# Bayesian reinforcement learning Markov decision processes and approximate Bayesian computation

#### Christos Dimitrakakis

Chalmers

April 16, 2015

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Bayesian reinforcement learning

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# Overview

#### Subjective probability and utility

Subjective probability Rewards and preferences

#### Bandit problems

Bernoulli bandits

#### Markov decision processes and reinforcement learning

Markov processes Value functions Examples

#### Bayesian reinforcement learning

Reinforcement learning Bounds on the utility Planning: Heuristics and exact solutions Belief-augmented MDPs The expected MDP heuristic The maximum MDP heuristic Inference: Approximate Bayesian computation Properties of ABC

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## **Objective Probability**

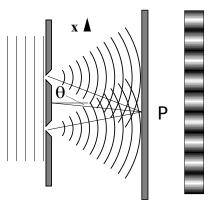


Figure: The double slit experiment

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## **Objective Probability**

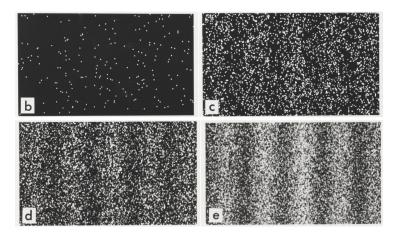


Figure: The double slit experiment

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## **Objective Probability**

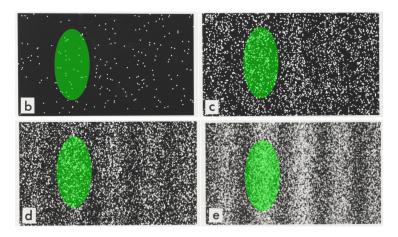


Figure: The double slit experiment

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Subjective probability and utility Subjective probability

What about everyday life?

Making decisions requires making predictions.

- Making decisions requires making predictions.
- Outcomes of decisions are uncertain.

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- How can we represent this uncertainty?

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- Outcomes of decisions are uncertain.
- How can we represent this uncertainty?

#### Subjective probability

- Describe which events we think are more likely.
- We quantify this with probability.

### Why probability?

- Quantifies uncertainty in a "natural" way.
- A framework for drawing conclusions from data.
- Computationally convenient for decision making.

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## Rewards

- We are going to receive a reward *r* from a set *R* of possible rewards.
- We prefer some rewards to others.

Example 1 (Possible sets of rewards R)

- *R* is a set of tickets to different musical events.
- ► *R* is a set of financial commodities.

## When we cannot select rewards directly

- In most problems, we cannot just choose which reward to receive.
- We can only specify a distribution on rewards.

#### Example 2 (Route selection)

- Each reward  $r \in R$  is the time it takes to travel from A to B.
- Route  $P_1$  is faster than  $P_2$  in heavy traffic and vice-versa.
- ▶ Which route should be preferred, given a certain probability for heavy traffic?

In order to choose between random rewards, we use the concept of utility.

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## Definition 3 (Utility)

The utility is a function  $U: R \to \mathbb{R}$ , such that for all  $a, b \in R$ 

$$a \succeq^* b \quad \text{iff} \quad U(a) \ge U(b),$$
 (1.1)

The expected utility of a distribution P on R is:

$$\mathbb{E}_{P}(U) = \sum_{r \in R} U(r)P(r)$$

(1.3)

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$$= \int_{R} U(r) dP(r)$$
(1.2)
(1.3)

Assumption 1 (The expected utility hypothesis)

The utility of P is equal to the expected utility of the reward under P. Consequently,

$$P \succeq^* Q \quad iff \quad \mathbb{E}_P(U) \ge \mathbb{E}_Q(U).$$
 (1.4)

i.e. we prefer P to Q iff the expected utility under P is higher than under Q

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#### A simple game [Bernoulli, 1713]

- A fair coin is tossed until a head is obtained.
- If the first head is obtained on the *n*-th toss, our reward will be  $2^n$  currency units.

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How much are you willing to pay, to play this game once?

#### A simple game [Bernoulli, 1713]

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- If the first head is obtained on the *n*-th toss, our reward will be  $2^n$  currency units.

• The probability to stop at round *n* is  $2^{-n}$ .

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- The probability to stop at round *n* is  $2^{-n}$ .
- Thus, the expected monetary gain of the game is

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^n 2^{-n} = \infty.$$

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- Thus, the expected monetary gain of the game is

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2^n 2^{-n} = \infty.$$

- ▶ If your utility function were linear (U(r) = r) you'd be willing to pay any amount to play.
- You might not internalise the setup of the game (is the coin really fair?)

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# Summary

- We can subjectively indicate which events we think are more likely.
- We can define a subjective probability *P* for all events.
- Similarly, we can subjectively indicate preferences for rewards.
- We can determine a utility function for all rewards.
- ▶ Hypothesis: we prefer the probability distribution with the highest expected utility.
- This allows us to create algorithms for decision making.

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# Experimental design and Markov decision processes

The following problems

- Shortest path problems.
- Optimal stopping problems.
- Reinforcement learning problems.
- Experiment design (clinical trial) problems
- Advertising.

can be all formalised as Markov decision processes.

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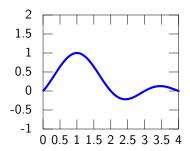
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# Bandit problems



## Applications

Efficient optimisation.



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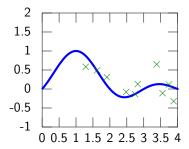
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## Applications

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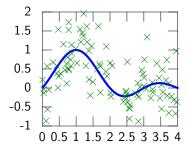
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## Applications

Efficient optimisation.



