

# Markov Decision Processes



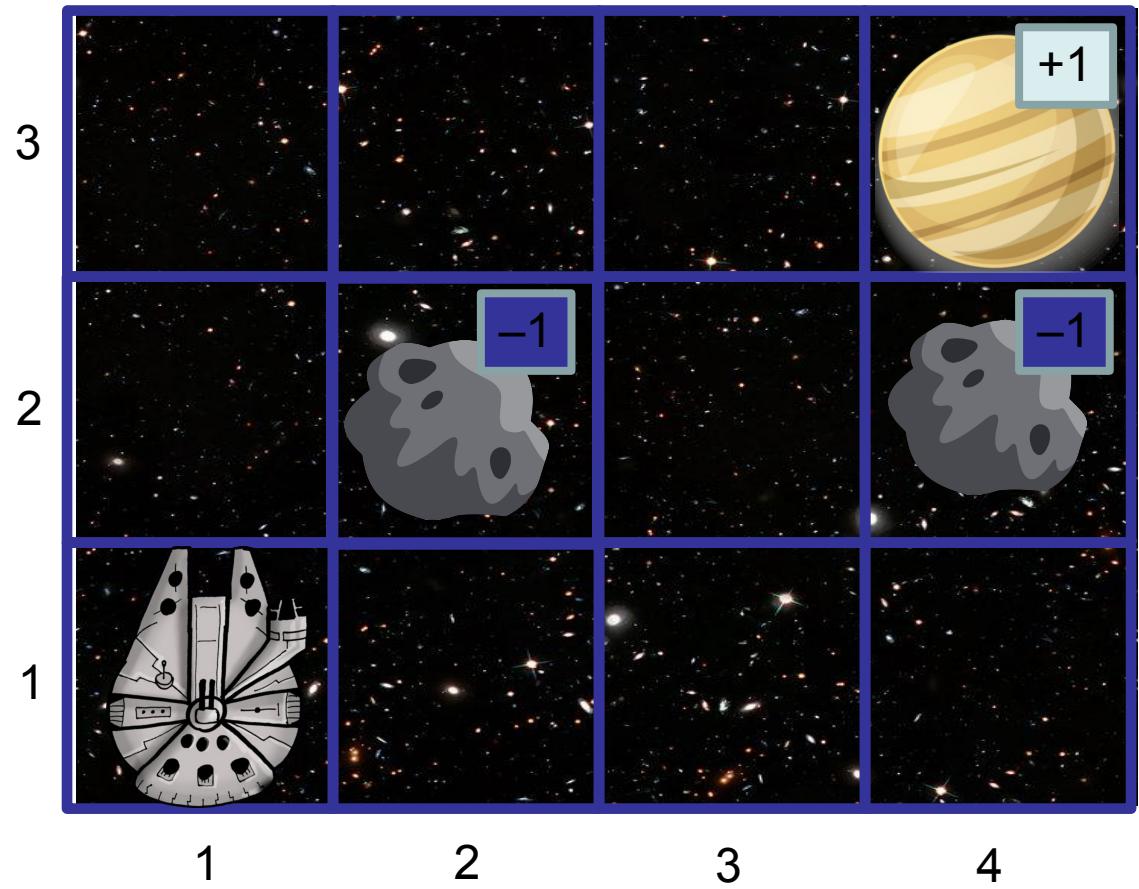
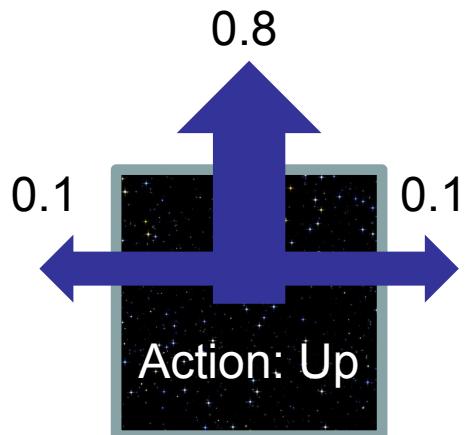
Slides courtesy of Dan Klein and Pieter Abbeel

University of California, Berkeley

# Stochastic Search Problems

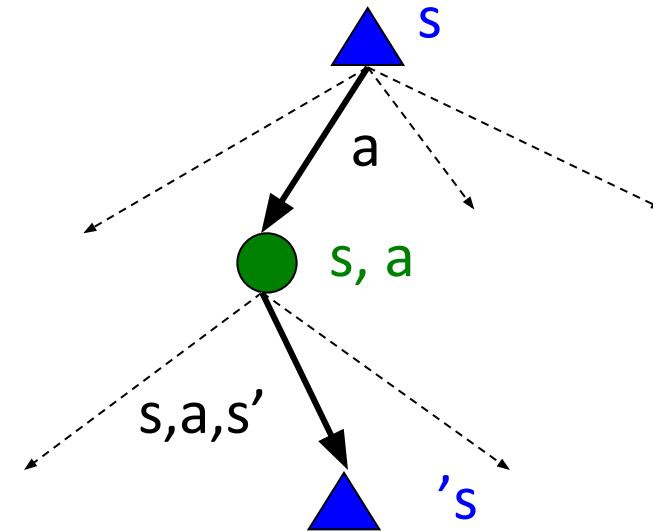
- Instead of dealing with situations where the environment deterministic, MDPs deal with **stochastic** environments.

Transition Model:



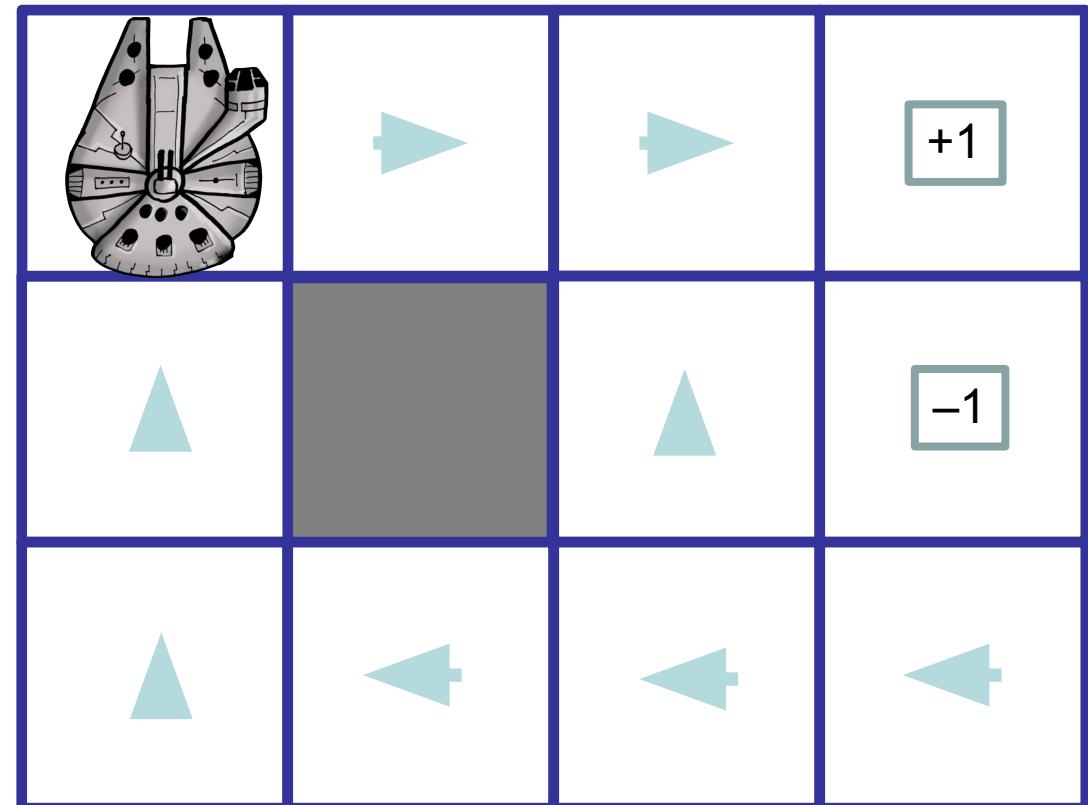
# Defining MDPs

- Markov decision processes:
  - Set of states  $S$
  - Start state  $s_0$
  - Set of actions  $A$
  - Transitions  $P(s'|s,a)$  (or  $T(s,a,s')$ )
  - Rewards  $R(s,a,s')$  (and discount  $\gamma$ )
  
- MDP quantities so far:
  - Policy = Choice of action for each state
  - Utility = sum of (discounted) rewards



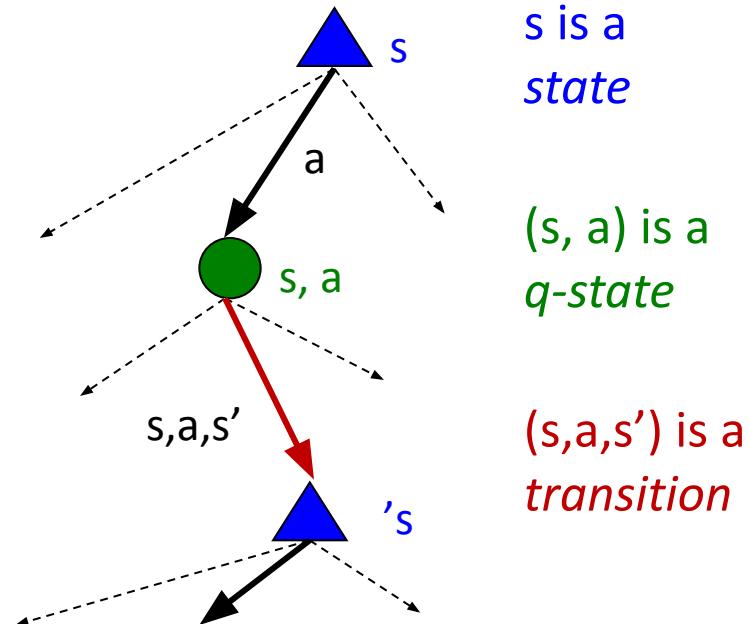
# Solution == Policy

- In search problems a solution was a **plan**: a sequence of action that corresponded to the shortest path from the start to a goal.
- Because of the non-determinism in MDPs we cannot simply give a sequence of actions.
- Instead, the solution to an MDP is a **policy**. A policy maps from a state onto the action to take if the agent is in that state.
  - $\pi(s) = a$

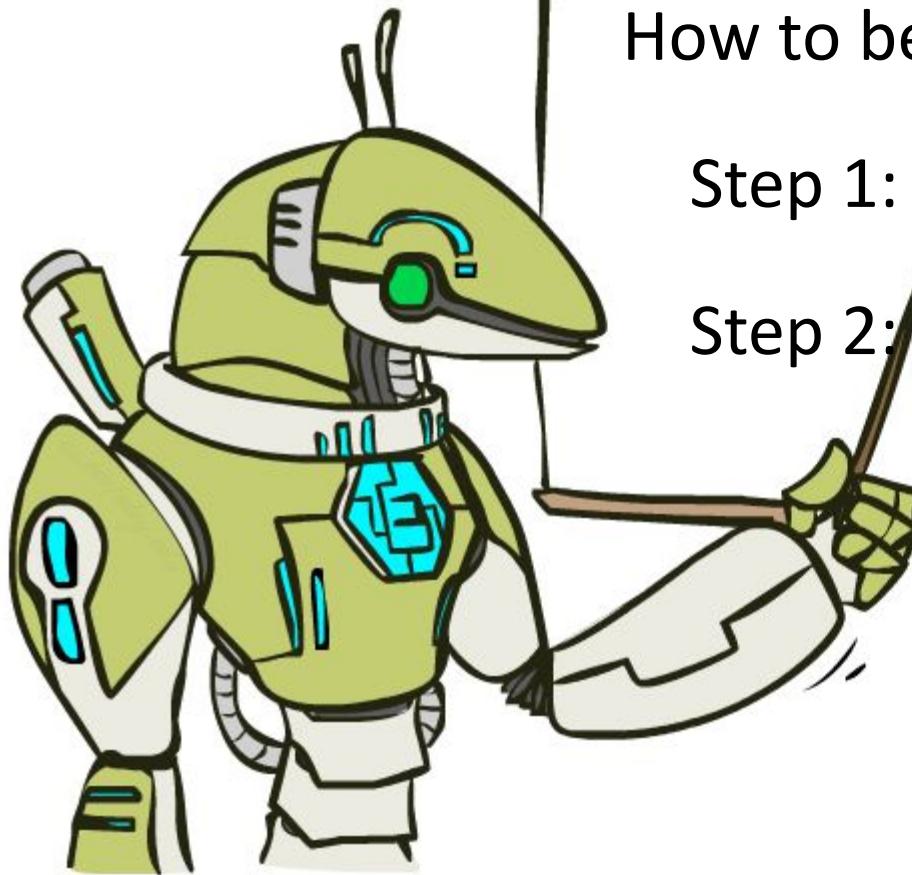


# Optimal Quantities

- The value (utility) of a state  $s$ :  
 $V^*(s)$  = expected utility starting in  $s$  and acting optimally
- The value (utility) of a q-state  $(s,a)$ :  
 $Q^*(s,a)$  = expected utility starting out having taken action  $a$  from state  $s$  and (thereafter) acting optimally
- The optimal policy:  
 $\pi^*(s)$  = optimal action from state  $s$



