

Multi-Agent Systems

Homework Assignment 4

MSc AI, VU

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4 Fictitious Play

Consider the following pay-off matrix for a 2-player simultaneous game (Capitals indicate the actions, small letters the probabilities with which the corresponding action is played in a mixed strategy):

	$W(w)$	$X(x)$	$Y(y)$	$Z(z)$
$A(a)$	1, 5	2, 2	3, 4	3, 1
$B(b)$	3, 0	4, 1	2, 5	4, 2
$C(c)$	1, 3	2, 6	5, 2	2, 3

Since this game has no pure Nash equilibrium (check this), it must have at least one mixed Nash equilibrium. Recall that $a + b + c = 1$ and $w + x + y + z = 1$.

1. Program the fictitious play algorithm to find a mixed Nash equilibrium.
2. Do the results make sense to you, i.e. can you – *post hoc*, i.e. knowing which probabilities seem to be non-zero – theoretically explain the experimental result? Provide a brief discussion.

5 Monte Carlo simulation

5.1 Recap

Recall that Monte Carlo sampling allows us to estimate the expectation of a random function by sampling from the corresponding probability distribution. More precisely, if $f(x)$ is a 1-dim (continuous) probability density, and $X \sim f$ is a stochastic variable distributed according to this density f , then the expected value of some function φ can be estimated using Monte Carlo sampling by:

$$E_f(\varphi(X)) \equiv \int \varphi(x)f(x) dx \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \varphi(X_i) \quad \text{for sample of independent } X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \sim f.$$

Simulated p -value In the same vein, if you've observed a specific value for φ_{obs} and you need to decide whether this value is *exceptional* (in some sense) rather than typical, you can compute the *simulated p -value* which quantifies how exceptional that observed value φ_{obs} is in the simulated sample $\varphi(X_1), \varphi(X_2), \dots, \varphi(X_n)$.

5.2 Warming up ...

1. Assume that $X \sim N(0, 1)$ is standard normal. Estimate the mean value $E(\cos^2(X))$. Quantify the uncertainty on your result.

5.3 Quantifying the significance of an observed correlation

2. Suppose you're designing a deep neural network that needs to maximize some score function S . The actual design of the network depends on some hyperparameter A . Training the networks is computationally very demanding and time consuming, and as a consequence you have only been able to perform ten experiments to date. Based on these ten data points you observe a slight positive correlation of 0.3 between the value of the hyperparameter A and the score S . If this result is genuine, it suggests to increase A in the next experiment in order to improve the score. But if the correlation is not significant, increasing A could lead you astray. How would you use MC to decide whether the correlation is significant?

Hint: Compute the simulated p -value of the observed result, under the assumption of independence.

6 Exploration versus Exploitation: Thompson Sampling for Multi-Armed Bandits

Thompson sampling is an interesting alternative for UCB but requires some introduction. In what follows we will focus on **binary rewards**, so every draw, or pull of the arm, yields either a reward of 1 ($r = 1$ which happens with probability p), or a reward of 0 ($r = 0$ with probability $1 - p$). Initially, we know nothing about the success probability p but after some experimentation (pulling the arm and observing the rewards) our uncertainty over p decreases. Beta-distributions are a convenient way to model this change in uncertainty. Loosely speaking, beta-distributions can be seen as a versatile **class of probability densities for (success-)probabilities**. In the next sections we will make this more precise.

6.1 Preliminaries: Beta distributions modeling uncertainties about probabilities

The K -armed bandit problem with binary rewards Consider a bandit that for each pull of an arm, produces a binary reward: $r = 1$ (with probability p) or $r = 0$ (with probability $1 - p$). Assuming the bandit has K arms, this means that there are K unknown probabilities p_1, p_2, \dots, p_K and we need to identify the arm that has the highest probability

$$p^* = \max\{p_1, p_2, \dots, p_K\},$$

as pulling this arm will result in the highest cumulative reward.

Modeling the success probability of a single arm Let's focus on a single arm, for which the success probability is denoted as p . Initially we have no information (total uncertainty) about the value of p , but each pull of the arm yields a binary outcome (reward), providing some information about p , and thus reducing the corresponding uncertainty. In terms of the probability distribution for p this means that we start with a uniform distribution over the interval $[0, 1]$, but over time the density start peaking over the actual value for p .

Using beta-distributions to model the uncertainty on a probability The **beta-distribution** (cf. https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Beta_distribution) provides a convenient and mathematically tractable model that captures the behaviour explained above. Specifically, the beta-distribution is a (unimodal) probability distribution on the interval $[0, 1]$ which depends on two parameters: $\alpha, \beta \geq 1$. The explicit distribution is given by (for α, β integers!):

$$B(x; \alpha, \beta) = \frac{(\alpha + \beta - 1)!}{(\alpha - 1)! (\beta - 1)!} x^{\alpha-1} (1 - x)^{\beta-1} \quad (\text{for } 0 \leq x \leq 1).$$

The parameters α and β determine the shape of the distribution. In fact, it is helpful to think of $\alpha - 1$ and $\beta - 1$ as the number of observed successes ($\alpha - 1$) and failures ($\beta - 1$), respectively.

