

On Structural Properties of MDPs that Bound Loss due to Shallow Planning

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Abstract

Planning in MDPs often uses a smaller planning horizon than specified in the problem to save computational expense at the risk of a loss due to sub-optimal plans. Jiang *et al.* [2015b] recently showed that smaller than specified planning horizons can in fact be beneficial in cases where the MDP model is learned from data and therefore not accurate. In this paper, we consider planning with *accurate* models and investigate structural properties of MDPs that *bound* the loss incurred by using smaller than specified planning horizons. We identify a number of structural parameters some of which depend on the reward function alone, some on the transition dynamics alone, and some that depend on the interaction between rewards and transition dynamics. We provide planning loss bounds in terms of these structural parameters and, in some cases, also show tightness of the upper bounds. Empirical results with randomly generated MDPs are used to validate qualitative properties of our theoretical bounds for shallow planning.

1 Introduction

Planning in Markov Decision Processes (MDPs) involves a lookahead at the consequences of potential action choices using a computational-model of the transition dynamics and the reward function components of the MDP. The horizon specified as part of the planning problem determines how deep (far into the future) the lookahead has to be. The longer the planning-horizon the greater the computational effort needed to compute an optimal policy. To save on this computational effort, planners often use a smaller than specified planning horizon; hereafter we refer to this as *shallow planning*. Of course, the computation saved by shallow planning comes at the cost of obtaining a policy that is suboptimal relative to the optimal policy. Recent work by Jiang *et al.* [2015b] shows that when planning with *inaccurate* models (perhaps learned from small amounts of data) it can actually be beneficial to use shallow planning because it avoids overfitting to the noise in the inaccurate model. In this paper, we focus exclusively on the setting of planning with *accurate* models with the goal

of understanding what properties of the MDP help determine the loss due to shallow planning.

A widely understood but coarse upper bound (see Equation 2) on the loss due to shallow planning is outlined below; it is based only on the largest reward in the MDP and does not exploit any other finer-grained properties of the MDP. In this paper, we identify a set of structural properties of an MDP some of which depend on the reward function alone, some on the transition dynamics alone, and some that depend on the interaction between rewards and transition dynamics. We provide planning loss bounds in terms of these structural parameters and, in some cases, also show tightness of the upper bounds. Empirical results with randomly generated MDPs are used to validate qualitative properties of our theoretical bounds for shallow planning.

2 Planning Setting & Notation

An MDP is specified as a tuple $M = \langle S, A, P, R, \gamma_{\text{eval}} \rangle$ where S is the state space; A is the action space; $P : S \times A \times S \rightarrow [0, 1]$ is the transition function, and $R : S \times A \rightarrow [0, R_{\text{max}}]$ is the reward function. The evaluation discount factor, $\gamma_{\text{eval}} \in [0, 1)$, determines the effective planning horizon of the problem (more on this below). The planning task is to compute an optimal policy, a mapping from states to actions, that maximizes value, that is the expected sum of future rewards discounted by γ_{eval} at every time step. Given a policy $\pi : S \rightarrow A$, we use $V_{M, \gamma_{\text{eval}}}^{\pi}(s)$ to denote its value as a function of the starting state s (with a slight abuse of notation we will also treat $V_{M, \gamma_{\text{eval}}}^{\pi}$ as a vector in $\mathbb{R}^{|S|}$). Given an MDP, there always exists a policy that simultaneously maximizes the value of all states, and we denote such an optimal policy as $\pi_{M, \gamma_{\text{eval}}}^*$.

Throughout this paper we will use the phrases “discount factor” and “planning horizon” interchangeably, since the infinite sum of rewards discounted by γ_{eval} are approximated by a finite horizon of order $O(1/(1 - \gamma_{\text{eval}}))$ in online planning algorithms such as Monte-carlo Tree Search methods [Kearns *et al.*, 2002]. In practice, to save computational costs a shallow planner would use a discount factor $\gamma < \gamma_{\text{eval}}$ to guide the planning algorithm in its computation/search of a good policy. We emphasize that the ultimate goodness of the policy π found by the shallow planner will still be evaluated in M using γ_{eval} . To facilitate analysis, we ignore details of

specific shallow planning algorithms and instead assume perfect planning under γ , i.e., we assume the shallow planning algorithm outputs $\pi_{M,\gamma}^*$, the policy that is optimal in M for a discount factor γ . We define the **loss** due to shallow planning as the worst (over all states) absolute difference in value of the optimal policy $\pi_{M,\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^*$ and $\pi_{M,\gamma}^*$, i.e.,

$$\left\| V_{M,\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^{\pi_{M,\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^*} - V_{M,\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^{\pi_{M,\gamma}^*} \right\|_{\infty}. \quad (1)$$

Finally, because we only consider planning with accurate models, hereafter we drop explicit dependence on M in all notation (for value functions and policies) unless otherwise specified, for they are all automatically with reference to the true MDP M .

3 Structural Parameters that Bound Loss

Before we turn to our finer-grained parameters that bound loss due to shallow planning, we note here that there is a straightforward bound on loss that comes simply from the largest reward (this has been explicitly given by Petrik & Scherrer [2009]; we derive it in Section 3.2 for completeness):

$$\left\| V_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^{\pi_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^*} - V_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^{\pi_{\gamma}^*} \right\|_{\infty} \leq \frac{\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma}{(1 - \gamma_{\text{eval}})(1 - \gamma)} R_{\text{max}}. \quad (2)$$

This bound ignores the role of transitions in determining value functions, and indeed any other aspect of reward functions but its largest value, and finally any interaction between rewards and transitions.

3.1 Value Function Variation Parameter & Loss

We begin with a summary ‘‘intermediate’’ parameter and a bound on the loss derived from it; later we show how to relate this summary parameter to several high-level properties of an MDP that pertain to rewards, transitions, and their interaction.

