Lecture outline

■ What is a policy?

- Policy function approximations (PFAs)
- Cost function approximations (CFAs)
- Value function approximations (VFAs)
- Lookahead policies
- Finding good policies
- Optimizing continuous parameters

- Last time, we saw a few examples of "policies"
 - » Searching over a graph
 - » Learning when to sell an asset
- A policy is any rule/function that maps a state to an action.
 - » This is *the* reason why a state must be all the information you need to make a decision (now or in the future).
- Policies come in many forms, but these can be organized into major groups:
 - » Policy function approximations (PFAs)
 - » Policies based on cost function approximations (CFAs)
 - » Policies based on value function approximations (VFAs)
 - » Lookahead policies

1) Policy function approximations (PFAs)

- » Lookup table
 - Recharge the battery between 2am and 6am each morning, and discharge as needed.
- » Parameterized functions
 - Recharge the battery when the price is below θ^{charge} and discharge when the price is above $\theta^{\text{discharge}}$
- » Regression models

 $X^{PFA}(S_t \mid \theta) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 S_t + \theta_2 \left(S_t\right)^2$

» Neural networks S_t S_t $S_$

2) Cost function approximations (CFAs)

» Take the action that maximizes contribution (or minimizes cost) for just the current time period:

 $X^{M}(S_{t}) = \operatorname{arg\,max}_{x_{t}} C(S_{t}, x_{t})$

- » We can parameterize myopic policies with bonus and penalties to encourage good long-term behavior.
- » We may use a *cost function approximation:*

$$X^{CFA}(S_t \mid \theta) = \arg \max_{x_t} \overline{C}^{\pi}(S_t, x_t \mid \theta)$$

The cost function approximation $\overline{C}^{\pi}(S_t, x_t | \theta)$ may be designed to produce better long-run behaviors.

3) Value function approximations (VFAS)

» Using the exact value function

$$X_{t}^{VFA}(S_{t}) = \arg \max_{x_{t}} \left(C(S_{t}, x_{t}) + \gamma V_{t+1}(S_{t+1}) \right)$$

This is how we solved the budgeting problem earlier.

- » Or by approximating the value function in some way: $X_{t}^{VFA}(S_{t}) = \arg \max_{x_{t}} \left(C(S_{t}, x_{t}) + \gamma E \overline{V}_{t+1}(S_{t+1}) \right)$
- » This is what most people associate with "approximate dynamic programming" or "reinforcement learning"

■ Four fundamental classes of policies:

- » 4) Lookahead policies
 - Plan over the next T periods, but implement only the action it tells you to do now.

$$X^{M}(S_{t}) = \arg \max_{x_{t}, x_{t+1}, \dots, x_{t+T}} \sum_{t'=t}^{T} C(S_{t'}, x_{t'})$$

• This strategy assumes that we forecast a perfect future, and solve the resulting deterministic optimization problem. There are more advanced strategies that explicitly model uncertainty in the future, but this is for advanced research groups.

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Lookup tables

- » When in discrete state S, take discrete action a (or x).
- » These are popular with
 - Playing games (black jack, backgammon, Connect 4, ..)
 - Routing over graphs
 - ... many others
- » Black jack
 - State is cards that you are holding
 - Actions
 - Double down?
 - Take a card/hold
 - Let $A^{\pi}(S_t)$ be a proposed action for each state. This represents a policy. Fix the policy, and play the game many times.
 - Estimate the probability of winning from each state while following this "policy"

Policy function approximation:

- » Parametric functions
 - Example 1 Our pricing problem.
 - Sell if the price exceeds a smoothed estimate by a specific margin

$$X^{\pi}(S_t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p_t > \overline{p}_t + \beta \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

