Bayesian Reinforcement Learning

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MLG RCC

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Bayesian Reinforcement Learning - what is it?

Bayesian RL is about capturing and dealing with uncertainty, where 'classic RL' does not. Research in Bayesian RL includes modelling the transition-function, or value-function, policy, reward function probabilistically.

Differences over 'classic RL':

- Resolves exploitation & exploration dilemma by planning in belief space.
- Computationally intractable in general, but approximations exist.
- Uses and chooses samples to learn from efficiently, suitable when sample cost is high, e.g. robot motion.

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- ullet The i'th machine returns \$0 or \$1 based on a fixed yet unknown probability $p_i \in [0,1]$
- Objective: maximise your winnings.

 As you play, you record what you see, formatted as (#wins, #losses). Your current records shows:

Arm 1: (1,2) Arm 2: (21,19)

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- Which machine would you play next if you have 1 token remaining?
- How about if you have 100 tokens remaining?

'Classic' Reinforcement Learning mentality:

Two action classes (not mutually exclusive):

Exploit

Select action of greatest expected return given current belief on reward probabilities. i.e. select best action according to best guess of underlying MDP: MLE or MAP \rightarrow select Arm #2!

Explore

Select random action to increase our certainty of underlying MDP. This may lead to higher returns when exploiting in the future.

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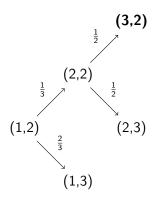
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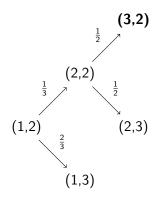
 \rightarrow Dilemma (?): how to choose between exploitation and exploration? Seems like comparing apples and oranges...

Many heuristics exist, but is there a principled approach?

Steps towards resolving 'exploitation' vs 'exploration': model future beliefs in Arm 1 (#wins, #losses):

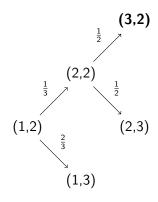


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← higher expectation of rewards in this potential future!

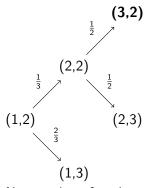
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we can **plan** in this space, and compute expected *additional* rewards gained from exploratory actions.

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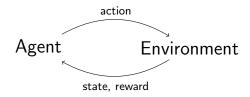
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we can **plan** in this space, and compute expected additional rewards gained from exploratory actions.

Note: value of exploration depends on how much we can exploit that information gain later, i.e. # tokens remaining. Alternatively, with infinite tokens and discount rate γ on future rewards, effective horizon $\propto \frac{-1}{\log(\gamma)}$

Planning in MDP Environments

Planning overview



- Environment: a familiar MDP (we can simulate interaction with the world accurately).
- Goal: compute a policy that maximises expected long-term discounted rewards over a horizon (episodic or continual).

Markov Decision Process

S, set of states *s*

A, set of action a

 $\pi: S \to A$, the policy, a mapping from state s to action a

 $T(s, a, s') = P(s'|s, a) \in [0, 1]$, transition probability, that state s' is reached by executing action a from state s

 $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{s},\mathbf{a},\mathbf{s}')\in\mathbb{R}$, a reward distribution. An agent receives a reward drawn from this when taking action a from state s reaching state s'

Markov Decision Process

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System dynamics

 $T(s, a, s') = P(s'|s, a) \in [0, 1]$, transition probability, that state s' is reached by executing action a from state s

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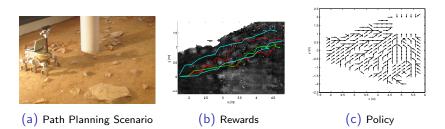
Robot planning example

Goal: traverse to human-specified goal location 'safely'

States: physical space (x, y, yaw)

Action: move forward, left, spin anticlockwise, etc.

Rewards: 'dangerousness' of each (s, a) motion primitives



Rewards

A measure of *desirability* of the agent being in a particular state. Use to encode *what* we want the agent to achieve, not *how*.

example: Agent learns to play chess:

Don't reward agent for capturing opponent's queen, only for winning.

