Unleashing The Potential of Data Sharing in Ensemble Deep Reinforcement Learning

Abstract

This work studies a crucial but often overlooked element of ensemble methods in deep reinforcement learning: data sharing between ensemble members. We show that data sharing enables *peer learning*, a powerful learning process in which individual agents learn from each other's experience to significantly improve their performance. When given access to the experience of other ensemble members, even the worst agent can match or outperform the previously best agent, triggering a virtuous circle. However, we show that peer learning can be unstable when the agents' ability to learn is impaired due to overtraining on early data. We thus employ the recently proposed solution of periodic resets and show that it ensures effective peer learning. We perform extensive experiments on continuous control tasks from both dense states and pixels to demonstrate the strong effect of peer learning and its interaction with resets.

1 Introduction

Amid their popularity in supervised learning, ensemble methods have also proven to be effective in deep reinforcement learning (RL) for a wide range of purposes (Osband et al., 2016; Chua et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2021; Schmitt et al., 2020; Agarwal et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2020). Underlying some of these methods is a simple principle: training a set of independent agents while *sharing the data* among them. This simple strategy allows different agents to concurrently explore different policies while sharing their knowledge. It has been shown to be particularly useful for promoting deep exploration (Osband et al., 2016) and thus improving the learning efficiency.

Intuitively, data sharing allows different agents to learn from each other's experience. This learning process, which we refer to as *peer learning*, happens covertly during training and thus is often overlooked, despite being essential for exploiting the diverse data brought by deep exploration. Moreover, previous work often applies additional techniques (Osband et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2021; Januszewski et al., 2021) on top of the basic ensemble strategy, which further obscures the role of peer learning in the success of these methods. As a result, almost no effort has been put into understanding how peer learning affects individual agents, under what conditions is it effective, and how we can better benefit from it.

This work presents a dedicated study of the effect of data sharing in ensemble deep reinforcement learning. Through carefully designed experiments, we present a clear view of the peer learning process in which agents of different levels learn from each other to improve their own performance. Specifically, we show that a transition from separate to shared replay buffers during training can often cause all ensemble members to match or outperform the previously best agent in the ensemble, and thus resulting in a significant improvement in the overall performance. Based on these observations, we show that oftentimes data sharing *alone* is sufficient to produce a significant gain over just training a single agent, without the use of any additional techniques such as policy aggregation (Januszewski et al., 2021), bootstrapping (Osband et al., 2016), or UCB exploration (Chen et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2021).

A natural question is whether peer learning is always stable in practice. Recently, Nikishin et al. (2022) has shown that deep RL agents can suffer from the primacy bias, i.e., a tendency to overfit early data that impairs the agent's ability to learn from its own future experience. We show that, in the context of ensemble methods, the primacy bias can also prevent an agent from learning from other agents, even when the other agents have good performance and are producing high-quality

samples. Fortunately, we find that the simple resetting mechanism proposed in Nikishin et al. (2022) provides a robust solution and ensures exploitation of the shared data. Our experiments on continuous control tasks from both dense states and pixels show that ensemble and resets are a particularly robust combination and always significantly improve the performance over the baseline methods while only incurring a minor increase in computation time.

The contribution of this paper can be summarized as follows:

1. We expose peer learning as a prominent effect when using data sharing in ensemble methods and demonstrate its impact on individual agents' performance;

2. We show that, in many cases, data sharing alone is sufficient to provide significant improvement in performance, without the use of any additional techniques;

3. We find that peer learning can be unreliable in the presence of the primacy bias, and show that the recently proposed resetting mechanism provides a robust solution;

4. We empirically verify the effect of peer learning and its interaction with resets with extensive experiments on continuous control tasks from both dense states and pixels.

