Tighter Value Function Bounds for Bayesian Reinforcement Learning

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Abstract
Bayesian reinforcement learning (BRL) provides a principled framework for optimal exploration-exploitation tradeoff in reinforcement learning. We focus on model-based BRL, which involves a compact formulation of the optimal tradeoff from the Bayesian perspective. However, it still remains a computational challenge to compute the Bayes-optimal policy. In this paper, we propose a novel approach to compute tighter value function bounds of the Bayes-optimal value function, which is crucial for improving the performance of many model-based BRL algorithms. We then present how our bounds can be integrated into real-time AO* heuristic search, and provide a theoretical analysis on the impact of improved bounds on the search efficiency. We also provide empirical results on standard BRL domains that demonstrate the effectiveness of our approach.

Introduction
Reinforcement learning (RL) is the problem where an agent tries to maximize long-term rewards while acting in an unknown environment. A fundamental problem in RL is the exploration-exploitation tradeoff since the agent has to explore the environment to gather information on how to improve long-term rewards, but always doing so leads to very poor rewards. Model-based Bayesian RL (BRL) seeks an optimal solution to the tradeoff from the Bayesian perspective by maintaining the posterior distribution over the models of the environment. However, obtaining the solution, which is the Bayes-optimal policy, is known to be computationally intractable (Poupart et al. 2006).

One of the main approaches in model-based BRL is to construct an optimistic model of the environment that is tractable to solve while yielding an approximately Bayes-optimal policy with a probably approximately correct (PAC) guarantee. Such an optimistic model can be obtained by either adding bonus to rewards (Kolter and Ng 2009) or augmenting the action space (Asmuth et al. 2009; Castro and Precup 2010; Araya-López, Thomas, and Buffet 2012). Another class of approaches is to employ a search algorithm, such as sample-based Monte-Carlo tree search (MCTS) (Guez, Silver, and Dayan 2012; Asmuth and Littman 2011) or real-time heuristic search (Fonteneau, Busoniu, and Munos 2013).

In this paper, we present a model-based BRL algorithm that combines these two approaches. Our main contribution is in improving the approximate model construction so that the value function from the model is a tighter upper bound of the Bayes-optimal value function. The same idea is used to compute a tighter lower bound. We then integrate these bounds into the AO* heuristic search (Nilsson 1982), where the challenge is in computing these bounds quickly enough inside the heuristic function so that we can benefit from our proposed bounds. The resulting algorithm essentially performs multi-step lookahead search using the approximate model. We provide a theoretical guarantee on the improvement in search performance achieved by improved bounds, as well as empirical results on the improvement in standard BRL domains.

Background and Related Work
A Markov decision process (MDP) is defined as a tuple $\langle S, A, T, R, \gamma \rangle$, where $S$ is a set of states, $A$ is a set of actions, $T : S \times A \times S \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is the transition function $T(s, a, s') = \Pr(s'|s, a)$, $R : S \times A \times S \rightarrow [R_{min}, R_{max}]$ is the non-negative reward function (i.e., $R_{min} \geq 0$), and $\gamma$ is a discount factor. A policy $\pi : S \rightarrow A$ specifies which action to execute in each state. For a policy $\pi$, its value function is defined as $V^\pi(s) = E[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t R(s_t, \pi(s_t), s_{t+1})|s_0 = s]$, where $s_t$ is the state at time $t$. By solving an MDP, we obtain an optimal policy $\pi^*$, with its value function $V^*$ satisfying the Bellman optimality equation $V^*(s) = \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s, a, s')[R(s, a, s') + \gamma V^*(s')]$.

In this paper, we consider the reinforcement learning problem where the agent acts in the environment modeled as an MDP with unknown transition function. Representing each unknown transition probability $T(s, a, s')$ as the parameter $\theta(s', s)$, a model-based BRL method would maintain the posterior distribution over $\theta = \{\theta(s'|s), s, s' \in S, a \in A\}$ to represent the uncertainty.

