
Thompson Sampling is Asymptotically Optimal in General Environments

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Abstract

We discuss a variant of Thompson sampling for nonparametric reinforcement learning in countable classes of general stochastic environments. These environments can be non-Markov, non-ergodic, and partially observable. We show that Thompson sampling learns the environment class in the sense that (1) asymptotically its value converges to the optimal value in mean and (2) given a recoverability assumption regret is sublinear.

Keywords. General reinforcement learning, Thompson sampling, asymptotic optimality, regret, discounting, recoverability, AIXI.

1 INTRODUCTION

In reinforcement learning (RL) an agent interacts with an unknown environment with the goal of maximizing rewards. Recently reinforcement learning has received a surge of interest, triggered by its success in applications such as simple video games [MKS⁺15]. However, theory is lagging behind application and most theoretical analyses has been done in the bandit framework and for Markov decision processes (MDPs). These restricted environment classes fall short of the full reinforcement learning problem and theoretical results usually assume ergodicity and visiting every state infinitely often. Needless to say, these assumptions are not satisfied for any but the simplest applications.

Our goal is to lift these restrictions; we consider *general reinforcement learning*, a top-down approach to RL with the aim to understand the fundamental underlying problems in their generality. Our approach to general RL is *nonparametric*: we only assume that the true environment belongs to a given countable environment class.

We are interested in agents that maximize rewards *optimally*. Since the agent does not know the true environment in advance, it is not obvious what optimality should mean.

We discuss two different notions of optimality: *asymptotic optimality* and *worst-case regret*.

Asymptotic optimality requires that asymptotically the agent learns to act optimally, i.e., that the discounted value of the agent’s policy π converges to the optimal discounted value, $V_\mu^* - V_\mu^\pi \rightarrow 0$ for all environments μ from the environment class. This convergence is impossible for deterministic policies since the agent has to explore infinitely often and for long stretches of time, but there are policies that converge almost surely in Cesàro average [LH11]. Bayes-optimal agents are generally not asymptotically optimal [Ors13]. However, asymptotic optimality can be achieved through an exploration component on top of a Bayes-optimal agent [Lat13, Ch. 5] or through optimism [SH15].

Asymptotic optimality in mean is essentially a weaker variant of *probably approximately correct* (PAC) that comes without a concrete convergence rate: for all $\varepsilon > 0$ and $\delta > 0$ the probability that our policy is ε -suboptimal converges to zero (at an unknown rate). Eventually this probability will be less than δ . Since our environment class can be very large and non-compact, concrete PAC/convergence rates are likely impossible.

Regret is how many expected rewards the agent forfeits by not following the best informed policy. Different problem classes have different regret rates, depending on the structure and the difficulty of the problem class. Multi-armed bandits provide a (problem-independent) worst-case regret bound of $\Omega(\sqrt{KT})$ where K is the number of arms [BB12]. In Markov decision processes (MDPs) the lower bound is $\Omega(\sqrt{DSAT})$ where S is the number of states, A the number of actions, and D the diameter of the MDP [AJO10]. For a countable class of environments given by state representation functions that map histories to MDP states, a regret of $\tilde{O}(T^{2/3})$ is achievable assuming the resulting MDP is weakly communicating [NMRO13]. A problem class is considered *learnable* if there is an algorithm that has a sublinear regret guarantee.

This paper continues a narrative that started with definition

of the Bayesian agent AIXI [Hut00] and the proof that it satisfies various optimality guarantees [Hut02]. Recently it was revealed that these optimality notions are trivial or subjective [LH15]: a Bayesian agent does not explore enough to lose the prior’s bias, and a particularly bad prior can make the agent conform to any arbitrarily bad policy as long as this policy yields some rewards. These negative results put the Bayesian approach to (general) RL into question. In this paper we remedy the situation by showing that using Bayesian techniques an agent can indeed be optimal in an objective sense.

The agent we consider is known as *Thompson sampling*, *posterior sampling*, or the *Bayesian control rule* [Tho33]. It samples an environment ρ from the posterior, follows the ρ -optimal policy for one effective horizon (a lookahead long enough to encompass most of the discount function’s mass), and then repeats. We show that this agent’s policy is asymptotically optimal in mean (and, equivalently, in probability). Furthermore, using a recoverability assumption on the environment, and some (minor) assumptions on the discount function, we prove that the worst-case regret is sub-linear. This is the first time convergence and regret bounds of Thompson sampling have been shown under such general conditions.

Thompson sampling was originally proposed by Thompson as a bandit algorithm [Tho33]. It is easy to implement and often achieves quite good results [CL11]. In multi-armed bandits it attains optimal regret [AG11, KKM12]. Thompson sampling has also been considered for MDPs: as model-free method relying on distributions over Q -functions with convergence guarantee [DFR98], and as a model-based algorithm without theoretical analysis [Str00]. Bayesian and frequentist regret bounds have also been established [ORvR13, OR14, GM15]. PAC guarantees have been established for an optimistic variant of Thompson sampling for MDPs [ALL⁺09].

For general RL Thompson sampling was first suggested in [OB10] with resampling at every time step. The authors prove that the action probabilities of Thompson sampling converge to the action probability of the optimal policy almost surely, but require a finite environment class and two (arguably quite strong) technical assumptions on the behavior of the posterior distribution (akin to ergodicity) and the similarity of environments in the class. Our convergence results do not require these assumptions, but we rely on an (unavoidable) recoverability assumption for our regret bound.

Appendix A contains a list of notation and Appendix B contains omitted proofs.