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## Bandit problems

### Applications

- Efficient optimisation.
- Online advertising.

Google

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## Applications

- Efficient optimisation.
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## Applications

- Efficient optimisation.
- Online advertising.
- Clinical trials.
- ► ROBOT SCIENTIST.



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## The stochastic *n*-armed bandit problem

Actions and rewards

- A set of actions  $\mathcal{A} = \{1, \ldots, n\}$ .
- ► Each action gives you a random reward with distribution  $\mathbb{P}(r_t \mid a_t = i)$ .
- The expected reward of the *i*-th arm is  $\omega_i \triangleq \mathbb{E}(r_t \mid a_t = i)$ .

#### Utility

The utility is the sum of the individual rewards  $r = r_1, \ldots, r_T$ 

$$U(r) \triangleq \sum_{t=1}^{T} r_t.$$

Definition 4 (Policies)

A policy  $\pi$  is an algorithm for taking actions given the observed history.

$$\mathbb{P}^{\pi}(a_{t+1} \mid a_1, r_1, \ldots, a_t, r_t)$$

is the probability of the next action  $a_{t+1}$ .

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## Bernoulli bandits

#### Example 5 (Bernoulli bandits)

Consider *n* Bernoulli distributions with parameters  $\omega_i$  (i = 1, ..., n) such that  $r_t \mid a_t = i \sim Bern(\omega_i)$ . Then,

$$\mathbb{P}(r_t = 1 \mid a_t = i) = \omega_i \qquad \qquad \mathbb{P}(r_t = 0 \mid a_t = i) = 1 - \omega_i \qquad (2.1)$$

Then the expected reward for the *i*-th bandit is  $\mathbb{E}(r_t \mid a_t = i) = \omega_i$ .

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Then the expected reward for the *i*-th bandit is  $\mathbb{E}(r_t \mid a_t = i) = \omega_i$ .

#### Exercise 1 (The optimal policy)

- If we know  $\omega_i$  for all *i*, what is the best policy?
- ▶ What if we don't?

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## A simple heuristic for the unknown reward case

Say you keep a running average of the reward obtained by each arm

$$\hat{\omega}_{t,i} = R_{t,i}/n_{t,i}$$

- *n*<sub>t,i</sub> the number of times you played arm i
- ▶  $R_{t,i}$  the total reward received from *i*.

Whenever you play  $a_t = i$ :

$$R_{t+1,i} = R_{t,i} + r_t, \qquad n_{t+1,i} = n_{t,i} + 1.$$

Greedy policy:

$$\mathbf{a}_t = \arg\max_i \hat{\omega}_{t,i}.$$

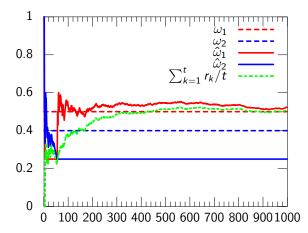
What should the initial values  $n_{0,i}$ ,  $R_{0,i}$  be?

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The greedy policy for  $n_{0,i} = R_{0,i} = 1$ 



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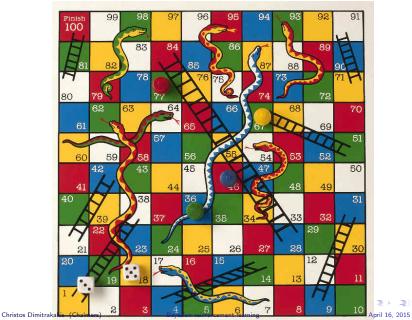
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## A Markov process



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### Markov process



Definition 6 (Markov Process - or Markov Chain)

The sequence  $\{s_t \mid t = 1, ...\}$  of random variables  $s_t : \Omega \to S$  is a Markov process if

$$\mathbb{P}(s_{t+1} \mid s_t, \dots, s_1) = \mathbb{P}(s_{t+1} \mid s_t).$$
(3.1)

- s<sub>t</sub> is state of the Markov process at time t.
- $\mathbb{P}(s_{t+1} \mid s_t)$  is the transition kernel of the process.

#### The state of an algorithm

Observe that the R, n vectors of our greedy bandit algorithm form a Markov process. They also summarise our belief about which arm is the best.

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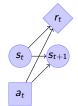
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# Markov decision processes

## Markov decision processes (MDP).

At each time step t:

- We observe state  $s_t \in S$ .
- We take action  $a_t \in \mathcal{A}$ .
- We receive a reward  $r_t \in \mathbb{R}$ .



### Markov property of the reward and state distribution

$$\mathbb{P}_{\mu}(s_{t+1} \mid s_t, a_t) \ \mathbb{P}_{\mu}(r_t \mid s_t, a_t)$$

(Transition distribution) (Reward distribution)

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#### The agent

### The agent's policy $\boldsymbol{\pi}$

$$\mathbb{P}^{\pi}(a_t \mid r_t, s_t, a_t, \dots, r_1, s_1, a_1)$$
 (history-dependent policy)  
$$\mathbb{P}^{\pi}(a_t \mid s_t)$$
 (Markov policy)

## Definition 7 (Utility)

Given a horizon  $T \ge 0$ , and discount factor  $\gamma \in (0, 1]$  the utility can be defined as

$$U_t \triangleq \sum_{k=0}^{T-t} \gamma^k r_{t+k} \tag{3.2}$$

The agent wants to to find  $\pi$  maximising the expected total future reward

$$\mathbb{E}^{\pi}_{\mu} U_{t} = \mathbb{E}^{\pi}_{\mu} \sum_{k=0}^{T-t} \gamma^{k} r_{t+k}.$$
 (expected utility)

