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RESEARCH REPORT

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On Implicit Approximation of the Bellman Equation

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Abstract

In this article, an efficient algorithm for an optimal decision strategy approximation is introduced. It approximates the Bellman equation without omitting the principal uncertainty stemming from an incomplete knowledge. Thus, the approximated optimal strategy retains the ability to constantly verify the actual knowledge, which is the essence of dual control. An integral part of the proposed solution is a reduction of memory demands using HDMR approximation. The result of this method is a linear algebraic system for an approximated upper bound on the Bellman function. One illustrative example has been completely resolved.

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1 Motivation

Decision making is a selection between different possibilities in a specific situation, the choice of aims and means for their achieving. It is everyday experience of all living creatures to achieve their ultimate aim to stay alive. Human decision making is always a mixed pack containing three ingredients, namely subconscious decision making, conscious decision making and unconscious decision making. Therefore, it can fail easily. Decision-making theory was developed to help avoiding these failures.

The main focus of this article is to develop approximation tool suitable to enlarge the class of computationally feasible decision-making problems. This work copes with principal problem within the stochastic dynamic programming which is known as *curse of dimensionality*, see (3). In the contemporary state of arts, there is a lack of approximation techniques capable to encompass problems with a larger decision-making horizon. To this end, properties of an approximative tool called High Dimensional Model Representations (thereinafter "HDMR") are promising. It was stimulated by applications in chemistry, see (1), focused to reduce enormous memory demands of the involved models. In its background, there stands simple observation: only low-order correlations amongst input variables have a significant impact upon the outputs of a typical model.

A general form of a HDMR expansion reads

$$g(x) \approx \tilde{g}(x) \equiv \tilde{g}(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_\mu) = \tilde{g}_0 + \sum_{m=1}^{\mu} \tilde{g}_m(x_m) + \sum_{m=1}^{\mu} \sum_{n=1}^{m-1} \tilde{g}_{mn}(x_m, x_n) + \dots \quad (1)$$

Here, a zero-order component \tilde{g}_0 denotes a constant scalar value over the domain of $g(x)$; the first-order components $\tilde{g}_m(x_m)$ describes an independent effect of the each variable x_m ; the second-order component $\tilde{g}_{mn}(x_m, x_n)$ represents the joint effect of the variables x_m and x_n and so on. Experience shows that even the low-order case often provides sufficient description of $g(x)$.

Such a function approximation (representation) yields two main advantages. The first is data reduction. The memory space necessary to store all values of the original function $g(x)$ grows exponentially with the dimension μ , whereas the size growth of decomposition components is just a polynomial in μ . This property helps us to cope with high-dimensional problems of the real world. The second advantage is reduction of computational complexity. In general, it allows us to split high-dimensional linear problem into several low-dimensional subproblems. For instance, it could reduce integration over high-dimensional domain into the sum of low-dimensional integrations.

The outline of this work is as follows. Section 2 deals with the current state of art in the decision making theory. A central point here is the presentation of the Bellman equation with its notorious difficulties, mainly the problem of a rapidly growing domain of the Bellman function. To cope with this inconvenience, an approximative technique of HDMR is introduced in a detail within Section 3. Also, a system of linear equation determining an optimal function approximation is derived here. Its linearity does not match well with a non-linear Bellman equation. Thus, a linear equation for an upper bound on the Bellman function is derived, see Section 4. Connecting it with HDMR approximation, a viable technique for approximative decision making is obtained. In Section 5, there are concise instructions for implementation of this approximation technique in real applications. For an illustration, one toy example is completely resolved. Section 6 is devoted to conclusion.

Throughout this work, a few general conventions are followed. A domain of a variable x is denoted X , $x \in X$. $|X|$ denotes a finite cardinality of the countable set X or its Lebesgue measure in the case it is not countable. Next, x_t is a quantity x at the discrete time instant labeled by $t \in T$. The letter " f " is reserved for a probability density function (pdf). Its specific meaning is given through the name of its arguments. The same letter is used for conditioned pdfs, arguments in condition are separated by "|" in an argument list. Knowing $f(x|y)$, it is possible to introduce the expected value of a variable x conditioned by y

$$\mathcal{E}[x|y] \equiv \int_X x f(x|y) dx$$

For a vector $x \in X$, $X \subset \mathbb{R}^\mu$, and $m \in M \equiv \{1, \dots, \mu\}$, x^m denotes its m -th coordinate. Therefore, it reads $x = (x^1, \dots, x^\mu)$. Taking some $N = \{n^1, \dots, n^\nu\} \subset M$, a projection $x/N \in \mathbb{R}^\nu$ is defined for all $x = (x^1, \dots, x^\mu) \in X$ in this manner $x/N \equiv (x^{n^1}, \dots, x^{n^\nu}) \in \mathbb{R}^\nu$. A HDMR approximation of a function $h(x)$ is marked by $\tilde{h}(x)$. For a domain of $h(x)$, $\text{dom}(h)$ is used.

