

Depending on the decision ($u_n \in U(x_n)$ represents the following state visited, so here

$$x_{n+1} = u_n$$



there is a cost of travel and insurance, $r(x_n, u_n)$:

2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	2	4	13	2	7	4	6
3	3	2	4	6	1	4	5
4	4	1	5	6	3	3	10

 $\frac{3}{4}$

Can you figure out what is the optimal path (the one with smallest cost)?

Key idea:

If at stage n you are at state $x_n = i$, then

you can evaluate the optimal decisions from i to state 10, regardless of the previous history $(x_k, u_k; k < n)$.

At $n=4$ $x_n=10$, and there is no decision.

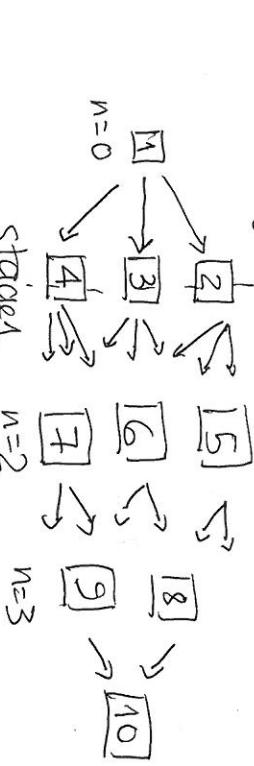
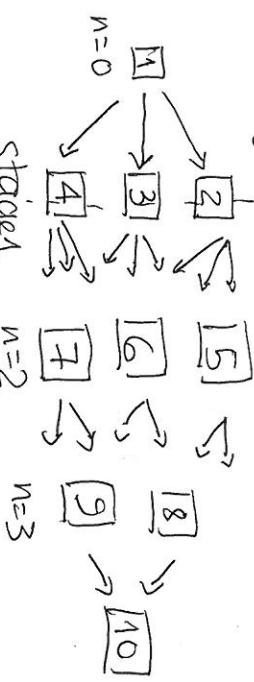
At $n=3$:

$$x_3 = 8 \Rightarrow$$

$$\text{cost} = 4$$

$u_n \in U(x_n)$

at each stage n , which depends on the state x_n .



Scenario: first insurance companies "out west" had calculations about the various risks in different segments of the highways, particularly concerning those that passed through Indian territories.

The stage coach goes through different stages (n).

At each stage the traveller may be in one of the possible states. The coach driver must make a decision:

$$x_3 = 8 \Rightarrow$$

$$\text{cost} = 4$$

$n=2$	x_2	$u_2 = 8$	$u_2 = 9$	u^*	$c_2^*(x_2)$
	5	1+3	4+4	8	4
	6	6+3	3+4	9	7

$n=2$	x_2	$u_2 = 8$	$u_2 = 9$	u^*	$c_2^*(x_2)$
	5	1+3	4+4	8	4
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$n=2$	x_2	$u_2 = 8$	$u_2 = 9$	u^*	$c_2^*(x_2)$
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	6	6+3	3+4	9	7

And, in general, let $J_n^*(x_n)$ be the optimal "cost-to-go" (2)

from x_n to the end, and u_n^* the corresponding optimal

decision. We have:

$$(1) \quad J_n^*(x_n) = \min_{u_n \in U(x_n)} \left(r(x_n, u_n) + J_{n+1}^*(u_n) \right)$$

because $x_{n+1} = u_n$ in this case.

In more general models,

$$x_n = f(x_n, u_n)$$

may be a more complex function.

Example: Allocation models where u_n is how many resources

(nurses, doctors, seats on an airplane) we allocate at stage n

(n may represent a ward, for example, or the day) and x_n is the available resources. There are N stages, and

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - u_n$$

The cost function $f(x_n, u_n)$ will reflect the cost/gain of making that decision. An interesting application is harvesting:

by stage N all products must be harvested and sold for a profit C_n /unit. But the product can be harvested at younger ages $1 \leq n < N$ with a profit C_n /unit. Typically $C_n > C_n'$ if $n \leq n'$, but demand is higher for older

products and unsold young products go to waste. This model introduces uncertainty in the demand, so that the profit $f(x_n, u_n)$ is random. If the produce is also subject to "death", then we may have a model where $x_{n+1} = x_n - u_n - v_n$ where v_n are random variables (may depend on x_n) representing the uncertain loss of crops due to weather and other conditions.