2   RELATED WORK

Ensemble methods in RL   Ensemble methods have been employed in reinforcement learning for a wide range of purposes including promoting deep exploration (Osband et al., 2016; Peng et al., 2020), improving value estimations (Chen et al., 2021; Lan et al., 2020; Peer et al., 2021) or model predictions (Chua et al., 2018; Kurutach et al., 2018), and accelerating hyperparameter sweeps (Schmitt et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2020). While there are various distinct ways to apply an ensemble, the simple ensemble strategy (i.e., training a set of independent agents while sharing the data) considered in this work underlies many previous works. For example, Osband et al. (2016) trains a multi-head DQN (Mnih et al., 2015) with all heads sharing a single replay buffer, to improve exploration. Januszewski et al. (2021) trains multiple DDPG (Lillicrap et al., 2016) policies with a shared replay buffer, and combine them into an average policy at test-time. Schmitt et al. (2020) and Liu et al. (2020) accelerate hyperparameter sweeps by training agents with different hyperparameters sharing a central replay buffer. However, most previous work does not investigate the role of data sharing, or only marginally touches on its usefulness, without uncovering its effect on individual agents in detail or analyzing its failure cases.

The primacy bias in deep RL   The recently studied primacy bias (Nikishin et al., 2022) is a tendency of deep RL agents to overfit early data that impairs the agents' ability to learn from their own future experience. Such overfitting can have multiple different causes and various negative effects. For example, Nikishin et al. (2022) shows that a high replay ratio can often cause significant overfitting due to the large number of gradient updates relative to the number of environment interactions collected. Interestingly, Nikishin et al. (2022) proposes a surprisingly simple but effective solution: periodically reinitializing part of the agents, *while* preserving the replay buffer. This simple mechanism, which they refer to as "resetting", can reliably eliminate the negative effect of the primacy bias and result in significant improvements. In this work, we show that the primacy bias can damage the peer learning process as well, and that resetting also robustly fixes this issue.

3   PRELIMINARIES

The RL formulation   We consider the standard RL framework (Sutton & Barto, 2018) that models the environment as a Markov decision process (MDP). At each timestep, the agent observes the current environment state S_t and executes an action A_t sampled from its current policy π. It then receives a reward signal R_t and the next state S_{t+1} from the environment. The goal of a reinforcement learning algorithm is then to find a policy π that maximizes the expected discounted sum of rewards $\mathbb{E}_\pi[\sum_{t=0}^\infty \gamma^t R_t]$ based on its past interactions with the environment.

This work focuses on deep RL algorithms that come with a *replay buffer* and support *off-policy* training, as they provide natural infrastructures and mechanisms for data sharing. Specifically, we use the popular Soft Actor-Critic (SAC) algorithm (Haarnoja et al., 2018) (for dense states) and the

DrQ algorithm (Kostrikov et al., 2021) (for image observations) as the base algorithms in all our experiments.

Ensemble strategy   In this work, we consider a simple form of ensemble that underlies many previous works (Osband et al., 2016; Schmitt et al., 2020; Januszewski et al., 2021). Given a base RL algorithm and the ensemble size N, we train N independent agents interacting with N environment instances concurrently. Each agent has their own copy of the parameters (e.g., policy, value, and target networks) and optimizers, and any learning updates of the base algorithm are performed independently for each agent, but in parallel. However, we allow different agents to share the same image encoder when using images as input. Unless otherwise stated, the agents share a central replay buffer as well as the training batch.

For evaluation, we do not perform any policy aggregation such as voting (Osband et al., 2016) or averaging (Januszewski et al., 2021). Instead, we always use the policies of individual ensemble members. The selection of the agents for evaluation depends on the context and will be clearly stated.

Resetting   The resetting mechanism is originally proposed in Nikishin et al. (2022) to counter the negative effect of the primacy bias. Similar to Nikishin et al. (2022), whenever we refer to "resetting an agent", we mean to reinitialize all or part of the parameters and optimizer states of all components of the agent, *while* preserving the replay buffer. Specifically, for SAC, this means reinitializing everything while preserving the buffer. This is also the case for DrQ except that we retain the parameters and optimizer states of the image encoder.

Replay ratio   An important hyperparameter that deserves special attention is the *replay ratio*[1]. It refers to the ratio of the number of gradient updates to the number of environment steps at any point in training. Crucially, Nikishin et al. (2022) shows that a high replay ratio can often worsen the negative effect of primacy bias due to overtraining on early data. Therefore, in this work, we control the effect of the primacy bias mainly by manipulating the replay ratio.