Definition 1. $\kappa_{\gamma} = \max_{s,s' \in S} |V_{\gamma}^{\pi_{\gamma}^*}(s) - V_{\gamma}^{\pi_{\gamma}^*}(s')|$,

For (environment M and) discount factor γ the value-function-variation parameter, κ_{γ} , measures the maximal variation in optimal value between any two states, or equivalently how much difference the choice of start state can make on the value an agent can achieve. Note that the quantities in κ_{γ} depend only on γ and not at all on γ_{eval} . Next we use this parameter to bound the loss defined in Equation 1 as follows.

Theorem 1 (Upper-Bound on Loss from κ_{γ}).

$$\left\| V_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^{\pi_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^*} - V_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^{\pi_{\gamma}^*} \right\|_{\infty} \leq \frac{\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma}{1 - \gamma_{\text{eval}}} \kappa_{\gamma}.$$

Proof. First notice that

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma_{\text{eval}}^0 &= \gamma^0, \\ \gamma_{\text{eval}}^1 &= \gamma^1 + (\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma), \\ \gamma_{\text{eval}}^2 &= \gamma^2 + \gamma(\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma) + \gamma_{\text{eval}}(\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma), \\ &\vdots \\ \gamma_{\text{eval}}^k &= \gamma^k + \gamma^{k-1}(\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma) + \dots + \gamma_{\text{eval}}^{k-1}(\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma). \end{aligned}$$

On the right-hand side of the equations, each column of the array forms a geometric series with ratio γ . This means that for any policy π , as we show below, $V_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^{\pi}$ can be written as a linear transformation of V_{γ}^{π} by re-arranging the reward obtained at each step: $\forall s \in S$, let e_s be the unit vector with the element indexed by s equal to 1, we have

$$\begin{aligned} V_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^{\pi}(s) &= e_s^{\top} \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \gamma_{\text{eval}}^{t-1} [P^{\pi}]^{t-1} R^{\pi} \\ &= e_s^{\top} \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \gamma^{t-1} [P^{\pi}]^{t-1} R^{\pi} \\ &\quad + (\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma) e_s^{\top} \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \gamma^{t-1} [P^{\pi}]^t R^{\pi} + \dots \\ &\quad + (\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma) \gamma_{\text{eval}}^{k-1} e_s^{\top} \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \gamma^{t-1} [P^{\pi}]^{t+k-1} R^{\pi} + \dots \\ &= e_s^{\top} V_{\gamma}^{\pi} + (\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma) e_s^{\top} [P^{\pi}] V_{\gamma}^{\pi} + \dots \\ &\quad + (\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma) \gamma_{\text{eval}}^{k-1} e_s^{\top} [P^{\pi}]^k V_{\gamma}^{\pi} + \dots, \end{aligned}$$

where $[P^{\pi}]$ is a $|S| \times |S|$ matrix with the element indexed by (s, s') being $P(s'|s, a)$, and R^{π} is a $|S| \times 1$ vector with the s -th element being $R(s, \pi(s))$. Then, the value difference: $\forall s \in S$,

$$\begin{aligned} &V_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^{\pi_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^*}(s) - V_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^{\pi_{\gamma}^*}(s) \\ &= (e_s^{\top} V_{\gamma}^{\pi_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^*} - e_s^{\top} V_{\gamma}^{\pi_{\gamma}^*}) + \\ &\quad (\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma) (e_s^{\top} [P^{\pi_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^*}] V_{\gamma}^{\pi_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^*} - e_s^{\top} [P^{\pi_{\gamma}^*}] V_{\gamma}^{\pi_{\gamma}^*}) + \dots + \\ &\quad (\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma) \gamma_{\text{eval}}^{k-1} (e_s^{\top} [P^{\pi_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^*}]^k V_{\gamma}^{\pi_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^*} \\ &\quad \quad - e_s^{\top} [P^{\pi_{\gamma}^*}]^k V_{\gamma}^{\pi_{\gamma}^*}) + \dots \quad (3) \\ &\leq (e_s^{\top} V_{\gamma}^{\pi_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^*} - e_s^{\top} V_{\gamma}^{\pi_{\gamma}^*}) + \\ &\quad (\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma) (e_s^{\top} [P^{\pi_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^*}] V_{\gamma}^{\pi_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^*} - e_s^{\top} [P^{\pi_{\gamma}^*}] V_{\gamma}^{\pi_{\gamma}^*}) + \dots + \\ &\quad (\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma) \gamma_{\text{eval}}^{k-1} (e_s^{\top} [P^{\pi_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^*}]^k V_{\gamma}^{\pi_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^*} - e_s^{\top} [P^{\pi_{\gamma}^*}]^k V_{\gamma}^{\pi_{\gamma}^*}) \\ &\quad + \dots \\ &\leq 0 + (\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma) \kappa_{\gamma} + \dots + (\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma) \gamma_{\text{eval}}^{k-1} \kappa_{\gamma} + \dots \\ &= \frac{\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma}{1 - \gamma_{\text{eval}}} \kappa_{\gamma}. \end{aligned}$$

The first inequality above holds by optimality of π_{γ}^* for discount factor γ and the second inequality holds because for any stochastic vectors p, q , we have $|p^{\top} V_{\gamma}^{\pi_{\gamma}^*} - q^{\top} V_{\gamma}^{\pi_{\gamma}^*}| \leq \kappa_{\gamma}$. \square

3.2 Bounding Value Function Variation using other parameters

Here we develop several structural parameters that bound κ_{γ} .

Rewards-Only Parameters

The first rewards-only parameter is simply the largest reward. Proposition 1 below shows how it can be used to bound κ_{γ} (the proof is straightforward and hence omitted) and when this is applied to Theorem 1 we get the known bound on loss due to shallow planning in Equation 2.

Proposition 1. $\kappa_\gamma \leq R_{\max}/(1 - \gamma)$.

The next rewards-only parameter stems from the observation that if we were able to obtain R_{\max} immediate reward in every state, there would be no need to plan ahead. In general, we show that the loss of shallow planning can be bounded by the extent to which this criterion is violated.