2 Decision Making Theory

Within this section, the classical results are briefly summarized together with their classical troubles. Detailed discussion is to be found in (4), for example.

Decision-making theory formalizes and solves decision-making task, consisting in selection the decision-maker's strategy which ensures decision-maker's aim with the part of the world (so-called system) be reached. Decision maker observes or influences a system over a finite decision making horizon $\tau < \infty$. Data (system output) observed at a time instance $t \in T \equiv \{1, \dots, \tau\}$ is denoted by $y_t \in Y_t$. It provides the decision maker information

about the system behavior. Analogously, decisions (actions) are denoted as $a_t \in A_t$. It is the value that can be directly chosen by the decision maker for reaching decision-maker's aims. A strategy $\{\mathcal{R}_t\}_{t \in T}$ is a collection of mappings transforming an actual experience $d(t-1) \equiv (y_{t-1}, a_{t-1}, \dots, y_1, a_1)$ into a choice of the next decision $a_t \in A_t$.

Next thing to do is to formalize a degree of achievements of the decision-maker's aims. The idea of loss function is promising. A loss value is assigned to the each possible system trajectory $d(\tau)$ respecting just one rule: the more suitable some trajectory is, the lower loss value it posses. This way, a loss function $Z(d(\tau))$ is obtained. Often, a less general concept of an additive loss function is introduced, i.e., the case when losses accumulate with time

$$Z(d(\tau)) = \sum_{t=1}^{\tau} z_t(a_t, y_t) \quad \text{where} \quad z_t(a_t, y_t) \geq 0 \quad (2)$$

Now, it is necessary to describe the involved system. In this work, a stochastic approach is held. Thus, the system is completely described in a probabilistic manner by the following collection of pdfs called outer model of a system

$$\{f(y_t|a_t, d(t-1))\}_{t \in T} \quad (3)$$

There are many ways how to find these formulae, see (5).

Knowing a loss function (2) altogether with an outer model (3), the optimal strategy is determined by the Bellman theorem. It claims: a strategy $\{\mathcal{R}_t\}_{t \in T}$ selecting decisions a_t^{opt} and such that a_t^{opt} minimizes

$$V_{t-1}(d(t-1)) = \min_{a_t \in A_t} \mathcal{E}[z_t(y_t, a_t) + V_t(d(t)) | a_t, d(t-1)]$$

at all times $t \in T$, minimizes also the expected value of the overall loss $Z(d(\tau))$ provided the boundary condition $V_\tau \equiv 0$ is satisfied.

The essential problem is to evaluate Bellman function V_t for all $t \in T$. Its exact recursive calculation is computationally infeasible in the majority of practical applications for the reason of geometrically growing size of its domain with increasing decision making horizon τ . This paper aims for reduce a memory demands necessary to represent an approximated strategy.

2.1 Sufficient Statistic

When operating with a large amount of data, it is meaningful to compress them into a set of smaller dimension as follows

$$\sigma_t \equiv \sigma_t(d(t)) \quad (4)$$

Such a mapping is called statistic. For a random variable x_t , statistic σ_t is sufficient if there exists $f(x_t|\sigma_t(d(t)), t)$ satisfying the following condition for all times $t \in T$ and all possible trajectories $d(t)$, $t \in T$

$$f(x_t|d(t)) = f(x_t|\sigma_t(d(t)), t)$$

The explicit appearance of the time coordinate in condition is for the sake of simplicity in sequel.

A collection of the following mappings $\{S_t\}_{t \in T}$ is necessary to effectively update statistic. $S_1(y_1, a_1) \equiv \sigma_1(y_1, a_1)$, and for all $t \in \{2, \dots, \tau\}$, a new data $y_t \in Y_t$ observed after a decision $a_t \in A_t$ is carried out and an old statistic value $\sigma_{t-1} \equiv \sigma_{t-1}(d(t-1))$, it reads

$$S_t(y_t, a_t, \sigma_{t-1}) \equiv \sigma_t(d(t)) \quad (5)$$

In this article, a function approximation would be searched over a statistic domain. To find an optimal approximation, it would be contributive to define the exact statistic domain Σ_t for all times $t \in T$. For Σ_1 , it obviously holds $\Sigma_1 \equiv \Sigma_1(Y_1, A_1)$ and for all $t \in \{2, \dots, \tau\}$, such a domains are introduced in a recursive manner