# The Bellman Equations



How to be optimal:

Step 1: Take correct first action

Step 2: Keep being optimal

# The Bellman Equations

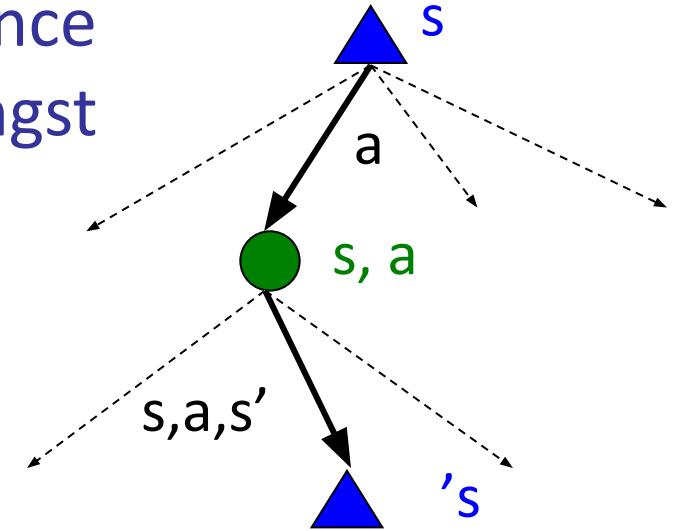
- Definition of “optimal utility” via expectimax recurrence gives a simple one-step lookahead relationship amongst optimal utility values

$$V^*(s) = \max_a Q^*(s, a)$$

$$Q^*(s, a) = \sum_{s'} T(s, a, s') [R(s, a, s') + \gamma V^*(s')]$$

$$V^*(s) = \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s, a, s') [R(s, a, s') + \gamma V^*(s')]$$

- These are the Bellman equations, and they characterize optimal values in a way we'll use over and over



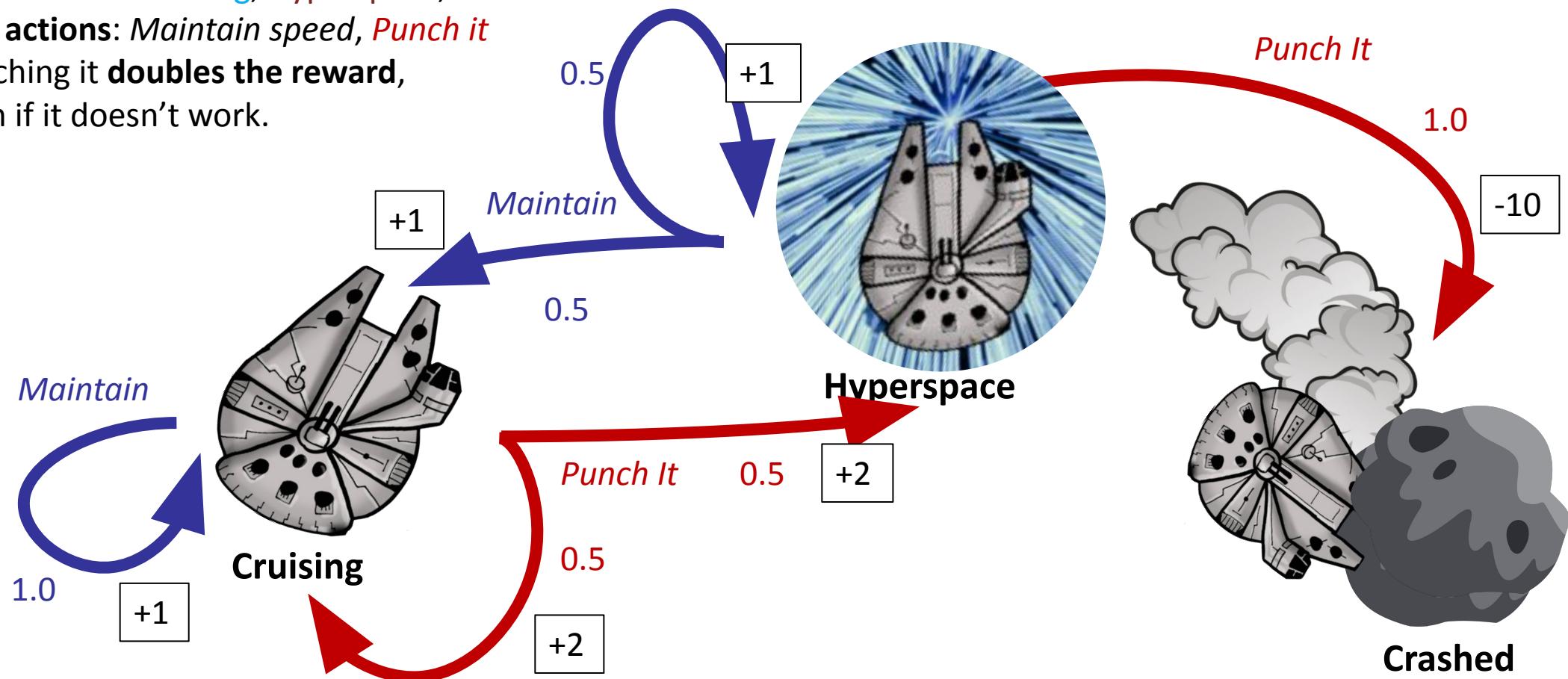
# Example Hyperdrive MDP

The Millennium Falcon needs to travel far far away, quickly

Three **states**: *Cruising*, *Hyperspace*, *Crashed*

Two **actions**: *Maintain speed*, *Punch it*

Punching it **doubles the reward**,  
even if it doesn't work.



# Value Iteration

- Start with  $V_0(s) = 0$ : no time steps left means an expected reward sum of zero
- Given vector of  $V_k(s)$  values, do one ply of expectimax from each state:

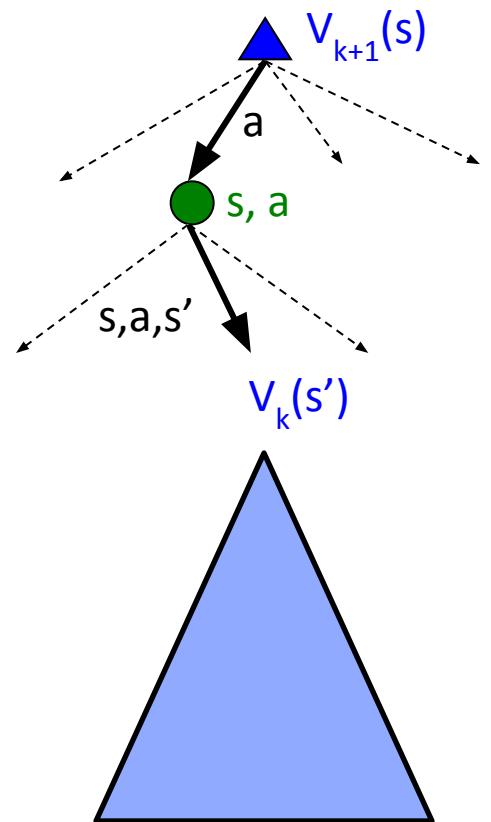
$$V_{k+1}(s) \leftarrow \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s, a, s') [R(s, a, s') + \gamma V_k(s')]$$

- Repeat until convergence

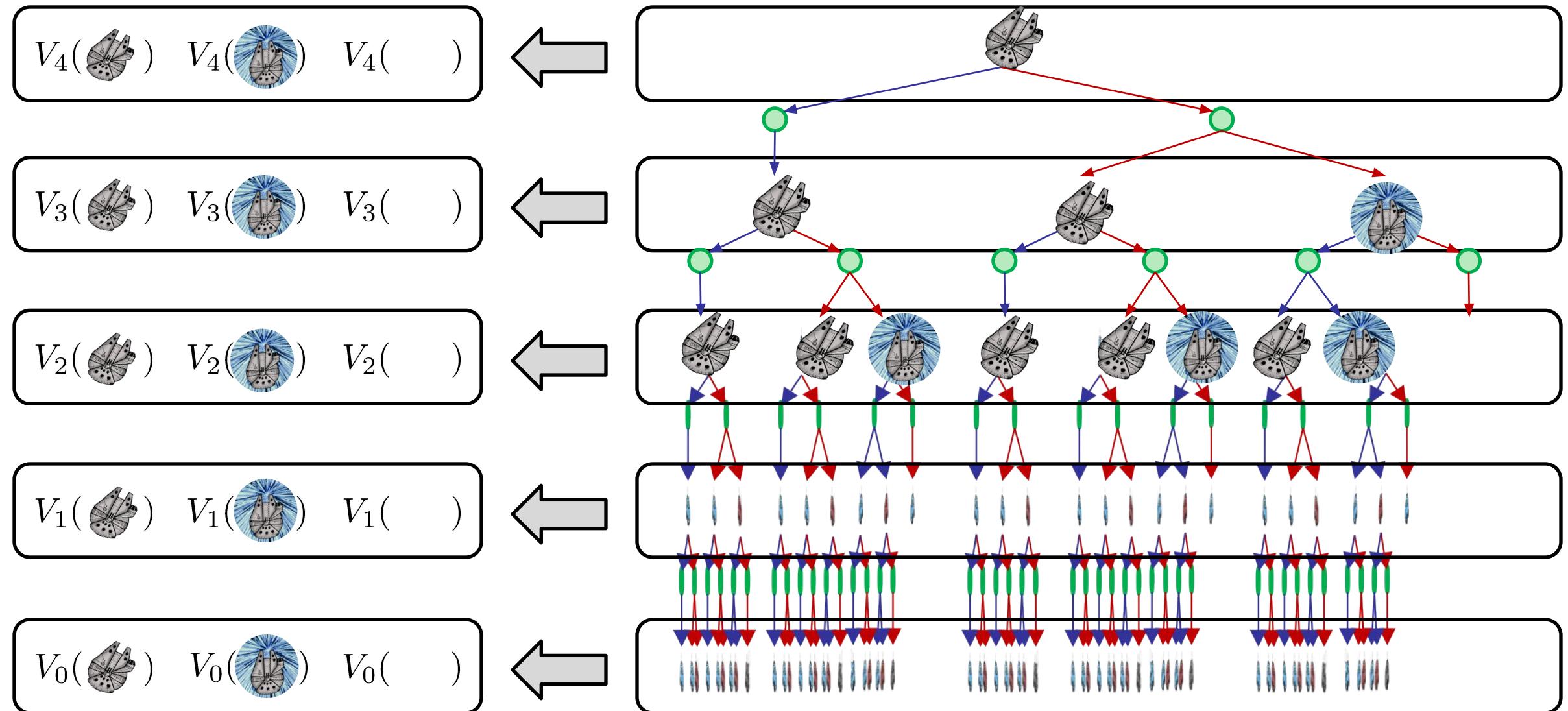
- Complexity of each iteration:  $O(S^2A)$