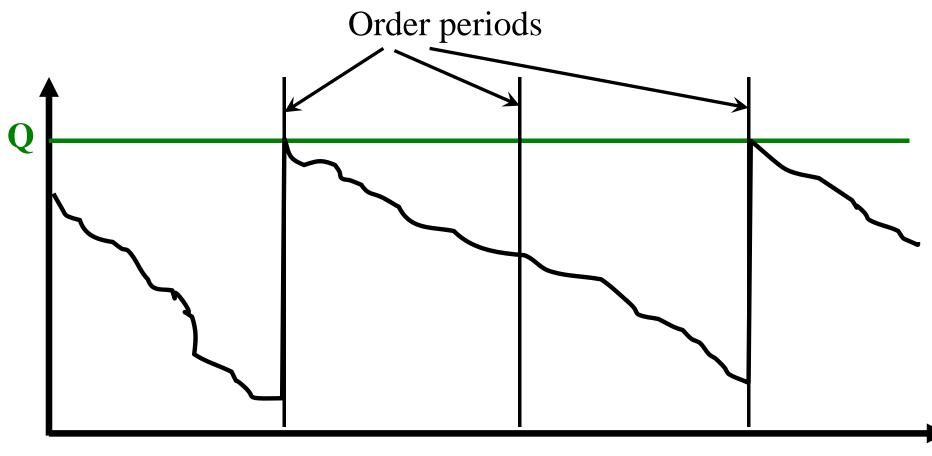
- We have to choose a parameter β that determines how much the price has risen over the long run average
- Example 2 Inventory ordering policies

$$X^{\pi}(S_t) = \begin{cases} Q - S_t & \text{If } S_t < q \\ 0 & \text{Otherwise} \end{cases}$$

– Need to determine (Q,q)

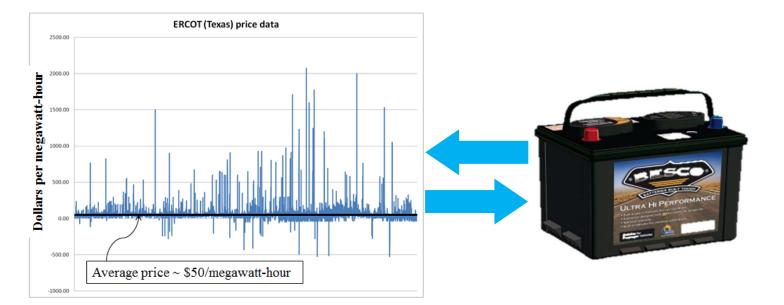
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In the presence of fixed order costs and under certain conditions (recall EOQ derivation), an optimal policy is to "order up to" a limit Q:

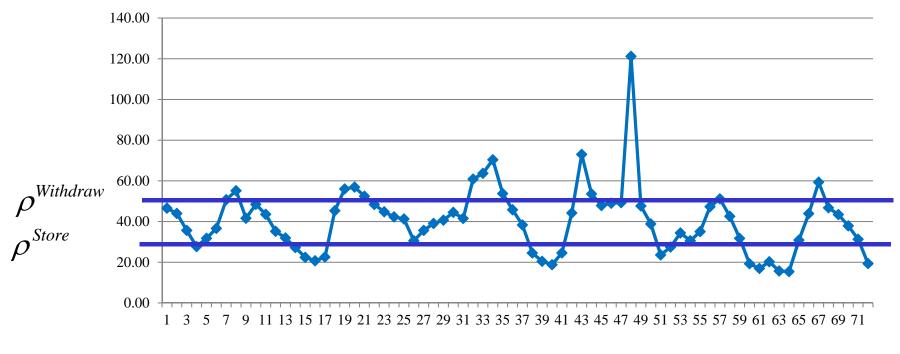


Optimizing a policy for battery arbitrage





We had to design a *simple*, *implementable* policy that did not cheat!



• We need to search for the best values of the parameters ρ^{Store} and $\rho^{Withdraw}$.

Lecture outline

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Myopic policy

- Let C(s, x) be the cost of being in state s and taking action x.
 For example, this could be the cost of traversing link (i, j), we would choose the link with the lowest cost.
- » In more complex situations, this means minimizing costs in one day, or month or year, ignoring the impact of decisions now on the future.
- » We write this policy mathematically using: $X(S_t) = \arg \min(or \max)_x C(S_t, x)$
- » Myopic policies can give silly results, but there are problems where it works perfectly well!

■ Simple examples:

- » Buying the cheapest laptop.
- » Taking the job that offers the highest salary.
- » In a medical emergency, choose the closest ambulance.