- If $\alpha = \beta = 1$ then we have the uniform distribution. Indeed, lacking any observations, all possible values for p are equally likely.
- If $\alpha = \beta$ the distribution is symmetric about $x = 1/2$. Again, if we have observed an equal number of successes and failures, then $p = 1/2$ is most likely.
- If $\alpha > \beta$ the density is right-leaning (i.e. concentrated in the neighbourhood of 1). This makes sense as observing more successes than failures makes higher values of p more likely. In fact, one can compute the mean explicitly:

$$X \sim B(x; \alpha, \beta) \implies EX = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta} = \frac{1}{1 + (\beta/\alpha)},$$

indicating that the ratio of failures to successes (β/α) determines the position of the mean.

- Larger values of α and β produce a more peaked distribution. Again, this ties in with the intuition that more trials reduce the uncertainty over the outcome, resulting in a more peaked density. Unsurprisingly, this also follows from the formula for the variance:

$$X \sim B(x; \alpha, \beta) \implies \text{Var}(X) = \frac{\alpha\beta}{(\alpha + \beta)^2(\alpha + \beta + 1)}.$$

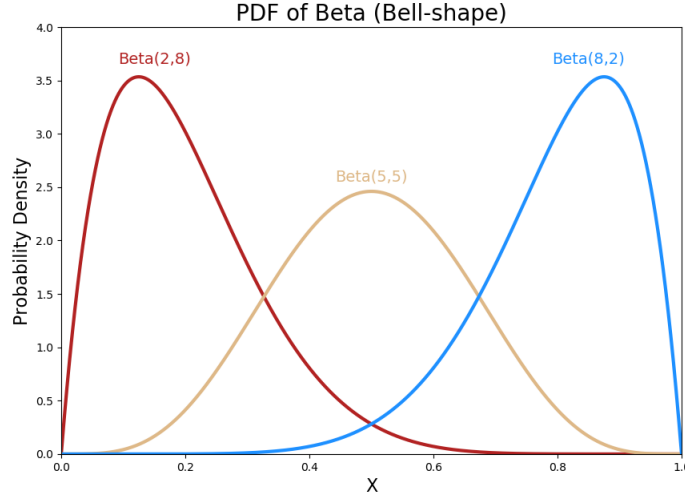


Figure 1: Some probability densities for the Beta-distribution with different parameters.

6.2 Thompson's Bayesian update rule

Although the beta-distribution seems like a reasonable model to quantify the uncertainty on a probability, there is a deeper reason for its use. Updating a (prior) beta-density with binary observations, results in a new beta-density with updated parameters (this is an example of what is known as **conjugated priors**). Specifically, if the **prior** is modeled as $B(x, \alpha, \beta)$, and we observe s successes (1) and f failures (0) then the **posterior** would be the beta distribution $B(x; \alpha+s, \beta+f)$. This observation yields the rationale for Thompson's Bayesian update rule:

- Initialise $\alpha = \beta = 1$ (yielding a uniform distribution, reflecting our lack of knowledge regarding the value of p). Now repeat the following loop:
 1. Sample from the bandit and get reward r (either $r = 1$ or $r = 0$);
 2. Update the values for α and β as follows:
 - if $r = 1$, then $\alpha \leftarrow \alpha + 1$
 - if $r = 0$, then $\beta \leftarrow \beta + 1$

This update rule can be summarized as:

$$\alpha \leftarrow \alpha + r \qquad \beta \leftarrow \beta + (1 - r)$$

Questions

1. Implement the Thompson update rule for single arm bandit (i.e. $k = 1$) and show experimentally that the Beta-density increasingly peaks at the correct value for p . To this end, plot both the evolution of the mean and variance over (iteration)time.

6.3 Thompson sampling for K-armed bandit Problem

For binary outcomes, the Thompson update rule offers an alternative for the UCB-based balancing of exploration and exploitation. Specifically, suppose we have a K -armed bandit problem. The

k -th arm delivers a reward $r = 1$ with (unknown!) probability p_k (and hence $r = 0$ with probability $1 - p_k$). For each arm ($k = 1, \dots, K$), the uncertainty about the corresponding p_k is modelled using a Beta-distribution $B(x; \alpha_k, \beta_k)$. Thompson sampling now tries to identify the arm that will deliver the maximal cumulative reward (highest p_k) by proceeding as follows:

Initialise all parameters to 1: $\alpha_k = 1 = \beta_k$; Now repeat the following loop:

- **Simulate** We use the beta-distributions to simulate the pulling of each arm. This means that we sample a value U_k from each of the K Beta-distributions:

$$U_k \sim B(x; \alpha_k, \beta_k) \quad (k = 1 \dots K).$$

- **Select** Determine which arm gave the best simulated result:

$$k_{max} = \arg \max \{U_1, U_2, \dots, U_K\}$$

Mindful of the uncertainties on the p_k -values, the above simulation gives us reason to believe that pulling the k_{max} arm is optimal (after all, we did a simulation using the available evidence, and this was the result).

- **Act** Sample the corresponding arm (i.e. arm k_{max}) and get reward r (either 1 or 0);
- **Update** Use the Bayesian update rule for the corresponding parameters:

$$\alpha_{k_{max}} \leftarrow \alpha_{k_{max}} + r \quad \text{and} \quad \beta_{k_{max}} \leftarrow \beta_{k_{max}} + (1 - r)$$

Questions

2. Write code to implement Thompson sampling for the above scenario when $K = 3$;
3. Perform numerical experiments in which you compare Thompson sampling with the UCB. Use **total regret** (provide the precise definition that you're using) as your performance criteria. For UCB, experiment with different values of the hyperparameter c . The fact that, for Thompson sampling, you don't need to specify an hyperparameter, is a distinct advantage.