
A Benchmark for Low-Switching-Cost Reinforcement Learning

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Abstract

1 A ubiquitous requirement in many practical reinforcement learning (RL) applica-
2 tions, including medical treatment, recommendation system, education and robotics,
3 is that the deployed policy that actually interacts with the environment cannot
4 change frequently. Such an RL setting is called low-switching-cost RL, i.e., achiev-
5 ing the highest reward while reducing the number of policy switches during training.
6 Despite the recent trend of theoretical studies aiming to design provably efficient
7 RL algorithms with low switching costs, none of the existing approaches have been
8 thoroughly evaluated in popular RL testbeds. In this paper, we systematically stud-
9 ied a wide collection of policy-switching approaches, including theoretically guided
10 criteria, policy-difference-based methods, and non-adaptive baselines. Through
11 extensive experiments on a medical treatment environment, the Atari games, and
12 robotic control tasks, we present the first empirical benchmark for low-switching-
13 cost RL and report novel findings on how to decrease the switching cost while
14 maintain a similar sample efficiency to the case without the low-switching-cost
15 constraint. We hope this benchmark could serve as a starting point for developing
16 more practically effective low-switching-cost RL algorithms. We release our code
17 and complete results in <https://sites.google.com/view/low-switching-cost-rl>.

18 1 Introduction

19 Reinforcement Learning (RL) has been successfully applied to solve sequential-decision problems in
20 many real-world scenarios, such as medical domains [15], robotics [7, 11], hardware placements [19,
21 18], and personalized recommendation [27]. In these scenarios, it is often desirable to restrict the
22 agent from adjusting its policy too often due to the high costs and risks of deployment. For example,
23 changing a policy in medical domains requires a thorough approval process by human experts [2];
24 changing policies on robots can be associated with additional risks [7]. In these settings, it is a
25 requirement that the deployed policy, i.e., the policy used to interact with the environment, could
26 keep unchanged as much as possible. Formally, we would like our RL algorithm to both produce a
27 policy with the highest reward and at the same time reduce the number of deployed policy switches
28 (i.e., a low *switching cost*) throughout the training process.

29 Offline reinforcement learning [14] is perhaps the most related framework in the existing literature
30 that also has a capability of avoiding frequent policy deployment. Offline RL assumes a given
31 transition dataset and performs RL training completely in an offline fashion without interacting
32 with the environment at all. [17] adopt a slightly weaker offline assumption by repeating the offline

33 training procedure, i.e., re-collecting transition data using the current policy and re-applying offline
34 RL training on the collected data, for about 10 times. However, similar to the standard offline RL
35 methods, due to such an extreme low-deployment-constraint, the proposed method suffers from a
36 particularly low sample efficiency and even produces significantly lower rewards than online SAC
37 method in many cases [17]. In contrast with offline RL, which optimizes the reward subject to a
38 minimal switching cost, low-switching-cost RL aims to *reduce the switching cost while maintain a*
39 *similar sample efficiency and final reward* compared to its unconstrained RL counterpart.

40 In low-switching-cost RL, the central question is *how to design a criterion to decide when to update*
41 *the deployed policy* based on the current training process. Ideally, we would like this criterion to
42 satisfy the following four properties:

- 43 1. **Low switching cost:** This is the fundamental mission. An RL algorithm equipped with this
44 policy switching criterion should have a reduced frequency to update the deployed policy.
- 45 2. **High reward:** Since the deployed policy can be different from the training one, the collected
46 data can be highly off-policy. We need this criterion to deploy policies at the right timing so
47 that the collected samples can be still sufficient for finally achieving the optimal reward.
- 48 3. **Sample efficiency:** In addition to the final reward, we also would like the algorithm equipped
49 with such a criterion to produce a similar sample efficiency to the unconstrained RL setting
50 without the low-switching-cost requirement.
- 51 4. **Generality:** We would like this criterion can be easily applied to a wide range of domains
52 rather than a specific task.

53 From the theoretical side, low-switching-cost RL and its simplified bandit setting have been exten-
54 sively studied [3, 5, 4, 21, 6, 25, 26]. The core notion in these theoretical methods is *information*
55 *gain*. Specifically, they update the deployed policy only if the measurement of information gain is
56 doubled, which also leads to optimality bounds for the final policy rewards. We suggest the readers
57 refer to the original papers for details of the theoretical results. We will also present algorithmic
58 details later in Section 4.4.

59 However, to our knowledge, there has been no empirical study on whether these theoretically-guided
60 criteria are in fact effective in popular RL testbeds. In this paper, we aim to provide systematic
61 benchmark studies on different policy switching criteria from an empirical point of view. Our
62 contributions are summarized below.