We can then formulate model-based BRL as a partially observable MDP (POMDP) planning problem (Duff 2002; Poupart et al. 2006), where the POMDP model is defined as a tuple $\langle S_P, A_P, Z_P, T_P, O_P, R_P, \gamma \rangle$ with the following components: the state space is defined by $S_P = S \times \Theta$ with the “hybrid” state $\langle s, \theta \rangle \in S \times \Theta$ being made up of the envi-
environment state $s$ and the parameter value $\theta$. The action space remains the same with the environment action space, i.e. $A_P = A$. The observation space is made up of the environment state space, i.e. $Z_P = S$. The transition function is then $T_P((s, \theta), a, (s', \theta')) = Pr(s'|s, \theta, a) Pr(\theta'|s, \theta, a) = \delta_{\theta}(\theta')$ where $\delta_{\theta}(\theta')$ is the Kronecker delta with value 1 when $\theta = \theta'$. The observation function is $O_P((s', \theta'), a, z) = \delta_\nu(z)$ since the environment state is observed at each time step. Finally, the reward function is $R_P((s, \theta), a, (s', \theta')) = R(s, a, s')$.

The belief for the hybrid-state POMDP model is a posterior distribution on $(s, \theta)$, denoted as $b((s, \theta))$. Since the state component is observed at each time step, the uncertainty is confined to $\theta$, and hence we use the notation $(s, b)$ for the belief. A commonly used probability distribution for the belief on $\theta$ is the flat Dirichlet multinomial (FDM), whose density function is $b(\theta) = \Pi_{s,a} D(\theta^{s,a}(\cdot); n^{s,a}(\cdot))$ with independent Dirichlet distributions $D(\cdot; \cdot)$ and the observed transition $(s, a, s')$ counts $n^{s,a}(s')$. Since the Dirichlet distribution is a conjugate prior for the multinomial distribution, the updated belief from observing transition $(s, a, s')$ is given by

$$b^{s,a,s'} = \theta^{s,a}(s) \prod_{s,a} D(\hat{\theta}^{s,a}(\cdot); n^{s,a}(\cdot))$$

$$= \prod_{s,a} D(\hat{\theta}^{s,a}(\cdot); n^{s,a}(\cdot) + \delta_{s,a}(s, a, s'))$$

which is equivalent to incrementing the corresponding single parameter $n^{s,a}(s') \leftarrow n^{s,a}(s') + 1$.

The optimal policy $\pi^*((s, b))$ of the hybrid-state POMDP is the Bayes-optimal policy since it chooses the best action under model uncertainty. Its value function satisfies the Bellman optimality equation

$$V^*((s, b)) = \max_a \sum_{s'} T_b(s, a, s') [R(s, a, s') + \gamma V^*((s', b'))]$$

where $T_b(s, a, s') = \frac{n^{s,a}(s')}{n^{s,a}}$ and $n^{s,a} = \sum_{s'} n^{s,a}(s')$ with the Dirichlet parameter $n^{s,a}(\cdot)$ of $b$.

Although the hybrid-state POMDP model offers an elegant formulation, obtaining the optimal policy of the model is a computationally challenging task. One way is to construct an approximate and tractable MDP model of the hybrid-state POMDP. Many model-based BRL algorithms with PAC guarantees take this approach, following the principle of optimism in the face of uncertainty to construct an optimistic MDP model: Bayesian exploration bonus (BEB) (Kolter and Ng 2009) introduces additional reward bonuses proportional to $1/(1 + n^{s,a})$ encouraging execution of relatively inexperienced state-action pairs. Best of sampled set (BOSS) (Asmuth et al. 2009) and its variant, SBOSS (Castro and Precup 2010) take a number of samples from the belief and assume the most favorable one as the transition function. Bayesian optimistic local transitions (BOLT) (Araya-López, Thomas, and Buffet 2012) uses the concept of virtual transition experiences to assume optimistic transition to the state with the highest value.

An alternative approach is to focus on solving the hybrid-state POMDP without relying on an approximate model. This approach often employs efficient search algorithms: Bayes-adaptive Monte-Carlo Planning (BAMCP) (Guez, Silver, and Dayan 2012) is an MCTS algorithm, improving UCT (Kocsis and Szepesvári 2006) in a number of aspects. Bayesian forward search sparse sampling (BFS3) (Asmuth and Littman 2011) uses also an MCTS algorithm, forward search sparse sampling (FSSS) (Walsh, Goschin, and Littman 2010), to act like near Bayes-optimal behavior. Bayesian optimistic planning (BOP) (Fonteneau, Busoniu, and Munos 2013) is an instance of AO* search that uses the simple bounds of the value function for the heuristic.