Schneider National



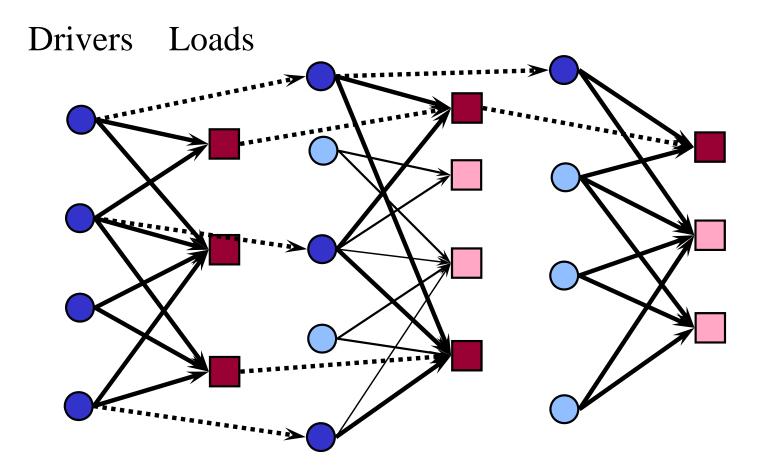
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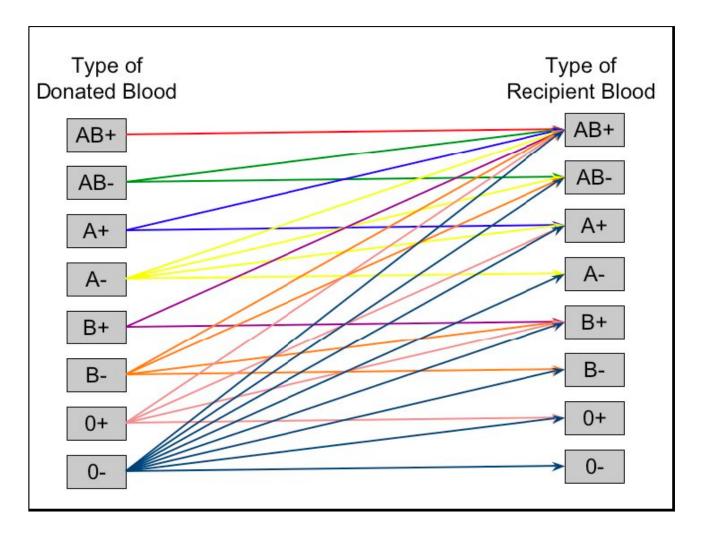
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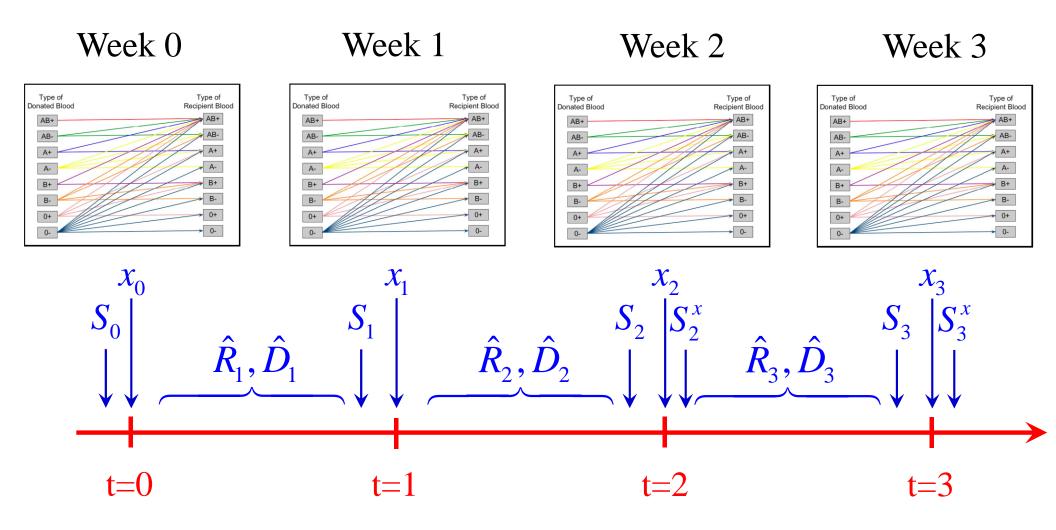
Assigning drivers to loads over time.