Though in the single-agent case replay ratio is well-defined, in the context of ensemble methods there exists some ambiguity because it involves multiple agents. We therefore give an exact definition of replay ratio that we use throughout this paper: 1) when training a single agent or an ensemble of agents with *separate* replay buffers, replay ratio refers to the ratio of the number of gradient updates that each agent will experience to the number of *their own* interaction steps; 2) when training an ensemble with a shared replay buffer, replay ratio refers to the number of gradient updates that each agent will experience to the *total number* of interaction steps of the entire ensemble. We find this definition to make most sense because it considers the actual number of environment transitions that the agent has access to. It also reflects how people typically set this hyperparameter in practice (Osband et al., 2016).

4   THE PEER LEARNING PROCESS

When training an ensemble of independent data sharing agents, one can expect the following two processes to happen:

1. A *diversification* process in which random initialization and stochastic training introduce diversity to the ensemble;
2. A *peer learning* process in which different ensemble members learn from each other's experience to improve themselves.

Intuitively, the first process creates a diverse set of agents and thus diverse data, which peer learning might exploit to improve the performance of individual ensemble members. These two processes cooperate closely and *jointly* contribute to the high performance of ensemble methods. However, most focus and credit have been given to the diversification aspect and its exploration benefits (Osband et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2021), while the more subtle peer learning process has often been overlooked despite being essential for the exploitation of the diverse data brought by

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[1]Also referred to as update-to-data (UTD) ratio.

deep exploration. A better understanding of peer learning can reveal the inner workings behind the success of ensemble methods and guide the design of better ensemble algorithms.

The rest of this section is divided into two parts. In the first part, we demonstrate the strong effect of peer learning on the performance of individual ensemble members. In the second part, we demonstrate a failure case of peer learning in which the agents' ability to learn is impaired due to overtraining on early data, and that the recently proposed solution of periodic resets robustly fixes this issue.

4.1 THE EFFECT OF PEER LEARNING

We now demonstrate the effect of peer learning on the individual ensemble members. Normally, peer learning happens covertly during training and its effect is only indirectly reflected in the overall performance. In order to make the impact of peer learning visible, we design a simple setup that disentangles the diversification process and the peer learning process. Specifically, we start training with the N ensemble members with separate replay buffers. After a certain timestep, we either continue training with separate replay buffers, or *merge* the separate replay buffers into one shared replay buffer. After merging, we subsample the replay buffer by N to eliminate the effect of a sudden increase in the amount of data accessible to the agents. We train an ensemble of $N = 10$ SAC agents with replay ratio 1, and select four environments from the DeepMind Control Suite (Tassa et al., 2018) that are representative of the effect of ensemble and resets. More details and results can be found in Appendix B and Appendix D respectively.

Figure 1: **Top**: the effect of buffers merging. Vertical lines indicate the step for merging. For each experiment we use 5 seeds and $N = 10$ agents in the ensemble. Performance is averaged across all ensemble member and all seeds. To quantify the effect of buffer merging on the variance within ensembles, we first calculate the standard deviation of the performance within each ensemble and then average over all seeds. Shaded area thus represents this average standard deviation. **Bottom**: individual learning curves from one run in which we merge the buffer. The individual learning curves are Gaussian smoothed to reduce visual clutter.

Figures 1 shows the effect of buffer merging on the overall performance of the ensemble as well as the individual learning curves of all ensemble members from a single run with buffer merging. Before merging, different agents develop distinct policies and have different performance; upon merging, the overall performance improves significantly, usually with a drastic reduction in the variance within the ensemble. In all cases, the improvement happens robustly and rapidly, demonstrating the strong effect of peer learning. Inspecting the individual learning curves reveals what is happening behind scenes: on `cartpole-swingup_sparse` and `quadruped-walk`, the underperforming agents learn from the data of the optimal agents in the ensemble and quickly converge to the optimal policy. On `fish-swim` and `hopper-hop`, the entire ensemble even outperforms the previously best agents before merging. We hypothesize that it is because different agents in

the ensemble learn different components of a good policy, and upon merging the agents are able to combine these different components.