**Tighter Upper and Lower Bounds**

Bounds on the Bayes-optimal value function are very important for BRL. Ideally, we want tight bounds that can be computed very fast. In fact, BRL algorithms with PAC guarantees generally rely on efficient upper bounds on the value function. In this section, we present a novel upper (and lower) bound that improves on BOLT (Araya-López, Thomas, and Buffet 2012).

Let us start the discussion with the simplest bounds

$$U^0((s, b)) = \frac{R_{\max}}{1 - \gamma}$$

and

$$L^0((s, b)) = \frac{R_{\max}}{1 - \gamma}$$

which are trivial and very loose. We can slightly improve the bounds by leveraging the fact that the hybrid-state POMDP is basically an MDP with uncertain transition function, and use the optimistic and pessimistic value iterations for bounded parameter MDPs (Givan, Leach, and Dean 2000):

$$U^0((s, b)) = \max_a \sum_{s'} (R(s, a, s') + \gamma \max_{a'} U^0((s', b')))$$

$$L^0((s, b)) = \max_a \sum_{s'} (R(s, a, s') + \gamma \min_{a'} L^0((s', b')))$$

This is equivalent to maximizing/minimizing over all possible transition functions, but it does not take into account that the belief $b$ may be highly concentrated at a specific transition function.

The optimistic model construction in BOLT (Araya-López, Thomas, and Buffet 2012) uses an augmented action space $A \times S$ so that executing an action $(a, \sigma)$ with target state $\sigma$ results in $\eta$ identical transition experiences $\lambda^{\sigma}_{a,\sigma,\eta} = [(s, a, \sigma), ..., (s, a, \sigma)]$ in one step. By ignoring the belief update, the model becomes an MDP that is tractable to solve. Although BOLT gives an idea for an upper bound of the value function, in reality, $\eta$ should be set to infinite for the infinite-horizon value function. This essentially reduces the BOLT upper bound to Eq. (2).

We address this problem by performing a finite number (no more than $\eta$) of value iterations starting from a trivial upper bound (Eq. (1) or (2)). In addition, we decrease the number of virtual transition experiences in each iteration for further tightening the bound. These changes provide a valid yet tighter upper bound for any intermediate horizon $1 \leq T \leq \eta$. We also take advantage of the fact that augmenting the action space is not necessary, as the optimal target state $\sigma$ is straightforward to be determined for each action. This reduces the time complexity from $O(|S|^2 |A|)$ to $O(|S|^2 |A|)$ for each iteration.
More formally, we start from the trivial upper bound $U_{i,b,η}(s,a) = R_{\text{max}}/(1 - γ)$. We then refine it via $η$ iterations of value update, using the artificial transition function at the $i$-th iteration given as

$$\hat{T}^i_{b,η}(s,a,s') = \frac{\gamma V^∗(s') + (\eta - i + 1) \delta_a s'}{n^i_{b,η} + (\eta - i + 1)}$$

and update equation given as

$$U_{i,b,η}^i(s,a) = \max_{a'} \sum_s \hat{T}^i_{b,η}(s,a,s') [R(s,a,s') + γU_{i,b,η}^{i-1}(s')]$$

$$U_{i,b,η}^i(s) = \max_a U_{i,b,η}^i(s,a)$$

for $i = 1, \ldots, η$. We then obtain the following result:

**Theorem 1.** Given any state $s$, belief $b$, and integer $η > 0$,

$$U_{i,b,η}^i(s) \geq V^∗((s, b^{η-i}))$$

for any belief $b^{η-i}$ that is reachable from $b$ by any sequence of $(η - i)$ actions.