(don't want agent discovering novel ways to capture queens at expense of losing games!)

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<u>Caveat</u>: Reward *shaping*, the modification of reward function to give partial credit without affecting the optimal policy (much), can be important in practice.

Optimal Action-Value Function

Optimal action value: expectation of all future discounted rewards from taking action a from state s, assuming subsequent actions chosen by the optimal policy π^* . It can be re-expressed as a recursive relationship.

$$Q^{*}(s, a) = E_{\pi^{*}} \left\{ \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{t} R(s_{t}, a_{t}) | s_{0} = s, a_{0} = a \right\}$$

$$= E_{\pi^{*}} \left\{ R(s_{0}, a_{0}) + \gamma \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^{t} R(s_{t+1}, a_{t+1}) | s_{0} = s, a_{0} = a \right\}$$

$$= \bar{R}(s, a) + \gamma E_{\pi^{*}} \left\{ \max_{a'} Q^{*}(s_{t+1}, a') | s_{0} = s, a_{0} = a \right\}$$

$$= \bar{R}(s, a) + \gamma \sum_{s'} T(s, a, s') [\max_{a'} Q^{*}(s', a')]$$

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Action-Value Optimisation

Need to satisfy the Bellman Optimality Equation:

$$Q^*(s,a) = \bar{R}(s,a) + \gamma \sum_{s'} T(s,a,s') \max_{a'} Q^*(s',a')$$

$$\pi^* = \arg \max_{a} Q^*(s,a)$$

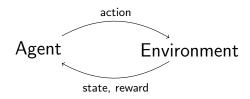
An algorithm to compute $Q^*(s,a)$ is value iteration: for all $s \in S$ repeat until convergence:

$$Q_{t+1}(s, a) \leftarrow \bar{R}(s, a) + \gamma \sum_{s'} T(s, a, s') \max_{a'} Q_t(s', a')$$

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Reinforcement Learning

Reinforcement learning overview



- Environment: an unfamiliar MDP (T(s, a, s')) and/or $\bar{R}(s, a)$ unknown) and possibly dynamic / changing.
- Consequence: agent cannot simulate interaction with world in advance, to predict future outcomes. Instead, the optimal policy is learned through sequential interaction and evaluative feedback.
- <u>Goal</u>: same as planning (compute a policy that maximises expected long-term discounted rewards over a horizon).

With **known** environmental models $\bar{R}(s, a)$ and T(s, a, s'), Q's computed iteratively using value iteration (e.g. planning):

$$Q_{t+1}(s, a) \leftarrow \bar{R}(s, a) + \gamma \sum_{s'} T(s, a, s') \max_{a'} Q_t(s', a')$$

Q-learning

With **unknown** environmental models, Q's computed as *point estimates*:

on experience $\{s_t, a_t, r_t, s_{t+1}\}$:

$$Q(s_t, a_t) \leftarrow Q(s_t, a_t) + \alpha_t(R_{t+1} + \gamma \max_{a'}(Q(s_{t+1}, a')) - Q(s_t, a_t))$$

if $\{s,a\}$ visited infinitely often, $\sum_t \alpha_t = \infty$, $\sum_t \alpha_t^2 < \infty$, then Q will converge to Q^* (independent of policy being followed!).

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When to explore?: Heuristic approach to action selection

A couple heuristic examples agents use for action selection, to mostly exploit and sometimes and explore:

• ϵ -greedy:

$$\pi(a|s) = egin{cases} (1-\epsilon), & ext{if } a = argmax_a Q_t(s,a) \ \epsilon/|A|, & ext{if } a
eq argmax_a Q_t(s,a) \end{cases}$$

e.g.
$$\epsilon=5\%$$

• Softmax: $\pi(a|s) = \frac{e^{Q_t(s,a)/\tau}}{\sum_i e^{Q_t(s,i)/\tau}}$ i.e. biased towards more fruitful actions. τ is a crank for more frequent exploration.

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Note: often, heuristics are too inefficient for online learning! We wish to minimise wasteful exploration.



