mrp_3

천정민



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III. Iterative solution - by fixed point theorem

I. Motivation

Recap

- A Markov chain is a stochastic process with the specification of
 - a state space S
 - a transition probability matrix P
- A Markov reward process is a Markov chain with the specification of
 - a reward r_t with the reward function R(s)
 - ullet a time horizon H, which is the duration we are interested in cumulative sum of rewards.
- If H is finite, then we call finite-horizon MRP.
- \bullet IF H is infinite, then we call infinite-horizon MRP.
 - Sometimes, the stochastic process is non-terminating infinite horizon MRP.
 - Sometimes, the stochastic process is terminating infinite horizon MRP. In this case, we may treat
 them as non-terminating, but the chain is absorbed into a absorbing state whose reward is zero.

Formulating an infinite horizon MRP

• In the previous lecture, we dealt with the following question.

'Given I drink coke today, what is likely my consumption for upcoming 10 days? (Pepsi is \$1 and Coke is \$1.5)'

• Infinite horizon problem is such as following.

'I am to live eternally. Given I drink coke today, what is likely my consumption for my upcoming forever life? (Pepsi is \$1 and Coke is \$1.5)'

'(In this case, how to model her death?)'

- It may seem unrealistic on this soda problem to have an infinite time horizon. But infinite horizon model is indeed more common for MRP due to following reasons.
- 1. Time horizon may be finite, but uncertain how long.
- 2. The horizon may be belived to be a long time.
- 3. In accounting principle, all businesses are assumed to be perpetual.
- 4. Oftentimes, each time step is very small such as minute, or even millisecond, making the number of total time step as a very large number.
- 5. Really long finite time horizon can be approximated by infinite time.

Return for infinite horizon

Return for finite horizon in the previous lecture was

$$G_t = \sum_{i=t}^{H-1} r_i = r_t + r_{t+1} + \dots + r_{H-1}$$

If extended for infinite horizon, it becomes

$$G_t = \sum_{i=t}^{\infty} r_i = r_t + r_{t+1} + \cdots$$

Convergence of G_t

$$G_t = \sum_{i=t}^{\infty} r_i = r_t + r_{t+1} + \cdots$$

- Is G_t a convergent series, thus measurable??
 - Even if r_i is a small number, it may diverge unless r_t decays drastically over time.
 - What does it mean drastically?
 - ullet cf) $\sum 1/n=\infty$ and $\sum 1/n^2<\infty$

Discount factor

Introducing discount factor

- ullet A mathematically convenient way to guarantee is to introduce discount factor, $\gamma < 1$
- ullet Using a discount factor, the return, G_t , is newly defined as

$$G_t = r_t + \gamma r_{t+1} + \gamma^2 r_{t+2} + \gamma^3 r_{t+3} + \cdots$$

- ullet As long as r_t is bounded, i.e. $|r_t| < M$ for some M>0 and for all t, G_t is convergent.
- \bullet G_t can be written as

$$G_t = \sum_{i=t}^{\infty} \gamma^{i-t} r_i$$

Note that this generalizes the previous notation with $\gamma = 1$.

Is discount factor practical?

- Many real problems indeed should be modelled with discount factor.
- Humans behave in much the same way, putting more importance in the near future.
- Interest rate is generally positive, making today's money worth more than tomorrow's money.
- Future is risky to some degree, making future's reward less valuable than today's reward.

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• If you die today, there is no tomorrow.

State-value function

ullet Like before, the state-value function $V_t(s)$ for a MRP and a state s is defined as the expected return starting from state s at time t, namely,

$$V_t(s) = \mathbb{E}[G_t|S_t = s]$$

- For infinite horizon problem, are the following two quantity different?
 - 1. $V_t(s) = \mathbb{E}[G_t|S_t = s]$
 - 2. $V_0(s) = \mathbb{E}[G_0|S_0 = s]$
- It is not! This is because the lengths of remaing time where returns are summed are
 equally infinite.
- This makes our life easier, and allowing us to drop the time subscript for the state-value function when necessary.
- $\bullet \ \text{Namely, } V_t(s) = V_0(s) = V(s).$

"Dream as if you'll live forever. Live as if you'll die today. - James Dean"