**Proof.** (By mathematical induction) First, $U_{i,b,η}^0(s) \geq V^∗((s, b^{η}))$ is trivially true since $U_{i,b,η}^0(s) = R_{\text{max}}/(1 - γ)$. Next, using the induction hypothesis $U_{i,b,η}^i(s) \geq V^∗((s, b^{η-i}))$, we have

$$U_{i,b,η}^{i+1}(s) - V^∗((s, b^{η-(i+1)})) = \max_{a'} \sum_s \hat{T}^i_{b,η}(s,a,s') [R(s,a,s') + γU_{i,b,η}^{i}(s')] - \sum_s \hat{T}^i_{b,η}(s,a,s') [R(s,a',s') + γV^∗((s', b^{η-i}))] ≤ \max_{a'} \sum_s \hat{T}^i_{b,η}(s,a,s') [R(s,a',s') + γV^∗((s', b^{η-i}))] - \sum_s \hat{T}^i_{b,η}(s,a,s') [R(s,a',s') + γV^∗((s', b^{η-i}))] = \max_{a'} \sum_s \frac{n^i_{b,η} s' s (a') + φ_{b,η} s' (a')}{n^i_{b,η} s' (a') + (\eta - i)} [R(s,a',s') + V^∗((s', b^{η-i}))]$$

where $φ_{b,η} s' (a')$ is the observation count of $(s, a, s')$ in the path from $b$ to $b^{η-i}$, i.e., $φ_{b,η} s' (a') = n^i_{b,η} - n^i_{b,η} (s')$, and $φ_{b,η} s' (a') = s_s φ_{b,η} s' (a')$. Note that $η - i ≥ φ_{b,η} s' (a')$.

Thus,

$$= \max_{a'} \sum_s \left[ \frac{n^i_{b,η} s' s (a') + φ_{b,η} s' (a')}{n^i_{b,η} s' (a') + (\eta - i)} \right]$$

$$[R(s,a',s') + V^∗((s', b^{η-i}))] - \sum_s \left[ \frac{n^i_{b,η} s' s (a') + φ_{b,η} s' (a')}{n^i_{b,η} s' (a') + (\eta - i)} \right]$$

$$= \max_{a'} \sum_s \left[ \frac{n^i_{b,η} s' s (a') + φ_{b,η} s' (a')}{n^i_{b,η} s' (a') + (\eta - i)} \right]$$

$$[R(s,a',s') + V^∗((s', b^{η-i}))] - \sum_s \left[ \frac{n^i_{b,η} s' s (a') + φ_{b,η} s' (a')}{n^i_{b,η} s' (a') + (\eta - i)} \right]$$

$$≥ \max_{a'} \sum_s \left[ \frac{(γV^∗((s, b^{η-i})))}{n^i_{b,η} s' (a') + (\eta - i)} \right] - \sum_s \left[ \frac{n^i_{b,η} s' s (a') + φ_{b,η} s' (a')}{n^i_{b,η} s' (a') + (\eta - i)} \right]$$

where the last step is due to

$$\frac{(γV^∗((s, b^{η-i})))}{n^i_{b,η} s' (a') + (\eta - i)} - \frac{\sum_s n^i_{b,η} s' s (a') + φ_{b,η} s' (a')}{n^i_{b,η} s' (a') + (\eta - i)} = 0$$

by the definitions of $n^i_{b,η} s' (a')$ and $φ_{b,η} s' (a')$.

This theorem yields the following result as a special case:

**Corollary 1.** Given any state $s$, belief $b$, and integer $η > 0$,

$$U_{i,b,η}^i(s) ≥ V^∗((s, b^{η}))$$

Corollary 1 states that our optimistic value iteration for horizon $η$ yields a valid upper bound of the infinite horizon value function. Note that, in contrast, BOLT yields the upper bound of the $η$-horizon value function.

Another advantage of our bound is that, once we compute the bound for horizon $η$, we can reuse intermediate bounds $U_{i,b,η}^{i-1}(s)$, as the upper bound for any belief $b'$ that we encounter in subsequent time steps (Theorem 1). This property will be leveraged in the real-time search algorithm we present in the next section.

In a similar manner, we can compute the lower bound. Starting from the trivial lower bound $L_{i,b,η}^0(s,a) = R_{\text{min}}/(1 - γ)$, we refine it via $η$ iterations $i = 1, \ldots, η$

$$L_{i,b,η}^i(s,a) = \min_{a'} \sum_s \hat{T}^i_{b,η}(s,a,s') [R(s,a,s') - γL_{i,b,η}^{i-1}(s')]$$

$$L_{i,b,η}^i(s) = \max_a L_{i,b,η}^i(s,a).$$

We have the following statements on the lower bound, the proofs of which are almost identical.