Bayesian Reinforcement Learning (Model-Based)

Brief Description

- Start with a prior over transition probabilities T(s, a, s'), maintain the posterior (update them) as evidence comes in.
- Now we can reason about more/less likely MDPs, instead of just possible MDPs or a single 'best guess' MDP.
- Can plan in the space of posteriors to:
 - evaluate the likelihood of any possible outcome of an action.
 - model how that outcome will change the posterior.

Motivation (1)

Resolves 'classic' RL dilemma:

- maximise immediate rewards (exploit), or
- maximise info gain (explore)?

Wrong question!

→ Single objective: maximise expected rewards up to the horizon (as a weighted average over the possible futures). (implicitly trades-off exploration with exploitation optimally)

Motivation (2)

More Pros:

- Prior information is easily used, can start planning straight away by running a full backup.
- Easy to explicit encoding of prior knowledge / domain assumptions.
- Easy to update belief if using conjugate priors, as we collect evidence

Cons:

 Computationally intractable except in special cases (bandits, short horizons)

Bayesian RL as a POMDP (1)

- Let $\theta_{sas'}$ denotes unknown MDP parameter $T(s,a,s') = P(s'|s,a) \in [0,1]$ Let $b(\theta)$ be the agent's prior belief over all unknown parameters $\theta_{sas'}$
- [Duff 2002]: Define hybrid state: $S_p = S$ (certain) $\times \theta_{sas'}$ (uncertain). Cast Bayesian RL as a Partially Observable Markov Decision Process (POMDP) $\mathscr{P} = \langle S_p, A_p, O_p, T_p, Z_p, R_p, \gamma, b_p^0 \rangle$
- Use favourite POMDP solution technique. This provides a Bayes Optimal policy in our original state space.

Bayesian RL as a POMDP (2)

 $S_p = S \times \theta$, hybrid states of known S and all unknown $\theta_{sas'}$

 $A_p = A$, original action set (unchanged)

 $O_p = S$: observation space

Bayesian RL as a POMDP (2)

 $S_{p} = S \times \theta$, hybrid states of known S and all unknown $\theta_{sas'}$ $A_n = A$, original action set (unchanged) $O_p = S$: observation space

$$\begin{split} T_{p}(s,\theta_{sas'},a,s',\theta'_{sas'}) &= P(s',\theta'_{sas'}|s,\theta_{sas'},a) \\ &= P(\theta'_{sas'}|\theta_{sas'})P(s'|s,\theta_{sas'},a) \\ &= \delta(\theta'_{sas'}-\theta_{sas'})\theta_{sas'} \text{ , assuming } \theta_{sas'} \text{ is stationary } \\ R_{p}(s,\theta_{sas'},a,s',\theta'_{sas'}) &= R(s,a,s') \\ Z_{p}(s',\theta'_{sas'},a,o) &= P(o|s',\theta'_{sas'},a) = \delta(o-s') \text{ , as observation is } s' \end{split}$$

T(.): transition probability (known), R(.): reward distribution, Z(.): observation function

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Bayesian Inference

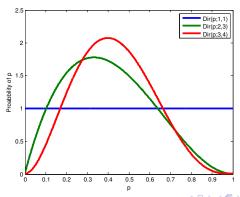
let $b(\theta)$ be the agent's current (prior) belief over all unknown parameters $\theta_{sas'}$. For each $\{s,a,s'\}$ transition observed, the belief is updated accordingly:

$$egin{array}{lll} b_{sas'}(heta) & \propto & b(heta)P(s'| heta_{sas'},s,a) \ & = & b(heta) heta_{sas'} \ (ext{posterior}) & \propto & (ext{prior}) imes (ext{likelihood}) \end{array}$$

Common Prior: Dirichlet Distribution

$$Dir(\theta_{sa}; n_{sa}) = \frac{1}{B(n_{sa})} \prod_{s'} (\theta_{sas'})^{n_{sas'}-1}$$
 suitable for discrete state spaces

The Dirichlet distribution is a conjugate prior to a multinomial likelihood distribution (counts # a from s reached s'). Thus easy closed for Bayes updates.