- **Theorem: will converge to unique optimal values**

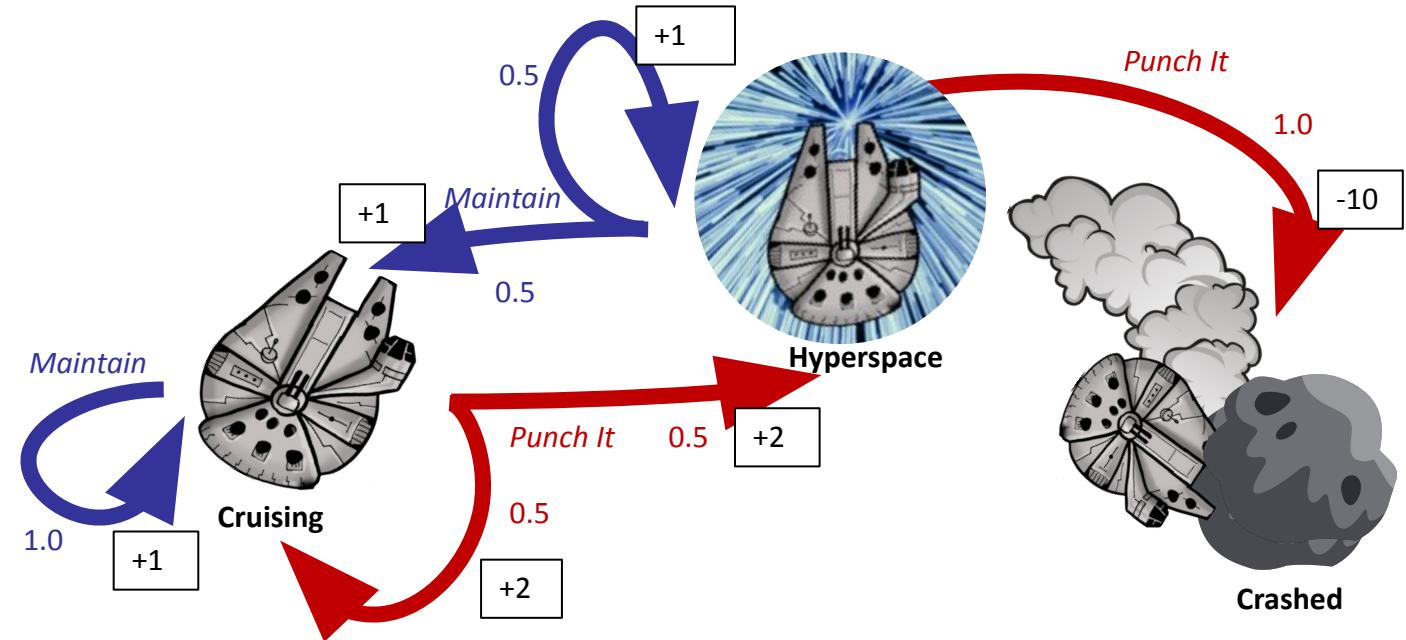
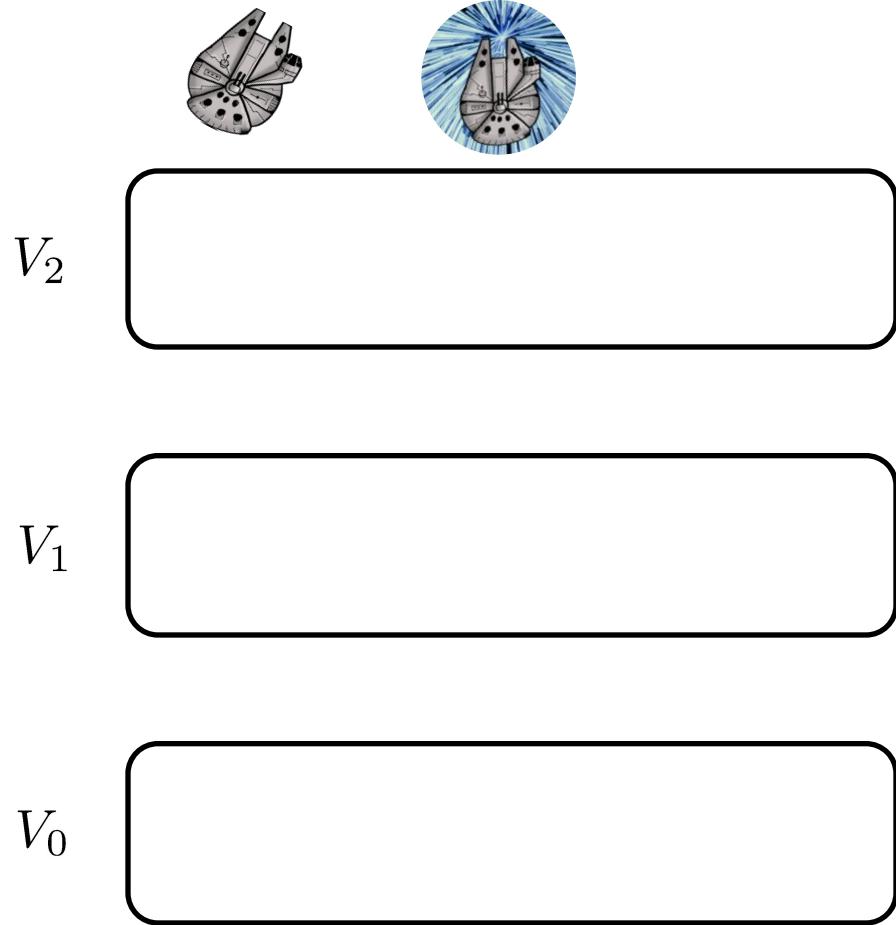
- Basic idea: approximations get refined towards optimal values
- Policy may converge long before values do



# Computing Time-Limited Values

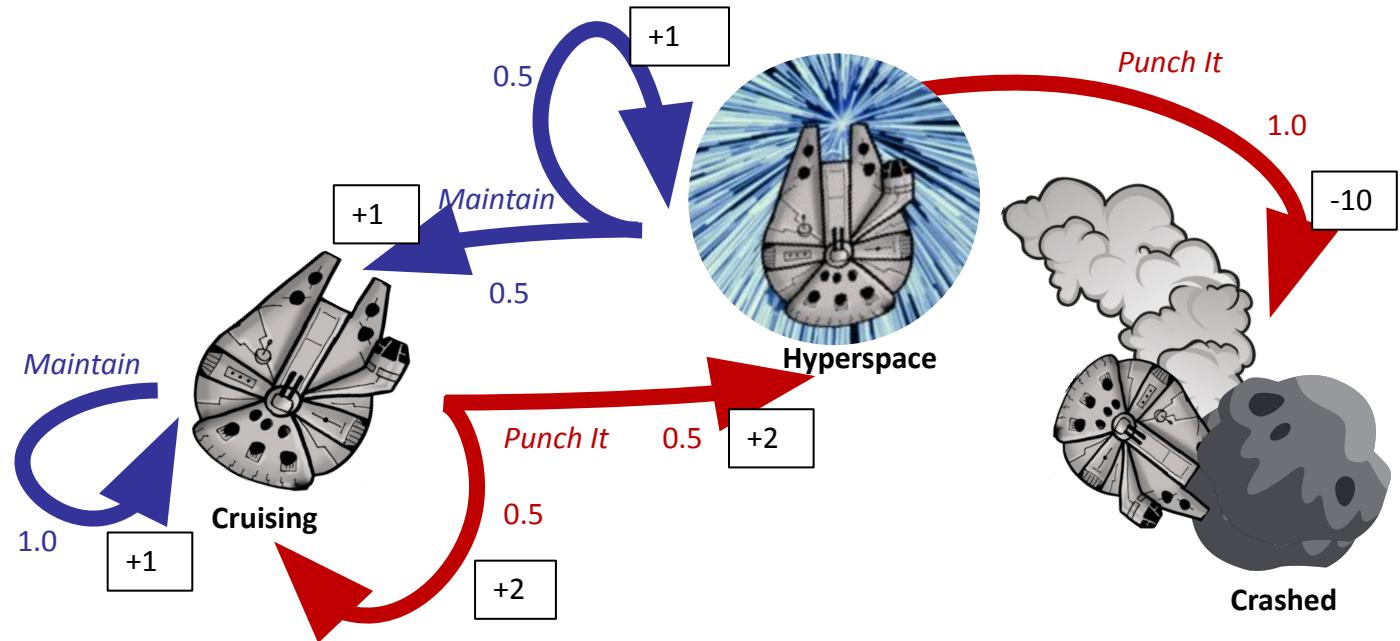


# Example: Value Iteration



# Example: Value Iteration

$V_2$	3.5	2.5
$V_1$	2	1
$V_0$	0	0



Assume no discount!

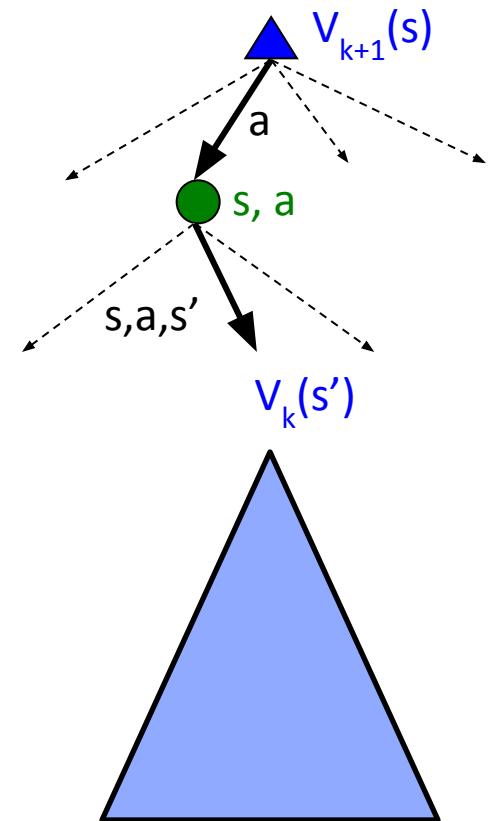
$$V_{k+1}(s) \leftarrow \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s, a, s') [R(s, a, s') + \gamma V_k(s')]$$

# Value Iteration

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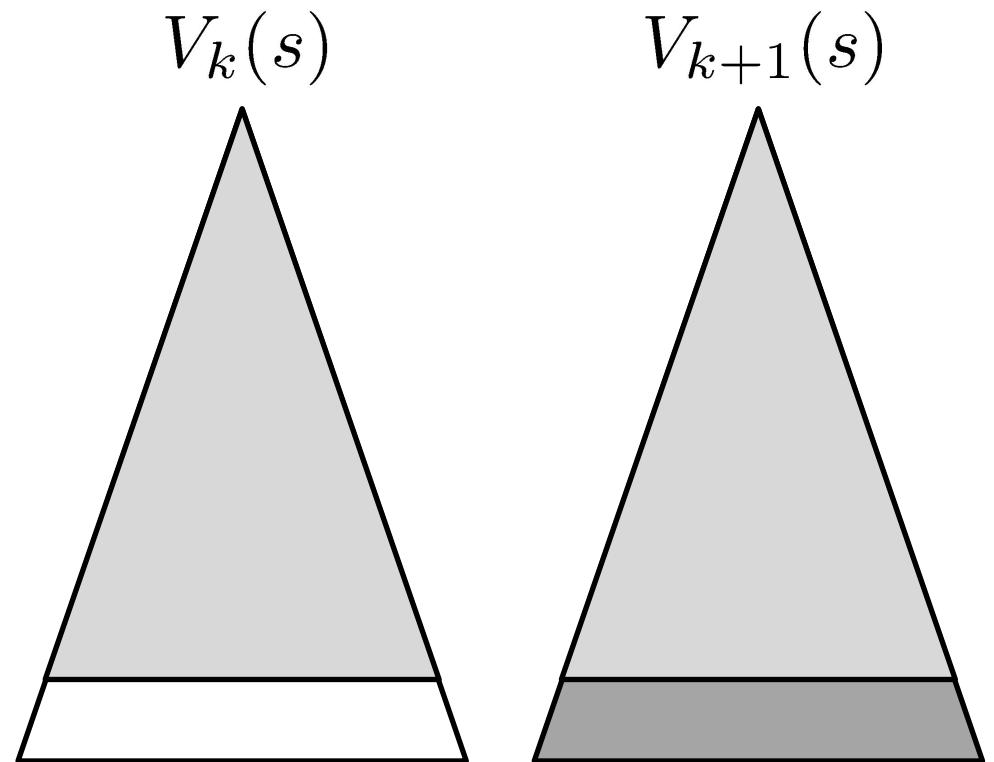
$$V_{k+1}(s) \leftarrow \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s, a, s') [R(s, a, s') + \gamma V_k(s')]$$

- Repeat until convergence
- Complexity of each iteration:  $O(S^2A)$
- Theorem: will converge to unique optimal values
  - Basic idea: approximations get refined towards optimal values
  - Policy may converge long before values do