Definition 2 (Reward Variation).

$$\Delta_R = \max_{s,s' \in S} |\max_a R(s, a) - \max_{a'} R(s', a')|.$$

Proposition 2. $\kappa_\gamma \leq \Delta_R/(1 - \gamma)$.

Proof. The myopic policy $s \mapsto \operatorname{argmax}_a R(s, a)$ yields at least $\min_s \max_a R(s, a)/(1 - \gamma)$ value from any starting state, which is a lower bound on $V_\gamma^{\pi^*}$. On the other hand, any policy and starting state pair cannot have value more than $\max_{s,a} R(s, a)/(1 - \gamma)$, and the proposition follows by combining the two bounds. \square

Worst case tightness We show that the planning loss bound based on Δ_R by combining Theorem 1 and Proposition 2 is tight in the worst case (and so is Theorem 1 itself, as a direct corollary).

Claim 1. For any $\Delta_R \in [0, R_{\max}]$, $\gamma \in [0, 1 - \Delta_R/R_{\max}]$, $\gamma_{\text{eval}} \in [\gamma, 1)$, there exists an MDP M with reward variation Δ_R , and the loss incurred by using γ is equal to the bound given by Theorem 1 and Proposition 2.

Corollary 1. For any $\kappa_\gamma \in [0, R_{\max}]$, $\gamma \in [0, 1)$, $\gamma_{\text{eval}} \in [\gamma, 1)$, there exists an MDP with value function variation κ_γ and the loss incurred by using γ is equal to the bound given by Theorem 1.

Proof of Claim 1. Consider the 2-state MDP shown in Figure 1a: state s_2 is absorbing with reward R_{\max} ; state s_1 has two actions, with a_1 keeping the agent in state s_1 and giving reward $R(s_1, a_1) = r$, and a_2 transitioning to s_2 with reward $R(s_1, a_2) = (r - \gamma R_{\max})/(1 - \gamma)$. It is easy to verify that $R(s_1, a_2) \leq R(s_1, a_1)$, hence $\Delta_R = R_{\max} - r$. The MDP is designed so that $\pi_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^*(s_1) = a_2$ and $\pi_\gamma^*(s_1) = a_1$, and so the loss at state s_1 of using γ is $\frac{(R_{\max} - r)(\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma)}{(1 - \gamma)(1 - \gamma_{\text{eval}})}$, which is exactly equal to the bound since $\frac{R_{\max} - r}{1 - \gamma} = \Delta_R/(1 - \gamma) = \kappa_\gamma$. \square

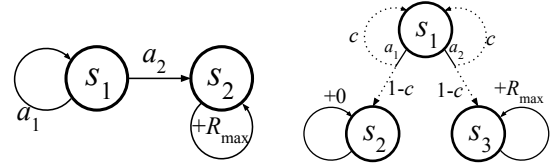
Transitions-Only Parameters

By using structure in the transition probabilities we can get tighter bounds on κ_γ . The next parameter, ϵ -mixing time, is motivated by the fact that if the MDP mixes fast under a policy π , then the value function of π has small variation over the state space. When $\pi = \pi_\gamma^*$, the parameter yields a bound on κ_γ (explicitly stated in Corollary 2). For ease of technical presentation we will assume that the Markov Chain induced by all policies we consider is ergodic (i.e., under any policy, it is possible to reach any state from any other state).

Definition 3 (ϵ -mixing time). Define the ϵ -mixing time for policy π as

$$T_\pi(\epsilon) = \inf \{T : \forall s \in S, t \geq T, \|e_s^\top [P^\pi]^t - (\rho^\pi)^\top\|_1 \leq \epsilon\}$$

where ρ^π is the limiting distribution independent of the starting state.



(a) Worst-case MDP for proving Claim 1 (b) Worst-case MDP for proving Claim 2

Figure 1: MDPs constructed to prove Claim 1 and 2. In both cases, a_1 is optimal under γ and a_2 is optimal under γ_{eval} .

(a) $R(s_1, a_1) = R_{\max} - \Delta_R$ and $R(s_1, a_2) = R_{\max} - \Delta_R/(1 - \gamma)$. (b) Dotted arrows represent stochastic transitions, and $c = 1 - \delta_P/2$. $R(s_1, a_1) = 0$ and $R(s_1, a_2) = \gamma \delta_P R_{\max}/2(1 - \gamma)$.

Proposition 3. For policy π ,

$$\max_{s,s' \in S} |V_\gamma^\pi(s) - V_\gamma^\pi(s')| \leq \frac{R_{\max}}{1 - \gamma} (1 - \gamma^{T_\pi(\epsilon)} + \epsilon \gamma^{T_\pi(\epsilon)}).$$

Corollary 2. $\kappa_\gamma \leq R_{\max} (1 - \gamma^{T_\pi(\epsilon)} + \epsilon \gamma^{T_\pi(\epsilon)}) / (1 - \gamma)$.

To prove Proposition 3, we first prove the following lemma, which is widely used in the MDP approximation literature.

Lemma 1. Given stochastic vectors $p, q \in \mathbb{R}^{|S|}$, and a real vector V with the same dimension,

$$|p^\top V - q^\top V| \leq \|p - q\|_1 \max_{s,s'} |V(s) - V(s')|/2.$$

Proof. Let $c = (\max_s V(s) + \min_s V(s))/2$, and $\mathbf{1}$ be the $|S| \times 1$ all-1 vector,

$$\begin{aligned} |p^\top V - q^\top V| &= |p^\top (V - c\mathbf{1}) - q^\top (V - c\mathbf{1})| \\ &\leq \|p - q\|_1 \|V - c\mathbf{1}\|_\infty \text{(H\"older's inequality)} \\ &= \|p - q\|_1 \max_{s,s'} |V(s) - V(s')|/2. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Proof of Proposition 3. We reduce Proposition 3 to Proposition 5 (presented below): if π has ϵ -mixing time $T_\pi(\epsilon)$ w.r.t. ρ^π , we have for any $t \geq T_\pi(\epsilon)$, $s \in S$,

$$\begin{aligned} |e_s^\top [P^\pi]^t R^\pi - \eta^\pi| &= |e_s^\top [P^\pi]^t R^\pi - (\rho^\pi)^\top R^\pi| \\ &\leq \|e_s^\top [P^\pi]^t - (\rho^\pi)^\top\|_1 R_{\max}/2 = \epsilon R_{\max}/2. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $T_\pi(\epsilon)$ is also an $(\epsilon R_{\max}/2)$ -return mixing time for π , and applying Proposition 5 the result follows. \square