$$\Sigma_t \equiv S_t(Y_t, A_t, \Sigma_{t-1})$$

In the context of the Bellman equation (4), an existence of a statistic $\{\sigma_t \in \Sigma_t\}_{t \in T}$ sufficient for a system model (3) is assumed. It suggests to rewrite the Bellman equation (4) valid over all Σ_t , $t \in T$, using a shortcut

$$\sigma_{t-1} \equiv \sigma_{t-1}(d(t-1))$$

with the condition $V_\tau \equiv 0$. For all $t \in \{2, \dots, \tau\}$ it holds

$$V_{t-1}(\sigma_{t-1}) = \min_{a_t \in A_t} \mathcal{E} [z_t(y_t, a_t) + V_t(S_t(y_t, a_t, \sigma_{t-1})) | a_t, \sigma_{t-1}, t-1] \quad (6)$$

The previous compression of the domain of the Bellman function is a crucial step towards solution of the problem.

3 High Dimensional Model Representation

This section is to prepare a HDMR approximation technique to reduce memory demands to represent the Bellman function defined by (6). There are many ways how to construct decomposition like (1), see (1). To reduce this ambiguity, it is necessary to formalize the desired properties of decomposition.

A function Hilbert space $L^2(X)$ is an useful concept for a function approximation. Generally, it is a space of real functions defined over X with a finite norm $\|g\| \equiv \sqrt{\langle g, g \rangle}$ inducted by the following scalar product

$$\langle g, h \rangle_X \equiv \int_X g(x) h(x) dx \quad (7)$$

The optimal HDMR decomposition \tilde{g} of a function $g \in L^2(X)$ is a minimizer of an approximation error evaluated in this norm, i.e., it is a function minimizing $\|g - \tilde{g}\|$.

Partial Constancy of Decomposition Components

To get rid of an ellipsis "... " in (1), it is suitable to index decomposition components by elements of a general index set. Consider $\mu \in \mathbb{N}$ equal to a dimension of X , $X \subset \mathbb{R}^\mu$. Introducing $M \equiv \{1, \dots, \mu\}$, a decomposition component can be addressed by an element of the following index set

$$D \subsetneq \{N | N \subset M\}$$

Set's elements are indices, determining which variables a decomposition component depends on. This way, it is possible to prescribe different component order for different variables (or groups of variables). It could be useful if there is some a priori information on the degree of their influence. The resulting HDMR decomposition of $g(x)$ has the following general form

$$\tilde{g}(x) \equiv \sum_{K \in D} \tilde{g}_K(x) \quad (8)$$

Obviously, considering decomposition components within the space $L^2(X)$ is not strict enough. For any $K \in D$, a HDMR decomposition component $\tilde{g}_K(x)$ must not depend on x^m for $m \in M \setminus K$. A space of constant functions would be useful. For all $K \subset M$, they can be introduced as

$$C_K(X) \equiv \{h | \text{dom}(h) = X, \quad (9)$$

$$\forall_{x, y \in X} (x/K = y/K \rightarrow h(x) = h(y))\}$$

These functions are constant in all the variables but x^k , $k \in K$. Such a restriction is non-optional when talking about HDMR approximation.

Support Restriction of Decomposition Components

Another restriction is necessary to guarantee an uniqueness of the each separate decomposition component. The problem stems from the fact, that only

the overall sum of the decomposition components enters the minimization task. For instance, a constant value \tilde{g}_\emptyset can be nullified and added to any higher-order decomposition component. There are many ways how to manage this ambiguity. The one proposed here aims to decrease the resulting memory demands as much as possible. Key idea is to nullify decomposition components on a specific border parts of their domains. Thus, for $K \subset M$ a $X_K \subset X$ is defined

$$X_K \equiv \bigcap_{m \in M \setminus K} \left\{ x \in X \mid x^m > \min_{y \in X} y^m \right\} \quad (10)$$

Reminding a concept of a function support

$$\text{supp}(h) \equiv \{x \in \text{dom}(h), h(x) \neq 0\}$$

it would be contributive to reduce supports of decomposition components in the way that for all $K \in D$ it reads $\text{supp}(\tilde{g}_K) \subset X_K$. With the following condition put on D

$$\forall_{K \in D} \forall_{L \subset K} L \in D \quad (11)$$

an uniqueness of the each separate decomposition component \tilde{g}_K , $K \in D$, is guaranteed. It is an easy exercise to verify this fact. The resulting decomposition would give the same error of approximation with or without these conditions. It rests to take a general optimal decomposition $\{\tilde{g}_K\}_{K \in D}$, complete the index set D in the sense of (11), and by induction from the largest to the lowest component orders restrict their support appropriately. The only thing to take care about is the overall sum of components, which have to be fixed during these operations. Within this process, an exact value of the each restricted component is directly calculated, i.e., the collection of restricted components is determined uniquely.

