SAMPLE-EFFICIENT AUTOMATED DEEP REINFORCEMENT LEARNING

ABSTRACT

Despite significant progress in challenging problems across various domains, applying state-of-the-art deep reinforcement learning (RL) algorithms remains challenging due to their sensitivity to the choice of hyperparameters. This sensitivity can partly be attributed to the non-stationarity of the RL problem, potentially requiring different hyperparameter settings at various stages of the learning process. Additionally, in the RL setting, hyperparameter optimization (HPO) requires a large number of environment interactions, hindering the transfer of the successes in RL to real-world applications. In this work, we tackle the issues of sample-efficient and dynamic HPO in RL. We propose a population-based automated RL (AutoRL) framework to meta-optimize arbitrary off-policy RL algorithms. In this framework, we optimize the hyperparameters and also the neural architecture while simultaneously training the agent. By sharing the collected experience across the population, we substantially increase the sample efficiency of the meta-optimization. We demonstrate the capabilities of our sample-efficient AutoRL approach in a case study with the popular TD3 algorithm in the MuJoCo benchmark suite, where we reduce the number of environment interactions needed for meta-optimization by up to an order of magnitude compared to population-based training.

1 INTRODUCTION

Deep reinforcement learning (RL) algorithms are often sensitive to the choice of internal hyperparameters (Jaderberg et al., 2017; Mahmood et al., 2018), and the hyperparameters of the neural network architecture (Islam et al., 2017; Henderson et al., 2018), hindering them from being applied out-of-the-box to new environments. Tuning hyperparameters of RL algorithms can quickly become very expensive, both in terms of high computational costs and a large number of required environment interactions. Especially in real-world applications, sample efficiency is crucial (Lee et al., 2019).

Hyperparameter optimization (HPO; Snoek et al., 2012; Feurer & Hutter, 2019) approaches often treat the algorithm under optimization as a black-box, which in the setting of RL requires a full training run every time a configuration is evaluated. This leads to a suboptimal sample efficiency in terms of environment interactions. Another pitfall for HPO is the non-stationarity of the RL problem. Hyperparameter settings optimal at the beginning of the learning phase can become unfavorable or even harmful in later stages (François-Lavet et al., 2015). This issue can be addressed through dynamic configuration, either through self adaptation (Tokic & Palm, 2011; François-Lavet et al., 2015; Tokic, 2010) or through external adaptation as in population-based training (PBT; Jaderberg et al., 2017). While current dynamic configuration approaches can handle the non-stationarity of the hyperparameter settings, they substantially increase the number of environment interactions. Furthermore, this prior work does not consider adapting the neural architecture.

In this work, we introduce a simple meta-optimization framework for *Sample-Efficient Automated RL (SEARL)* to address all three challenges: sample-efficient HPO, dynamic configuration, and the dynamic modification of the neural architecture. The foundation of our approach is a joint optimization of an off-policy RL agent and its hyperparameters using an evolutionary approach. To reduce the total amount of required environment interactions, we use a shared replay memory across the whole population of different configured RL algorithms. This allows RL agents to learn better policies due to the diverse collection of experience and enables us to perform AutoRL at practically the same amount of environment interactions as training a single configuration. Further,

SEARL preserves the benefits of dynamic configuration present in PBT, enabling adaptive online HPO. SEARL discovers a schedule of hyperparameter configurations rather than a single static configuration. Our approach uses evolvable neural networks that preserve trained network parameters while adapting their architecture. We emphasize that SEARL is simple to use and allows efficient AutoRL for any off-policy deep RL algorithm.

In a case study, including extensive ablation and analytic experiments, we demonstrate the benefits of our framework and each of its components. Optimizing the popular TD3 algorithm (Fujimoto et al., 2018) in the MuJoCo benchmark suite (Todorov et al., 2012), our experiments show a $10\times$ improvement in sample efficiency of the meta-optimization compared to random search and PBT. We provide an open-source implementation of SEARL and this case study. [1] In detail, our contributions are:

- We introduce an AutoRL framework for off-policy RL which enables: (i) Sample-efficient HPO while training a population of RL agents using a shared replay memory. (ii) Dynamic optimization of hyperparameters to adjust to different training phases; (iii) Online neural architecture search in the context of gradient-based deep RL;

- We propose a fair evaluation protocol to compare AutoRL and HPO in RL, taking into account the actual cost in terms of environment interactions.