63 **Our Contributions**

- 64 • We conduct the first empirical study for low-switching-cost RL on environments that require
65 modern RL algorithms, i.e., Rainbow [9] and SAC [8], including a medical environment, 56
66 Atari games¹ and 6 MuJoCo control tasks. We test theoretically guided policy switching
67 criteria based on the information gain as well as other adaptive and non-adaptive criteria.
- 68 • We find that a feature-based criterion produces the best overall quantitative performance.
69 Surprisingly, the non-adaptive switching criterion serves as a particularly strong baseline in
70 all the scenarios and largely outperforms the theoretically guided ones.
- 71 • Through extensive experiments, we summarize practical suggestions for RL algorithms with
72 with low switching cost, which will be beneficial for practitioners and future research.

73 **2 Related Work**

74 Low switching cost algorithms were first studied in the bandit setting [3, 5]. Existing work on RL
75 with low switching cost is mostly theoretical. To our knowledge, [4] is the first work that studies this
76 problem for the episodic finite-horizon tabular RL setting. [4] gave a low-regret algorithm with an
77 $O(H^3 SA \log(K))$ local switching upper bound where S is the number of states, A is the number
78 of actions, H is the planning horizon and K is the number of episodes the agent plays. The upper
79 bound was improved in [26, 25].

¹There are a total of 57 Atari games. However, only 56 of them (excluding the “surround” game) are supported by the atari-py package, which we adopt as our RL training interface.

80 Offline RL (also called Batch RL) can be viewed as a close but parallel variant of low-switching-cost
 81 RL, where the policy does not interact with the environment at all and therefore does not incur any
 82 switching cost. Offline RL methods typically learn from a given dataset [13, 14], and have been
 83 applied to many domains including education [16], dialogue systems [10] and robotics control [12].
 84 Some methods interpolate offline and online methods, i.e., semi-batch RL algorithms [22, 13], which
 85 update the policy many times on a large batch of transitions. However, reducing the switching
 86 cost during training is not their focus. [17] developed the only empirical RL method that tries to
 87 reduce the switching cost without the need of a given offline dataset. Given a fixed number of policy
 88 deployments (i.e., 10), the proposed algorithm collects transition data using a fixed deployed policy,
 89 trains an ensemble of transition models and updated a new deployed policy via model-based RL for
 90 the next deployment iteration. However, even though the proposed model-based RL method in [17]
 91 outperforms a collection of offline RL baselines, the final rewards are still substantially lower than
 92 standard online SAC even after consuming an order of magnitude more training samples. In our work,
 93 we focus on the effectiveness of the policy switching criterion such that the overall sample efficiency
 94 and final performances can be both preserved.

95 3 Preliminaries

96 **Markov Decision Process:** We consider the Markov decision model $(\mathcal{S}, \mathcal{A}, \gamma, r, p_0, P)$, where
 97 \mathcal{S} is the state space, \mathcal{A} is the action space, γ is the discounted factor, $r : \mathcal{S} \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is the
 98 reward function, p_0 is the initial state distribution, and $P(x'|x, a)$ denotes the transition probability
 99 from state x to state x' after taking action a . A policy $\pi : \mathcal{S} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ is a mapping from a state to
 100 an action, which can be either deterministic or stochastic. An episode starts with an initial state
 101 $x_0 \sim p_0$. At each step h in this episode, the agent chooses an action a_h from $\pi(x_h)$ based on
 102 the current state x_h , receives a reward $r(x_h, a_h)$ and moves to the next state $x_{h+1} \sim P(\cdot|x_h, a_h)$.
 103 We assume an episode will always terminate, so each episode $e = \{(x_h^e, a_h^e) | 0 \leq h \leq H_e\}$ will
 104 always have a finite horizon H_e (e.g., most practical RL environments have a maximum episode
 105 length H_{\max}). The goal of the agent is to find a policy π^* which maximizes the discounted expected
 106 reward, $\pi^* = \arg \max_{\pi} \mathbb{E}_e \left[\sum_{h=0}^{H_e} \gamma^h r(x_h^e, a_h^e) \right]$. Let K denote the total transitions that the agent
 107 experienced across all the episodes during training. Ideally, we also want the agent to consume as
 108 few training samples as possible, i.e., a minimal K , to learn π^* . A Q-function is used to evaluate the
 109 long-term value for the action a and subsequent decisions, which can be defined w.r.t. a policy π by

$$Q^\pi(x, a) := r(x, a) + \mathbb{E} \left[\sum_h \gamma^h r(x_h, \pi(x_h)) \mid x_0 = x, a_0 = a \right]. \quad (1)$$