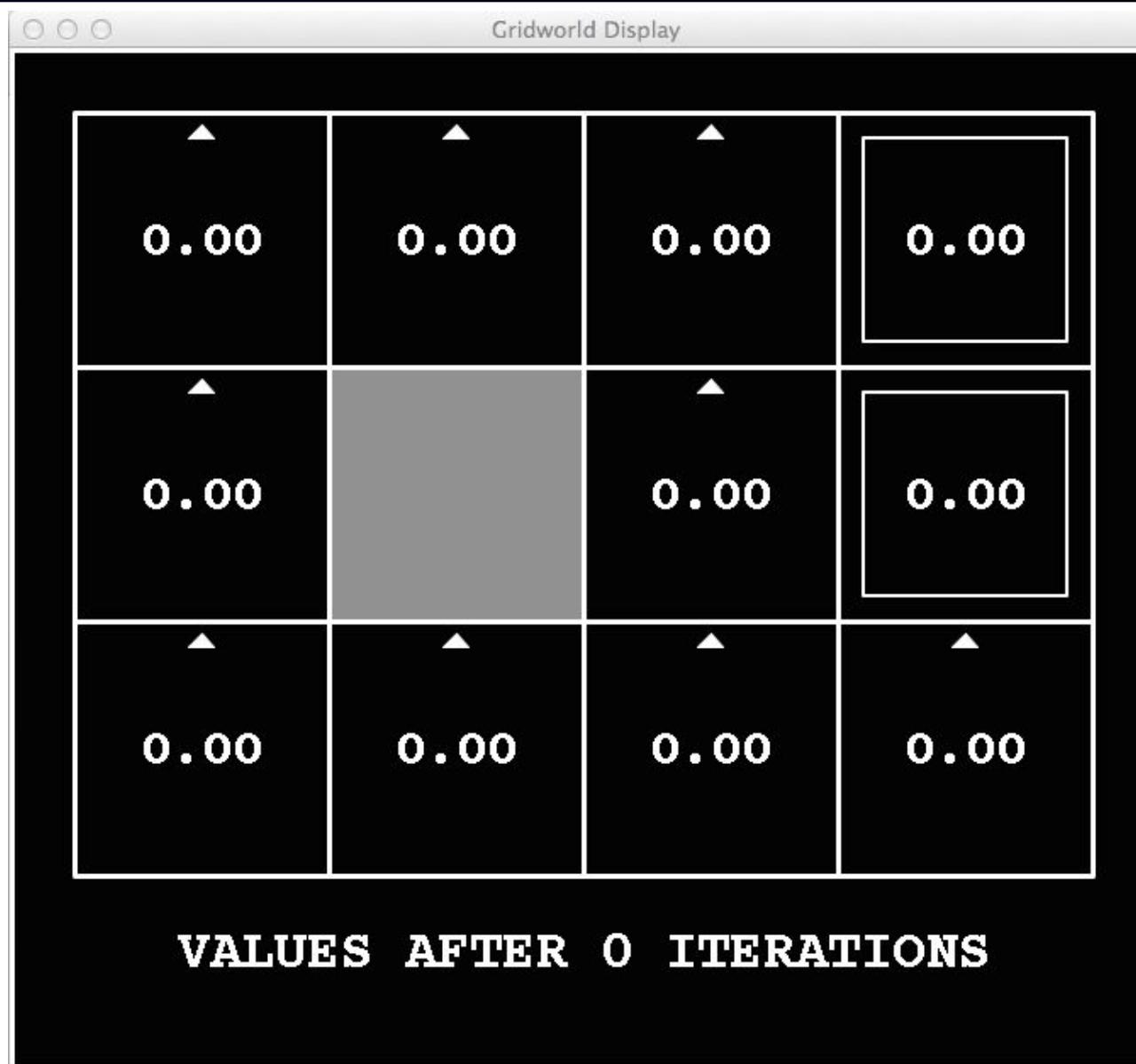


# Convergence\*

- How do we know the  $V_k$  vectors are going to converge?
- Case 1: If the tree has maximum depth  $M$ , then  $V_M$  holds the actual untruncated values
- Case 2: If the discount is less than 1
  - Sketch: For any state  $V_k$  and  $V_{k+1}$  can be viewed as depth  $k+1$  expectimax results in nearly identical search trees
  - The difference is that on the bottom layer,  $V_{k+1}$  has actual rewards while  $V_k$  has zeros
  - That last layer is at best all  $R_{\text{MAX}}$
  - It is at worst  $R_{\text{MIN}}$
  - But everything is discounted by  $\gamma^k$  that far out
  - So  $V_k$  and  $V_{k+1}$  are at most  $\gamma^k \max|R|$  different
  - So as  $k$  increases, the values converge