Summary

$$G_t = r_t + \gamma r_{t+1} + \gamma^2 r_{t+2} + \gamma^3 r_{t+3} + \cdots$$
 (1)

$$G_t = \sum_{i=t}^{\infty} \gamma^{i-t} r_i \tag{2}$$

$$V(s) = \mathbb{E}[G_t|S_t = s] \tag{3}$$

II. Analytic solution

Development

- ullet For a finite horizon MRP, the goal was to find $V_t(s)$ for all states s for $0 \le t \le H$.
- Since $V_0(s) = V_t(s) = V(s)$, the goal is only to find V(s) for all states s.

$$\begin{split} V(s) &= V_t(s) = \mathbb{E}[G_t|S_t = s] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[r_t + \gamma r_{t+1} + \gamma^2 r_{t+2} + \gamma^3 r_{t+3} + \cdots | S_t = s] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[r_t|S_t = s] + \gamma \mathbb{E}[r_{t+1} + \gamma r_{t+2} + \gamma^2 r_{t+3} + \cdots | S_t = s] \\ &= R(s) + \gamma \mathbb{E}[G_{t+1}|S_t = s] \\ &= R(s) + \gamma \sum_{\forall s'} \mathbb{P}[S_{t+1} = s'|S_t = s] \mathbb{E}[G_{t+1}|S_t = s, S_{t+1} = s'] \\ &= R(s) + \gamma \sum_{\forall s'} \mathbf{P}_{ss'} \mathbb{E}[G_{t+1}|S_{t+1} = s'] \; (\because \; \text{Markov property}) \\ &= R(s) + \gamma \sum_{\forall s'} \mathbf{P}_{ss'} V_{t+1}(s') \\ &= R(s) + \gamma \sum_{\forall s'} \mathbf{P}_{ss'} V(s') \end{split} \tag{4}$$

• The Eq in previous lecture note was

$$V_t(s) = R(s) + \sum_{\forall s'} \mathbf{P}_{ss'} V_{t+1}(s'), \ \forall s$$

• The Eq (4) in the previous page was

$$V(s) = R(s) + \gamma \sum_{\forall s'} \mathbf{P}_{ss'} V(s'), \ \forall s$$

- Difference
 - The former had $\gamma = 1$.
 - The latter dropped the time subscripts.
- Similarity
 - Both are understood as

(Expected return at time
$$t$$
) = (reward at time t) + (Expected return at time $t+1$)

• The above equation is called Bellman's equation, named after Richard R. Bellman, who introduced dynamic programming in 1953.

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Analytic formula

$$V(s) = R(s) + \gamma \sum_{\forall s'} \mathbf{P}_{ss'} V(s'), \ \forall s$$

- Once again, the strategy is
 - ullet Column vector v for V(s)
 - Column vector R for R(s)
 - $\gamma \mathbf{P} v$ for $\gamma \sum_{\forall s'} \mathbf{P}_{ss'} V(s')$, where \mathbf{P} is a transition matrix
- It follows $v = R + \gamma \mathbf{P} v$
- This can be solved as:

$$v = R + \gamma \mathbf{P}v$$

$$\Rightarrow Iv = R + \gamma \mathbf{P}v$$

$$\Rightarrow Iv - \gamma \mathbf{P}v = R$$

$$\Rightarrow (I - \gamma \mathbf{P})v = R$$

$$\Rightarrow v = (I - \gamma \mathbf{P})^{-1}R$$

Example

'I am to live eternally. Given I drink coke today, what is likely my consumption for my upcoming forever life? (Pepsi is \$1 and Coke is \$1.5)'

- We need information regarding the discount rate. Let's assume $\gamma = 0.95$.
- (equivalent to having daily interest rate of 5%)
- We have

$$v = R + \gamma \mathbf{P}v$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} v(c) \\ v(p) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} R(c) \\ R(p) \end{pmatrix} + \gamma \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{P}_{cc} & \mathbf{P}_{cp} \\ \mathbf{P}_{pc} & \mathbf{P}_{pp} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v(c) \\ v(p) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} v(c) \\ v(p) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.5 \\ 1.0 \end{pmatrix} + 0.95 \begin{pmatrix} 0.7 & 0.3 \\ 0.5 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v(c) \\ v(p) \end{pmatrix}$$
(5)

import numpy as np

```
# Transition matrix P
P = np.array([[0.7, 0.3],
              [0.5, 0.5]])
# Reward vector R
R = np.array([[1.5],
              [1.0]])
# Discount factor
gamma = 0.95
# Compute v = (I - qamma*P)^{(-1)} * R
I = np.eye(2)
v = np.linalg.inv(I - gamma * P) @ R
print(v)
## [[26.48148148]
## [25.86419753]]
```