"So Who's Counting" Game (p. 14-15 MP)

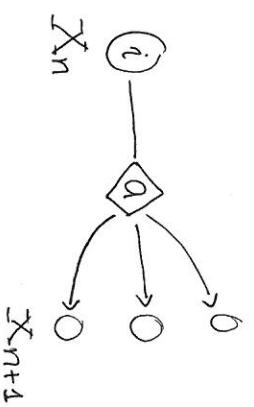
General Formulation

The idea of equation (1) is to start at an "easy" terminal condition for which the choice is trivial (only one possibility, for example) and then work backwards. Bellman invented the methodology that he called "backwards programming" but the name was changed to "dynamic programming".

The general framework of the model is called Markov Decision Process, and one of the solution techniques (the most commonly used) is dynamic programming.

Examples (Chapter 3, MP):

(3)



- Secretary Problem
- Inventory shortest path
- critical path
- sequential allocation
- selling assets
- queueing control
- maintenance repair problems

Def: A decision rule is a rule that specifies the action u_n to be chosen at stage n . It is imposed that u_n be non-anticipative.

General Formulation

Let $\{X_n\}$ be a process on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . For each state $x \in S$, let $\mathcal{U}(x)$ be the set of possible actions u_n , where S is countable and $\bigcup_{x \in S} \mathcal{U}(x)$ is finite.

Let $\mathcal{F}_n = \sigma(X_0, u_0; \dots; X_n, u_n)$ be the filtration of the process (X_n, u_n) . We assume the

Markov property:

$$P(X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i, u_n = a, \mathcal{F}_{n-1}) = P_{ij}(a) \quad (2)$$

so that the evolution of the state is independent of the past, given the present state and action. At each stage n there is a reward function $R(X_n, u_n)$. This instantaneous reward is known and deterministic, and bounded.

HR: $u_n = \phi_n(X_0, u_0; \dots; X_n, w)$ is a randomized decision that depends on the history of the process.

MR: $u_n = \phi_n(X_n; w)$ is a randomized, Markovian decision.

HD: $u_n = \phi_n(X_0, u_0; \dots; X_n)$ is a deterministic function of the past trajectory (and present state).

MD: $u_n = \phi_n(X_n)$ is a deterministic function of the current state.

Given a decision rule, the corresponding policy β is a stochastic process defined by the consecutive values of the actions (u_1, u_2, \dots) .

Def: A policy β is called stationary if $\phi_n = \phi$ is independent of the stage n .

The following theorem establishes that HR policies are "equivalent".^④
 to MR policies, so that it suffices to find optimal MR policies, rather than
 looking at history-dependent ones that require much more bookkeeping.

Theorem 1: Let $\{(X_n, U_n)\}_\beta$ be a MDP on a finite state space $S \times \mathcal{U}$
 with HR policy β . Then, there is a MR policy β' such that
 $\{(X_n, U_n)\}_{\beta'} \stackrel{d}{=} \{(X_n, U_n)\}_\beta$, given $X_0 = i \in S$.

Proof: To prove the claim it suffices to show that $\forall i, j \in S$ and
 $\forall a \in \mathcal{U}(j)$,

$$\mathbb{P}_\beta(X_n=j, U_n=a | X_0=i) = \mathbb{P}_{\beta'}(X_n=j, U_n=a | X_0=i).$$

Because $\{U_n\}_\beta$ follow HR policy, then

$$U_n = \Phi_n(X_0, U_0; \dots; X_n).$$

Notice that under β ,

$$\mathbb{P}(U_n=a | X_n=j, X_0=i) = \frac{\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{P}(U_n=a | X_n=j, \mathcal{F}_{n-1}, X_0=i))}{\mathbb{P}(X_n=j | X_0=i)}.$$

which proves the result.

Example: PP 135-136 MP.

Define the MR policy by:

$$\mathbb{P}(U_n=a | X_n=j, X_0=i) = \mathbb{P}(U_n=a | X_n=j, X_0=i) \quad (*)$$

for any $j \in S, a \in \mathcal{U}(j)$. This defines a MR policy β' . Because
 of the MDP model, $\mathbb{P}(X_{n+1}=j | X_n=i, U_n=a) = P_{ij}(a)$ is
 independent of the policy, so that:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}_\beta(X_n=j | X_0=i) &= \sum_{k \in S} \sum_{b \in \mathcal{U}} P_{kj}(b) \underbrace{\mathbb{P}_\beta(U_{n-1}=b | X_0=i)}_{\text{because}} \\ &= \mathbb{P}_{\beta'}(X_{n-1}=k | X_0=i) \mathbb{P}_{\beta'}(U_{n-1}=b | X_0=i) \end{aligned}$$

The proof follows by induction: $\mathbb{P}_\beta(X_1=j | X_0=i) = \mathbb{P}_{\beta'}(X_1=j | X_0=i)$.
 Assuming that $\mathbb{P}_\beta(X_{n-1}=k | X_0=i) = \mathbb{P}_{\beta'}(X_{n-1}=k | X_0=i)$,
 we have:

$$\mathbb{P}_\beta(X_n=j | X_0=i) = \mathbb{P}_{\beta'}(X_n=j | X_0=i),$$

where we have used $(*)$ and the induction hypothesis.