- We demonstrate the benefits of SEARL in a case study, reducing the number of environment interactions by up to an order of magnitude.

2 RELATED WORK

ERL/PDERL/CERL: Evolutionary RL (ERL) introduced by Khadka & Tumer (2018) and successors PDERL (Bodnar et al., 2020) and CERL (Khadka et al., 2019) combine Actor-Critic RL algorithms with genetic algorithms to evolve a small population of agents. This line of work mutates policies to increase the diversity of collected sample trajectories. The experience is stored in a shared replay memory and used to train an Actor-Critic learner with fixed network architectures using DDPG/TD3 while periodically adding the trained actor to a separate population of evolved actors. CERL extends this approach by using a whole population of learners with varying discount rates. However, this line of work aims to increase a single configuration's performance, while our work optimizes hyperparameters and the neural architecture while training multiple agents. SEARL also benefits from a diverse set of mutated actors collecting experience in a shared replay memory.

ApeX/IMPALA: Resource utilization in the RL setting can be improved using multiple actors in a distributed setup and decoupling the learner from the actor. Horgan et al. (2018) extends a prioritized replay memory to a distributed setting (Ape-X) to scale experience collection for a replay memory used by a single trainer. In IMPALA (Espeholt et al., 2018), multiple rollout actors asynchronously send their collected trajectories to a central learner through a queue. To correct the policy lag that this distributed setup introduces, IMPALA leverages the proposed V-trace algorithm for the central learner. These works aim at collecting large amounts of experience to benefit the learner, but they do not explore the space of hyperparameter configurations. In contrast, the presented work aims to reduce the number of environment interactions to perform efficient AutoRL.

AutoRL: Within the framework of AutoRL, the joint hyperparameter optimization and architecture search problem is addressed as a two-stage optimization problem in Chiang et al. (2019), first shaping the reward function and optimizing for the network architecture afterward. Similarly, Runge et al. (2019) propose to jointly optimize algorithm hyperparameters and network architectures by searching over the joint space. Faust et al. (2019) uses an evolutionary approach to optimize a parametrized reward function based on which fixed network topologies are trained using standard RL algorithms, treating the RL algorithm together with a sampled reward function as a black-box optimizer. In this work, we do not use parametrized reward functions, but instead, directly optimize the environment reward. However, the main difference to this line of work is sample efficiency: While they train and evaluate thousands of configurations from scratch, we dynamically adapt the architecture and RL-algorithm hyperparameters online, thereby drastically reducing the total amount of environment interactions required for the algorithm to achieve good performance on a given task.

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[1]Please find the source code in the supplementary material. It will be released on GitHub after acceptance.

HOOF: Paul et al. (2019) proposes sample-efficient hyperparameter tuning for policy gradient methods by greedily maximizing the value of a set of candidate policies at each iteration. In contrast to our work, they perform HPO for on-policy algorithms that do not achieve comparable performance on continuous control tasks while requiring more environment interactions. Further, they do not consider architecture optimization.

Population-Based Training (PBT): PBT (Jaderberg et al., 2017) is a widely used dynamic and asynchronous optimization algorithm. This approach adapts a population of different hyperparameter settings online and in parallel during training, periodically replacing inferior members of the population with more promising members. Similarly to SEARL, PBT can jointly optimize the RL agent and its hyperparameters online, making it the most closely related work. In contrast to SEARL, PBT does not optimize the architecture and, more importantly, does not share experience within the population. As our experiments show, these advances lead to speedups of up to 10x in terms of sample efficiency.

3   SAMPLE-EFFICIENT AUTORL

In this section, we introduce a *Sample-Efficient framework for Automated Reinforcement Learning (SEARL)* based on an evolutionary algorithm acting on hyperparameters and gradient-based training using a shared experience replay. First, we discuss relevant background that describes SEARL building blocks before giving an overview of the proposed AutoRL framework, followed by a detailed description of each individual component.

