Math 525: Lecture 21

April 03, 2018

So far, we have worked primarily with (stationary) Markov chains whose transition matrices are "constant". In this lecture, we explore the following question: what if we could "control" the transition matrix? In this context, we will have a transition matrix $P(\pi)$ that depends on some quantity π which we, the "controller", get to choose.

1 Markov decision processes

For this lecture, our setting is as follows:

- $S = \{1, ..., m\}$ is a finite state space.
- To each state i in S is associated a nonempty countable set A_i which we can intuitively think of as all the "actions" available at state i.

Definition 1.1. A stationary policy π_0 is a function whose domain is S and which satisfies $\pi_0(i) \in \mathcal{A}_i$ for all i. The set of all stationary policies is denoted Π_0

Definition 1.2. A randomized policy $(\pi_n)_{n\geq 0}$ is a sequence in which each $\pi_n(i)$ is a random variable satisfying

- $\pi_n(i)$ takes values in \mathcal{A}_i a.s. and
- $\{\pi_n(i) = a\} \in \mathcal{F}_n$ for each a in \mathcal{A}_i .

The set of all randomized policies is denoted Π .

For each state i in S and action a in \mathcal{A}_i , let $p_i(a)$ denote a nonnegative column vector satisfying $p_i(a)^{\dagger}e=1$. Given a randomized policy π , let $(X_n^{\pi})_{n\geq 0}$ denote a Markov chain satisfying

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{n+1}^{\pi} = j \mid X_n^{\pi} = i) = p_i(\pi_n(i))^{\mathsf{T}} e_j.$$

That is, the transition matrix at time n is

$$P(\pi_n) = \begin{pmatrix} p_1(\pi_n(1))^{\mathsf{T}} \\ p_2(\pi_n(2))^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \vdots \\ p_m(\pi_n(m))^{\mathsf{T}} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Now, let $c: S \to \mathbb{R}$, $0 \le d < 1$, and

$$J(i,\pi) = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{n\geq 0} d^n c(X_n^{\pi}) \middle| X_0^{\pi} = i\right]. \tag{1}$$

We can think of

- $c(X_n^{\pi})$ as the cost incurred at time n and
- d^n as a discount factor which attempts to capture the fact that costs incurred in the "future" are not as bad as costs incurred "today".

Our objective is to pick π so as to minimize $J(i,\pi)$. That is, we are interested in the quantity

$$v(i) = \inf_{\pi \in \Pi} J(i, \pi)$$
 (2)

We call (2) a Markov decision process (MDP).

Proposition 1.3. v(i) is bounded for each i.

Proof. This is a trivial consequence of the discount factor being strictly less than one:

$$|v(i)| \le \sum_{n\ge 0} d^n \max_j |c(j)| = \frac{1}{1-d} \max_j |c(j)|.$$

Remark 1.4. We glossed over defining \mathcal{F}_n earlier, so we return to that now. Given a particular randomized policy π , we define

$$\mathcal{F}_n = \sigma(X_0^{\pi}, \dots, X_n^{\pi}).$$

This definition seems, at first glance, circular... it seems as though π_n depends on \mathcal{F}_n and vice versa. However, if we look a bit closer at the definition of X_n^{π} , we note that it only depends on the π_0, \ldots, π_{n-1} . In light of this, we can write $X_n^{\pi} \equiv X_n^{\pi_0, \ldots, \pi_{n-1}}$. Therefore,

$$\mathcal{F}_n = \sigma(X_0, X_1^{\pi_0}, X_2^{\pi_0, \pi_1}, \dots, X_n^{\pi_0, \pi_1, \dots, \pi_{n-1}})$$

and hence π is well-defined.