To finalize the claim, we notice that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}_\beta(X_n=j, U_n=a | X_0=i) &= \mathbb{P}_\beta(X_n=j | X_0=i) \mathbb{P}_\beta(U_n=a | X_n=j, X_0=i) \\ &= \mathbb{P}_{\beta'}(X_n=j | X_0=i) \mathbb{P}_{\beta'}(U_n=a | X_n=j, X_0=i) \\ &= \mathbb{P}_{\beta'}(X_n=j, U_n=a | X_0=i), \end{aligned}$$

QED.

Exercise: Let β be a MR policy. Show that $\{(X_n, U_n)\}_\beta$ is a
 Markov chain. Under which condition is the chain homogeneous?

(*) INDUCED PROCESS (see P.6)

Once we have classified the type of policies, we can model
 decision problems where an underlying criterion is to be
 optimized by the strategy. MDP problems are studied
 according to the class of reward that we wish to
 maximize (or cost to minimize). [We can also add
 constraints.]

FINITE HORIZON PROBLEMS

Let $T(i)$ be a terminal reward, $T: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$. Consider:

$$\max_{\beta \in MR} \mathbb{E}_\beta \left(\sum_{n=0}^{N-1} R(X_n, u_n) + T(X_N) \right). \quad (3)$$

Here, N is a deterministic integer called the horizon of the problem.

Under a MR policy, we have:

$$\beta_{n+1}(i, a) = P_\beta(u_n=a | X_n=i),$$

so the problem (3) corresponds to choosing the optimal values

$$\text{for } \{\beta_n\}_{n=0}^{N-1} \text{ such that } \sum_{a \in \mathcal{U}(i)} \beta_n(i, a) = 1 \quad \forall i \in S,$$

$n \in \{0, \dots, N-1\}$. The following is a fundamental result in MDP's and it establishes the optimality of deterministic policies.

Theorem 2: There is a DM policy that is optimal for problem (3).

[Notice that it may not be unique, and that there may be other optimal policies that are not deterministic]. (P, QM, MP)

Proof: Use backward programming + induction.

Recall that for a MD policy, the decision rule have the form:

$$u_n = \phi_n(x_n),$$

so that the probabilities $\beta_{n+1}(i, \cdot)$ are degenerate. For MD policies, using a first step analysis, it follows that if $J_n^*(i)$ is the optimal reward from stage $n+1$ until stage N , then:

(5)

$J_N^*(x) = T_N(x) \quad \forall x \in S$
$J_n^*(i) = \max_{a \in \mathcal{U}(i)} \left(R(i, a) + \sum_{j \in S} P_{ij}(a) J_{n+1}^*(j) \right)$

These are called the "optimality" equations, or Bellman equations, and they lead to what we know today as dynamical programming: to solve these recursions, one starts at stage N and works backwards until stage $n=0$.

RANDOM HORIZON PROBLEMS

- Optimal stopping problems.
- Problems to maximize the probability of attaining one absorbing state ("gambling" model).

- Problems to maximize the time to reach an undesirable state (such as playing "tetris").

$$\max_{\beta \in MR} \mathbb{E}_\beta \left(\sum_{n=0}^z R(X_n, u_n) \right)$$

for a suitably defined stopping time z and reward function R . [see MR for details]

Random horizon problems are related to absorbing Markov chains.

Stationary HR Policies for unichain models:

(A) Linear Programming Approach

Consider $\pi \in \text{SHR}$. Under this policy, the enlarged ^{Joint} process

$\{(X_n, U_n)\}$ is a Markov chain (homogeneous), with:

$$P(X_{n+1}=j, U_{n+1}=b | X_n=i, U_n=a) =$$

$$P(X_{n+1}=j | X_n=i, U_n=a) P(U_{n+1}=b | X_n=i=j)$$

$$= \pi_{ij}(a) \beta_j(b).$$

Because of the unichain assumption, for each vector of action

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}_\beta \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} R(X_n, U_n) \right) = \sum_{i \in S} \sum_{a \in U(i)} \pi_{ia} R(i, a)$$