110 **Deep Off-policy Reinforcement Learning:** Deep Q-learning (DQN) [20] is perhaps the most
 111 popular off-policy RL algorithm leveraging a deep neural network to approximate $Q(x, a)$. Given the
 112 current state x_h , the agent selects an action a_h greedily based on parameterized Q-function $Q_\theta(x_h, a)$
 113 and maintain all the transition data in the replay buffer. For each training step, the temporal difference
 114 error is minimized over a batch of transitions sampled from this buffer by

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \mathbb{E} \left[(r_{h+1} + \gamma \max_{a'} Q_{\bar{\theta}}(x_{h+1}, a') - Q_\theta(x_h, a_h))^2 \right], \quad (2)$$

115 where $\bar{\theta}$ represents the parameters of the target Q-network, which is periodically updated from θ .
 116 Rainbow [9] is perhaps the most famous DQN variant, which combines six algorithmic enhancements
 117 and achieves strong and stable performances on most Atari games. In this paper, we adopt a
 118 deterministic version² of Rainbow DQN as the RL algorithm for the discrete action domains. We
 119 also adopt count-based exploration [23] as a deterministic exploration bonus.

120 For continuous action domains, soft actor-critic (SAC) [8] is the representative off-policy RL algo-
 121 rithm. SAC uses neural networks parameterized by θ to approximate both $Q(s, a)$ and the stochastic
 122 policy $\pi_\theta(a|s)$. Q-network is trained to approximate entropy-regularized expected return by minimiz-
 123 ing

$$\mathcal{L}_Q(\theta) = \mathbb{E} \left[(r_h + \gamma(Q_{\bar{\theta}}(x_{h+1}, a') - \alpha \log \pi(a'|x_{h+1})) - Q_\theta(x_h, a_h))^2 | a' \sim \pi(\cdot|x_{h+1}) \right], \quad (3)$$

²Standard Rainbow adds random noise to network parameters for exploration, which can be viewed as constantly switching policies over a random network ensemble. This contradicts the low-switching-cost constraint.

Algorithm 1 General Workflow of Low-Switching-Cost RL

```
1: Initialize parameters  $\theta_{\text{onl}}, \theta_{\text{dep}}$ , an empty replay buffer  $D$ ,  $C_{\text{switch}} \leftarrow 0$ 
2: for  $k \leftarrow 0$  to  $K - 1$  do
3:   Select  $a_k$  by  $\pi_{\text{dep}}(x_k)$ , execute action  $a_k$  and observe reward  $r_k$ , state  $x_{k+1}$ 
4:   Store  $(x_k, a_k, r_k, x_{k+1})$  in  $D$ 
5:   Update  $\theta_{\text{onl}}$  using  $D$  and an off-policy RL algorithm
6:   if  $\mathcal{J}(\star) == \text{true}$  then
7:     Update  $\theta_{\text{dep}} \leftarrow \theta_{\text{onl}}$ ,  $C_{\text{switch}} \leftarrow C_{\text{switch}} + 1$ 
8:   end if
9: end for
```

124 where α is the entropy coefficient. We omit the parameterization of π since π is not updated w.r.t \mathcal{L}_Q .
125 The policy network π_θ is trained to maximize $\mathcal{L}_\pi(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{a \sim \pi} [Q(x, a) - \alpha \log \pi_\theta(a|x)]$.

126 4 Reinforcement Learning with Low Switching Cost

127 In standard RL, a transition (x_h, a_h, x_h) is always collected by a single policy π . Therefore, whenever
128 the policy is updated, a switching cost is incurred. In low-switching-cost RL, we have two separate
129 policies, a deployed policy π_{dep} that interacts with the environment, and an online policy π_{onl} that is
130 trained by the underlying RL algorithm. These policies are parameterized by θ_{dep} and θ_{onl} respectively.
131 Suppose that we totally collect K samples during the training process, then at each transition step
132 k , the agent is interacting with the environment using a deployed policy π_{dep}^k . After the transition is
133 collected, the agent can decide whether to update the deployed π_{dep}^{k+1} by the online policy π_{onl}^{k+1} , i.e.,
134 replacing θ_{dep} with θ_{onl} , according to some switching criterion \mathcal{J} . Accordingly, the switching cost is
135 defined by the number of different deployed policies throughout the training process, namely:

$$C_{\text{switch}} := \sum_{k=1}^{K-1} \mathbb{I}\{\pi_{\text{dep}}^{k-1} \neq \pi_{\text{dep}}^k\} \quad (4)$$

136 The goal of low-switching-cost RL is to design an effective algorithm that learns π^* using K samples
137 while produces the smallest switching cost C_{switch} . Particularly in this paper, we focus on the design
138 of the switching criterion \mathcal{J} , which is the most critical component that balances the final reward and
139 the switching cost. The overall workflow of low-switching-cost RL is shown in Algorithm 1.

