\theta} L(D \mid \theta) \tag{2.12}$$

Unlike other conventional IRL approaches, MLIRL resolves the issue of receiving multiple reward functions explaining the expert's optimal behavior by searching for only a single optimal reward function. MLIRL even allows to solve the IRL problems with stochastic demonstrations available from expert.

2.5 Model-Free Inverse Reinforcement Learning

IRL has solved the issue of specifying the reward function manually, but applying IRL algorithms requires an optimal policy. This optimal policy can be generated easily by solving different planning or reinforcement learning algorithms with the knowledge of demonstrations. Such algorithms are complex and could degrade the performance of high-dimensional systems with large state spaces or continuous state spaces. To overcome these limitations,

an alternate method for these calculations is required, which can be achieved by creating a model-free system which can generate the policy that performs at least as well as expert policy.

Like model-free RL, IRL can also be model-free (i.e. no knowledge of transition function or planning is involved). The MDP of a model-free IRL environment looks like: $\langle S, A, \gamma \rangle$. Model-free IRL approaches are very helpful in solving IRL problems where the transition model is not available. The accuracy of model-free IRL algorithms over model-based ones is still an open question. One of the model-free approaches is *Relative Entropy Inverse Reinforcement Learning* [7], where authors compare their results with those from model-based approaches. We will further discuss this approach in Section 3.1.

2.6 Summary

In this chapter, we described some concepts which will make the further parts of this thesis easy to understand. We discussed the basic concept of RL and IRL and how to model the environment using an MDP. We showed the basics of maximum likelihood estimation and the significance of the term model-free in context of both RL and IRL. We also discussed the details of BIRL and MLIRL approaches and examined the advantages of each approach.

Chapter 3

RELATED WORK

In this chapter, we will discuss a few concepts which are not used in this work but are similar to topics underlying in this work and worth mentioning. In Section 3.1, we describe the model-free method, *Relative Entropy IRL*. Section 3.2 includes a survey of different IRL problem domains used by researchers to validate their approaches.

3.1 Relative Entropy IRL

Many approaches used to solve an IRL problem are based on the assumption that the dynamic model of the underlying MDP is known or can be learned from sampled trajectories. Learning from limited number of trajectories might be unreliable. Also, these learning methods require planning, which makes the algorithm computationally expensive and cannot be directly applicable to systems with a large or continuous state spaces. Inspired by *Relative Entropy Policy Search* [13] and based on *Maximum Entropy IRL* [6], Boularias et al. [7] proposed a model-free IRL algorithm that not only addresses the issues of learning a model from trajectories but is also able to learn good policies from a limited number of demonstrations. Relative entropy IRL [7], tries to minimize the relative entropy between the empirical distribution of the expert's demonstrations under a baseline policy and under the policy (initially arbitrary) that matches the reward feature counts of the demonstrations. The baseline policy is essentially a distribution over the set of expert trajectories. The gradient descent optimization technique used in the algorithm to minimize the relative entropy was estimated without the help of MDP. The relative entropy here is formulated as KL divergence.

The problem statement in [7] is to minimize the relative entropy which can be expressed mathematically by reformulating Maximum Entropy IRL [6] as:

$$\min_{P} \sum_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}} P(\tau) \ln \frac{P(\tau)}{Q(\tau)} \tag{3.1}$$

where, \mathcal{T} is set of trajectories, $\mathcal{T} = \{\tau_1, \tau_2, ..., \tau_n\}$, P is probability distribution on the trajectories under current policy, and Q is the probability distribution on trajectories under a baseline policy.

The problem statement is subject to following constraints:

$$\forall i \in \{1, ..k\} : |\sum_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}} P(\tau) f_i^{\tau} - \hat{f}_i \le \epsilon_i,$$
$$\sum_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}} P(\tau) = 1,$$
$$\forall \tau \in \mathcal{T} : P(\tau) \ge 0$$

where, f_i^{τ} is discounted feature expectation of a feature f_i along a trajectory τ , \hat{f}_i is empirical expectation of feature f_i , and ϵ_i is the threshold that can be calculated using Hoeffding's bound.

The solution of the problem statement was given by Dudik and Schapire [14] as the Lagrangian function:

$$L(P, \theta, \eta) = \sum_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}} P(\tau) \ln \frac{P(\tau)}{Q(\tau)} - \sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_i \left(\sum_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}} P(\tau) f_i^{\tau} - \hat{f}_i \right) - \sum_{i=1}^{k} |\theta_i| \epsilon_i + \eta \left(\sum_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}} P(\tau) - 1 \right)$$
(3.2)

using the Karush-Kuhn-Tucker (KKT) condition,

$$\partial_P(\tau)L(P,\theta,\eta) = \ln(P(\tau)/Q(\tau)) - \sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i f_i^{\tau} + \eta + 1$$

$$= 0$$
(3.3)

On solving the above equation, we get:

$$P(\tau) = Q(\tau)exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_i f_i^{\tau} - \eta - 1\right)$$
(3.4)

Summing over all the trajectories on both side and solving using $\sum_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}} P(\tau) = 1$, we get the normalization constant, $Z(\theta)$

$$exp(\eta + 1) = \sum_{\tau \in \mathcal{T}} Q(\tau) exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_i f_i^{\tau}\right) = Z(\theta)$$
(3.5)

Therefore,

$$P(\tau \mid \theta) = \frac{1}{Z(\theta)} Q(\tau) exp\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \theta_i f_i^{\tau}\right)$$
(3.6)

The dual problem resulting from the step above is to maximize the resultant dual function using sub-gradient ascent. The sub-gradient of the dual function cannot be obtained without using the transition function, which is not available. Hence, Boularias et al. [7] presents an alternate method for estimating the gradient using Importance Sampling.

The Relative Entropy IRL [7] approach was validated using three different problem domains and the results were compared with other well-known approaches. The performances of different IRL methods are compared by calculating the optimal policies using the transition function corresponding to the learned reward functions. In experiments, the relative entropy IRL approach learned the reward functions close to the expert's one in all the three problem domains using a very small number of sampled trajectories.

In contrast to Relative Entropy IRL, our approach tries to relax the assumption that the trajectories are of a fixed horizon. Boularias et al. [7] reformulate the Maximum Entropy IRL [6] as the problem of minimizing the relative entropy between the probability distribution on the trajectories and the distribution on trajectories under a baseline policy. This approach mitigates the issue of learning false reward function which might lead to same expert's policy. We model the IRL problem using maximum likelihood estimation. The issue of learning incorrect reward function is handled by maximizing the likelihood of trajectories.

3.2 Survey of Different IRL Problem Domains

A problem domain is an application that needs to be examined to solve a problem. Problem domains can be thought of as test beds on which experiments are performed or algorithms

are executed, and the accuracy of solutions to that problem helps us assess the correctness of an algorithm or method used to solve that problem. Thus, problem domains play a crucial role in evidencing the authentication of an algorithm or hypothesis.

Selection criteria for a problem domain depends primarily on the algorithm used to solve it, or vice versa. For experimenting with an IRL algorithm, we must select a domain where we can have access to the behavior of an expert and partial knowledge of an experts environment. IRL problem domains can be categorized depending on their nature.

3.2.1 Synthetic Toy problems

Synthetic toy problems are not real-world problems, but are created or simulated as an environment with some goals. It's more like a toy or puzzle one can play with to achieve the goal using an IRL algorithm.

GRID WORLD DOMAIN

Grid world are the most commonly used problems to experiment with an IRL algorithm. Grid world represents the environment in form of $n \times n$ grids of equal dimensions mostly. Each grid represents a state, while each movement direction represents an action. Each grid is associated with a reward value (usually its negative reward each state except the goal state). The problem in this domain is to learn the reward associated with each grid from the trajectories of expert using an IRL algorithm. The expert is assumed to behave optimally, i.e. it will prefer to maximize its reward for reaching the goal state from its initial state. The learner tries to do the same and assigns reward values to each grid by learning them from an experts trajectories.

Figure 3.1. (a) shows the basic grid world problem domain. Different colors represent different reward values and are highest for the goal state and lowest for the sink state (both are terminal states), while an arrow means one of the four possible movement directions.



Figure 3.1: (a) Grid World Domain. An agent tries to learn an optimal policy to reach the goal state with minimum cumulative cost. Each grid color has a unique cost associated with it. (b) Gird World Domain with obstacles. The agent is not allowed to pass through obstacle states. The goal still remains the same.

Figure 3.1. (b) is the slight variation of grid world problem, where obstacles are explicitly introduced, indicating those states can never be visited by an expert. If an agent tries to move to an obstacle state, or tries to go out of the assigned grid area, it ends up in the prior state.

Mountain Car Domain

The mountain car problem is commonly used as a benchmark reinforcement learning problem to evaluate learning algorithms. In Algorithms for IRL [3], authors use the same problem to evaluate an IRL algorithm. This problem can be described as a car being placed in a valley, with the goal being to get the car out of the valley. The engine of the car is not powerful enough to drive it out of the valley. Hence, the car must build up a momentum by driving up the opposite side of the valley. The states are defined by the cars x-position, velocity, and actions, which are driving forward, backward, or neutral. The true, undiscounted, reward is

-1 per step until the car reaches the goal at the top of the hill. As in IRL algorithms, the expert is assumed to behave optimally, and the learner tries to achieve the goal by learning rewards from the experts trajectories.

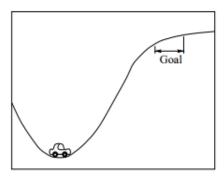


Figure 3.2: Image of mountain car problem [3]. The goal here is to get the car with insufficient engine power out of the valley. This could be achieved by building momentum using actions like driving backward, forward, or neutral. Each action has a cost associated with it.

Role-Playing Games

Role-playing games are also simulated and presented as a problem domain with a set of some experts demonstrations to learn the reward function. Ramachandran and Amir [9] applied their method of reward learning to the very famous role-playing game Dungeons and Dragons. In this game, an agent explores the dungeon, seeking to collect various items of treasure (positive rewards), while avoiding obstacles such as walls or dragons (negative rewards). The state space was represented as m-dimensional binary feature vector indicating the position of the agent and the value of various fluent. The actions are decisions made by the agent such as picking up treasure or other in-game movements.