2 PRELIMINARIES

The set $\mathcal{X}^* := \bigcup_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{X}^n$ is the set of all finite strings over the alphabet \mathcal{X} and the set \mathcal{X}^∞ is the set of all infinite strings over the alphabet \mathcal{X} . The empty string is denoted by ϵ , not to be confused with the small positive real number ε . Given a string $x \in \mathcal{X}^*$, we denote its length by $|x|$. For a (finite or infinite) string x of length $\geq k$, we denote with $x_{1:k}$ the first k characters of x , and with $x_{<k}$ the first $k - 1$ characters of x .

The notation $\Delta\mathcal{Y}$ denotes the set of probability distributions over \mathcal{Y} .

In reinforcement learning, an agent interacts with an environment in cycles: at time step t the agent chooses an action $a_t \in \mathcal{A}$ and receives a *percept* $e_t = (o_t, r_t) \in \mathcal{E}$ consisting of an *observation* $o_t \in \mathcal{O}$ and a real-valued *reward* r_t ; the cycle then repeats for $t + 1$. We assume that rewards are bounded between 0 and 1 and that the set of actions \mathcal{A} and the set of percepts \mathcal{E} are finite.

We fix a *discount function* $\gamma : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $\gamma_t \geq 0$ and $\sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \gamma_t < \infty$. Our goal is to maximize discounted rewards $\sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \gamma_t r_t$. The *discount normalization factor* is defined as $\Gamma_t := \sum_{k=t}^{\infty} \gamma_k$. The *effective horizon* $H_t(\varepsilon)$ is a horizon that is long enough to encompass all but an ε of the discount function’s mass:

$$H_t(\varepsilon) := \min\{k \mid \Gamma_{t+k}/\Gamma_t \leq \varepsilon\} \quad (1)$$

A *history* is an element of $(\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{E})^*$. We use $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{E}$ to denote one interaction cycle, and $\mathbf{x}_{<t}$ to denote a history of length $t - 1$. We treat action, percepts, and histories both as outcomes and as random variables. A *policy* is a function $\pi : (\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{E})^* \rightarrow \Delta\mathcal{A}$ mapping a history $\mathbf{x}_{<t}$ to a distribution over the actions taken after seeing this history; the probability of action a is denoted $\pi(a \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t})$. An *environment* is a function $\nu : (\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{E})^* \times \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \Delta\mathcal{E}$ mapping a history $\mathbf{x}_{<t}$ and an action a_t to a distribution over the percepts generated after this history; the probability of percept e is denoted $\nu(e \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}a_t)$.

A policy π and an environment ν generate a probability measure ν^π over infinite histories $(\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{E})^\infty$, defined by its values on the cylinder sets $\{h \in (\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{E})^\infty \mid h_{<t} = \mathbf{x}_{<t}\}$:

$$\nu^\pi(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) := \prod_{k=1}^{t-1} \pi(a_k \mid \mathbf{x}_{<k}) \nu(e_k \mid \mathbf{x}_{<k}a_k)$$

When we take an expectation \mathbb{E}_ν^π of a random variable $X_t(\mathbf{x}_{<t})$ this is to be understood as the expectation of the history $\mathbf{x}_{<t}$ for a fixed time step t drawn from ν^π , i.e.,

$$\mathbb{E}_\nu^\pi[X_t(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] := \sum_{\mathbf{x}_{<t}} \nu^\pi(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) X_t(\mathbf{x}_{<t}).$$

We often do not explicitly add the subscript t to time-dependent random variables.

Definition 1 (Value Function). The *value* of a policy π in an environment ν given history $\mathbf{x}_{<t}$ is defined as

$$V_\nu^\pi(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) := \frac{1}{\Gamma_t} \mathbb{E}_\nu^\pi \left[\sum_{k=t}^{\infty} \gamma^k r_k \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t} \right],$$

if $\Gamma_t > 0$ and $V_\nu^\pi(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) := 0$ if $\Gamma_t = 0$. The *optimal value* is defined as $V_\nu^*(h) := \sup_\pi V_\nu^\pi(h)$.

The normalization constant $1/\Gamma_t$ ensures that values are bounded between 0 and 1. We also use the *truncated value function*

$$V_\nu^{\pi,m}(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) := \frac{1}{\Gamma_t} \mathbb{E}_\nu^\pi \left[\sum_{k=t}^m \gamma^k r_k \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t} \right].$$

For each environment μ there is an *optimal policy* π_μ^* that takes an *optimal action* for each history [LH14, Thm. 10]:

$$\pi_\mu^*(a_t \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) > 0 \implies a_t \in \arg \max_a V_\mu^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t}a)$$

Let \mathcal{M} denote a countable class of environments. We assume that \mathcal{M} is large enough to contain the true environment (e.g. the class of all computable environments). Let $w \in \Delta\mathcal{M}$ be a prior probability distribution on \mathcal{M} and let

$$\xi := \sum_{\nu \in \mathcal{M}} w(\nu)\nu$$

denote the corresponding Bayesian mixture over the class \mathcal{M} . After observing the history $\mathbf{x}_{<t}$ the prior w is updated to the posterior

$$w(\nu \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) := w(\nu) \frac{\nu(\mathbf{x}_{<t})}{\xi(\mathbf{x}_{<t})}.$$

We also use the notation $w(\mathcal{M}' \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) := \sum_{\nu \in \mathcal{M}'} w(\nu \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t})$ for a set of environments $\mathcal{M}' \subseteq \mathcal{M}$. Likewise we define $\nu(A \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) := \sum_{h \in A} \nu(h \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t})$ for a prefix-free set of histories $A \subseteq (\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{E})^*$.

