Curiosity in Hindsight: 
Intrinsic Exploration in Stochastic Environments

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Abstract
Consider the problem of exploration in sparse-reward or reward-free environments, such as in Montezuma’s Revenge. In the curiosity-driven paradigm, the agent is rewarded for how much each realized outcome differs from their predicted outcome. But using predictive error as intrinsic motivation is fragile in stochastic environments, as the agent may become trapped by high-entropy areas of the state-action space, such as a “noisy TV”. In this work, we study a natural solution derived from structural causal models of the world: Our key idea is to learn representations of the future that capture precisely the unpredictable aspects of each outcome—which we use as additional input for predictions, such that intrinsic rewards only reflect the predictable aspects of world dynamics. First, we propose incorporating such hindsight representations into models to disentangle “noise” from “novelty”, yielding Curiosity in Hindsight: a simple and scalable generalization of curiosity that is robust to stochasticity. Second, we instantiate this framework for the recently introduced BYOL-Explore algorithm as our prime example, resulting in the noise-robust BYOL-Hindsight. Third, we illustrate its behavior under a variety of different stochasticities in a grid world, and find improvements over BYOL-Explore in hard-exploration Atari games with sticky actions. Notably, we show state-of-the-art results in exploring Montezuma’s Revenge with sticky actions, while preserving performance in the non-sticky setting.

1. Introduction
Learning to understand the world without supervision is a hallmark of intelligent behavior [1], and exploration is a key pillar of research in reinforcement learning agents [2]. How might an agent learn meaningful behaviors when external rewards are sparse or absent? A predominant approach is given by the curiosity-driven paradigm [3], in which an agent’s ability to predict the future is used as a proxy for their “understanding” of the world. Maintaining a learned model of the environment, at each step the agent receives an intrinsic reward proportional to how much the realized outcome differs from their predicted outcome—which naturally directs them towards new areas that have not been seen.

There are two major hurdles. The first concerns dimensionality: While outcomes can be predicted directly at the level of observations [4–8], pixel-based losses have generally not worked well in higher dimensions [9]. Popular solutions thus operate on lower-dimensional latent representations, such as frame-predictive features [10], inverse dynamics features [11], random features [12], or features that maximize information across time [13]. Most recently, bootstrapped features are employed in BYOL-Explore [14]—achieving superhuman performance on hard-exploration games in Atari with a much simpler design than comparable agents.

The second concern is stochasticity, which is our focus here: Curiosity-driven agents are often susceptible to bad behavior in environments with stochastic transitions, since they are often hopelessly attracted to high-entropy elements in the state-action space [9]. A classic example is the problem of a “noisy TV”, which generates a stream of intrinsic rewards around which predictive error-based agents become stuck indefinitely [15]. More generally, this problem manifests with respect to any aspect of environment dynamics that is inherently unpredictable, including noise specific to certain states, as well as noise actively induced by the agent.

Novelty vs. Noise In the presence of stochasticity, predictive error per se is no longer a good measure for an agent’s lack of “understanding” of the world. Intuitively, we wish to measure their understanding by how much epistemic knowledge they have acquired (viz. necessary truths about how the world works in general), which is entirely orthogonal to how much aleatoric variation each outcome can display (viz. contingent facts about how the world happens to be). Precisely, we want to distinguish between aspects of world dynamics that are inherently predictable—for which (reducible) errors stem from “novelty”—and aspects that are inherently unpredictable—for which (irreducible) errors stem from “noise”. Crucially, while the former should contribute to intrinsic rewards for exploration, the latter should not.
Contributions We operationalize this distinction by deriving a solution based on structural causal models of the world: Our key idea is to learn representations of the future that capture precisely the unpredictable aspects of each outcome—no more, no less—which we use as additional input for predictions, such that intrinsic rewards vanish in the limit. First, we propose incorporating such hindsight representations into the agent’s model to disentangle “noise” from “novelty”, yielding Curiosity in Hindsight: a simple and scalable generalization of curiosity-driven exploration that is robust to stochasticity (Section 3). Second, we instantiate this framework for the recently introduced BYOL-Explore algorithm as our prime example, giving rise to the noise-robust BYOL-Hindsight (Section 4). Third, we illustrate its behavior under a variety of different stochasticities in a grid world, and find improvements over BYOL-Explore in hard-exploration Atari games with sticky actions (a standard protocol for introducing stochasticity in training/evaluation). Notably, we show state-of-the-art results in exploring Montezuma’s Revenge with sticky actions, while preserving its original performance in the non-sticky setting (Section 5).

2. Motivation

2.1. Problem Formalism

Consider the standard MDP setup. We employ uppercase for random variables and lowercase for specific values: Let $X$ denote the state variable, taking on values in $X$, and $A$ the action variable, taking on values $a \in A$. While we keep notation simple, $X$ may play the role of “contexts”, “features”, “embeddings”, or “beliefs” depending on environment observability and the design of the agent. Let $\tau \in \Delta(X)^X \times A$ denote the world’s dynamics such that $X_{t+1} \sim \tau(\cdot|x_t, a_t)$, and $\pi \in \Delta(A)^X$ the agent’s policy such that $A_t \sim \pi(\cdot|x_t)$. Lastly, let $\rho_\pi$ denote the distribution of states induced by $\pi$.

Definition 1 (Curiosity-driven Exploration) In this work we focus on predictive error-based curiosity—subsuming most popular approaches to curiosity. Intrinsic rewards are:

$$R_\eta(x_t, a_t) := -\mathbb{E}_{X_{t+1} \sim \tau(\cdot|x_t, a_t)} \log \tau_\eta(X_{t+1}|x_t, a_t)$$

where $\tau_\eta$ is the agent’s world model\(^2\) parameterized by $\eta$, and is trained using the trajectories collected by rolling out a policy that seeks to maximize this same prediction error:

$$\max_{\pi} \min_{\eta} \mathbb{E}_{X_t \sim \rho_\pi} R_\eta(X_t, A_t)$$

Example 1 (Bootstrapping Representations) As our key example, recall BYOL-Explore [14], a most recent and successful incarnation of this paradigm. The prediction loss for a given transition $(x_t, a_t, x_{t+1})$ is defined as the following:

$$L_\eta^{BYOL}(x_t, a_t, x_{t+1}) := ||x_{t+1} - \hat{x}_{t+1}||^2$$

and the (state-action) prediction bonus for the agent’s policy:

$$R_\eta^{BYOL}(x_t, a_t) := \mathbb{E}_{X_{t+1} \sim \tau(\cdot|x_t, a_t)} L_\eta^{BYOL}(x_t, a_t, X_{t+1})$$

where the novelty of the method lies in the manner in which specific quantities are defined and learned: (i) Input states are RNN “belief” representations $x_t := b_t$ of previous actions $\{a_{t'}\}_{t' < t}$ and observation encodings $\{\omega(a_{t'})\}_{t' \leq t}$, where $\omega$ is an encoding function; (ii) Target states are $\ell_2$-normalized encodings $\hat{x}_{t+1} := \omega(\hat{\omega}(\hat{a}_{t+1}))/||\omega(N(\hat{a}_{t+1}))||_2$ of future observations, with $\omega$ being an exponential moving average of $\omega$, and $\omega$ denotes the stop-gradient operator; and (iii.) Predictions are $\ell_2$-normalized transformations of current beliefs and actions: $x_{t+1} := \omega(\omega(\hat{a}_{t+1}))/||\omega(N(\hat{a}_{t+1}))||_2$, where $\omega$ is a prediction function. Multi-step open-loop predictions are a straightforward extension. See Appendix C for a more detailed review of the BYOL-Explore algorithm.

Stochastic Traps In stochastic environments, Equation 1 does not converge to zero even with infinite experience: It converges to the entropy $H[X_{t+1}|x_t, a_t]$, so the agent may become stuck on repeatedly experiencing (intrinsically rewarding) transitions where entropy is high. Instead, what we desire is a reward that converges to zero in the limit. The notion of “optimistic” exploration offers a hint of what might be possible—Consider constructing a reward that verifies the inequality—and is tight in the limit.

2.2. Related Work

Our work inherits from the curiosity-driven paradigm [3–18], among which some methods have been designed with robustness to certain stochasticities in mind (Table 1). However, our method is uniquely characterized by the following:

1. Stochasticity Types: First, it is capable of handling all types of stochasticities in generality. Specifically, this includes stochasticity that is entirely random (e.g. a viewport polluted by noise sampled according to a distribution independent of states and actions), stochasticity that is state-dependent (e.g. a visible object that performs a random walk within the environment), as well as action-dependent (e.g. a layer of random pixels that only appears if sampled on demand by specific actions). For instance, previous works have found that inverse dynamics features can learn to filter out random noise [11], but may break down in the presence of action-dependent noise [9, 19].
2. Dynamics Awareness: Second, it does not require entirely discarding dynamics learning. By way of contrast, consider purely frequency-oriented exploration strategies, such as learning to predict a random projection of observations [12], or simply to predict the constant zero [16]. As these are deterministic functions of their inputs, they are in principle resilient to stochasticity. But empirically they can still behave poorly in the presence of action-dependent stochastities [15]: If the noise is sufficiently diffuse, the agent may never learn the function well, so in the absence of any other learning signal—such as the dynamics of the world—they may still become stuck [20].

3. Generality and Scalability: As a drop-in modification, it is generally applicable to any underlying choice of representation space. In contrast, existing techniques capable of handling stochasticity are often tied to specific feature spaces, such as to employ inverse dynamics features [11], random features [12], or pixel-space features [15]—which may limit their flexibility of application. Moreover, unlike ensemble-based or disagreement-based techniques that require training a large number of models [19,21,22], we shall see that incorporating hindsight is simpler and more scalable by only requiring the addition of an auxiliary component to the usual prediction loss.

Alternative paradigms for exploration have been proposed: Novelty-based methods encourage exploration on the basis of visitation counts [25], hashes [26], density estimates [27–30], and adversarial guidance [31,32]; further extensions account for episodic memory [33–35] and the long-term value of exploratory actions [16,36–38]. Knowledge-based methods encourage exploration on the basis of the agent’s uncertainty about the world [19,39], with most work focusing on estimating the information gain from different actions [21,22,40–46], or directly estimating learning progress [47–49]. Finally, diversity-based methods seek to maximize the state entropy [50–53], or to encourage learning diverse skills [54–65] and reaching different goals [66–70].

3. Curiosity in Hindsight

Consider the game of betting on a hidden dice roll: Suppose we take the action \( A_t = \text{“bet on 6”} \), then observe the outcome \( X_{t+1} = \text{“lost the bet”} \). Two facts are clear: (1) a priori, we could not have predicted this result at all; (2) a posteriori, we may deduce the (latent) fact \( Z_{t+1} = \text{“the die must have rolled 1–5”} \). These are not contradictory. In particular, the former does not imply that we lack an understanding of how the game works, nor does it suggest that we should engage in further such bets to improve our understanding. Indeed, knowing how the game works, in hindsight (i.e. given what we deduced about \( Z_{t+1} \)), the outcome is obvious to us (i.e. we can now deterministically identify \( X_{t+1} \)). Conversely, suppose we actually didn’t know how the game works: Then we couldn’t have correctly inferred \( Z_{t+1} \), nor would its knowledge have enabled us to identify \( X_{t+1} \) with any certainty. If so, engaging in additional bets may indeed allow us to learn and improve our understanding of how they work.

Intuitively, we can thus measure our understanding of each transition based on how much the outcome makes sense in hindsight. So, instead of asking “How well can we predict \( X_{t+1} | \text{a priori} \)?”, we actually want to ask “How well can we reconstruct \( X_{t+1} | \text{a posteriori} \)—i.e. given hindsight \( Z_{t+1} \)?”. First, we formalize this intuition using the language of posterior inference when a known model of the world is available (Section 3.1). Then we generalize this approach to generating learned hindsight representations when the world model needs to be learned at the same time (Section 3.2). Finally, we derive Curiosity in Hindsight on the basis of these ingredients, showing it approximates optimistic exploration (Inequality 5) while being robust to stochastities (Section 3.3).