A small example would be helpful to clarify the used notation. If the aim is to obtain just a first order decomposition of a function $g(x_1, x_2, x_3)$, $\text{dom}(g) = X_1 \times X_2 \times X_3 \subset \mathbb{R}^3$, the following choice of an index set is the right one

$$D = \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}\}$$

Then, g is going to be approximated in this way

$$\tilde{g}(x_1, x_2, x_3) \equiv \tilde{g}_\emptyset + \tilde{g}_1(x_1) + \tilde{g}_2(x_2) + \tilde{g}_3(x_3)$$

Compare with the general form (8). If a hypothesis exists that the biggest influence originates from the cooperation of x_2 with x_3 , an addition of a set

$\{2, 3\}$ into index set D is a good idea. It would change a searched HDMR decomposition into this form

$$\tilde{g}_0 + \tilde{g}_1(x_1) + \tilde{g}_2(x_2) + \tilde{g}_3(x_3) + \tilde{g}_{23}(x_2, x_3)$$

Afterwards, the presence of the second-order decomposition component $\tilde{g}_{23}(x_2, x_3)$ should result in a noticeable decrease of the approximation error. For the purpose of readability, $\tilde{g}_{\{2,3\}}(x_2, x_3)$ is shortened into $\tilde{g}_{23}(x_2, x_3)$, etc.

At the moment, the main function spaces are defined for any $K \subset M$ in this way

$$H_K(X) \equiv \{h \in L^2(X) \cap C_K(X) \mid \text{supp}(h) \subset X_K\} \quad (12)$$

where $C_K(X)$ is defined by (9). Functions within this space depend only on x^k for $k \in K$ and, moreover, they are nullified on a part of border of their domains, see (10). It leads to an observation that all the (possibly) non-zero values of $h \in H_K(X)$ are fully determined by its values on the following set $X_K^\perp \subset \mathbb{R}^{|K|}$

$$X_K^\perp \equiv \{x/K \mid x \in X_K \subset \mathbb{R}^\mu\} \quad (13)$$

This definition would be of high importance within the next section.

3.1 Optimality Conditions

Taking $\tilde{g}_K \in H_K(X)$, $K \in D$, for an optimal decomposition \tilde{g} defined in (8) it holds

$$\tilde{g} \in \bigcup_{K \in D} H_K(X)$$

On the right hand side, there is a closed subspace of $L^2(X)$ and therefore a classical result for projection on closed subspace of a Hilbert space can be applied. It guarantees the existence and uniqueness of a function \tilde{g} minimizing the approximation error $\|g - \tilde{g}\|$. And more, it prescribes conditions for the optimal decomposition \tilde{g} defined in (8). For all $K \in D$ and all $h \in H_K(X)$ it holds

$$\langle \tilde{g} - g, h \rangle = 0$$

According to definition of a scalar product, see (7), this equation reads

$$\int_X (\tilde{g}(x) - g(x)) h(x) dx = 0 \quad (14)$$

Dirac delta function $\delta_y(x)$, $y \in \mathbb{R}$, symbolizes a linear functional defined over $\text{dom}(\delta_y) \equiv \mathbb{R}$, thus it could be applied only within the context of some real function $p(x)$. Then, it operates in this way

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} \delta_y(x) p(x) dx \equiv p(y)$$

Its extension to a higher dimension is straightforward. From a formal point of view, this concept is uncorrect, but it could be formalized directly at the cost of a very technical notation.

The previously written optimality conditions (14) are valid for all $K \in D$ and for all test functions $h \in H_K(X)$. To rewrite them in a δ -function formalism, it is necessary to think over an effective domain of h carefully. Formerly, it was deduced that such a function is fully determined by its values on X_K^\perp , see (13). On that account, a more complex delta function $\delta_{K,y}$, $\text{dom}(\delta_{K,y}) = X$, is defined for all $K \in D$ and all $y \in X_K^\perp$ in this way

$$\delta_{K,y}(x) \equiv \delta_y(x/K)$$

Next, considering a δ -function index as an element of

$$\mathcal{I} \equiv \{(K, y) \mid K \in D, y \in X_K^\perp\} \quad (15)$$

it is possible to rewrite the previous optimality conditions (14) in an equivalent form valid for all $\kappa \in \mathcal{I}$

$$\int_X (\tilde{g}(x) - g(x)) \delta_\kappa(x) dx = 0$$

Expanding a HDMR approximation \tilde{g} in accordance with its definition, see (8), the last equations turn into

$$\sum_{L \in D} \int_X \tilde{g}_L(x) \delta_\kappa(x) dx = \int_X g(x) \delta_\kappa(x) dx \quad (16)$$