probabilities β the above MC is irreducible. We assume wlog that it is ergodic and call $\pi_{i,a}^{(\beta)}$ the limit distribution or stationary probabilities ~~etc~~ when β is used for the decision rule:

$$\pi_{i,a}(\beta) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n=i, U_n=a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \max_{\{\pi_{ia} \in \mathbb{R}^d\}} \sum_{i \in S} \sum_{a \in U(i)} \pi_{ia} R(i, a) \\ \text{s.t. } & (i), (ii), (iii) \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$(i) \quad \pi_{i,a}(\beta) \geq 0$$

$$(ii) \quad \sum_{i,a} \pi_{i,a}(\beta) = 1$$

$$(iii) \quad \sum_a \pi_{i,a}(\beta) = \sum_i \sum_{a \in U(i)} \pi_{ia}(\beta) \quad \forall j \in S$$

(because $\pi_{j,a}(\beta) = \sum_i \sum_{a \in U(i)} \pi_{ij}(\beta) \beta_j(a) \pi_{ia}(\beta)$ and $\sum_a \beta_j(a) = 1$)

Thm: Suppose that $\{\pi_{ia}\}$ is a solution to (i), (ii), (iii). Then these are the stationary probabilities of the MDP $\{(X_n, U_n)\}_{\beta}$ for:

$$\beta_i(a) = \frac{\pi_{ia}}{\sum_{b \in U(i)} \pi_{ib}}.$$

Remark

The stationary average reward is therefore (by ergodicity):

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}_\beta \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} R(X_n, U_n) \right) = \sum_{i \in S} \sum_{a \in U(i)} \pi_{ia} R(i, a)$$

Therefore, the solution to the problem is the solution to the LP program:

Remark: LP's can be solved efficiently, solution is in a vertex of the feasible set, which is defined by the constraints. ~~etc~~

Thm: The solution to the LP problem corresponds to the deterministic policy $U_n = \phi(X_n)$ (SMP)

(2) Policy-iteration method

In LP theory, it is well known that the solution to the primal

and dual problems is the same:

$$\begin{array}{ll}
 \text{PRIMAL} & \text{DUAL} \\
 \max_{(i,a)} \sum_{i,a} x_{ia} R(i,a) & \min_j \sum_j b_j y_j \\
 \sum_{(i,a)} A_{(i,a),j} x_{ia} = b_j & \sum_j A_{(i,a)j} y_j \geq R(i,a) \\
 x_{ia} \geq 0 & y_j \in \mathbb{R}
 \end{array}$$

Dual variables are associated with primal constraints, of

which we have $|S|+1$. Call $y_1, \dots, y_{|S|}$, and $g = y_{|S|+1}$,

then we obtain the problem:

$$\min \sum_{j \in S} y_j + g$$

$$y_i + g - \sum_j P_{ij}(a) y_j \geq R(i,a)$$

$$\Rightarrow y_i \geq R(i,a) - g + \sum_{j \in S} P_{ij}(a) y_j$$

and hence, because we wish to minimize, the problem

can be restated as the optimality equation:

$$y_i = \max_{a \in U(i)} \left(R(i,a) - g + \sum_{j \in S} P_{ij}(a) y_j \right)$$



[this equation can be derived directly with Potential theory, see MP pp. 337 - 343, and (B.4.3) p. 354].

Iteration method:

1. Choose initial ~~and~~ $\phi_0(i)$, $i \in S$

2. Given $U_n = \phi_n(i)$, solve :

$$y_n(i) = R(i,a) - g_n + \sum_j P_{ij}[\phi_n(i)] y_n(j)$$

and set $y_n(i) = 0$. Next, with these values of y_n, g_n

$$\text{let } f_{n+1}(i) = \underset{a \in U(i)}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} \left(R(i,a) - g_n + \sum_j P_{ij}(a) y_n(j) \right)$$

The above algorithm converges and it usually is

very efficient.

(3) Value iteration method (p.p.364 - 367 MP)

1. Choose J^0 , $\epsilon > 0$, $n=0$
2. Use S , compute

$$J^{n+1}(s) = \max_{a \in U(s)} \left(R(s,a) + \sum_{j \in S} P_{sj}(a) J^n(j) \right)$$

3. If $\|J^{n+1}(s) - J^n(s)\| \leq \epsilon$ use S \Rightarrow stop

4. Use S , choose

$$\phi(i) = \underset{a \in U(i)}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} \left(R(s,a) + \sum_{j \in S} P_{sj}(a) J^n(j) \right)$$

[Approximations, constraints, thresholds...]