3.1   BACKGROUND

Evolvable neural network: Using evolutionary algorithms to design neural networks, called Neuroevolution (Floreano et al., 2008; Stanley et al., 2019), is a long-standing approach. Some approaches only optimize the network weights (Such et al., 2017), while others optimize architectures and weights jointly (Zhang & Mühlenbein, 1993; Stanley & Miikkulainen, 2002; Stanley et al., 2009). To evolve the neural network in SEARL, we encode RL agent's neural architectures by the number of layers and the nodes per layer, similar to (Miikkulainen et al., 2019). When adding a new node to a layer, the existing parameters are copied, and only the newly added parameters are initialized with a small magnitude. This is a common technique to preserve already trained network parameters (Wei et al., 2016; Miikkulainen et al., 2019).

Shared experience replay: Replaying collected experiences (Lin, 1992; Mnih et al., 2015) smooths the training distribution over many past rollouts. The experience replay acts as a store for experience collected by agents interacting with the environment. Deep RL algorithms can sample from this storage to calculate gradient-based updates for the neural networks. It has been used and extended in various flavors, often to make use of diverse experience or experience collected in parallel (Horgan et al., 2018; Khadka & Tumer, 2018; Bodnar et al., 2020; Khadka et al., 2019). SEARL employs a shared experience replay, which stores the diverse trajectories of all differently configured RL agents in the population so that each individual can benefit from the collective experiences during training.

3.2   FRAMEWORK

In SEARL, each individual in our population represents a deep reinforcement learning agent consisting of a policy and value network and the RL training algorithm hyperparameters, including the neural network architecture. The training and meta-optimization of these individuals take place in an evolutionary loop that consists of five basic phases (initialization, evaluation, selection, mutation, and training), as shown in Figure 1. During one epoch of this evolutionary loop, all individual properties could change through different mutations and training operators. This happens independently for each individual and can be processed in parallel.

A novel feature of our approach is that rollouts of each individual are not only used for evaluation and selection purposes but also serve as experience for off-policy training of all agents and are stored in a shared replay memory. When changing the architecture, we follow the approach of *Lamarckian* evolution (Ross, 1999), where the updated weights of an agent during training are not only used in the evaluation phase but are preserved for the next generation. In the following, we describe the different

phases of our evolutionary loop in detail; we refer the reader to Appendix B for detailed pseudocode of the algorithm.

Initialization: SEARL uses a population pop, of N individuals, each consisting of an RL agent A_i, and its hyperparameter settings $\boldsymbol{\theta}_i$. Thus, we can represent pop_g at each generation g as follows:

$$pop_g = (\{A_1, \boldsymbol{\theta}_1\}_g, \{A_2, \boldsymbol{\theta}_2\}_g, ..., \{A_N, \boldsymbol{\theta}_N\}_g) \tag{1}$$

The individual's hyperparameter setting $\boldsymbol{\theta}_i$ is composed of architecture hyperparameters, such as the number of layers or the layer sizes, and algorithm hyperparameters, such as the learning rate. To arrive at a minimum viable neural network size, we start with reasonably small neural network architecture and enable its growth by using mutation operators. Other hyperparameters are set to some initial value, as they are subsequently adapted in the evolutionary loop.

Evaluation: After initialization and after each training phase, we evaluate each individual in the population using the RL agent, A_i, for at least one episode or a minimum number of steps in the environment. This ensures a minimum amount of new experience from each agent and keeps the stored trajectories in the shared replay memory diverse. The evaluation can be performed in parallel since each agent acts independently. We use the mean reward of the individual's evaluation as fitness value f_i.

Selection: We use tournament selection with elitism (Miller & Goldberg, 1995) for each prospective slot in the population of the new generation. For each tournament, k individuals are randomly chosen from the current population pop_g, and the individual with the largest fitness value f_i is selected for the slot. We repeat this tournament $N - 1$ times to fill all slots. The size k allows us to control how greedily the selection mechanism picks candidates for the new population. We reserve one spot in the new population for the current population's best-performing individual, thus preserving it across generations.

Figure 1: Overview of Sample-efficient AutoRL (SEARL).