3.2.2 Autonomous Driving Problems

Autonomous vehicles are no longer part of the realm of fiction, and to improve the efficiency and accuracy of such vehicles, their working environments are often simulated and the issues are resolved using various algorithms. Unlike in previous categories, here we try to solve some real-time issues faced by autonomous vehicles like learning to merge in lanes and driving on a highway. Here, we will discuss two of such domains being used to solve the issues using an IRL algorithm.

FREEWAY MERGING DOMAIN

Merging safely onto a congested freeway from a ramp is still a challenge for an autonomous vehicle in the presence of stochastic human drivers. Many researchers are trying to investigate this problem by representing the similar domains in different models, and trying to solve it using standard algorithms. We are modeling this problem as ABC car model, car B being the autonomous car, and car A and car C are human driven vehicles moving behind and ahead relative to car B, but on the rightmost lane of the freeway. Here, we are trying to solve the freeway merging problem using an IRL algorithm. Car A's trajectories are used to model the reward function, which can later be used by car B (autonomous vehicle) in decision making.

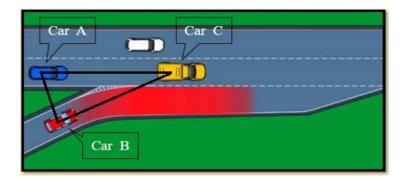


Figure 3.3: ABC model for Freeway Merging Domain. Car B is autonomous car trying to merge onto the freeway in between two human-driven cars traveling on the freeway. The goal here is for the car B to learn the preference of car A's driver and make an optimal decision about when to merge.

The state space is defined as the combination of state variables like the x-distance and velocity between car A and car C, and similarly between car A and car B. Actions are acceleration values of car A, and are discretized as full brake to full acceleration depending upon the bin it lies in. The data used as trajectories of car A is real-world data are taken

from the Next Generation Simulation (NGSIM) dataset collected under the supervision of the Federal Highway Administration (FHWA). This dataset was collected from I-80 freeway in San Francisco, CA using six synchronous cameras covering over 1640 feet in length and all seven lanes, including the onramp, over three different time intervals of fifteen minutes each. All the videos from cameras were processed and the dataset is now available and ready to use in tabular format.

HIGHWAY DRIVING SIMULATOR

A driving simulator is a software used to simulate and visualize (often) the real-world driving experience. Pieter and Andrew [4] used a driving simulator to learn different driving styles on highways. They considered five styles: Nice, Nasty, Right lane nice, Right lane nasty, and middle lane. The driving speed was kept constant at 56 MPH during the whole experiment and trajectories were recorded for all five different driving styles. The Markov Decision Process (MDP) of the problem had 5 actions as values, from handling the steering wheel of the vehicle, 3 of which allows driving smoothly on one of the lanes, and 2 causing the vehicle to drive off the road to avoid hitting the cars. The state space was defined indicating the current lane of the car and space between the car in front. Once the trajectories for different styles were available, the learner could mimic them using an IRL algorithm.

3.2.3 Robotics based problems

Robotics is not just about mimicking the event or performing a predefined set of operations. If a robot must perform in an unpredictable or a dynamic environment, it is nearly impossible to prepare it for all possible situations, and there might be times when an autonomous robot might find itself in a situation not considered by its designer. Robot learning allows a robot to adapt to the surrounding environment and behave optimally in unexpected circumstances. To test the learning skills of robots and to evaluate the accuracy of learning algorithm used

by robots, we need problem domains which relate to ones in which robots face in the real world.

ROBOT GRASPING UNKNOWN OBJECTS

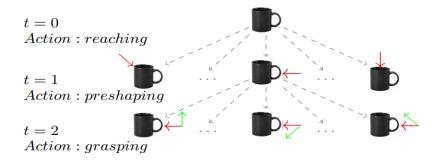


Figure 3.4: Grasping an unknown object as a Markov Decision Process. The process is represented by three steps: reaching, preshaping and grasping. The robot can move ahead at each step or can start over[5].

Boularias et al. [5], discussed the structure and observations of their experiment of a learning algorithm over a problem domain in which the robot tries to learn how to grasp an unknown object. They represented grasping an object as MDP with three steps: reaching, preshaping, and grasping. The reward of each step depends on the current state, and the robot can move ahead or restart at any step. The robot starts from the initial state at t = 0, and the set of actions corresponds to the set of points on the surface of the object. At t = 1, the state is given by a surface point and an approaching direction, the set of actions corresponds to the set of all possible hand orientations. At t = 2, the state is given by a surface point, an approach direction, and a hand orientation. Lastly, the robot either closes its finger and grasps the object, or restarts from the initial state. They used one object and six trajectories leading to a successful grasp from its handle by a robot.

PATROLLING ROBOTS

Patrolling robots are autonomous robots trained to patrol in a specified environment, assuring security of that area. These robots are designed in a way so that they can behave optimally in strange situations by learning their moves using a learning algorithm. In experimenting with the Robust IRL algorithm [17], two Turtlebots were used, one as patroller (expert) and other as intruder (learner). The patroller moves around the specified area and the learner is hidden from the sight of patroller. The trajectories of patroller are not directly available to the learner, instead the only observation available is the sound from the drones propeller. Hence, the problem is modeled as Hidden Markov Decision Process (hMDP). The state space is the location and orientation of the drone in the environment. The drone has 3 actions: going forward, turning around, and hovering. The intruder learns the patroller's policy and tries to reach its goal state without being seen by the patroller.

3.3 Summary

In the first part of this chapter, we discussed the details of Relative Entropy IRL approach. In the later part, we categorized the different type of problems which can be solved using an IRL algorithm and cataloged the few domains of each type.

Chapter 4

MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD APPROACH FOR MODEL-FREE INVERSE REINFORCEMENT LEARNING (MLMFIRL)

In this chapter, we discuss our approach for solving an inverse reinforcement learning problem when the complete model of the environment is not available directly. We start by defining the likelihood function and its mathematical representation in Section 4.1. In section 4.2, we introduce the Q-Averaging approach to replace the conventional Q-learning equation. Details about the gradient implementation of the likelihood function are cataloged in Section 4.3. The MLMFIRL algorithm is described in Section 4.4 with its analysis in Section 4.5.

4.1 MATHEMATICAL MODEL FOR MLMFIRL

Like MLIRL [1], our approach also uses a maximum likelihood model to learn an expert's behavior and gradient method to find the optimal solution. However, unlike MLIRL our approach eliminates the dependency on the transition function and makes the method computationally efficient and more reliable for learning with a limited number of demonstrations. The step by step mathematical model of our approach is illustrated below.

The following items are given as input to MLMFIRL:

- Expert's MDP : \langle set of states S, set of actions A, discount factor $\gamma >$
- Expert's trajectories, $\mathcal{T} = \{\zeta_1, \zeta_2, ..., \zeta_N\}$
- Features, $\Phi = \{\phi_1, \phi_2, ..., \phi_d\}$

The goal of MLMFIRL approach is to learn the feature weight vector $\vec{\theta} :< \theta_1, \theta_2, ..., \theta_d >$ that maximizes the likelihood of the expert's trajectories. The problem statement can be expressed as:

$$\vec{\theta} = \arg\max_{\vec{\theta}} L(\vec{\theta}) \tag{4.1}$$

where, $L(\vec{\theta})$ is the log-likelihood of the trajectories in \mathcal{T} .

$$L(\vec{\theta}) = \log P(\mathcal{T} \mid \vec{\theta}) \tag{4.2}$$

Since all the trajectories in \mathcal{T} are independent of each other given $\vec{\theta}$ and are equally likely, we can unscramble $P(\mathcal{T} \mid \vec{\theta})$ as:

$$P(\mathcal{T} \mid \vec{\theta}) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} P(\zeta_i \mid \vec{\theta})$$
(4.3)

Since the expert is assumed to execute a policy that does not depend on the actions and observations of previous time step, we can apply following conditional independence rule:

$$P(\zeta_i \mid \vec{\theta}) = \prod_{(s,a)\in\zeta_i} P((s,a) \mid \vec{\theta})$$
(4.4)

 $P((s,a) \mid \vec{\theta})$ is the probability of taking an action $a \in A$ in state $s \in S$ given $\vec{\theta}$, i.e. policy value for (s,a) given $\vec{\theta}$. We denote the policy value for any (s,a) as $\pi_{\vec{\theta}}(s,a)$. Using equations (4.3) and (4.4) in equation (4.2) we have the log-likelihood function as:

$$L(\vec{\theta}) = \log \prod_{i=1}^{N} \prod_{(s,a)\in\zeta_{i}} \pi_{\vec{\theta}}(s,a) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{(s,a)\in\zeta_{i}} \log \pi_{\vec{\theta}}(s,a)$$
 (4.5)

We model $\pi_{\theta}(s, a)$ as the Boltzmann exploration policy:

$$\pi_{\vec{\theta}}(s,a) = \frac{e^{\beta Q_{\vec{\theta}}(s,a)}}{\sum_{a'} e^{\beta Q_{\vec{\theta}}(s,a')}} \tag{4.6}$$

where, β is the Boltzmann temperature, that controls the degree of confidence in agent's ability to choose actions based on Q values. The Q-value of a state-action pair, (s, a), is the optimal value which can be achieved using the conventional Q-learning equation [20]:

$$Q(s,a) \leftarrow Q(s,a) + \alpha \left(R(s,a) + \gamma \max_{a'} Q(s',a') - Q(s,a) \right)$$

$$\tag{4.7}$$

where, α is the learning schedule, γ is the discount factor, and R(s, a) is the immediate reward for taking action a in state s. We define our reward function as $R(s, a) = \sum_{i=1}^{d} \theta_i \phi_i(s, a)$

For optimization we use the gradient ascent approach. The optimization is achieved by using the gradient of likelihood function at its current known feature weight values in order to update the feature weights until a locally optimal parameter value is achieved.

$$\nabla L(\vec{\theta}) = \left\{ \nabla L_1(\vec{\theta}), \nabla L_2(\vec{\theta}), ..., \nabla L_i(\vec{\theta}) \right\} = \left\{ \frac{\partial L(\vec{\theta})}{\partial \theta_1}, \frac{\partial L(\vec{\theta})}{\partial \theta_2}, ..., \frac{\partial L(\vec{\theta})}{\partial \theta_i} \right\}$$

$$\theta_i = \theta_i + \alpha_t \nabla L_i(\theta)$$
(4.8)

where, α_t is step size of iteration t and $\nabla L_i(\theta)$ is gradient of likelihood function w.r.t. θ_i .

$$\nabla L_i(\vec{\theta}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{(s,a)\in\zeta_i} \frac{1}{\pi_{\vec{\theta}}(s,a)} \frac{\partial \pi_{\vec{\theta}}(s,a)}{\partial \theta_i}$$
(4.9)

Since $\pi_{\vec{\theta}}$ is a function of Q-function, we can write the partial derivative of $\pi_{\vec{\theta}}$ as:

$$\partial \pi_{\vec{\theta}}(s, a) = \frac{\partial \pi_{\vec{\theta}}(s, a)}{\partial Q(s, a)} \cdot \frac{\partial Q(s, a)}{\partial \theta_i}$$
(4.10)

If we can compute the gradient of the Q-function, we can use it to differentiate all of the above equations to achieve the optimal values of feature weights. However, the "max" operator in standard Q-learning (equation 4.7) makes it non-differentiable w.r.t. θ_i . This makes the gradient of the likelihood function non-differentiable and the use of the gradient ascent method for optimization impractical. We propose a method called Q-Averaging.

