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Multi-Armed Bandit, Dynamic Environments and Meta-Bandits

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Abstract

This paper presents the Adapt-EvE algorithm, extending the UCBT online learning algorithm (Auer et al. 2002) to abruptly changing environments. Adapt-EvE features an adaptive change-point detection test based on Page-Hinkley statistics, and two alternative extra-exploration procedures respectively based on smooth-restart and Meta-Bandits.

1 Introduction

The Game Theory perspective is gradually becoming more relevant and appealing to Machine Learning (ML), as quite a few application domains emphasize the incompleteness of available information in the learning game (Cesa-Bianchi & Lugosi, 2006). In some cases, the huge volume of available information enforces the use of incremental and/or anytime algorithms (Auer et al., 2002). In other cases, the dynamic nature of the application domain asks for new learning algorithms, able to estimate on the fly the relevance of the training examples, and accommodate these relevance estimates within the learning process (Kifer et al., 2004). One central question for ML in this perspective is that of the balance between Exploration and Exploitation (EvE). For instance in the multi-armed bandit problem, online learning is both concerned with finding the very best option (exploration) and playing as often as possible a good enough option (exploitation), in order to optimize the cumulated reward of the gambler (Auer et al., 2002).

This paper is about online learning in dynamic environments. While online algorithms offer some leeway for accommodating dynamic environments, empirical evidence shows that their Exploration versus Exploitation trade-off is not appropriate for abruptly changing environments. In order to adapt online learning to such abrupt changes in the environment, three interdependent questions must be addressed. The first one, referred to as change-point detection (Page, 1954), is concerned with deciding whether some change has occurred beyond the “natural” variations of the environment. The second, referred to as Meta-EvE, is concerned with designing a good strategy for such change moments. On one hand, the change-point detection must trigger some extra exploration; this extra exploration relates to the (partial) forgetting of the recent history. On the other hand, if the change-point detection was a false alarm, the process should quickly recover its memory and switch back to exploitation; otherwise, the extra exploration results in wasting time. Thirdly, the process should be able to adapt the change-point detection mechanism based on what happened during the Meta-EvE episodes. Typically, if the Meta-EvE episode concludes that the change-point detection was a false alarm, the detection thresholds should be increased.

The algorithm presented in this paper, called Adapt-EvE, relies on the UCBT algorithm proposed by (Auer et al., 2002), described in Appendix 1 for the sake of completeness. Our contribution is two-fold. Firstly, Adapt-EvE incorporates a change-point detection test based on the Page-Hinkley statistics (Page, 1954); parameterized after the desired false alarm detection rate, this test provably minimizes the expected time before detection
(section 2). Secondly, two alternative Meta-EvE strategies are proposed and compared. The first one, \( \gamma \)-restart strategy, proceeds by discounting the process memory. The second one, Meta-Bandit, formulates the Meta-Eve problem as another multi-armed bandit problem, where the two options are: i/ forgetting the whole process memory and playing UCBT accordingly; ii/ discarding the change detection and keeping the same UCBT strategy as before (section 3). Finally, the adjustment of the change point detection criterion is based on a simple multiplicative update of the underlying threshold.

Empirical validation, conducted on the EvE Challenge proposed by (Hussain et al., 2006) and discussed in section 4 demonstrates significant improvement over the baseline UCBT algorithm (Auer et al., 2002). The paper concludes with some perspectives for further research, particularly considering the case of many options.

2 Change point detection

As already mentioned, one question raised by the extension of UCBT to abruptly changing environments is that of detecting the environment changes. Let us assume that the best current option \( i^* \) is correctly identified, and let \( \mu^* \) denote the expected associated reward. Three types of change can occur. In the first case, the best option remains the same but the associated reward \( \mu^* \) changes (it decreases or increases); in the second case, the reward of another option increases to the point that it outperforms option \( i^* \); in the third case, reward \( \mu^* \) associated to option \( i^* \) abruptly decreases and another option becomes the best one. Only the last type of changes will be considered in this section, leaving the other two cases for further study.