The next transition-only parameter is the stochastic diameter T_M , the longest expected time to travel from one state to another. If this parameter is small, $V_\gamma^{\pi^*}$ must have a small variation, otherwise we could improve the value of low-valued states by a non-stationary policy that travels to a high-valued state first and executes the optimal policy afterwards.

Definition 4 (Stochastic diameter).

$$T_M = \max_{s,s' \in S} \min_{\pi: S \rightarrow A} \mathbb{E} \{ \inf \{t \in \mathbb{N} : s_t = s'\} \mid s_0 = s, \pi \}.$$

Proposition 4. $\kappa_\gamma \leq \frac{1 - \gamma^{T_M}}{1 - \gamma} R_{\max}$.

Proof. It suffices to show that for any $s, s' \in S$, $V_{\gamma}^{\pi^*}(s') - V_{\gamma}^{\pi^*}(s) \leq \frac{1-\gamma^{T_M}}{1-\gamma} R_{\max}$. Since π^* is optimal under γ , we can lower bound $V_{\gamma}^{\pi^*}(s)$ by the value obtained by starting at s and following any policy. In particular, consider a non-stationary policy that first travels to s' by executing the policy that achieves the minimum in the definition of T_M , and then switch to π^* . Suppose it takes t steps to get to s' (t is a random variable), then the non-stationary policy gives at least $\gamma^t V_{\gamma}^{\pi^*}(s')$ value, and

$$\begin{aligned} V_{\gamma}^{\pi^*}(s) &\geq \mathbb{E}\{\gamma^t V_{\gamma}^{\pi^*}(s')\} = \mathbb{E}\{\gamma^t\} V_{\gamma}^{\pi^*}(s') \\ &\geq \gamma^{\mathbb{E}[t]} V_{\gamma}^{\pi^*}(s') \quad (f(x) = \gamma^x \text{ is convex}) \\ &\geq \gamma^{T_M} V_{\gamma}^{\pi^*}(s') \geq V_{\gamma}^{\pi^*}(s') - \frac{1-\gamma^{T_M}}{1-\gamma} R_{\max}. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Transitions-and-Rewards Parameters

Thus far, we have provided parameters of rewards alone and transitions alone. Here we consider a parameter that captures the interaction between rewards and transitions, the ϵ -return mixing time, which measures mixing via the closeness of the expected reward obtained after a particular time step and that obtained in the long run.¹

Definition 5 (ϵ -return mixing time).

$$T_{\pi}^v(\epsilon) = \inf \{T : \forall t \geq T, \|[P^{\pi}]^t R^{\pi} - \eta^{\pi} \mathbf{1}\|_{\infty} \leq \epsilon\},$$

where scalar η^{π} is the average reward per step of policy π .

Proposition 5.

$$\max_{s, s' \in S} |V_{\gamma}^{\pi}(s) - V_{\gamma}^{\pi}(s')| \leq \frac{R_{\max}(1 - \gamma^{T_{\pi}^v(\epsilon)}) + 2\epsilon\gamma^{T_{\pi}^v(\epsilon)}}{1 - \gamma}.$$

Corollary 3. $\kappa_{\gamma} \leq (R_{\max}(1 - \gamma^{T_{\pi^*}^v(\epsilon)}) + 2\epsilon\gamma^{T_{\pi^*}^v(\epsilon)}) / (1 - \gamma)$.

Proof of Proposition 5. Let $\bar{V}_{\gamma}^{\pi} = V_{\gamma}^{\pi} - \frac{\gamma^{T_{\pi}^v(\epsilon)}}{1-\gamma} \eta^{\pi} \mathbf{1}$, which is the value function offset by a state-independent constant. For any $s, s' \in S$, $V_{\gamma}^{\pi}(s) - V_{\gamma}^{\pi}(s') = \bar{V}_{\gamma}^{\pi}(s) - \bar{V}_{\gamma}^{\pi}(s')$, and \bar{V}_{γ}^{π} is equal to

$$\begin{aligned} &\sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \gamma^{t-1} [P^{\pi}]^{t-1} R^{\pi} - \frac{\gamma^{T_{\pi}^v(\epsilon)}}{1-\gamma} \eta^{\pi} \mathbf{1} \\ &= \sum_{t=1}^{T_{\pi}^v(\epsilon)} \gamma^{t-1} [P^{\pi}]^{t-1} R^{\pi} + \sum_{t=T_{\pi}^v(\epsilon)+1}^{\infty} \gamma^{t-1} [P^{\pi}]^{t-1} R^{\pi} \\ &\quad - \frac{\gamma^{T_{\pi}^v(\epsilon)}}{1-\gamma} \eta^{\pi} \mathbf{1} = \sum_{t=1}^{T_{\pi}^v(\epsilon)} \gamma^{t-1} [P^{\pi}]^{t-1} R^{\pi} \\ &\quad + \sum_{t=T_{\pi}^v(\epsilon)+1}^{\infty} \gamma^{t-1} ([P^{\pi}]^{t-1} R^{\pi} - \eta^{\pi} \mathbf{1}). \end{aligned}$$

¹This definition is slightly adapted from Kearns & Singh [2002], who considered the *average* reward obtained in first T time steps.