4.1.1 Q-Averaging

To address the issue we described above about the likelihood function being non-differentiable due to the "max" operator in equation 4.7, we propose an approach to replace the "max" operator with an average operator in equation 4.7. We call this approach as Q-Averaging because it is Q-learning with averaging.

$$Q(s,a) \leftarrow Q(s,a) + \alpha \left(R(s,a) + \gamma \frac{\sum_{a'} Q(s',a')}{|A|} - Q(s,a) \right)$$
 (4.11)

where, |A| is number of actions applicable in state s'.

Using equation 4.11 in our approach, makes the likelihood function differentiable. The "max" operator in equation 4.7 is responsible for selecting the action which produces the maximum Q-value in state s', i.e. the most favorable action. To support our hypothesis about replacing the standard Q-learning with Q-Averaging, we performed few experiments. We used both the standard Q-learning and the Q-Averaging approaches to solve an RL problem and compared the results for both. We performed the experiment over different RL domains like grid world, mountain car, etc., and observed that the learner achieved the similar policies but with a lower magnitude of rewards. Also, the convergence in case of Q-Averaging took more iterations than in standard Q-learning.

To conclude, the Q-Averaging approach makes the likelihood function differentiable without affecting the learning ability of learner at the cost of few more iterations than the standard Q-learning.

4.2 Gradient Implementation Details

We have likelihood function and policy from Section 4.1 as

$$L(\vec{\theta}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{(s,a)\in\zeta_i} \log \pi_{\vec{\theta}}(s,a)$$

$$\pi_{\vec{\theta}}(s,a) = \frac{e^{\beta Q_{\vec{\theta}}(s,a)}}{\sum_{\alpha'} e^{\beta Q_{\vec{\theta}}(s,a')}}$$

and Q-function from Section 4.2 as:

$$Q(s,a) \leftarrow Q(s,a) + \alpha \left(R(s,a) + \gamma \frac{\sum_{a'} Q(s',a')}{|A|} - Q(s,a) \right)$$

Also, we have expert's MDP: $< S, A, \gamma >$, expert's trajectories \mathcal{T} and feature set Φ .

We have randomly initialize the feature weight vector $\vec{\theta}^0 :< \theta_1^0, \theta_2^0, ..., \theta_d^0 >$ and calculate the reward function as:

$$R_0(s,a) = \sum_{i=1}^d \theta_i^0 \phi_i(s,a)$$

For t^{th} iteration,

$$\forall (s, a) \in \mathcal{T},$$

$$Q_t^0(s, a) = R_t(s, a) = \sum_{i=1}^d \theta_i^t \phi_i(s, a)$$
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_i} Q_t^0(s, a) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_i} R_t(s, a) = \phi_i(s, a)$$

For k^{th} iteration, towards Q-value convergence:

$$Q_t^k(s,a) = Q_t^{k-1}(s,a) + \alpha \left(R_t(s,a) + \frac{\gamma}{|A|} \left[\frac{1 - \gamma^{k-1}}{1 - \gamma} \right] \sum_{a'} Q_t^{k-1}(s',a') \right) - Q_t^{k-1}(s,a)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_i} Q_t^k(s,a) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_i} Q_t^{k-1}(s,a) + \alpha \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_i} R_t(s,a) + \frac{\gamma}{|A|} \left[\frac{1 - \gamma^{k-1}}{1 - \gamma} \right] \sum_{a'} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_i} Q_t^{k-1}(s',a') - \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_i} Q_t^{k-1}(s,a) \right)$$

$$Q_t(s, a) = Q_t^*(s, a)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_i} Q_t(s, a) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_i} Q_t^*(s, a)$$

$$Z_t(s) = \sum_{a'} e^{\beta Q_t(s, a')}$$

$$\pi_t(s, a) = \frac{e^{\beta Q_t(s, a)}}{Z_t(s)}$$

$$L_t(\vec{\theta}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{(s, a) \in \zeta_i} \log \pi_t(s, a)$$

 $L_t(\vec{\theta})$ is the likelihood of trajectories in \mathcal{T} after t^{th} iteration, given feature weights. Now we will apply gradient ascent approach to update the value of feature weights. To do so, we will calculate the gradient value of the likelihood function.

$$\nabla L_{t}(\vec{\theta}) = \left\{ \frac{\partial L_{t}(\vec{\theta})}{\partial \theta_{1}}, \frac{\partial L_{t}(\vec{\theta})}{\partial \theta_{2}}, ..., \frac{\partial L_{t}(\vec{\theta})}{\partial \theta_{i}} \right\}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{i}} L(\vec{\theta}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{(s,a) \in \zeta_{i}} \frac{1}{\pi_{t}(s,a)} \frac{\partial \pi_{t}(s,a)}{\partial \theta_{i}}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{i}} \pi_{t}(s,a) = \frac{\beta Z_{t}(s) e^{\beta Q_{t}(s,a)} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{i}} Q_{t}(s,a) - e^{\beta Q_{t}(s,a)} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{i}} Z_{t}(s)}{Z_{t}^{2}(s)}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{i}} Z_{t}(s) = \beta \sum_{a'} e^{\beta Q_{t}(s,a)} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_{i}} Q_{t}(s,a)$$

$$\forall i, \theta_{i}^{t+1} = \theta_{i}^{t} + \alpha_{t} \nabla L_{i}(\vec{\theta})$$

Optimal feature weight vector, $\vec{\theta}^* = \langle \theta_1^*, \theta_2^*, ..., \theta_i^* \rangle$

4.3 MLMFIRL ALGORITHM

Algorithm 1 MF-MLIRL algorithm

```
1: Initialize \vec{\theta}: \langle \theta_1, \theta_2, ..., \theta_d \rangle randomly.
  2: Initialize local variables L and L' with zero
  3: repeat
            L \leftarrow L'
  4:
           R(s,a) = \sum_{i=1}^{d} \theta_{i} \phi_{i}(s,a) for all (s,a) \in \{(s,a) | (s,a) \supseteq \zeta_{i}, \zeta_{i} \in \tau, i \in \{1,2,...,N\}\} do
           Q^*(s,a) \leftarrow \text{Q-Averaging (equation ??)}
\pi(s,a) = \frac{e^{\beta Q^*(s,a)}}{\sum_{a'} e^{\beta Q^*(s,a')}}
end for
  7:
           L(\vec{\theta}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{(s,a) \in \zeta_i} \log \pi(s,a)
10:
11:
            for all \theta_i \in \vec{\theta}: do
12:
             \theta_i \leftarrow \theta_i + \alpha_n \nabla_i L(\theta)
13:
            end for
14:
             \delta = |L' - L|
15:
16: until \delta < \epsilon(1-\gamma)/\gamma
17: return \vec{\theta}
```

The input to the MLMFIRL algorithm is set of expert's trajectories, environment model as MDP, features affecting the reward functions, and other controlling parameters like learning rates, step size, and the tolerance error to set convergence criteria. The algorithm

uses the inputs and calculates the likelihood of expert's trajectories using the randomly initialized feature weights and optimizes them using gradient ascent approach. This process continues unless the convergence criteria are achieved. We scrutinize the algorithm piecewise below.

In the first step, we initialize the feature weight vector with random values. In the second step, we initialize two variables to store log-likelihood values of trajectories with zero. L stores the log-likelihood value from $(t-1)^{th}$ iteration and L' stores the value of likelihood calculate in t^{th} iteration. Steps 3.a to 3.f are repeated until the convergence criteria are satisfied. The rewards for each state-action pair is calculated as vector multiplication of binary features and feature vector weights. In step 3.c, the Q-values are calculated using the Q-Averaging approach followed by policy calculation using the Boltzmann policy exploration for all the state-action pair in expert's trajectory set. Using the action probability values calculated using the Boltzmann policy exploration for each state-action pair, we calculate the cumulative log-likelihood for the set of expert's trajectories. We update the $\vec{\theta}$, using the gradient ascent approach and perform the same set of operations using updates feature weights values. When the convergence criteria is satisfied, we return the learned feature weight vector that produces the closest optimal policy as of expert's. Also, the learned feature weight vector generates the maximum log-likelihood of the trajectories.

4.4 Analysis of MLMFIRL Algorithm

Analysis of an algorithm is important because by doing so we learn its characteristics needed to evaluate its functionality for various applications or compare it with other algorithms for the same application. An algorithm can be analyzed in many ways but for practical applications or comparisons, we only pay attention to the order of growth of the running time of the algorithm. That is, we learn how efficient the algorithm is mainly when the input size is large. Instead of reporting time of execution in units, we try to learn asymptotic efficiency

of an algorithm, i.e. how the running time of an algorithm increases with the increase in the size of inputs. We will be analyzing our algorithm for worst case performance.

Our algorithm MLMFIRL is affected significantly by size of the set of trajectories as it is crucial in calculating the likelihood function of trajectories given current feature weights. Let N be the number of trajectories and $|\zeta_m|$ be the size of longest trajectory. The algorithm also iterates over the action space of size |A|. The asymptotic efficiency for worst-case performance of MLMFIRL algorithm is

$$\mathcal{O}(N|\zeta_m||A|)$$

4.5 Summary

In this chapter, we discussed the detailed mathematical model of MLMFIRL approach. We raised the non-differentiability issue with the standard Q-learning and proposed an alternate approach, dubbing Q-Averaging. Details on gradient implementation were also illustrated followed by the MLMFIRL algorithm and its analysis. Theoretically, we validated the MLIRL approach in this chapter. Experimental results and comparisons were also favorable (See Chapter 6).