Bayesian Inference: Discrete MDPs

$$b_{\mathsf{sas'}}(\theta) \propto b(\theta) \theta_{\mathsf{sas'}}$$

For discrete MDPs, we can define $\theta_{sa} = P(.|s,a)$, as a multinomial.

Choosing prior $b(\theta)$ form as a product of Dirichlets $\prod_{s,a} Dir(\theta_{sa}; n_{sa}) \propto \prod_{s,a} \prod_{s'} (\theta_{sas'})^{n_{sas'}-1}$,

the posterior / updated-belief retains the same form:

$$b_{sas'}(\theta) \propto \left(\prod_{\hat{s},\hat{a}} Dir(\theta_{\hat{s}\hat{a}}; n_{\hat{s}\hat{a}})\right) \theta_{sas'}$$

$$\propto \prod_{\hat{s},\hat{a}} Dir(\theta_{\hat{s}\hat{a}}; n_{\hat{s}\hat{a}} + \delta_{\hat{s},\hat{a},\hat{s}'}(s, a, s')) \tag{1}$$

(where n_{sa} is a vector of hyperparameters $n_{sas'}$, the $\# \{s, a, s'\}$ transitions observed)

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ightarrow So belief updated by incrementing corresponding $\textit{n}_{\textit{sas'}}$

Factoring structural priors

Can transition dynamics can be jointly expressed as a function of a smaller number of parameters?

Parameter *tying* is a special case of knowing $\theta_{sas'} = \theta_{\hat{s}\hat{a}\hat{s}'}$.

- realistic, real-life action outcomes from one state often generalise
- useful, speeds up convergence / less trials required \rightarrow mitigates expensive hardware collisions etc.

Factoring structural priors: Example (1)

Taxi example: [Dietterich 1998]

- Goal: pick up passenger and drop at destination.
- States: 25 taxi location \times 4 pickup locations \times 4 dropoff destinations
- Actions: N, S, E, W, pickup, dropoff
- <u>Rewards</u>: +20 for successful delivery of passenger, -10 for illegal pickup or dropoff, -1 otherwise.

$$\#\theta_{sa} = |S| \times |A| = 400 \times 6 = 2400.$$



Figure: possible pickup, dropoff locations: R, Y, G, B

Factoring structural priors: Example (2)

We can factor θ_{sa} : We know a priori that navigation to pickup location is independent of dropoff-destination! Furthermore, navigation task is independent of purpose (pickup or dropoff).

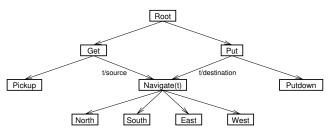


Figure: navigation as a subroutine

 \rightarrow # states required to learn navigation: $25 \times 4 = 100 < 400$. Using a factored DBN model to generalises transitions for multiple states, we quarter the # of θ_{sa} to learn.

Value Optimisation

Classic RL Bellman equation:

$$Q^*(s,a) = \sum_{s'} P(s'|s,a)[R(s,a,s') + \gamma \max_{a'} Q^*(s',a')]$$

POMDP Bellman equation, in BRL context:

$$Q^*(s,b,a) = \sum_{s'} P(s'|s,b,a)[R(s,a,s') + \gamma \max_{a'} Q^*(s',\mathbf{b_{sas'}},a')]$$

The Bayes-optimal policy is $\pi^*(s,b) = argmax_aQ^*(s,b,a)$, which maximises the predicted reward up to the horizon, over a weighted average of all the possible futures.

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Big Picture

Task: solve:

$$Q^*(s, b, a) = \sum_{s'} P(s'|s, b, a) [R(s, a, s') + \gamma \max_{a'} Q^*(s', b_{sas'}, a')]$$

<u>Challenge</u>: Size of $s \times b_{sas'}$ space grows exponentially with number of $\theta_{sas'}$ parameters \rightarrow Bayes-Optimal solution intractable.