**Theorem 2.** Given any state $s$, belief $b$, and integer $η > 0$,

$$L_{i,b,η}^i(s) ≤ V^∗((s, b^{η-i}))$$

for any $b^{η-i}$ that is reachable from $b$ by any sequence of $(η - i)$ actions.

**Corollary 2.** Given any state $s$, belief $b$, and integer $η > 0$,

$$L_{i,b,η}^i(s) ≤ V^∗((s, b^{η}))$$

**Real-Time Heuristic Search for BRL**

AEMS (Ross et al. 2008) is a well-known real-time AO* heuristic search algorithm for POMDPs. The execution is divided into the offline and online phases. In the offline phase, which is before the first execution of an action, AEMS computes the estimates of the upper and lower bounds of the optimal value function. In the online phase, which is between consecutive executions of actions, it performs AO* to construct an AND-OR search tree, and selects the best action for execution upon timeout. The AND-OR search tree represents reachable beliefs from the current belief, where OR-nodes represent beliefs and AND-nodes represent action choices. The search tree is iteratively grown by selecting and expanding the most promising fringe node, using a heuristic based on the upper and lower bounds of the optimal value.
AEMS can be straightforwardly adapted as a model-based BRL algorithm since BRL can be formulated as a hybrid-state POMDP planning problem. Algorithm 1 shows the main procedure of the approach, which we refer to as AEMS-BRL. A fringe node in the search tree $\mathcal{T}$ is chosen for expansion based on its error contribution to the root node:

$$e(\langle s, b \rangle) = \gamma d_T(\langle s, b \rangle) Pr(h(\langle s, b \rangle))(U^0(\langle s, b \rangle) - L^0(\langle s, b \rangle))$$

where $h(\langle s, b \rangle)$ is the path from the root node $\langle s_0, b_0 \rangle$ to the fringe node $\langle s, b \rangle$, $d_T(\cdot)$ is the depth of the fringe node, $U^0(\cdot)$ is the upper bound value, and $L^0(\cdot)$ is the lower bound value at the fringe node. The path probability in the above equation is defined as

$$Pr(h(\langle s, b \rangle)) = \prod_{i=0}^{d_T(\langle s, b \rangle)-1} T_b(s_i, a_i, s_{i+1}) Pr(a_i|\langle s_i, b_i \rangle)$$

for the path

$$h(\langle s, b \rangle) = [\langle s_0, b_0 \rangle, a_0, \langle s_1, b_1 \rangle, a_1, \ldots, a_{d-1}, \langle s, b \rangle]$$

with the action probability defined as

$$Pr(a_i|\langle s_i, b_i \rangle) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a_i = \text{argmax}_{a \in A} U_T(\langle s_i, b_i \rangle, a) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where $U_T(\langle s_i, b_i \rangle, a)$ is the upper bound action value at an internal node $\langle s_i, b_i \rangle$ in the search tree $\mathcal{T}$. The fringe node with the maximum error contribution is expanded (Algorithm 2) and the bounds $U_T$ and $L_T$ are updated (Algorithm 3). Since AEMS-BRL is essentially AEMS, it inherits its desirable properties of AEMS such as completeness and $\epsilon$-optimality of the search (Ross, Pineau, and Chaib-Draa 2007).

One of the main factors that affect the performance is the initial upper and lower bounds used for newly expanded nodes (Algorithm 2, line 4-5). We can use the following three bounds as the initial bounds: [A] trivial bounds in Eq. (1), [B] optimistic/pessimistic value iteration bounds in Eq. (2) and (3), and [C] our proposed bound in the previous section. Note that [A] and [B] are offline bounds that need to be computed only once before the search, whereas [C] is an online bound that, when used naively, requires value iteration for every evaluation.

In Algorithm 4, we leverage the property mentioned in the previous section, that the intermediate results from the bound calculation can be reused. This is achieved by introducing parameter $\eta_{min}$ that controls the degree of reuse. Specifically, if the intermediate bound we are attempting to reuse is computed for less than $\eta_{min}$ horizon ($\eta - i < \eta_{min}$), we recompute the upper bound for $\eta$ horizon since the bound is determined to be too loose. By reducing $\eta_{min}$, we increase the degree of reuse (i.e. reduce overall running time) by sacrificing the accuracy of the bound, and vice versa.