We now have,

$$\begin{aligned} &\bar{V}_{\gamma}^{\pi}(s) - \bar{V}_{\gamma}^{\pi}(s') \\ &\leq \sum_{t=1}^{T_{\pi}^v(\epsilon)} \gamma^{t-1} (e_s - e_{s'})^{\top} [P^{\pi}]^{t-1} R^{\pi} \\ &\quad + 2 \cdot \left\| \sum_{t=T_{\pi}^v(\epsilon)+1}^{\infty} \gamma^{t-1} ([P^{\pi}]^{t-1} R^{\pi} - \eta^{\pi} \mathbf{1}) \right\|_{\infty} \\ &\leq \frac{1 - \gamma^{T_{\pi}^v(\epsilon)}}{1 - \gamma} R_{\max} + 2 \sum_{t=T_{\pi}^v(\epsilon)+1}^{\infty} \gamma^{t-1} \epsilon \\ &= \frac{R_{\max}(1 - \gamma^{T_{\pi}^v(\epsilon)}) + 2\epsilon\gamma^{T_{\pi}^v(\epsilon)}}{1 - \gamma}. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

4 Action Variation

In the preceding section, we looked at structural parameters of the MDP that bound the loss due to shallow planning, all via an intermediate quantity κ_{γ} that characterizes the value function variation. Yet, there are MDPs with large κ_{γ} that still have a small loss. While covering all such cases is outside the scope of this paper, we cover one such class of MDPs. Namely, those MDPs where different actions at the same state have almost identical distributions over next-states; no deep planning is needed in these MDPs as they are essentially contextual bandits (with Markovian, not i.i.d., contexts). We introduce the notion of Action Variation to capture this idea, and provide an associated loss bound which subsumes Theorem 1.

Definition 6 (Action Variation).

$$\delta_P = \max_{s \in S} \max_{a, a' \in A} \|P(\cdot|s, a) - P(\cdot|s, a')\|_1.$$

Theorem 2.

$$\left\| V_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^{\pi^*} - V_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^{\pi^*} \right\|_{\infty} \leq \frac{\delta_P/2 \cdot \kappa_{\gamma}(\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma)}{(1 - \gamma_{\text{eval}})(1 - \gamma_{\text{eval}}(1 - \delta_P/2))}.$$

Theorem 2 is a planning loss bound that depends on both δ_P and κ_{γ} ; the bound monotonically increases with δ_P and reduces to Theorem 1 when δ_P takes the maximal value 2.

To prove the theorem, we first define the *commonality* between two probability distributions, and state a key lemma w.r.t. this quantity. Note that commonality appears in the mixing time literature for Markov chains in linking the notions of total variation and coupling [Levin *et al.*, 2009, Section 4.2].

Definition 7. Given two vectors p, q of the same dimension, define $\text{comm}(p, q)$ as the commonality vector of p and q , whose s -th element is $\text{comm}(s; p, q) = \min\{p(s), q(s)\}$.

Fact 1. When p and q are stochastic vectors, $\|\text{comm}(p, q)\|_1 = 1 - \|p - q\|_1/2$.

Lemma 2. Suppose p and q are stochastic vectors over S , $\forall \pi_1, \pi_2 : S \rightarrow A$,

$$\|\text{comm}(p^{\top} P^{\pi_1}, q^{\top} P^{\pi_2})\|_1 \geq (1 - \delta_P/2) \|\text{comm}(p, q)\|_1.$$

Proof of Lemma 2. Let $P^\pi(s|\cdot)$ be a column vector of transition probabilities from each state to s under policy π , then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{comm}(s; p^\top P^{\pi_1}, q^\top P^{\pi_2}) &= \min\{p^\top P^{\pi_1}(s|\cdot), q^\top P^{\pi_2}(s|\cdot)\} \\ &\geq \min\{\text{comm}(q, p)^\top P^{\pi_1}(s|\cdot), \text{comm}(q, p)^\top P^{\pi_2}(s|\cdot)\} \\ &= \text{comm}(s; \text{comm}(p, q)^\top P^{\pi_1}, \text{comm}(p, q)^\top P^{\pi_2}). \end{aligned}$$

Define z as $\text{comm}(p, q)$ normalized so that $\|z\|_1 = 1$, then

$$\begin{aligned} &\|\text{comm}(p^\top P^{\pi_1}, q^\top P^{\pi_2})\|_1 \\ &\geq \|\text{comm}(\text{comm}(p, q)^\top P^{\pi_1}, \text{comm}(p, q)^\top P^{\pi_2})\|_1 \\ &= \|\text{comm}(p, q)\|_1 \|\text{comm}(z^\top P^{\pi_1}, z^\top P^{\pi_2})\|_1 \\ &= \|\text{comm}(p, q)\|_1 (1 - \|z^\top (P^{\pi_1} - P^{\pi_2})\|_1/2) \quad (\text{Fact 1}) \\ &\geq \|\text{comm}(p, q)\|_1 (1 - \delta_P/2). \end{aligned}$$

The last step uses the fact that $\|\cdot\|_1$ is a convex function, and each row of $P^{\pi_1} - P^{\pi_2}$ has ℓ_1 -norm bounded by δ_P . \square

Corollary 4. For any $s \in S$, $\pi_1, \pi_2 : S \rightarrow A$, $k \in \mathbb{N}$, $\|e_s^\top [P^{\pi_1}]^k - e_s^\top [P^{\pi_2}]^k\|_1 \leq 2 - 2(1 - \delta_P/2)^k$.