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## State value function

$$V_{\mu,t}^{\pi}(s) \triangleq \mathbb{E}_{\mu}^{\pi}(U_t \mid s_t = s)$$
(3.3)

The optimal policy  $\pi^*$ 

$$\pi^{*}(\mu): V_{t,\mu}^{\pi^{*}(\mu)}(s) \geq V_{t,\mu}^{\pi}(s) \quad \forall \pi, t, s$$
(3.4)

dominates all other policies  $\pi$  everywhere in S. The optimal value function  $V^*$ 

$$V_{t,\mu}^{*}(s) \triangleq V_{t,\mu}^{\pi^{*}(\mu)}(s),$$
 (3.5)

is the value function of the optimal policy  $\pi^*$ .

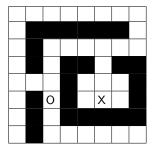
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# Stochastic shortest path problem with a pit



#### Properties

- $T \to \infty$ .
- ▶  $r_t = -1$ , but  $r_t = 0$  at X and -100 at O and the problem ends.
- $\mathbb{P}_{\mu}(s_{t+1} = X | s_t = X) = 1.$
- $\blacktriangleright \mathcal{A} = \{ North, South, East, West \}$
- Moves to a random direction with probability ω. Walls block.

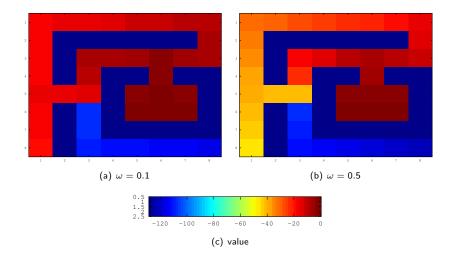


Figure: Pit maze solutions for two values of  $\omega$ .

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Markov decision processes and reinforcement learning Examples

How to evaluate a policy (Case:  $\gamma = 1$ )

$$V^{\pi}_{\mu,t}(s) \triangleq \mathbb{E}^{\pi}_{\mu}(U_t \mid s_t = s)$$
 (3.6)

(3.7)

This derivation directly gives a number of policy evaluation algorithms.

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$$V_{\mu,t}^{\pi}(s) \triangleq \mathbb{E}_{\mu}^{\pi}(U_t \mid s_t = s)$$
(3.6)

$$=\sum_{k=0}^{T-t} \mathbb{E}_{\mu}^{\pi}(r_{t+k} \mid s_t = s)$$
(3.7)

(3.8)

This derivation directly gives a number of policy evaluation algorithms.

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$$=\sum_{k=0}^{T-t} \mathbb{E}^{\pi}_{\mu}(r_{t+k} \mid s_t = s)$$
(3.7)

$$= \mathbb{E}_{\mu}^{\pi}(r_t \mid s_t = s) + \mathbb{E}_{\mu}^{\pi}(U_{t+1} \mid s_t = s)$$
(3.8)

(3.9)

This derivation directly gives a number of policy evaluation algorithms.

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$$= \mathbb{E}_{\mu}^{\pi}(r_t \mid s_t = s) + \sum_{i \in S} V_{\mu,t+1}^{\pi}(i) \mathbb{P}_{\mu}^{\pi}(s_{t+1} = i \mid s_t = s).$$
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(3.9)

This derivation directly gives a number of policy evaluation algorithms.

$$\max_{\pi} V_{\mu,t}^{\pi}(s) = \max_{a} \mathbb{E}_{\mu}(r_t \mid s_t = s, a) + \max_{\pi'} \sum_{i \in S} V_{\mu,t+1}^{\pi'}(i) \mathbb{P}_{\mu}^{\pi'}(s_{t+1} = i | s_t = s).$$

gives us the optimal policy value.

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# Backward induction for discounted infinite horizon problems

- ▶ We can also apply backwards induction to the infinite case.
- The resulting policy is stationary.
- So memory does not grow with T.

### Value iteration

for n = 1, 2, ... and  $s \in S$  do  $v_n(s) = \max_a r(s, a) + \gamma \sum_{s' \in S} P_\mu(s' \mid s, a) v_{n-1}(s')$ end for

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# Summary

- Markov decision processes model controllable dynamical systems.
- Optimal policies maximise expected utility can be found with:
  - Backwards induction / value iteration.
  - Policy iteration.
- The MDP state can be seen as
  - The state of a dynamic controllable process.
  - The internal state of an agent.

#### Subjective probability and utility

Subjective probability Rewards and preferences

#### Bandit problems

Bernoulli bandits

#### Markov decision processes and reinforcement learning

Markov processes Value functions Examples

#### Bayesian reinforcement learning

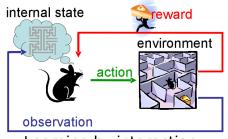
Reinforcement learning Bounds on the utility Planning: Heuristics and exact solutions Belief-augmented MDPs The expected MDP heuristic The maximum MDP heuristic Inference: Approximate Bayesian computatio Properties of ABC

Learning to act in an unknown world, by interaction and reinforcement.

Learning to act in an unknown world, by interaction and reinforcement.

## World $\mu$ ; Policy $\pi$ ; at time t

- $\mu$  generates observation  $x_t \in \mathcal{X}$ .
- We take action  $a_t \in \mathcal{A}$  using  $\pi$ .
- $\mu$  gives us reward  $r_t \in \mathbb{R}$ .