Let $\nu, \rho \in \mathcal{M}$ be two environments, let π_1, π_2 be two policies, and let $m \in \mathbb{N}$ be a lookahead time step. The *total variation distance* is defined as

$$D_m(\nu^{\pi_1}, \rho^{\pi_2} \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) := \sup_{A \subseteq (\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{E})^m} \left| \nu^{\pi_1}(A \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) - \rho^{\pi_2}(A \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) \right|.$$

with $D_\infty(\nu^{\pi_1}, \rho^{\pi_2} \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) := \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} D_m(\nu^{\pi_1}, \rho^{\pi_2} \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t})$.

Lemma 2 (Bounds on Value Difference). *For any policies π_1, π_2 , any environments ρ and ν , and any horizon $t \leq m \leq \infty$,*

$$|V_\nu^{\pi_1,m}(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) - V_\rho^{\pi_2,m}(\mathbf{x}_{<t})| \leq D_m(\nu^{\pi_1}, \rho^{\pi_2} \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t})$$

Proof. See Appendix B. \square

3 THOMPSON SAMPLING IS ASYMPTOTICALLY OPTIMAL

Strens proposes following the optimal policy for one episode or “related to the number of state transitions the agent is likely to need to plan ahead” [Str00]. We follow Strens’ suggestion and resample at the effective horizon.

Let ε_t be a monotone decreasing sequence of positive reals such that $\varepsilon_t \rightarrow 0$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$. We define our Thompson sampling policy π_T in Algorithm 1.

Algorithm 1 Thompson sampling policy π_T

- 1: **while** true **do**
 - 2: sample $\rho \sim w(\cdot \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t})$
 - 3: follow π_ρ^* for $H_t(\varepsilon_t)$ steps
-

Note that π_T is a stochastic policy since we occasionally sample from a distribution. We assume that this sampling is independent of everything else.

Definition 3 (Asymptotic Optimality). A policy π is *asymptotically optimal in an environment class \mathcal{M}* iff for all $\mu \in \mathcal{M}$

$$V_\mu^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) - V_\mu^\pi(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty \quad (2)$$

on histories drawn from μ^π .

There are different types of asymptotic optimalities based on the type of stochastic convergence in (2). If this convergence occurs almost surely, it is called *strong asymptotic optimality* [LH11, Def. 7]; if this convergence occurs in mean, it is called *asymptotic optimality in mean*; if this convergence occurs in probability, it is called *asymptotic optimality in probability*; and if the Cesàro averages converge almost surely, it is called *weak asymptotic optimality* [LH11, Def. 7].

3.1 ASYMPTOTIC OPTIMALITY IN MEAN

This subsection is dedicated to proving the following theorem.

Theorem 4 (Thompson Sampling is Asymptotically Optimal in Mean). *For all environments $\mu \in \mathcal{M}$,*

$$\mathbb{E}_\mu^{\pi_T} [V_\mu^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) - V_\mu^{\pi_T}(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty.$$

This theorem immediately implies that Thompson sampling is also asymptotically optimal in probability: The convergence in mean of the random variables $X_t := V_\mu^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) - V_\mu^{\pi_T}(\mathbf{x}_{<t})$ stated in Theorem 4 is equivalent to convergence in probability in the sense that $\mu^{\pi_T}[X_t > \varepsilon] \rightarrow 0$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$ for all $\varepsilon > 0$ because the random variables X_t are nonnegative and bounded. However, this does not imply almost sure convergence (see Section 3.3).

Define the *Bayes-expected total variation distance*

$$F_m^\pi(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) := \sum_{\rho \in \mathcal{M}} w(\rho \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) D_m(\rho^\pi, \xi^\pi \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t})$$

for $m \leq \infty$.

If we replace the distance measure D_m by cross-entropy, then the quantity $F_m^\pi(\mathbf{x}_{<t})$ becomes the Bayes-expected *information gain* [Lat13, Eq. 3.5].

For the proof of Theorem 4 we need the following lemma.

Lemma 5 (F Vanishes On-Policy). *For any policy π and any environment μ ,*

$$\mathbb{E}_\mu^\pi [F_\infty^\pi(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty.$$

Proof. See Appendix B. \square

Proof of Theorem 4. Let $\beta, \delta > 0$ and let $\varepsilon_t > 0$ denote the sequence used to define π_T in Algorithm 1. We assume that t is large enough such that $\varepsilon_k \leq \beta$ for all $k \geq t$ and that δ is small enough such that $w(\mu \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) > 4\delta$ for all t , which holds since $w(\mu \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) \not\rightarrow 0$ μ^π -almost surely for any policy π [Hut09, Lem. 3i].

The stochastic process $w(\nu \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t})$ is a ξ^{π_T} -martingale since

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{E}_{\xi^{\pi_T}} [w(\nu \mid \mathbf{x}_{1:t}) \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}] \\ &= \sum_{a_t e_t} \xi^{\pi_T}(\mathbf{x}_t \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) w(\nu) \frac{\nu^{\pi_T}(\mathbf{x}_{1:t})}{\xi^{\pi_T}(\mathbf{x}_{1:t})} \\ &= \sum_{a_t e_t} \xi^{\pi_T}(\mathbf{x}_t \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) w(\nu \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) \frac{\nu^{\pi_T}(\mathbf{x}_t \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t})}{\xi^{\pi_T}(\mathbf{x}_t \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t})} \\ &= w(\nu \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) \sum_{a_t e_t} \nu^{\pi_T}(\mathbf{x}_t \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) \\ &= w(\nu \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}). \end{aligned}$$

By the martingale convergence theorem [Dur10, Thm. 5.2.8] $w(\nu \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t})$ converges ξ^{π_T} -almost surely and because $\xi^{\pi_T} \geq w(\mu)\mu^{\pi_T}$ it also converges μ^{π_T} -almost surely.

