

Robustifying Reinforcement Learning Policies with \mathcal{L}_1 Adaptive Control

Yikun Cheng*, Pan Zhao*, Manan Gandhi, Bo Li, Evangelos Theodorou, Naira Hovakimyan

Abstract—A reinforcement learning (RL) policy trained in a nominal environment could fail in a new/perturbed environment due to the existence of dynamic variations. Existing robust methods try to obtain a fixed policy for all envisioned dynamic variation scenarios through robust or adversarial training. These methods could lead to conservative performance due to emphasis on the worst case, and often involve tedious modifications to the training environment. We propose an approach to robustifying a pre-trained non-robust RL policy with \mathcal{L}_1 adaptive control (\mathcal{L}_1 AC). Leveraging the capability of an \mathcal{L}_1 AC law in fast estimation of and active compensation for dynamic variations, our approach can significantly improve the robustness of an RL policy trained in a standard (i.e., non-robust) way, either in a simulator or in the real world. Numerical experiments are provided to validate the efficacy of the proposed approach.

I. INTRODUCTION

Reinforcement learning (RL) is a promising way to solve sequential decision-making problems [1]. In the recent years, RL has shown impressive or superhuman performance in control of complex robotic systems [2]–[4]. An RL policy is often trained in a simulator and deployed in the real world. However, the discrepancy between the simulated and the real environment, known as the sim-to-real (S2R) gap, often causes the RL policy to fail in the real world. An RL policy may also be directly trained in a real-world environment; however, the environment perturbation resulting from parameter variations, actuator failures and external disturbances can still cause the well-trained policy to fail. Take a delivery drone for example (Fig. 1). We could train an RL policy to control the drone in a nominal environment (e.g., nominal load, mild wind disturbances, healthy propellers, etc.); however, this policy could fail and lead to a crash when the drone operates in a new environment (e.g., heavier loads, stronger wind disturbances, loss of propeller efficiency, etc.). To a certain extent, the S2R gap issue can be considered as a special case of environment perturbation by treating the simulated and real environments as the old/nominal and new/perturbed environments, respectively.

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Y. Cheng, P. Zhao, and N. Hovakimyan are with the Mechanical Science and Engineering Department, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, IL 61801, USA. Email: {yikun2, panzhao2, nhovakim}@illinois.edu. Corresponding author: P. Zhao.

*Y. Cheng and P. Zhao contributed equally to this work as first authors.

B. Li is with the Computer Science Department, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, IL 61801, USA. Email: lbo@illinois.edu.

M. Gandhi and E. Theodorou are with the Institute for Robotics and Intelligent Machines, Georgia Institute of Technology, Atlanta, GA 30332, USA. Email: {mgandhi, evangelos.theodorou}@ae.gatech.edu.

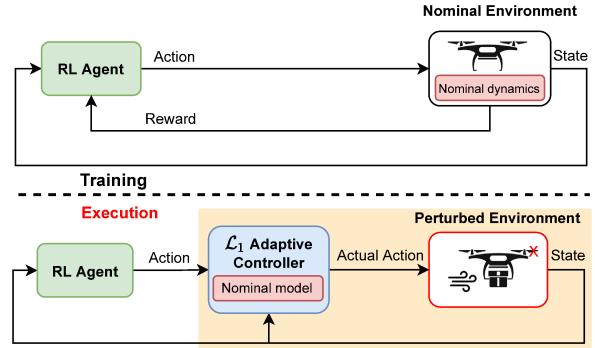


Fig. 1: Proposed \mathcal{L}_1 -RL framework for policy robustification

To deal with the S2R gap issue, existing *robust* methods aims to improve the policy robustness through domain randomization [5]–[7] or adversarial training [8]. However, due to reliance on a *fixed* policy for all the scenarios, these methods often lead to conservative performance, and can only handle a small range of dynamic variation. Moreover, these methods often need tedious modifications to the training environment, which are most suitable for RL training in a *simulated* environment.