Learning by interaction

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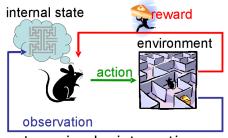
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Learning by interaction

## Definition 8 (Utility)

$$U_t = \sum_{k=t}^T r_k$$

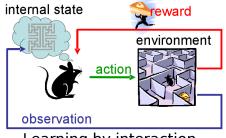
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# Learning by interaction

### Definition 8 (Expected utility)

$$\mathbb{E}^{\pi}_{\mu} U_t = \mathbb{E}^{\pi}_{\mu} \sum_{k=t}^{T} r_k$$

When  $\mu$  is known, calculate max<sub> $\pi$ </sub>  $\mathbb{E}^{\pi}_{\mu}$  *U*.

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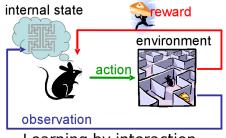
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# Learning by interaction

## Definition 8 (Expected utility)

$$\mathbb{E}^{\pi}_{\mu} U_t = \mathbb{E}^{\pi}_{\mu} \sum_{k=t}^{T} r_k$$

#### Knowing $\mu$ is contrary to the problem definition

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Bayesian idea: use a subjective belief  $\xi(\mu)$  on  $\mathcal{M}$ 

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## Bayesian idea: use a subjective belief $\xi(\mu)$ on $\mathcal{M}$

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 $\xi(\mu \mid h, \pi) \propto \mathbb{P}^{\pi}_{\mu}(h)\xi(\mu)$ 

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The subjective expected utility

$$\mathbb{E}^{\pi}_{\xi} U = \sum_{\mu} \left( \mathbb{E}^{\pi}_{\mu} U \right) \xi(\mu).$$

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$$U^*_{\xi} \triangleq \max_{\pi} \mathbb{E}^{\pi}_{\xi} U = \max_{\pi} \sum_{\mu} \left( \mathbb{E}^{\pi}_{\mu} U \right) \xi(\mu).$$

Integrates planning and learning, and the exploration-exploitation trade-off

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Bounds on the utility

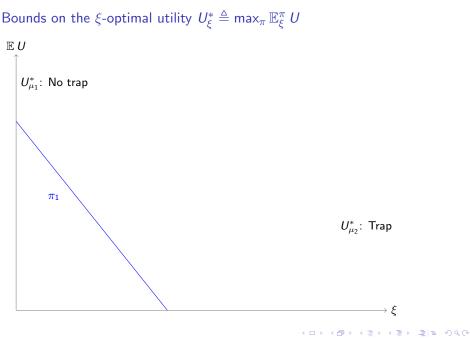
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Bounds on the \xi-optimal utility U_{\xi}^* \triangleq \max_{\pi} \mathbb{E}_{\xi}^{\pi} U
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 $\mathbb{E} U$  $U_{\mu_1}^*$ : No trap



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Bounds on the utility



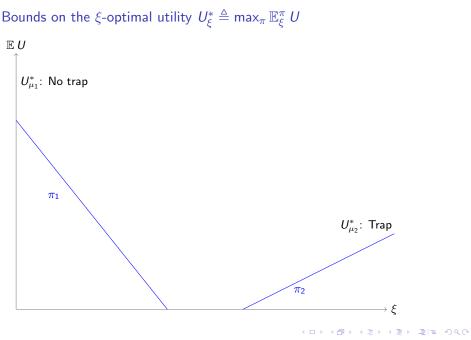
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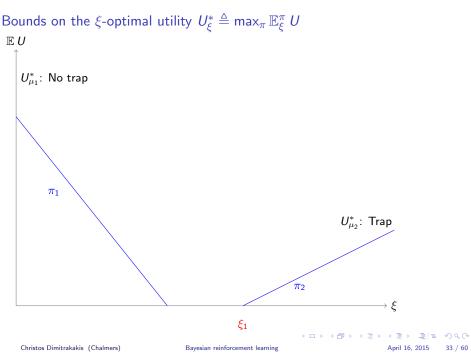


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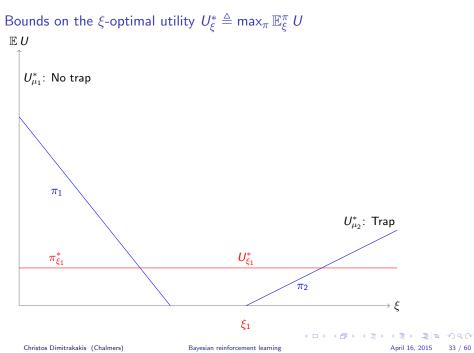
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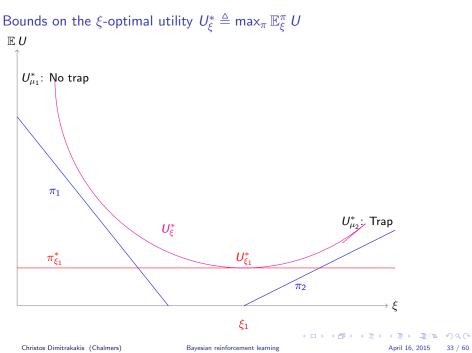


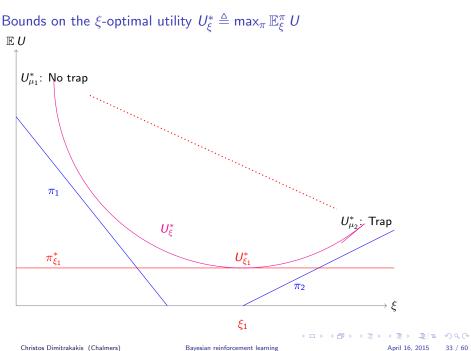
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Bounds on the utility



