

Stochastic Linear Bandits An Empirical Study

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1 Problem 1: Linear epsilon greedy

1. For LinUCB, here is the code of our receive_reward function with the updates of the covariance matrix. The action is then chosen as the maximizer of the inner product between the estimated $\hat{\theta}$ and the arms.

```
1
2
3  def receive_reward(self, chosen_arm, reward):
4      """
5          update the internal quantities required to estimate the parameter
            theta using least squares
6      """
7      self.cov += np.outer(chosen_arm, chosen_arm) # update the
            covariance matrix
8      self.invcov = pinv(self.cov) # update the inverse covariance
            matrix
9
10     #update b_t
11     self.b_t += reward * chosen_arm
12
13     self.hat_theta = np.inner(self.invcov, self.b_t) # update the
            least square estimate
14     self.t += 1
```

2. The task on which we test the algorithm is the following: we have 7 arms, each of them is a 10-dimensional vector with values drawn from a normal distribution. We choose a long horizon of 1000 rounds to see the convergence of the algorithms, and we run the algorithm 100 times. We have tested the algorithm with different values of ϵ and the results are presented in the figure 2. This experiment highlights that the algorithm converges to the optimal arm, and that the smaller the value of ϵ , the better the convergence. Compared to the Uniform Random algorithm, the LinearEpsilonGreedy algorithm is a much better baseline as it converges to the optimal arm.
3. According to the documentation of numpy, the complexity of the pinv function is $O(\min(nm^2, n^2m))$. In our problem, the matrix is squared, of size d so the complexity is $O(d^3)$. This can create problems when facing high-dimensional problems. We have therefore decided to implement a class LinearEpsilonGreedybis, in which we have changed the estimation of $\hat{\theta}$. Instead of estimating θ through the least square estimator, we decided to estimate it through this estimator: $\hat{\theta} = \sum_{t=1}^T \langle \theta, A_t \rangle A_t$. We didn't manage to find theoretical guarantees about the expected value of this estimator, as $\mathbb{E}(\hat{\theta}) = \sum_{t=1}^T \mathbb{E}(\langle \theta, A_t \rangle A_t)$, which can't be precised without assumptions on the distribution of A_t . However, we have tested it on different problems, and it seems to obtain the same results as the one obtained with the least square estimator. Computing $\hat{\theta}$ has a complexity in $O(d)$, as we only have to compute scalars products of d -

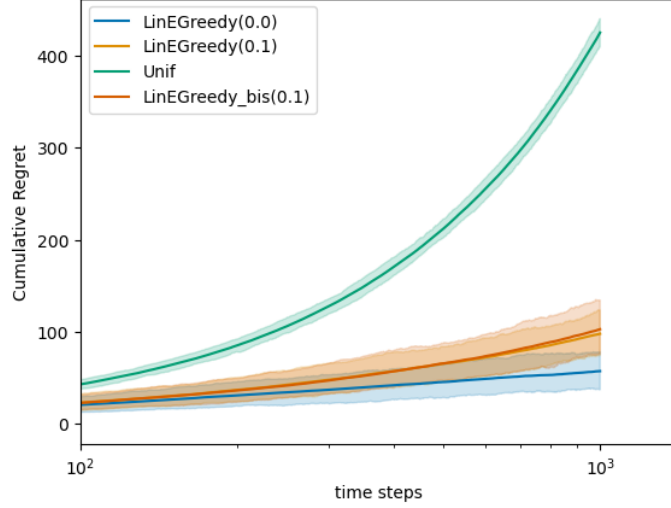


Figure 1: Performance of the LinearEpsilonGreedy algorithm with different values of ϵ

vectors. The figure 2 underlines the gain in computational time, while the performances are the same.

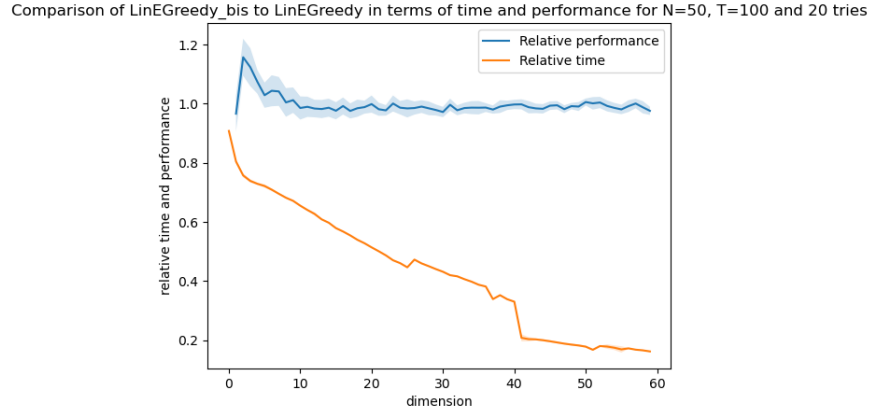


Figure 2: Comparison of the performances and time of execution of LinearEpsilonGreedy and the LinearEpsilonGreedy bis, with $N=50$, $T=200$ and 20 tries.

2 Problem 2: LinUCB and LinTS

1. For the implementation of LinUCB, we have implemented the function $\beta(t, \delta)$ and directly computed the upper confidence born from the course. The arm selected is the one that maximises the following quantity:

$$x^T \hat{\theta}_t^\lambda + \|x\|_{(B_t^\lambda)^{-1}} \beta(t, \delta).$$

For the LinTS, we update the parameters as described in q2. We then draw a θ^* from the posterior distribution and choose the arm that maximizes the inner product between the arm and the sampled θ^* . We provide the code of the `get_action` function below.

```

1  def get_action(self, arms):
2      theta= np.random.multivariate_normal(self.mu, self.cov)
3      theta=theta/np.linalg.norm(theta)
4      return arms[np.argmax(np.dot(arms, theta))]

```

2. The prior on θ^* is that it follows the law $\mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma)$ (proof in the Appendix).