2 Dynamic programming

By the Markov property,

$$J(i,\pi) = \mathbb{E}^{i} \left[c(X_{0}^{\pi}) + \sum_{n \geq 1} d^{n} c(X_{n}^{\pi}) \right] = c(i) + d\mathbb{E}^{i} \left[\sum_{n \geq 0} d^{n} c(X_{n+1}^{\pi}) \right]$$
$$= c(i) + d\mathbb{E}^{i} \left[J(X_{1}^{\pi}, (\pi_{n})_{n \geq 1}) \right] \geq c(i) + d\sum_{i} (P(\pi_{0}))_{ij} v(j)$$

where π_0 is some stationary policy. Taking infimums of both sides of this equality,

$$v(i) \ge \inf_{\pi_0 \in \Pi_0} \left\{ c(i) + d \sum_{j} (P(\pi_0))_{ij} v(j) \right\}.$$
 (3)

Now, fix $\epsilon > 0$. For each i, let $\pi^i = (\pi_n^i)_{n \geq 0}$ be a randomized policy which satisfies

$$v(i) \ge J(i, \pi^i) + \epsilon.$$

Let π_0 be an arbitrary stationary policy. Define a new randomized policy $\pi^{\epsilon} = (\pi_n^{\epsilon})_{n \geq 0}$ by

$$\pi_n^{\epsilon} = \begin{cases} \pi_0 & \text{if } n = 0\\ \sum_i \mathbf{1}_{\{X_1^{\pi_0} = i\}} \pi_{n-1}^i & \text{if } n > 0. \end{cases}$$

Note that

$$v(i) \le J(i, \pi^{\epsilon}) = c(i) + d \sum_{j} (P(\pi_0))_{ij} J(j, \pi^j) \le c(i) + d \sum_{j} (P(\pi_0))_{ij} v(j) - \epsilon.$$

Now, take infimums of both sides to get

$$v(i) \le \inf_{\pi_0 \in \Pi_0} \left\{ c(i) + d \sum_{j} (P(\pi_0))_{ij} v(j) \right\} - \epsilon. \tag{4}$$

We can take $\epsilon \downarrow 0$ and combine (3) and (4) to arrive at

$$v(i) = \inf_{\pi_0 \in \Pi_0} \left\{ c(i) + d \sum_{j} (P(\pi_0))_{ij} v(j) \right\}.$$
 (5)

The implications of this are amazing! We started out with an objective function (1) that was daunting: minimizing it would require picking a stationary policy for each time n. However, we were able to use the Markov property to reduce this to a "local" problem that only involves minimizing over all stationary policies π_0 . In fact, we can simplify (5) even further. First, we need some notation:

for $\{y_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\inf_{\alpha} y_{\alpha}$ is the vector with entries $\inf_{\alpha} (y_{\alpha})_i$.

Theorem 2.1 (Dynamic programming). Let $v = (v(1), \ldots, v(m))^{\intercal}$ and $c = (c(1), \ldots, c(m))^{\intercal}$ where v(i) is the quantity defined by (2). Then,

$$\sup_{\pi_0 \in \Pi_0} \{ (I - dP(\pi_0)) v - c \} = 0$$

Proof. We can rewrite (5) as

$$v = \inf_{\pi_0 \in \Pi} \{ c + dP(\pi_0)v \}.$$
 (6)

Moving some terms around, we obtain the desired result.

In fact, the situation is much more general than we have let on. We can allow for more general discount factors and costs:

$$J(i,\pi) = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{n\geq 0} d(\pi_n, X_n^{\pi})^n c(\pi_n, X_n^{\pi}) \middle| X_0^{\pi} = i\right].$$

However, in this case, it is no longer necessarily the case that $v(\cdot)$ is bounded. When it is, the corresponding dynamic programming equation is

$$\sup_{\pi_0 \in \Pi_0} \left\{ (I - D(\pi_0) P(\pi_0)) v - c(\pi_0) \right\} = 0 \tag{7}$$

where $D(\pi_0) = \operatorname{diag}(d(\pi_0(1), 1), \dots, d(\pi_0(m), m))$ and $c(\pi_0) = (c(\pi_0(1), 1), \dots, c(\pi_0(m), m))^{\mathsf{T}}$. In light of this, the remainder of this lecture is focused on (7). In particular, we would like to know if an arbitrary vector v satisfies (7), is it necessarily equal to the MDP (2)? Moreover, can we use (7) to compute the MDP?