3.1. Structural Causal Model

Let \( Z \) denote a latent variable, taking on values \( z \in Z \). For each observed transition \((x_t, a_t, x_{t+1})\), we let \( z_{t+1} \) encapsulate all sources of unobserved stochasticity in the dynamics. By construction, \( x_{t+1} = f(x_t, a_t, z_{t+1}) \) for some deterministic function \( f \), and a prior \( p \) over \( Z_{t+1} \) induces the environment dynamics—that is, the distribution \( \tau(X_{t+1} | x_t, a_t) \). Figure 1 illustrates the structural causal model, with solid
Figure 1. Structural Causal Model. By the reparameterization lemma, there exists an equivalent graphical representation under which all stochasticities are exogenous (i.e. dotted edges removed).

Figure 2. Hindsight Representations. A learned generator \( G_{t+1} := p_{\theta}(\cdot|x_t, a_t, x_{t+1}) \) generates hindsight vectors—denoted \( Z_{t+1}^* \) in this figure to be distinguished from “ground-truth” latents \( Z_{t+1} \).

**Objective 1 (Reconstruction)** Let the reconstruction loss for a given transition \((x_t, a_t, z_{t+1}, x_{t+1})\)—including hindsight representation \( z_{t+1}^* \) drawn from \( p_{\theta}(\cdot|x_t, a_t, x_{t+1}) \)—be:

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\eta}^\text{rec}(x_t, a_t, z_{t+1}, x_{t+1}) := \| x_{t+1} - f_{\eta}(x_t, a_t, z_{t+1}) \|_2^2
\]

and (state-action) reconstruction bonus for the agent policy:

\[
\mathcal{R}_{\eta, \theta}^\text{rec}(x_t, a_t) := \mathbb{E}_{Z_{t+1} \sim p_{\theta}(\cdot|x_t, a_t, x_{t+1})} \mathcal{L}_{\eta}^\text{rec}(x_t, a_t, Z_{t+1}, X_{t+1})
\]

Driven to zero, this requires hindsight representations to encapsulate at least all aspects of the world’s dynamics that are unpredictable (so that we don’t reward the agent for irreducible error). However, we also don’t want \( Z_{t+1} \) to simply leak information about the outcome that is actually predictable to begin with (so that we do reward the agent for reducible error).\(^5\) Thus our second objective requires it to be independent of \( X_t, A_t \). Denote the pointwise mutual information between state-action \( x_t, a_t \) and hindsight \( z_t \) by \( \text{PMI}(x_t, a_t; z_t) := \log(p_{\theta}(z_{t+1}|x_t, a_t) / p_{\theta}(z_{t+1})) \). Then:

**Objective 2 (Invariance)** Let the invariance loss for a given transition \((x_t, a_t, z_{t+1}, x_{t+1})\)—again, where the hindsight representation \( z_{t+1}^* \) is drawn from \( p_{\theta}(\cdot|x_t, a_t, x_{t+1}) \)—be:

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\theta}^\text{inv}(x_t, a_t, z_{t+1}) := \text{PMI}(x_t, a_t; z_{t+1})
\]

and (state-action) invariance bonus for the agent policy:

\[
\mathcal{R}_{\theta, \theta}^\text{inv}(x_t, a_t) := \mathbb{E}_{Z_{t+1} \sim p_{\theta}(\cdot|x_t, a_t, x_{t+1})} \mathcal{L}_{\theta}^\text{inv}(x_t, a_t, Z_{t+1})
\]

Driven to zero, this requires hindsight representations to encapsulate at most all aspects of the world’s dynamics that are unpredictable. This suggests a combination—of reconstruction loss (of a dynamics model) plus invariance loss (of a hindsight model)—may make a good signal for exploration. We now have all the ingredients required for Curiosity in Hindsight, which it is instructive to contrast with Definition 1:

\(^4\)In general the model is not identifiable and there is no guarantee that \( f_{\eta}(x_t, a_t, Z_{t+1}) \) be close to \( x_{t+1} \) for arbitrary \( Z_{t+1} \). But we are not interested in making counterfactual queries: For reconstruction, we only wish to evaluate \( f_{\eta} \) where \( Z_{t+1} \sim p_{\theta}(\cdot|x_t, a_t, x_{t+1}) \).

\(^5\)For example, consider the solution \( Z_{t+1} := X_{t+1} \), where reconstruction error is trivially zero, but is pathological for exploration.

squares for deterministic nodes, shaded circles for observable stochastic nodes, and unshaded circles for unobservable stochastic nodes (\( W \) captures any randomness in the policy).

In general, stochasticities can be entirely random (i.e. no edges into \( Z_{t+1} \)), state-dependent (i.e. edge \( X_t \rightarrow Z_{t+1} \)), or action-dependent (i.e. edge \( A_t \rightarrow Z_{t+1} \)). However, by the reparameterization lemma it is always possible to represent an environment such that all stochasticities are effectively exogenous \([71–73]\) (i.e. no directed edges into \( Z_{t+1} \)).

**From Prediction to Reconstruction** Consider the setting in which we know the model \( f \). Suppose first that we somehow had access to all latent \( z_{t+1} \). Then the outcome of a transition at state \( x_t \) and action \( a_t \) would be deterministically computable with no uncertainty (i.e. reconstruction error = zero):

\[
x_{t+1} \equiv f(x_t, a_t, z_{t+1})
\]

In reality, the latent variable \( z_{t+1} \) is not observed. Thus it may seem like the best we can do is to compute the a priori expectation of the outcome (i.e. prediction error = entropy):

\[
\mathbb{E}_{X_{t+1} \sim \tau(\cdot|x_t, a_t)} X_{t+1} \equiv \mathbb{E}_{Z_{t+1} \sim p_{\theta}(\cdot|x_t, a_t)} f(x_t, a_t, Z_{t+1})
\]

However, while \( z_{t+1} \) is not observable, based on the transition \((x_t, a_t, z_{t+1})\) we can infer a posteriori what its values could have been. Importantly, by the consistency property of counterfactuals we know \( f(x_t, a_t, Z_{t+1}) = x_{t+1} \) for any \( Z_{t+1} \sim p(\cdot|x_t, a_t, x_{t+1}) \) \([74]\). That is to say, conditioned on hindsight, the reconstruction error of the true model is zero. This suggests when \( f \) is unknown and learned by the agent, the reconstruction error may be an attractive candidate for an intrinsic reward. Of course, now the missing piece is how to sample \( Z_{t+1} \) from the posterior—which we discuss next.

**3.2. Hindsight Representations**

Realistically, the model \( f(X_t, A_t, Z_{t+1}) \) is unknown, so we learn to approximate it using a \textit{reconstructor} \( f_{\eta} \) parameterized by \( \eta \).\(^4\) Exact posterior inference \( p_{\theta}(Z_{t+1}|X_t, A_t, X_{t+1}) \) is intractable, so we learn to approximate it using a \textit{generator} \( p_{\theta} \) parameterized by \( \theta \). Two objectives are key. First, as noted above, representations \( Z_{t+1} \) should be \textit{reconstructive} of outcomes \( X_{t+1} \). Here we can simply use the squared loss:

\[
L_{\eta}^\text{rec}(x_t, a_t, z_{t+1}, x_{t+1}) := \| x_{t+1} - f_{\eta}(x_t, a_t, z_{t+1}) \|_2^2
\]

...
3.3. Optimistic Exploration

**Definition 2 (Curiosity in Hindsight)** Let the **hindsight intrinsic reward function** be defined as the weighted combination of Objectives 1 and 2, with a tradeoff coefficient \( \lambda \):

\[
\mathcal{R}_{\theta, \eta} (x_t, a_t) := \frac{1}{\lambda} \mathcal{R}_{\theta, \eta}^{\text{rec}} (x_t, a_t) + \mathcal{R}_{\eta}^{\text{inv}} (x_t, a_t) \tag{12}
\]

and the dynamics and hindsight models are jointly trained to maximize this quantity over the trajectories it collects, while rolling out a policy seeking to maximize this same quantity:

\[
\max_{\theta, \eta} \mathbb{E}_{X_t \sim p_{\pi}} \mathcal{R}_{\theta, \eta} (X_t, A_t) \tag{13}
\]

Recall that in the presence of stochastic transitions, standard curiosity-driven exploration can be seen as a poor approximation to “optimistic” exploration (Inequality 5)—because the bound is not tight even in the limit, which renders it susceptible to stochastic traps. The following result shows that exploration by Curiosity in Hindsight can resolve this:

**Theorem 1 (Optimistic Exploration)** Let the coefficient \( \lambda \) satisfy the inequality \( \frac{1}{2} \log (\lambda \pi) \leq \mathbb{H}_0 [X_{t+1} | x_t, a_t, Z_{t+1}] + D_{\text{KL}} (p_{\eta} (Z_{t+1} | x_t, a_t) \| p_{\eta} (Z_{t+1})) \), where \( \pi \) denotes here the mathematical constant (not the agent’s policy). Then:

\[
\mathcal{R}_{\theta, \eta} (x_t, a_t) \succeq D_{\text{KL}} (\tau (X_{t+1} | x_t, a_t) \| \tau_{\theta, \eta} (X_{t+1} | x_t, a_t)) \tag{14}
\]

where \( \tau_{\theta, \eta} (X_{t+1} | x_t, a_t) := \mathbb{E}_{Z_{t+1} \sim p_{\eta}} p_{\eta} (X_{t+1} | x_t, a_t, Z_{t+1}) \)

denotes the learned world model. Furthermore, assuming realizability, rewards vanish at optimal parameters \( \theta^*, \eta^* \):

\[
\mathcal{R}_{\theta^*, \eta^*} (x_t, a_t) = 0 \quad \forall x_t, a_t \in \text{supp}(\rho_\pi) \tag{15}
\]

**Proof. Appendix A.**

In other words, by choosing a small enough \( \lambda \) term, the hindsight intrinsic reward (Equation 12) is an upper bound on the KL-term we care about (Inequality 5). Driving the reward to zero also drives the KL to zero, thus the reward-maximizing exploration policy (Equation 13) is approximating precisely the sort of “optimistic” exploration that we desired to start.

4. Practical Framework

Two questions remain. Firstly, how should the intrinsic variance terms be computed? For this, we propose a contrastive learning framework to approximate them (Section 4.1). Secondly, what does a concrete implementation look like? For this, we instantiate this framework on top of BYOL-Explore, yielding its robust variant BYOL-Hindsight (Section 4.2).