Note the this experiment is for demonstration purposes only. In practice, one would always directly start with a shared replay buffer for best sample efficiency. Given the above results, we can imagine how peer learning improves performance in that case: starting with random initialization, the stochastic training process continues to diversify the ensemble; concurrently, peer learning selects and integrates the solutions discovered and improves the performance of all agents in the ensemble. The result of this simultaneous diversification and peer learning is significantly improved sample efficiency relative to just training a single agent throughout the entire training process, as observed in previous works (Osband et al., 2016; Januszewski et al., 2021) and confirmed in Section 5 of this work.

The above results have an important implication. As long as peer learning is stable, we can expect almost *all* ensemble members to be much more high-performing than if we only train a single agent. Therefore, policy aggregation techniques such as voting or averaging might not be as important as some might think, though they may provide a more robust test-time policy. Instead, one can simply train an ensemble of agents without any additional techniques or algorithmic changes and still benefit from it, which greatly simplifies the design of this family of algorithms. Our results in Section 5 strongly support this claim.

4.2 A Failure Case and the Solution

Intuitively, successful peer learning requires an agent to maintain the ability to quickly adapt their policy. One can imagine that this is less likely to happen when the agent is stuck in some suboptimal policy, loses their representation capacity (Lyle et al., 2022), or experiences significant value over-estimation (Kumar et al., 2019). This work investigates one particular effect that might impair an agent's ability to learn: the primacy bias (Nikishin et al., 2022). Specifically, Nikishin et al. (2022) shows that overtraining on early data, e.g. when using a high replay ratio, can significantly impair the agent's ability to learn from its own future experience. This creates a vicious circle, as the data generated by a poor agent will also be poor, which further eliminates the possibility of improvement. We hypothesize that the primacy bias can also damage the agent's ability to learn from other agents' data, *even if* the other agents are high-performing and producing high quality samples. Notably, Nikishin et al. (2022) proposes a simple solution to counter the primacy bias: periodically resetting part of the agent, while preserving the replay buffer. This strategy is shown to be highly effective. We therefore expect it to also provide a solution that ensures stable peer learning.

To verify these hypotheses, we use the same setup as in the previous experiment, except for a replay ratio of 16 instead of 1 to make the effect of the primacy bias clearly detectable. To quantify the effect of resets, we include two additional variants: in the first one, we continue training with separate buffers, and reset the agents; in the second one, we merge the buffers and reset the agents. Results are shown in Figure 2. Naively merging the buffer is much less effective at a replay ratio of 16 than it is when using a replay ratio of 1, except for `cartpole-swingup_sparse`, which has the simplest environment dynamics among the four. On `hopper-hop` and `quadruped-walk`, merging the buffer provides almost no benefit. However, our inspection of individual learning curves shows that there exists high-performing agents. This indicates that the under-performing agents are incapable to learn from the better agents due to the primacy bias. Specifically, for `hopper-hop` and `quadruped-walk`, this is due to unrecoverable critic divergence, while for `fish-swim` the cause is less clear. Nevertheless, as can be seen from the aggregate performance and also the individual learning curves, resetting the ensemble restores the agents' ability to effectively learn from each other and provides huge performance gain over using separate replay buffers. Note that even though resetting without merging the buffer also provides a reasonable gain, it is not sufficient for reaching optimal performance.

Through this experiment, we learned more about the mechanics of peer learning and how to overcome its limitations. In the next section, we perform experiments with a standard ensemble strategy (i.e., start training with a shared buffer) to demonstrate the effect of peer learning in practice and its interaction with resets.

Figure 2: **Top**: the effect of buffer merging and resets with replay ratio 16. Vertical lines indicate the step for merging. For each experiment we use 5 seeds and $N = 10$ agents in the ensemble. Performance is averaged across all ensemble member and all seeds. To quantify the effect of buffer merging on the variance within ensembles, we first calculate the standard deviation of the performance within each ensemble and then average over all seeds. Shaded area thus represents this average standard deviation. **Bottom**: individual learning curves from one run in which we merge the buffer and also reset the agents. The individual learning curves are Gaussian smoothed to reduce visual clutter.

5 EXPERIMENTS

Our experimental results can be summarized as follows. First, we verify the strong effect of peer learning by showing that data sharing alone is sufficient to provide a significant gain over just training a single agent, without the use of any additional technique. Second, we show that the primacy bias can damage peer learning and weaken the advantages of ensembles, while resetting ensures the exploitation of their benefits. Then, we present an analysis of the performance distribution within ensemble and also demonstrate the dominance of ensemble methods over single-agent training in terms of sample efficiency. We end with an ablation study of the effect of ensemble size.

