Chapter 2: Multi-armed Bandits

2.1 A k-armed Bandit Problem

game rule

- k options, each has a random numerical reward
- objective: maximize expected total reward over time

2.2 Action-value Methods

Sample-average method

$$Q_t(a) \doteq \frac{\text{sum of rewards when } a \text{ taken prior to } t}{\text{number of times } a \text{ taken prior to } t} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{t-1} R_i \cdot 1_{A_i = a}}{\sum_{i=1}^{t-1} 1_{A_i = a}}$$

 $Q_t(a)$ converges to $q_*(a)$ when the denominator goes to infinity.

• greedy action method

$$A_t \doteq rg \max_x Q_t(a)$$

No exporation, only exploitation

ε-greedy action method
 With probability ε, choose an action randomly equiprobably.

2.3 The 10-armed Testbed

 ϵ -greedy betters off greedy when:

- reward variance is large
- reward is nonstationary

2.4 Incremental Implementation

$$Q_{n+1} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} R_i$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \left(R_n + (n-1) \frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} R_i \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} (R_n + (n-1)Q_n)$$

$$= Q_n + \frac{1}{n} [R_n - Q_n]$$

The general form of it is:

The expression [Target - OldEstimate] is an *error* in the estimate.

StepSize is denoted as α or $\alpha_t(a)$.

2.5 Tracking a Nonstationary Problem

If we take constant StepSize $\alpha \in (0,1]$, we have:

$$Q_{n+1} \doteq Q_n + \alpha [R_n - Q_n]$$

And thus

$$Q_{n+1} = Q_n + \alpha [R_n - Q_n]$$

$$= \alpha R_n + (1 - \alpha)Q_n$$

$$= \alpha R_n + (1 - \alpha)\alpha R_{n-1} + (1 - \alpha)^2 Q_{n-1}$$
...
$$= (1 - \alpha)^n Q_1 + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha (1 - \alpha)^{n-i} R_i$$

In this case, Q_{n+1} is called an *exponential recency-weighted average* of past rewards and Q_1 .

$\{\alpha_n(a)\}$ convergence condition

A well-known result in stochastic approximation theory gives us the conditions required to assure convergence with probability 1:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} lpha_n(a) = \infty \ ext{ and } \ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} lpha_n^2(a) < \infty$$

- The first condition is required to guarantee that the steps are large enough to eventually overcome any initial conditions or random fluctuations.
- The second condition guarantees that eventually the steps become small enough to assure convergence.
- 1. In sample average method, $\alpha_n(a) = \frac{1}{n}$ is bound to converge.
- 2. Constant $\alpha_n(a) = \alpha$ may not converge, but can respond to changes in non-stationary setup well. *Non-stationary problems are common in RL*.

2.6 Optimistic Initial Values

Initial Bias

Initial bias: The dependence of $Q_1(a)$

Choosing optimistic(high) initial values encourages exploration. All actions will be tried several times before converge.

This trick is effective on stationary problems but far from being a generally useful approach to encouraging exploration.

• In Non-stationary problems, its drive for exploration is temporary.

2.7 Upper-Confidence-Bound Action Selection

$$A_t(a) \doteq rg \max_a \left[Q_t(a) + c \sqrt{rac{\ln t}{N_t(a)}}
ight]$$

 $Q_t(a)+c\sqrt{\frac{\ln t}{N_t(a)}}$ is the upper-bound of $q_*(a)$ with confidence level c. This method takes uncertainty into consideration.

The requirement of storing $N_t(a)$ makes it impractical in large action space problems.

2.8 Gradient Bandit Algorithms

Another approach instead of $Q_t(a)$: learning a numerical *preference* function $H_t(a)$ overtime to determine the probability of choosing the action, according to *soft-max distribution*.

$$\Pr\{A_t=a\} \doteq rac{e^{H_t(a)}}{\sum_{b=1}^k e^{H_t(b)}} \doteq \pi_t(a)$$

 $H_t(a)$ can be updated using stochastic gradient ascent:

$$H_{t+1}(A_t) \doteq H_t(A_t) + \alpha (R_t - \bar{R}_t)(1 - \pi_t(A_t)),$$
 and $H_{t+1}(a) \doteq H_t(a) - \alpha (R_t - \bar{R}_t)\pi_t(a),$ for all $a \neq A_t$

 $\bar{R}_t(a)$ is the average of all the rewards up through and including time t. It serves as the baseline of rewards. If current reward exceeds the baseline, the preference increases.