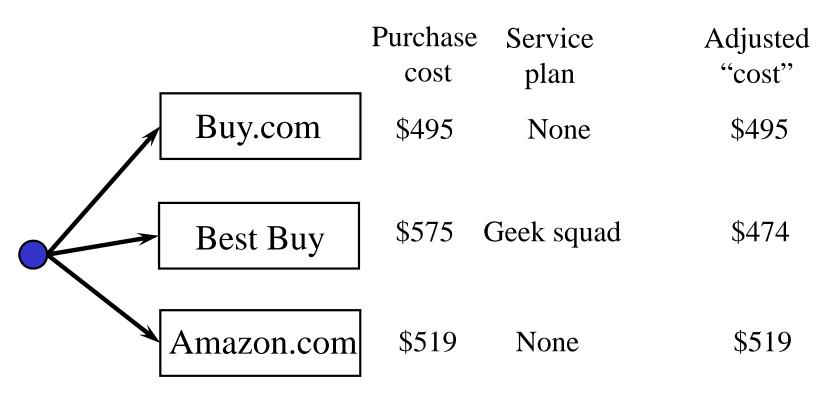
Managing blood inventories



Managing blood inventories over time



- Sometimes it is best to modify the cost function to obtain better performance over time
 - » Rather than buy the cheapest laptop over the internet, you purchase it from Best Buy so you can get their service plan. A higher cost now may lower costs in the future.



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 Original objective function Cost function approximation

$$F = \sum_{d \in \mathcal{D}} c_d x_d$$

$$F = \sum_{d \in \mathcal{D}} c_d^{\pi} x_d$$

 $\mathcal{D} =$ Set of stores

 c_d = True purchase cost

 $\mathcal{D} =$ Set of stores

 c_d = True purchase cost

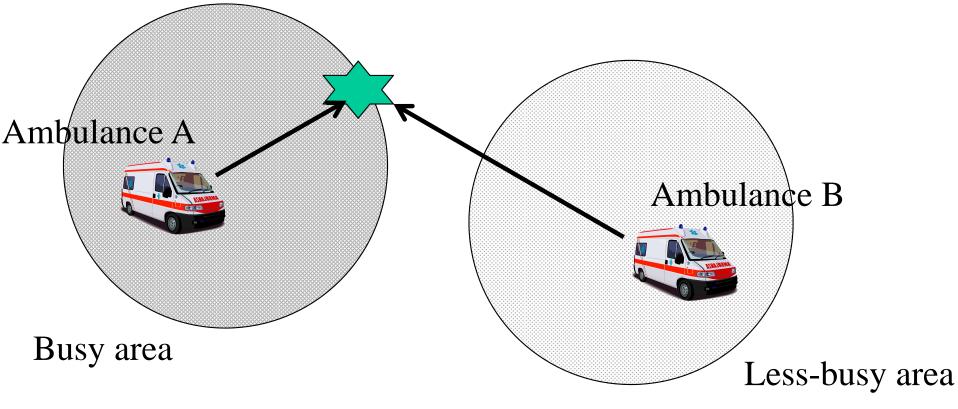
 c_d^{π} = Modified cost

 $= c_d + \text{Adjustment for service}$

The "policy" is captured by the adjustment.

• Other adjustments:

- » Ambulance example
 - Instead of choosing the closest ambulance, we may need to make an adjustment to discourage pulling ambulances from areas which have few alternatives.