4.1. Contrastive Learning

To estimate the pointwise mutual information, we use an auxiliary critic \( g_{\nu} \) parameterized by \( \nu \), trained as maximizer:

**Objective 3 (Contrastive Learning)** Let the **contrastive loss** for a transition, with respect to a batch of \( K - 1 \) negative hindsight samples \( z_{t+1}^{K-1} := z_{t+1}^{1}, \ldots, z_{t+1}^{K-1} \), be defined as:

\[
\ell_{\theta, \nu}^{K, \text{con.}} (x_t, a_t, z_{t+1}, z_{t+1}^{1:K-1}) := \frac{1}{K} \mathbb{E}_{\tau_{\theta}} \left( g_{\nu} (x_t, a_t, z_{t+1}) \right) - \frac{1}{K} \mathbb{E}_{\tau_{\theta}} \left( g_{\nu} (x_t, a_t, z_{t+1}^{1:K-1}) \right) \tag{16}
\]

such that the overall contrastive loss for the transition is its expectation over negative hindsight samples from rollouts:

\[
\ell_{\theta, \nu}^{K, \text{con.}} (x_t, a_t, z_{t+1}) := \mathbb{E}_{z_{t+1} \sim \tau (| x_t, a_t, z_{t+1})} \mathbb{E}_{\tau_{\theta}} \left( g_{\nu} (x_t, a_t, z_{t+1}^{1:K-1}) \right) \tag{17}
\]

and (state-action) **contrastive bonus** for the agent’s policy:

\[
\mathcal{R}_{\theta, \nu}^{K, \text{con.}} (x_t, a_t) := \mathbb{E}_{x_{t+1} \sim \tau (| x_t, a_t)} \mathbb{E}_{z_{t+1} \sim p_{\eta} (| x_t, a_t, X_{t+1})} \ell_{\theta, \nu}^{K, \text{con.}} (x_t, a_t, z_{t+1}) \tag{18}
\]

How does Objective 3 approximate Objective 2? Precisely:

**Theorem 2 (Optimal Invariance)** The contrastive bonus lower-bounds the (ideal) invariance bonus for any pair \( x_t, a_t \):

\[
\mathcal{R}_{\theta, \nu}^{K, \text{con.}} (x_t, a_t) \leq \mathcal{R}_{\theta, \nu}^{\text{inv.}} (x_t, a_t) \tag{19}
\]

Furthermore, assuming realizability, for optimal critic parameter \( \nu^*_K := \arg \max_{\nu} \mathbb{E}_{x_{t}, A_{t} \sim p_{\pi}} \mathcal{R}_{\theta, \nu}^{K, \text{con.}} (X_t, A_t) \) the bound is asymptotically tight (in the batch size \( K \to \infty \)):

\[
\lim_{K \to \infty} \mathcal{R}_{\theta, \nu^*_K}^{K, \text{con.}} (x_t, a_t) = \mathcal{R}_{\theta, \nu^*_K}^{\text{inv.}} (x_t, a_t) \tag{20}
\]

**Proof. Appendix A.**

**Practical Algorithm** This suggests a straightforward algorithm. In practice, batch size \( K < \infty \) and critic \( \nu \) is not fully optimized. The intrinsic reward (Definition 2) now becomes:

\[
\mathcal{R}_{\theta, \eta}^{K, \text{con.}} (x_t, a_t) := \frac{1}{K} \mathcal{R}_{\theta, \eta}^{\text{rec}} (x_t, a_t) + \mathcal{R}_{\theta, \nu}^{K, \text{con.}} (x_t, a_t) \tag{21}
\]

and optimization alternates between training the critic (maximizer) and dynamics and hindsight models (minimizers):

\[
\max_{\pi} \min_{\theta, \eta, \nu} \mathbb{E}_{X_t \sim \pi} \mathcal{R}_{\theta, \eta, \nu}^{K, \text{con.}} (X_t, A_t) \tag{22}
\]

Overall, our framework constitutes a simple drop-in modification on top of any curiosity-driven method: Instead of learning a **predictive model** specifying \( X_{t+1} \sim \tau_{\theta} (| X_t, A_t) \), we now learn a (hindsight-augmented) **reconstructive model** specifying \( X_{t+1} = f_{\eta}(X_t, A_t, Z_{t+1}) \). The main ingredients include the reconstructor \( f_{\eta}(X_t, A_t, Z_{t+1}) \), the generator \( p_{\eta} (Z_{t+1} | X_t, A_t, X_{t+1}) \), and the critic \( g_{\nu} (X_t, A_t, Z_{t+1}) \), and the main hyperparameters are the contrastive batch size \( K \) and the coefficient \( \lambda \) in the hindsight intrinsic reward.

Finally, note that for ease of exposition we have focused on modeling single-step transitions; however, it is straightforward to generalize this approach to the case of multi-step reconstruction horizons using open-loop rollouts (Figure 2).
4.2. BYOL-Hindsight

The preceding discussion used MDP notation, but in practice input states are often representations of histories, and observations are often represented in latent space. Recall BYOL-Explore (Example 1) is an incarnation of curiosity (Definition 1) that learns such representations. We now augment it with hindsight, giving rise to the novel BYOL-Hindsight:

Example 2 (Bootstrapping with Hindsight) Let the hindsight loss for a transition \((x_t, a_t, z_{t+1}, x_{t+1})\) be defined as:

\[
\ell_{t}^K_{\theta, \eta, \nu} (x_t, a_t, z_{t+1}, x_{t+1}) := \frac{1}{\lambda} \ell_{\eta} (x_t, a_t, z_{t+1}, x_{t+1}) + \ell_{K, \nu}^\text{con} (x_t, a_t, z_{t+1})
\]

and the (state-action) hindsight bonus for the agent’s policy:

\[
\mathcal{R}_t^K_{\theta, \eta, \nu} (x_t, a_t) := \mathbb{E} \left[ _{X_{t+1} \sim \tau(x_t, a_t)} \mathcal{L}_{\theta, \eta, \nu}^\text{BYOL-Hindsight} (x_t, a_t, Z_{t+1}, X_{t+1}) \right]
\]

where the key difference from BYOL-Explore lies in swapping out predictions for reconstructions. Specifically, input states \(x_t\) and target states \(x_{t+1}\) are defined just as before: (i.) Input states are RNN “belief” representations; and (ii.) Target states are \(\ell_2\)-normalized encodings of future observations. However, instead of (target) predictions, we now have (target) reconstructions: (iii.) Reconstructions are \(\ell_2\)-normalized transformations of beliefs, actions, and hindsight: \(\hat{h}_\nu (b_t, a_t, z_{t+1}) := h_\nu (b_t, a_t, z_{t+1}) / ||h_\nu (b_t, a_t, z_{t+1})||_2\), where \(h_\nu\) is a reconstruction function, and the contrastive loss encourages hindsight \(Z_{t+1}\) to be independent of \(B_t, A_t\).

Figure 3 gives the concrete architecture for BYOL-Explore/BYOL-Hindsight, with the full multi-step horizon setup: First, an online embedding network \(\omega\) encodes observations \(o_t\) into representations \(w_t = \omega(o_t)\). A closed-loop RNN then computes representations \(b_i\) of histories up until each time step \(t\). This is used to initialize an open-loop RNN that computes representations \(b_{i+1}\) for horizon steps indexed as \(i\). These representations are fed to a predictor/reconstructor network to output \(\hat{w}_{i+1}\). Finally, prediction/reconstruction targets are encoded with a target embedding network that is an exponential moving average of the online network. The prediction/reconstruction error \(\mathcal{R}_{t,i}\) at each open-loop step is computed, and the intrinsic reward associated to each observed transition \((o_s, a_s, o_{s+1})\) is the sum of errors \(\sum_{t+i=s+1} \mathcal{R}_{t,i}\). In BYOL-Hindsight, the generator samples \(Z_{t,i}\) by taking noise \(\varepsilon_{t,i}\) as input, and an additional critic (not pictured) encourages \(Z_{t,i}\) to be independent of \(B_{t,i-1}\) and \(A_{t,i-1}\). See Algorithms 1–2 in Appendix C for details.

5. Experiments

Three questions deserve empirical study: (a.) Effectiveness: In stochastic environments, predictive error-based methods — e.g. BYOL-Explore — may fail. Does BYOL-Hindsight address the problem? (b.) Robustness: Is the method robust to the different types of stochasticities — i.e. independent noise, state-dependent noise, and action-dependent noise? (c.) Non-specificity: In environments with no stochasticity, hindsight should confer no benefit. Does BYOL-Hindsight manage to preserve the performance of BYOL-Explore?

Implementation In all experiments, we start from the same architecture/hyperparameters for BYOL-Explore as given in [14], including target network EMA, open-loop horizon, intrinsic reward normalization/prioritization, representation sharing, and VMPO [75] as the underlying RL algorithm. BYOL-Hindsight begins from the same setup. The generator, reconstructor, and critic networks are MLPs with three hidden layers of 512; the dimension of the generator noise \(\epsilon\) and hindsight vector is 256; and \(\lambda = 1\). Finally, where shown for reference, RND and ICM are also implemented exactly as described in [14]. See Appendix C for additional detail.
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Figure 6. Pycolab Maze, with Various Stochasticities. Performance measured by number of trackers touched in an episode (500-steps).

Figure 7. Bank Heist, with Natural Traps and Sticky Actions. Performance measured by sum of extrinsic rewards obtained in an episode.

5.1. Pycolab Maze

First, to experiment with a variety of stochasticities in a controlled manner, we employ a Pycolab [76] maze (Figure 4): The agent spawns in the top right, and may explore past four (possibly stochastically oscillating) block elements (V1/2, H1/2), into the lower right where two coins are randomly spawned. The agent is purely intrinsically motivated, and progress is measured by trackers behind each of the block elements (R1–4). The agent only has access to a $5 \times 5$ frame (i.e. square radius 2) of its immediate surroundings as input.

Stochasticity We use four settings: “Baseline” (no noise); “Brownian Oscillators” (a form of state-dependent noise, where oscillators perform random walks along their axes of movements); “Random Pixel Noise” (a form of independent noise, which adds an extra layer of randomly sampled pixels to each frame with independent probability 0.25); as well as “On-Demand Pixel Noise” (a form of action-dependent noise, which does so whenever the no-op action is selected).

Results See Figure 6 (100k learner steps, 3 seeds). First, the “Baseline” setting tests non-specificity: Since there is no noise until the end, we expect curiosity-based exploration to do similarly with/without hindsight. For reference, we also show RND (in principle resilient to noise, as its targets are deterministic). All algorithms reach all four trackers (with RND eventually losing interest due to vanished rewards, as the environment is small). Second, in “Brownian Oscillators”, BYOL-Explore fails to explore much beyond the first two trackers, as it is trapped by the unpredictable motion. In contrast, BYOL-Hindsight and RND both still explore the entire maze. Third, in “Random Pixel Noise” the results are similar, except both BYOL-Explore and RND do worse as the noise is an entire layer of random pixels (i.e. extremely diffuse), which outcompetes all other dynamics of the world in magnitude. Interestingly, while BYOL-Hindsight requires slightly longer to adapt, it still performs just as well. Lastly, the “On-Demand Pixel Noise” setting is most telling. BYOL-Explore is instantly trapped by the noise-inducing action, which it selects endlessly to generate intrinsic rewards. Even RND suffers greatly, which makes sense because the agent is no longer guaranteed a 0.75 probability of observing the world’s unpolluted dynamics. In contrast, BYOL-Hindsight still performs as well as in the noise-free setting, underscoring robustness to different stochasticities.

5.2. Bank Heist

We use Atari with preprocessed grayscale $84 \times 84$-pixel images as input [77]. In all settings, we consider both “intrinsic-only” (no extrinsic signal) and “mixed” (extrinsic + intrinsic rewards) exploration regimes. In Bank Heist, the goal is to rob as many banks as possible while avoiding the police.

Stochasticity First, Bank Heist is characterized by naturally-occurring stochastic traps (“Natural Traps”), as noted by prior work [15]: It is impossible to predict where banks randomly regenerate and where bombs explode, thus a predictive error-based agent would simply endlessly enter and exit mazes while dropping bombs. Second, as an additional noise factor we use “Sticky Actions” [78] with stickiness 0.1.

Results See Figure 7 (3M learner steps, 3 seeds). Like in prior work, we measure the extrinsic reward per episode that the agent obtains, as a proxy for exploration ability. In both the “Natural Traps” and “Sticky Actions” settings, and in both intrinsic-only and mixed regimes, BYOL-Explore’s progress is immediately derailed by the stochastic traps, whereas BYOL-Hindsight achieves vastly better scores.
5.3. Montezuma’s Revenge

Playing Montezuma’s Revenge requires learning complex dynamics including navigating around timed traps and moving enemies, and collecting keys to open doors in sequence.

**Stochasticity** First, Montezuma’s Revenge is largely deterministic, which forms a natural baseline for testing non-specificity in a challenging exploration setting. Second, we use “Sticky Actions” similar to above to add stochasticity.

**Results** See Figure 8 (3M learner steps, 3 seeds). Like in prior work, exploration is measured by the number of different dungeon rooms the agent manages to discover over its lifetime. In “Sticky Actions”, BYOL-Explore instantly flatlines in the intrinsic-only regime, and only does marginally better in the mixed regime. In contrast, BYOL-Hindsight explores most of the rooms in both regimes—which is an unprecedented result. In the “Non-Sticky Baseline”, in both regimes BYOL-Hindsight does as well as the original performance of BYOL-Explore, which verifies non-specificity. See Appendix B.1 for evaluation results on episode return.