Chapter 5

DOMAIN SETUP AND DATASET

In this chapter, we will discuss the freeway merging domain and Next Generation SIMulation(NGSIM) I-80 dataset used for our experiments. As discussed in Chapter 1, freeway merging problem involving autonomous vehicles is the motivation behind this research. During busy hours, when the freeways are congested with vehicles, drivers of the rightmost lane have different preferences about allowing the vehicle on the on-ramp to merge. The goal of this thesis is to learn those preferences. To do so, we defined the ABC model in Section 5.1 and used trajectory data from NGSIM dataset. In Section 5.2, we will describe NGSIM program and details on metadata for I-80 dataset. Steps on extracting trajectories from one big dataset are illustrated in Section 5.3. Our environmental model for our test domain is discussed in Section 5.4.

5.1 ABC Model

The freeway merging domain as discussed in Section 3.2 is a real-world problem faced by autonomous vehicles in making decisions about when to merge, keeping in consideration stochastic behavior of human drivers on the freeway. Solving the freeway merging problem requires modeling of the traffic. Here, we model this problem using an ABC model as shown in Figure 5.1. Vehicle B is an autonomous vehicle that is about to merge onto the freeway. A is the vehicle on rightmost lane of the freeway but relatively behind B. C is also the vehicle on rightmost lane of the freeway but relatively ahead of B. The problem is that vehicle B must merge between A and C but the preferences of A's driver about allowing B to merge

is unpredictable. Our objective is to model the variation in the preferences of A's driving model as it detects B using MLMFIRL settings.

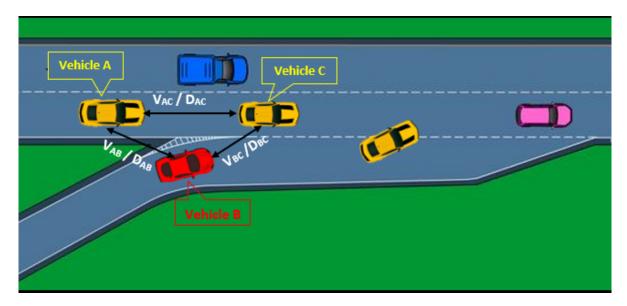


Figure 5.1: Detailed ABC model to represent the freeway merging problem. B is an autonomous vehicle about to merge onto the freeway. Relative variables like velocity and distance between any two vehicles plays crucial role in defining the state of each vehicle.

In Figure 5.1, A, B and C are vehicle fitting the characteristics of each vehicle in ABC model as discussed above. To define these vehicles, we used real-world freeway data from Interstate-80 collected under NGSIM program.

5.2 NGSIM Program and I-80 Dataset

5.2.1 The NGSIM Program

The Next Generation SIMulation (NGSIM) program was launched by United States Department of Transportation (US DOT) Federal Highway Administration (FHWA)'s Traffic Analysis Tools Program to develop algorithms in support of traffic simulation, with a primary focus on microscopic modeling. The detailed and high-quality real-world vehicle trajectory datasets collected under NGSIM turned out very useful in understanding microscopic driver

behavior. Through the NGSIM program, FHWA developed several driver behavioral algorithms to describe the interaction of travelers, vehicles, and highway systems. The NGSIM products are freely available at FHWA website along with supporting documentation. The Interstate-80 (I-80) [24] freeway dataset was the first dataset collected under the NGSIM program.

5.2.2 I-80 Dataset

On April 13, 2005, the researchers for the NGSIM program collected detailed vehicle trajectory data on eastbound I80 in the San Francisco Bay area in Emeryville, CA. Seven synchronized digital video cameras were mounted on the top of a 30-story building adjacent to the freeway to record vehicle passing through over approximately 500 meters (1640 feet) in length. The study included all 6 freeway lanes and an additional onramp merging to the freeway.

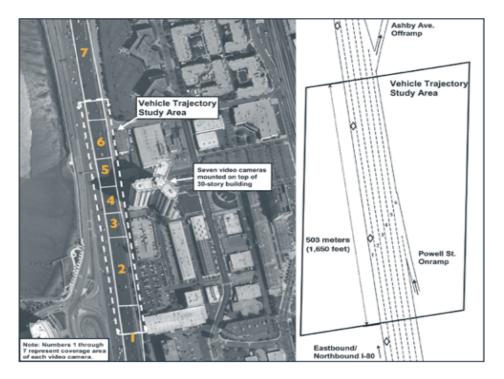


Figure 5.2: Left: The aerial photo of I-80 showing the study area covered during data collection. Right: Schematic drawing describing all the lanes of I-80 freeway including the onramp.[24]

The full I-80 freeway dataset includes total 45 minutes of data, recorded in three 15-minutes time intervals: 4:00pm - 4:15pm; 5:00pm - 5:15pm; and 5:15pm -5:30pm. These periods represent the buildup of congestion, or the transition between uncongested and congested conditions, and full congestion during the peak period.



Figure 5.3: Snapshot of the processed video from NGSIM I-80 freeway merging study. The processing of video helped in detecting all the vehicles in each frame and assigned them unique IDs.

NG-VIDEO is a software application developed for the NGSIM program to transcribe the vehicle trajectory data from the video. The dataset catalogs details like location, lane position etc. for each vehicle within the study area every one-tenth of a second.

The full I-80 dataset is freely available at the NGSIM website. It includes vehicle trajectory data, computer-aided design, and geographic information system files, aerial orthorectified photos, freeway loop detector data within and surrounding the study area, raw and processed video, signal timing settings on adjacent arterial roads, traffic sign information and locations, weather data, and aggregate data analysis reports.

METADATA DETAILS FOR I-80 DATASET

The fully transcribed I-80 dataset consists of around 4.5 million rows each having 18 columns. Each row is a unique tuple corresponding to 18 different useful piece of information about one vehicle in one frame, i.e. recorded every one-tenth of a second. Below are the details [25] on the significance of each column:

- Column 1: Unique vehicle identification number for each vehicle in study area ascending by the time of entry.
- Column 2: Frame ID incremented every 1/10 of a second.
- Column 3: Total number of frames in which the vehicle appears in this dataset.
- Column 4: Global Time (Epoch Time) in milliseconds.
- Column 5: Lateral (X) coordinate of the front center of the vehicle with respect to the leftmost edge of the section in the direction of travel in feet.
- Column 6: Longitudinal (Y) coordinate of the front center of the vehicle with respect to the entry edge of the section in the direction of travel in feet.
- Column 7: X Coordinate of the front center of the vehicle based on CA State Plane III in NAD83 in feet.
- Column 8: Y Coordinate of the front center of the vehicle based on CA State Plane III in NAD83 in feet.
- Column 9: Length of vehicle in feet.
- Column 10: Width of vehicle in feet.
- Column 11: Vehicle type: 1-motorcycle; 2: auto/car, 3: truck.
- Column 12: Instantaneous velocity of the vehicle in feet/second.

- Column 13: Instantaneous acceleration of the vehicle in $feet/second^2$.
- Column 14: Current lane position of vehicle. Lane 1 is the leftmost lane and lane 6 is rightmost. Lane 7 is onramp and lane 9 is right shoulder.
- Column 15: Vehicle ID of the lead vehicle in the same lane. 0 signifies now preceding vehicle.
- Column 16: Vehicle ID of the vehicle following the subject vehicle in same lane. Again,
 means lo following vehicle.
- Column 17: Spacing provides the distance between the front-center of a vehicle to the front-center of the preceding vehicle in *feet*.
- Column 18: Headway: Headway provides the time to travel from the front-center of a vehicle (at the speed of the vehicle) to the front-center of the preceding vehicle. A headway value of 9999.99 means that the vehicle is traveling at zero speed (congested conditions) in seconds.

Appendix A includes the snapshots of transcribed NGSIM I-80 freeway dataset for a better understanding of vehicle trajectory data.

5.3 Vehicle Trajectory Data Extraction

The I-80 dataset received from NGSIM includes all the vehicles that passed through the study area during the time interval. For modeling freeway merging problem with ABC model, we need data for only those vehicles that fit into one of the three A, B or C vehicle roles. The following steps illustrate the extraction of useful vehicle trajectories from full dataset.

- 1. Select all the tuples with Column 14 values as 6 or 7, i.e. vehicles in lane 6 (rightmost lane of the freeway) or lane 7 (onramp).
- 2. Identify the vehicle B ID, i.e. select the vehicle which is about to merge to the freeway.

- 3. Identify the correct vehicle A and vehicle C with the same frame ID as that of the vehicle B. Vehicle A will be the one having Column 6 value (y-coordinate) minimum less than that for vehicle B in same frame whereas vehicle C will have Column 6 value minimum more than that for vehicle B.
- 4. We back propagate to get complete trajectories for all the three vehicles from the time they entered study area.
- 5. Join tuples of A, B, and C in same frame.
- 6. Now we trim the columns. For each vehicle, we only need vehicle ID, Frame ID, local Y, instantaneous velocity, instantaneous acceleration and vehicle type. Hence, we remove rest of the unwanted columns from the extracted tuples.
- 7. Finally, we extract all trajectories of vehicle A, with complete details of corresponding vehicle B and vehicle C in each frame.

5.4 Model Instantiation

In this section, we define the MDP model of our freeway merging environment. This model is provided as input to our IRL approach which helps the learner to predict the expert's rewards using demonstrations. Since we are modeling vehicle A's environment, all the references will be w.r.t vehicle A.

5.4.1 STATE SPACE

State space is a set of all possible states accessible to an agent in the given environment. Every state is defined using some state variables. For our model we are using following 5 state variables:

d_{AC} : Distance Between Vehicle A and Vehicle C

 d_{AC} is the horizontal distance between the vehicle A and vehicle C, i.e. difference of column 6 of each vehicle.

$$d_{AC} = Y_A - Y_C$$

We use the extracted vehicle trajectory data to calculate the d_{AC} for each tuple in every trajectory. For our dataset we found the following minimum and maximum values of d_{AC} :

$$min(d_{AC}) = -690.002 ft$$
. and $max(d_{AC}) = -7.703 ft$.