We propose a framework to robustify an RL policy leveraging \mathcal{L}_1 adaptive control (\mathcal{L}_1 AC) [9], termed as \mathcal{L}_1 -RL, and is illustrated in Fig. 1. The essential idea of \mathcal{L}_1 AC is to actively and quickly estimate the dynamic uncertainties and use the estimated value to compute the control input to compensate for these uncertainties – within the bandwidth of the control channel – so that the actual uncertain or perturbed system behaves like a nominal model. A unique feature of \mathcal{L}_1 AC is the decoupling of the estimation loop from the control loop. This decoupling allows the use of fast adaptation, desired for quickly estimating the (potentially fast-varying) dynamic uncertainties, without sacrificing robustness. Different from most of existing policy robustification methods based on domain randomization or adversarial training [5]–[8], our \mathcal{L}_1 -RL framework can be used to robustify an RL policy, trained in the standard (i.e., non-robust) way, either in a simulator or in the real world. The core of \mathcal{L}_1 -RL is the built-in \mathcal{L}_1 AC scheme which quickly estimates and compensates for the dynamic variations so that *the perturbed environment is close to the nominal environment*, where the RL policy is expected to function well.

A. Related work

Robust/adversarial training. Domain/dynamics randomization was proposed to close the sim-to-real (S2R) gap [5]–[7] when transferring a policy from a simulator to the real

world. Robust adversarial training addresses the S2R gap and environment perturbations by formulating a two-player zero-sum game between the agent and the disturbance [8]. These methods involve tedious modifications to the training environment, which can mostly happen in a simulator. More importantly, the resulting policies trained in this way could overfit to the worst-case scenarios, and thus lead to conservative or degraded performance in other cases [10].

Active compensation for dynamic variations. Kim et al. [11] proposed to use an disturbance-observer (DOB) to improve the robustness of an RL policy, in which the mismatch between the simulated training environment and the testing environment is estimated as disturbance and compensated for. A similar idea was pursued in [12], which used a model reference adaptive control (MRAC) scheme to estimate and compensate for parameteric uncertainties. Our objectives are similar to the ones in [11] and [12], but our approach and end result are different, as we address a broader class of dynamic uncertainties (e.g., unknown input gain that cannot be handled by [11], and time-dependent disturbances that cannot be handled by [12]), and we leverage the \mathcal{L}_1 AC architecture that has guaranteed and predictable transient (and not just asymptotic) performance [9]. We note that \mathcal{L}_1 AC has been combined with model predictive control (MPC) with application to quadrotors [13], and it has been used for safe learning and motion planning applicable to a broad class of nonlinear systems in robotic applications [14]–[16]. To put things into perspective, this paper is focused on applying the \mathcal{L}_1 AC architecture to robustify an RL policy. In terms of technical details, this paper considers more general scenarios, e.g., unmatched disturbances and unknown input gain, which were not considered in [15], [16]. While we only provide empirical verification with numerical experiments in this paper, it is possible to establish a theoretical guarantee by following the approach in [15] or [17] with additional assumptions, which we would like to pursue in future work.

Learning to adapt. Meta-RL has recently been proposed to achieve fast adaptation of a pre-trained policy in the presence of dynamic variations [18]–[23]. Despite impressive performance mainly in terms of fast adaptation demonstrated by these methods, the intermediate policies learned during the adaptation phase will most likely still fail. This is because a certain amount of information-rich data needs to be collected in order to *learn* a good model and/or policy. On the other hand, rooted in the theory of adaptive control and disturbance estimation, [9], [24]–[26], our proposed method can *quickly estimate* the discrepancy between a nominal model and the actual dynamics, and *actively compensate* for it in a timely manner. We envision that our proposed method can be combined with these methods to achieve robust and fast adaptation.

II. PROBLEM SETTING

We assume that we have access to the system dynamics in the *nominal* environment, either simulated or in the real world, and it is described by a nonlinear control-affine model:

$$\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t)) + g(x(t))u(t) \triangleq F_{\text{nom}}(x(t), u(t)), \quad (1)$$

where $x(t) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $u(t) \in \mathbb{R}^m$ are the state and input vectors, respectively, $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ and $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ are known functions; moreover, $g(x)$ has full column rank.

Remark 1. Control-affine models are commonly used for control design and can represent a broad class of mechanical and robotic systems. In addition, a control non-affine model can be converted into a control-affine model by introducing extra state variables (see e.g., [27]). Therefore, the control-affine assumption is not very restrictive.

Remark 2. The nominal model (1) can be from physics-based modeling, data-driven modeling or a combination of both. Methods exist for maintaining the control affine structure in data-driven modeling (see e.g., [28]).