5.1 SETUP

We focus on continuous control tasks from the DeepMind Control Suite (Tassa et al., 2018). We select 16 tasks for state-based control and 13 tasks for pixel-based control. Please refer to Appendix A for the full environment lists. For state-based tasks, each algorithm is allowed a budget 1×10^6 environment steps; for pixel-based tasks, we use 2×10^6 environments steps. We use SAC (Haarnoja et al., 2018) and DrQ (Kostrikov et al., 2021) as our base algorithms for the state-based and pixel-based tasks respectively. For each base algorithm X, where X can either be SAC or DrQ, we also consider 3 variants: X + ensemble, X + resets, and X + ensemble + resets. For all experiments we use 10 random seeds.

We use $N = 10$ for all our main results with ensemble. We maintain completely independent ensemble members for SAC, while for DrQ we share the image encoder among ensemble members. The interaction budget is distributed evenly across the ensemble members, so the total number of environment interactions remain the same as when we train a single agent. For evaluation, unless otherwise stated we use the best agent in the ensemble. To avoid bias in the reported results, we perform two independent rounds of evaluation for all ensemble members. We select the best agent based on the first round of evaluation, and report its performance in the second round. Besides using a shared replay buffer, we do not use any additional technique such as policy aggregation or bootstrapping.

For SAC, in order to probe the effect of primacy bias, we experiment with five different replay ratios $\{1, 2, 4, 8, 16\}$. Recently, Anonymous (2022) shows that SAC + resets exhibits scalability

with respect to replay ratio, and thus it would thus also be interesting to see whether this still applies with the addition of ensemble.

Following a similar strategy in Anonymous (2022), when using resets, we set the reset period of SAC according to the replay ratio such that we reset every 1.96×10^6 gradient updates; for DrQ, we reset the whole agent except for the image encoder per 2×10^5 environment steps as done in Nikishin et al. (2022). In all cases, the replay buffers are preserved after each reset. We always skip the last reset to avoid reporting on undertrained agents.

For our main results, we report the point estimates and 95% confidence intervals of the interquartile mean (IQM) (Agarwal et al., 2021) of the evaluation results of the last timestep across all environments. All evaluation uses 10 episodes. Other experimental details can be found in Appendix A

5.2 MAIN RESULTS

Figure 3: Point estimates and 95% confidence intervals for IQM of the performance of SAC, DrQ, and their variants. For SAC, performance is aggregated across 16 environments. For DrQ, performance is aggregated over 13 environments. All results are aggregated over 10 random seeds. Note that for the reset period defined previously, we do not perform resets for replay ratios 1 and 2, and thus there is no difference between SAC and SAC + resets for these two replay ratios and their data points overlap (also true for SAC + ensemble and SAC + ensemble + resets).

Our main results for SAC and DrQ are presented in Figure 3. More results can be found in Appendix C.

Effect of ensemble We first focus on the overall effect of ensemble. As shown in Figure 3, using an ensemble while sharing data always provides a significant gain over just training a single agent, *regardless of the base algorithm, replay ratio, or whether we do resets* (e.g., SAC + ensemble + resets is better than SAC + reset for all replay ratios). This provides strong evidence that data sharing alone is sufficient to provide a significant improvement in performance without the need of any additional tricks, consistent with our prediction in Section 4. This also validates the strong effect of peer learning and its important role in ensemble methods.

Effect of the primacy bias and resets From Figure 3 (left) we can see the impact of the replay ratio when using an ensemble. For low replay ratios such as 1, 2 and 4, SAC + ensemble is able to robustly outperform SAC and SAC + resets. However, as we step into the high replay ratio regime in which the primacy bias becomes severe, the performance of SAC + ensemble starts to degrade and is outperformed by SAC + resets. Note SAC + ensemble still dominates SAC even with replay ratio 16, indicating that the benefits of using an ensemble still exist but are weakened by the primacy bias, likely due to a compound of its damage to the peer learning process as shown in Section 4 and its other the direct negative effects. As we expected, SAC + ensemble + resets does not suffer from the damaged peer learning process even under a high replay ratio like 16 and remains high performing.