Lecture outline

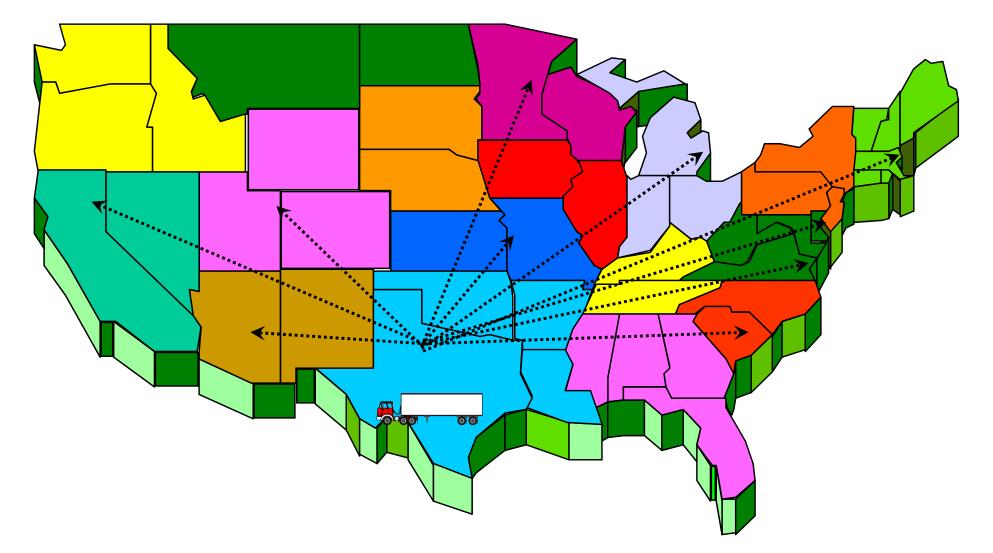
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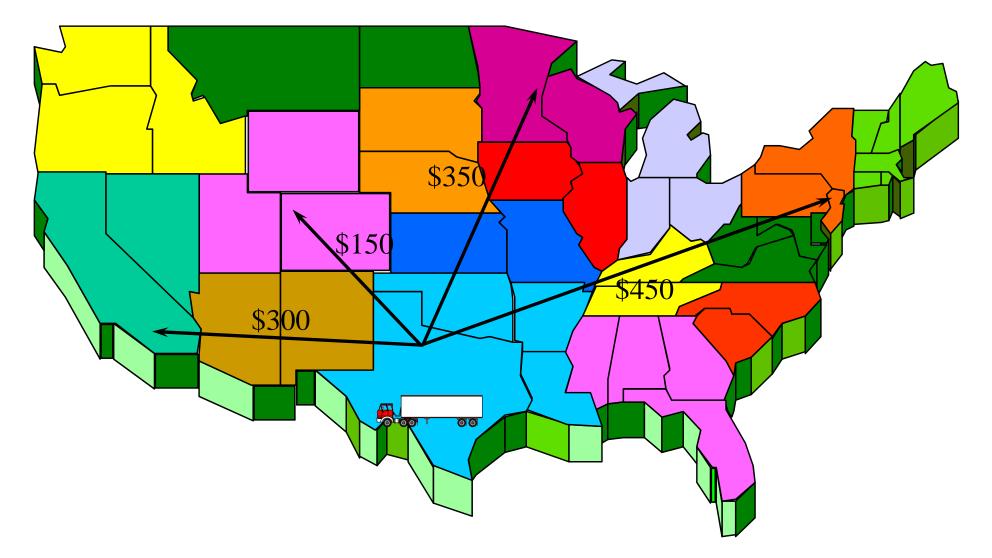
■ Basic idea

- » Take an action, and identify the "state" that an action lands you in.
 - The state of the chess board.
 - The state of your resume from taking a job.
 - A physical location when the action involves moving from one place to another.

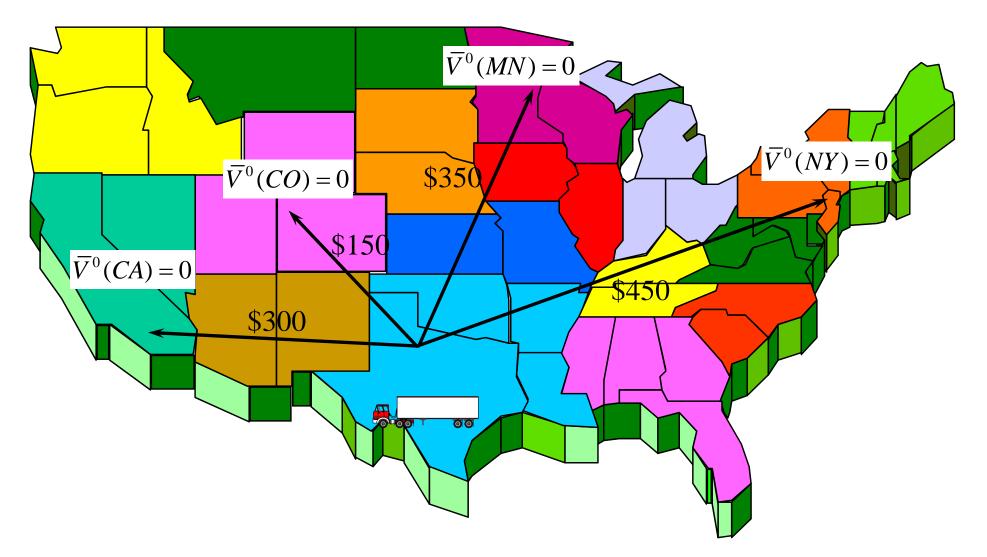
■ The previous post-decision state: trucker in Texas