We further assume that the dynamics of the agent in the *perturbed* environment can be represented by

$$\dot{x} = f(x) + g(x)\Lambda(x)u + d(t, x), \quad (2)$$

where $\Lambda(x)$ is an unknown input gain matrix, which is non-singular for any x , $d(t, x)$ is an unknown function that can capture parameter perturbations, unmodeled dynamics and external disturbances. It is obvious that the perturbed dynamics (2) can be equivalently written as

$$\dot{x}(t) = F_{\text{nom}}(x(t), u(t)) + (\Lambda(x) - I)u + d(t, x). \quad (3)$$

Remark 3. Uncertain input gain is very common in real-world systems. For instance, actuator failures, and variations in mass or inertia for force- or torque-controlled robotic systems, normally induce such input gain uncertainty. Our representation of such uncertainty in (2) is broad enough to capture a large class of scenarios, while still allowing for effective compensation of such input gain uncertainty using \mathcal{L}_1 AC (detailed in Section III).

Assumption 1. We have access to a *nominal* policy, $\pi_o(x)$, which functions well for the *nominal* dynamics (1).

The policy $\pi_o(x)$ can be trained either in a simulator or in the real world in the standard (i.e., non-robust) way. The nominal policy π_0 could fail in the perturbed environment due to the dynamic variations. In this paper, we propose a method to robustify this nominal policy so that it could function in the presence of such dynamic variations, by leveraging \mathcal{L}_1 AC [9].

III. \mathcal{L}_1 -RL FRAMEWORK FOR POLICY ROBUSTIFICATION

A. Overview of the \mathcal{L}_1 -RL framework

The idea of our proposed \mathcal{L}_1 -RL framework is depicted in Fig. 1. Within \mathcal{L}_1 -RL, the *training* phase is standard: the nominal policy can be trained using standard methods in a nominal environment, which does not need domain randomization or adversarial training. During policy *execution*, an \mathcal{L}_1 controller uses the nominal dynamics (1) as an internal nominal model, estimates the discrepancy between the nominal model and the actual dynamics and compensates

for this discrepancy so that *the actual dynamics with the \mathcal{L}_1 controller* (illustrated by the shaded area of Fig. 1) *behaves like the nominal dynamics*. Since the RL policy works well under the nominal dynamics, it is expected to work well in the presence of dynamic variations and the \mathcal{L}_1 augmentation.

B. RL training for the nominal policy

As mentioned before, the policy can be trained in the standard way, using a large amount of RL methods including both model-free and model-based ones. The only requirement is that one has nominal dynamics of the training environment in the form of (1).

As an illustration of the idea, in the numerical experiments (Section IV), we choose PILCO [29], a model-based policy search method, and a trajectory optimization method based on differential dynamic programming (DDP) [30], [31] to obtain the nominal policy.

C. \mathcal{L}_1 augmentation for policy robustification

In this section, we explain how an \mathcal{L}_1 AC law can be designed to augment and robustify a nominal RL policy. An \mathcal{L}_1 controller mainly consists of three components: a state predictor, an adaptive law, and a control law. The state predictor is used to predict the system's state evolution, and the prediction error is subsequently used in the adaptive law to update the disturbance estimates. The control law aims to compensate for the estimated disturbance. For the perturbed system (2) with the nominal dynamics (1), these components are detailed as follows. The **state predictor** is defined as:

$$\dot{\tilde{x}} = F_{\text{nom}}(x, u) + g(x)\hat{\sigma}_m(t) + g^\perp(x)\hat{\sigma}_{um}(t) - a\tilde{x}, \quad (4)$$

where $\tilde{x} \triangleq \hat{x} - x$ is the prediction error, a is a positive scalar, $\hat{\sigma}_m(t)$ and $\hat{\sigma}_{um}(t)$ are the *matched* and *unmatched* disturbance estimates¹, respectively, $g^\perp(x) \in \mathbb{R}^{n-m}$ satisfies $g(x)^\top g^\perp(x) = 0$, and $\text{rank}[G(x)] = n$ for any x with $G(x) \triangleq [g(x) \ g^\perp(x)]$. From (3) and (4), we see that the total disturbance, $(\Lambda(x) - I)u + d(t, x)$, is estimated by $\hat{\sigma}(t) \triangleq g(x)\hat{\sigma}_m(t) + g^\perp(x)\hat{\sigma}_{um}(t)$. Note that unmatched disturbances (or mismatched disturbances used in the disturbance-observer based control literature [26]) cannot be directly canceled by control signals and are generally challenging to deal with. Following the piecewise-constant (PWC) **adaptive law** (which connects with the CPU sampling time) [9, Section 3.3], the disturbance estimates are updated as