Scalability w.r.t. computation Similar to SAC + resets, we see that SAC + ensemble + resets exhibits the same scalability with respect to replay ratio (Anonymous, 2022). However, it is much more high-performing: SAC + ensemble + resets at replay ratio 4 already outperforms SAC + resets

at replay ratio 16, despite the fact that the latter is much more expensive. Besides, it is also more robust, as can be seen from the much narrower confidence intervals. Such high performance and robustness indicate that, beyond the interaction between peer learning and resets that we demonstrate in this work, there might be other interesting interplay between resets and ensemble. For example, resetting is essentially equivalent to introducing new agents, which could potentially improve exploration; or maybe resetting not only just ensures stable peer learning, but also *boosts* peer learning because it restores the agents' plasticity. We leave the investigation of these hypotheses as future work.

5.3 ANALYSIS AND ABLATIONS

Performance distribution within ensemble   So far, the results focus on the performance of the *best* agent in the ensemble. In Section 4, we predict that almost *all* agents in the ensemble will be high-performing due to the effect of peer learning. In Figure 4, we show the results when using the n-th best agent in the ensemble for evaluation, where n ranges from 1 to N. As predicted, most ensemble members are high-performing and stay close to the best agent in the ensemble. This is especially true when resets are applied, in which case the performance distribution of agents of different ranks are highly concentrated. Without resets, the worst and the second worst ensemble members gradually deviate from other members as replay ratio increases, which is likely due to the fact that the peer learning process is damaged by the worsen primacy bias under high replay ratio.

Figure 4: Performance when using n-th best agent in each ensemble for evaluation, where n ranges from 1 to N. Darker color indicates smaller n. All results are aggregated over 10 random seeds. Similar to the process for selecting the best agent, we use two rounds of evaluation. The n-th best agent is selected based on the first round of evaluation, while we report its performance in the second round. Note that due to this evaluation protocol, the reported performance of the i-th best agent could be worst than that of the j-th best agent even if $i < j$, and thus their performance curves with respect to replay ratio can intersect or overlap.

Sample efficiency   Through our experiments in Section 4, we also predicted that due to the constant interaction between diversification and peer learning, the performance of an ensemble will be better than just training a single agent *throughout* the training process. In Figure 5 we show the learning curves of different methods. For SAC we show the results of an intermediate replay ratio 4, and results of other replay ratios can be found in Appendix C. Note that in this case we are reporting average performance within the ensemble for SAC and the performance of first indexed agent for DrQ[2].

From Figure 5 we can see that the dominance of ensemble methods over the single-agent methods often starts from the beginning of the training and continues until the end. This shows that the

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[2]This is mainly due to technical issues like we did not perform two rounds of evaluation for intermediate training steps and that evaluation for DrQ is much more expensive.

Figure 5: Learning curves for SAC (left) and DrQ (right), and their variants. For SAC, we use the average performance within ensemble as the performance of that ensemble; for DrQ, we use the performance of the first indexed agent as the performance of that ensemble. Shaded area indicates 95% bootstrapped confidence interval. All results are aggregated over 10 random seeds.

interaction between diversification and peer learning is a continual process that happens throughout the entire training process.

Ensemble size ablation In Figure 6 we presents an ablation of the ensemble size N. For SAC, we use replay ratio 1 and thus we do not perform resets. For DrQ, we perform resets as it reaches better performance. As shown in the figure, most benefits of using an ensemble can be gained from a small ensemble size of 5, while going to 10 also provides additional, albeit marginal, improvements.

Figure 6: Ensemble size ablation for SAC and DrQ. We report point estimate of the IQM as well as the 95% confidence interval. We report the performance of the best agent based on two rounds of evaluation as previously mentioned. All results are aggregated over 10 random seeds.

6 CONCLUSION

The work studies a crucial element behind the success of many ensemble methods: data sharing between ensemble members. We highlight the powerful peer learning process enabled by data sharing and demonstrate how it improves individual agents' performance. We also identify a failure case of peer learning caused by overtraining on early data, and show that the recently proposed solution of periodic resets robustly alleviates the problem and boosts performance. Our experiments on continuous control tasks from both dense states and pixels demonstrate the strong effect of peer learning and its interaction with resets. We hope our work will encourage the RL community to better recognize the effectiveness of data sharing and fully exploit its potential.