140 In the following content, we present a collection of policy switching criteria and techniques, including
141 those inspired by the information gain principle (Sec. 4.4) as well as other non-adaptive (Sec. 4.1)
142 and adaptive criteria (Sec. 4.2,4.3). All the discussed criteria are summarized in Algorithm 2.

143 4.1 Non-adaptive Switching Criterion

144 This simplest strategy switches the deployed policy every n timesteps, which we denote as “FIX_n”
145 in our experiments. Empirically, we notice that “FIX_1000” is a surprisingly effective criteria which
146 remains effective in most of the scenarios without fine tuning. So we primarily focus on “FIX_1000”
147 as our non-adaptive baseline. In addition, We specifically use “None” to indicate the experiments
148 without the low-switching-cost constraint where the deployed policy keeps synced with the online
149 policy all the time. Note that this “None” setting is equivalent to “FIX_1”.

150 4.2 Policy-based Switching Criterion

151 Another straightforward criterion is to switch the deployed policy when the action distribution
152 produced by the online policy significantly deviates from the deployed policy. Specifically, we sample
153 a batch of training states and count the number of states where actions by the two policies differ in
154 the discrete action domains. We switch the policy when the ratio of mismatched actions exceeds a
155 threshold σ_p . For continuous actions, we use KL-divergence to measure the policy differences.

156 **4.3 Feature-based Switching Criterion**

157 Beyond directly consider the difference of action distributions, another possible solution for measuring
 158 the divergence between two policies is through the feature representation extracted by the neural
 159 networks. Hence, we consider a feature-based switching criterion that decides to switch policies
 160 according to the feature similarity between different Q-networks. Similar to the policy-based criterion,
 161 when deciding whether to switch policy or not, we first sample a batch of states \mathbb{B} from the experience
 162 replay buffer, and then extract the features of all states with both the deployed deep Q-network and
 163 the online deep Q-network. Particularly, we take the final hidden layer of the Q-network as the feature
 164 representation. For a state x , the extracted features are denoted as $f_{\text{dep}}(x)$ and $f_{\text{onl}}(x)$, respectively.
 165 The similarity score between f_{dep} and f_{onl} on state x is defined as

$$sim(x) = \frac{\langle f_{\text{dep}}(x), f_{\text{onl}}(x) \rangle}{\|f_{\text{dep}}(x)\| \times \|f_{\text{onl}}(x)\|}. \quad (5)$$

166 We then compute the averaged similarity score on the batch of states \mathbb{B}

$$sim(\mathbb{B}) = \frac{\sum_{x \in \mathbb{B}} sim(x)}{|\mathbb{B}|}. \quad (6)$$

167 With a hyper-parameter $\sigma_f \in [0, 1]$, the feature-based policy switching criterion changes the deployed
 168 policy whenever $sim(\mathbb{B}) \leq \sigma_f$.

169 **Reset-Checking as a Practical Enhancement:** Empirically, we also find an effective implemen-
 170 tation enhancement, which produces lower switch costs and is more robust across different envi-
 171 ronments: we *only* check the feature similarity when an episode *resets* (i.e., a new episode starts)
 172 and additionally force deployment to handle extremely long episodes (e.g., in the ‘‘Pong’’ game, an
 173 episode may be trapped in loopy states and lead to an episode length of over 10000 steps).

174 **Hyper-parameter Selection:** For action-based and feature-based criteria, we uniformly sample
 175 a batch of size 512 from recent 10,000 transitions and compare the action differences or feature
 176 similarities between the deployed policy and the online policy on these sampled transitions. We also
 177 tried other sample size and sampling method, and there is no significant difference. For the switching
 178 threshold (i.e., the mismatch ratio σ_p in policy-based criterion and parameter σ_f in feature-based
 179 criterion), we perform a rough grid search and choose the highest possible threshold that still produces
 180 a comparable final policy reward.

181 **4.4 Switching via Information Gain**

182 Existing theoretical studies propose to switch the policy whenever the agent has gathered sufficient
 183 new information. Intuitively, if there is not much new information, then it is not necessary to switch
 184 the policy. To measure the sufficiency, they rely on the visitation count of each state-action pair or the
 185 determinant of the covariance matrix. We implement these two criteria as follows.

186 **Visitation-based Switching:** Following [4], we switch the policy when visitation count of any
 187 state-action pair reaches an exponent (specifically 2^i , $i \in \mathbb{N}$ in our experiments). Such exponential
 188 scheme is theoretically justified with bounded switching cost in tabular cases. However, it is not
 189 feasible to maintain precise visitations for high-dimensional states, so we adopt a random projection
 190 function to map the states to discrete vectors by $\phi(x) = \text{sign}(A \cdot g(x))$, and then count the visitation
 191 to the hashed states as an approximation. A is a fixed matrix with i.i.d entries from a unit Gaussian
 192 distribution $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ and g is a flatten function which converts x to a 1-dimensional vector.