5.4. Hard Exploration Games

We conduct broad-based experiments for the ten hardest exploration games in Atari, where stochasticity is introduced with sticky actions as above. See Figure 9 for results in the intrinsic-only “(I)” regime, and also Figure 19 for the mixed “(E+I)” regime (3M learner steps, 1 seed). Like in prior work, we use extrinsic reward as a proxy for “interesting behavior”. In the large majority of cases, BYOL-Hindsight improves over BYOL-Explore, especially when the latter simply flatlines. See Appendix B.7 for additional results and analysis.

5.5. Persitent Noise

While sticky actions is the standard protocol for adding stochasticity, we further design an especially challenging setting by corrupting observations with an additive layer of $84 \times 84$ pixel noise that persists across time as an action-triggerable random walk (Figure 5). See Appendix B.2 for full details and results, again verifying the robustness of the algorithm.

5.6. Temperature Sensitivity

The inner term in the contrastive loss (Objective 3) shares a similar form with contrastive losses in unsupervised representation learning [79–82], which admits a temperature parameter controlling the strength of penalties on negative samples [83]. See Appendix B.3 for a sensitivity analysis of the temperature parameter on the effectiveness of the algorithm.

5.7. Analysis of Invariance

For insight into invariance properties of the learned hindsight representations, see Appendix B.4 for analysis of intrinsic rewards over training; see Appendix B.5 for a comparison of prediction loss, reconstruction loss, and hindsight-only loss; and see Appendix B.6 for visualizations of what information the hindsight representations may be encoding.

6. Conclusion

In this work, we studied the problem that stochasticity poses to predictive error-based exploration. Theoretically, we refined our notion of curiosity to separate (learnable) epistemic knowledge from (unlearnable) aleatoric variation. Algorithmically, we proposed a method to learn (future-summarizing) representations of hindsight disentangled from (history-summarizing) representations of context. Practically, we arrived at a simple and scalable framework for generating (reducible) intrinsic rewards even in the presence of (irreducible) stochastic traps—without estimating the problematic entropy term at all. Our perspective shares connections with counterfactuals in policy evaluation [71–73], credit assignment [84–86], invariance [87–89], and fairness [90–93]. Future work may study explicitly generative world models to map stochastic latents to outcomes, as well as assessing the benefit of the approach in other stochastic domains such as NetHack. See Appendix D for an extended discussion.
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Curiosity in Hindsight:
Intrinsic Exploration in Stochastic Environments

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Supplementary Materials

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A. Proofs of Propositions

To simplify our notation, we remove subscripts such that $X, A, Y$ denotes the transition $X_t, A_t, X_{t+1}$, and $Z$ denotes the latent $Z_{t+1}$. Then the environment’s dynamics is given by $\tau(Y|X, A)$, the agent’s policy is given by $\pi(A|X)$, and the induced state visitation is given by $\rho_\pi(X)$. The generator is denoted $p_\theta(Z|x, y)$, reconstructor $f_\nu(x, a, z)$, and critic $g_\nu(x, a, z)$.

A.1. Pointwise Mutual Information

We start by deriving several lemmas that will be useful, the first being a pointwise version of Barber and Agakov’s variational lower bound on mutual information [94, 95]:

Lemma 3 (Pointwise Barber-Agakov) Denote the pointwise mutual information:

$$\text{PMI}_\theta(x, a; z) := \log \frac{p_\theta(z|x, a)}{p_\theta(z)}$$

Then for any variational distribution $q$:

$$\mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_\theta(\cdot|x, a)} \text{PMI}_\theta(x, a; Z) \geq \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_\theta(\cdot|x, a)} \log \frac{q(Z|x, a)}{p_\theta(Z)}$$

**Proof.** Starting from the left hand side:

$$\mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_\theta(\cdot|x, a)} \text{PMI}_\theta(x, a; Z) = \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_\theta(\cdot|x, a)} \log \frac{p_\theta(Z|x, a)}{p_\theta(Z)}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_\theta(\cdot|x, a)} \log \frac{p_\theta(Z|x, a)}{p_\theta(Z)} + \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_\theta(\cdot|x, a)} \log \frac{q(Z|x, a)}{p_\theta(Z)}$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_\theta(\cdot|x, a)} \log \frac{q(Z|x, a)}{p_\theta(Z)} + D_{KL}(p_\theta(Z|x, a) || q(Z|x, a))$$

$$\geq \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_\theta(\cdot|x, a)} \log \frac{q(Z|x, a)}{p_\theta(Z)}$$

which completes the proof. □

Next, we define a generic contrastive expression with $K - 1$ “negative” samples of $Z$, and show that taking its expectation with respect to those samples yields a valid (i.e. normalized) probability density:

Lemma 4 (Normalized Variational) Given independent samples $z_{1:K-1}$ from $p_\theta$, define:

$$q(z|x, a, z_{1:K-1}) := \frac{p_\theta(z) \cdot e^{g_\nu(x, a, z)}}{K \left( e^{g_\nu(x, a, z)} + \sum_{i=1}^{K-1} e^{g_\nu(x, a, z_i)} \right)}$$

then the following defines a normalized density:

$$q(Z|x, a) := \mathbb{E}_{Z_{1:K-1} \sim p_\theta^K} q(Z|x, a, Z_{1:K-1})$$

**Proof.** The expectation integrates to one:

$$\int q(z|x, a) dz = \int \mathbb{E}_{Z_{1:K-1} \sim p_\theta^K} \frac{p_\theta(z) \cdot e^{g_\nu(x, a, z)}}{K \left( e^{g_\nu(x, a, z)} + \sum_{i=1}^{K-1} e^{g_\nu(x, a, z_i)} \right)} dz$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_\theta} \frac{1}{K} \left( e^{g_\nu(x, a, Z)} + \sum_{i=1}^{K-1} e^{g_\nu(x, a, z_i)} \right)$$

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which completes the proof.

These two results allow us to show that the information \( Z \) contains on a tuple \( x, a \)—with respect to the generator parameterized as \( \theta \)—is lower-bounded by the \( x, a \)-conditioned contrastive loss between “positive” samples \( Z \sim p_\theta(\cdot|x, a) \) from the posterior and “negative” samples \( Z \sim p_\theta \) from the prior:

**Lemma 5 (State-Action Lower Bound)** The \( x, a \)-wise mutual information satisfies:

\[
\mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_\theta(\cdot|x, a)} \text{PMI}_\theta(x, a; Z) \\
\geq \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_\theta(\cdot|x, a)} \log \frac{q(Z|x, a)}{p_\theta(Z)} \\
= \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_\theta(\cdot|x, a)} \mathbb{E}_{Z_{1:k-1} \sim p_\theta^{K-1}} \log q(Z|x, a, Z_{1:k-1}) \\
= \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_\theta(\cdot|x, a)} \mathbb{E}_{Z_{1:k-1} \sim p_\theta^{K-1}} \log \frac{q(Z|x, a, Z_{1:k-1})}{p_\theta(Z)} \\
= \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_\theta(\cdot|x, a)} \mathbb{E}_{Z_{1:k-1} \sim p_\theta^{K-1}} \log \frac{e^{g_\nu(x, a, Z)}}{e^{g_\nu(x, a, Z_{1:k-1})}} \\
= 1
\]

which completes the proof.

**Proof.** Use Lemmas 3 and 4, then Jensen’s inequality:

\[
\mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_\theta(\cdot|x, a)} \text{PMI}_\theta(x, a; Z) \\
\geq \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_\theta(\cdot|x, a)} \log \frac{q(Z|x, a)}{p_\theta(Z)} \\
= \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_\theta(\cdot|x, a)} \mathbb{E}_{Z_{1:k-1} \sim p_\theta^{K-1}} \log q(Z|x, a, Z_{1:k-1}) \\
= \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_\theta(\cdot|x, a)} \mathbb{E}_{Z_{1:k-1} \sim p_\theta^{K-1}} \log \frac{q(Z|x, a, Z_{1:k-1})}{p_\theta(Z)} \\
= \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_\theta(\cdot|x, a)} \mathbb{E}_{Z_{1:k-1} \sim p_\theta^{K-1}} \log \frac{e^{g_\nu(x, a, Z)}}{e^{g_\nu(x, a, Z_{1:k-1})}} \\
= 1
\]

Next, we show that our invariance loss (Objective 2) for a tuple \( x, a, z \) is equal to the pointwise mutual information in the limit of infinitely large negative batches, assuming an optimal critic parameter:

**Lemma 6 (Pointwise Asymptotic Equality)** Define the transition-wise contrastive loss:

\[
L_{\theta, \nu}^{K, \text{con}}(x, a, z) := \mathbb{E}_{Z_{1:k-1} \sim p_\theta^{K-1}} \log \frac{e^{g_\nu(x, a, z)}}{e^{g_\nu(x, a, Z_{1:k-1})}}
\]

and the optimal critic parameter:

\[
\nu^*_K := \arg\max_{\nu} \mathbb{E}_{X \sim p_\theta, A \sim \pi(\cdot|X), Y \sim \tau(\cdot|X, A), Z \sim p_\theta(\cdot|x, a)} L_{\theta, \nu}^{K, \text{con}}(X, A, Z)
\]

Then \( \lim_{K \to \infty} L_{\theta, \nu^*_K}^{K, \text{con}}(x, a, z) = \text{PMI}_\theta(x, a; z) \).

**Proof.** The \( \mathbb{E}[L_{\theta, \nu}^{K, \text{con}}(X, A, Z)] \) term is just the InfoNCE loss between variables \( Z \) and \( X, A \), so we know that \( \nu^*_K \) satisfies \( g_{\nu^*_K}(x, a, z) = \log \frac{p_\theta(Z|x, a)}{p_\theta(z)} + c(x, a) \). Substituting this back into \( L_{\theta, \nu}^{K, \text{con}}(x, a, z) \):
\[
\lim_{K \to \infty} \mathcal{L}_{\theta, \nu}^{K, \text{con}}(x, a, z) = \lim_{K \to \infty} \mathbb{E}_{Z_1,K-1 \sim \rho_\nu^{K-1}} \log \frac{e^{g_{\nu,K}(x,a,z)}}{\frac{1}{K} \left( e^{g_{\nu,K}(x,a,z)} + \sum_{i=1}^{K-1} e^{g_{\nu,K}(x,a,z_i)} \right)} = \lim_{K \to \infty} \mathbb{E}_{Z_1,K-1 \sim \rho_\nu^{K-1}} \log \frac{\rho_\nu(z|x,a)}{\rho_\nu(z)} - \log \frac{\rho_\nu(z|x,a)}{\rho_\nu(z)} + \frac{K-1}{K} = \text{PMI}_\nu(x, a; z) \tag{50}
\]

which completes the proof. \qed

Lastly, recall the following basic relationship:

**Lemma 7 (Conditional Mutual Information)** Conditioned on any \(x, a\), we have that:

\[
\mathbb{I}_\nu[Y; Z|x, a] = \mathbb{H}[Y|x, a] + \mathbb{H}_\nu[Y|x, a, Z] \tag{51}
\]

**Proof.** Starting from the left hand side:

\[
\mathbb{I}_\nu[Y; Z|x, a] := \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim \rho_\nu} D_{KL}(p_\nu(Y|x, a, Z)\|\tau(Y|x, a)) = \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim \rho_\nu} \log p_\nu(Y|x, a, Z) - \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim \rho_\nu} \tau(Y|x, a) = -\int_Z p_\nu(z) \mathbb{H}_\nu[Y|x, a, z] dz - \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim \rho_\nu} \tau(Y|x, a) = \mathbb{H}[Y|x, a] - \mathbb{H}_\nu[Y|x, a, Z] \tag{55}
\]

which completes the proof. \qed

### A.2. Optimistic Exploration

In our structural causal model, by construction \(Z\) captures all sources of noise—that is, there is no residual noise in each outcome \(Y\). However, for the purposes of optimization, while learning \(\eta\) we let the residual error be captured by a Gaussian “log-likelihood” (note that \(\lambda\) plays the role of “\(2\sigma^2\)“):

\[
\log p_\eta(Y|x, a, z) := \frac{1}{2} \log(\lambda \pi) - \frac{1}{\lambda} (Y - f_\eta(x, a, z))^2 \tag{56}
\]

and note that \(\theta\) also induces a log-likelihood of the “ground-truth” conditional:

\[
\log p_\theta(Y|x, a, z) := \log \frac{p_\theta(z|x,a,Y) \tau(Y|x,a) \pi(a|x) \rho_\pi(x)}{\int_Y p_\theta(z|x,a,y) \tau(y|x,a) \pi(a|x) \rho_\pi(x) dy} \tag{57}
\]