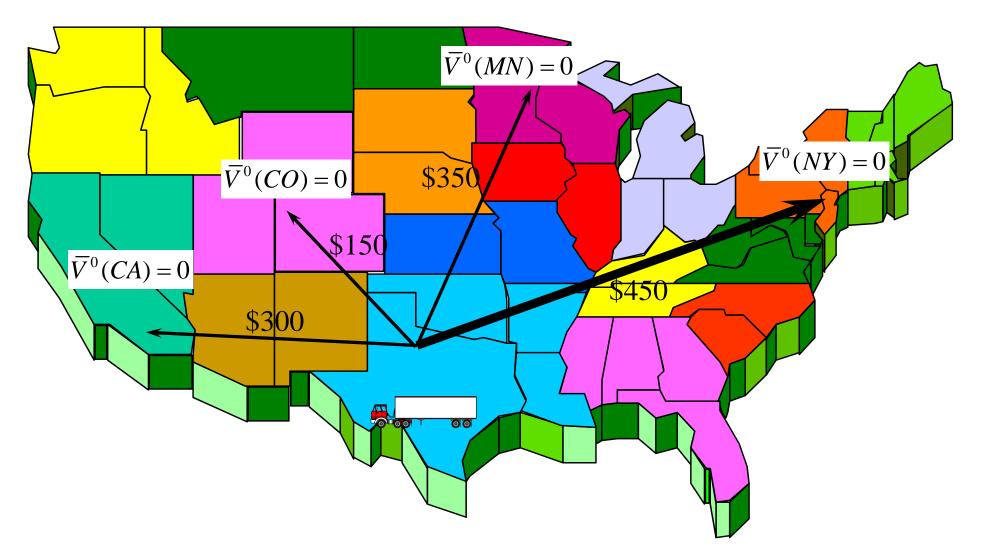
■ Pre-decision state: we see the demands



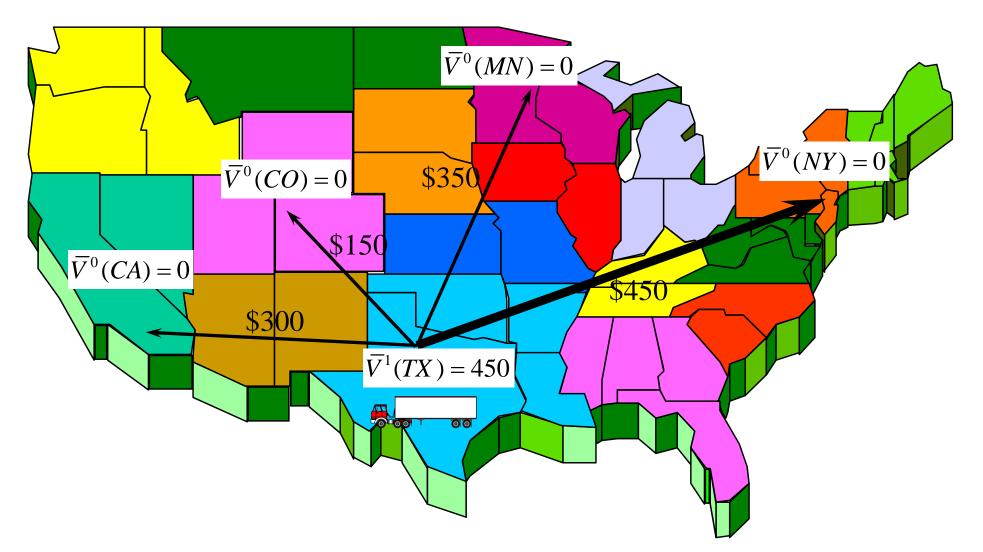
■ We use initial value function approximations...



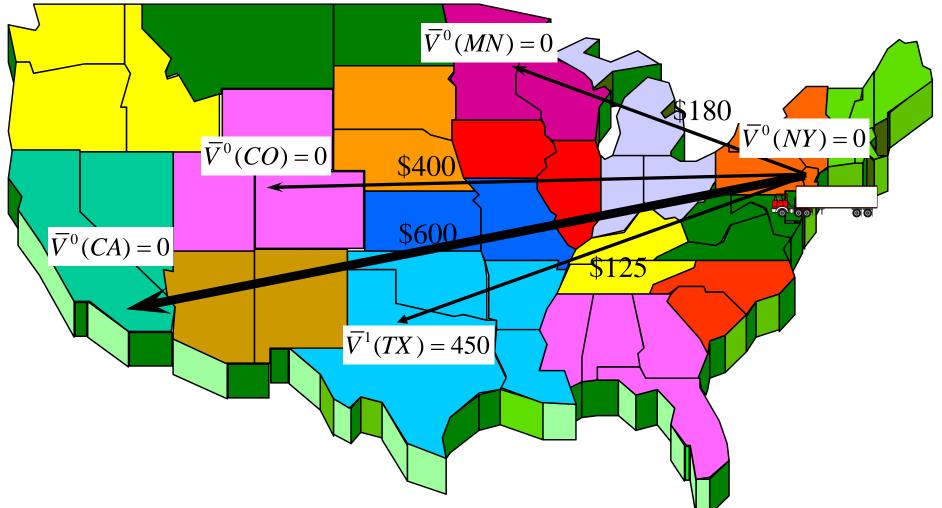
 \blacksquare ... and make our first choice: x^1