We discretized d_{AC} into 5 intervals:

- $d_{AC} < -85.000$
- $-85.000 \le d_{AC} < -65.000$
- $-65.000 \le d_{AC} < -50.000$
- $-50.000 \le d_{AC} < -35.000$
- $-35.000 < d_{AC}$

d_{AB} : Distance Between Vehicle A and Vehicle B

This variable gives the horizontal distance between the vehicle A and vehicle B, i.e. difference of column 6 of each vehicle.

$$d_{AB} = Y_A - Y_B$$

The minimum and maximum values of d_{AB} calculate from extracted trajectory data are:

$$min(d_{AB}) = -603.358 ft.$$
 and $max(d_{AB}) = -0.001 ft.$

We discretized d_{AB} into 5 intervals:

•
$$d_{AB} < -45.000$$

•
$$-45.000 \le d_{AB} < -35.000$$

•
$$-35.000 \le d_{AB} < -25.000$$

•
$$-25.000 \le d_{AB} < -15.000$$

•
$$-15.000 \le d_{AB}$$

 v_{AC} : Relative Velocity of Vehicle A and Vehicle C

 v_{AC} gives the instantaneous relative velocity of vehicle A and vehicle C, i.e. difference of column 12 of each vehicle.

$$v_{AC} = v_A - v_C$$

The minimum and maximum values of v_{AC} from extracted data are:

$$min(v_{AC}) = -36.18 \ ft./sec.$$
 and $max(v_{AC}) = 32.41$ ft./sec.

We discretized v_{AC} into 5 intervals:

•
$$v_{AC} < -5.00$$

•
$$-5.00 \le v_{AC} < -2.00$$

•
$$-2.00 \le v_{AC} < 0.00$$

•
$$0.00 \le v_{AC} < 3.00$$

•
$$3.00 \le v_{AC}$$

 v_{AB} : Relative Velocity of Vehicle A and Vehicle B

This variable signifies the instantaneous relative velocity of vehicle A and vehicle B, i.e. difference of column 12 of each vehicle.

$$v_{AC} = v_A - v_B$$

The minimum and maximum values of v_{AB} from extracted trajectory data are:

$$min(v_{AB}) = -52.79 \ ft./sec.$$
 and $max(v_{AB}) = 35.06 \ ft./sec.$

We discretized v_{AB} into 5 intervals similar to those of v_{AC} :

- $v_{AB} < -5.00$
- $-5.00 \le v_{AB} < -2.00$
- $-2.00 \le v_{AB} < 0.00$
- $0.00 \le v_{AB} < 3.00$
- $3.00 \le v_{AB}$

VEHICLE TYPE

This variable determines the type of vehicle B for each vehicle A. This variable is crucial as the driving preferences of vehicle A's driver usually changes depending upon the type of vehicle trying to merge. For example, a normal human driver might allow a car type vehicle to merge but might not want to get behind a truck, especially during heavy traffic conditions. The type of vehicle can directly be determined from value of column 11 in dataset. We merged the motorcycle and auto/car vehicle types into same category. Hence vehicle type can either be 0, i.e. car or motorcycle, or 1, i.e. truck.

Using all the five state variables we can define the state of vehicle A at any instant of time. With 5-5 intervals of d_{AC} , d_{AB} , v_{AC} and v_{AB} and 2 unique values of vehicle type, we have a state space of 1250 states.

5.4.2 ACTION SPACE

The instantaneous acceleration values are modeled as actions of the driver. These values are directly available from dataset via column 13 of each tuple. The minimum and maximum

value of accelerations from datasets are:

$$min(acc) = -11.20 \ ft/sec^2$$
. and $max(acc) = 11.2 \ ft./sec^2$.

We discretized the acceleration into five intervals and named them as the following actions:

• High Brake: $-11.20 \le acc \le -4.80$

• Low Brake: $-4.79 \le acc \le -0.60$

• Zero Acceleration: $-0.59 \le acc \le 0.59$

• Low Acceleration: $0.60 \le acc \le 4.79$

• High Acceleration: $4.80 \le acc \le 11.2$

5.4.3 Feature Space

An agent is assumed to behave optimally in IRL setting, which means that the action sequence of an agent is the result of some parameters that affect the cumulative rewards of the agent. Considering those parameters, we accounted 3 binary features to our model. Any feature is considered active with the value 1 and inactive when the value is 0.

- Feature 1: Safe. This feature is inactive only when $d_{AC} > 20 \, ft$. and $acc > 0.6 \, ft./sec^2$, i.e. distance from the preceding vehicle is less than 20 ft and vehicle is accelerating. This feature signifies the preference of being safe when active.
- Feature 2: Time to travel. This feature is active when $acc > -0.6 \ ft./sec^2$, i.e. either the vehicle is accelerating or moving with a constant speed. This feature signifies the importance of time to reach destination.
- Feature 3: Type of vehicle B. This feature is active when the vehicle B is a truck.

5.5 Summary

In this Chapter, we defined the characteristics of ABC model for solving a freeway merging problem. We discussed the importance of the freely available Interstate-80 freeway dataset collected under NGSIM program by FHWA in the microscopic modeling of traffic. The vehicle trajectory data required to solve the freeway merging problem using an IRL approach can be extracted as per our requirements. In the last section, we illustrated details of our experimental model.

Since we have discussed the MLMFIRL approach and covered sufficient details on domain setup and dataset, we will be presenting some experimental results with analysis and comparisons in next chapter.

Chapter 6

EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION

In this chapter, we will analyze our model-free MLMFIRL approach with the help of experimental results and compare them with the modeled MLIRL [1] technique. In Section 6.1, we evaluate the performance of both approaches in a grid world environment. In Section 6.2, we show that our approach for solving the freeway merging problem produces more satisfactory results than Babe et al.'s [1] approach. We also justify the validity of our algorithm with the help of few qualitative evaluations in section 6.3.

6.1 Grid World

For evaluating our MLMFIRL approach and comparing it with MLIRL, I used the BURLAP [26] implementation of the grid world environment with grid size 5×5 . Figure 6.1 depicts the graphical user interface for our grid world environment. The gray colored circle is an agent which can move along the 25 states using 4 actions. The five different color grids signify the unique location features.

The MDP model for the grid world environment includes 25 states, 4 actions, and the discount factor of 0.99. The 5 location features were initiated with random weights to generate a reward matrix for grid world. We used the Boltzmann temperature (β) as 10.

We recorded 10 trajectories by moving the agent around the grids. These trajectories are used to recover the rewards for each grid using both MLIRL and MLMFIRL approaches. Results for MLIRL were recorded using the BURLAP [26] implementation of MLIRL algorithm. Below are the mean and standard deviation of results recorded from multiple executions using both approaches with same MDP model and demonstrations.

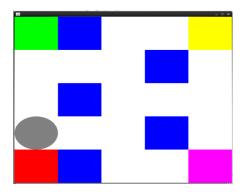


Figure 6.1: The graphical user interface for grid world environment used to demonstrate our approach. The gray circle is an agent exploring the 5×5 grid. Each different color grid represents a unique cost of reaching to that state. The agent tries to learn the cost associated each grid using the expert's trajectories.

Table 6.1 shows the mean and standard deviations of learned feature weights and corresponding maximum log-likelihood values generated using MLMFIRL and MLIRL algorithms. To analyze the results, we compare the mean maximum log-likelihood values of both the approaches. For MLMFIRL, the mean maximum log-likelihood value is -9170.868 with a standard deviation of 195.940. For MLIRL, the mean maximum log-likelihood value is -24142.833 with a standard deviation of 1338.954. Hence within a fixed number of iterations, MLMFIRL not only outperforms MLIRL but also produces more consistent results.

The ideal maximum log-likelihood value is expected to be 0. Here, the main reason for getting high log-likelihood values is because the trajectories we produced does not corresponds to an ideal behavior. We randomly move the agent on grids to produce the trajectories. If we use all the trajectories demonstrating the same behavior, we get lucky to achieve ideal results.

We have analyzed the results using descriptive statistics like mean and standard deviation that describes the results but gives no clue about the significance of results. Hence, we can not generalize the results. We here use another statistical approach known as T-Test to get

	Learned feature weight vector	Maximum				
Approach	$ec{ heta} = \langle heta_1, heta_2, heta_3, heta_4, heta_5 angle$	log-likelihood				
	Mean \pm Standard Deviation	Mean \pm St. Dev.				
Model-Free	$\langle -20.979 \pm 0.491, -15.370 \pm 0.244, -15.488 \pm 0.176, \rangle$	-9170.868 ± 195.941				
MLIRL	$-14.740 \pm 0.134, -14.381 \pm 0.212$					
Model-based	$\langle -31.809 \pm 0.530, -20.710 \pm 10.999,$	-24142.883 ± 1338.954				
MLIRL	$ -12.010 \pm 10.115, -8.068 \pm 2.535, -16.073 \pm 17.406\rangle$					

Table 6.1: Comparison of learned feature weights and corresponding maximum log-likelihood values of trajectories for grid world domain using MF-MLIRL and MLIRL algorithms.

the inferential significance of our results. Inferential statistical approaches not only describes our data but also generalizes the results.

Each T-Test has a p-value attached to it. P-value is the probability that the pattern produced by our data could be produced by random data. If p < 0.05, results are considered significant. We applied the T-Test to the set of log-likelihood values recorded using MLMFIRL and MLIRL approaches. The resultant p-value was:

$$p = 0.00000000005914$$

Since the p-value was less than 0.05, we conclude that the MLMFIRL approach produces significantly better results than MLIRL approach.

6.2 Freeway Merging Problem

To solve the freeway merging problem, we model the environment and use the extracted NGSIM dataset as illustrated in Chapter 5. Below is the complete details of the experimental setup.

- $MDP : \langle S, A, \gamma \rangle = \langle 1250, 5, 0.99 \rangle$
- Features $\Phi = \{\phi_1, \phi_2, \phi_3\}$

	Learned feature weight vector	Maximum				
Approach	$ec{ heta} = \langle heta_1, heta_2, heta_3 angle$	log-likelihood				
	Mean \pm Standard Deviation	Mean \pm St. Dev.				
MF-MLIRL	$\langle 0.845 \pm 0.093, 7.975 \pm 0.103, 0.297 \pm 0.180 \rangle$	-47194.575 ± 0.699				
MLIRL	$\langle 1.525 \pm 0.052, 17.063 \pm 0.508, 0.062 \pm 0.055 \rangle$	-51055.275 ± 284.681				

Table 6.2: Comparison of learned feature weights and corresponding maximum log-likelihood values of trajectories for the freeway merging domain using model-free and model-based algorithms.