Now, recall the reconstruction loss and (state-action) reconstruction bonus:

\[
\mathcal{L}_{\eta}^{\text{rec}}(x, a, z, y) := \|y - f_\eta(x, a, z)\|^2 \tag{58}
\]

\[
\mathcal{R}_{\eta, \nu}^{\text{rec}}(x, a) := \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim \rho_\nu(\cdot|x,a,Y)} \mathcal{L}_{\eta}^{\text{rec}}(x, a, Z, Y) \tag{59}
\]
as well as the invariance loss and (state-action) invariance bonus:

\[ L_{\theta}^{\text{inv}}(x, a, z) := \text{PMI}_{\theta}(x; a, z) \quad (60) \]

\[ R_{\theta}^{\text{inv}}(x, a) := \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim \tau(\cdot | x, a)} L_{\theta}^{\text{inv}}(x, a, Z) \quad (61) \]

We now show that Theorem 1 is true, which we restate using our subscript-less notation:

**Theorem 8 (Optimistic Exploration)** Let \( \lambda \) satisfy the inequality \( \frac{1}{2} \log(\lambda \pi) \leq \mathbb{H}_{\theta}[Y|x, a, Z] + D_{\text{KL}}(p_{\theta}(Z|x, a)\|p_{\theta}(Z)) \), where \( \pi \) denotes here the mathematical constant (not the agent’s policy). Then:

\[ R_{\theta, \eta}(x, a) \geq D_{\text{KL}}(\tau(Y|x, a)\|\tau_{\theta, \eta}(Y|x, a)) \quad (62) \]

where \( \tau_{\theta, \eta}(Y|x, a) := \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_{\theta}} p_{\eta}(Y|x, a, Z) \) denotes the learned world model. Furthermore, assuming realizability, rewards vanish at optimal parameters \( \theta^*, \eta^* \):

\[ R_{\theta^*, \eta^*}(x, a) = 0 \quad \forall x, a \in \text{supp}(\rho_{\pi}) \quad (63) \]

**Proof.** Use Definition 2, then the constraint on \( \lambda \), then Lemma 7:

\[ R_{\theta, \eta}(x, a) := \frac{1}{\lambda} R_{\theta, \eta}^{\text{rec}}(x, a) + R_{\theta}^{\text{inv}}(x, a) \quad (64) \]

\[ = \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim \tau(\cdot | x, a)} \frac{1}{\lambda} (Y - f_{\eta}(x, a, Z))^2 + \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_{\theta}(\cdot | x, a, Y)} \text{PMI}_{\theta}(x; a, Z) \quad (65) \]

\[ = \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim \tau(\cdot | x, a)} \frac{1}{\lambda} (Y - f_{\eta}(x, a, Z))^2 + D_{\text{KL}}(p_{\theta}(Z|x, a)\|p_{\theta}(Z)) \quad (66) \]

\[ \geq -\mathbb{E}_{Y \sim \tau(\cdot | x, a)} \log p_{\eta}(Y|x, a, Z) - \mathbb{H}_{\theta}[Y|x, a, Z] \quad (67) \]

\[ = -\mathbb{E}_{Y \sim \tau(\cdot | x, a)} \log p_{\eta}(Y|x, a, Z) + I_{\theta}[Y; Z|x, a] - \mathbb{H}[Y|x, a] \quad (68) \]

\[ = -\mathbb{E}_{Y \sim \tau(\cdot | x, a)} \log p_{\eta}(Y|x, a, Z) \text{← remaining stochasticity} \]

\[ + \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim \tau(\cdot | x, a)} D_{\text{KL}}(p_{\theta}(Z|x, a, Y)\|p_{\theta}(Z|x, a)) \text{← hindsight information} \]

\[ - \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim \tau(\cdot | x, a)} \left[ - \log \tau(Y|x, a) \right] \text{← total stochasticity} \quad (69) \]

\[ \geq -\mathbb{E}_{Y \sim \tau(\cdot | x, a)} \left[ \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_{\theta}(\cdot | x, a, Y)} \log p_{\eta}(Y|x, a, Z) \right. \right. \right. \]

\[ - D_{\text{KL}}(p_{\theta}(Z|x, a, Y)\|p_{\theta}(Z|x, a)) + D_{\text{KL}}(p_{\theta}(Z|x, a, Y)\|p_{\theta}(Z|x, a, Y)) \] \]

\[ + \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim \tau(\cdot | x, a)} \log \tau(Y|x, a) \quad (70) \]

\[ = -\mathbb{E}_{Y \sim \tau(\cdot | x, a)} \log \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_{\theta}} p_{\eta}(Y|x, a, Z) + \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim \tau(\cdot | x, a)} \log \tau(Y|x, a) \quad (71) \]

\[ = -\mathbb{E}_{Y \sim \tau(\cdot | x, a)} \log \tau_{\theta, \eta}(Y|x, a) + \mathbb{E}_{Y \sim \tau(\cdot | x, a)} \log \tau(Y|x, a) \quad (72) \]

\[ = D_{\text{KL}}(\tau(Y|x, a)\|\tau_{\theta, \eta}(Y|x, a)) \quad (73) \]

For the second part, we want to show that for the objective:

\[ J(\theta, \eta; \lambda) := \mathbb{E}_{X \sim \rho_{\lambda}} \left[ \frac{1}{\lambda} R_{\theta, \eta}(X, A) + R_{\theta}^{\text{inv}}(X, A) \right] \quad (74) \]

\[ 18 \]
its optimal value is zero:

\[
\min \theta, \eta \ J(\theta; \eta; \lambda) = 0 \tag{75}
\]

Take any MDP. By reparameterization, we know that there exists an equivalent graphical representation under which \( Z \) is exogenous. Assuming realizability, let \( \eta^* \) be such that \( f_{\eta^*} = f \) and let \( \theta^* \) be such that \( p_{\theta^*}(Z|x,a,y) = p_{\eta^*}(Z|x,a,y) \) for any \( x,a,y \). First, by construction we have that \( Z \perp X,A \), so the mutual information between \( Z \) and \( X,A \) must be zero:

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathbb{E}_{X \sim \rho \pi \ A \sim \pi(|X)} R_{K, \text{con.}}^{\theta, \nu}(x,a) &= \mathbb{E}_{X \sim \rho \pi \ A \sim \pi(|X)} PMI_{\theta}(x,a;Z) \\
&= \mathbb{I}_\theta[X,A;Z] \\
&= 0 \tag{77}
\end{align*}
\]

Second, by consistency of counterfactuals \( f_{\eta^*}(x,a,Z) = y \) for any \( Z \sim p_{\theta^*}(|x,a,y) \), so the reconstruction term is also zero, which completes the proof. \( \square \)

The intuition is as follows: Assuming realizability, at convergence “hindsight information” and “total stochasticity” cancel (i.e. neither more nor less), and the “remaining stochasticity” term goes to zero.

### A.3. Optimal Invariance

We now show that Theorem 2 is true, which we restate using our subscript-less notation:

**Theorem 9 (Optimal Invariance)** The contrastive bonus lower-bounds the (ideal) invariance bonus for any pair \( x,a \):

\[
R_{K, \text{con.}}^{\theta, \nu}(x,a) \leq R_{\theta}^\text{inv.}(x,a) \tag{79}
\]

Furthermore, assuming realizability, for optimal critic parameter \( \nu_{K}^* := \arg\max_\nu \mathbb{E}_{X,A \sim \rho} R_{K, \text{con.}}^{\theta, \nu}(X, A) \) the bound is asymptotically tight (in the batch size \( K \to \infty \)):

\[
\lim_{K \to \infty} R_{K, \text{con.}}^{\theta, \nu_{K}^*}(x,a) = R_{\theta}^\text{inv.}(x,a) \tag{80}
\]

**Proof.** Use Lemma 5 for the first part:

\[
R_{K, \text{con.}}^{\theta, \nu}(x,a) := \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_{\theta}(|x,a)} L_{K, \nu}^{\theta, \text{con.}}(x,a,Z) \tag{81}
\]

\[
= \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_{\theta}(|x,a)} \log \frac{1}{K} \left( \frac{e_{g_{\theta}}(x,a,Z)}{e_{g_{\nu}}(x,a,Z) + \sum_{i=1}^{K-1} e_{g_{\nu}}(x,a,Z_i)} \right) \tag{82}
\]

\[
\leq \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_{\theta}(|x,a)} PMI_{\theta}(x,a;Z) \tag{83}
\]

\[
= : R_{\theta}^\text{inv.}(x,a) \tag{84}
\]

and use Lemma 6 for the second part:

\[
\lim_{K \to \infty} R_{K, \text{con.}}^{\theta, \nu_{K}^*}(x,a) := \lim_{K \to \infty} \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_{\theta}(|x,a)} L_{K, \nu_{K}^*}^{\theta, \text{con.}}(x,a,Z) \tag{85}
\]

\[
= \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_{\theta}(|x,a)} \lim_{K \to \infty} L_{K, \nu_{K}^*}^{\theta, \text{con.}}(x,a,Z) \tag{86}
\]

\[
= \mathbb{E}_{Z \sim p_{\theta}(|x,a)} PMI_{\theta}(x,a;Z) \tag{87}
\]

\[
= : R_{\theta}^\text{inv.}(x,a) \tag{88}
\]

which completes the proof. \( \square \)
B. Further Experiment Results

B.1. Sticky Actions

Figure 8 showed exploration as measured by the number of different dungeon rooms the agent manages to discover. For completeness, Figure 10 here also shows a comparison using the extrinsic reward that the agent obtains as a proxy. The conclusions are similar: In “Sticky Actions”, BYOL-Explore instantly flatlines in the intrinsic-only regime, and only does marginally better in the mixed regime. In contrast, BYOL-Hindsight achieves much higher scores in both regimes. Moreover, in the “Non-Sticky Baseline”, in both regimes BYOL-Hindsight actually manages to do even better than the original performance of BYOL-Explore.

![Figure 10. Montezuma’s Revenge, with Sticky Actions and Non-Sticky Baseline. Performance measured by extrinsic rewards in an episode.](image)

B.2. Persistive Noise

While sticky actions is the standard protocol for adding stochasticity, we further design an especially challenging form of stochasticity, as follows. First, recall that each observation \( O_t \) in our Atari environment is a grayscale 84×84-pixel image. In the “Persistive Noise” setting, observations are corrupted by an additive layer of 84×84-pixel noise that persists across time, with each pixel evolving randomly according to distributions that depend on the actions selected by the agent at each time step. Specifically, the value of each pixel \((i, j) \in \mathbb{N}_8^2\) of the (final) observation \( \tilde{O}_t \) is computed as follows:

\[
\tilde{O}^{(i,j)}_t := O^{(i,j)}_t + U^{(i,j)}_t \mod 256 \tag{89}
\]

where \( U_t \) is the persistive layer of pixel noise:

\[
U^{(i,j)}_t = U^{(i,j)}_{t-1} + \epsilon^{(i,j)}_t \mod 50 \tag{90}
\]

and noise steps are sampled as:

\[
\epsilon^{(i,j)}_t \sim \text{Uniform}\{-1, 1\} \quad \text{if} \quad \text{key}(a_{t-1}) \text{ is odd} \tag{91}
\]

\[
\epsilon^{(i,j)}_t \sim \text{Uniform}\{-11, 11\} \quad \text{if} \quad \text{key}(a_{t-1}) \text{ is even} \tag{92}
\]

where \( \text{key}(a) \) is the numerical key code associated with action \( a \). See Figure 5 for example frames generated by this process.