$k=0$



$k=1$



$k=2$



**k=3**



# k=4



Noise = 0.2  
Discount = 0.9  
Living reward = 0

# k=5



# k=6



**k=7**



**k=8**



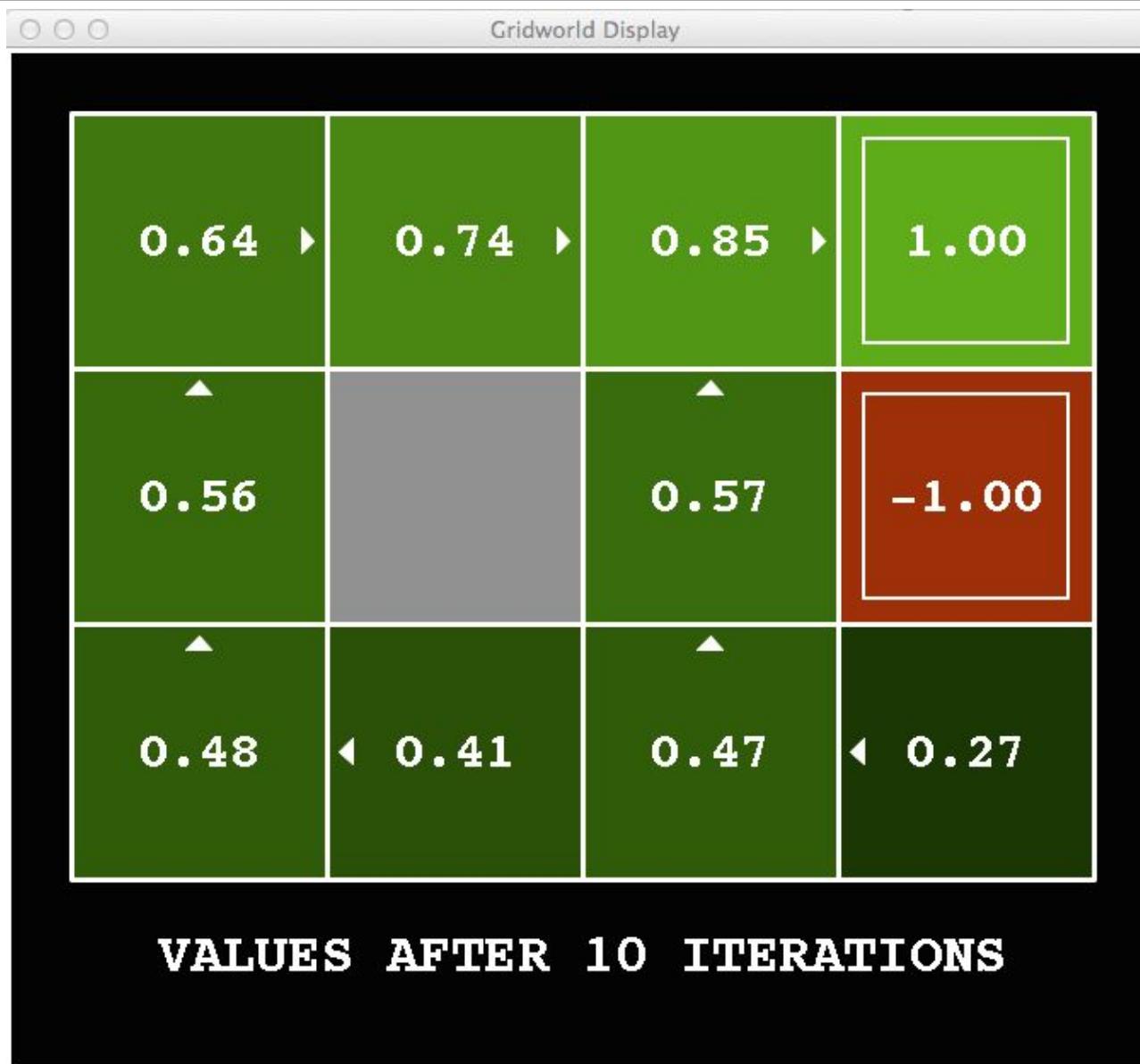
**k=9**



**VALUES AFTER 9 ITERATIONS**

Noise = 0.2  
Discount = 0.9  
Living reward = 0

# k=10



Noise = 0.2  
Discount = 0.9  
Living reward = 0

**k=11**



**k=12**



**VALUES AFTER 12 ITERATIONS**

Noise = 0.2  
Discount = 0.9  
Living reward = 0

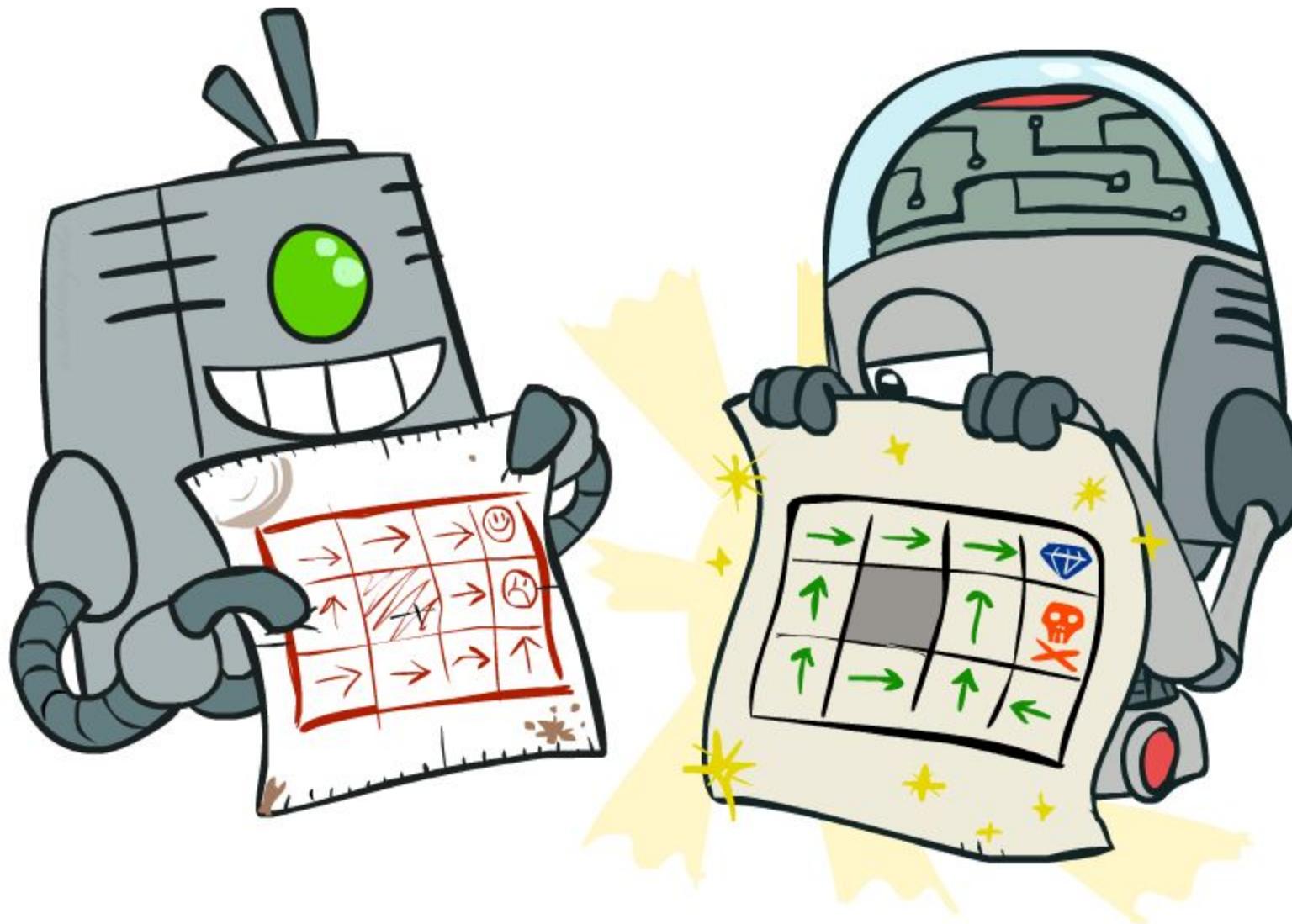
# k=100



Noise = 0.2  
Discount = 0.9  
Living reward = 0

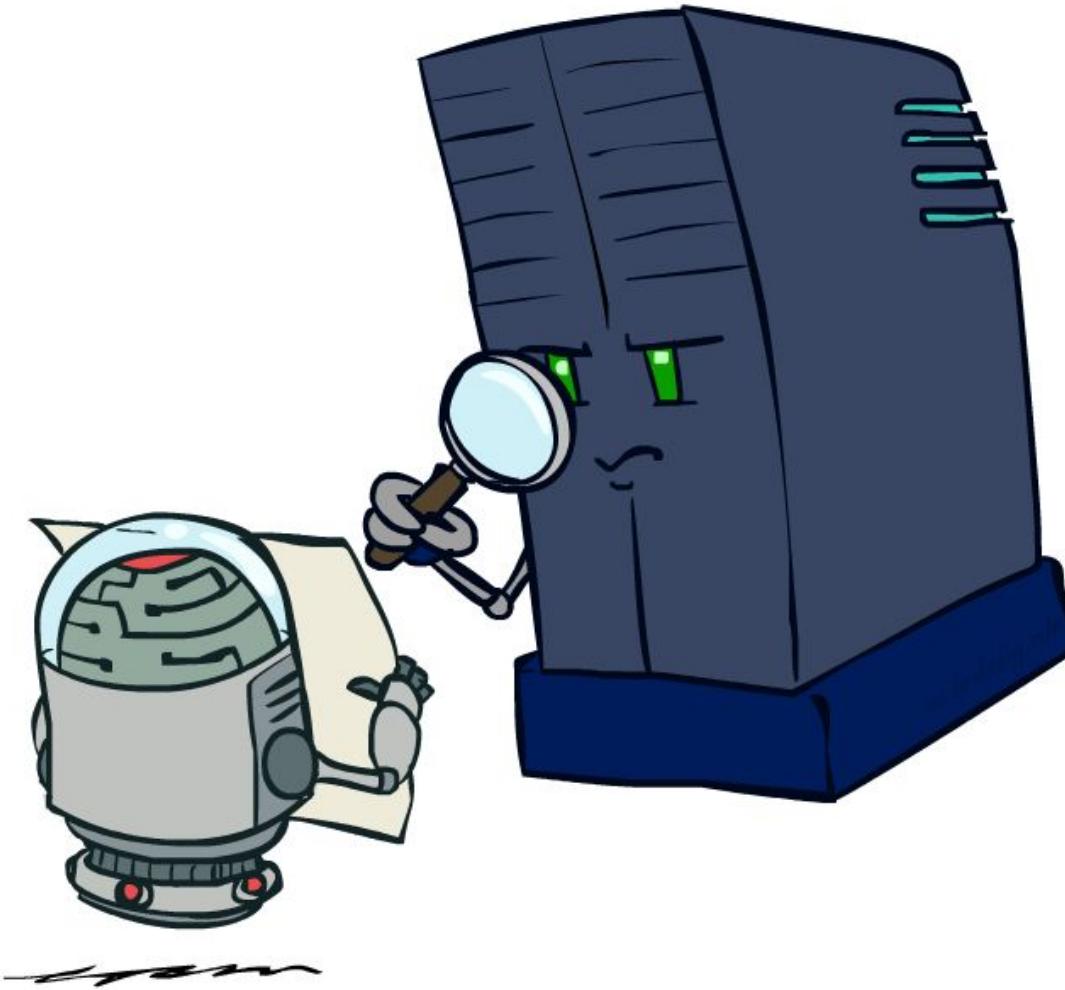
# Policy Methods

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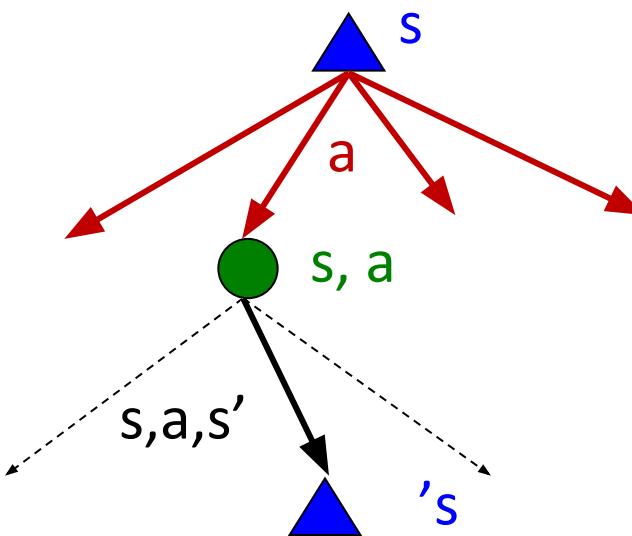
# Policy Evaluation

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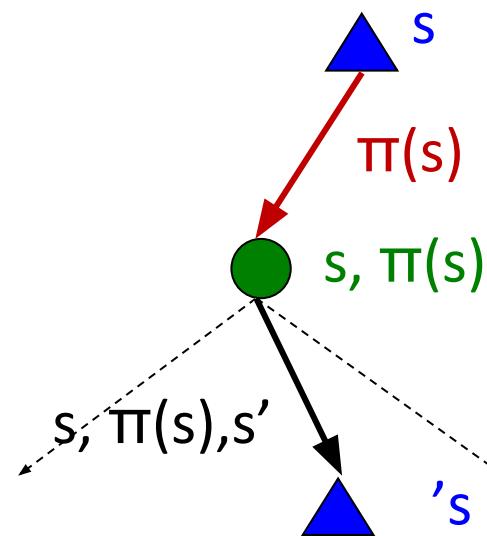


# Fixed Policies

Do the optimal action



Do what  $\pi$  says to do

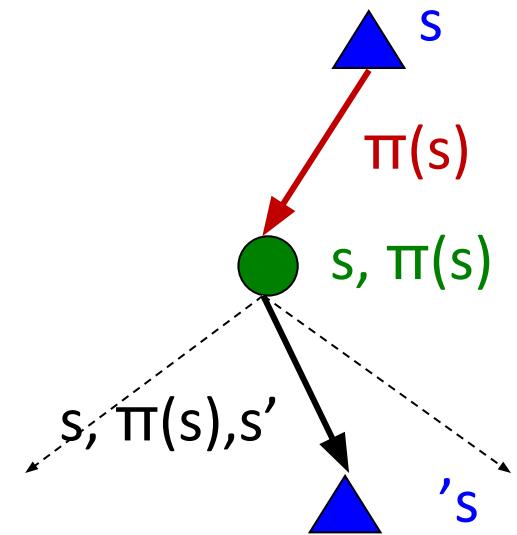


- Expectimax trees max over all actions to compute the optimal values
- If we fixed some policy  $\pi(s)$ , then the tree would be simpler – only one action per state
  - ... though the tree's value would depend on which policy we fixed

# Utilities for a Fixed Policy

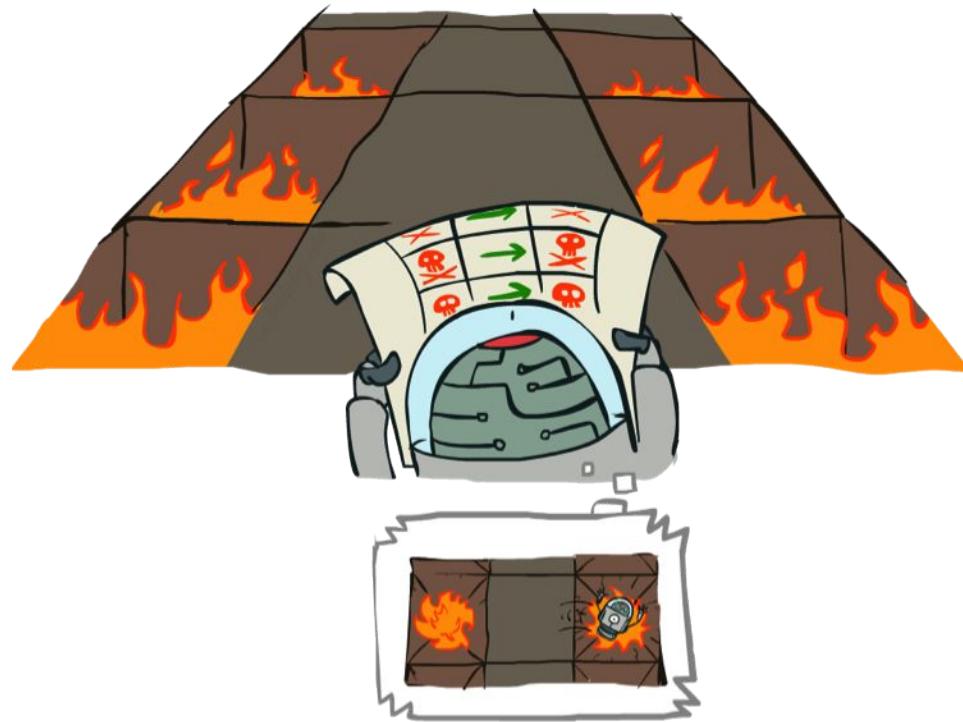
- Another basic operation: compute the utility of a state  $s$  under a fixed (generally non-optimal) policy
- Define the utility of a state  $s$ , under a fixed policy  $\pi$ :  
 $V^\pi(s)$  = expected total discounted rewards starting in  $s$  and following  $\pi$
- Recursive relation (one-step look-ahead / Bellman equation):

$$V^\pi(s) = \sum_{s'} T(s, \pi(s), s')[R(s, \pi(s), s') + \gamma V^\pi(s')]$$

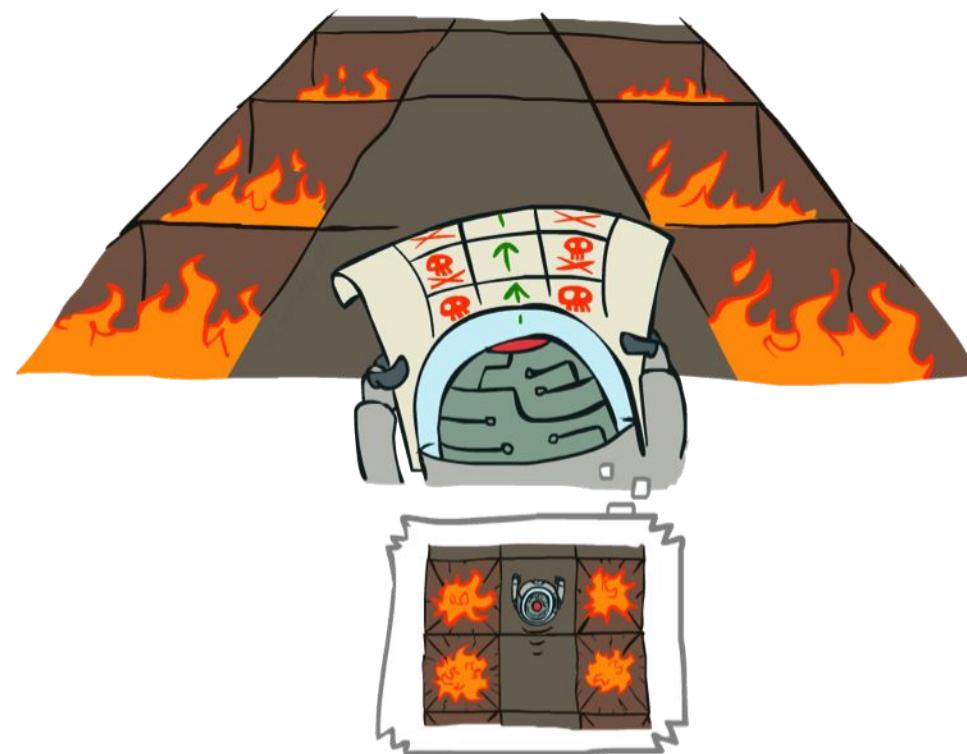


# Example: Policy Evaluation

Always Go Right



Always Go Forward

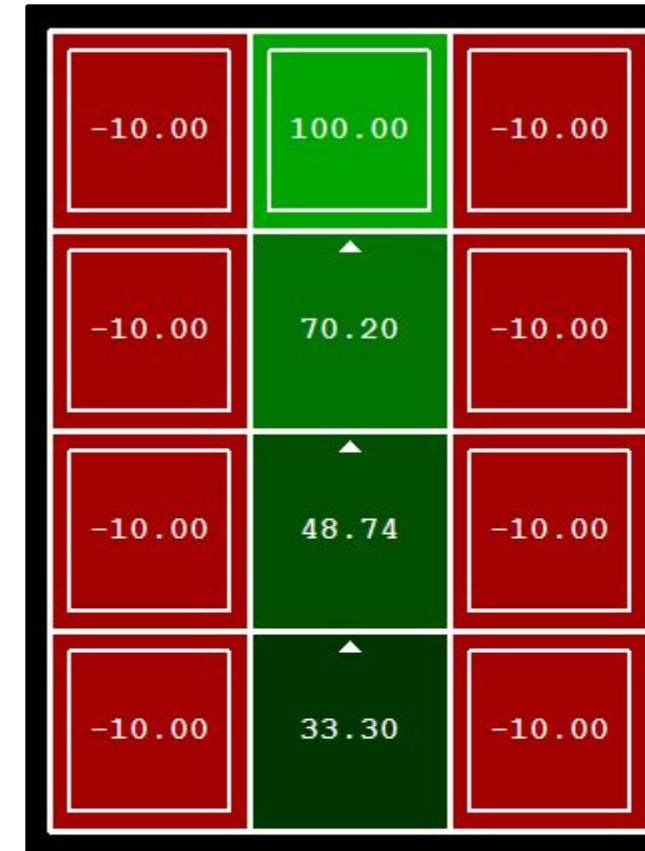


# Example: Policy Evaluation

Always Go Right



Always Go Forward



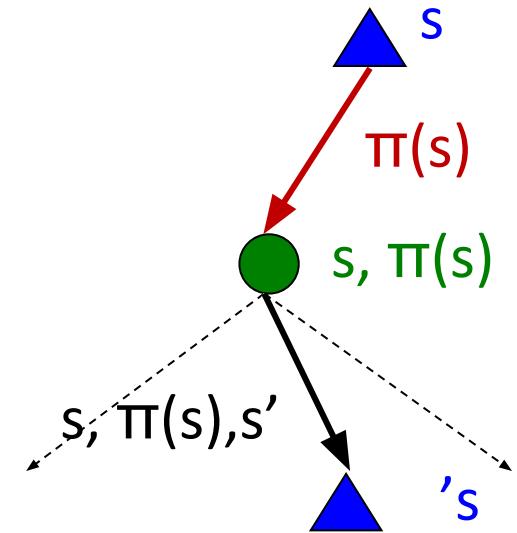
# Policy Evaluation

- How do we calculate the  $V$ 's for a fixed policy  $\pi$ ?
- Idea 1: Turn recursive Bellman equations into updates (like value iteration)