**Analysis on Tighter Initial Bounds for Search**

In this section, we provide a theoretical analysis on the search efficiency achieved by our tighter bounds.

In Bonet and Geffner 2012; Hansen and Zilberstein
Algorithm 4 Online Initial Bound Computation

Input: \(s_0, b_0\) : belief state
Static: \(\eta\) : value update horizon

1. if the bound of the \(d\)-th ancestor \((s, b)\) was computed & \(d \leq \eta - \eta_{min}\) then
2. return \(U_{b,\eta}^{-\eta-d}(s_0)\) and \(L_{b,\eta}^{-\eta-d}(s_0)\)
3. end if
4. Initialize \(U_{b,\eta}^0\) and \(L_{b,\eta}^0\) with offline bounds
5. for \(i = 1, \ldots, \eta\) do
6. for \(s \in S\) do
7. for \(a \in A\) do
8. for \(s' \in S\) do
9. \(V_L(s, a, s') = R(s, a, s') + \gamma V_L^{i-1}(s')\)
10. \(V_L(s, a, s') = R(s, a, s') + \gamma L_{b,\eta}^{i-1}(s')\)
11. end for
12. \(\sigma_L = \arg\max_{a'} V_L(s, a, s')\)
13. \(\sigma_b = \arg\min_{a'} V_L(s, a, s')\)
14. \(U_{b,\eta}^i(s, a) = \sum s' T_{b,a}^{(s, a, s')} V_L(s, a, s')\)
15. \(L_{b,\eta}^i(s, a) = \sum s' T_{b,a}^{(s, a, s')} V_L(s, a, s')\)
16. end for
17. \(U_{b,\eta}(s) = \max_a U_{b,\eta}^i(s, a)\)
18. \(L_{b,\eta}(s) = \max_a L_{b,\eta}^i(s, a)\)
19. end for
20. end for
21. return \(U_{b,\eta}^\eta(s_0)\) and \(L_{b,\eta}^\eta(s_0)\) as the upper and lower bound values

(2001), it was shown that a \(d\)-horizon (PO)MDP planning problem can be treated as a search for the optimal solution graph (tree) from the complete (i.e. implicit) AND-OR tree of depth \(d\). A solution graph is a sub-graph of the complete AND-OR tree with the following three properties: the root OR-node belongs to the solution graph, every internal OR-node in the solution graph has exactly one child, and every fringe node in the solution graph is a terminal node in the complete AND-OR tree. The solution graph corresponds to a \(d\)-step policy, and the optimal solution graph corresponds to the optimal policy with the maximum value.

The AO* algorithm searches for the optimal solution graph by maintaining the best partial solution graph. The search is guided by an admissible heuristic function \(h\) that overestimates the optimal evaluation function \(f^*\), choosing the best successor of OR-node using \(h\). We can note that AEMS-BRL is an instance of AO* algorithm since it maintains the best partial solution graph using the upper bound on the optimal value. Hence, the upper bound is the admissible heuristic function being used for the search.

Although AO* is guaranteed to find the optimal solution graph, the search performance depends on the quality of the heuristic, which can be measured in terms of worst-case set of nodes \(W\) (Chakrabarti, Ghose, and DeSarkar 1987). In essence, it is the set of nodes that are expanded in the worst case until the optimal solution graph is found, and thus it directly relates to the worst-case running time.

**Theorem 3.** (Chakrabarti, Ghose, and DeSarkar 1987)
Given two admissible heuristic functions \(h_1\) and \(h_2\), such that \(h_1(n) \geq h_2(n) \geq f^*(n)\) for all nodes \(n\), the worst-case set of nodes expanded by AO* algorithm using \(h_2\) is a subset of those using \(h_1\).

We then immediately have the following result since the algorithm in the previous section uses the upper bound of the optimal value as the heuristic for choosing actions:

**Theorem 4.** Given two upper bounds \(U_1^0\) and \(U_2^0\), such that \(U_1^0(s, b) \geq U_2^0(s, b) \geq V^*(s, b)\) for all beliefs \((s, b)\), the worst-case set of nodes expanded using \(U_2^0\) is a subset of those using \(U_1^0\).