- $\mathcal{T} = \{\zeta_1, \zeta_2, ..., \zeta_{260}\}$, i.e. set of 260 expert's trajectory extracted from I-80 NGSIM dataset.
- Boltzmann temperature, $\beta = 0.01$
- Learning rate for Q-Averaging, $\alpha = 0.1$
- Variable step size for gradient ascent.

We used the same setup and the same trajectories to learn the preference models of real drivers of vehicle A on the freeway using two different IRL approaches, modeled MLIRL and model-free MLMFIRL. We recorded our results, below, followed by detailed comparison.

Table 6.2 exhibits the learned feature weights and corresponding maximum log-likelihood values of trajectories using our model-free IRL approach and previously existing MLIRL approach. The mean maximum log-likelihood value for MLMFIRL over multiple executions is -47194.575 with a standard deviation of 0.699. However, the mean maximum log-likelihood value for MLIRL is -51055.275 with a standard deviation of 284.681 which is less than that of MLMFIRL and more varied.

Despite the fact that our approach does not produce ideal log-likelihood, the figures are better than what we get from MLIRL. Also, our model-free approach is more reliable as the learning procedure of transition function for freeway merging domain is questionable. Figure ?? illustrates the algorithm we used to learn the transition model of freeway merging domain which uses sampling method which is not ideal in the environment of human drivers. Also, learning the transition function using limited trajectories for sampling could be highly inaccurate.

We applied T-Test to samples of log-likelihood values received using MLMFIRL and MLIRL approaches. The resultant p-values was:

$$p = 0.000000083894$$

Since the p-value was less than 0.05, we conclude that the MLMFIRL approach produces significantly better results than MLIRL approach.

Algorithm 2 State Transition Probability

```
1: for trajectory in all trajectories do
        for t in trajectory do
 2:
 3:
           s \leftarrow \text{current state if trajectory[t][state]}
 4:
          for a in all actions do
             s' \leftarrow \text{sample 100 next states with SampleNextState}(t,a)
 5:
             vf[s, a, s'] \leftarrow \text{visitation frequency of } s, a, s'
 6:
 7:
          end for
          for a in all actions do
 8:
 9:
             for s' in all states do
                 tp(s, a, s') \leftarrow vf(s, a, s')/sum(vf[s, a, :])
10:
             end for
11:
          end for
12:
        end for
13:
14: end for
15: return tp
     SampleNextState(t,a)
16: s \leftarrow \text{trajectories}[t][\text{state}]
17: s' \leftarrow \text{trajectories}[t+1][\text{state}]
18: a \leftarrow a + \text{Noise}
19: s'[v_{AC}] \leftarrow s[v_{AC}] + a * 0.1
20: return s'
```

The State Transition Probability algorithm is used to recover the transition model of freeway merging problem domain using NGSIM I-80 vehicle trajectories. To recover the unknown state transition model, we traverse through all the states in each trajectory

sequence. At each time step in a trajectory, we take the current state and we sample 100 next states for each action executed from current step. We then record the number of transition of (s, a, s') tuple as visitation frequency of the resultant next state. Once we have the visitation frequencies of all next states from each current state in state space and each action in action space, we calculate the transition probabilities for each (s, a, s') by normalizing their visitation frequencies. The next steps are sampled based on motion model calculation in probabilistic robotics[23].

6.3 QUALITATIVE EVALUATION

To reinforce the validity of our approach we also performed few supplementary experiments where the output was deterministic. The variation of experiments was carried on the type of trajectories given as input. We first categorized the trajectories into sets with drivers of vehicle A demonstrating the similar behavior in each set. Then, we used our MLMFIRL approach to learn the behavior using similar demonstrations and analyzed the results. Also, we used the same set of results and tried to learn the expert's behavior using MLIRL approach and compared the results with our approach. All the trajectories used for qualitative evaluation are extracted from NGSIM I-80 freeway dataset.

EVALUATION I

In the first evaluation, we focused on trajectories where drivers of vehicle A prefers to demonstrate safe driving behavior, i.e. maintaining enough distance from the preceding car and not accelerating. We selected the trajectories that signify safe behavior, even when the driver detects vehicle B as a truck. When the distance from preceding car is too long we found few time steps where vehicle A does accelerates, but the majority of times it prefers being safe.

The first set of column in Table 6.3 shows the learned feature weights and corresponding maximum log-likelihood using MLMFIRL and MLIRL approaches. Here we analyze the results at two-fold. First, the feature weights corresponding to safe driving feature dominates

		Learned feature weight vector	Maximum				
	Approach	$ec{ heta} = \langle heta_1, heta_2, heta_3 angle$	log-likelihood				
		Mean \pm Standard Deviation	Mean \pm St. Dev.				
QE	MF-MLIRL	$\langle 5.955 \pm 0.001, 0.527 \pm 0.00, 2.814 \pm 0.001 \rangle$	-2314.667 ± 0.003				
I	MLIRL	$\langle 10.250 \pm 0.392, 6.724 \pm 0.304, 8.909 \pm 0.667 \rangle$	-2557.134 ± 3.238				
QE	MF-MLIRL	$\langle 8.472 \pm 0.386, 86.798 \pm 0.008, 9.508 \pm 0.225 \rangle$	-428.822 ± 0.034				
II	MLIRL	$\langle 7.792 \pm 0.275, 87.719 \pm 6.085, 13.103 \pm 0.488 \rangle$	-546.791 ± 3.162				
QE	MF-MLIRL	$\langle 0.659 \pm 0.292, 20.729 \pm 0.004, 22.809 \pm 0.011 \rangle$	-704.670 ± 0.041				
III	MLIRL	$\langle 0.998 \pm 0.387, 19.174 \pm 1.828, 29.025 \pm 1.929 \rangle$	-821.379 ± 5.735				

Table 6.3: Qualitative evaluation results for MF-MLIRL and MLIRL. QE I corresponds to trajectories demonstrating safe driving. QE II includes trajectories where drivers tend to accelerate in order to reach the destination quickly. QE III is modeling the preferences of drivers when vehicle B is a truck.

the other weights, i.e. the trajectories demonstrate the safe driving behavior. Second, the MLMFIRL approach generates better maximum log-likelihood values than MLIRL approach.

EVALUATION II

In the second evaluation, we tried to learn the behavior of drivers using trajectories demonstrating the preference of accelerating in order to reach the destination on time. These trajectories correspond to our second feature, i.e. travel time. Since we used the real drivers' data, finding the trajectories with accelerating actions for each time steps was unrealistic. Hence, we preferred those trajectories that most fit the behavior.

On analyzing the results from the middle rows of Table 6.3, the feature weight values corresponding to the second feature, i.e. travel time to reach the destination is higher than the other feature weights (as expected). Also, the maximum log-likelihood value for this set of trajectories is better in case of MLMFIRL than MLIRL.

EVALUATION III

In our third evaluation, we modeled the preferences of vehicle A's drivers when they detect vehicle B as a truck. This evaluation is important as the driving preferences of drivers usually changes when the merging vehicle is a big truck. Drivers tend to accelerate and go ahead of big vehicles.

The last set of columns in Table 6.3 shows the learned feature weights and corresponding maximum log-likelihood for the third set of trajectories using MLMFIRL and MLIRL approaches. As the previous two, here also we analyze the results at two-fold. First, the feature weights corresponding to the third feature, i.e. the type of vehicle B dominates the other two feature weights. Also, as expected the feature weights corresponding to acceleration is higher than the safe driving feature. Second, the MLMFIRL approach generates better maximum log-likelihood values than MLIRL approach.

6.4 Summary

In this chapter, we practically evaluated our model-free MLMFIRL approach for both grid world toy problem domain and the real-world freeway merging problem domain. The results from both the domain were remarkable. We also evaluated our approach using some special test trajectories for a deeper understanding of its functionality. The comparisons illustrated above infers that our approach is better than MLIRL and also more reliable for environments with unknown transition model.

Chapter 7

CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

In this thesis, we propose a novel inverse reinforcement learning approach to resolve the issues of existing techniques. Learning the behavior of an expert with complete knowledge of the environment has been solved in contemporary literature. Here, we successfully learn the behavior of expert with only partial knowledge of its environment. For real-world environments, like the one we discussed, it is not easy to learn the transition model accurately. Our solution entirely eliminates the dependency on the transition function from learning via an expert's trajectories, making the approach model-free. In order to accomplish our desired goal, we apply some renowned techniques including maximum likelihood estimation, Q-learning, and gradient ascent. Additionally, to address some mathematical challenges, we introduced some alterations in canonical approaches and justified them.

We showed that MLMFIRL is effective in recovering the expert's reward, even with a limited number of expert's trajectories, outperforming existing IRL algorithm in a grid-world environment. The Q-values for each state-action pair in trajectory set is calculated using the Q-Averaging technique which is then used to produce the optimal action probabilities using the Boltzmann policy exploration technique. We used gradient ascent to iteratively update the feature weight values in the direction of the gradient of the log-likelihood of expert's trajectory. To summarize, the MLMFIRL algorithm is simple, easy to implement, time efficient and even space efficient.

MLMFIRL demonstrates promising results for the freeway merging problem domain using the NGSIM I-80 dataset. The learned model can be used in self-driving cars to make an optimal decision about when to merge by monitoring behavior of cars on rightmost lane of the freeway. The evaluation and comparison of results with other contemporary techniques are significant. Using MLMFIRL, we are not only able to produce better learning results but also more reliable results from a limited number of trajectories.

Future work may include implementing the MLMFIRL approach with other optimization techniques which do not require differentiating the likelihood function. This will allow the use of conventional Q-learning with the "max" operator. Additionally, an avenue may be to replace the "max" operator entirely.

We described the MLMFIRL algorithm for a single expert setting. It would be interesting to predict the behavior in presence of multiple agents. Modeling of a multi-agent environment and their interaction with other experts in the environment might lead to better learning of behavior.

In experimental settings, applying the MLMFIRL approach to a larger dataset collected from different demographic locations is expected to yield even better results. Recent advancements in the field of inverse reinforcement learning and maximum likelihood estimation can be integrated to make the algorithm more efficient and scalable.

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Appendix A

NGSIM I-80 Dataset

As described in Section 5.2.2, I-80 dataset was collected under NGSIM program by FHWA in 2005 using seven synchronized digital cameras. The recoded video data was then transcribed into vehicle trajectory data using NG-VIDEO, a customized software application developed for NGSIM program. Below are few snapshots of transcribed I-80 freeway merging dataset.