We argue that we can choose t_0 to be one of π_T 's resampling time steps large enough such that for all $t \geq t_0$ the following three events hold simultaneously with μ^{π_T} -probability at least $1 - \delta$.

- (i) There is a finite set $\mathcal{M}' \subset \mathcal{M}$ with $w(\mathcal{M}' \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) > 1 - \delta$ and $w(\nu \mid \mathbf{x}_{<k}) \not\rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$ for all $\nu \in \mathcal{M}'$.
- (ii) $|w(\mathcal{M}'' \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) - w(\mathcal{M}'' \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t_0})| \leq \delta$ for all $\mathcal{M}'' \subseteq \mathcal{M}'$.
- (iii) $F_\infty^{\pi_T}(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) < \delta \beta w_{\min}^2$.

where $w_{\min} := \inf\{w(\nu \mid \mathbf{x}_{<k}) \mid k \in \mathbb{N}, \nu \in \mathcal{M}'\}$, which is positive by (i).

(i) and (ii) are satisfied eventually because the posterior $w(\cdot \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t})$ converges μ^{π_T} -almost surely. Note that the set \mathcal{M}' is random: the limit of $w(\nu \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t})$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$ depends on the history $\mathbf{x}_{1:\infty}$. Without loss of generality, we assume the true environment μ is contained in \mathcal{M}' since $w(\mu \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) \not\rightarrow 0$ μ^{π_T} -almost surely. (iii) follows from Lemma 5 since convergence in mean implies convergence in probability.

Moreover, we define the horizon $m := t + H_t(\varepsilon_t)$ as the time step of the effective horizon at time step t . Let $\mathbf{x}_{<t}$ be a fixed history for which (i-iii) is satisfied. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \delta \beta w_{\min}^2 &> F_\infty^{\pi_T}(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) \\ &= \sum_{\nu \in \mathcal{M}} w(\nu \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) D_\infty(\nu^{\pi_T}, \xi^{\pi_T} \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{\nu \sim w(\cdot \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t})} [D_\infty(\nu^{\pi_T}, \xi^{\pi_T} \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t})] \\ &\geq \mathbb{E}_{\nu \sim w(\cdot \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t})} [D_m(\nu^{\pi_T}, \xi^{\pi_T} \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t})] \\ &\geq \beta w_{\min}^2 w(\mathcal{M} \setminus \mathcal{M}'' \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) \end{aligned}$$

by Markov's inequality where

$$\mathcal{M}'' := \{\nu \in \mathcal{M} \mid D_m(\nu^{\pi_T}, \xi^{\pi_T} \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) < \beta w_{\min}^2\}.$$

For our fixed history $\mathbf{x}_{<t}$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - \delta &< w(\mathcal{M}'' \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) \\ &\stackrel{(i)}{\leq} w(\mathcal{M}'' \cap \mathcal{M}' \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) + \delta \\ &\stackrel{(ii)}{\leq} w(\mathcal{M}'' \cap \mathcal{M}' \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t_0}) + 2\delta \\ &\stackrel{(i)}{\leq} w(\mathcal{M}'' \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t_0}) + 3\delta \end{aligned}$$

and thus we get

$$1 - 4\delta < w [D_m(\nu^{\pi_T}, \xi^{\pi_T} \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) < \beta w_{\min}^2 \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t_0}]. \quad (3)$$

In particular, this bound holds for $\nu = \mu$ since $w(\mu \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t_0}) > 4\delta$ by assumption.

It remains to show that with high probability the value $V_\mu^{\pi_\rho^*}$ of the sample ρ 's optimal policy π_ρ^* is sufficiently close to the μ -optimal value V_μ^* . The worst case is that we draw the worst sample from $\mathcal{M}' \cap \mathcal{M}''$ twice in a row. From now on, let ρ denote the sample environment we draw at time step t_0 , and let t denote some time step between t_0 and $t_1 := t_0 + H_{t_0}(\varepsilon_{t_0})$ (before the next resampling). With probability $w(\nu' \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t_0})w(\nu' \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t_1})$ we sample ν' both at t_0 and t_1 when following π_T . Therefore we have for all $\mathbf{x}_{t:m}$ and all $\nu \in \mathcal{M}$

$$\begin{aligned} & \nu^{\pi_T}(\mathbf{x}_{1:m} \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) \\ & \geq w(\nu' \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t_0})w(\nu' \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t_1})\nu^{\pi_{\nu'}^*}(\mathbf{x}_{1:m} \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}). \end{aligned}$$

Thus we get for all $\nu \in \mathcal{M}'$ (in particular ρ and μ)

$$\begin{aligned}
& D_m(\mu^{\pi_T}, \rho^{\pi_T} \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) \\
& \geq \sup_{\nu' \in \mathcal{M}} \sup_{A \subseteq (\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{E})^m} \left| w(\nu' \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t_0}) w(\nu' \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t_1}) \right. \\
& \quad \left. (\mu^{\pi_{\nu'}}(A \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) - \rho^{\pi_{\nu'}}(A \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t})) \right| \\
& \geq w(\nu \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t_0}) w(\nu \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t_1}) \\
& \quad \sup_{A \subseteq (\mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{E})^m} \left| \mu^{\pi_{\nu}}(A \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) - \rho^{\pi_{\nu}}(A \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) \right| \\
& \geq w_{\min}^2 D_m(\mu^{\pi_{\nu}}, \rho^{\pi_{\nu}} \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}).
\end{aligned}$$