193 **Information-matrix-based Switching:** Another algorithmic choice for achieving infrequent pol-
 194 icy switches is based on the property of the feature covariance matrix [21, 6], i.e., $\Lambda_h^e =$
 195 $\sum_{e: H_e \geq h} \psi(x_h^e, a_h^e) \psi(x_h^e, a_h^e)^T + \lambda I$, where e denotes a training episode, h means the h -th timestep
 196 within this episode, and ψ denotes a mapping from the state-action space to a feature space. For
 197 each episode timestep h , [1] switches the policy when the determinant of Λ_h^e doubles. However, we
 198 empirically observe that the approximate determinant computation can be particularly inaccurate for
 199 complex RL problems. Instead, we adopt an effective alternative, i.e., switch the policy when the
 200 least absolute eigenvalue doubles. In practice, we again adopt a random projection function to map
 201 the state to low-dimensional vectors, $\phi(x) = \text{sign}(A \cdot g(x))$, and concatenate them with actions to
 202 get $\psi(x, a) = [\phi(x), a]$.

Algorithm 2 Switching Criteria (\mathcal{J} in Algorithm 1)

▷ Non-adaptive Switching

input environment step counter k , fixed switching interval n

output $bool(k \bmod n == 0)$

▷ Policy-based Switching

input deployed and online policy $\pi_{\text{dep}}, \pi_{\text{onl}}$, state batch \mathbb{B} , threshold σ_p

Compute the ratio of action difference or KL divergence for π_{dep} and π_{onl} on \mathbb{B} as δ .

output $bool(\delta \geq \sigma_p)$

▷ Feature-based switching

input Encoder of deployed and online policy $f_{\text{dep}}, f_{\text{onl}}$, state batch \mathbb{B} , threshold σ_f

Compute $sim(\mathbb{B})$ via Eq.(6)

output $bool(sim(\mathbb{B}) \leq \sigma_f)$

▷ Visitation-based Switching

input the current visited times of state-action pair $n(\phi(x_k), a_k)$

output $bool(n(\phi(x_k), a_k) \in \{1, 2, 4, 8, \dots\})$

▷ Information-matrix-based Switching

input episode timestep h , current covariance matrix Λ_h^e , old $\Lambda_h^{\tilde{e}}$ at previous switch time

Compute the least absolute eigenvalues v_h^e and $v_h^{\tilde{e}}$

output $bool(v_h^e \geq 2 \times v_h^{\tilde{e}})$

203 5 Experiments

204 In this section, we conduct experiments to evaluate different policy switching criteria on Rainbow
205 DQN and SAC. For discrete action spaces, we study the Atari games and the GYMIC testbed for
206 simulating sepsis treatment for ICU patients which requires low switching cost. For continuous
207 control, we conduct experiments on the MuJoCo [24] locomotion tasks.

208 5.1 Environments

209 **GYMIC** GYMIC is an OpenAI gym environment for simulating sepsis treatment for ICU patients
210 to an infection, where sepsis is caused by the body’s response to an infection and could be life-
211 threatening. GYMIC built an environment to simulate the MIMIC sepsis cohort, where MIMIC is
212 an open patient EHR dataset from ICU patients. This environment generates a sparse reward, the
213 reward is set to +15 if the patient recovers and -15 if the patient dies. This environment has 46 clinical
214 features and a 5×5 action space.

215 **Atari 2600** Atari 2600 games are widely employed to evaluate the performance of DQN-based
216 agents [9]. We evaluate the efficiency of different switching criteria on a total of 56 Atari games.

217 **MuJoCo control tasks** We evaluate different switching criteria on 6 standard continuous control
218 benchmarks in the MuJoCo physics simulator, including Swimmer, HalfCheetah, Ant, Walker2d,
219 Hopper and Humanoid.

220 5.2 Evaluation Metric

221 For GYMIC and Atari games whose action space is discrete, we adopt Rainbow DQN to train the
222 policy; for MuJoCo tasks with continuous action spaces, we employ SAC since it is more suitable
223 for continuous action space. We evaluate the efficiency among different switching criteria in these
224 environments. All of the experiments are repeated over 3 seeds. Implementation details and hyper-
225 parameters are listed in Appendix B. All the code and the complete experiment results can be found
226 at <https://sites.google.com/view/low-switching-cost-rl>.