Let us define :

$$\Sigma_t^{-1} = \Sigma^{-1} + \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T A_t^T A_t}{\sigma^2}$$

and $\mu_t = \Sigma_t \times (\frac{\sum_{t=1}^T A_t^T r_t}{\sigma^2})$

The posterior on θ^* is $\mathcal{N}(\mu_t, \Sigma_t)$

3. We have tested all the algorithms for different values of K and d . For each value, we have picked the best algorithm and plotted it on the Fig.3. We can observe that the LinTS model stands out of the crowd, being the best in almost every case.

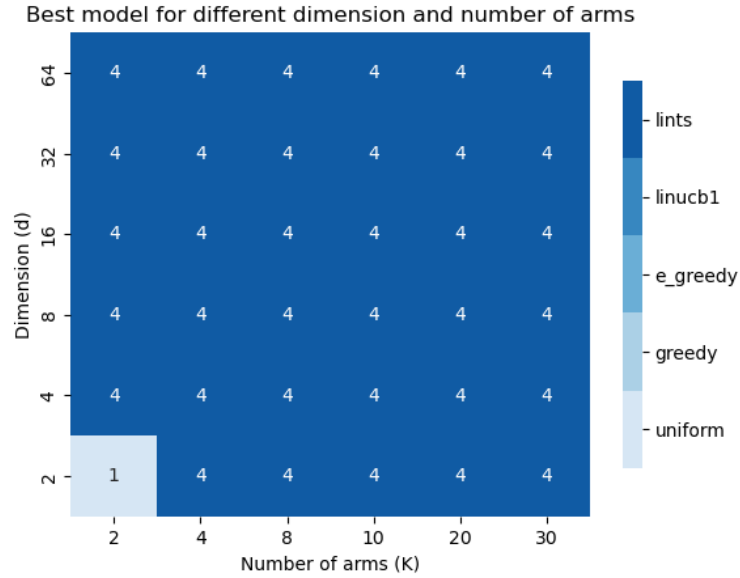


Figure 3: Comparison of the performances of all the models for different values of K and d

3 Appendix

Proof of the posterior distribution of θ^* in LinTS

Let us note A_t , the chosen action at time t and $Y_t = \langle A_t, \theta^* \rangle + \epsilon_t$ the reward.

We directly have that, $Y_t \sim \mathcal{N}(A_t(\theta^*)^T, \sigma^2)$.

Thanks to Bayes rule, we have :

$$\mathbb{P}(\theta^* | Y_1, \dots, Y_t, A_1, \dots, A_t) = \mathbb{P}(Y_1, \dots, Y_t, A_1, \dots, A_t | \theta^*) \times \frac{\mathbb{P}(\theta^*)}{\mathbb{P}(Y_1, \dots, Y_t, A_1, \dots, A_t)}$$

The denominator is a constant with respect to θ^* so :

$$\mathbb{P}(\theta^*|Y_1, \dots, Y_t, A_1, \dots, A_t) \propto \mathbb{P}(Y_1, \dots, Y_t, A_1, \dots, A_t|\theta^*) \times \mathbb{P}(\theta^*)$$

But, $\theta^* \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \Sigma)$ and

$$\mathbb{P}(Y_1, \dots, Y_t, A_1, \dots, A_t|\theta^*) = \prod_{t=1}^T \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(\frac{-1}{2\sigma^2} (A_t \theta^{*T} - r_t)^2\right) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}\right)^T \times \exp\left(\sum_{t=1}^T \frac{-1}{2\sigma^2} (A_t \theta^{*T} - r_t)^2\right)$$

θ^* and $(Y_1, \dots, Y_t, A_1, \dots, A_t|\theta^*)$ follow normal distributions so $\theta^*|Y_1, \dots, Y_t, A_1, \dots, A_t$ also follows a normal distribution. We finally just have to identify the mean (μ_t) and the covariance matrix (Σ_t) of this distribution.

$$\log(\mathbb{P}((\theta^*|Y_1, \dots, Y_t, A_1, \dots, A_t))) = C + \sum_{t=1}^T \frac{-1}{2\sigma^2} (A_t \theta^{*T} - r_t)^2 - \frac{1}{2} (\theta^{*T} \Sigma^{-1} \theta^*) \quad (1)$$

$$= \frac{-1}{2} \left(\left(\sum_{t=1}^T \frac{(A_t^T \theta^{*T} \theta^* A_t - 2r_t A_t \theta^{*T} + r_t^2)}{\sigma^2} \right) + \theta^{*T} \Sigma^{-1} \theta^* \right) + C \quad (2)$$

$$= C + \theta^{*T} \left(\frac{1}{\sigma^2} \sum_{t=1}^T A_t^T A_t + \Sigma^{-1} \right) \theta^* - 2\theta^{*T} \left(\frac{\sum_{t=1}^T A_t r_t}{\sigma^2} \right) - \left(\frac{r_t}{\sigma} \right)^2 \quad (3)$$

$$(4)$$

We finally identify Σ_t thanks to the quadratic term in θ^* :

$$\Sigma_t^{-1} = \Sigma^{-1} + \frac{\sum_{t=1}^T A_t^T A_t}{\sigma^2}$$

and we have directly $\mu_t = \Sigma_t \times \left(\frac{\sum_{t=1}^T A_t^T r_t}{\sigma^2} \right)$.