Mutation: To explore the space of network weights and hyperparameters, we use different single-parent mutation operators. We apply one of the following operators uniformly at random to each member: (1) Mutation of the weights of the neural networks by adding Gaussian noise. (2) Change of activation function of the neural network. (3) Change of the neural network size by either adding additional nodes to a given layer or adding a new layer altogether while reusing the trained weights and initializing new weights randomly. (4) Change of algorithm hyperparameters. (5) No operation. We refer the reader to Appendix A for more details.

Training: Using each individual's current hyperparameters, we train it by sampling from the shared replay memory. Each individual is trained for as many steps as frames have been generated in the evaluation phase. Optionally, the training time could be reduced by using only a fraction j of the steps. Since the neural network size could be subject to mutation between two training phases, the target network of the RL algorithm needs to be adapted too. Furthermore, the optimizer weight-parameters connected to individual network weights cannot remain the same across generations. We address these issues by creating a new target network and re-initializing the optimizer at the beginning of each training phase. Our experiments show that this re-creation and re-initialization does not harm the performance of the considered RL algorithm. Please find more details in Appendix C. Like the evaluation phase, the training can be performed in parallel since every individual is trained independently.

Shared experience replay: A shared experience replay memory collects trajectories from all evaluations and provides a diverse set of samples for each agent during the training phase. This helps to improve training speed and reduces the potential of over-fitting.

4 CASE STUDY: META-OPTIMIZATION OF TD3

In this section, we demonstrate the capabilities and benefits of SEARL. We simulate the meta-optimization of the Twin Delayed Deep Deterministic Policy Gradient algorithm (TD3; Fujimoto et al., 2018) on the widely used MuJoCo continuous control benchmark suite (Todorov et al., 2012). A well-performing hyperparameter configuration on MuJoCo is known, even though the optimization of TD3's hyperparameters is unreported. This makes up a useful setting to investigate meta-optimization with SEARL compared to unknown algorithms or environments.

To study SEARL, we assume *zero* prior knowledge about the optimal hyperparameter configuration and compare SEARL against two plausible baselines. All meta-algorithms are tasked with optimizing network architecture, activations, and learning rates of the actor and the critic. Following Fujimoto et al. (2018), we evaluate all methods on the following MuJoCo environments: `HalfCheetah`, `Walker2D`, `Ant`, `Hopper` and `Reacher`. In general, other off-policy RL algorithms could also be optimized using SEARL due to the generality of our framework.

4.1 BASELINES

Since there is no directly comparable approach for efficient AutoRL (see Section 2), we compare SEARL to random search and a modified version of PBT that allows for architecture adaption. As RL is sensitive to the choice of hyperparameters, the design of the configuration space matters. To allow for a fair comparison, we keep the search spaces for all methods similar; see Appendix D.

Random Search: Random search makes no assumptions on the algorithm and is a widely used baseline for HPO (Feurer & Hutter, 2019). We sample 20 random configurations and train TD3 using each configuration without any online architecture or hyperparameters changes for $1M$ frames. We select the configuration that resulted in the best training performance and evaluate it with 10 different random seeds to obtain its validation performance.

Modified Population-Based Training: To fairly compare PBT with our proposed approach, we modify PBT to be able to adapt the neural architecture of the networks. We perform the same mutations to the activation function and neural network size as in SEARL (Section 3.2). This modification is required for a fair comparison since using an arbitrary fixed network size could compromise PBT's performance. On the other hand, using the network size reported by Fujimoto et al. (2018) would not take into account any potential HPO due to an unknown budget. In other aspects, we follow Jaderberg et al. (2017), e.g., initializing the population by sampling from the configuration space uniformly at random. We train and evaluate a population of 20 agents for 100 generations. In every generation, the agents are trained and evaluated for 10 000 steps each.

4.2 SEARL FOR TD3

Since we evolve actor and critic networks over time, we start with a one-layer neural network with 128 hidden nodes, which represents the lower bound of the search space defined in Appendix D. In an experiment investigating random initialization, we found no benefit of a more diverse starting population; please find details in Appendix E. For the remaining hyperparameters, we chose a commonly used configuration consisting of $ReLU$ activation. We use the Adam default value ($1e^{-3}$) (Kingma & Ba, 2015) as an initial learning rate. Similar to the PBT baseline, we used 20 workers.