![Figure 11. Montezuma’s Revenge, with Persistive Noise / Non-Noisy Baseline. Performance measured by extrinsic rewards in an episode.](image)
Note that this setting is particularly challenging: While prior works have experimented with pixel-level noise (e.g. [11, 14]), they have either designed noise that is not additive (e.g. there are separate channels of pixels to the original frame) or not persistive (e.g. each time step’s noise does not depend on the previous time step’s noise)—which means it is in principle easy for a learned representation to simply “ignore” the noise. This is not possible in our setting.

Figures 11 and 12 show results (3M learner steps, 3 seeds), in terms of episode return as well as rooms visited. In addition to “Persistive Noise” as just described, the results for the vanilla environment are shown again for reference (“Non-Noisy Baseline”). The conclusion is as suspected: BYOL-Explore suffers greatly from the presence of this stochasticity, whereas BYOL-Hindsight is more resilient to it.

B.3. Temperature Sensitivity

The inner term in the contrastive loss (Objective 3) shares a similar form with contrastive losses in unsupervised representation learning [79–82], which admits a temperature (hyper-)parameter controlling the strength of penalties on negative samples [83]. A valid question is: How sensitive is BYOL-Hindsight to the specific choice of value for this parameter?

Figures 14 and 13 show results (3M learner steps, 3 seeds), in terms of episode return as well as rooms visited, for “Sticky Actions” and “Non-Sticky Baseline”. Interestingly, the performance of BYOL-Hindsight in the “Sticky Actions” setting is only mildly sensitive to the choice of temperature. In the “Non-Sticky Baseline” setting, sensitivity is most acute in the intrinsic-only exploration regime: Lower temperature performs better than higher temperature. This makes sense, because
in a largely deterministic environment, a lower temperature provides a stronger incentive for invariances to be enforced, whereas a higher temperature may allow more leakage of information from $X, A$ into $Z$, which may diminish exploration.

**B.4. Intrinsic Rewards**

The derivation of Theorem 8 makes it clear that “hindsight information” and “total stochasticity” can be misaligned in two ways: First, hindsight may capture less information than in the “true” latent (which means the reconstruction error is not driven to zero). Second, hindsight may capture more information than in the “true” latent (which means it leaks some information about the current state and action).

Regarding the former, Figure 15 shows that—for both noise settings and both exploration regimes—the reconstruction bonus indeed converges to very small values, but not exactly zero, which is consistent with the fact that $Z$ does not perfectly capture the entirety of what is unpredictable. (This may be due to a variety of usual factors, such as non-realizability and errors in optimization and estimation of expectations).

Regarding the latter, there are several ways to assess how well the invariance constraint between $Z$ and $X, A$ may be enforced. Firstly, we may observe the value of the invariance loss. Figure 15 also shows the invariance bonus over time: We observe that—to the best of the critic’s ability to tell—the invariance constraint appears relatively well-enforced. Of course, this is certainly not a perfect measure, as it depends on how discriminative the critic is, to begin with.

**B.5. Outcome Losses**

Secondly, we can also gauge the amount of informational overlap between $Z$ and $X, A$ as follows: In addition to learning the function $f_\eta(X, A, Z)$ (viz. “Reconstruction Loss”), consider training additional predictors to predict $Y$, but only using states and actions as input as in the usual forward prediction (viz. “Prediction Loss”), as well as only using the learned hindsight vectors as input (viz. “Hindsight-only Loss”).

From Figure 16, we observe in the “Sticky Actions” setting that the hindsight-only error (i.e. using only $Z$ as input) is the highest; prediction error (i.e. using only $X, A$) is lower, but not as low as reconstruction error (i.e. using $X, A, Z$ as input). In the “Non-Sticky Baseline” setting, as expected the prediction and reconstruction errors are roughly equal, since the environment is largely deterministic, so adding whatever hindsight vectors as input will not confer any benefit in modeling outcomes. For reference, the variance of target vectors is around 0.4. These observations are consistent with the fact that leakage indeed occurs, but much of it is regularized away by the invariance constraint. Precisely, from the loss comparison...
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we see that \( Z \) alone contains strictly less information than in \( X, A \) for predicting \( Y \), and that their union \( X, A, Z \) contains the most information for predicting \( Y \). (Note that much information about each room is statically determined by the room number, thus even a tiny amount if leakage may be sufficient to determine large portions of the future).

Finally, we stress that care is required when interpreting these curves due to the bootstrapped nature of the latent space in BYOL-Hindsight, as well as the fact that the dataset on which the predictor/reconstructor, generator, and critic are trained is endogenous to the rollout policy trained on the basis of the intrinsic reward.

B.6. Hindsight Information

Thirdly, we can visually inspect for informational overlap in a simulation setting, as follows: In a rollout dataset \( \rho_\pi \), define input states as the most recent four frames, \( x_t := o_{t-3:t} \), and define target states as the next frame \( x_{t+1} := o_{t+1} \). Then we learn representations \( z_{t+1} \) as usual—that is, by optimizing the objective \( \min_{\theta, \eta} \max_{\pi} \mathbb{E}_{X_t, A_t \sim \pi(\cdot | x_t)} R^K_{\theta, \eta, \nu}(X_t, A_t) \).

As our source of stochasticity, we use a strip of large “patches” at the bottom of each frame, whose grayscale values are \( z \). We see that \( \hat{\rho} \) minimizes the objective, which tells us that \( \hat{\rho} \) has learned to copy \( x_{t+1} \), or otherwise leaked information from \( x_t, o_t \). The next two results reassure us that this is unlikely: (d) The “Hindsight-Only” function appears to map quite poorly into the main content, but is completely unable to predict the random pixel strip at the bottom of the frame. (e) The “Reconstruction” function appears to learn to reconstruct both the main content and the pixel strip. Importantly, we may now ask: What if \( z_{t+1} \) has simply learned to copy \( x_{t+1} \), or otherwise leaked information from \( x_t, o_t \)? The next two results reassure us that this is unlikely: (d) The “Hindsight-Only” function appears to map quite poorly into the main content, but now the pixel strip is actually modeled very well, which is consistent with the fact that \( z_{t+1} \) does capture latent information about stochasticity that relies on \( o_t \) for resolution.
B.7. Hard Exploration Games

Figure 9 only showed results for Atari hard-exploration games in the intrinsic-only “(I)” exploration regime, due to space constraints. Figure 19 shows larger plots for those, as well as corresponding results for the mixed “(E+I)” exploration regime.

Figure 19. Hard Exploration Games, with Sticky Actions. Performance measured by the sum of extrinsic rewards obtained in an episode.

For additional insight into loss dynamics, Figure 20 shows the behavior of BYOL-Hindsight’s reconstruction and invariance losses. For comparison, a predictor is also trained to measure the usual forward prediction loss. We observe that the losses generally behave consistently with our hypothesis: Prediction losses are higher than reconstruction losses due to stochasticity.
Figure 20. Loss Values (Hard Exploration Games, with Sticky Actions). BYOL-Hindsight prediction, reconstruction, invariance losses.

B.8. Additional Remarks on Results

Bank Heist In Figure 7, why are the returns higher for natural traps (intrinsic only) when compared with natural traps (intrinsic + extrinsic)?

First, note in Figure 7(a)–(b) that for both the "intrinsic-only" and "mixed" regimes, the agent is still improving over time,
except that the latter is improving more slowly. This phenomenon is actually not necessarily surprising.

Consider training an agent in the "intrinsic-only" and "mixed" regimes. Indeed, as training proceeds over time, we may generally expect that returns obtained in the latter eventually surpass returns obtained in the former—because it has access to the extrinsic reward signal itself. However, the key word here is "eventually": In general, it is not always true that an agent in the "mixed" regime improves more quickly than in the "intrinsic-only" regime. How quickly their returns improve with/without extrinsic rewards depends entirely on the specifics of the environment, including how the extrinsic rewards are distributed, as well as how their magnitudes compare to the intrinsic rewards from exploration. For example, if there are many opportunities for earning small extrinsic rewards, then in the "mixed" regime the agent may spend more time chasing after those extrinsic rewards during training, which may slow down their exploration of further parts of the environment that could actually yield more rewards later on.

The Bank Heist environment is characterized by this, which offers a plausible explanation for the observed result: The game consists of a series of different cities that can be entered and exited in sequence. In each city, extrinsic rewards are obtained by robbing banks (by running over them) and also by destroying police cars (by dropping dynamite onto them). In each city, police cars respawn over time, and banks respawn when police cars are destroyed, so there are many opportunities for small extrinsic rewards to be earned, unless the agent is caught or runs out of fuel. Now, in the "intrinsic-only" regime, we expect that the agent is rewarded greatly for entering each new city (which loads an entirely different maze onto the screen). In order to keep exploring new cities, the agent must learn to survive, which requires learning to destroy police cars and rob banks to refuel and exit. So, pure exploration in Bank Heist is already aligned with episode returns. On the other hand, in the "mixed" regime, the agent is additionally incentivized to maximize the number of banks robbed and police cars destroyed in any given city, because the number of police cars and banks robbed nonlinearly compound the extrinsic rewards earned in that city. However, doing so increases the risk of being caught or running out of fuel, which may slow down learning.

In Figure 7(a)–(b), we see that the "mixed" agent starts earning non-trivial returns earlier than the "intrinsic-only" agent: At 1.2m learner steps, almost 20,000 is earned by the former, compared to 2,000 by the latter. Subsequently, the former improves more slowly than the latter. But given the above discussion, this result is consistent with the observation that the "mixed" agent spends more time within each city trying to destroy more police cars and rob more banks, more so than the "intrinsic-only" agent, which is only incentivized to do so “sufficiently” for surviving to explore more cities—thereby incidentally earning more rewards in further cities as a side-effect. Again, note that we do expect the "mixed" agent to eventually surpass the "intrinsic-only" agent, but this may take much longer to happen (i.e. beyond the 3m learner steps in the experiment). Of course, the precise dynamics of learning depends on the coefficient that combines the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. In this work, we do not tune this mixing coefficient for each individual environment for optimal learning speed, because our focus is instead simply on demonstrating a positive benefit of hindsight for curiosity-driven exploration.

(Note that this phenomenon is not observed for the Sticky Actions setting, which makes sense: Combined with the fact that dynamite explodes at unpredictable times, the fact that actions are sticky means that precise timing in destroying police cars is impossible in this setting, moreover exiting the maze to refuel and visit a new city may require several drive-bys to succeed, therefore staying too long in a city becomes very dangerous. So in this case, the policy has extrinsic incentive to exit and refuel to new cities earlier than before, which counteracts the effect described above. This gives a plausible explanation for the observation that in this setting, the "mixed" agent spends less time than before in each city, but explores more cities and ends up earning more returns more quickly).

Montezuma’s Revenge In Figures 8 and 10, for sticky actions, why is the number of rooms visited reduced by around 25%, whereas the returns are reduced by around 75%?

Note that Figure 8 measures the number of different rooms the agent manages to discover over the training run, whereas Figure 10 measures the mean episodic return that the agent obtains. (This is similar to prior work, such as in [12] and [14]). Therefore they are not necessarily one-to-one proportional to each another, as the agent may successfully find more and more later rooms over training, while still spending the majority of its time in earlier rooms.

Broadly speaking, sticky actions have two negative effects on gameplay. First, it obviously adds randomness to the environment’s dynamics, which throws off curiosity-driven exploration (e.g. BYOL-Explore) since sticky actions are a source of stochastic traps. Second, it also simply makes playing the game more difficult, since the agent has less control over what actions are actually executed (e.g. they can die more easily due to unfortunate sticky actions). Now, what BYOL-Hindsight does is mitigate the first problem, such that the agent’s policy is optimized using intrinsic rewards that are more or less unaffected by action stickiness. However, it cannot change the fact that the game is in fact more difficult to play.
which means that progressing/staying alive is harder. So while the agent may still manage to discover many rooms, it may spend most of its time in earlier rooms, so the mean episodic return is lower.

Consider a "heatmap" of the rooms visited in the game over the training run. Compared to the non-sticky setting, in the sticky setting the heatmap has higher heat in the earlier rooms, and lower heat in the later rooms. However, the number of rooms with non-zero heat do not differ by much.