Again, considering the support of the decomposition components altogether with its constancy in some variables, see (12), this system could be represented by linear operators P , R and a system of equations valid for all $\kappa \in \mathcal{I}$

$$P \sum_{L \in D} \int_{X_L^\perp} P_{\kappa,(L,x)} \tilde{g}_L(x) dx = R_\kappa[g] \quad (17)$$

where for operator elements $P_{\kappa,\lambda}$, resp. $R_\kappa[g]$, and all $\kappa, \lambda \in \mathcal{I}$ it holds

$$P_{\kappa,\lambda} \equiv \int_X \delta_\lambda(x) \delta_\kappa(x) dx \quad (18)$$

$$R_\kappa[g] \equiv \int_X g(x) \delta_\kappa(x) dx \quad (19)$$

In sequel, a linear system (17) can be written

$$P \star \tilde{g} = R[g] \quad (20)$$

This is a linear system determining the precisely one optimal HDMR decomposition of g minimizing its approximation error in $L^2(X)$ norm. From numerical point of view, an important feature of this system is the symmetry of the operator P .

4 Stochastic Dynamic Programming Approximation

In the previous section, the HDMR tool was introduced. It is based on linear equations determining the optimal decomposition (20), whereas the Bellman equation (6) is highly nonlinear due to the operator of minimization. This fact obstructs the direct use of HDMR. For that reason, it is necessary to find some linear approximation of the Bellman equation first.

As a mean value of some function have to be higher or equal to its minimum value, the following upper estimate holds for all $t \in \{2, \dots, \tau\}$, all $\sigma_{t-1} \in \Sigma_{t-1}$ and the Bellman function defined in (6)

$$V_{t-1}(\sigma_{t-1}) \leq \frac{1}{|A_t|} \times \int_{A_t} \mathcal{E} [z_t(y_t, a_t) + V_t(S_t(y_t, a_t, \sigma_{t-1})) | a_t, \sigma_{t-1}, t - 1] da_t$$

This inequality can be rewritten in a more compact way by introducing a few shortcuts. At first, the following uniform pdf would be useful $f(a_t | \sigma_{t-1}, t - 1) \equiv \frac{1}{|A_t|}$. It is a mere shortcut, but it could be also interpreted as a simplest possible optimal strategy predictor. It permits to introduce $Z_t(\sigma)$, a function evaluating expected one-step-ahead loss

$$Z_t(\sigma) \equiv \mathcal{E} [z_{t+1}(y_{t+1}, a_{t+1}) | \sigma, t]$$

Then, introducing the following conditioned pdf

$$f(\sigma_{t+1} | y_{t+1}, a_{t+1}, \sigma_t) \equiv \delta_{\sigma_{t+1}}(S_{t+1}(y_{t+1}, a_{t+1}, \sigma_t))$$

representing a model of statistic dynamic, and using the chain rule, see for instance (5), gives the pdf

$$f(\sigma_{t+1} | \sigma_t, t) \equiv \int_{Y_{t+1}} \int_{A_{t+1}} f(\sigma_{t+1} | y_{t+1}, a_{t+1}, \sigma_t, t) \times f(y_{t+1} | a_{t+1}, \sigma_t, t) \times f(a_{t+1} | \sigma_t, t) da_{t+1} dy_{t+1}$$

Now, the previous previous can be rewritten as follows

$$V_{t-1}(\sigma_{t-1}) \leq Z_{t-1}(\sigma_{t-1}) + \mathcal{E} [V_t(\sigma_t) | \sigma_{t-1}, t - 1]$$

Thanks to the recursive nature of the Bellman equation, see (6), this inequality spreads over the whole domain of V . Considering just an equality part, it turns into a recursive equation for a function U , which is an upper bound on the Bellman function

$$U_{t-1}(\sigma_{t-1}) = Z_{t-1}(\sigma_{t-1}) + \mathcal{E} [U_t(\sigma_t) | \sigma_{t-1}, t - 1] \quad (21)$$

It is a linear equation, and therefore it can be solved easier than the exact Bellman equation.

With the knowledge of U , the approximated optimal decision at time step $t \in T$ is $a_t^{opt} \in A_t$ satisfying

$$a_t^{opt} = \underset{a_t \in A_t}{\operatorname{argmin}} \mathcal{E} [z_t(y_t, a_t) + U_t(S_t(y_t, a_t, \sigma_{t-1})) | a_t, \sigma_{t-1}, t]$$

Here, again the shortcut $\sigma_{t-1} \equiv \sigma_{t-1}(d(t-1))$ was used.