The complete NGSIM I-80 dataset consists of approximately 4.5 million rows. Each row is a unique combination of 14 columns. We illustrate the detailed significance of each column values in Section 5.2.2.

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4	288	749	1113433163700	52.553	301.726	6042846.483	2133373.265	13.4	5.3	2	0.00	0.00	5	21	27	22.32	9999.99
4	289	749	1113433163800	52.523	301.726	6042846.457	2133373.232	13.4	5.3	2	0.00	0.00	5	21	27	22.61	9999.99
4	290	749	1113433163900	52.588	301.726	6042846.518	2133373.264	13.4	5.3	2	0.00	0.00	5	21	27	22.95	9999.99
4	291	749	1113433164000	52.704	301.789	6042846.618	2133373.404	13.4	5.3	2	1.40	8.05	5	21	27	23.18	16.56
4	292	749	1113433164100	52.896	301.980	6042846.782	2133373.653	13.4	5.3	2	2.06	5.91	5	21	27	23.24	11.28
4	293	749	1113433164200	53.005	302.244	6042846.857	2133373.944	13.4	5.3	2	2.45	1.71	5	21	27	23.27	9.50
4	294	749	1113433164300	53.076	302.524	6042846.898	2133374.201	13.4	5.3	2	2.46	-1.86	5	21	27	23.38	9.51
4	295	749	1113433164400	53.048	302.769	6042846.838	2133374.470	13.4	5.3	2	2.22	-3.09	5	21	27	23.56	10.61
4	296	749	1113433164500	53.047	302.975	6042846.814	2133374.665	13.4	5.3	2	1.95	-2.84	5	21	27	23.67	12.14
4	297	749	1113433164600	53.047	303.148	6042846.796	2133374.815	13.4	5.3	2	1.73	-1.56	5	21	27	23.71	13.70
4	298	749	1113433164700	53.047	303.303	6042846.774	2133374.994	13.4	5.3	2	1.63	-0.28	5	21	27	23.75	14.57
4	299	749	1113433164800	53.020	303.462	6042846.731	2133375.128	13.4	5.3	2	1.61	0.05	5	21	27	23.91	14.85
4	300	749	1113433164900	53.091	303.614	6042846.781	2133375.311	13.4	5.3	2	1.70	1.48	5	21	27	24.21	14.24
4	301	749	1113433165000	53.195	303.774	6042846.866	2133375.479	13.4	5.3	2	2.02	4.32	5	21	27	24.56	12.16
4	302	749	1113433165100	53.383	303.978	6042847.032	2133375.670	13.4	5.3	2	2.58	7.16	5	21	27	24.88	9.64
4	303	749	1113433165200	53.485	304.258	6042847.097	2133375.990	13.4	5.3	2	3.35	8.86	5	21	27	25.10	7.49
4	304	749	1113433165300	53.555	304.646	6042847.123	2133376.367	13.4	5.3	2	4.16	7.57	5	21	27	25.21	6.06
4	305	749	1113433165400	53.539	305.132	6042847.051	2133376.832	13.4	5.3	2	4.63	2.70	5	21	27	25.24	5.45
4	306	749	1113433165500	53.536	305.656	6042846.982	2133377.387	13.4	5.3	2	4.51	-4.76	5	21	27	25.22	5.59
4	307	749	1113433165600	53.533	306.123	6042846.921	2133377.870	13.4	5.3	2	3.79	-10.49	5	21	27	25.21	6.65
4	308	749	1113433165700	53.531	306.442	6042846.881	2133378.193	13.4	5.3	2	2.92	-8.70	5	21	27	25.25	8.65
4	309	749	1113433165800	53.532	306.650	6042846.863	2133378.350	13.4	5.3	2	2.41	-2.05	5	21	27	25.37	10.53
4	310	749	1113433165900	53.532	306.835	6042846.845	2133378.507	13.4	5.3	2	2.46	4.24	5	21	27	25.57	10.39
4	311	749	1113433166000	53.532	307.076	6042846.806	2133378.829	13.4	5.3	2	3.05	7.74	5	21	27	25.78	8.45
4	312	749	1113433166100	53.528	307.422	6042846.744	2133379.313	13.4	5.3	2	3.80	7.63	5	21	27	25.89	6.81
4	313	749	1113433166200	53.528	307.851	6042846.679	2133379.838	13.4	5.3	2	4.43	5.64	5	21	27	25.84	5.83
4	314	749	1113433166300	53.529	308.343	6042846.618	2133380.335	13.4	5.3	2	4.84	2.37	5	21	27	25.68	5.31
4	315	749	1113433166400	53.530	308.857	6042846.557	2133380.831	13.4	5.3	2	4.99	0.06	5	21	27	25.53	5.12
4	316	749	1113433166500	53.529	309.357	6042846.495	2133381.327	13.4	5.3	2	4.99	-0.05	5	21	27	25.47	5.11
4	317	749	1113433166600	53.504	309.856	6042846.408	2133381.820	13.4	5.3	2	4.99	0.05	5	21	27	25.48	5.11
4	318	749	1113433166700	53.576	310.355	6042846.419	2133382.320	13.4	5.3	2	5.00	0.15	5	21	27	25.52	5.10
4	319	749	1113433166800	53.682	310.856	6042846.462	2133382.834	13.4	5.3	2	5.01	0.11	5	21	27	25.54	5.10

30.101 1638.339 6042632.050 2134694.495 13.8 7.3 2 10.25 0.00 1986 7182 1202 1113437485100 3 0 1991 0.00 0.00 30.109 1639.366 6042631.896 2134695.508 13.8 7.3 1986 7183 1202 1113437485200 2 10.23 -0.29 0 1991 0.00 0.00 3 1986 7184 1202 1113437485300 30.118 1640.389 6042631.742 2134696.521 13.8 7.3 2 10.19 -0.54 3 0 1991 0.00 0.00 1986 7185 1202 1113437485400 30.125 1641.404 6042631.587 2134697.534 13.8 7.3 2 10.16 -0.26 3 0 1991 0.00 0.00 7186 1202 1113437485500 30.135 1642.415 6042631.433 2134698.548 13.8 1986 7.3 10.16 0.27 0 1991 0.00 0.00 1986 7187 1202 1113437485600 30.144 1643.430 6042631.278 2134699.561 13.8 7.3 2 10.19 0.54 3 0 1991 0.00 0.00 30.153 1644.453 6042631.124 2134700.574 13.8 7.3 1986 7188 1202 1113437485700 2 10.23 0.29 0 1991 0.00 0.00 3 2 10.25 1202 1113437485800 30.163 1645.480 6042630.970 2134701.588 13.8 7.3 1986 7189 0.00 3 0 1991 0.00 0.00 1986 7190 1202 1113437485900 30.172 1646.505 6042630.815 2134702.601 13.8 7.3 2 10.25 0.00 3 0 1991 0.00 0.00 1986 7191 1202 1113437486000 30.182 1647.530 6042630.661 2134703.614 13.8 7.3 2 10.25 0.00 3 0 1991 0.00 0.00 1986 7192 1202 1113437486100 30.191 1648.555 6042630.507 2134704.628 13.8 7.3 2 10.25 0.00 0 1991 0.00 1986 1202 1113437486200 30.200 1649.580 6042630.352 2134705.641 13.8 7.3 0.00 7193 2 10.25 0 1991 0.00 0.00 3 1986 7194 1202 1113437486300 6042630.198 2134706.654 13.8 7.3 2 10.25 30.210 1650.605 0.00 0 1991 0.00 0.00 3 1986 7195 1202 1113437486400 30.220 1651.630 6042630.044 2134707.667 13.8 7.3 2 10.25 0.00 3 0 1991 0.00 0.00 1986 7196 1202 1113437486500 30.228 1652.655 6042629.889 2134708.681 13.8 7.3 2 10.25 0.00 3 0 1991 0.00 0.00 1986 7197 1202 1113437486600 30.238 1653.680 6042629.735 2134709.694 13.8 7.3 2 10.25 0.00 3 0 1991 0.00 0.00 6042629.580 2134710.707 13.8 1986 7198 1202 1113437486700 30.247 1654.704 7.3 10.25 0.00 1991 0.00 0.00 1202 1113437486800 30.257 1655.730 6042629.426 2134711.721 13.8 7.3 2 10.25 1986 7199 0.00 3 0 1991 0.00 0.00 1986 7200 1202 1113437486900 30.266 1656.755 6042629.272 2134712.734 13.8 7.3 2 10.25 0.00 3 0 1991 0.00 0.00 2 48.02 1987 6353 366 1113437402200 6.612 61.046 6042830.316 2133129.106 13.3 7.3 0.00 1 1977 0.268.92 5.60 1987 6354 366 1113437402300 6.622 65.546 6042829.762 2133133.572 13.3 7.3 2 48.02 0.00 1 1977 0 269.01 5.60 1987 6355 1113437402400 6.625 6042829.146 2133138.534 13.3 0.00 1 1977 366 70.562 7.3 48.02 0 268.63 5.59 1987 6356 366 1113437402500 6.623 74.563 6042828.653 2133142.504 13.3 7.3 2 48.02 0.00 1 1977 0 269.30 5.61 366 1113437402600 79.563 6042828.038 2133147.466 13.3 7.3 1987 6357 2 48.02 0.00 1 1977 0 269.04 6.623 5.60 2 48.02 366 1113437402700 84.311 6042827.422 2133152.189 13.3 7.3 1 1977 1987 6358 6.592 4.63 0.269.08 5.60 1987 6359 366 1113437402800 6.560 89.186 6042826.791 2133157.018 13.3 7.3 2 48.26 -1.40 1 1977 0 269.00 5.57 1987 6360 366 1113437402900 6.527 93.997 6042826.168 2133161.778 13.3 7.3 2 48.16 -0.46 1 1977 0 268.90 5.58 366 1113437403000 6.494 98.811 6042825.544 2133166.549 13.3 7.3 1987 6361 2 48.12 -0.38 1 1977 0 268.74 5.58 1987 6362 366 1113437403100 6.462 103.618 6042824.921 2133171.319 13.3 7.3 0.00 1 1977 0 268.61 2 48.10 5.58 366 1113437403200 2 48.10 -0.05 1987 6363 6.430 108.428 6042824.298 2133176.090 13.3 7.3 1 1977 0.268.60 5.58 6.402 113.237 6042823.674 2133180.861 13.3 7.3 2 48.10 0.04 1 1977 1999 268.71 1987 6364 366 1113437403300 5.59