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\sigma}_m(t) \\ \hat{\sigma}_{um}(t) \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\sigma}_m(iT) \\ \hat{\sigma}_{um}(iT) \end{bmatrix}, \quad t \in [iT, (i+1)T], \\ \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\sigma}_m(iT) \\ \hat{\sigma}_{um}(iT) \end{bmatrix} &= -G^{-1}(x(iT)) \frac{a}{e^{aT} - 1} \tilde{x}(iT), \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

where T is the sampling time. The **control law** (applied to the actual system) is defined as

$$u(s) = -\frac{1}{s}K\hat{\eta}(s), \quad (6)$$

¹In an \mathcal{L}_1 AC scheme with a piecewise constant adaptive law [9, section 3.3], all the dynamic uncertainties (such as parametric uncertainties, unmodeled dynamics and external disturbances) are *lumped* together and estimated as disturbances.

where $K \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ is a feedback gain matrix, $\hat{\eta}(s)$ is the Laplace transform of $\hat{\eta}(t) = u(t) + \hat{\sigma}_m(t) - u_{\text{RL}}(t)$ with $u_{\text{RL}}(t) = \pi_0(x(t))$ being the control command from the nominal RL policy $\pi_0(t)$. Details on deriving the estimation and control laws can be found in [32], [33]. It is worth emphasizing that the control law only compensates for the matched estimated disturbance ($\hat{\sigma}_m$) by directly canceling it, and a feedback structure is introduced in (6) to compensate for the effect of unknown input gain $\Lambda(x)$, which computes the ultimate control command using $\hat{\sigma}_m$ and u_{RL} .

Remark 4. Variations of the proposed \mathcal{L}_1 AC law (4)–(6) have been used to augment other baseline controllers (e.g., PID, linear quadratic regulator, MPC), as demonstrated in numerous applications and flight tests, [13], [34], [35].

IV. NUMERICAL EXPERIMENTS

We now present the numerical experiments on a simple cart-pole benchmark problem, and a complex 12-state quadrotor control example.

A. Cart-pole

The dynamics of the cart-pole system is taken from [36]. The system states include cart position (x_c) and velocity (\dot{x}_c), and pole angle (θ) and angular velocity ($\dot{\theta}$). The input is the force applied to the cart. The nominal value of the key parameters in the dynamics are $M = 0.5 \text{ kg}$ (cart mass), $m = 0.5 \text{ kg}$ (pole mass), $l_{\text{pole}} = 0.6 \text{ m}$ (pole length). The pole is roughly hanging straight down ($\theta = 0$) with small random perturbations at the beginning. The goal is to search for a policy that can swing up the pole and balance it at the straight up position (corresponding to $x_c = 0$ and $\theta = 180^\circ$).

We used PILCO [29] to search for a policy for the nominal environment defined by the nominal values mentioned above. PILCO uses Gaussian processes (GPs) [37] to learn the systems dynamics, uses the learned dynamics together with uncertainty propagation (e.g., based on moment matching or linearization) to predict the cost, and then applies gradient descent to search for the optimal policy. PILCO achieved unprecedented records in terms of data-efficiency in RL.

For \mathcal{L}_1 AC law design, the parameters in (4)–(6) were chosen to be $a = 10$, $T = 0.002$ second, $w_0 = 1$ and $K = 200$.

We next perturbed the environment to test the robustness of the nominal policy with and without \mathcal{L}_1 AC augmentation. For design of the \mathcal{L}_1 AC law we used the physics-based model with the nominal parameter values as the nominal model, instead of the GP model learned during policy training, for simplicity. Figure 2 shows the results in the presence of perturbations in the cart mass and pole length. One can see that the \mathcal{L}_1 augmentation significantly improves the robustness of the PILCO policy. For instance, PILCO plus \mathcal{L}_1 augmentation was able to consistently achieve the goal even when the cart mass was perturbed to 3 kg (six times of its nominal value) or when the pole length was reduced to 0.2 m (one third of its nominal value).