For $\rho \in \mathcal{M}''$ we get

$$\begin{aligned}
& D_m(\mu^{\pi_T}, \rho^{\pi_T} \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) \\
& \leq D_m(\mu^{\pi_T}, \xi^{\pi_T} \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) + D_m(\rho^{\pi_T}, \xi^{\pi_T} \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) \\
& \stackrel{(3)}{<} \beta w_{\min}^2 + \beta w_{\min}^2 = 2\beta w_{\min}^2,
\end{aligned}$$

which implies together with Lemma 2 and the fact that rewards in $[0, 1]$

$$\begin{aligned}
& \left| V_{\mu}^{\pi_{\nu}}(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) - V_{\rho}^{\pi_{\nu}}(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) \right| \\
& \leq \frac{\Gamma_{t+H_t(\varepsilon_t)}}{\Gamma_t} + \left| V_{\mu}^{\pi_{\nu}, m}(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) - V_{\rho}^{\pi_{\nu}, m}(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) \right| \\
& \leq \varepsilon_t + D_m(\mu^{\pi_{\nu}}, \rho^{\pi_{\nu}} \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) \\
& \leq \varepsilon_t + \frac{1}{w_{\min}^2} D_m(\mu^{\pi_T}, \rho^{\pi_T} \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t}) \\
& < \beta + 2\beta = 3\beta.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence we get (omitting history arguments $\mathbf{x}_{<t}$ for simplicity)

$$\begin{aligned}
V_{\mu}^* & = V_{\mu}^{\pi_{\mu}} < V_{\rho}^{\pi_{\mu}} + 3\beta \leq V_{\rho}^* + 3\beta \\
& = V_{\rho}^{\pi_{\rho}} + 3\beta < V_{\mu}^{\pi_{\rho}} + 3\beta + 3\beta = V_{\mu}^{\pi_{\rho}} + 6\beta.
\end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

With μ^{π_T} -probability at least $1 - \delta$ (i), (ii), and (iii) are true, with μ^{π_T} -probability at least $1 - \delta$ our sample ρ happens to be in \mathcal{M}' by (i), and with $w(\cdot \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t_0})$ -probability at least $1 - 4\delta$ the sample is in \mathcal{M}'' by (3). All of these events are true simultaneously with probability at least $1 - (\delta + \delta + 4\delta) = 1 - 6\delta$. Hence the bound (4) transfers for π_T such that with μ^{π_T} -probability $\geq 1 - 6\delta$ we have

$$V_{\mu}^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) - V_{\mu}^{\pi_T}(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) < 6\beta.$$

Therefore $\mu^{\pi_T} [V_{\mu}^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) - V_{\mu}^{\pi_T}(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) \geq 6\beta] < 6\delta$ and with $\delta \rightarrow 0$ we get that $V_{\mu}^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) - V_{\mu}^{\pi_T}(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) \rightarrow 0$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$ in probability. The value function is bounded, thus it also converges in mean by the dominated convergence theorem. \square

3.2 WEAK ASYMPTOTIC OPTIMALITY

It might appear that convergence in mean is more natural than the convergence of Cesàro averages of weak asymp-

totic optimality. However, both notions are not so fundamentally different because they both allow an infinite number of bad mistakes (actions that lead to $V_{\mu}^* - V_{\mu}^{\pi}$ being large). Asymptotic optimality in mean allows bad mistakes as long as their probability converges to zero; weak asymptotic optimality allows bad mistakes as long as the total time spent on bad mistakes grows sublinearly.

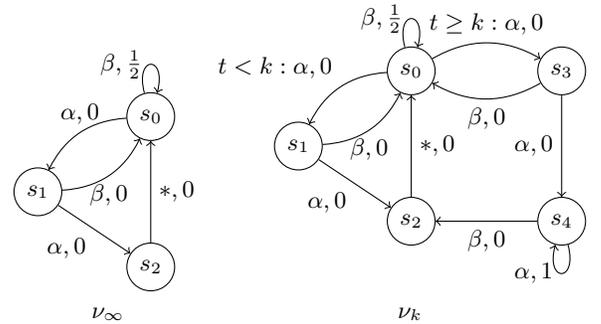
Lattimore and Hutter show that weak asymptotic optimality is possible in a countable class of deterministic environments using an MDL-agent that explores through bursts of random walks [LH11, Def. 10]. For classes of stochastic environments, BayesExp is weakly asymptotically optimal [Lat13, Ch. 5]. However, this requires the additional condition that the effective horizon grows sublinearly, $H_t(\varepsilon_t) \in o(t)$, while Theorem 4 does not require this condition.

Generally, weak asymptotic optimality and asymptotic optimality in mean are incomparable because the notions of convergence are incomparable for (bounded) random variables. First, for deterministic sequences (i.e. deterministic policies in deterministic environments), convergence in mean is equivalent to (regular) convergence, which implies convergence in Cesàro average, but not vice versa. Second, convergence in probability (and hence convergence in mean for bounded random variables) does not imply almost sure convergence of Cesàro averages [Sto13, Sec. 14.18]. We leave open the question whether the policy π_T is weakly asymptotically optimal.

3.3 STRONG ASYMPTOTIC OPTIMALITY

Strong asymptotic optimality is known to be impossible for deterministic policies [LH11, Thm. 8.1], but whether it is possible for stochastic policies is an open question. However, we show that Thompson sampling is not strongly asymptotically optimal.