We can further refine this classical analysis by noting that when a lower bound is also used in search, we can detect the discovery of the optimal solution graph earlier.

**Definition 1.** OptimalityCondition\((U^0, L^0)\) is true when \(U_T(s, b, a) \leq L_T(s, b, a^*)\) for all \(a \in A \setminus a^*\) and nodes \((s, b)\) in the partial solution graph, where \(T\) is the search tree constructed using initial bounds \((U^0, L^0)\), \(U_T\) and \(L_T\) are the upper and lower bounds computed in \(T\), \(a^*\) is the best upper bound action for \((s, b)\).

It is easy to see that when OptimalityCondition is true, we have obtained the optimal solution graph and thus we can safely terminate the search. Using the definition, we can refine the analysis on the worst-case set of nodes:

**Theorem 5.** Given two initial bounds \((U_1^0, L_1^0)\) and \((U_2^0, L_2^0)\) such that \(U_1^0(s, b) \geq U_2^0(s, b) \geq V^*(s, b) \geq L_2^0(s, b) \geq L_1^0(s, b)\) for all beliefs \((s, b)\), the worst-case set of nodes expanded using \(U_2^0\) and stopping with OptimalityCondition \((U_2^0, L_2^0)\) is a subset of those using \(U_1^0\) and stopping with OptimalityCondition \((U_1^0, L_1^0)\).

**Proof.** Let \(W_1\) and \(W_2\) be the worst-case sets of nodes expanded by search using the initial bounds \((U_1^0, L_1^0)\) and \((U_2^0, L_2^0)\) and stopping with the corresponding OptimalityCondition.

Suppose that there exists a node \((s, b)\) such that \((s, b) \in W_2\) but \((s, b) \notin W_1\). Without loss of generality, let the node \((s, b)\) be at the smallest depth so that its parent OR-node \((s', b')\) belongs to both \(W_2\) and \(W_1\).

Since the search tree only contains the nodes \(W_2\) \((s, b)\) does not satisfy OptimalityCondition\((U_2^0, L_2^0)\), we know that \(U_2^0((s', b'), a) > U_2^0((s, b'), a)\) for some \(a \in A \setminus a^*\). From \(U_1^0((s', b'), a) > U_2^0((s', b'), a)\) and \(L_2^0((s', b'), a) > U_2^0((s', b'), a)\), we can conclude that \(U_1^0((s', b'), a) > L_2^0((s', b'), a)\). This is a contradiction since \((s', b')\) belongs to \(W_1\).

Theorems 4 and 5 state that tighter upper and lower bounds lead to a more efficient AO* search. In the next section, we show empirical results on the search efficiency achieved by our improved bounds.

**Experiments**

We first present our experimental results on four standard BRL domains: Chain (Strens 2000) consists of a 5 state linear chain with 2 actions. The transitions are stochastic with
a slipping probability of 0.2. The agent needs to traverse to the other end of the chain in order to obtain a higher reward. **Double-loop** (Dearden, Friedman, and Russell 1998) consists of two loops of length 5 with a shared starting state (9 states total) and 2 actions. The transitions are deterministic, but the agent has to close the loop with a less obvious path in order to obtain a higher reward. **Grid5** (Guez, Silver, and Dayan 2012) is a 2D grid of 25 states and 4 directional movement actions. The agent starts from the lower left corner and goal state is at the upper right corner. The reward is given upon reaching the goal state. **Grid10** (Guez, Silver, and Dayan 2012) is an enlarged version of Grid5 with 100 states.

Figure 1 compares AEMS-BRL with BAMCP (Guez, Silver, and Dayan 2012), a state-of-the-art MCTS algorithm. We experimented with 3 different bound initializations: [A] trivial offline bound in Eq. (1), [B] optimistic/pessimistic value iteration offline bound in Eq. (2) & Eq. (3), and [C] our online bound. The average undiscounted return was collected from 500 runs of 1000 time steps, except for Grid10 in which we used 100 runs of 2000 time steps. In all experiments, we set $\gamma = 0.95$ for the search and used simple Dirichlet-Multinomial model with symmetric Dirichlet parameter $\alpha_0 = 1/|S|$ except for Double-loop in which we used parameter $\alpha_0 = 1$. For the online bound initialization, we set $\eta = 40$ and $\eta_{min} = 30$ in all experiments. We can observe that our online bound initialization significantly improves the performance of real-time heuristic search with the computational overhead being already taken into account.