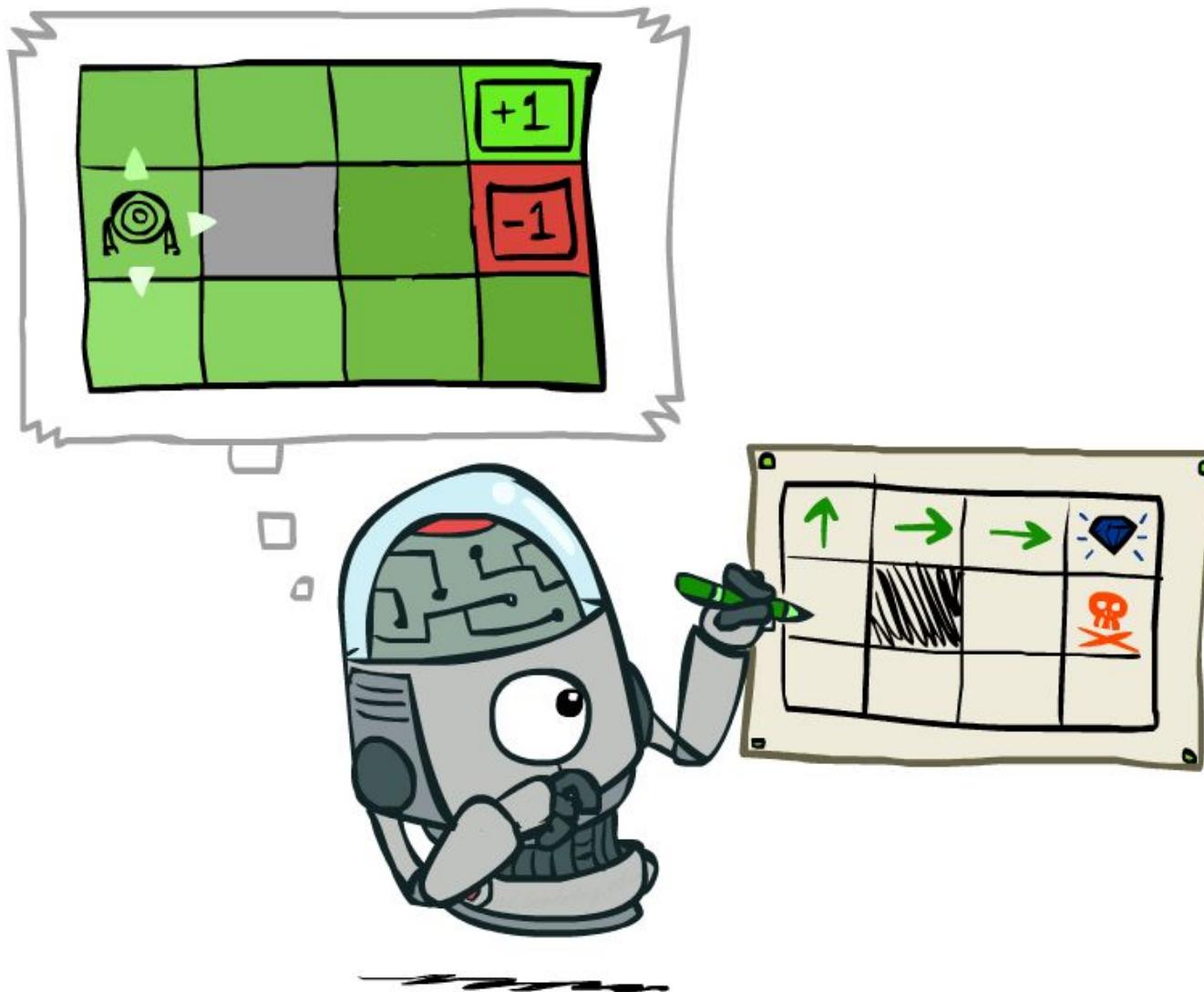
$$V_0^\pi(s) = 0$$

$$V_{k+1}^\pi(s) \leftarrow \sum_{s'} T(s, \pi(s), s')[R(s, \pi(s), s') + \gamma V_k^\pi(s')]$$

- Efficiency:  $O(S^2)$  per iteration
- Idea 2: Without the maxes, the Bellman equations are just a linear system
  - Solve with Matlab (or your favorite linear system solver)

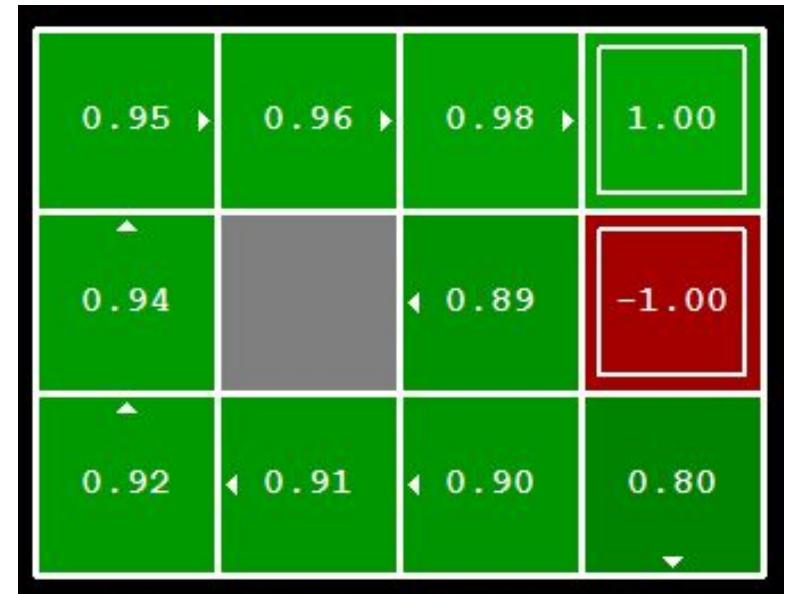


# Policy Extraction



# Computing Actions from Values

- Let's imagine we have the optimal values  $V^*(s)$
- How should we act?
  - It's not obvious!
- We need to do a mini-expectimax (one step)



$$\pi^*(s) = \arg \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s, a, s') [R(s, a, s') + \gamma V^*(s')]$$

- This is called **policy extraction**, since it gets the policy implied by the values

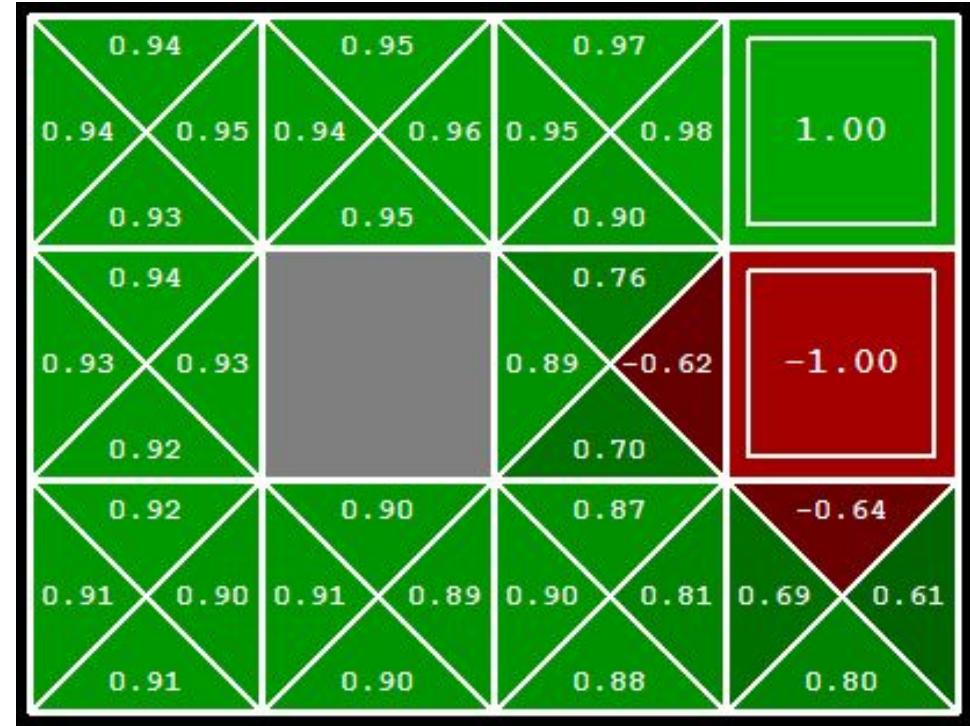
# Computing Actions from Q-Values

- Let's imagine we have the optimal q-values:

- How should we act?

- Completely trivial to decide!

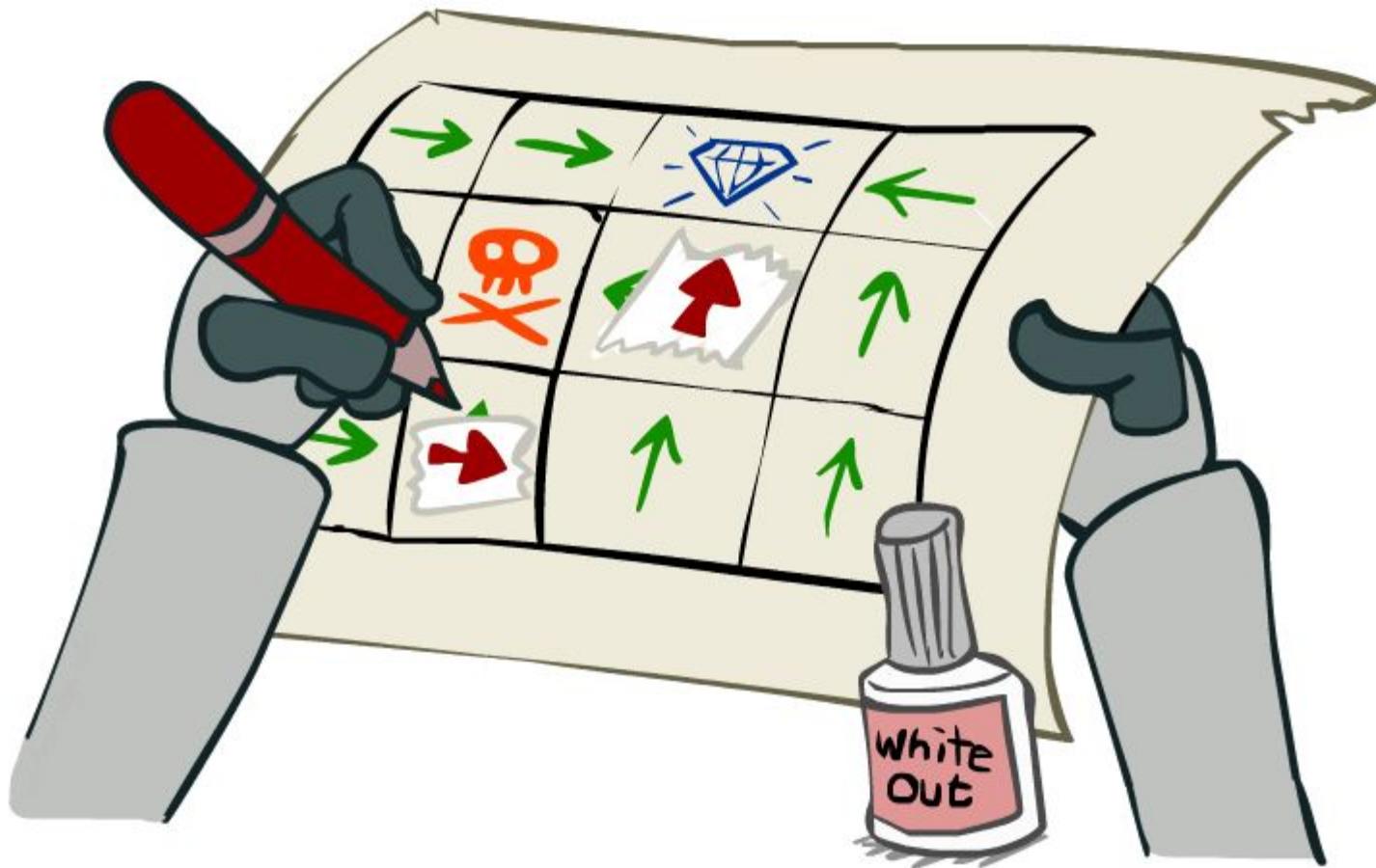
$$\pi^*(s) = \arg \max_a Q^*(s, a)$$



- Important lesson: actions are easier to select from q-values than values!