We evaluate using one complete episode for rollouts or at least 250 steps in the environment. This results in at least 5 000 new environment interactions stored in total in the shared replay memory each generation. To select a new population, we use a tournament size of $k = 3$. After mutation, we train the individuals with samples from the shared replay memory for $j = 0.5$ times the number of environment interactions of the whole population during evaluation in this generation. We run SEARL for a total of 2 million environment interactions. This results in 1 million training updates for each individual in the population, similar to random search and PBT. We provide a detailed table of the full configuration in Appendix F.

Figure 2: Performance comparison of SEARL, modified PBT, and random search regarding the required total steps in the environment. Random search and modified PBT require an order of magnitude more steps in the environment to reach the same reward as SEARL. The blue line depicts SEARL, the green line of modified PBT, and the red line of random search. All approaches are evaluated over 10 random seeds. The x-axis shows the required environment interactions in log-scale. Dashed lines are performances of the different seeds and the shaded area of the standard deviation.

4.3 FAIR EVALUATION PROTOCOL FOR HPO IN RL

Standard evaluation of RL agents commonly shows the achieved cumulative reward in an episode after interacting with the environment for N steps. It is common practice to only report the best configuration's rewards found by an offline or online meta-optimization algorithm. However, this hides the much larger number of environment interactions needed to find this well-performing configuration. In contrast, we argue that the interaction counter should start ticking immediately as we tackle a new task or environment. Such a fair reporting of meta-optimization could also increase the comparability of approaches (Feurer & Hutter, 2019).

As there is no convention on how to display the performance of meta-learning while taking into account the total amount of environment interactions as described above, we opt for the following simple presentation: When reporting the meta-optimization effort, every environment interaction used for the meta-optimization process should be counted when reporting the performance at any given time. In the case of offline meta-optimization efforts as in random search trials, this translates to multiplying the number of interactions of the best configuration's performance curve by the number of trials used to arrive at this configuration.

4.4 RESULTS & DISCUSSION

Comparison to baselines: In Figure 2, we compare the mean performance of SEARL to random search and our modified version of PBT when training the TD3 agent and tuning its algorithm and architecture hyperparameters. We report the results following the evaluation outlined in 4.3.

SEARL outperforms random search and modified PBT in terms of environment interactions with up to $10\times$ faster convergence in each task, which indicates a significant gain in the sample efficiency of our approach. We want to stress that individuals within the population do not get to use single experience samples more often during training compared with the modified PBT setup. The substantial increase in sample efficiency for meta-optimization is mainly due to the fact that individual experience samples get re-used more often during the training phase across the whole population. This gained efficiency of the individual learning agents can compensate the overhead of the meta-optimization, which

Figure 3: Comparison of the mean performance over 10 random seeds of SEARL (blue line) against 10 randomly sampled configurations of TD3, evaluated over 10 random seeds (red) over 2M environment frames. The shaded area represents the standard deviation.

allows us to get a strong hyperparameter configuration in only two times the environment interactions compared to the reported *final* performance in the TD3 paper.

Furthermore, in Figure 2, we see that SEARL outperforms random search in two and modified PBT in four out of five tasks in terms of the final performance, while clearly dominating in terms of anytime performance. In the other tasks, SEARL is on par with the baselines, and we often see a smaller standard deviation in performance, which could indicate that SEARL is robust to random seeds. However, SEARL and PBT struggles on `Reacher` in comparison to random search. The lower performance on `Reacher` could be attributed to the very short episode length of this environment. TD3 can cope with this setup due to frequent training updates. However, in SEARL and other evolutionary approaches like ERL, where a fixed number of samples is collected, this could harm the performance since the training updates become less frequent.