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# Bernoulli bandits

#### Decision-theoretic approach

- Assume  $r_t \mid a_t = i \sim P_{\omega_i}$ , with  $\omega_i \in \Omega$ .
- Define prior belief  $\xi_1$  on  $\Omega$ .
- For each step t, select action a<sub>t</sub> to maximise

$$\mathbb{E}_{\xi_t}(U_t \mid a_t) = \mathbb{E}_{\xi_t}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{\tau-t} \gamma^k r_{t+k} \mid a_t\right)$$

- ▶ Obtain reward *r*<sub>t</sub>.
- Calculate the next belief

$$\xi_{t+1} = \xi_t(\cdot \mid a_t, r_t)$$

How can we implement this?

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# Bayesian inference on Bernoulli bandits

- Likelihood:  $\mathbb{P}_{\omega}(r_t = 1) = \omega$ .
- Prior:  $\xi(\omega) \propto \omega^{\alpha-1} (1-\omega)^{\beta-1}$  (i.e.  $Beta(\alpha,\beta)$ ).

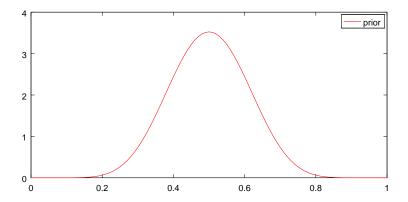


Figure: Prior belief  $\xi$  about the mean reward  $\omega$ .

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# Bayesian inference on Bernoulli bandits

For a sequence 
$$r = r_1, \ldots, r_n$$
,  $\Rightarrow P_{\omega}(r) \propto \omega_i^{\#1(r)} (1 - \omega_i)^{\#0(r)}$ 

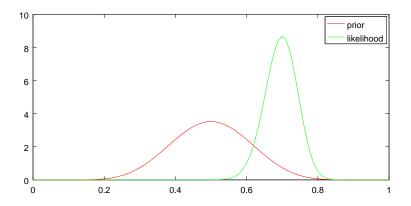


Figure: Prior belief  $\xi$  about  $\omega$  and likelihood of  $\omega$  for 100 plays with 70 1s.

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# Bayesian inference on Bernoulli bandits

Posterior:  $Beta(\alpha + \#1(\mathbf{r}), \beta + \#0(\mathbf{r}))$ .

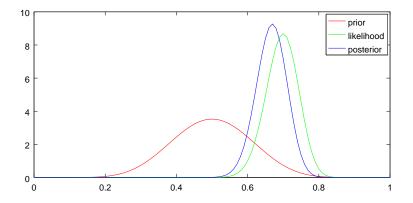


Figure: Prior belief  $\xi(\omega)$  about  $\omega$ , likelihood of  $\omega$  for the data r, and posterior belief  $\xi(\omega \mid r)$ 

### Bernoulli example.

Consider *n* Bernoulli distributions with unknown parameters  $\omega_i$   $(i = 1, \ldots, n)$  such that

$$r_t \mid a_t = i \sim Bern(\omega_i), \qquad \mathbb{E}(r_t \mid a_t = i) = \omega_i.$$
 (4.1)

Our belief for each parameter  $\omega_i$  is  $Beta(\alpha_i, \beta_i)$ , with density  $f(\omega \mid \alpha_i, \beta_i)$  so that

$$\xi(\omega_1,\ldots,\omega_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(\omega_i \mid \alpha_i,\beta_i).$$
 (a priori independent)

$$N_{t,i} \triangleq \sum_{k=1}^{t} \mathbb{I}\left\{a_k = i\right\}, \qquad \hat{r}_{t,i} \triangleq \frac{1}{N_{t,i}} \sum_{k=1}^{t} r_t \mathbb{I}\left\{a_k = i\right\}$$

Then, the posterior distribution for the parameter of arm i is

$$\xi_t = \operatorname{Beta}(\alpha_i + N_{t,i}\hat{r}_{t,i} , \beta_i + N_{t,i}(1 - \hat{r}_{t,i})).$$

Since  $r_t \in \{0,1\}$  there are  $O((2n)^T)$  possible belief states for a *T*-step bandit problem.

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### Belief states

- > The state of the decision-theoretic bandit problem is the state of our belief.
- A sufficient statistic is the number of plays and total rewards.
- Our belief state  $\xi_t$  is described by the priors  $\alpha, \beta$  and the vectors

$$N_t = (N_{t,1}, \ldots, N_{t,i}) \tag{4.2}$$

$$\hat{r}_t = (\hat{r}_{t,1}, \dots, \hat{r}_{t,i}).$$
 (4.3)

The next-state probabilities are defined as:

$$\mathbb{P}(\mathbf{r}_t = 1 \mid \mathbf{a}_t = i, \xi_t) = \frac{\alpha_i + N_{t,i}\hat{\mathbf{r}}_{t,i}}{\alpha_i + \beta_i + N_{t,i}}$$

as  $\xi_{t+1}$  is a deterministic function of  $\xi_t$ ,  $r_t$  and  $a_t$ 

So the bandit problem can be formalised as a Markov decision process.

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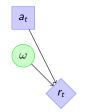


Figure: The basic bandit MDP. The decision maker selects  $a_t$ , while the parameter  $\omega$  of the process is hidden. It then obtains reward  $r_t$ . The process repeats for t = 1, ..., T.