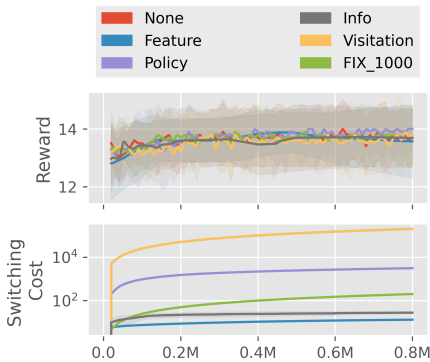


Figure 1: Results on GYMIC. *Top*: the learning curve of reward vs. steps. *Bottom*: switching cost. Note that the switching cost of “Visitation” almost overlaps with “None”.

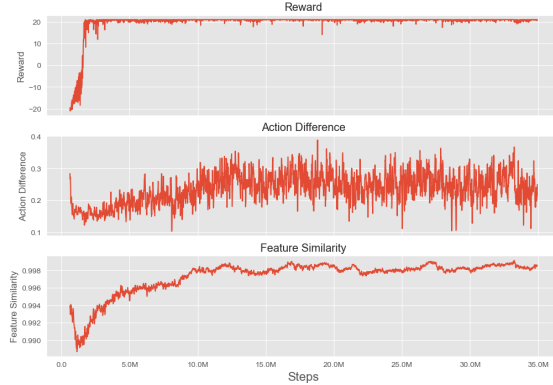


Figure 2: Action difference and feature similarity recorded on Pong. Higher feature similarity or lower action difference implies that the deployed policy and the online policy are closer.

227 We evaluate different policy switching criteria based on the off-policy RL backbone and measure the
 228 reward function as well as the switching cost in both GYMIC and MuJoCo control tasks. For Atari
 229 games, we plot the average human normalized rewards. Since there are 56 Atari games evaluated, we
 230 only report the average results across all the Atari games as well as 8 representative games in the
 231 main paper. Detailed results for every single Atari game can be found at our project website.

232 To better quantitatively measure the effectiveness of a policy switching criterion, we propose a new
 233 evaluation metric, **Reward-threshold Switching Improvement (RSI)**, which takes both the policy
 234 performance and the switching cost improvement into account. Specifically, suppose the standard
 235 online RL algorithm (i.e., the “None” setting) can achieve an average reward of \hat{R} with switching
 236 cost \hat{C}^3 . Now, a low-switching-cost RL criterion \mathcal{J} leads to a reward of $R_{\mathcal{J}}$ and reduced switching
 237 cost of $C_{\mathcal{J}}$ using the same amount of training samples. Then, we define RSI of criterion \mathcal{J} as

$$RSI(\mathcal{J}) = \mathbb{I} \left[R_{\mathcal{J}} > \left(1 - \text{sign}(\hat{R})\sigma_{RSI} \right) \hat{R} \right] \log \left(\max \left(\frac{\hat{C}}{C_{\mathcal{J}}}, 1 \right) \right), \quad (7)$$

238 where $\mathbb{I}[\cdot]$ is the indicator function and σ_{RSI} is a reward-tolerance threshold indicating the maximum
 239 allowed performance drop with the low-switching-cost constraint applied. In our experiments,
 240 we choose a fixed threshold parameter $\sigma_{RSI} = 0.2$. Intuitively, when the performance drop is
 241 moderate (i.e., within the threshold σ_{RSI}), RSI computes the logarithm of the relative switching cost
 242 improvements; while when the performance decreases significantly, the RSI score will be simply 0.

243 5.3 Results and Discussions

244 We compare the performances of all the criteria presented in Sec. 4, including unconstrained RL
 245 (“None”), non-adaptive switching (“Fix_1000”), policy-based switching (“Policy”), feature-based
 246 switching (“Feature”) and two information-gain variants, namely visitation-based (“Visitation”) and
 247 information-matrix-based (“Info”) criteria.

248 **GYMIC:** This medical environment is relatively simple, and all the criteria achieve similar
 249 learning curves as unconstrained RL as shown in Fig. 1. However, the switching cost of visitation-
 250 based criterion is significantly higher – it almost overlaps with the cost of “None”. While the
 251 other information-gain variant, i.e., information-matrix-based criterion, performs much better in this
 252 scenario. Overall, feature-based criterion produces the most satisfactory switching cost without hurt
 253 to sample efficiency.

254 **Atari Games:** We then compare the performances of different switching criteria in the more
 255 complex Atari games. The state spaces in Atari games are images, which are more complicated than

³We use \hat{C} instead of K here since some RL algorithm may not update the policy every timestep.