Thm2 (p. 90 MP): If S is countable or finite and $|U(i)| < \mu$ for all i is finite, or (see conditions on p. 90).

Proof (idea):

For $n = N-1$ we seek

$$\max_{\substack{\text{from} \\ u_n \in U(x_n)}} \mathbb{E} \left(\sum_{j \in S} r(x_n, u_n) + \mathbb{E}[T(x_{n+1})] \right)$$

For each $i = x_n$ possible this is:

$$\max_{u_n \in U(i)} \left\{ r(i, u_n) + \sum_{j \in S} T(j) P_{u_n}^{(i, j)} \right\}$$

For each i , there is one optimal value of the above expression, possibly w. different actions u_n , choose any of these as the deterministic policy.

Now we know that $u_{N-1}^* = \phi(x_N)$.

Use induction to show the result.

(state the more general result from MP)

$$(0.6)(0.5)(0.4) + (0.1)(0.8)$$

$$\frac{(0.6)(0.5) + (0.1)}{(0.6)(0.5) + (0.1)}$$

$$= \frac{(0.3)(0.4) + 0.08}{0.3 + 0.1} = \frac{(0.4) \cdot 0.3 + 0.08}{0.4} = \frac{0.12 + 0.08}{0.4} = \frac{0.20}{0.4} = 0.5$$

(4)

For the first stage, set:

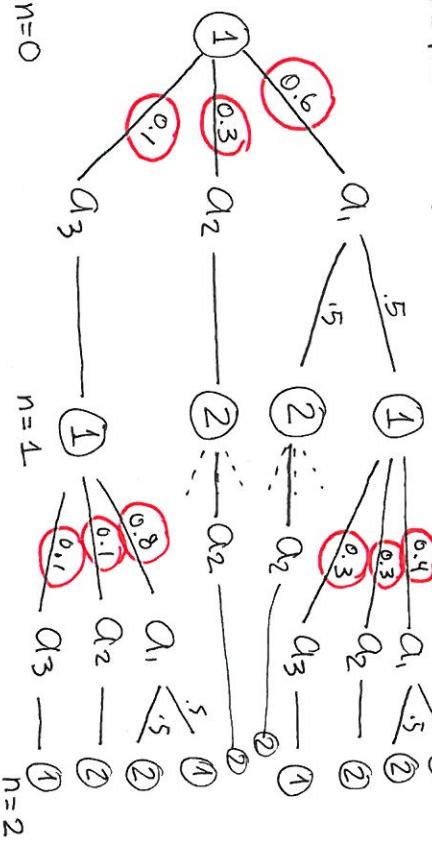
$$P(U_1 = a_1 \mid X_0 = 1) = 0.6$$

$$P(U_1 = a_2 \mid X_0 = 1) = 0.3$$

for every n, i, j and a :

$$P_{\beta}(X_n=j, U_n=a \mid X_0=i) = P_{\beta'}(X_n=j, U_n=a \mid X_0=i).$$

Example: $S = \{1, 2\}$ $A = \{a_1, a_2, a_3\}$.



then we use for β' :

$$U'_1 = \phi'_1(X_0) = \phi_0(X_0).$$

For the For $n=1$:

$$P(U_1 = a_1 \mid X_0 = 1) = \frac{(0.6)(0.5)(0.4) + (0.1)(0.8)}{(0.6)(0.5) + 0.1} = 0.5$$

so we can define

$$U'_1 = \phi'_1(X_1)$$

$$P(U_1 = a_1 \mid X_1 = 2, X_0 = 1) = 0$$

$$P(U_1 = a_2 \mid X_1 = 2, X_0 = 1) = 1.$$

Shown in the diagram is the history-dependent policy β' .

Notice that $P_{ij}(a) = P(X_{n+1}=j \mid U_n=a, X_n=i)$ is independent of β , determined by the probabilities circled in red. Shown in the case $X_0=1$, but a similar structure holds when $X_0=2$.

advally $P(U_n=a_2 \mid X_{n-1}=2, X_0=i) = 1 \forall n > 1$.

$$P(U_1=a_2 \mid X_1=1, X_0=1) = \frac{0.6 \cdot 0.5 \cdot 0.3 + 0.6 \cdot 0.5 \cdot 0.3 + 0.1 \cdot 0.8 \cdot 0.1}{(0.6 \cdot 0.5) + 0.1} = 0.25$$

$$P(U_1=a_3 \mid X_1=1, X_0=1) = \frac{(0.6)(0.5)(0.3) + (0.1)(0.1)}{(0.6)(0.5) + 0.1} = 0.25$$