Example 6 (Thompson Sampling is not Strongly Asymptotically Optimal). Define $\mathcal{A} := \{\alpha, \beta\}$, $\mathcal{E} := \{0, 1/2, 1\}$, and assume geometric discounting, $\gamma_t := \gamma^t$ for $\gamma \in (0, 1)$. Consider the following class of environments $\mathcal{M} := \{\nu_{\infty}, \nu_1, \nu_2, \dots\}$ (transitions are labeled with action, reward):



Environment ν_k works just like environment ν_{∞} except

that after time step k , the path to state s_3 gets unlocked and the optimal policy is to take action α twice from state s_0 . The class \mathcal{M} is a class of deterministic weakly communicating MDPs (but as an MDP ν_k has more than 5 states). The optimal policy in environment ν_∞ is to always take action β , the optimal policy for environment ν_k is to take action β for $t < k$ and then take action β in state s_1 and action α otherwise.

Suppose the policy π_T is acting in environment ν_∞ . Since it is asymptotically optimal in the class \mathcal{M} , it has to take actions $\alpha\alpha$ from s_0 infinitely often: for $t < k$ environment ν_k is indistinguishable from ν_∞ , so the posterior for ν_k is larger or equal to the prior. Hence there is always a constant chance of sampling ν_k until taking actions $\alpha\alpha$, at which point all environments ν_k for $k \leq t$ become falsified.

If the policy π_T decides to explore and take the first action α , it will be in state s_1 . Let $\mathbf{x}_{<t}$ denote the current history. Then the ν_∞ -optimal action is β and

$$V_{\nu_\infty}^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) = (1 - \gamma) \left(0 + \gamma \frac{1}{2} + \gamma^2 \frac{1}{2} + \dots \right) = \frac{\gamma}{2}.$$

The next action taken by π_T is α since any optimal policy for any sampled environment that takes action α once, takes that action again (and we are following that policy for an ε_t -effective horizon). Hence

$$V_{\nu_\infty}^{\pi_T}(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) \leq (1 - \gamma) \left(0 + 0 + \gamma^2 \frac{1}{2} + \gamma^3 \frac{1}{2} + \dots \right) = \frac{\gamma^2}{2}.$$

Therefore $V_{\nu_\infty}^* - V_{\nu_\infty}^{\pi_T} \geq (\gamma - \gamma^2)/2 > 0$. This happens infinitely often with probability one and thus we cannot get almost sure convergence. \diamond

We expect that strong asymptotic optimality can be achieved with Thompson sampling by resampling at every time step (with strong assumptions on the discount function).

4 REGRET

4.1 SETUP

In general environments classes worst-case regret is linear because the agent can get caught in a trap and be unable to recover [Hut05, Sec. 5.3.2]. To achieve sublinear regret we need to ensure that the agent can recover from mistakes. Formally, we make the following assumption.

Definition 7 (Recoverability). An environment ν satisfies the *recoverability assumption* iff

$$\sup_{\pi} \left| \mathbb{E}_{\nu}^{\pi^*} [V_{\nu}^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] - \mathbb{E}_{\nu}^{\pi} [V_{\nu}^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] \right| \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty.$$

Recoverability compares following the worst policy π for $t - 1$ time steps and then switching to the optimal policy π^*

to having followed π^* from the beginning. The recoverability assumption states that switching to the optimal policy at any time step enables the recovery of most of the value.

Note that Definition 7 demands that it becomes less costly to recover from mistakes as time progresses. This should be regarded as an effect of the discount function: if the (effective) horizon grows, recovery becomes easier because the optimal policy has more time to perform a recovery. Moreover, recoverability is on the optimal policy, in contrast to the notion of ergodicity in MDPs which demands returning to a starting state regardless of the policy.

Remark 8 (Weakly Communicating POMDPs are Recoverable). If the effective horizon is growing, $H_t(\varepsilon) \rightarrow \infty$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$, then any weakly communicating finite state partially observable MDP satisfies the recoverability assumption.

Definition 9 (Regret). The *regret* of a policy π in environment μ is

$$R_m(\pi, \mu) := \sup_{\pi'} \mathbb{E}_{\mu}^{\pi'} \left[\sum_{t=1}^m r_t \right] - \mathbb{E}_{\mu}^{\pi} \left[\sum_{t=1}^m r_t \right].$$

Note that regret is undiscounted and always nonnegative. Moreover, the supremum is always attained by some policy (not necessarily the (V_{μ}) -optimal policy π_{μ}^* because that policy uses discounting), since the space of possible different policies for the first m actions is finite since we assumed the set of actions \mathcal{A} and the set of percepts \mathcal{E} to be finite.

Assumption 10 (Discount Function). Let the discount function γ be such that

- (a) $\gamma_t > 0$ for all t ,
- (b) γ_t is monotone decreasing in t , and
- (c) $H_t(\varepsilon) \in o(t)$ for all $\varepsilon > 0$.

This assumption demands that the discount function is somewhat well-behaved: the function has no oscillations, does not become 0, and the horizon is not growing too fast.

Assumption 10 is satisfied by geometric discounting: $\gamma_t := \gamma^t > 0$ (a) for some fixed constant $\gamma \in (0, 1)$ is monotone decreasing (b), $\Gamma_t = \gamma^t / (1 - \gamma)$, and $H_t(\varepsilon) = \lceil \log_{\gamma} \varepsilon \rceil \in o(t)$ (c).

The problem with geometric discounting is that it makes the recoverability assumption very strong: since the horizon is not growing, the environment has to enable *faster recovery* as time progresses; in this case weakly communicating partially observable MDPs are *not* recoverable.

A choice with $H_t(\varepsilon) \rightarrow \infty$ that satisfies Assumption 10 is $\gamma_t := e^{-\sqrt{t}} / \sqrt{t}$ [Lat13, Sec. 2.3.1]. For this discount function $\Gamma_t \approx 2e^{-\sqrt{t}}$, $H_t(\varepsilon) \approx -\sqrt{t} \log \varepsilon + (\log \varepsilon)^2 \in o(t)$, and thus $H_t(\varepsilon) \rightarrow \infty$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$.