If we consider the series of rewards \( x_1, \ldots, x_T \) gathered by playing the current best option \( i^* \) in the last \( T \) steps, the question is whether this series can be attributed to a single statistical law (null hypothesis); otherwise (change-point detection) the series demonstrates a change in the statistical law underlying the rewards. A most well-known criterion for testing this hypothesis is the Page-Hinkley (PH) statistics (Page, 1954; Hinkley, 1969; Hinkley, 1970; Hinkley, 1971). The PH statistical test involves a random variable \( m_T \) defined as the difference between the \( x_t \) and their average \( \bar{x}_t \), cumulated up to step \( T \); by construction, this variable should have 0 mean if the null hypothesis holds (no change has occurred). The maximum value \( M_T \) of the \( m_t \) for \( t = 1 \ldots T \) is also computed and the difference between \( M_T \) and \( m_T \) is monitored; when this difference is greater than a given threshold \( \lambda \) (depending on the desired false alarm rate), the null hypothesis is rejected i.e. the PH test concludes that a change point has occurred. Further, under some technical hypothesis, the Page-Hinkley test provably ensures the minimal expected time before detection for a given false detection rate (Lorden, 1971).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( \bar{x}<em>t = \frac{1}{T} \sum</em>{t=1}^{T} x_t )</th>
<th>( m_T = \sum_{t=1}^{T} (x_t - \bar{x}_t + \delta) )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( M_T = \max{m_t, t = 1 \ldots T} )</td>
<td>( PH_T = M_T - m_T )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( Return(PH_T &gt; \lambda) )</td>
<td>( )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: The Page-Hinkley statistical test

The PH test involves two parameters. Parameter \( \delta \), manually adjusted in this paper, corresponds to the magnitude of changes that should not raise an alarm. Parameter \( \lambda \) depends on the desired false detection rate. Increasing \( \lambda \) will entail less false alarms, but might miss some changes. As \( \lambda \) directly controls the exploration-exploitation dilemma, an adaptive control of \( \lambda \) is proposed in section 3.3.

3 Meta Exploration vs Exploitation Dilemma

When the change-point detection test is positive, the question becomes to reconsider the balance between exploration and exploitation. Two alternative strategies are proposed to handle the extra-exploration control, referred to as Meta-EVE. The first strategy, \( \gamma \)-restart, is based on discounting the process memory (section 3.1). The second strategy, Meta-Bandit, is based on the formulation of the Meta-EVE problem as another multi-armed
bandit problem (section 3.2).

Independently, section 3.3 tackles the a posteriori control of the change-point detection test, through adaptively adjusting the \( \lambda \) parameter of the Page-Hinkley test.

**Notations**

In this section, \( n_{i,t} \) and \( \hat{\mu}_{i,t} \) respectively denote the estimation effort (initially, the number of times the \( i \)-th arm has been selected) and the average reward associated to the \( i \)-th arm at time step \( t \); subscript \( t \) is omitted when clear from the context. The process memory, made of the \( n_{i,t} \) and \( \hat{\mu}_{i,t} \) for \( i = 1 \ldots K \), dictates the selection of the next option through the UCBT algorithm (Appendix 1).

### 3.1 \( \gamma \)-Restart

Let \( T \) denote the current time step where the change-point detection occurs, and let \( T - n_C \) denote the time step where the previous change-point detection occurred (set to 0 by default). Window time \([T - n_C, T]\) is referred to as the last episode of the process.

Smooth restart proceeds by discounting the estimation effort associated to every bandit arm. Formally, the \( \gamma \)-restart procedure multiplies \( n_{i,T} \) by the discount \( \gamma \) factor \((0 < \gamma < 1)\) for \( i = 1 \ldots K \). The average reward \( \hat{\mu}_{i,T} \) is kept unchanged. In further time steps, parameters \( n_{i,T+\ell} \) and \( \hat{\mu}_{i,T+\ell} \) are updated as before (Appendix 1).

### 3.2 Meta-Bandit

The Meta-Bandit procedure models the choice of increasing exploration or discarding the change-point detection as another bandit problem. Precisely, the Meta-Bandit is concerned with selecting one among two Bandits: the Old Bandit considers that the change-point detection is a false alarm; it implements the UCBT algorithm based on the current process memory \((n^O_{i,T} = n_{i,T}; \hat{\mu}^O_{i,T} = \hat{\mu}_{i,T})\); the New Bandit considers instead that the change-point detection is correct; it accordingly implements the UCBT algorithm based on a void memory at time step \( T \) \((n^N_{i,T} = \hat{\mu}^N_{i,T} = 0)\).

The Meta-Bandit memory involves the number of times each Bandit has been selected, respectively noted \( n^N \) and \( n^O \), and the associated average reward \( \hat{\mu}^N \) and \( \hat{\mu}^O \), all set to 0 at time \( T \). In every further time step \( T + \ell, \ell \geq 1 \), the Meta-Bandit uses UCBT to select one among the New and Old Bandits. The selected Bandit uses its own memory to select some \( i \)-th option and it accordingly gets some reward \( r_i \). Reward \( r_i \) is used to update three parameters: i/ the reward associated to the selected Bandit; ii/ the reward associated to the \( i \)-th option for the New Bandit; iii/ the reward associated to the \( i \)-th option for the Old Bandit. Further, the Meta-Bandit increments the number of selections associated to the selected Bandit\(^1\).