We further performed testing under ten scenarios from random joint perturbations in the cart mass, pole mass and

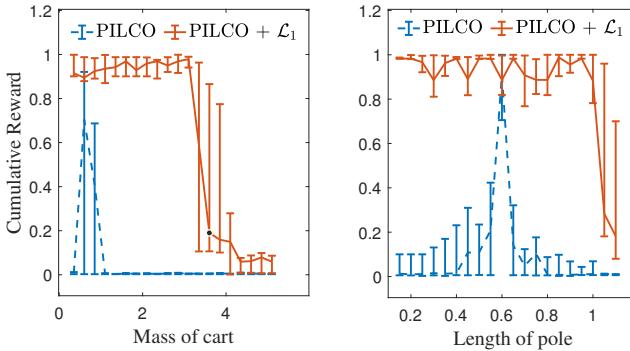


Fig. 2: Results in the presence of perturbations in cart mass and pole length. Ten trials were performed and average results with variances are shown for each perturbation case. Reward is normalized.

length parameters, in the range of $M \in [0.1, 5]$, $m \in [0.1, 5]$, $l_{\text{pole}} \in [0.6, 1]$. The sampled parameters and the success/failure results for each scenario are shown in Fig. 3. Once again, the \mathcal{L}_1 augmentation significantly improved the policy robustness, as validated by the much higher mission success rate.

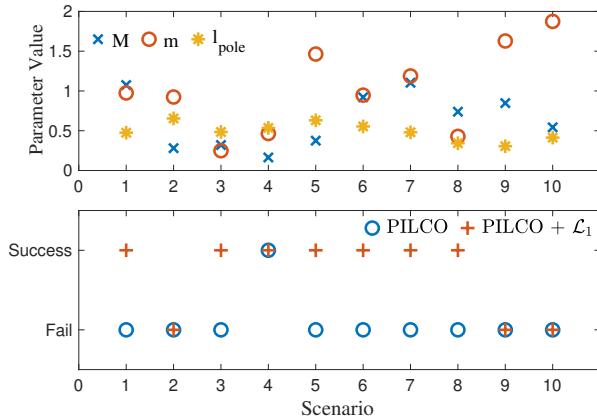


Fig. 3: Results (bottom) under ten scenarios from random perturbations in the cart mass, pole mass and length (sampled value shown at the top)

B. 3-D Quadrotor

We next do experiments on a 12-state 3-D quadrotor example. The equations of dynamics are taken from [12] which use Euler angles. The states include quadrotor position (x, y, z) in an inertia frame and the roll, pitch, and yaw angles of the quadrotor body frame with respect to the inertial frame, as well as their derivatives. Motor mixing is also included in the dynamics. The inputs are the four thrusts output of the four propellers.

The nominal value of the key parameters are set to be $[I_x, I_y, I_z] = [0.082, 0.0845, 0.1377] \text{ kgm}^2$ (moment of inertia), $m = 4.34 \text{ kg}$ (quadrotor mass), and $c_{pi} = 1$ ($i = 1, 2, 3, 4$) (propeller control coefficients). The mission in this example is to control the quadrotor to fly from the origin to the target point $(4, 4, 2)$. To obtain a policy for achieving

the mission, we chose to use trajectory optimization, which together with model learning is commonly used for model-based RL [38], [39]. We further selected to use differential dynamic programming (DDP) [31] a specific trajectory optimization method. Since our focus is not on the training but on robustifying a pre-trained policy, we once again use the physics-based dynamic model with the nominal parameter values as the model ‘‘learned’’ in the nominal environment. This model is used for computing the DDP policy, and for designing the \mathcal{L}_1 AC law.

For \mathcal{L}_1 AC law design, the parameters in (4)–(6) were chosen to be $a = 10$, $T = 0.001$ second, $\omega_0 = I_4$ and $K = 200$.

We tested the performance of the DDP policy with and without \mathcal{L}_1 augmentation under three types of dynamic perturbations. The first one is **loss of propeller efficiency**, to mimic the effect of propeller failures, which are simulated by adjusting the control coefficients c_{pi} ($i = 1, 2, 3, 4$). The resulting trajectories under ten scenarios are shown in Fig. 4. One can see that \mathcal{L}_1 augmentation significantly improved the robustness of the DDP policy, leading to consistent trajectories that are close to the ideal trajectory obtained by applying the policy to the nominal dynamics. The second

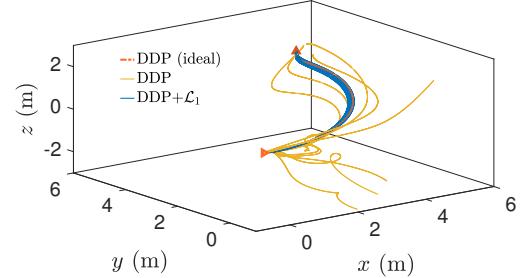


Fig. 4: Results under loss of propeller efficiency. In each of ten scenarios, the control coefficients of two propellers were randomly selected to be in $[0.5, 1]$. DDP (ideal) denotes the trajectory obtained by applying the policy to the nominal dynamics.