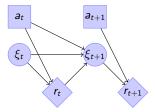


Figure: The decision-theoretic bandit MDP. While  $\omega$  is not known, at each time step t we maintain a belief  $\xi_t$  on  $\Omega$ . The reward distribution is then defined through our belief.

### Backwards induction (Dynamic programming)

for  $n = 1, 2, \ldots$  and  $s \in \mathcal{S}$  do

$$\mathbb{E}(U_t \mid \xi_t) = \max_{a_t \in \mathcal{A}} \mathbb{E}(r_t \mid \xi_t, a_t) + \gamma \sum_{\xi_{t+1}} \mathbb{P}(\xi_{t+1} \mid \xi_t, a_t) \mathbb{E}(U_{t+1} \mid \xi_{t+1})$$

end for

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end for

#### Exact solution methods: exponential in the horizon

- Dynamic programming (backwards induction etc)
- Policy search.

#### Approximations

- (Stochastic) branch and bound.
- Upper confidence trees.
- Approximate dynamic programming.
- Local policy search (e.g. gradient based)

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# Bayesian RL for unknown MDPs



We are in some environment  $\mu$ , where at each time, we: step *t*:

- Observe state  $s_t \in S$ .
- Take action  $a_t \in \mathcal{A}$ .
- Receive reward  $r_t \in \mathbb{R}$ .

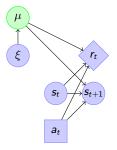


Figure: The unknown Markov decision process

How can we find the Bayes optimal policy for unknown MDPs?

### Some heuristics

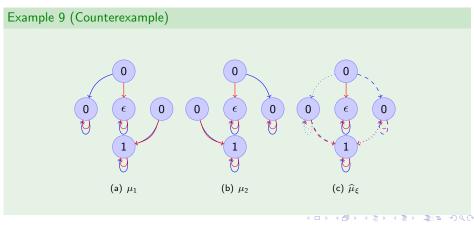
- 1. Only change policy at the start of epochs  $t_i$ .
- 2. Calculate the belief  $\xi_{t_i}$ .
- 3. Find a "good" policy  $\pi_i$  for the current belief.
- 4. Execute it until the next epoch i + 1.

One simple heuristic is to simply calculate the expected MDP for a given belief  $\xi$ :

$$\widehat{\mu}_{\xi} \triangleq \mathbb{E}_{\xi} \mu.$$

Then, we simply calculate the optimal policy for  $\widehat{\mu}_{\xi}$ :

$$\pi^*(\widehat{\mu}_{\xi}) \in \operatorname*{arg\,max}_{\pi \in \Pi_1} V^{\pi}_{\widehat{\mu}_{\xi}},$$



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Another heuristic is to get the most probable MDP for a belief  $\xi$ :

$$\widehat{\mu}_{\xi}^{*} \triangleq rg\max_{\mu} \xi(\mu)$$

Then, we simply calculate the optimal policy for  $\widehat{\mu}_{\xi}^*$ :

$$\pi^*(\widehat{\mu}_{\xi}) \in \operatorname*{arg\,max}_{\pi \in \Pi_1} V^{\pi}_{\widehat{\mu}_{\xi}},$$

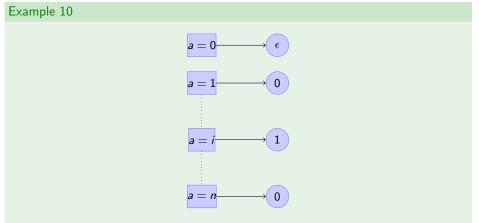


Figure: The MDP  $\mu_i$  from  $|\mathcal{A}| + 1$  MDPs.

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# Posterior (Thompson) sampling

Another heuristic is to simply sample an MDP from the belief  $\xi$ :

 $\mu^{(k)} \sim \xi(\mu)$ 

Then, we simply calculate the optimal policy for  $\mu^{(k)}$ :

$$\pi^*(\widehat{\mu}_{\xi}) \in rgmax_{\pi \in \Pi_1} V^{\pi}_{\mu^{(k)}},$$

### Properties

- ▶  $\sqrt{T}$  regret. (Direct proof: hard [1]. Easy proof: convert to confidence bound [11])
- Generally applicable for many beliefs.
- Connections to differential privacy [9].
- Generalises to stochastic value function bounds [8].

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# Belief-Augmented MDPs

- Unknown bandit problems can be converted into MDPs through the belief state.
- ▶ We can do the same for MDPs. We just create a hyperstate, composed of the current belief and the current belief state.

#### Bayesian reinforcement learning Planning: Heuristics and exact solutions

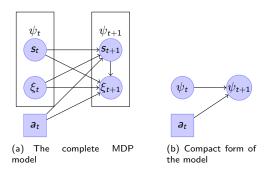


Figure: Belief-augmented MDP

The augmented MDP

$$P(s_{t+1} \in S \mid \xi_t, s_t, a_t) \triangleq \int_S P_{\mu}(s_{t+1} \in S \mid s_t, a_t) \,\mathrm{d}\xi_t(\mu) \tag{4.4}$$

$$\xi_{t+1}(\cdot) = \xi_t(\cdot \mid s_{t+1}, s_t, a_t)$$
(4.5)

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▶ So now we have converted the unknown MDP problem into an MDP.

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- ▶ So now we have converted the unknown MDP problem into an MDP.
- That means we can use dynamic programming to solve it.
- So... are we done?
- Unfortunately the exact solution is again exponential in the horizon.