The Meta-Bandit thus gradually estimates the rewards associated to the New and Old Bandits. After \( MT \) time steps (set to 1000 in all reported experiments), the Bandit with the lowest reward is killed; the other Bandit takes in the control of the process, and the Meta-Bandit is killed too.

### 3.3 Adaptive change-point detection through adjusting \( \lambda \)

Note that one can always determine a posteriori whether the last change-point detection was a false alarm. In the smooth restart case, the false alarm is detected as: the best option did not change between the previous and the current episode. In the Meta-Bandit case, the false alarm amounts to: the Old Bandit wins. Accordingly, the \( \lambda \) parameter is adjusted as follows, where \( \Delta \mu \) is the difference between the reward of the best current option and the second best. Parameters \( \alpha \) and \( \beta \) are experimentally adjusted.

\[
\lambda := \begin{cases} 
\lambda \times e, & \text{if true alarm} \\
(1 - \alpha \Delta \mu), & \text{if false alarm} 
\end{cases} \\
e = \begin{cases} 
(1 - \lambda \alpha \Delta \mu), & \text{if true alarm} \\
(1 + \beta \Delta \mu), & \text{if false alarm} 
\end{cases}
\]

\(^1\)In the rare cases where both Bandits would select the same option, the Meta-Bandit increments both \( n^N \) and \( n^O \).
4 Empirical validation

_Adapt-EvE_ involves six parameters, detailed in Table 2 together with the empirically optimal values in the context of validation, that of the EvE Pascal Challenge (Hussain et al., 2006). The sensitivity analysis is in Appendix 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Adjustment</th>
<th>Optimal value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\delta$</td>
<td>change-point detection</td>
<td>manual</td>
<td>$5 \times 10^{-3}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\lambda$</td>
<td>change-point detection</td>
<td>adaptive</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\gamma$</td>
<td>in $\gamma$-restart only</td>
<td>manual</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$MT$</td>
<td>in Meta-Bandit only</td>
<td>fixed</td>
<td>1000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\alpha$</td>
<td>for $\lambda$ adjustment</td>
<td>manual</td>
<td>$10^{-2}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\beta$</td>
<td>for $\lambda$ adjustment</td>
<td>manual</td>
<td>$10^{-2}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Parameters of _Adapt-EvE_

The experimental results of _Adapt-EvE_ compared to the baseline UCBT (Auer et al., 2002) and the discounted UCBT proposed by L. Koosys (2006), are reported in Table 3. For each algorithm and visitor, the regret (in thousands) is averaged over 100 independent runs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Baseline Algs</th>
<th>$\gamma$-restart</th>
<th>Meta-Bandit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UCBT</td>
<td>UCBT + discount</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequent Swap</td>
<td>$32.6 \pm 0.2$</td>
<td>$19.1 \pm 0.1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Long Gaussians</td>
<td>$53.1 \pm 4$</td>
<td>$7.1 \pm 0.2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily Variation</td>
<td>$60.2 \pm 1.4$</td>
<td>$6.9 \pm 0.1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekly Variation</td>
<td>$62.2 \pm 0.7$</td>
<td>$10.2 \pm 0.4$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weekly Close Var.</td>
<td>$21.6 \pm 0.5$</td>
<td>$9.0 \pm 0.2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>$0.4 \pm 0.02$</td>
<td>$7.3 \pm 0.05$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regret</td>
<td>$230 \pm 4.5$</td>
<td>$59.7 \pm 0.5$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: _Adapt-EvE_: Regret (in thousands) after $10^6$ steps on every visitor with confidence interval at 95%, using the best parameterization for each variant, averaged over 100 runs.

The $\gamma$-restart strategy appears to be the best one in the context of the EvE Challenge, provided that parameters $\gamma$ and $\lambda$ are carefully adjusted. Complementary experiments and the sensitivity analysis (Appendix 2) shows that the adaptive adjustment of $\lambda$ does not work well in the context of the $\gamma$-restart; further, the performances strongly depend on the values of $\gamma$ and $\lambda$.

With no adaptation of the change-point detection, the Meta-Bandit is outperformed by the $\gamma$-restart although its performances are less sensitive to the $\delta$ and $\lambda$ parameters. Interestingly, the Meta-Bandit enables an efficient adaptation of the $\lambda$ parameter; this adaptation leads Meta-Bandit to catch up $\gamma$-restart.

5 Conclusion and Perspectives

The _Adapt-EvE_ algorithm was devised for online learning in abruptly changing environments. Its good performances rely first on the use of an efficient change-point detection test, and secondly on specific (alternative) procedures devised for controlling the extra-exploration related to change-point detection, the $\gamma$-restart and Meta-Bandit. The theoretical study of these procedures is undergoing.