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A GENERAL EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

Table 1: Environment list for SAC and DrQ

SAC	DrQ
`acrobot-swingup`	`acrobot-swingup`
`cartpole-swingup_sparse`	`cartpole-swingup_sparse`
`cheetah-run`	`cheetah-run`
`finger-turn_hard`	`finger-turn_easy`
`fish-swim`	`finger-turn_hard`
`hopper-hop`	`hopper-hop`
`hopper-stand`	`hopper-stand`
`humanoid-run`	`pendulum-swingup`
`humanoid-stand`	`quadruped-run`
`humanoid-walk`	`quadruped-walk`
`pendulum-swingup`	`reacher-easy`
`quadruped-run`	`reacher-hard`
`quadruped-walk`	`walker-run`
`reacher-hard`	
`swimmer-swimmer6`	
`walker-run`	

Our selection of the environments for state-based and pixel-based control are listed in Table 1. We try to include as many commonly used environments as possible while excluding the overly simple environments (e.g., `cartpole-balance`).

The implementation of all our SAC and DrQ variants are based on an open source JAX implementation (Kostrikov, 2021). We adopt all their default hyperparameters except for the replay buffer size of DrQ, for which we use 1×10^6 instead of 1×10^5 as we find it to work much better. For the implementation of resets, we follow the the official implementation from the authors[3]. We implement the parallel computation of the ensembles using the `nn.vmap` function of the Flax (Heek et al., 2020) library.

B DETAILS FOR THE BUFFER MERGING EXPERIMENT

For all experiments we train for a total of 1×10^6 steps. For the first 5×10^5 steps where we perform training with separate buffers, *each* agent will interact with the environment for 5×10^5 steps. For the last 5×10^5 steps, if we continue training with separate buffers, then again each agent will interact with the environment for 5×10^5 steps. However, if we merge buffer, the 5×10^5 interaction steps will be shared across the N agents, i.e., each agent only gets to interact with the environment for $5 \times 10^5 / N$ steps, but in a round-robin way.

Also, upon merging we subsample the shared replay buffer by N. For example, with $N = 10$ the shared buffer will contain $10 \times 5 \times 10^5 = 5 \times 10^6$ samples (merged from the 10 separate replay buffers), which we will downsample to 5×10^5 samples.

For each environment and setting we use 5 seeds and $N = 10$ agents in the ensemble. Reported results is thus average over 50 agents.

C ADDITIONAL RESULTS FOR THE MAIN EXPERIMENT

For all sample efficiency curves, 1) for SAC, we use the average of all ensemble members within the ensemble as the ensemble's reported performance 2) for DrQ, we use the first indexed agent for evaluation

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[3] `https://github.com/evgenii-nikishin/rl_with_resets`

SAC In Figure 7 we show the aggregate sample efficiency curves for each replay ratio. In Figure 8, 9, 10, 11, 12 we show the per-environment results for different replay ratios.

DrQ In Figure 13 we show the per-environment results for DrQ.

Figure 7: Per replay ratio sample efficiency curves for SAC

Figure 8: Per-environment results for SAC with replay ratio 1

Figure 9: Per-environment results for SAC with replay ratio 2

Figure 10: Per-environment results for SAC with replay ratio 4

Figure 11: Per-environment results for SAC with replay ratio 8

Figure 12: Per-environment results for SAC with replay ratio 16

Figure 13: Per-environment results for DrQ

D ADDITIONAL RESULTS FOR THE BUFFER MERGING EXPERIMENT

We show results for all 16 environments for the buffer merging environment in Figure 14 and Figure 15 for replay ratio 1 and replay ratio 16, respectively. Note that the sudden merging can have negative impacts on some environments, with the most obvious being the `humanoid` tasks. We hypothesize that this is due to negative effect of the sudden exposure to off-policy data. Note however these experiments are for demonstration purposes only. In practice people will use a shared replay buffer throughout training so this issue will not exist.

Figure 14: Per-environment results for the buffer merging experiment with replay ratio 1

Figure 15: Per-environment results for the buffer merging experiment with replay ratio 16