How to deal with an arbitrary model space  $\ensuremath{\mathcal{M}}$ 

- The models  $\mu \in \mathcal{M}$  may be non-probabilistic simulators.
- ▶ We may not know how to choose the simulator parameters.

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- The models  $\mu \in \mathcal{M}$  may be non-probabilistic simulators.
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#### Overview of the approach

- ► Place a prior on the simulator parameters.
- Observe some data *h* on the real system.
- Approximate the posterior by statistics on simulated data.
- Calculate a near-optimal policy for the posterior.

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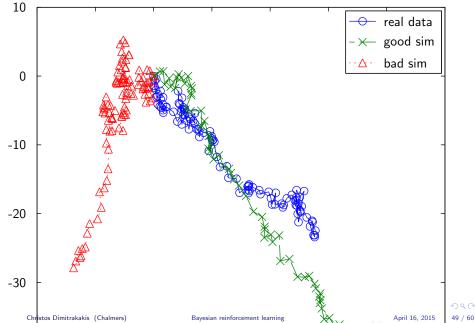
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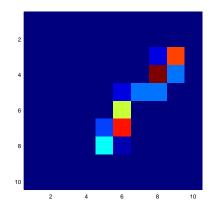
#### Overview of the approach

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### Results

- Soundness depends on properties of the statistics.
- ▶ In practice, can require much less data than a general model.





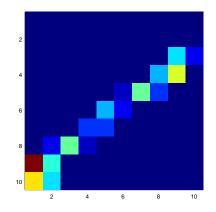
#### Cumulative features of real data

Trajectories are easy to generate.

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- How to compare?
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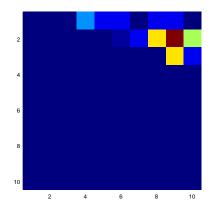
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When there is no probabilistic model ( $\mathbb{P}_{\mu}$  is not available): ABC!

- $\blacktriangleright$  A prior  $\xi$  on a class of simulators  ${\cal M}$
- History  $h \in \mathcal{H}$  from policy  $\pi$ .
- Statistic  $f : \mathcal{H} \to (\mathcal{W}, \| \cdot \|)$
- ► Threshold ε > 0.

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### Example 11 (Cumulative features)

Feature function  $\phi : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}^k$ .

$$f(h) \triangleq \sum_t \phi(x_t)$$

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### Example 11 (Utility)

$$f(h) \triangleq \sum_t r_t$$

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### ABC-RL using Thompson sampling

- ► do  $\hat{\mu} \sim \xi$ ,  $h' \sim \mathbb{P}_{\hat{\mu}}^{\pi}$
- until  $\|f(h') f(h)\| \leq \epsilon$
- $\blacktriangleright \ \mu^{(k)} = \hat{\mu}$
- $\pi^{(k)} \approx \arg \max \mathbb{E}^{\pi}_{\mu^{(k)}} U_t$

// sample a model and history // until the statistics are close // approximate posterior sample  $\mu^{(k)} \sim \xi_{\epsilon}(\cdot \mid h_t)$ // approximate optimal policy for sample

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# The approximate posterior $\xi_{\epsilon}(\cdot \mid h)$

Corollary 11

If f is a sufficient statistic and  $\epsilon = 0$ , then  $\xi(\cdot \mid h) = \xi_{\epsilon}(\cdot \mid h)$ .

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Assumption 2 (A1. Lipschitz log-probabilities)

For the policy  $\pi$ ,  $\exists L > 0$  s.t.  $\forall h, h' \in \mathcal{H}$  and  $\forall \mu \in \mathcal{M}$ 

 $\left|\ln\left[\mathbb{P}_{\mu}^{\pi}(h)/\mathbb{P}_{\mu}^{\pi}(h')
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Theorem 12 (The approximate posterior  $\xi_{\epsilon}(\cdot \mid h)$  is close to  $\xi(\cdot \mid h)$ )

If A1 holds then  $\forall \epsilon > 0$ :

$$D\left(\xi(\cdot \mid h) \parallel \xi_{\epsilon}(\cdot \mid h)\right) \le 2\mathbf{L}\epsilon + \ln |A_{\epsilon}^{h}|, \tag{4.6}$$

where  $A_{\epsilon}^{h} \triangleq \{z \in \mathcal{H} \mid ||f(z) - f(h)|| \leq \epsilon\}.$ 

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- Unknown MDPs can be handled in a Bayesian framework.
- This defines a belief-augmented MDP with
  - A state for the MDP.
  - A state for the agent's belief.
- ► The Bayes-optimal utility is convex, enabling approximations.
- A big problem in specifying the "right" prior.

Questions?

### Belief updates

Discounted reward MDPs Backwards induction

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# Updating the belief in discrete MDPs

Let  $D_t = \left\langle s^t, a^{t-1}, r^{t-1} \right
angle$  be the observed data to time t. Then

$$\xi(B \mid D_t, \pi) = \frac{\int_B \mathbb{P}^{\pi}_{\mu}(D_t) \,\mathrm{d}\xi(\mu)}{\int_{\mathcal{M}} \mathbb{P}^{\pi}_{\mu}(D_t) \,\mathrm{d}\xi(\mu)}.$$
(5.1)