Further work will be concerned with incorporating prior or posterior knowledge about the periodicity of the dynamic environments. Another perspective is concerned with extending _Adapt-EvE_ to Many-armed bandit problems.
Appendix 1: UCBT

In order for this paper to be self contained, this section briefly describes the UCB-Tuned (UCBT) algorithm proposed by (Auer et al., 2002) for the multi-armed bandit problem, and incorporated in Adapt-EvE.

Formally, let $K$ denotes the number of options (bandit arms). The (unknown) reward associated to the $i$-th option is noted $\mu_i$. Let $\hat{\mu}_i$ denote the average reward collected by the gambler for the $i$-th option; let $n_i$ denote the estimation effort spent on the $i$-th option\(^2\). Let $N = \sum_{i=1}^{K} n_i$ denote the total estimation effort.

The regret $L(N)$ after $N$ estimation effort is the loss incurred by the gambler compared to the best possible strategy; i.e. investing $N$ effort on the best option (with reward $\hat{\mu}^* = \max\{\hat{\mu}_i, \ i = 1 \ldots K\}$).

$$L(N) = \sum_{i} n_i \times (\hat{\mu}^* - \hat{\mu}_i)$$

Assuming that rewards are bounded, the UCB1 algorithm ensures that the expected loss is bounded logarithmically with the estimation effort $N$ (Auer et al., 2002), assuming that the machines are independent.

Adapt-EvE uses an algorithmic variant of UCB referred to as UCB-Tuned (UCBT) for its better empirical results (Auer et al., 2002). Let $V_j(n_j)$ denote an upper bound on the variance of the reward of the $i$-th machine, then equation (1) is replaced by

$$i = \text{Argmax}\{\hat{\mu}_j + \sqrt{\frac{2\log N}{n_j} \times \min(\frac{1}{4}, V_j(n_j)))}\}$$

The above selection rule tends to decrease the exploration strength, except possibly for options with high variance.

\(^2\)Originally, $n_i$ is the number of times the $i$-th option has been selected. However, considering $n_i$ as the estimation effort spent on the $i$-th option makes more sense in the context of the $\gamma$-restart strategy (section 3.1).
Initialization: For $i = 1 \ldots K$, $n_i = \hat{\mu}_i = 0$. $N = 0$

Repeat

- if $n_i = 0$ for some $i \in 1 \ldots K$ play $i$
  - else play $i = \text{argmax} \ \{ \hat{\mu}_j + \sqrt{\frac{2 \log N}{n_j}}, \ j = 1 \ldots K \}$
- let $r$ be the associated reward
- Update $n_i$ and $\hat{\mu}_i$
  - $\hat{\mu}_i := \frac{1}{n_i+1} \times (n_i \hat{\mu}_i + r)$
  - $n_i := n_i + 1$
- $N := N + 1$

Table 4: Algorithm UCB1

Appendix 2. Sensitivity study

The sensitivity of Adapt-EvE with no adaptive change detection, with respect to parameters $\delta$ (controlling the false alarm rate), and $\gamma$ (controlling the $\gamma$-restart), is respectively shown in Table 5.(a), (b) and (c).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$\delta$</th>
<th>$\gamma$-restart</th>
<th>Meta-Bandit</th>
<th>$\lambda$</th>
<th>$\gamma$-restart</th>
<th>Meta-Bandit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$10^{-4}$</td>
<td>43.8 $\pm$ 2.8</td>
<td>48.8 $\pm$ 1.5</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>41.9 $\pm$ 2</td>
<td>51.5 $\pm$ 3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 $10^{-4}$</td>
<td>42.9 $\pm$ 1.9</td>
<td>49.2 $\pm$ 2.4</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>39.8 $\pm$ 2</td>
<td>47.7 $\pm$ 4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$10^{-3}$</td>
<td>42.3 $\pm$ 1.7</td>
<td>50.9 $\pm$ 2.1</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>45.7 $\pm$ 6</td>
<td>52.1 $\pm$ 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 $10^{-3}$</td>
<td>39.8 $\pm$ 2</td>
<td>47.7 $\pm$ 4.9</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>51 $\pm$ 5</td>
<td>52.6 $\pm$ 5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$10^{-2}$</td>
<td>44.2 $\pm$ 5.3</td>
<td>47.9 $\pm$ 2.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) Adapt-EvE sensitivity wrt $\delta$

(b) Adapt-EvE sensitivity wrt $\gamma$-restart

(c) $\gamma$-restart sensitivity wrt $\gamma$

Table 5: Sensitivity analysis of Adapt-EvE wrt parameters $\delta$, $\lambda$ and $\gamma$ (95% confidence interval), with NO adaptive adjustment of the $\lambda$ parameter

The online regrets of all Adapt-EvE variants and the baseline algorithms are reported in Fig. 1.
Figure 1: Adapt-EvE: Online regret averaged over all visitors $\times 10$ runs, compared to baseline average regret.