Solutions: approximate $Q^*(s, b, a)$ via:

- discretisation
- exploration bonuses [BEB, Kolter 2009]
- myopic value of info [Bayesian Q-learning, Dearden 1999]
- sample beliefs [Bayesian Forward Search Sparse Sampling, Littman 2012]
- sample MDPs, update occasionally [Thompson Sampling, Strens 2000]

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Algorithm: BEETLE (1)

[Poupart et al. 2006]

Exploits piecewise linear and convex property of POMDP value function [Sondik 1971].

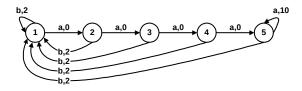
- Sample a set of reachable (s, b) pairs by simulating a random policy.
- Uses Point Based Value Iteration (PBVI) [Pineau 2003] to approximate value iteration, by tracking value + derivative of sampled belief points. Proves α -functions (one per sampled belief) in Bayesian RL are a set of multivariate polynomials of $\theta_{sas'}$, and $V_s^*(\theta) = max_i poly_i(\theta)$.
- Scalable, has a closed form value representation under Bellman backups.





Figure 1: POMDP value function representation using PBVI (on the left) and a grid (on the right).

Algorithm: BEETLE (2)



 $\textit{Figure 1.} \ \textit{The "Chain" problem}$

Figure: [Strens 2002]

Table 1. Expected total reward for chain and handwashing problems. na-mindicates insufficient memory.

rable 1. Expected total reward for chain and handwashing problems. Harmindicates insumicial memory.									
problem	S	A	free	optimal	discrete	exploit	Beetle	Beetle time (minutes)	
			params	(utopic)	POMDP			precomputation	optimization
chain_tied	5	2	1	3677	3661 ± 27	3642 ± 43	3650 ± 41	0.4	1.5
chain_semi	5	2	2	3677	3651 ± 32	3257 ± 124	3648 ± 41	1.3	1.3
chain_full	5	2	40	3677	na-m	3078 ± 49	1754 ± 42	14.8	18.0
handw_tied	9	2	4	1153	1149 ± 12	1133 ± 12	1146 ± 12	2.6	11.8
handw_semi	9	2	8	1153	990 ± 8	991 ± 31	1082 ± 17	3.4	52.3
handw_full	9	6	270	1083	na-m	297 ± 10	385 ± 10	125.3	8.3

Figure: [Poupart 2006]

PAC-MDP and Bayesian RL algorithms

Model Based Interval Estimation with Exploration Bonus MBIE-EB (PAC-MDP) and Bayesian Exploration Bonus BEB (Bayesian RL) will be compared. Both:

- count how many times each transition (s, a, s') has happened: $\alpha(s, a, s')$;
- use counts to produce an estimate of the underlying MDP;
- add exploration bonus to the reward for (s, a) pair if not visited enough;
- act greedily with respect to this modified MDP.

Bellman's optimality equations with exploration bonus

Let
$$\alpha_0(s,a) = \sum_{s'} \alpha(s,a,s')$$
 and $b = \{\alpha(s,a,s')\}$. Then $P(s'|b,s,a) = \frac{\alpha(s,a,s')}{\alpha_0(s,a)}$ Attempts to maximize :

BEB

$$\tilde{V}_{H}^{*}(b,s) = \max_{a} \left\{ R(s,a) + \frac{\beta}{1 + \alpha_{0}(s,a)} + \sum_{s'} P(s'|b,s,a) \tilde{V}_{H-1}^{*}(s') \right\}$$

MBIE-EB

$$\tilde{V}_{H}^{*}(s) = \max_{a} \left\{ R(s, a) + \frac{\beta}{\sqrt{\alpha_{0}(s, a)}} + \sum_{s'} P(s'|b, s, a) \tilde{V}_{H-1}^{*}(b, s') \right\}$$

Near Bayesian optimal

Approximate Bayes-Optimal:

If \mathcal{A}_t denotes the policy followed by the algorithm at time t, then with probability greater than $1-\delta$

$$V_t^{\mathcal{A}}(b_t, s_t) \geq V^*(b_t, s_t) - \epsilon$$

where $V^*(b, s)$ is the value function for a Bayes-optimal strategy.

Near Bayes Optimal:

With probability $\geq 1-\delta$, an agent follows an approximate Bayes-optimal policy for all but a "small" number of steps, which is polynomial in quantities representing the system.

