UNDERSTANDING OPTIMIZATION in REINFORCEMENT LEARNING



An Empirical Study of Algorithms and their Hyperparameters

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Hereafter follow the original remarks to his thesis.

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Other fonts include Sans and Typewriter from Donald Knuth's Computer Modern family.

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The guidelines found in *The Visual Display of Quantitative Information* by Tufte (2001) were followed when creating diagrams and tables. Colors used in diagrams and figures were inspired by the *Summer Tields* color scheme found at http://www.colourlovers.com/palette/399372



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PART I

BACKGROUND

KEY CONCEPTS AND NOTATION

1.1 NOTATION

Whenever possible we distinguish between

- scalars: *x*
- vectors: \vec{x}
- matrices: X
- sets: \mathcal{X}
- (time) series $(\chi_n)_{n=0,1,...}$

For a vector \vec{x} the *i*-th element is denoted as x_i . For a matrix X, \vec{x}_i denotes the *i*-th column and x_{ij} the *j*-th value of this column. The value of a time series $(\chi_n)_{n=0,1,...}$ at point t is denoted as χ_t .

1.2 KEY CONCEPTS

To fully understand the content of this thesis, the reader should be familiar with some key concepts of *deep learning* - machine learning using *deep neural networks*. We will briefly reiterate the most important concepts to accomplish a common ground in notation. Unfamiliar readers are advised to revise these concepts, e.g. with Goodfellow et al. (2016). Proficient readers can safely skip this chapter. Necessary concepts from *reinforcement learning* and *deep reinforcement learning* will be introduced in the next chapter. Debutants can deepen their understanding, e.g. in Sutton and Barto (2018).

Supervised Learning Given some function class $\mathcal{G}: \mathbf{R}^d \to \mathbf{R}^o$ and a matrix of training data $X \in \mathbf{R}^{d \times n}$ with targets $Y \in \mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{o} \times \mathbf{n}}$, that are sampled from some generating data distribution X_{Gen}, Y_{Gen} , an algorithm tries to find the function $g \in \mathcal{G}$ that best describes the relation of data points $\vec{x}_i \in X_{Gen}$ with the matching targets $\vec{y}_i \in Y_{Gen}$ by using the training data and targets as an approximation of the general data distribution and minimizing some **loss function** $L: \mathbf{R}^{o \times 2} \to \mathbf{R}$ on the set of pairs of predictions $g(\vec{x}_i)$ on the training data, and training targets \vec{y}_i . One commonly used loss functions is the **mean squared error** $L(\vec{x}_j, \vec{y}_j) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n} (x_{ij} - y_{ij})^2$, where n = |a| = |b|. The learning is usually done by

defining \mathcal{G} as a set of functions $g_{\vec{\theta}}$ with parameters $\vec{\theta}$ and numerically optimizing these parameters.

(Mini-) Batch Since the computation of the loss on the whole training set at once it not only costly but also not necessarily effective (Keskar et al., 2016), while the computation on a single data point leads to very noisy estimates of the gradients in numerical optimization, a common approach is to divide the training data into or to sample (mini-) batches from the training data and compute the numerical updates on these instead of on the full data set.

Overfitting is what happens when a machine learning model fits the training distributions more closely than justified by the underlying generating data distribution, leading to a worse generalization performance.

Gradient Descent is a numerical optimization method, suited to find local minima of some differentiable function $f: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ and global minima if f is *convex*¹. Starting at some point \vec{x}_0 and with some *learning rate* α , gradient descent iteratively computes updates $\vec{x}_t = \vec{x}_{t-1} - \alpha \cdot \nabla f(\vec{x}_{t-1})$ until some stopping criterion (e.g. convergence) is reached.

Stochastic Gradient Descent is a stochastic approximation of gradient descent, commonly applied in machine learning. The gradients of the loss function for the parameter updates are computed on a randomly sampled minibatch, often leading to faster convergence.

(**Deep**) **Neural Network** are non-linear function approximators commonly used in recent machine learning research. They are constructed by stacking layers of nodes (neurons) that each 1. compute some linear combination of the values of the nodes of the previous layer and 2. apply some non-linear activation function. The parameters of the network (the weights and biases of the linear functions) are denoted by θ . A prediction for some data vector is made by feeding the latter into the first layer (the input layer) of the network and computing the activation of the last layer (the output layer). This is called the *forward pass*. The value of the output layer of the network f with parameters θ for some input \vec{x} is denoted as $f(\vec{x}, \vec{\theta})$. Supervised training of the network is commonly achieved by calculating the average derivative $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n} \nabla_{\theta} L(\vec{y}_{i}, f(\vec{x}_{i}, \vec{\theta}))$ of some loss function L, with respect to the network parameters θ on some (mini-) batch X with size n and targets Y, (called *backward pass*) and applying updates to θ via (stochastic) gradient descent.

Observability In artificial intelligence research, an environment is called *fully observable*, if an agent that interacts with it, has full access to all relevant information about its inner state, *partly observable* else.

 Convexity is usually not given, but local optima give decent approximations and might overfit less.

PART II

PERFORMANCE ESTIMATION

PART III

OPTIMIZER ANALYSIS

PART IV

SUMMARY

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