4.2 SUBLINEAR REGRET

This subsection is dedicated to the following theorem.

Theorem 11 (Sublinear Regret). *If the discount function γ satisfies Assumption 10, the environment $\mu \in \mathcal{M}$ satisfies the recoverability assumption, and π is asymptotically optimal in mean, i.e.,*

$$\mathbb{E}_\mu^\pi [V_\mu^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) - V_\mu^\pi(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty,$$

then $R_m(\pi, \mu) \in o(m)$.

If the items in Assumption 10 are violated, Theorem 11 can fail:

- If $\gamma_t = 0$ for some time steps t , our policy does not care about those time steps and might take actions that have large regret.
- Similarly if γ oscillates between high values and very low values: our policy might take high-regret actions in time steps with comparatively lower γ -weight.
- If the horizon grows linearly, infinitely often our policy might spend some constant fraction of the current effective horizon exploring, which incurs a cost that is a constant fraction of the total regret so far.

To prove Theorem 11, we apply the following technical lemma.

Lemma 12 (Value and Regret). *Let $\varepsilon > 0$ and assume the discount function γ satisfies Assumption 10. Let $(d_t)_{t \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of numbers with $|d_t| \leq 1$ for all t . If there is a time step t_0 with*

$$\frac{1}{\Gamma_t} \sum_{k=t}^{\infty} \gamma_k d_k < \varepsilon \quad \forall t \geq t_0 \quad (5)$$

then

$$\sum_{t=1}^m d_t \leq t_0 + \varepsilon(m - t_0 + 1) + \frac{1 + \varepsilon}{1 - \varepsilon} H_m(\varepsilon)$$

Proof. This proof essentially follows the proof of [Hut06, Thm. 17]; see Appendix B. \square

Proof of Theorem 11. Let $(\pi_m)_{m \in \mathbb{N}}$ denote any sequence of policies, such as a sequence of policies that attain the supremum in the definition of regret. We want to show that

$$\mathbb{E}_\mu^{\pi_m} \left[\sum_{t=1}^m r_t \right] - \mathbb{E}_\mu^\pi \left[\sum_{t=1}^m r_t \right] \in o(m).$$

For

$$d_k^{(m)} := \mathbb{E}_\mu^{\pi_m} [r_k] - \mathbb{E}_\mu^\pi [r_k] \quad (6)$$

we have $-1 \leq d_k^{(m)} \leq 1$ since we assumed rewards to be bounded between 0 and 1. Because the environment μ satisfies the recoverability assumption we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \mathbb{E}_\mu^{\pi_m} [V_\mu^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] - \mathbb{E}_\mu^\pi [V_\mu^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] \right| &\rightarrow 0 \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty, \text{ and} \\ \sup_m \left| \mathbb{E}_\mu^{\pi_m} [V_\mu^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] - \mathbb{E}_\mu^{\pi_m} [V_\mu^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] \right| &\rightarrow 0 \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty, \end{aligned}$$

so we conclude that

$$\sup_m \left| \mathbb{E}_\mu^\pi [V_\mu^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] - \mathbb{E}_\mu^{\pi_m} [V_\mu^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] \right| \rightarrow 0$$

by the triangle inequality and thus

$$\sup_m \mathbb{E}_\mu^{\pi_m} [V_\mu^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] - \mathbb{E}_\mu^\pi [V_\mu^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty. \quad (7)$$

By assumption the policy π is asymptotically optimal in mean, so we have

$$\mathbb{E}_\mu^\pi [V_\mu^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] - \mathbb{E}_\mu^\pi [V_\mu^\pi(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty,$$

and with (7) this combines to

$$\sup_m \mathbb{E}_\mu^{\pi_m} [V_\mu^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] - \mathbb{E}_\mu^\pi [V_\mu^\pi(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty.$$

From $V_\mu^*(\mathbf{x}_{<t}) \geq V_\mu^{\pi_m}(\mathbf{x}_{<t})$ we get

$$\limsup_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left(\sup_m \mathbb{E}_\mu^{\pi_m} [V_\mu^{\pi_m}(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] - \mathbb{E}_\mu^\pi [V_\mu^\pi(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] \right) \leq 0. \quad (8)$$

For $\pi' \in \{\pi, \pi_1, \pi_2, \dots\}$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}_\mu^{\pi'} [V_\mu^{\pi'}(\mathbf{x}_{<t})] &= \mathbb{E}_\mu^{\pi'} \left[\frac{1}{\Gamma_t} \mathbb{E}_\mu^{\pi'} \left[\sum_{k=t}^{\infty} \gamma_k r_k \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t} \right] \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_\mu^{\pi'} \left[\frac{1}{\Gamma_t} \sum_{k=t}^{\infty} \gamma_k r_k \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{\Gamma_t} \sum_{k=t}^{\infty} \gamma_k \mathbb{E}_\mu^{\pi'} [r_k], \end{aligned}$$

so from (6) and (8) we get

$$\limsup_{t \rightarrow \infty} \sup_m \frac{1}{\Gamma_t} \sum_{k=t}^{\infty} \gamma_k d_k^{(m)} \leq 0.$$

Let $\varepsilon > 0$ and choose t_0 independent of m and large enough such that $\sup_m \sum_{k=t}^{\infty} \gamma_k d_k^{(m)} / \Gamma_t < \varepsilon$ for all $t \geq t_0$. Now we let $m \in \mathbb{N}$ be given and apply Lemma 12 to get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{R_m(\pi, \mu)}{m} &= \frac{\sum_{k=1}^m d_k^{(m)}}{m} \\ &\leq \frac{t_0 + \varepsilon(m - t_0 + 1) + \frac{1 + \varepsilon}{1 - \varepsilon} H_m(\varepsilon)}{m}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $H_t(\varepsilon) \in o(t)$ according to Assumption 10c we get $\limsup_{m \rightarrow \infty} R_m(\pi, \mu) / m \leq 0$. \square