4.1 HDMR-based Approximation

The linearity of equation (21), which describes the upper bound on the Bellman function U , allows applying HDMR approximation directly. For all times $t \in T$, an optimal HDMR decomposition component $\tilde{U}_{t,K}$, $K \in D$, have to be searched within $H_K(\Sigma_t)$. Firstly, a common index set $M \equiv \{1, \dots, \mu\}$ is selected obeying the condition

$$\bigcup_{t \in T} \Sigma_t \subset \mathbb{R}^\mu$$

Next, an appropriate decomposition set D is chosen satisfying (11). Its choice fully determines a structure of the following approximation. Some a priori knowledge can be applied here, or they can be all selected up to the same order. Typical choice is the second order decomposition, i.e., the case when D is chosen as follows

$$D = \{\emptyset\} \cup \{\{m\} | m \in M\} \cup \{\{m, n\} | m, n \in M, m < n\}$$

It rests to prepare index sets \mathcal{I}_t , $t \in T$, see (15). Not only an index set D , but also a geometry of the each approximation domain Σ_t plays role here.

Respecting the recursive nature of equation (21), and also the border condition $U_\tau \equiv 0$, it is necessary to start from $t = \tau - 1$, find a collection $\{\tilde{U}_{\tau-1,K}\}_{K \in D}$ determining approximated values of U at time $t = \tau - 1$, decrease time by one and repeat this procedure until $t = 1$. Inserting (21) into (20) and respecting condition $U_\tau \equiv 0$ the following equation is obtained

$$P_{\tau-1} \star \tilde{U}_{\tau-1} = R_{\tau-1} [Z_{\tau-1}]$$

with $P_{\tau-1}$, resp. $R_{\tau-1}$, defined analogously to (18), resp. (19). Its solution is a collection $\{\tilde{U}_{\tau-1,K}\}_{K \in D}$ fully determining the HDMR approximation of the upper bound on Bellman function for time $t = \tau - 1$.

Now, knowing $\{\tilde{U}_{t+1,K}\}_{K \in D}$ for some $t+1 \in T$, the analogous procedure is performed to find $\{\tilde{U}_{t,K}\}_{K \in D}$. It leads to an equation

$$P_t \star \tilde{U}_t = R_t [Z_t + \mathcal{E} [U_{t+1}(\sigma_{t+1}) | \sigma, t]]$$

This equation is the exact equation for an optimal HDMR decomposition components of \tilde{U}_t having only one, but crucial problem. On the right hand side, there occurs the exact value of $U_{t+1}(\sigma_{t+1})$, which is unknown at the moment. To avoid this, again, its HDMR decomposition

$$\tilde{U}_{t+1}(\sigma) \equiv \sum_{K \in \mathcal{D}} \tilde{U}_{t+1,K}(\sigma)$$

is substituted instead. This way, the previous equation turn into

$$P_t \star \tilde{U}_t = R_t[Z_t] + Q_{t+1} \star \tilde{U}_{t+1} \quad (22)$$

where

$$Q_{t+1} \star \tilde{U}_{t+1} \equiv R_t \left[\sum_{K \in \mathcal{D}} \mathcal{E} \left[\tilde{U}_{t+1,K}(\sigma_{t+1}) \mid \sigma, t \right] \right]$$

Reminding a definition of $R[g]$, see (19), altogether with a detailed meaning of a "starred" product, see (20), for all $\kappa \in \mathcal{I}_t$, $\lambda \in \mathcal{I}_{t+1}$ and an operator element $Q_{t+1,\kappa,\lambda}$ it holds

$$Q_{t+1,\kappa,\lambda} = \int_{\Sigma_{t+1}} \int_{\Sigma_t} f(\sigma_{t+1} | \sigma, t) \delta_\kappa(\sigma) d\sigma \delta_\lambda(\sigma_{t+1}) d\sigma_{t+1}$$

Solution of the series of linear systems (22) is equivalent to finding approximative solution \tilde{U} of the upper bound of the Bellman equation (21) using the HDMR technique.

5 Toy Problem Example

An unknown coin tossing considered to depict backgrounds of this work. A decision maker plays a hazard game with a (two-sided) coin. Only one side is the winning one. The coin is unfair and pay-off probabilities of its sides are unknown. Also, it is not clear whether the result of tossing depends on the starting orientation of the coin. The only, but crucial knowledge is that the pay-off probabilities are fixed, i.e., the coin is rigid.

The decision-maker's problem is: how to find the best strategy to pick the winning side of the coin? Even though this problem could be formulated so easily, it is a real teaser for a longer game horizon as it is hard to balance exploration and exploitation. Winning in the first turn does not mean a decision maker should play still this coin side as it excludes an opportunity to learn pay-off probability of the opposite coin side.