# Policy Iteration

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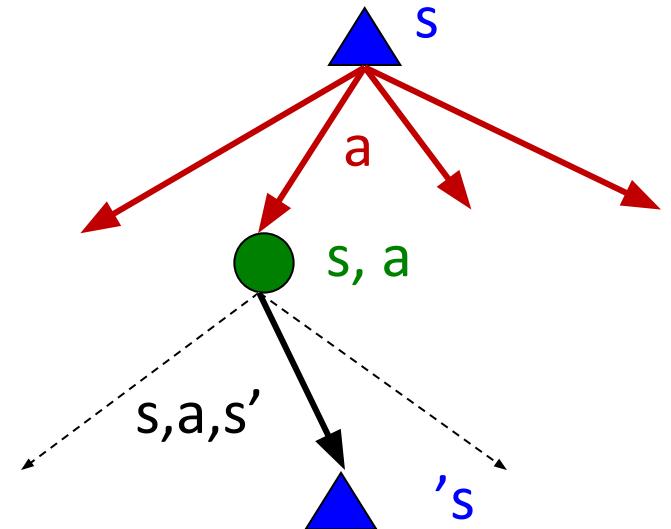


# Problems with Value Iteration

- Value iteration repeats the Bellman updates:

$$V_{k+1}(s) \leftarrow \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s, a, s') [R(s, a, s') + \gamma V_k(s')]$$

- Problem 1: It's slow –  $O(S^2A)$  per iteration
- Problem 2: The “max” at each state rarely changes
- Problem 3: The policy often converges long before the values



# Policy Iteration

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- Alternative approach for optimal values:
  - Step 1: Policy evaluation: calculate utilities for some fixed policy (not optimal utilities!) until convergence
  - Step 2: Policy improvement: update policy using one-step look-ahead with resulting converged (but not optimal!) utilities as future values
  - Repeat steps until policy converges
- This is policy iteration
  - It's still optimal!
  - Can converge (much) faster under some conditions

# Policy Iteration

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- Step 1 (Policy Evaluation): For fixed current policy  $\pi$ , find values with policy evaluation:
  - Iterate until values converge:

$$V_{k+1}^{\pi_i}(s) \leftarrow \sum_{s'} T(s, \pi_i(s), s') [R(s, \pi_i(s), s') + \gamma V_k^{\pi_i}(s')]$$

- Step 2 (Policy Improvement): For fixed values, get a better policy using policy extraction
  - One-step look-ahead:

$$\pi_{i+1}(s) = \arg \max_a \sum_{s'} T(s, a, s') [R(s, a, s') + \gamma V^{\pi_i}(s')]$$

# Comparison

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- Both value iteration and policy iteration compute the same thing (all optimal values)
- In value iteration:
  - Every iteration updates both the values and (implicitly) the policy
  - We don't track the policy, but taking the max over actions implicitly recomputes it
- In policy iteration:
  - We do several passes that update utilities with fixed policy (each pass is fast because we consider only one action, not all of them)
  - After the policy is evaluated, a new policy is chosen (slow like a value iteration pass)
  - The new policy will be better (or we're done)
- Both are dynamic programs for solving MDPs

# Summary: MDP Algorithms

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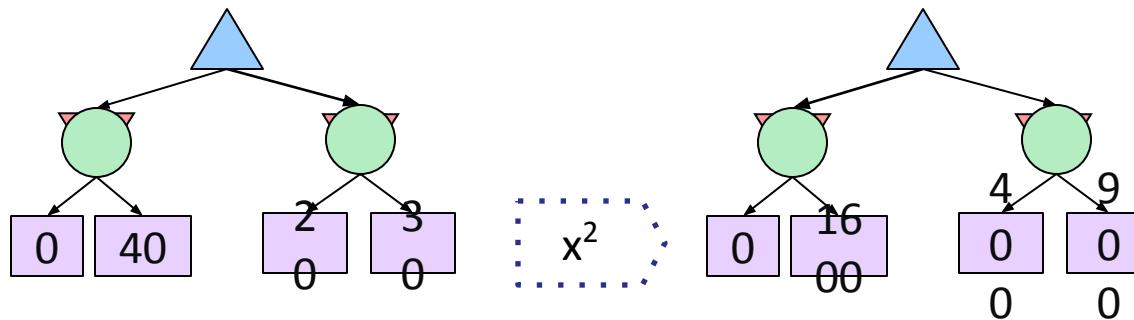
- So you want to....
  - Compute optimal values: use value iteration or policy iteration
  - Compute values for a particular policy: use policy evaluation
  - Turn your values into a policy: use policy extraction (one-step lookahead)
- These all look the same!
  - They basically are – they are all variations of Bellman updates
  - They all use one-step lookahead expectimax fragments
  - They differ only in whether we plug in a fixed policy or max over actions

# Maximum Expected Utility

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- Why should we average utilities? Why not minimax?
- Principle of maximum expected utility:
  - A rational agent should choose the action that **maximizes its expected utility, given its knowledge**
- Questions:
  - Where do utilities come from?
  - How do we know such utilities even exist?
  - How do we know that averaging even makes sense?
  - What if our behavior (preferences) can't be described by utilities?

# What Utilities to Use?



- For worst-case minimax reasoning, terminal function scale doesn't matter
  - We just want better states to have higher evaluations (get the ordering right)
  - We call this **insensitivity to monotonic transformations**
- For average-case expectimax reasoning, we need *magnitudes* to be meaningful

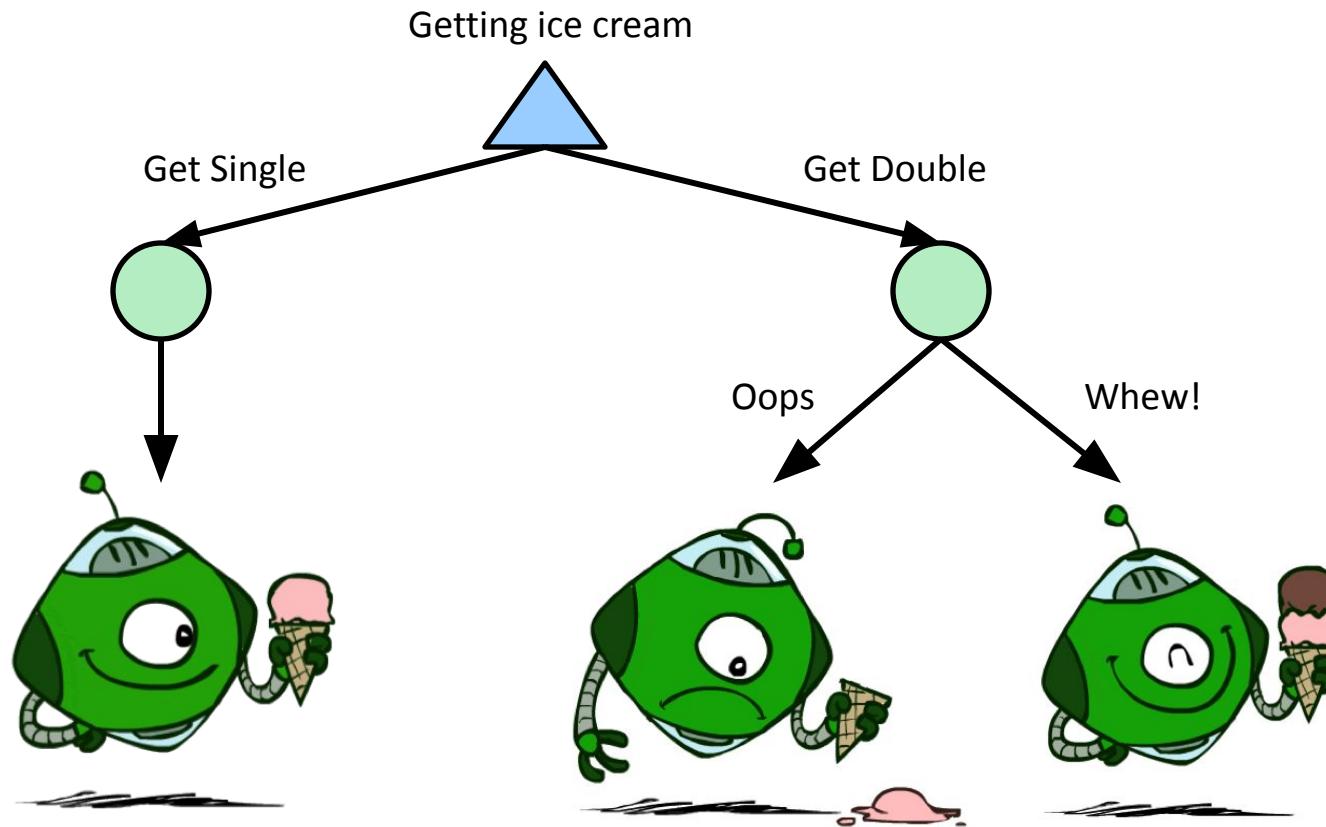
# Utilities

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- Utilities are functions from outcomes (states of the world) to real numbers that describe an agent's preferences
- Where do utilities come from?
  - In a game, may be simple (+1/-1)
  - Utilities summarize the agent's goals
  - Theorem: any "rational" preferences can be summarized as a utility function
- We hard-wire utilities and let behaviors emerge
  - Why don't we let agents pick utilities?
  - Why don't we prescribe behaviors?



# Utilities: Uncertain Outcomes



# Preferences

- An agent must have preferences among:
  - Prizes:  $A$ ,  $B$ , etc.
  - Lotteries: situations with uncertain prizes

$$L = [p, A; (1 - p), B]$$

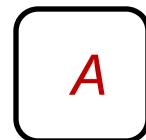
- Notation:

- Preference:

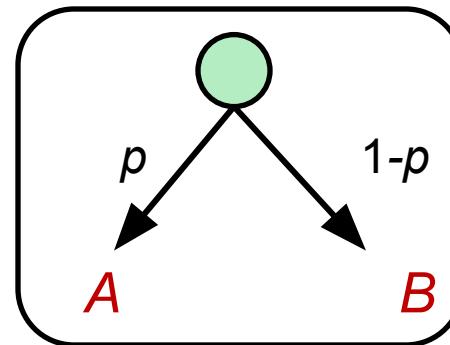
- Indifference:

$$\begin{aligned}A > B \\ A \sim B\end{aligned}$$

A Prize

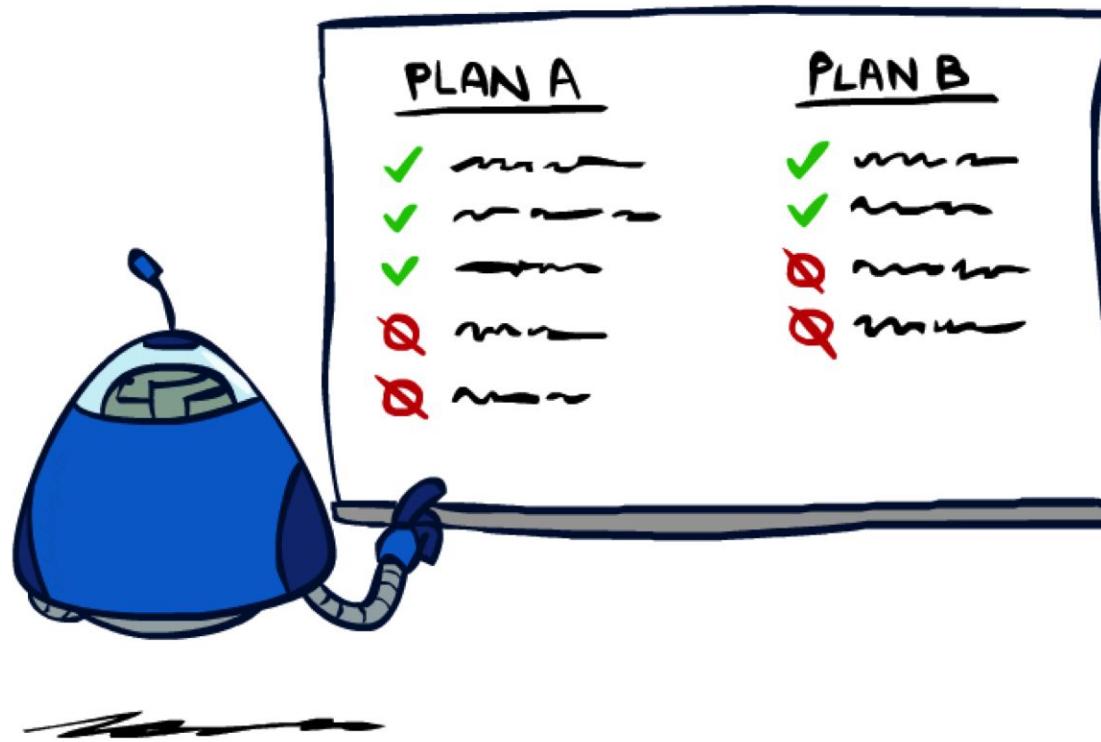


A Lottery



# Rationality

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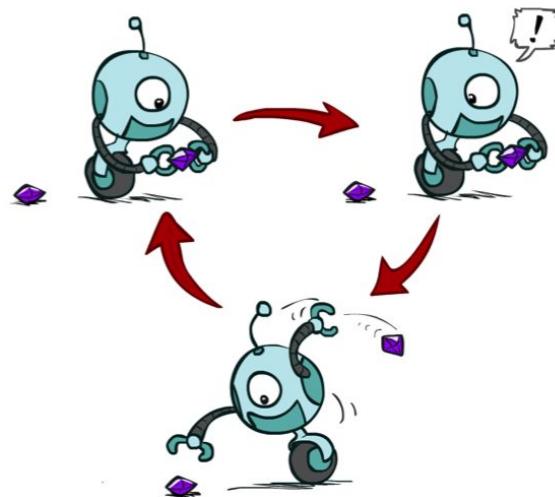


# Rational Preferences

- We want some constraints on preferences before we call them rational, such as:

Axiom of Transitivity:  $(A \sqsupset B) \wedge (B \sqsupset C) \Rightarrow (A \sqsupset C)$

- For example: an agent with **intransitive preferences** can be induced to give away all of its money
  - If  $B > C$ , then an agent with  $C$  would pay (say) 1 cent to get  $B$
  - If  $A > B$ , then an agent with  $B$  would pay (say) 1 cent to get  $A$
  - If  $C > A$ , then an agent with  $A$  would pay (say) 1 cent to get  $C$