Example 13 (Converse of Theorem 11 is False). Let μ be a two-armed Bernoulli bandit with means 0 and 1 and suppose we are using geometric discounting with discount factor $\gamma \in [0, 1)$. This environment is recoverable. If our policy π pulls the suboptimal arm exactly on time steps $1, 2, 4, 8, 16, \dots$, regret will be logarithmic. However, on time steps $t = 2^n$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$ the value difference $V_\mu^* - V_\mu^\pi$ is deterministically at least $1 - \gamma > 0$. \diamond

4.3 IMPLICATIONS

We get the following immediate consequence.

Corollary 14 (Sublinear Regret for the Optimal Discounted Policy). *If the discount function γ satisfies Assumption 10 and the environment μ satisfies the recoverability assumption, then $R_m(\pi_\mu^*, \mu) \in o(m)$.*

Proof. From Theorem 11 since the policy π_μ^* is (trivially) asymptotically optimal in μ . \square

If the environment does not satisfy the recoverability assumption, regret may be linear *even on the optimal policy*: the optimal policy maximizes discounted rewards and this short-sightedness might incur a tradeoff that leads to linear regret later on if the environment does not allow recovery.

Corollary 15 (Sublinear Regret for Thompson Sampling). *If the discount function γ satisfies Assumption 10 and the environment $\mu \in \mathcal{M}$ satisfies the recoverability assumption, then $R_m(\pi_T, \mu) \in o(m)$ for the Thompson sampling policy π_T .*

Proof. From Theorem 4 and Theorem 11. \square

5 DISCUSSION

In this paper we introduced a reinforcement learning policy π_T based on Thompson sampling for general countable environment classes (Algorithm 1). We proved two asymptotic statements about this policy. Theorem 4 states that π_T is asymptotically optimal in mean: the value of π_T in the true environment converges to the optimal value. Corollary 15 states that the regret of π_T is sublinear: the difference of the expected average rewards between π_T and the best informed policy converges to 0. Both statements come without a concrete convergence rate because of the weak assumptions we made on the environment class.

Asymptotic optimality has to be taken with a grain of salt. It provides no incentive to the agent to avoid traps in the environment. Once the agent gets caught in a trap, all actions are equally bad and thus optimal: asymptotic optimality has been achieved. Even worse, an asymptotically optimal agent has to explore all the traps because they might contain hidden treasure. Overall, there is a dichotomy between the asymptotic nature of asymptotic optimality and the use

of discounting to prioritize the present over the future. Ideally, we would want to give finite guarantees instead, but without additional assumptions this is likely impossible in this general setting. Our regret bound could be a step in the right direction, even though itself asymptotic in nature.

For Bayesians asymptotic optimality means that the posterior distribution $w(\cdot \mid \mathbf{x}_{<t})$ concentrates on environments that are indistinguishable from the true environment (but generally not on the true environment). This is why Thompson sampling works: any optimal policy of the environment we draw from the posterior will, with higher and higher probability, also be (almost) optimal in the true environment.

If the Bayesian mixture ξ is inside the class \mathcal{M} (as it is the case for the class of lower semicomputable chronological semimeasures [Hut05]), then we can assign ξ a prior probability that is arbitrarily close to 1. Since the posterior of ξ is the same as the prior, Thompson sampling will act according to the Bayes-optimal policy most of the time. This means the Bayes-value of Thompson sampling can be very good; formally, $V_\xi^*(\epsilon) - V_\xi^{\pi_T}(\epsilon)$ can be made arbitrarily small, and thus Thompson sampling can have near-optimal Legg-Hutter intelligence [LH07].

In contrast, the Bayes-value of Thompson sampling can also be very bad: Suppose you have a class of $(n+1)$ -armed bandits indexed $1, \dots, n$ where bandit i gives reward $1 - \epsilon$ on arm 1, reward 1 on arm $i + 1$, and reward 0 on all other arms. For geometric discounting and $\epsilon < (1 - \gamma)/(2 - \gamma)$, it is Bayes-optimal to pull arm 1 while Thompson sampling will explore on average $n/2$ arms until it finds the optimal arm. The Bayes-value of Thompson sampling is $1/(n - \gamma_{n-1})$ in contrast to $(1 - \epsilon)$ achieved by Bayes. For a horizon of n , the Bayes-optimal policy suffers a regret of ϵn and Thompson sampling a regret of $n/2$, which is much larger for small ϵ .

The exploration performed by Thompson sampling is qualitatively different from the exploration by BayesExp [Lat13, Ch. 5]. BayesExp performs phases of exploration in which it maximizes the expected information gain. This explores the environment class completely, even achieving off-policy prediction [OLH13, Thm. 7]. In contrast, Thompson sampling only explores on the optimal policies, and in some environment classes this will not yield off-policy prediction. So in this sense the exploration mechanism of Thompson sampling is more reward-oriented than maximizing information gain.

Possible avenues of future research are providing concrete convergence rates for specific environment classes and results for uncountable (parameterized) environment classes. For the latter, we have to use different analysis techniques because the true environment μ is typically assigned a prior probability of 0 (only a positive density) but the proofs of Lemma 5 and Theorem 4 rely on dividing by or tak-

ing a minimum over prior probabilities. We also left open whether Thompson sampling is weakly asymptotically optimal.

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