Proof. Using Fact 1, the LHS is

$$\begin{aligned} &2 - 2 \|\text{comm}(e_s^\top [P^{\pi_1}]^k, e_s^\top [P^{\pi_2}]^k)\|_1 \\ &\leq 2 - 2(1 - \delta_P/2) \|\text{comm}(e_s^\top [P^{\pi_1}]^{k-1}, e_s^\top [P^{\pi_2}]^{k-1})\|_1 \\ &\leq \dots \leq 2 - 2(1 - \delta_P/2)^k. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Proof of Theorem 2. The proof follows from the proof for Theorem 1 up to Equation 3. The k -th term in the summation is (ignoring a factor of $(\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma)\gamma_{\text{eval}}^{k-1}$ for the moment):

$$\begin{aligned} &(e_s^\top [P^{\pi_{\text{eval}}}^*]^k V_\gamma^{\pi_{\text{eval}}} - e_s^\top [P^{\pi_\gamma}^*]^k V_\gamma^{\pi_\gamma}) \\ &\leq \left\| e_s^\top [P^{\pi_{\text{eval}}}^*]^k - e_s^\top [P^{\pi_\gamma}^*]^k \right\|_1 \kappa_\gamma/2 \quad (\text{Lemma 1}) \\ &\leq (2 - 2(1 - \delta_P/2)^k) \kappa_\gamma/2. \quad (\text{Corollary 4}) \end{aligned}$$

Summing over $k = 1, 2, \dots$, we have the loss bounded by

$$\begin{aligned} &\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma) \gamma_{\text{eval}}^{k-1} (1 - (1 - \delta_P/2)^k) \kappa_\gamma \\ &= \frac{\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma}{1 - \gamma_{\text{eval}}} \kappa_\gamma - \frac{(\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma)(1 - \delta_P/2)}{1 - \gamma_{\text{eval}}(1 - \delta_P/2)} \kappa_\gamma, \end{aligned}$$

which is the RHS of the bound after simplification. \square

Worst case tightness We show that Theorem 2 is tight in the worst case, as we did for Proposition 2.

Claim 2. For any $\delta_P \in [0, 2]$, $\gamma \in [0, 1/(1 + \delta_P/2)]$, $\gamma_{\text{eval}} \in [\gamma, 1)$, there exists an MDP M with Action Variation equal to δ_P and a planning loss of using γ equal to the bound given in Theorem 2.

Proof. We construct the following 3-state MDP (see Figure 1b): s_2 and s_3 are absorbing with rewards R_{max} and 0 respectively; consequently $\kappa_\gamma = R_{\text{max}}/(1 - \gamma)$. For s_1 , there are two actions a_1 and a_2 , with reward and transition rules as follows: given a real number $c \in [0, 1]$ to be set later, we set $R(s_1, a_1) = 0$, $R(s_1, a_2) = \gamma(1 - c)R_{\text{max}}/(1 - \gamma)$, and $P(s_1|s_1, a_1) = P(s_1|s_1, a_2) = c$, $P(s_2|s_1, a_1) = P(s_3|s_1, a_2) = 1 - c$. In this MDP, we have $\delta_P = 2 - 2c$,

so we can manipulate δ_P by setting $c = 1 - \delta_P/2$; also, both actions in s_1 are equally good under γ but $\pi_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^*(s_1) = a_1$, and the loss of choosing a_2 is

$$\begin{aligned} &\frac{\gamma_{\text{eval}}(1 - c)R_{\text{max}}}{(1 - \gamma_{\text{eval}})(1 - c\gamma_{\text{eval}})} - \frac{\gamma(1 - c)R_{\text{max}}}{(1 - \gamma)(1 - c\gamma_{\text{eval}})} \\ &= \frac{(1 - c)(\gamma_{\text{eval}} - \gamma)R_{\text{max}}}{(1 - \gamma_{\text{eval}})(1 - \gamma_{\text{eval}}c)(1 - \gamma)}, \end{aligned}$$

which equals the RHS of the bound as $c = 1 - \delta_P/2$ and $\frac{R_{\text{max}}}{1 - \gamma} = \kappa_\gamma$. \square

5 Empirical Illustrations

Our theoretical results translate various structural properties of an MDP onto a smooth upper-bound on the loss due to shallow planning. But what does the actual loss look like in any particular MDP? We know that the loss curve as a function of γ should be piecewise constant. This is because as we lower γ from γ_{eval} towards zero, there will be discrete points at which the optimal policy with respect to γ changes, partitioning the discount-factor interval and yielding a piecewise constant loss curve. This behavior of the loss curve is consistent with Blackwell optimality [Hordijk and Yushkevich, 2002], which asserts that at the extreme end near $\gamma = 1$ the loss curve is constant with value 0. This is seen in the 4 panels of Figure 2 where we plot the loss as a function of γ (see caption for additional details; we describe how the specific MDPs were generated below). What is perhaps interesting is that the loss curves are not always non-decreasing with increasing γ . The loss-curve in the bottom-right panel is clearly non-monotonic. The graph on the right of Figure 2 shows a simple MDP where it is easy to see how the loss can be non-monotonic as a function of γ . Thus, loss-curves as a function of γ in any specific MDP can be complex and hard to predict using only high-level structural properties.

A useful way to illustrate the empirical validity of our monotonic theoretical results is to consider ‘‘average’’ loss curves by sampling MDPs from some distribution. Intuitively averaging multiple piecewise constant loss curves from perturbed MDPs should yield smooth loss curves (this is a form of smoothed analysis [Spielman and Teng, 2009]). Specifically, the results presented below will be of the following form. We will sample MDPs from multiple different generative-distributions defined in Section 5.1. Using procedures defined in Section 5.2, for each random MDP, we will compute the empirical value of the loss and the structural properties defined in Section 3.2 and 4. Then to show that the structural properties matter, we group their values into quantiles and plot an average loss curve for each quantile by averaging the loss curves over the MDPs that fall into that quantile. As we discuss below, we get the qualitative phenomenon expected from our theoretical results.

5.1 Domains Specification

We consider random MDPs with N states and 2 actions, generated according to the following schemes.

1. Random topologies: Each state-action pair is randomly assigned d possible next-states, where d is chosen according to one of the following:

fixed(N, d): d is a fixed number.
binom(N, p): d is binomially distributed as $B(N, p)$.

2. Ring topology ring(N, p): the N states form a ring. Upon taking action 1 at a state, the agent either stays at the same place or moves to the next state in clockwise order; the same for action 2 except that the agent moves in a counter-clockwise order. In addition, for each (s, a, s') where s is not next to s' , with probability p we add s' as a next-state for (s, a) .