**Random Network Distillation** In Figure 6, why does the performance of RND drop suddenly after ~400K steps?

This is simply the "vanishing rewards" phenomenon (see e.g. [34] for this terminology). Many methods relying on some notion of "novelty" for intrinsic rewards tend to exhibit this over time: After the novelty of a state has vanished, the agent is not incentivized to visit it again. In a small environment—such as the Pycolab Maze environment in Figure 6—if rewards vanish for all states, then the agent is not incentivized to do anything at all. Note that RND is especially susceptible to this, since (unlike the other algorithms) it does not need to learn any dynamics mapping from histories to future states, but rather is simply learning a mapping from \( x_{t+1} \) to \( f_{\text{random}}(x_{t+1}) \) for some initially unknown \( f_{\text{random}} \). So while its errors initially provide good incentive to explore, it much more quickly "loses interest" due to vanished rewards, hence the observed drops.

### C. Further Implementation Detail

![Neural Architecture of BYOL-Explore and BYOL-Hindsight](attachment:image.png)

Figure 21. Neural Architecture of BYOL-Explore and BYOL-Hindsight.

In all experiments, start from the same architecture/hyperparameters for **BYOL-Explore** as specified in [14], including target network EMA, open-loop horizon, intrinsic reward normalization/prioritization, representation sharing, and underlying RL algorithm. In the following, we first recall the architecture of **BYOL-Explore** in detail, then describe **BYOL-Hindsight**:

#### C.1. BYOL-Explore

**Online Embedding Network.** Figure 21(a) shows the architecture of **BYOL-Explore**. First, to compute predictions of target states, an online network is composed of an encoder \( \omega \) that transforms observations \( a_t \) into representations \( w_t = \omega(a_t) \).

**Closed-Loop Recurrent Network.** Next, a closed-loop RNN computes representations \( b_t \) on the basis of previous actions \( \{a_{t'}\}_{t' < t} \) and observation encodings \( \{w_{t'}\}_{t' < t} \). Specifically, the closed-loop RNN cell takes in each observation representation \( w_t \), previous action \( a_{t-1} \), and previous belief \( b_{t-1} \) as input, and computes a representation \( b_t \) of the history so far.

**Open-Loop Recurrent Network.** Then, an open-loop RNN is initialized by this \( b_t \), and computes forward predictions \( b_{t,i} \) for horizon steps indexed as \( i \), on the basis of actions \( \{a_{t'}\}_{t' \geq t} \) up to some maximum open-loop horizon. Specifically, the open-loop RNN cell takes in each action \( a_{t+i-1} \) and current belief \( b_{t,i-1} \) as input, and computes a representation \( b_{t,i} \) of the predicted next belief. The purpose of this is to simulate future beliefs using only knowledge of future actions.

**Target Predictor Network.** Lastly, a predictor network takes the open-loop belief \( b_{t,i} \) as input, and outputs the open-loop
Target Embedding Network. Corresponding to the online network is a target network whose parameters are an exponential moving average of the parameters of the online network. The target network encodes observations $o_{t+i}$ as $w_{t+i} = \omega_{\text{target}}(o_{t+i})$, and these targets are used to train the online network. The weights of $\omega_{\text{target}}$ are updated per the averaging rule $\omega_{\text{target}} \leftarrow \alpha \omega_{\text{target}} + (1 - \alpha) \omega$ after each training step, with $\alpha$ being the exponential moving average parameter.

Loss Function. Define target states as the $\ell_2$-normalized encodings $x_{t+i} := s g(w_{t+i}/||w_{t+i}||_2)$ of future observations, and predictions as the $\ell_2$-normalized (raw) predictions $\hat{x}_{t,i} := \hat{w}_{t,i}/||\hat{w}_{t,i}||_2$. Moreover, define input states as the beliefs themselves—that is, $x_{t,i-1} := b_{t,i-1}$. Then, the loss function used to train all networks (except the target network) is given by $\mathcal{R}(x_{t,i-1}, \hat{x}_{t,i}) := \|x_{t+i} - \hat{x}_{t,i}\|^2_2$ where $j$ indexes the trajectories within a batch. The overall objective for training the networks is the average over the time, batch, and horizon dimensions.

Intrinsic Reward. Finally, the intrinsic reward associated to each observed transition $(o^{(j)}_{t+i}, a^{(j)}_{t+i}, o^{(j)}_{t+i+1})$ is the sum of corresponding prediction errors $\sum_{t+i=s}^{t+i+s+1} \mathcal{R}(x^{(j)}_{t,i-1}, a^{(j)}_{t+i})$, which aggregates all the errors pertaining to the world model relative to the observation $o^{(j)}_{t+i}$—the intuition being that the intrinsic reward for a time step is proportional to how difficult it is to predict its observation from partial histories. See Algorithm 1.

C.2. BYOL-Hindsight

Target Reconstructor Network. Figure 21(b) shows the architecture of BYOL-Hindsight. Starting from the setup for BYOL-Explore, the modification to incorporate hindsight is as follows: First, the predictor network is now replaced by a reconstructor network, which takes the open-loop belief $b_{t,i}$ and hindsight vector $z_{t,i}$ as input, and outputs the open-loop (raw) reconstruction $\hat{w}_{t,i}$. (Notation: At this point, it is helpful to recall that the online embedding network, closed-loop RNN, open-loop RNN, and target predictor/reconstructor network all correspond to what we subsume under parameter $\eta$).

Generator and Critic Networks. Second, a hindsight generator network $p_o$ takes in the belief $b_{t,i-1}$, the action $a_{t+i-1}$, and the target $w_{t+i}$, and samples a hindsight vector $Z_{t,i} \sim p(o_{t+i-1}, a_{t+i-1}, w_{t+i})$ by taking an additional noise vector $\epsilon_{t,i}$ as input. Finally, a hindsight critic network $q_v$ takes in any belief $b_{t,i-1}$, any action $a_{t+i-1}$, and any hindsight vector $z_{t,i}$ as input, and outputs the corresponding energy $q_v(b_{t,i-1}, a_{t+i-1}, z_{t,i})$.

Loss Function. There are now two components. Firstly, analogous to before, define target states as the $\ell_2$-normalized encodings $x_{t+i} := s g(w_{t+i}/||w_{t+i}||_2)$ of future observations, and reconstructions as the $\ell_2$-normalized (raw) reconstructions $\hat{x}_{t,i} := \hat{w}_{t,i}/||\hat{w}_{t,i}||_2$. Moreover, define input states as the beliefs themselves—that is, $x_{t,i-1} := b_{t,i-1}$. Then, the loss function used to train the online embedding network, closed-loop RNN, open-loop RNN, and target reconstructor network all correspond to what we subsume under parameter $\eta$.

Intrinsic Reward. Finally, analogous to before, the intrinsic reward associated to each observed transition $(o^{(j)}_{t}, a^{(j)}_{t}, o^{(j)}_{t+1})$ is the sum of corresponding reconstruction + contrastive errors $\sum_{t=i=s+1}^{t+i+s+1} \mathcal{R}(x^{(j)}_{t,i-1}, a^{(j)}_{t+i}) + \mathcal{R}(x^{(j)}_{t,i-1}, a^{(j)}_{t+i+1})$, which aggregates all the errors pertaining to the world model relative to the observation $o^{(j)}_{t+i+1}$—the intuition being that the intrinsic reward for a time step is proportional to how difficult it is to reconstruct its observation from partial histories as well as how difficult it is to generate hindsight representations disentangled from input states and actions. See Algorithm 2.

C.3. RL Hyperparameters

Like with BYOL-Explore, any RL algorithm can be used in conjunction with BYOL-Hindsight. We use VMPO [75] exactly as specified in [14], and reproduce the details as follows: PopArt-style [96] reward normalization is used with step size 0.01, and rewards are subsequently rescaled by $1 - \gamma$ with discount factor $\gamma = 0.999$. PopArt normalization is also applied to the output of the value network. To train the value function, VTrace is used without off-policy correction to define temporal-difference targets for mean squared error loss with loss weight 0.5, and an entropy loss with loss weight 0.001 is added. The parameters $\eta_{\text{init}}$ and $\alpha_{\text{init}}$ for VMPO are initialized to 0.5, and $\epsilon_{\text{init}} = 0.01$ and $\epsilon_{\beta} = 0.005$. The top-$k$ parameter for VMPO is set to 0.5. For optimization, the Adam optimizer is used with learning rate $10^{-4}$ and $b_1 = 0.9$.伸
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Algorithm 1 BYOL-Explore

repeat ▷ batch indices j suppressed unless explicitly required
execute policy \( \pi \) to obtain dataset of actions \( a \) and observations \( o \)
for \( j = 1, \ldots \) do ▷ batch index
compute online embedding, \( \omega_t \leftarrow \omega(o_t) \) for all time steps \( t \)
for \( t = 1, \ldots \) do ▷ time step
compute closed-loop belief, \( b_t \leftarrow \text{RNN}_{\text{closed-loop}}(\{a_{t'}\}_{t < t}, \{\omega_{t'}\}_{t < t}) \)
for \( i = 1, \ldots \) do ▷ horizon
compute open-loop belief, \( b_{t,i} \leftarrow \text{RNN}_{\text{open-loop}}(b_t, \{a_{t'}\}_{i > t}) \)
compute target embedding, \( \omega_{t+i} \leftarrow \omega_{\text{target}}(a_{t+i}) \) and normalized target, \( x_{t+i} \leftarrow s\text{g}(w_{t+i}/\|w_{t+i}\|_2) \)
compute predicted embedding, \( \hat{\omega}_{t,i} \leftarrow \psi(b_{t,i}) \) and normalized prediction, \( \hat{x}_{t,i} := \hat{w}_{t,i}/\|\hat{w}_{t,i}\|_2 \)
end for
end for
update \( \omega, \text{RNN}_{\text{closed-loop}}, \text{RNN}_{\text{open-loop}}, \psi \) using \( \mathcal{R}(x_{t,i-1}, a_{t,i-1}) := \|x_{t,i}-\hat{x}_{t,i}\|^2 \) averaged over \( i, j, t \)
update \( \omega_{\text{target}} \) using exponential moving averaging, \( \omega_{\text{target}} \leftarrow \alpha \omega_{\text{target}} + (1-\alpha)\omega \)
update \( \pi \) using \( \mathcal{R}_{\text{intrinsic}}(\hat{o}, a, \hat{o}+1) := \sum_{t=i=s+1} \mathcal{R}(x_{t,i-1}, a_{t+i-1}) \)
end repeat

The VMPO target network is updated every 10 learner steps. In terms of computation, 400 CPU actors generate data through an inference server, using four TPUv2 for evaluating the policy. Curiosity in Hindsight is agnostic to the underlying reinforcement learning algorithm used to optimize intrinsic rewards, so all RL implementation details in BYOL-Hindsight are identical to those in the original BYOL-Explore experiments.

C.4. BYOL Hyperparameters

For the components of BYOL-Hindsight that overlap with BYOL-Explore, we use the exact same architecture and hyperparameters. Observation representations of size 512 and history representations of size 256. The encoder is a Deep ResNet stack [97], with grayscale image observations passing through a stack of 3 units, each made up of a 3×3 convolutional layer, a 3×3 max pool layer, and two residual blocks. The convolutional layer and residual blocks have number of channels (16, 32, 32) for each of the 3 units. GroupNorm normalization [98] is used with one group at the end of each unit, and ReLU activations are used everywhere. At the end of the final residual block, the output is flattened and projected with a single linear layer to embedding dimension 512. The closed-loop and open-loop RNNs are simple GRUs [99], with actions provided to the RNN cells, embedded to representation size 32. The policy head and value head are MLPs with one hidden layer of size 256, and the outputs of the policy head are passed through a softmax layer to obtain action probabilities. Specifically for BYOL-Explore only, the predictor network is an MLP with three hidden layers of size 512 (Note that this detail is the first of two that are different to the original implementation in [14]; using three layers of 512 instead of the original single layer of 256 leads to better results). In the mixed exploration regime, the intrinsic/extrinsic rewards mixing coefficient is 0.2 (This is the second of two details that are different to the original implementation in [14]; using 0.2 instead of the original 0.1 leads to better results). We defer to [14] for details on intrinsic reward normalization/prioritization and representation sharing. We use the classical 30 random no-ops evaluation regime for Atari [100, 101]. The batch size is 32 and sequence length is 128, and four TPUv2 are used in a distributed learning setup. The open loop horizon is 1 for all Pycobol experiments, and 8 for all Atari experiments. The target network EMA is 0.99.