# Rational Preferences

## The Axioms of Rationality

### Orderability

$$(A \succ B) \vee (B \succ A) \vee (A \sim B)$$

### Transitivity

$$(A \succ B) \wedge (B \succ C) \Rightarrow (A \succ C)$$

### Continuity

$$A \succ B \succ C \Rightarrow \exists p [p, A; 1 - p, C] \sim B$$

### Substitutability

$$A \sim B \Rightarrow [p, A; 1 - p, C] \sim [p, B; 1 - p, C]$$

### Monotonicity

$$A \succ B \Rightarrow$$

$$(p \geq q \Leftrightarrow [p, A; 1 - p, B] \succeq [q, A; 1 - q, B])$$



Theorem: Rational preferences imply behavior describable as maximization of expected utility

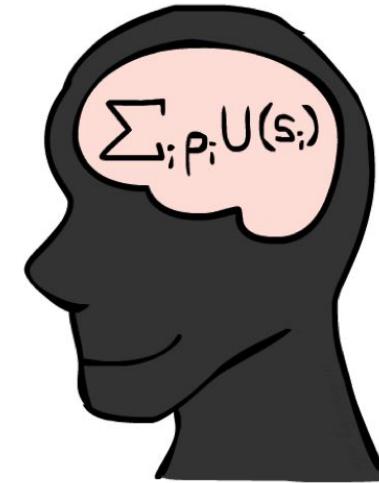
# MEU Principle

- Theorem [Ramsey, 1931; von Neumann & Morgenstern, 1944]
  - Given any preferences satisfying these constraints, there exists a real-valued function  $U$  such that:

$$U(A) \geq U(B) \Leftrightarrow A \succeq B$$

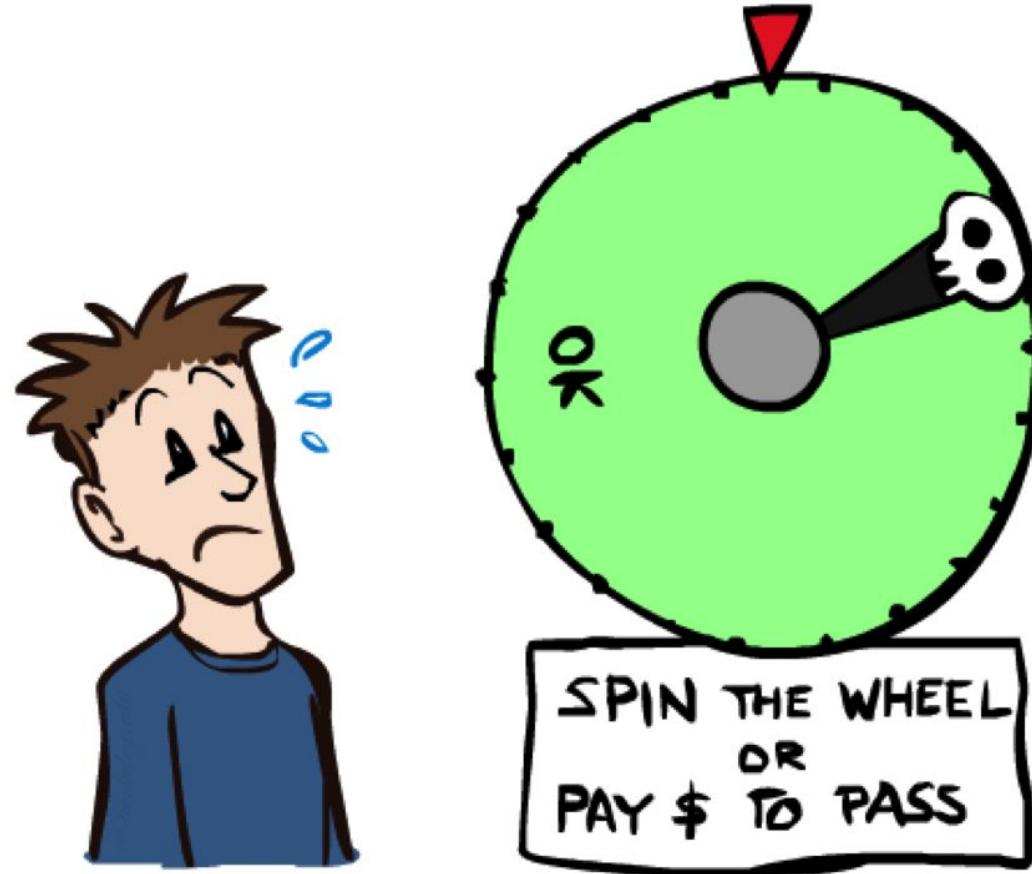
$$U([p_1, S_1; \dots; p_n, S_n]) = \sum_i p_i U(S_i)$$

- I.e. values assigned by  $U$  preserve preferences of both prizes and lotteries!
- Maximum expected utility (MEU) principle:
  - Choose the action that maximizes expected utility
  - Note: an agent can be entirely rational (consistent with MEU) without ever representing or manipulating utilities and probabilities
  - E.g., a lookup table for perfect tic-tac-toe, a reflex vacuum cleaner



# Human Utilities

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# Utility Scales

- Normalized utilities:  $u_+ = 1.0, u_- = 0.0$
- Micromorts: one-millionth chance of death, useful for paying to reduce product risks, etc.
- QALYs: quality-adjusted life years, useful for medical decisions involving substantial risk
- Note: behavior is invariant under positive linear transformation

$$U'(x) = k_1 U(x) + k_2 \quad \text{where } k_1 > 0$$

- With deterministic prizes only (no lottery choices), only ordinal utility can be determined, i.e., total order on prizes



# Micromort examples

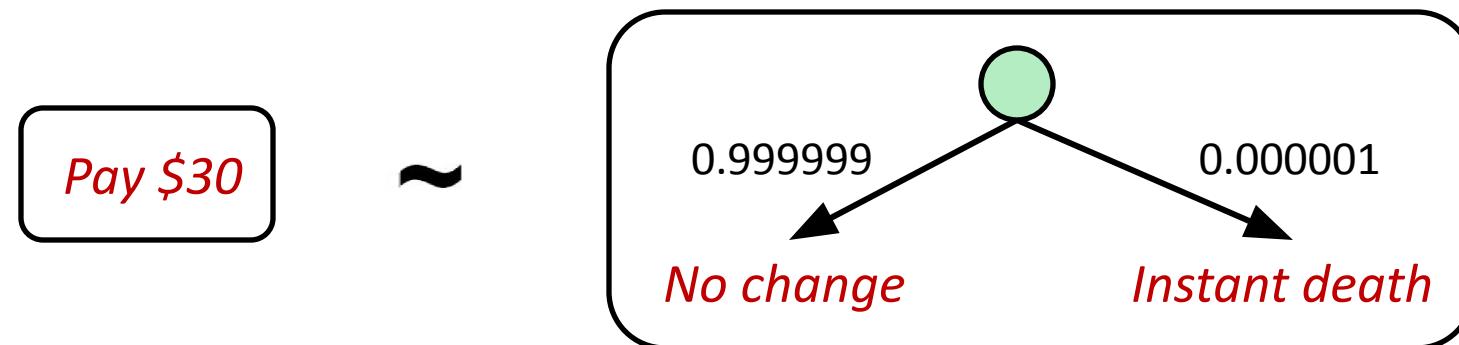
Death from	Micromorts per exposure
Scuba diving	5 per dive
Skydiving	7 per jump
Base-jumping	430 per jump
Climbing Mt. Everest	38,000 per ascent

1 Micromort	
Train travel	6000 miles
Jet	1000 miles
Car	230 miles
Walking	17 miles
Bicycle	10 miles
Motorbike	6 miles



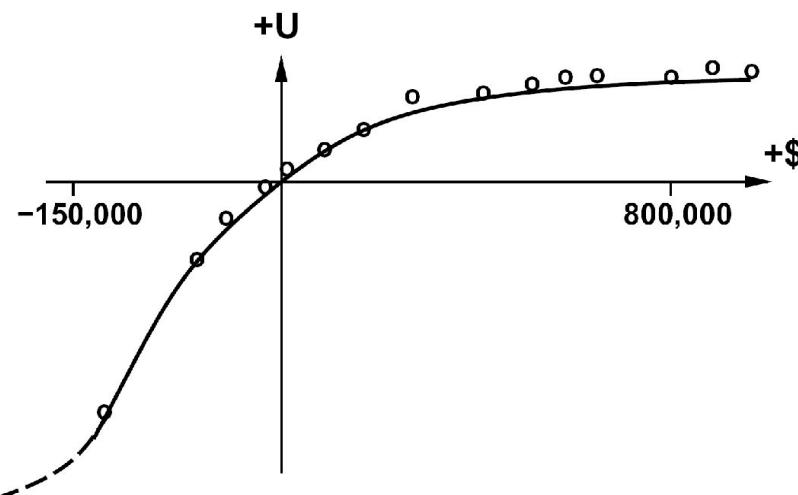
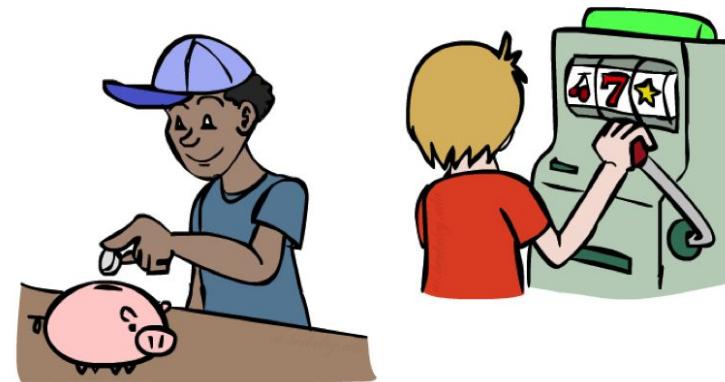
# Human Utilities

- Utilities map states to real numbers. Which numbers?
- Standard approach to assessment (elicitation) of human utilities:
  - Compare a prize A to a **standard lottery**  $L_p$  between
    - “best possible prize”  $u_+$  with probability  $p$
    - “worst possible catastrophe”  $u_-$  with probability  $1-p$
  - Adjust lottery probability  $p$  until indifference:  $A \sim L_p$
  - Resulting  $p$  is a utility in  $[0,1]$



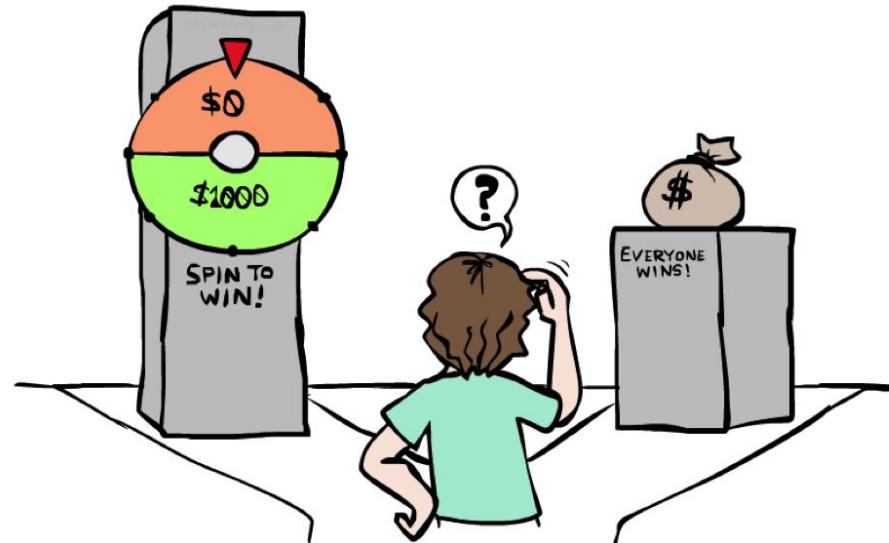
# Money

- Money does not behave as a utility function, but we can talk about the utility of having money (or being in debt)
- Given a lottery  $L = [p, \$X; (1-p), \$Y]$ 
  - The **expected monetary value**  $EMV(L)$  is  $p*X + (1-p)*Y$
  - $U(L) = p*U(\$X) + (1-p)*U(\$Y)$
  - Typically,  $U(L) < U( EMV(L) )$
  - In this sense, people are **risk-averse**
  - When deep in debt, people are **risk-prone**



# Example: Insurance

- Consider the lottery  $[0.5, \$1000; 0.5, \$0]$ 
  - What is its **expected monetary value?**  
(\$500)
  - What is its **certainty equivalent?**
    - Monetary value acceptable in lieu of lottery
    - \$400 for most people
  - Difference of \$100 is the **insurance premium**
    - There's an insurance industry because people will pay to reduce their risk
    - If everyone were risk-neutral, no insurance needed!
  - It's win-win: you'd rather have the \$400 and the insurance company would rather have the lottery (their utility curve is linear and they have many lotteries)



# Example: Human Rationality?

- Famous example of Allais (1953)
  - A: [0.8, \$4k; 0.2, \$0]
  - B: [1.0, \$3k; 0.0, \$0]
  - C: [0.2, \$4k; 0.8, \$0]
  - D: [0.25, \$3k; 0.75, \$0]
- Most people prefer B > A, C > D
- But if  $U(\$0) = 0$ , then
  - $B > A \Rightarrow U(\$3k) > 0.8 U(\$4k)$
  - $C > D \Rightarrow 0.8 U(\$4k) > U(\$3k)$