Consider a finite decision making horizon of τ steps. Using the previous notation, y_t represents the observed value (upper side of the coin when it

has landed) for the each time step and a_t decision (selected coin side before tossing) of a player (decision maker). As the game rules are fixed and even the coin itself is rigid, the range of system input and/or output is still the same. For all $t \in T$, it holds $a_t \in A_t \equiv A = \{0, 1\}$ and similarly $y_t \in Y_t \equiv Y = \{0, 1\}$, where "0" stands for the "Tails" side of the coin and "1" for the "Heads" side.

Note, for computation of the expected value in (4), the knowledge of an outer system model (??) is crucial. It can be composed from two separate probability densities, a parametric system model pdf and a describing internal unknown parameter (pay-off probability of coin sides). For more detailed info, see (2).

Before writing the resulting formulae, it is necessary to introduce a sufficient statistic. Introducing a Kronecker's symbol for $j, k \in \mathbb{N}$, $\delta_{j,k} \equiv 1$ if $j = k$ and $\delta_{j,k} \equiv 0$ otherwise, a sufficient statistic can be identified with a three-dimensional vector $\sigma_t(d(t)) = (\sigma_t^1, \sigma_t^2, \sigma_t^3)$ as follows

$$\sigma_t \equiv \left(\sum_{i=1}^t \delta_{y_i,0} \delta_{a_i,0}, \sum_{i=1}^t \delta_{y_i,0} \delta_{a_i,1}, \sum_{i=1}^t \delta_{y_i,1} \delta_{a_i,0} \right)$$

These values are simply sums of different game results. For instance, σ_t^1 equals to count of the previous game turns starting with a coin on the "Tails" side (denoted by 0) and landing on the same side. Then, the outer system model is

$$\begin{aligned} f(0|0, \sigma, t) &= \frac{\sigma_t^1 + 1}{\sigma_t^1 + \sigma_t^3 + 2} \\ f(1|0, \sigma, t) &= \frac{\sigma_t^3 + 1}{\sigma_t^1 + \sigma_t^3 + 2} \\ f(0|1, \sigma, t) &= \frac{\sigma_t^2 + 1}{t + 2 - \sigma_t^1 - \sigma_t^3} \\ f(1|1, \sigma, t) &= \frac{t + 1 - \sigma_t^1 - \sigma_t^2 - \sigma_t^3}{t + 2 - \sigma_t^1 - \sigma_t^3} \end{aligned}$$

Naturally, for a statistic values it holds $\sigma_t^1 + \sigma_t^2 + \sigma_t^3 \leq t$. This constraint implies these statistic domains $\Sigma_t, t \in T$

$$\Sigma_t \equiv \{(\sigma_t^1, \sigma_t^2, \sigma_t^3) \in \{0, \dots, t\}^3 \mid \sigma_t^1 + \sigma_t^2 + \sigma_t^3 \leq t\}$$

To completely formalize the problem, let prescribe a form of the statistic updating mapping postulated in (5). In the context of the toy problem, it is time independent

$$\begin{aligned} S(y, a, \sigma^1, \sigma^2, \sigma^3) &\equiv \\ (\sigma^1 + \delta_{0,y} \delta_{0,a}, \sigma^2 + \delta_{0,y} \delta_{1,a}, \sigma^3 + \delta_{1,y} \delta_{0,a}) \end{aligned}$$

In the experiments, the coin tossing was simulated with an use of pseudo-random generator simulating a coin with a pay-off probability of the "Heads" side fixed at 60% and the pay-off probability of the "Tails" side sampled from 0% to 100% by a 1% step. At first, a short-horizon experiments were made to compare results of different orders of the used HDMR approximation. Index sets are

$$D_1 \equiv \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}\}$$

$$D_2 \equiv \{\emptyset, \{1\}, \{2\}, \{3\}, \{1, 2\}, \{1, 3\}, \{2, 3\}\}$$

On a short game horizon, i.e., $\tau = 10$, each experiment was repeated 5000 times for the various strategies: exact optimal strategy prepared according (6) and for both approximated optimal strategies derived according equations (22) using index set D_1 , resp. D_2 . Results of these experiments are depicted in Figure 1.