C.5. Hindsight Hyperparameters

Specifically for BYOL-Hindsight, the reconstructor network is an MLP with three hidden layers of 512, which is the same as the predictor network in BYOL-Explore above. The generator network and critic network are MLPs with three hidden layers of 512. The dimension of the generator noise \( \epsilon \) is 256, and the dimension of the hindsight vector is 256. The temperature parameter is 0.5, except in Montezuma’s revenge where we show sensitivity to the temperature. The coefficient \( \lambda = 1 \) for model learning. For policy optimization, we empirically observe that the value of \( \lambda \) has little to no contribution towards the intrinsic reward (and little to no effect on exploration); for simplicity we set \( \lambda \) to zero for policy optimization. For the contrastive loss, negative samples are simply taken from the batch, so the contrastive set is also batch size 32; the
time dimension is not used as negatives. For optimization, the Adam optimizer is used with learning rate $10^{-4}$ and $b_1 = 0.9$ for both the reconstruction loss and contrastive loss. Alternating optimization is used to optimize the critic, with single optimization steps for the critic interleaved with single optimization steps for the rest of the networks. Where necessary to provide multiple input vectors to the reconstructor, generator, and critic networks, inputs are first combined by concatenation before being fed into the first layer of the networks.

Note: Relative to the dimensionality of the "true" source of stochasticity in the world (i.e. within any reparameterized model that accurately captures the world’s dynamics), the dimensionality of the generator noise $\epsilon$ and hindsight vector $Z$ should not be too small. If it is too small, it may have insufficient capacity to model the stochasticity well, which means there may still be remaining stochastic traps that can negatively affect curiosity-based exploration. On the other hand, making it very large would avoid this problem, but may potentially make learning proceed more slowly. This is because not only does $Z$ have to capture stochasticity, it also has to obey the constraint that it be independent of states and actions, so in very high dimensions this may not be as easy to simultaneously optimize. Of course, the "true" dimensionality of stochasticity is rarely known, so we may make an educated guess when setting sensible values for the noise and hindsight dimensions. In our experiments, we do not tune these dimensions, and simply set it to 256 for all environments and experiments.

D. Discussion and Related Work

D.1. Additional Discussion

It is important to account for stochasticity in reinforcement learning—especially in exploration: Stochasticity may arise naturally due to a variety of factors, such as inherent randomness in the world (e.g. coin flip), or imperfect observations or actions (e.g. faulty sensors or actuators), or un-modeled complexity (e.g. model mismatch or imperfect optimization), or simply due to the existence of other agents (e.g. in a multi-agent game)—all of which would lead to world dynamics that appear stochastic to the agent. In this work, we used a variety of settings to test our hypothesis that hindsight information can mitigate stochastic traps in predictive error-based exploration. Overall, our results verify the fact that learned hindsight representations are able to disentangle the various (unpredictable) stochasticities from the rest of the (predictable) dynamics of the world. Future work may investigate applicability to other scenarios, such as robotics settings, or multi-agent settings.

The invariance objective is reminiscent of that used in counterfactual credit assignment [86], where hindsight information in
future-conditional value functions are constrained to not contain information about the agent’s actions. A key difference is that in the exploration setting, the invariance constraint primarily serves as a way to ensure that intrinsic rewards do not fall to zero prematurely (i.e. when too much information is leaked about the future), so performance is not so sensitive to violations of the independence constraint—unlike in counterfactual credit assignment, where it takes paramount importance for estimators to be unbiased. Another difference is that hindsight variables are deterministic functions of the future in counterfactual credit assignment, whereas in our case they must be stochastic in order to accommodate the general case of any stochasticity.

Finally, it is worth emphasizing that the world model that is the focus of curiosity-driven exploration as studied in this work (i.e. either the predictive one in BYOL-Explore, or the reconstructive one in BYOL-Hindsight) is only designed for computing rewards. It need not be related to the underlying RL algorithm, which can be model-free (as is the case for VMPO). While this is a flexibility, it could also be a limitation: Future work may more systematically explore the advantages and disadvantages of sharing learned exploratory world models or representations with the underlying RL algorithm itself.

As another remark for clarification, note that “contrastive learning” here refers to a slightly different objective than what is typically referred to in self-supervised representation learning (see e.g. [14]), or in noise contrastive estimation (see e.g. [102]). Indeed, a key innovation in BYOL (and inherited by BYOL-Explore) is that contrastive learning using negative samples are not involved at all. In this work, we start from BYOL-Explore but re-introduce contrastive learning for an orthogonal objective—that is, to learn a hindsight vector for addressing stochastic traps.

Quality of World Model From the perspective of the agent, stochasticity can arise due to a variety of reasons. Inherent randomness in the world is one (e.g. a coin flip), imperfect observations is another (e.g. faulty sensors), and imperfectly executed actions is another (e.g. faulty actuators). Yet another source of "stochasticity" is that the world model is bad, e.g. due to insufficient capacity to model the real world, or due to imperfect optimization procedure. To the agent, this simply appears that there is remaining "stochasticity" even after long periods of training. Importantly, if there is are particular parts of the world that the model is insufficiently expressive to capture relative to other parts of the world, then they effectively become stochastic traps that the agent may become stuck around. Note that this problem could affect all curiosity-driven exploration methods (as given by Definition 1), and could affect RND, ICM, and BYOL-Explore. Actually, Curiosity in Hindsight should generally potentially mitigate this kind of problem, because the hindsight generator will attempt to learn hindsight vectors that capture this otherwise remaining "stochasticity". Now of course, we may then ask the (meta) question: Even with the additional hindsight capacity, what if prediction/reconstruction is still bad, e.g. if the augmented model still has insufficient capacity to model the real world? In general, regardless of whether we are using the augmented model or not, remaining stochasticity is a problem if it is unevenly distributed around the world (e.g. high around specific objects, which become traps), but it is not a problem otherwise. So practically, this means the final model needs to be at least "good enough" such that errors are not due to failures to model specific areas of the state space. In our experiments, we empirically observe that reconstruction error becomes close to zero but above zero, but the agents do not get trapped by any remaining unevenly distributed noise. Finally, going forward, it is beneficial for Crafter [103] to be a testbed for curiosity-driven exploration (and curiosity in hindsight) in future updates to this agenda, because it is also a partially observable stochastic environment in which predictive world models may not easily capture all outcomes.

Effects of Two Losses The overall exploration algorithm operates by having the policy parameters maximize the intrinsic rewards, while the model parameters minimize the intrinsic rewards. So, by default the reconstruction loss and contrastive loss affect both the policy and the model. Starting from this base case, we can ask what happens if either loss is omitted, for either policy learning or model learning. Model Learning: This is easiest to reason about. On one hand, if the contrastive loss were omitted from model learning, then there is no reason at all for hindsight vectors $Z$ to be independent of $X, A$; thus $Z$ may very quickly learn to copy all of the information in the outcome itself. This means that reconstruction errors (which yield intrinsic reward for the agent’s policy) quickly drops to zero, without the agent having to explore at all. This is disastrous for exploration. On the other hand, if the reconstruction loss were omitted from model learning, then reconstruction errors (which yield intrinsic reward for the agent’s policy) will never improve over time no matter how much experience the agent has, which is also pathological for exploration. In sum, to avoid breakdown of exploration, it must be the case that both the reconstruction loss and contrastive loss are applied to model learning. Policy Learning: This is also very easy to reason about. We empirically find that in practice, the invariance constraint is always respected very well (see e.g. Figure 15, where the invariance loss remains close to zero throughout training). Therefore the magnitude of the contrastive component of the intrinsic reward always has little to no contribution to the total intrinsic reward. Empirically, indeed exploration behavior is rather unaffected by whether or not the contrastive loss is included as an intrinsic reward for policy learning. On the other hand, suppose we remove the reconstruction component of the intrinsic reward. Then the agent would practically have no incentive to explore, which is disastrous. In sum, for policy learning the scaling between the two
intrinsic rewards is not meaningful, as the reconstruction term dominates.

**Choice of Baseline Method** Briefly, within the curiosity-driven exploration paradigm (Definition 1), there are two primary choices when it comes to representation: How to represent “input states” $X_t$, and how to represent “target states” $X_{t+1}$. For the former, we simply make the most general choice of using learned RNN “belief” representations for $X_t$—that is, rollups of previous actions $\{a_{t'}\}_{t'<t}$ and observation encodings $\{\omega(a_{t'})\}_{t'<t}$, where $\omega$ is a learned encoding function. This should be uncontroversial, and the vast majority of methods in Table 1 operate this way, since pretty much any non-trivial environment would require the agent to be aware of histories rather than just immediate-state contexts or features. For the latter, we choose BYOL-Explore, which has that “target states” are $\ell_2$-normalized encodings of future observations, with the target encoding function $\omega_{\text{target}}$ being an exponential moving average of $\omega$. This is due to three reasons: First, pixel-based curiosity has been found too perform worse than using learned representations [9, 15]. So, among popular and successful representation methods, we are looking at autoencoded features, random features, inverse dynamics features, and the recently proposed bootstrapped features. Second, moreover, autoencoded features have been found to be unstable in practice [9], and also bootstrapped features have most recently been found to yield the best performance on benchmarks [14]. Third, bootstrapped representations arguably yield the simplest learning algorithm, as the target embedding network is just the exponential moving average of the online embedding network. In sum, this is why we chose BYOL-Explore as the baseline formulation—because it serves a simple and already state-of-the-art baseline on top of which we can demonstrate how Curiosity in Hindsight further improves its performance in stochastic environments.

**Generality of Framework** The practical framework for Curiosity in Hindsight (as defined by Equations 21–22) can be used to augment any curiosity-driven method (as defined by Equations 1–2). As shown in Table 1, this includes a number of recent methods, i.e. as long as they can be expressed in the form of Definition 1. (Moreover, our Response (A.1) above discusses the main reasons why we particularly select BYOL-Explore as our prime example to augment and conduct empirical experiments for). On the other hand, there are other exploration paradigms that cannot be expressed in the form of Definition 1 (i.e. not “curiosity-driven” as defined there), and hence cannot be readily augmented with our framework for Curiosity in Hindsight. As discussed in Section 2.2 (“Related Work”), this includes for instance methods based on visitation counts, hashes, and density estimates, as well as methods based on estimated uncertainties about the world, such as taking actions that maximize the estimated information gain, etc. For instance, exploration by the Plan2Explore method operates by first estimating “novelty” through ensemble disagreement in latent predictions made by 1-step transition models, and the agent uses a concurrently trained global recurrent world model to plan to explore on the basis of this novelty measure. So this method operates by directly estimating/maximizing the expected information gain using ensemble disagreement, therefore it does not fall within the curiosity-driven paradigm (i.e. cannot be formulated as an instance of Definition 1), and hence cannot be plugged into Curiosity in Hindsight.

**D.2. Additional Related Work**

Several related works are concurrent to ours. In the novelty-based family, [104] extends count-based episodic bonuses to continuous state spaces and encourages exploring states that are diverse under a learned embedding, and [105] proposes clustering-based density estimation to model a wide range of timescales. Tackling the problem that stochasticity poses for predictive error-based exploration as we do, [106] is another extension of BYOL-Explore that approaches stochasticity in world dynamics by deliberately and directly leaking a noisy version of future information to the predictor. Theoretically, [107] studies the learning dynamics of self-predictive learning for reinforcement learning, which is related to BYOL-Explore. Finally, [108] augments future-conditional supervised learning with the ability to remove uncontrollable information from the future-conditioning variable—which is the “mirror image” of what we seek from hindsight representations in our framework.
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