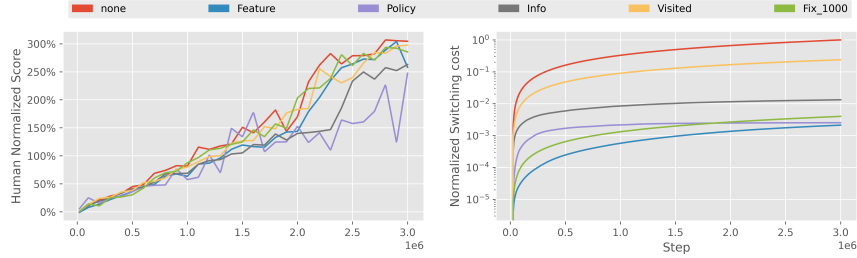


Figure 3: The average results on Atari games. We compare different switching criteria across 56 Atari games with 3 million training steps. We visualize the *human normalized reward* on the left. The figure on the right shows the average switching cost, which is normalized by the switching cost of “None” and shown in a log scale.

256 the low-dimensional states in GYMIC. Fig. 3 shows the average reward and switching of different
 257 switching criteria across all the 56 games, where the feature-based solution leads to the best empirical
 258 performance. We also remark that the non-adaptive baseline is particularly competitive in Atari
 259 games and outperforms all other adaptive solutions except the feature-based one. We also show the
 260 results in 8 representative games in Fig. 4, including the reward curves (odd rows) and switching cost
 261 curves (even rows). We can observe that information-gain variants produce substantially more policy
 262 updates while the feature-based and non-adaptive solutions are more stable.

263 In addition, we also noticed that the policy-based solution is particularly sensitive to its hyper-
 264 parameter in order to produce desirable policy reward, which suggests that the neural network
 265 features may change much more smoothly than the output action distribution.

266 To validate this hypothesis, we visualize the action difference and feature difference of the uncon-
 267 strained Rainbow DQN on the Atari game “Pong” throughout the training process in Fig. 2. Note that
 268 in this case, the deployed policy is synced with the online policy in every training iteration, so the
 269 difference is merely due to a single training update. However, even in an unconstrained setting, the
 270 difference of action distribution fluctuates significantly. By contrast, the feature change is much more
 271 stable. We also provide some theoretical discussions on feature-based criterion in Appendix C.

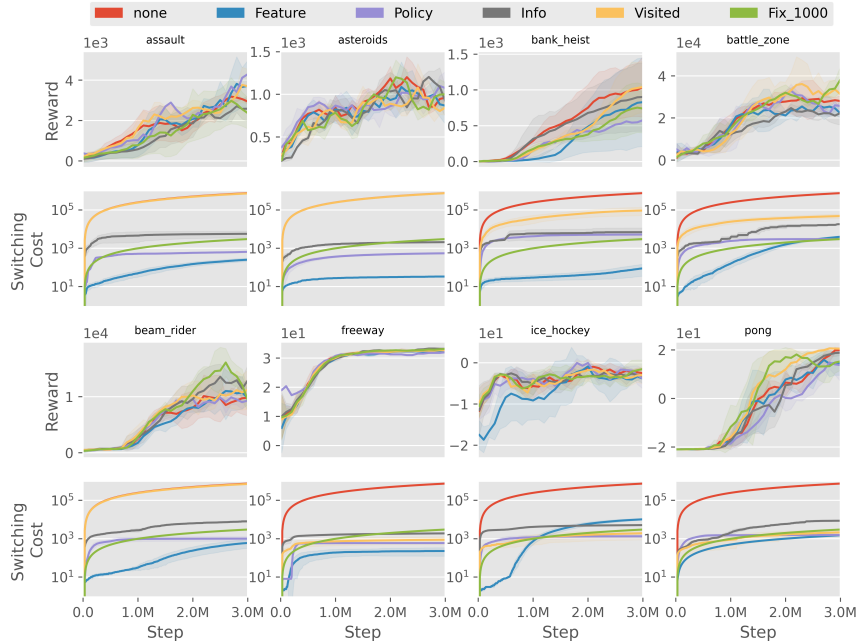


Figure 4: The results on several representative Atari games. In each environment, we visualize the training reward over the steps on the top and the switching cost in a log scale at the bottom.

272 **MuJoCo Control:** We evaluate the effectiveness of different switching criteria with SAC on all the
 273 6 MuJoCo continuous control tasks. The results are shown in Fig. 5. In general, we can still observe