2029 6899 1825 1113437456800 40.943 989.790 6042745.668 2134055.424 14.8 6.9 2 8.49 -0.11 4 2023 2036 31.95 3.7 990.640 6042745.542 2134056.265 14.8 6.9 2029 6900 1825 1113437456900 40.942 8.47 -0.24 4 2023 2036 32.14 2029 6901 1825 1113437457000 40.943 991.481 6042745.417 2134057.106 14.8 6.9 8.50 0.51 4 2023 2036 32.36 3.8 992.319 6042745.294 2134057.932 14.8 6.9 2 2029 6902 1825 1113437457100 40.943 8.69 2.85 4 2023 2036 32.57 3.7 993.182 6042745.169 2134058.772 14.8 6.9 2029 6903 1825 1113437457200 40.943 9.12 5.87 4 2023 2036 32.76 3.5 2029 6904 1825 1113437457300 40.943 994.112 6042745.032 2134059.687 14.8 6.9 2 9.75 7.29 4 2023 2036 32.88 3.3 1825 1113437457400 40.943 995.132 6042744.881 2134060.701 14.8 6.9 4 2023 2036 2029 6905 10.38 5.83 32.91 3.1 2029 6906 1825 1113437457500 40.942 996.219 6042744.718 2134061.789 14.8 6.9 10.81 2.83 4 2023 2036 32.87 3.0 2029 6907 1825 1113437457600 40.943 997.330 6042744.554 2134062.891 14.8 6.9 11.00 0.53 4 2023 2036 32.81 2.9 998.439 6042744.391 2134063.979 14.8 6.9 2 11.03 -0.23 2029 6908 1825 1113437457700 4 2023 2036 32.75 40.942 2.9 999.540 6042744.229 2134065.067 14.8 6.9 2 11.01 -0.12 2029 6909 1825 1113437457800 40.942 4 2023 2036 32.70 2.9 2029 6910 1825 1113437457900 40.942 1000.639 6042744.067 2134066.155 14.8 6.9 2 11.00 0.00 4 2023 2036 32.65 2.9 2029 6911 1825 1113437458000 40.942 1001.739 6042743.904 2134067.243 14.8 6.9 2 11.00 0.00 4 2023 2036 32.60 2.9 2029 6912 1825 1113437458100 40.942 1002.839 6042743.742 2134068.331 14.8 6.9 11.00 0.00 4 2023 2036 32.55 2.9 2 11.00 2029 6913 1825 1113437458200 40.942 1003.939 6042743.580 2134069.419 14.8 6.9 4 2023 2036 32.50 2.9 0.00 2029 6914 1825 1113437458300 40.942 1005.039 6042743.417 2134070.507 14.8 6.9 2 11.00 0.00 4 2023 2036 32.45 2.9 2 11.00 2029 6915 1825 1113437458400 40.942 1006.139 6042743.255 2134071.595 14.8 6.9 0.00 4 2023 2036 32.41 2.9 2029 6916 1825 1113437458500 40.942 1007.238 6042743.093 2134072.682 14.8 6.9 2 11.00 0.00 4 2023 2036 32.36 2.9 6917 1825 1113437458600 40.941 1008.338 6042742.930 2134073.770 14.8 6.9 2036 2029 11.00 0.03 4 2023 32.31 2.9 2029 6918 1825 1113437458700 40.941 1009.438 6042742.768 2134074.858 14.8 6.9 2 11.00 0.00 4 2023 2036 32.24 2.9 2029 6919 1825 1113437458800 40.941 1010.539 6042742.605 2134075.946 14.8 6.9 2 11.00 -0.06 4 2023 2036 32.17 2.9 2 10.99 -0.11 2029 6920 1825 1113437458900 40.941 1011.639 6042742.443 2134077.034 14.8 6.9 4 2023 2036 32.15 2.9 2029 6921 1825 1113437459000 40.941 1012.735 6042742.281 2134078.122 14.8 6.9 2 11.00 0.21 4 2023 2036 32.23 2.9 2029 6922 1825 1113437459100 40.941 1013.831 6042742.119 2134079.204 14.8 6.9 2 11.07 1.13 4 2023 2036 32.44 2.9 2029 6923 1825 1113437459200 40.941 1014.936 6042741.957 2134080.292 14.8 6.9 2 11.25 2.32 4 2023 2036 32.74 2029 6924 1825 1113437459300 40.941 1016.068 6042741.790 2134081.410 14.8 6.9 11.50 2.90 4 2023 2036 33.05 2.8 40.941 1017.247 6042741.618 2134082.566 14.8 6.9 2 11.64 2029 6925 1825 1113437459400 4 2023 2036 33.32 0.56 2.8 2029 6926 1825 1113437459500 40.941 1018.430 6042741.441 2134083.753 14.8 6.9 2 11.56 -2.18 2036 33.57 4 2023 2.9 40.940 1019.572 6042741.262 2134084.946 14.8 6.9 2 11.45 -1.38 2029 6927 1825 1113437459600 4 2023 2036 33.85 2.9 2029 6928 1825 1113437459700 40.944 1020.694 6042741.085 2134086.133 14.8 6.9 2 11.46 1.50 4 2023 2036 34.16 2.9 40.950 1021.832 6042740.908 2134087.320 14.8 6.9 2 11.64 3.28 2029 6929 1825 1113437459800 4 2023 2036 34.45

3366 3177 291 1113433452600 3.517 1319.416 6042656.832 2134375.476 16.8 6.9 2 60.00 -0.02 1 977 978 130.50 2.1 3366 3178 291 1113433452700 3.503 1325.416 6042655.850 2134381.395 16.8 6.9 2 60.00 0.00 1 977 978 130.70 2.1 3366 3179 291 1113433452800 3.489 1331.416 6042654.868 2134387.314 16.8 6.9 60.00 0.00 1 977 978 131.02 2.1 3366 3180 291 1113433452900 3.475 1337.416 6042653.886 2134393.233 16.8 6.9 2 60.00 0.00 977 978 131.49 3366 3181 291 1113433453000 3.460 1343.416 6042652.903 2134399.152 16.8 6.9 60.00 0.00 1 977 978 131.96 2.2 3.445 1349.417 6042651.921 2134405.071 16.8 6.9 2 978 132.31 3366 3182 291 1113433453100 59.98 0.25 977 2.2 1 3.431 1355.414 6042650.939 2134410.990 16.8 6.9 3366 3183 291 1113433453200 2 60.03 0.02 1 977 978 132.53 2.2 3366 3184 291 1113433453300 3.417 1361.418 6042649.957 2134416.909 16.8 6.9 60.04 -0.21 977 978 132.69 2.2 1 291 1113433453400 3.396 1367.421 6042648.975 2134422.829 16.8 6.9 2 60.01 -0.06 978 132.83 3366 3185 1 977 3366 3186 291 1113433453500 3.371 1373.422 6042647.992 2134428.748 16.8 6.9 60.00 0.00 977 978 132.93 3366 3187 291 1113433453600 3.347 1379.422 6042647.010 2134434.667 16.8 6.9 60.00 978 133.02 2.2 0.00 1 3.323 1385.422 6042646.028 2134440.586 16.8 6.9 3366 3188 291 1113433453700 2 60.00 977 978 133.13 0.00 2.2 1 291 1113433453800 3.299 1391.418 6042645.046 2134446.505 16.8 6.9 60.15 -1.56 978 133.32 3366 3189 1 977 2.2 3366 3190 291 1113433453900 3.274 1397.421 6042644.063 2134452.424 16.8 6.9 2 60.36 -5.96 1 977 978 133.57 2.2 3366 3191 291 1113433454000 3.250 1403.430 6042643.081 2134458.343 16.8 6.9 58.53 11.20 977 978 133 88 1 2.2 3366 3192 291 1113433454100 3.212 1409.171 6042642.091 2134464.224 16.8 6.9 60.92 11.20 977 978 134.50 3366 3193 291 1113433454200 3.203 1415.372 6042641.146 2134470.009 16.8 6.9 63.49 -10.82 978 134.69 1 2.1 3.186 1421.676 6042640.103 2134476.351 16.8 6.9 2 62.35 -11.20 978 134.78 3366 3194 291 1113433454300 977 2.1 1 3366 3195 291 1113433454400 3.152 1427.849 6042639.081 2134482.452 16.8 6.9 2 61.20 -10.34 1 977 978 135.02 2.2 3366 3196 291 1113433454500 3.127 1433.927 6042638.089 2134488.425 16.8 6.9 2 58.53 11.20 1 977 978 135.34 2.3 3366 3197 291 1113433454600 3.089 1439.666 6042637.098 2134494.313 16.8 6.9 2 60.94 11.20 1 977 978 135.94 2.2 291 1113433454700 3.085 1445.927 6042636.153 2134500.097 16.8 6.9 978 135.87 3366 3198 62.99 -11.20 977 2.1 3366 3199 291 1113433454800 3.077 1452.284 6042635.110 2134506.440 16.8 6.9 59.98 1.27 978 135.56 2.2 3366 3200 291 1113433454900 3.044 1458.088 6042634.080 2134512.545 16.8 6.9 978 135.75 60.86 11.20 977 1 2.2 3.020 1464.198 6042633.117 2134518.290 16.8 6.9 2 62.43 11.20 978 135.73 3366 3201 291 1113433455000 977 1 2.1 1 3366 3202 291 1113433455100 3.020 1470.502 6042632.102 2134524.508 16.8 6.9 2 63.91 6.41 977 978 135.62 2.1 3366 3203 291 1113433455200 3.003 1476.933 6042631.048 2134530.859 16.8 6.9 64.45 7.04 1 977 978 135.36 2.1 291 1113433455300 2.986 1483.411 6042629.985 2134537.265 16.8 6.9 2 66.47 -11.20 978 134.89 3366 3204 977 2.0 3366 3205 291 1113433455400 2.983 1490.170 6042628.929 2134543.716 16.8 6.9 2 64.07 -11.20 977 978 134.01 2.0 291 1113433455500 2.951 1496.468 6042627.828 2134550.263 16.8 6.9 2 61.50 10.88 1 977 978 133.53 2.1 3366 3206 3366 3207 291 1113433455600 2.926 1502.663 6042626.825 2134556.251 16.8 6.9 2 62.73 10.18 1 977 978 132.84 2.1