$$\xi_{t+1}(B) \triangleq \xi(B \mid D_{t+1}) = \frac{\int_{B} \mathbb{P}^{\mu}_{\mu}(D_{t}) \,\mathrm{d}\xi(\mu)}{\int_{\mathcal{M}} \mathbb{P}^{\pi}_{\mu}(D_{t}) \,\mathrm{d}\xi(\mu)}$$
(5.2)  
$$= \frac{\int_{B} \mathbb{P}_{\mu}(s_{t+1}, r_{t} \mid s_{t}, a_{t}) \pi(a_{t} \mid s^{t}, a^{t-1}, r^{t-1}) \,\mathrm{d}\xi(\mu \mid D_{t})}{\int_{\mathcal{M}} \mathbb{P}_{\mu}(s_{t+1}, r_{t} \mid s_{t}, a_{t}) \,\mathrm{d}(a_{t} \mid s^{t}, a^{t-1}, r^{t-1}) \,\mathrm{d}\xi(\mu \mid D_{t})}$$
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$$= \frac{\int_{B} \mathbb{P}_{\mu}(s_{t+1}, r_{t} \mid s_{t}, a_{t}) \,\mathrm{d}\xi_{t}(\mu)}{\int_{\mathcal{M}} \mathbb{P}_{\mu}(s_{t+1}, r_{t} \mid s_{t}, a_{t}) \,\mathrm{d}\xi_{t}(\mu)}$$
(5.4)

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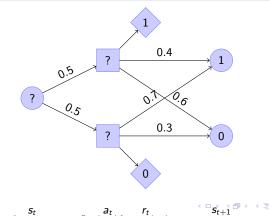
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Backwards induction policy evaluation

for State  $s \in S$ ,  $t = T, \ldots, 1$  do Update values

$$v_t(s) = \mathbb{E}^{\pi}_{\mu}(r_t \mid s_t = s) + \sum_{j \in S} \mathbb{P}^{\pi}_{\mu}(s_{t+1} = j \mid s_t = s)v_{t+1}(j),$$
(5.5)

#### end for



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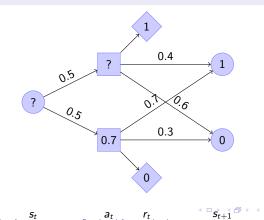
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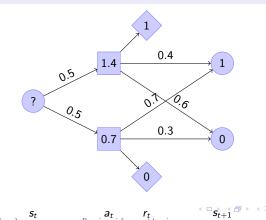
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**a**<sub>t</sub> **r**<sub>t</sub> Bayesian reinforcement learning

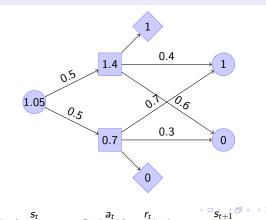
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#### end for



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Discounted reward MDPs

**Belief updates** 

Discounted reward MDPs

Backwards induction

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Discounted total reward.

$$U_t = \lim_{T \to \infty} \sum_{k=t}^T \gamma^k r_k, \qquad \gamma \in (0, 1)$$

# Definition 13

A policy  $\pi$  is stationary if  $\pi(a_t \mid s_t)$  does not depend on t.

### Remark 1

We can use the Markov chain kernel  $P_{\mu,\pi}$  to write the expected utility vector as

$$\boldsymbol{v}^{\pi} = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{t} \boldsymbol{P}_{\mu,\pi}^{t} \boldsymbol{r}$$
(6.1)

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# Theorem 14

For any stationary policy  $\pi$ ,  $v^{\pi}$  is the unique solution of

$$\boldsymbol{v} = \boldsymbol{r} + \gamma \boldsymbol{P}_{\mu,\pi} \boldsymbol{v}. \quad \leftarrow \text{fixed point}$$
 (6.2)

In addition, the solution is:

$$\boldsymbol{v}^{\pi} = (\boldsymbol{I} - \gamma \boldsymbol{P}_{\mu,\pi})^{-1} \boldsymbol{r}. \tag{6.3}$$

# Example 15

Similar to the geometric series:

$$\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \alpha^t = \frac{1}{1-\alpha}$$

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# Policy iteration

#### Algorithm 1 Policy iteration

Input  $\mu$ , S. Initialise  $v_0$ . for n = 1, 2, ... do  $\pi_{n+1} = \arg \max_{\pi} \{r + \gamma P_{\pi} v_n\}$  // policy improvement  $v_{n+1} = (I - \gamma P_{\mu,\pi_{n+1}})^{-1}r$  // policy evaluation break if  $\pi_{n+1} = \pi_n$ . end for Return  $\pi_n, v_n$ .

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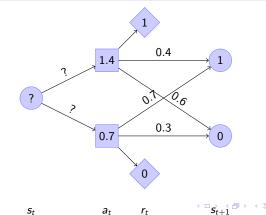
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Backwards induction policy optimization

for State  $s \in S$ ,  $t = T, \ldots, 1$  do Update values

$$v_t(s) = \max_a \mathbb{E}_{\mu}(r_t \mid s_t = s, a_t = a) + \sum_{j \in S} \mathbb{P}_{\mu}(s_{t+1} = j \mid s_t = s, a_t = a)v_{t+1}(j),$$
 (6.4)

### end for



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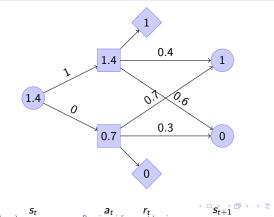
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Backwards induction policy optimization

for State  $s \in S$ ,  $t = T, \ldots, 1$  do Update values

$$v_t(s) = \max_a \mathbb{E}_{\mu}(r_t \mid s_t = s, a_t = a) + \sum_{j \in S} \mathbb{P}_{\mu}(s_{t+1} = j \mid s_t = s, a_t = a)v_{t+1}(j),$$
 (6.4)

end for



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