BEB near Bayesian optimality

Theorem (Kolter and Ng, 2009)

Let \mathcal{A}_t denote the policy followed by the BEB algorithm (with $\beta=2H^2$) at time t, and let s_t and b_t be the corresponding state and belief. Also suppose we stop updating the belief for a state-action pair when $\alpha_0(a,s)>4H^3/\epsilon$. Then with probability at least $1-\delta$,

$$V_H^{\mathcal{A}_t}(b_t, s_t) \geq V_H^*(b_t, s_t) - \epsilon$$

i..e, the algorithm is ϵ -close to the optimal Bayesian policy for all but

$$m = O\left(\frac{|S||A|H^6}{\epsilon^2}\log\frac{|S||A|}{\delta}\right)$$

time steps.

PAC-MDP

Theorem (Strehl, Li and Littman 2006)

Let A_t denote the policy followed by some algorithm. Also, let the algorithm satisfy the following properties, for some input ϵ :

- acts greedily for every time step t;
- is optimistic $(V_t(s) \ge V_t^*(s) \epsilon)$
- has bounded learning complexity (bounded number of action-value estimate updates and number of escape events)
- is accurate $(V_t(s) V_{M_{\kappa_t}}^{\pi_t}(s) \leq \epsilon)$

Then, with probability greater than $1 - \delta$, for all but

$$\tilde{O}\left(\frac{|S|^2|A|H^6}{\epsilon^2}\right)$$

time steps, the algorithm follows an 4ϵ optimal policy.

Rate of Decay

Theorem (Kolter and Ng, 2009)

Let A_t denote the policy followed an algorithm using any (arbitrary complex) exploration bonus that is upper bounded by

$$\frac{\beta}{\alpha_0(s,a)^p}$$

for some constant β and p > 1/2. Then \exists some MDP M and $\epsilon_0(\beta, p)$, s.t. with probability greater than $\delta_0 = 0.15$,

$$V_H^{\mathcal{A}_t}(s_t) < V_H^*(s_t) - \epsilon_0$$

will hold for an unbounded number of steps.

The proof uses the following inequality.

Lemma (Slud's inequality)

Let $X_1,...X_n$ be i.i.d. Bernoulli random variables, with mean $\mu > 3/4$.

$$P\left(\mu - \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}X_{i} > \epsilon\right) \geq 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{\epsilon\sqrt{n}}{\sqrt{\mu(1-\mu)}}\right)$$

Proof

The lower bound on the probability that the algorithm's estimate of the reward for playing a_1 plus the exploration bonus is pessimistic by at least β/n^p :

$$P\left(3/4 - \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}r_{i} - f(n) \ge \frac{\beta}{n^{p}}\right)$$

$$\ge P\left(3/4 - \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}r_{i} \ge \frac{2\beta}{n^{p}}\right)$$

$$\ge 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{8\beta}{\sqrt{3}n^{p-1/2}}\right)$$

Proof

Set

$$n \ge \left(\frac{8\beta}{\sqrt{3}}\right)^{\frac{2}{2p-1}}$$

and

$$\epsilon_0(\beta, p) = \beta / \left(\left(\frac{8\beta}{\sqrt{3}} \right)^{\frac{2p}{2p-1}} \right)$$

So at stage n with probability at least 0.15, action a_2 will be preferred over a_1 and the agent will stop exploring \Rightarrow the algorithm will be more than ϵ suboptimal for an infinite number of steps, for any $\epsilon \geq \epsilon_0$.

Conclusions

- Both algorithms use the same intuition: in order to perform well, we want to explore enough that we learn an accurate model of the system;
- For PAC-MDP, exploration bonus cannot shrink at a rate faster that $\frac{1}{2}$ or they fail to be near optimal, and slow rate of decay results in more exploration;
- BEB reduces the amount of exploration needed, which allows us to achieve lower sample complexity and use greedier exploration method;
- a near Bayesian optimal policy is not near-optimal: the optimality is considered with respect to the Bayesian policy, rather than the optimal policy for some fixed MDP.