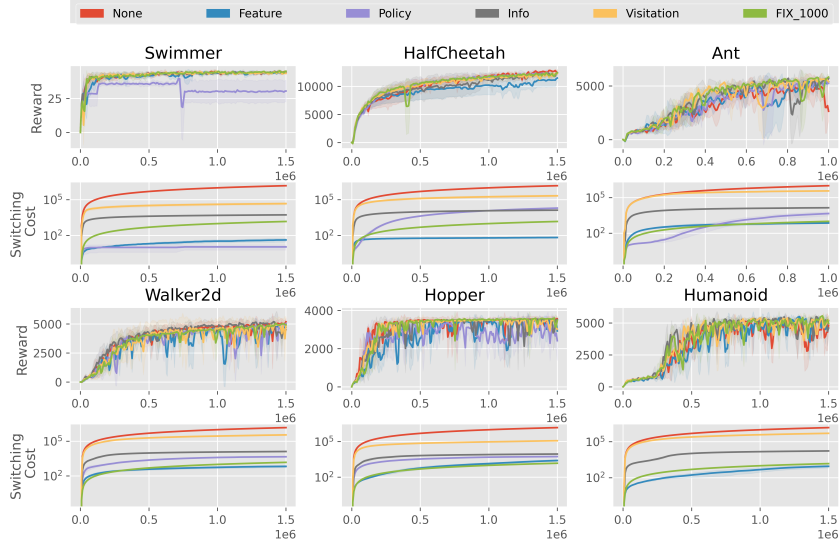


Figure 5: The results on MuJoCo tasks.

274 that the feature-based solution achieves the lowest switching cost among all the baseline methods
 275 while the policy-based solution produces the most unstable training. Interestingly, although the non-
 276 adaptive baseline has a relatively high switching cost than the feature-based one, the training curve
 277 has the less training fluctuations, which also suggests a future research direction on incorporating
 278 training stability into the switching criterion design.

Table 1: RSI (Eq. 7, $\sigma = 0.2$) for different criteria over different domains. We take unconstrained RL (i.e., “None”) performance as the RSI reference, so the RSI value for “None” is always zero.

Avg. RSI	Feature	Policy	Info	Visitation	FIX_1000
GYMIC	9.63	4.16	8.88	0.0	6.91
Atari	3.61	2.82	2.11	1.81	3.15
Mujoco	8.20	3.45	4.83	1.92	6.91

279 **Average RSI Scores:** Finally, we also report the RSI scores of different policy switching criteria on
 280 different domains. For each domain, we compute the average value of RSI scores over each individual
 281 task in this domain. The results are reported in Table 1, where we can observe that the feature-based
 282 method consistently produces the best quantitative performance across all the 3 domains.

283 6 Conclusion

284 In this paper, we focus on low-switching-cost reinforcement learning problems and take the first
 285 empirical step towards designing an effective solution for reducing the switching cost while maintain-
 286 ing good performance. By systematic empirical studies on practical benchmark environments with
 287 modern RL algorithms, we find the existence of a theory-practice gap in policy switching criteria and
 288 suggest a feature-based solution can be preferred in practical scenarios. Thanks to the strong research
 289 nature of this work, we believe our paper does not produce any negative societal impact.

290 We remark that our paper not only provides a benchmark for future research but also raises many
 291 interesting methods. For example, although feature-based solution achieves the best overall perfor-
 292 mance, it does not substantially outperform the the naive non-adaptive baseline. It still has a great
 293 research room towards designing a more principled switching criteria. Another direction is to give
 294 provable guarantees for these policy switching criteria that work for methods dealing with large state
 295 space in contrast to existing analyses about tabular RL [4, 26, 25]. We believe our paper is just the
 296 first step on this important problem, which could serve as a foundation towards great future research
 297 advances.

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382 **Checklist**

- 383 1. For all authors...
- 384 (a) Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper's
385 contributions and scope? [Yes]
- 386 (b) Did you describe the limitations of your work? [Yes]
- 387 (c) Did you discuss any potential negative societal impacts of your work? [N/A]
- 388 (d) Have you read the ethics review guidelines and ensured that your paper conforms to
389 them? [Yes]
- 390 2. If you are including theoretical results...
- 391 (a) Did you state the full set of assumptions of all theoretical results? [Yes]
- 392 (b) Did you include complete proofs of all theoretical results? [Yes]
- 393 3. If you ran experiments (e.g. for benchmarks)...
- 394 (a) Did you include the code, data, and instructions needed to reproduce the main experi-
395 mental results (either in the supplemental material or as a URL)? [Yes]
- 396 (b) Did you specify all the training details (e.g., data splits, hyperparameters, how they
397 were chosen)? [Yes]
- 398 (c) Did you report error bars (e.g., with respect to the random seed after running experi-
399 ments multiple times)? [Yes]
- 400 (d) Did you include the total amount of compute and the type of resources used (e.g., type
401 of GPUs, internal cluster, or cloud provider)? [Yes]
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409 information or offensive content? [N/A]
- 410 5. If you used crowdsourcing or conducted research with human subjects...
- 411 (a) Did you include the full text of instructions given to participants and screenshots, if
412 applicable? [N/A]
- 413 (b) Did you describe any potential participant risks, with links to Institutional Review
414 Board (IRB) approvals, if applicable? [N/A]
- 415 (c) Did you include the estimated hourly wage paid to participants and the total amount
416 spent on participant compensation? [N/A]