Once the connectivity-structure of an MDP is determined as above, we fill the non-zero entries in the transition probabilities and the rewards with numbers drawn independently from $U[0, 1]$ and normalize the transition probabilities.

5.2 Computing Structural Parameters

We compute the quantities that our theoretical results refer to for every random MDP that we generate. Below is the list of quantities and how we compute them in practice:

1. **Relative loss:**

$$\max_{s \in S} \left(V_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^{\pi^*_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}}(s) - V_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^{\pi^*_{\gamma}}(s) \right) / V_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}^{\pi^*_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}}(s).$$

This is the empirical version of Equation 1, with a normalized magnitude between $[0, 1]$.

2. Reward variation: we use $\Delta_R / \max_{s,a} R(s, a)$ as the empirical version of Δ_R .
3. ϵ -mixing time: we compute $T_{\pi}(\epsilon)$ by its definition in Proposition 3 with $\epsilon = 0.01, \pi = \pi^*_{\gamma_{\text{eval}}}$. An implementation detail is that, we only search 50 steps for $T_{\pi}(\epsilon)$ instead of checking an infinite number of steps, which is sufficient for the MDP distributions we consider in this paper. Formally, the empirical version of $T_{\pi}(\epsilon)$ is $\inf \{ T \leq 50 : \forall s \in S, T \leq t \leq 50, \|e_s^{\top} [P^{\pi}]^t - (\rho^{\pi})^{\top}\|_1 \leq \epsilon \}$.
4. Stochastic diameter: to avoid the difficulty of calculating the stochastic distance between every pair of (s, s') , we compute its approximation by solving for the optimal value of an MDP $M_{s'}$ for each s' instead: $M_{s'}$ has the same transition function as M except that s' goes to an additional absorbing state s'' ; there is +1 reward when transitioning into s'' , and 0 everywhere else. Our empirical version of T_M is then $\max_{s,s'} \log_{\gamma} V_{M_{s'}, \gamma}^{\pi^*_{M_{s'}, \gamma}}(s)$ with $\gamma = 0.9999$ (in fact, as γ tends to 1, this is equal to T_M in the limit under mild conditions).
5. ϵ -return mixing time: same as ϵ -mixing time ($\epsilon = 0.01$, checking for 50 steps).
6. Action Variation: we first compute for each $s \in S$ $\max_{a,a' \in A} \|P(\cdot|s, a) - P(\cdot|s, a')\|_1$ in the definition of δ_P . Instead of taking max over all s , we take the average to be our empirical version of δ_P .

5.3 Results

We present results for each of the following MDP distributions: fixed(10, 3), binom(10, 0.3), and ring(10, 0.125). For each of the 5 structural parameters we have identified, we divide the 10^5 MDPs sampled

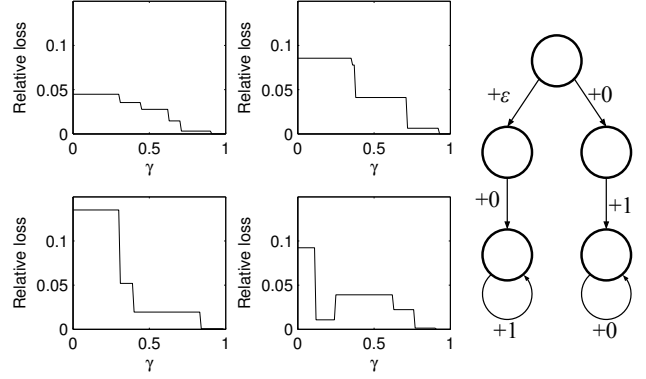


Figure 2: **Left:** relative loss as a function of γ for 4 MDPs drawn from fixed(10, 3). In the lower right graph, loss is not a monotonic function of γ . While this may be surprising, it is actually easy to construct a simple MDP where this is true (see right). **Right:** a small MDP where planning loss is non-monotonic in γ when γ_{eval} is close to 1; all transitions are deterministic and the numbers on the edges represent rewards; ϵ is a small number close to 0. The left action is optimal for γ_{eval} close to 1, and is taken when $\gamma = 0$; when $\gamma = 2\epsilon$, however, the agent will take the right action. Thus, the agent incurs 0 loss when $\gamma = 0$ and $\gamma = \gamma_{\text{eval}}$, and a positive loss when $\gamma = 2\epsilon$.

from each distribution into 3 quantiles, and plot the relative loss averaged over each quantile of MDPs in Figure 3, where rows correspond to MDP distributions and columns correspond to identified parameters. Throughout the experiments we use $\gamma_{\text{eval}} = 0.995$ and $\gamma = 0, 0.01, \dots, 0.99$.

As seen in Figure 3, although the loss for individual MDPs are piecewise constant curves and can have complicated shapes (see Figure 2), when averaged over a distribution over MDPs we get smooth loss curves monotonically decreasing with γ . Secondly, for each parameter, the loss curves for different quantiles are separated and exhibit the order predicted by our theoretical results (except in a few cases where the separation is not significant): all our bounds are monotonically increasing with the parameters, and in the results we see the loss curves corresponding to higher quantiles stay above those for lower quantiles, which validates our theoretical results.