Performance in the Search Space: In Figure 3, we evaluate the single-run performance of SEARL in the search space of TD3 random search. We plot the mean performance over 10 random seeds for a single SEARL run and 10 sampled TD3 configurations over 10 random seeds each. The TD3 configurations run for $2M$ environment frames similar to SEARL and in contrast to $1M$ frames in the upper experiment. We observe that SEARL matches the performance of the favorable part of the search space even within the same number of environment steps as a single TD3 run, again only struggling on `Reacher`. This indicates that SEARL evolves effective configuration schedules during training, even when starting with a population consisting of a single hyperparameter setting using a small one-layer neural network architecture.

Dynamic Configuration: We show exemplary hyperparameter schedules discovered by SEARL on the HalfCheetah task in Figure 4. In the first 500 000 environment interactions, SEARL quite quickly increases the network size of the TD3 agents to values, which are more in line with commonly reported network architectures used for strong results on MuJoCo's HalfCheetah task. Afterward, the architecture size is increased more slowly, before it saturates after approximately 1M environment interactions. This shows that SEARL can adapt the network architecture starting from a relatively small network size and prevents further increases in size once the network capacity is sufficient. The learning rates are shown in the lower part of Figure 4 for both the actor and the critic networks, and can be seen to slowly decrease over time. Similar schedules can be observed on other benchmarks, which can be found in Appendix G.

Ablation Study: To determine how the individual parts of our proposed method influence performance, we conducted an ablation study, which is shown in Figure 5. The ablation study clearly shows

Figure 4: SEARL changes of network size (top) and actor/critic learning rate (bottom, red/blue) across the population in the HalfCheetah environment.

Figure 5: Ablation study on different features of SEARL normalized to the default performance and averaged across all tasks. Disabling experience sharing results in a significant drop in performance.

that disabling shared experience replay harms the performance most severely. Also, the other aspects of SEARL are beneficial in the mean. While some tasks benefit strongly from architecture adaption, others benefit more from additional parameter mutation. For further details and plots for all tasks separately, we refer the reader to Appendix H.

To test the generality of SEARL, we conducted a held-out experiment. SEARL performs better or on-par on four out of five environments compared with a held-out tuned TD3 configuration, demonstrating the generalization capabilities of SEARL across different environments. Details can be found in Appendix I.

SEARL for *On-Policy* Deep RL: The meta-optimization of on-policy algorithms using SEARL would most likely *not* show the same benefits in sample efficiency due to the high impact of the shared experience replay. Nonetheless, we expect that the dynamic configuration of the algorithm and network architecture hyperparameters would still positively impact on-policy algorithms. Another option would be to incorporate the choice of the deep RL algorithm being optimized as an additional hyperparameter for each individual, thus allowing multiple RL algorithms to be optimized.

Computational Effort: SEARL requires less compute to optimize an agent than a random search or PBT. This has two reasons: (A) As shown in Figure 2, SEARL requires up to 10 times fewer environment interactions. (B) SEARL evolves a neural network starting with a small network size, which reduces computational costs at the beginning of the meta-optimization. Even though all compared methods can run in parallel, random search and PBT can run asynchronously, while SEARL has an evolutionary loop that requires synchronicity, at least in our current implementation.

5 CONCLUSION

Advances in AutoRL dispose of the required manual tuning of an RL algorithm's hyperparameters. Besides the general benefits of automated optimization, like fair comparability of different algorithms (Feurer & Hutter, 2019), more automation in the HPO of RL algorithms leads to improved sample efficiency. This could make algorithms more viable in real-world applications.

Following these desiderata, we proposed SEARL, a sample-efficient AutoRL framework. SEARL performs an efficient and robust training of any off-policy RL algorithm while simultaneously tuning the algorithm and architecture hyperparameters. This allows SEARL to discover effective configuration schedules, addressing the non-stationarity of the RL problem. We demonstrated the effectiveness of our framework by meta-optimizing TD3 in the MuJoCo benchmark suite, *requiring up to an order of magnitude fewer interactions* in the environment than random search and PBT while matching or improving their final performance in 4 out of 5 environments.

The improvement in sample efficiency can be attributed mainly to the use of shared replay experiences when training the population of agents and allows us to perform AutoRL almost *for free*. SEARL required only twice the number of environment interactions as a single TD3 run (without HPO) while simultaneously training agents and performing a dynamic hyperparameter optimization.

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