In Figure 2, we show the effect of $\eta_{min}$ on the actual undiscounted return and the computation time. Remind that $\eta_{min}$ is the parameter that controls the frequency of recomputing the bounds. More frequent recomputation by increasing $\eta_{min}$ generally led to higher undiscounted returns at the cost of more computation time.

In Figure 3, we compare the trends of the upper and lower bounds of the starting state at each time steps. The gap between the bounds shrinks much faster for the online bound compared to other offline bounds. It is also interesting to note that the online upper bound tends to grow larger for Double-loop. This situation arises particularly when the upper bound is very tight — as the agent gathers more observations from the environment, the belief moves towards a corner of the simplex, hence the Bayes-optimal value will actually increase for the same environment state.

In Table 1, we show the average returns (20 runs of 20000 time steps) of the algorithms on **Maze** (Dearden, Friedman, and Russell 1998), consisting of 264 states and 4 actions where the agent has to navigate in a grid environment to capture 3 flags and reach the goal location. We used simple Dirichlet-Multinomial model with symmetric Dirichlet parameter $\alpha_0 = 1/|S|$. Our online bound initialization achieved an average return of 1031\(\pm7.9\) vs. CPU time (sec/step) in Chain (top left), Double-loop (top right), Grid5 (bottom left), Grid10 (bottom right). We compare three variants of AEMS-BRL with different bound initializations and BAMCP. The graphs are obtained by changing the number of node expansions during search. The error bar represents the 95% confidence interval.

### Table 1: Results on Maze (0.25 sec/step)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Algorithm</th>
<th>Return</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BAMCP</td>
<td>347 (\pm) 9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AEMS-BRL(Of:Eqn(1))</td>
<td>95 (\pm) 1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AEMS-BRL(Of:Eqn(2,3))</td>
<td>110 (\pm) 1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AEMS-BRL(Online)</td>
<td>1031 (\pm) 7.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 2: Average undiscounted return (left axis, black solid line) and CPU time (sec/step) (right axis, red dotted line) vs. $\eta_{\text{min}}$ in Chain (top left), Double-loop (top right), Grid5 (bottom left), and Grid10 (bottom right). The results are obtained by varying the parameter $\eta_{\text{min}} = \{0, 10, 20, 30\}$. All other settings are the same as in Figure 1 (i.e., the returns for $\eta_{\text{min}} = 30$ in the figure are equal to those of AEMS-BRL with online bounds for the longest computation time. The error bars are the 95% confidence intervals.

Figure 3: Upper and lower bounds of the start state vs. time steps in Chain (top left), Double-loop (top right), Grid5 (bottom left), and Grid10 (bottom right). The samples for computing the average at each time step were collected by keeping track of whether the start state is actually visited in each run.
even without a sparse prior. By comparison, BAMCP with sparse Dirichlet-Multinomial prior was reported to achieve \(965.2 \pm 73\) in (Guez, Silver, and Dayan 2012).

**Conclusion and Future Work**

In this paper, we presented a novel approach to computing the bounds of the value function for model-based BRL. Previously proposed bounds were restricted to the finite horizon value function, degenerating to very loose and naive bounds for the infinite horizon. In contrast, our bounds are for the infinite horizon value function, and provably tighter than naive bounds.

We demonstrated how our new bounds can be used in a real-time AO* algorithm for model-based BRL. Our proposed method achieved a significant performance improvement over a state-of-the-art Monte-Carlo tree search algorithm. We also provided a theoretical analysis on an improved bound for AO* search, extending the classical analysis that only involves the upper bound. Our theoretical result can be applied to AO* search for other problems, such as search-based planning with MDPs and POMDPs.

In regards to future work, applying our bound initialization method to other approaches to model-based BRL is a promising direction. Moreover, although we primarily focused on learning with discrete state MDPs, extending the work to larger domains such as factored (Boutilier, Dearden, and Goldszmidt 1995) or continuous state spaces shall be investigated for the challenge in scalability.

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