6 Related Work

The simple bound obtained by combining Theorem 1 and Proposition 1 is very similar to that given by Kearns *et al.* [2002] where a discrete horizon is used instead of a continuous discount factor, and similar results have been implied in the convergence of value iteration [Sutton and Barto, 1998]. When planning with an inaccurate model under the problem specified horizon, the dependence of loss on planning horizon is well understood, especially when the model inaccuracy is due to statistical estimation errors [Mannor *et al.*, 2007; Maillard *et al.*, 2014] or approximation errors due to the use of function approximators [Ravindran and Barto, 2004; Taylor *et al.*, 2009; Farahmand *et al.*, 2010], or the combina-

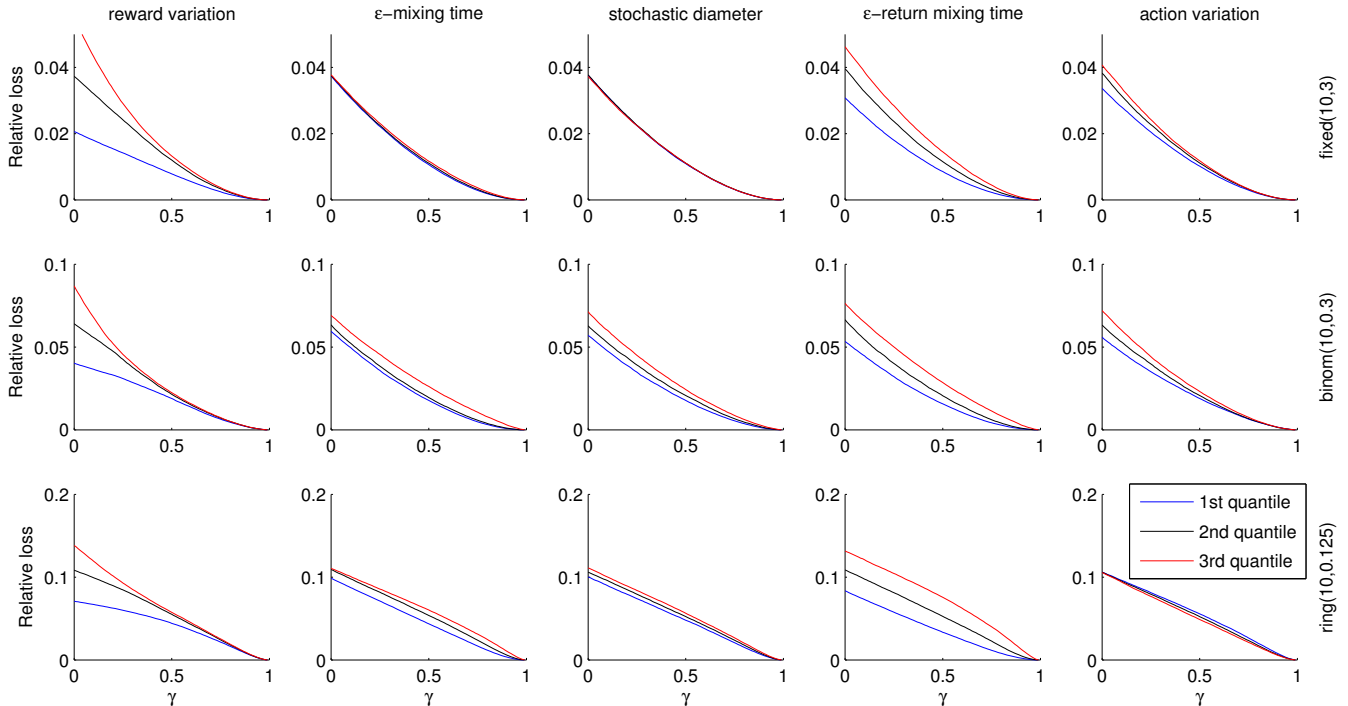


Figure 3: Results on random MDPs. Each figure displays the relative loss as a function of γ , averaged over a particular distribution of MDPs (see distribution names at the right end and their descriptions in Section 5.1) in different quantiles partitioned according to a particular parameter (see parameter names at the top and their descriptions in Section 5.2). The loss curves are all well separated with the expected order, except for ϵ -mixing time and stochastic diameter with `fixed(10, 3)`, and action variation with `ring(10, 0.125)`.

tion of the two [Paduraru *et al.*, 2008; Jiang *et al.*, 2015a].

The papers mentioned above do not address the setting where $\gamma < \gamma_{\text{eval}}$, and as far as we know, Petrik & Scherrer [2009] were the first to examine this setting in the particular scenario where approximation schemes are deployed in dynamic programming. More recently, Jiang *et al.* [2015b] studied the impact of $\gamma < \gamma_{\text{eval}}$ in another important scenario where there exists statistical estimation error in the model. In both these papers, the focus is on how the (negative) impact of model error grows as γ increases; to obtain the best policy via planning, such an impact has to be traded-off with the loss incurred by using γ when planning with a perfect model. Characterizing such a loss using structural properties of the MDP is exactly the topic of our paper, and we believe our study complements that of Petrik & Scherrer and Jiang *et al.*, and provides a more complete picture of planning with smaller than specified horizons.

The structural parameters identified in this paper are inspired by some existing work: the notion of mixing times is often used in average time reward MDPs, e.g., [Kearns and Singh, 2002; Brafman and Tennenholtz, 2003], and a term similar to our definition of stochastic diameter is defined by Tewari and Bartlett [2008]. As far as we know, the other two parameters (reward variation and action variation), as well as the application of all of these parameters to bounding planning loss of shallow planning, are novel.

7 Conclusions

In this paper we presented multiple structural properties of MDPs that upper-bound the loss due to shallow planning with accurate models. Empirical results validated the role of these properties using a form of smoothed analysis.

Our theoretical results are also relevant to the setting of planning with inaccurate models learned from data as follows. As shown in Jiang *et al.* [2015b] an upper bound on the loss due to shallow planning with inaccurate models can be decomposed into two terms, an estimation error term that captures the loss due to the limited amount of data used to learn the model, and an approximation error term that captures the loss due to shallow planning. Our theoretical results can be viewed as providing structural parameters that affect the approximation error term.

Finally, our work provides the theoretical foundation for developing MDP planning algorithms that automatically choose an appropriate horizon. In fact, direct corollaries of our theory already offer some guidance on how to make such a choice: for example, if we have planned with a relatively small γ , the variation of the resulting value function (which is κ_γ) provides a loss bound via Theorem 2. If the loss is affordable, we can choose not to re-plan with a larger γ in order to save computation. There is more work to be done towards a practical algorithm, and we leave this possibility for future exploration.

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