type of dynamic perturbations are the **mass and inertia change**, e.g., to mimic the effect of carrying different packages for a delivery drone. Fig. 5 shows the results under ten scenarios with randomly increased mass and inertia through a scale of $[2, 5]$. Once again, \mathcal{L}_1 augmentation significantly improved the policy robustness, leading to close-to-ideal trajectories. The third type of dynamic variations is related to **wind disturbances** in the horizontal plane, which causes disturbance forces to the x and y directions. In each of the ten scenarios, the forces were simulated by stochastic variables with the mean values randomly sampled from $[10, 25]$. The results are depicted in Fig. 6. \mathcal{L}_1 augmentation improved the robustness, but was not able to yield close-to-ideal performance. This is mainly because the wind disturbances will cause unmatched disturbances (σ_{um} in (4) and (5)), which are not compensated for in the control law (6). Finally, Fig. 7 illustrates the simulation results under **joint perturbations in quadrotor mass, inertia and propeller efficiency and wind disturbances**.

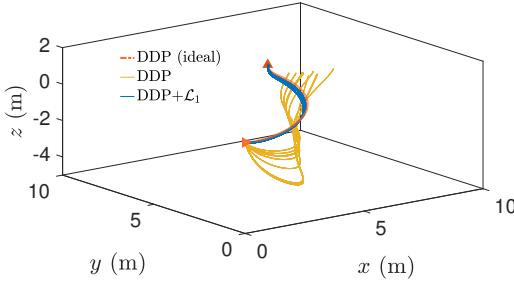


Fig. 5: Results under perturbations in quadrotor mass and inertia. In each of the ten scenarios, the mass and inertia were scaled by a random number in [2, 5].

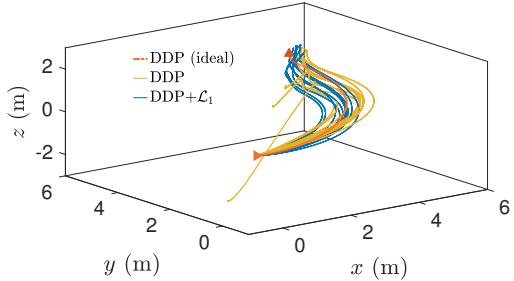


Fig. 6: Results under wind disturbance. In each of the ten scenarios, the mean value of the wind disturbance force applied to the x and y directions were sampled from the range of [10, 25].

V. CONCLUSION

This paper presents an approach to robustifying a pre-trained reinforcement learning (RL) policy, leveraging \mathcal{L}_1 adaptive control (\mathcal{L}_1 AC) to quickly and actively estimate and compensate for the dynamic variations which could happen during execution of this policy. Our framework allows for the policy to be trained in a standard way (i.e., without use of domain randomization or adversarial training), either in a simulator or in the real world. Numerical experiments on a simple benchmark and a 12-state quadrotor examples empirically demonstrate the efficacy of the proposed framework.

This paper focused on empirical demonstration of the potential of the \mathcal{L}_1 AC architecture for robustifying RL policies in some general scenarios. Under stronger assumptions (e.g., matched disturbances, known input gain) the results in [15], [17] consider \mathcal{L}_1 AC of nonlinear control-affine systems and provide stability and performance guarantees of the closed-loop system. In future work, we are interested in establishing a theoretical guarantee for the setting considered in this paper by extending the ideas of [15], [17].

Future work also includes demonstration of the proposed framework in a model-free RL setting, comparison of the framework with existing robust/adversarial training based methods [5]–[8], as well as validations on real-world experiments. We also plan to incorporate the extension of \mathcal{L}_1 AC for unmatched uncertainties from [33] to achieve improved performance for a broader class of uncertainties.

VI. ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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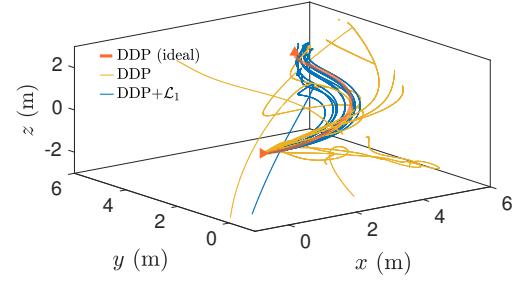


Fig. 7: Results under joint perturbations in quadrotor mass, inertia and propeller efficiencies, and wind disturbances. In each of the ten scenarios, each type of perturbation was generated in the same way as was for the results in Figs. 4–6.

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