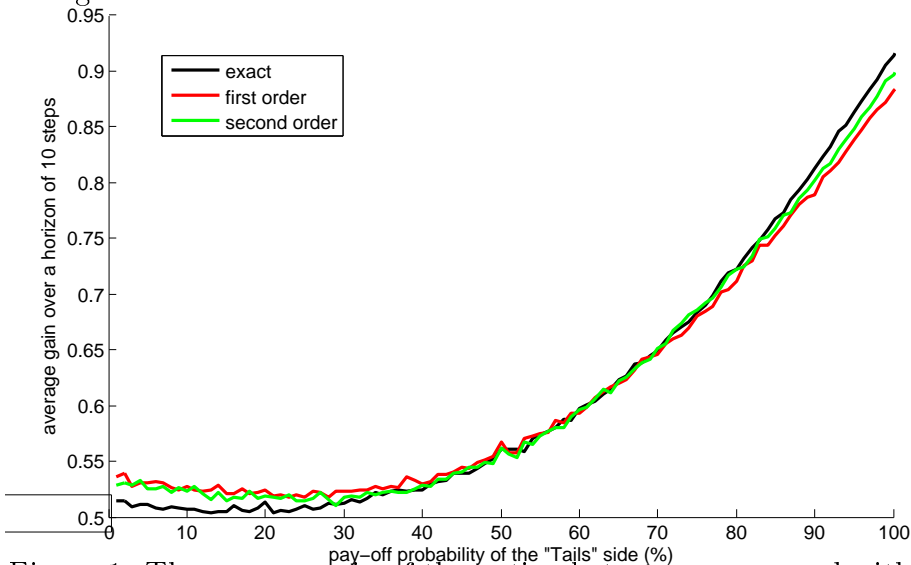


Figure 1: The average gain of the optimal strategy compared with the gains obtained from approximated strategies based on index sets D_1 , resp. D_2 .

Comparing results of the approximated strategies based on index set D_1 and D_2 , the first-order approximation driven by D_1 seems to be good enough in the context of the toy problem. Therefore, it is used also in the long horizon experiments. To illustrate the power of the newly introduced technique, a game horizon of 200 steps is to be solved. There is no more possible to compare these results of the approximated suboptimal solution with an optimal one. For a basic illustration, results obtained by the "receding horizon" technique are attached. It run with a receding horizon of 5 steps. Both strategies run in 100 repetitions, for the results see Figure 2.

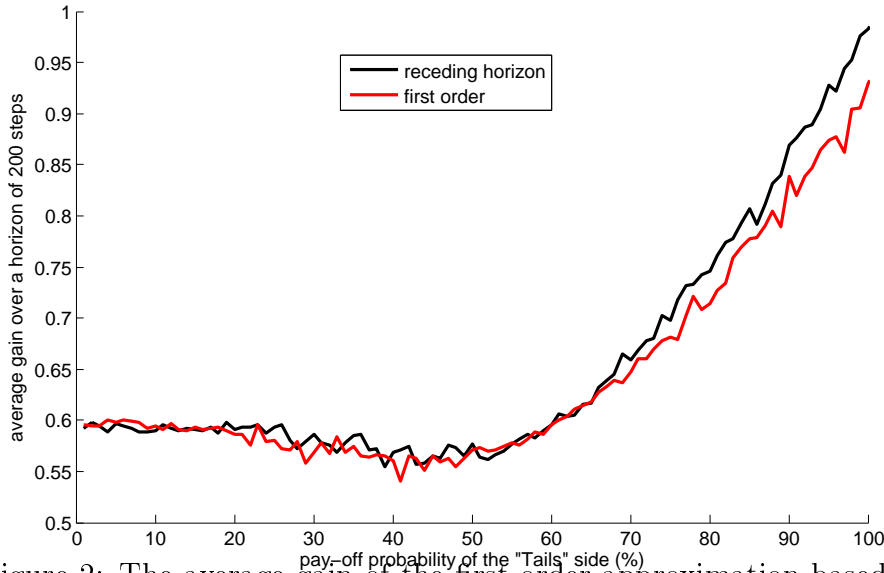


Figure 2: The average gain of the first order approximation based on index set D_1 compared with the average gain obtained from the "receding horizon" approximation.

6 Conclusion

The aim of this work was to cope with infeasible memory demands necessary to represent an optimal decision making strategy. An upper bound of the Bellman function was founded permitting an HDMR approximation easily. To obtain the best possible approximation, the HDMR technique was tuned to work with a general shape of approximation domain. Combining both these approaches, a series of linear systems implicitly determining the approximated quantity appears.

As illustrated in the example of an unknown coin tossing, an agreement of the results produced by the approximated strategy with the optimal results was very good. Extended experiments on more complex systems is needed to confirm these results.

A bottle-neck of this approximation technique is the complicated construction of the central matrices (22). It still needs to pass through the whole solution domain. It could be parallelized easily, but the need for a smarter idea is evident. The most promising variant seems to be a recycling of these matrices into a new step of decision making, i.e., introducing a receding-horizon-like conception with a much longer horizon possible thanks to the use of HDMR approximation. It is a topic of the future.

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