III. Iterative solution - by fixed point theorem

Recap

• The previous approach was based on the following two formula.

$$v = R + \gamma \mathbf{P}v \tag{6}$$

$$v = (I - \gamma \mathbf{P})^{-1}R \tag{7}$$

- The Eq. (6) is a Bellman's equation.
- The Eq. (7) is used to find a analytic solution.
- Using the Eq (7), there are two concerns that you should have. (This is the suggested solution to Exercise ??)
 - 1. The matrix $I \gamma \mathbf{P}$ may not be invertible.
 - 2. Even if invertible, it may be prohibitive if for a big matrix.
- We are free from the first concern. The matrix $I-\gamma {\bf P}$ can be proved to be invertible always as long as ${\bf P}$ is stochastic.
- We are not free from the second concern. So, this section introduces an alternative, numerical, and iterative approach.

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Iterative algorithm

• Using the fixed-point theorem along with Eq. (6), we apply the following iterative algorithm to find v. (Warning: The subscript i is not state index, not time index, but the iteration index)

$$v_{i+1} \leftarrow R + \gamma \mathbf{P} v_i$$

```
1: Let epsilon <- 10^{-8} # or some small number

2: Let v_0 <- zero vector

3: i <- 1

4: While ||v_i-v_{i-1}|| > epsilon # may use any norm

5: v_{i+1} <- R + \gamma*P*v_{i}

6: i <- i+1

7: Return v_{i+1}
```

Fixed point theorem

Definition 1 (Fixed point)

For a function $f(\cdot)$, x^* is called a fixed point if $f(x^*) = x^*$ holds.

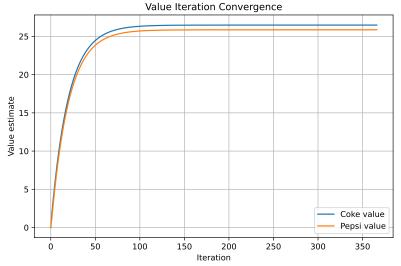
Remark 1

- For example, $x^* = 2$ is a fixed point for $f(x) = x^2 3x + 4$.
- Not all functions have fixed points. For example, f(x) = x + 1.
- In graphical terms, a fixed point x means the point (x, f(x)) is on the line y = x.
- ullet In other words the graph of f has a point in common with that line.
- The above mentioned fixed point method has a few common properties.
 - 1. It is characterized as a iterative process (such as $x_0 \to x_1 \to x_2 \to \cdots$).
 - 2. In each iteration, the current candidate for the solution gets closer to the true value.
 - 3. It converges. That is, it is theoretically reach the exact value up to tolerance.

Implementation

```
import pandas as pd
                                                        # Convert to DataFrame for nicer output
                                                        df = pd.DataFrame(results, columns=["coke", "pepsi"])
# Transition matrix P (column-major to match R)
P = np.array([0.7, 0.5, 0.3, 0.5]).reshape((2, 2),
                                                        print(df.head()) # show first few iterations
order="F")
                                                                  coke
                                                                           pepsi
# Reward vector R
                                                              0.000000
                                                                        0.000000
R = np.array([[1.5]],
                                                              1.500000 1.000000
              [1.0]])
                                                              2.782500 2.187500
                                                        ## 3 3.973800 3.360750
gamma = 0.95
                                                        ## 4 5.100391 4.483911
epsilon = 1e-8
                                                        print(df.tail()) # show Last few iterations
# Initial value vector v old = [0.0]^T
                                                                     coke
                                                                               pepsi
                                                                26.481481 25.864197
v 	ext{ old = np.zeros}((2, 1))
                                                        ## 362
                                                                26.481481 25.864197
                                                        ## 363
# Store results in a list
                                                        ## 364
                                                                26.481481 25.864197
results = [v old.flatten()]
                                                                26.481481 25.864197
                                                        ## 365
                                                                26.481481 25.864197
                                                        ## 366
while True:
   v new = R + gamma * (P @ v old) # Bellman update
   results.append(v new.flatten())
   if np.max(np.abs(v new - v old)) < epsilon: # convergence check
       hreak
   v old = v new
```

visualize



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"withus KNN"