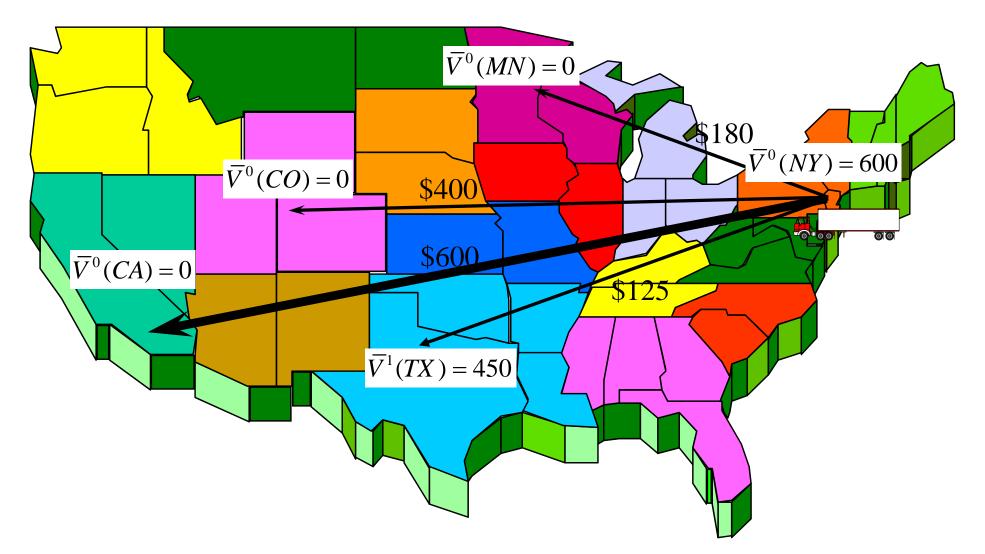
■ Update the value of being in Texas.



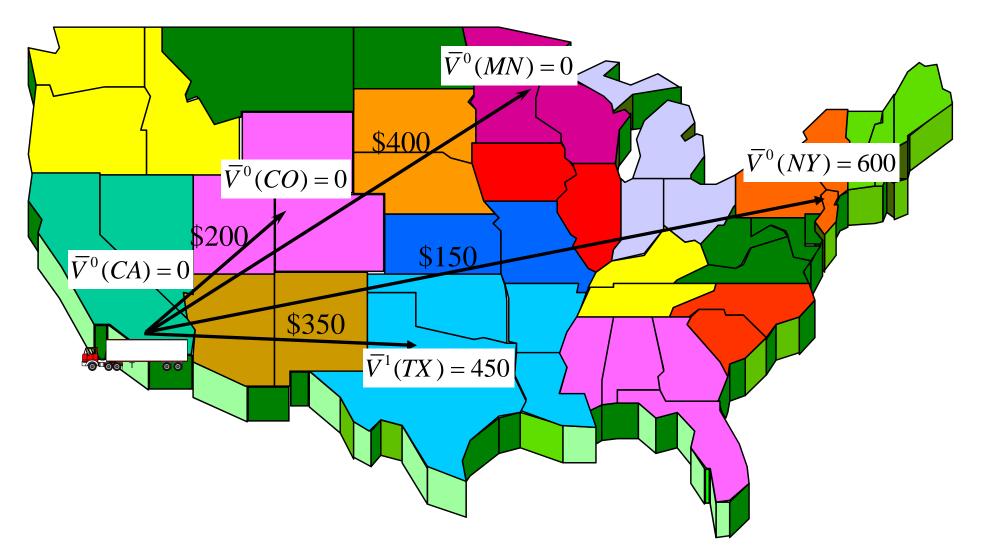
Now move to the next state, sample new demands and make a new decision



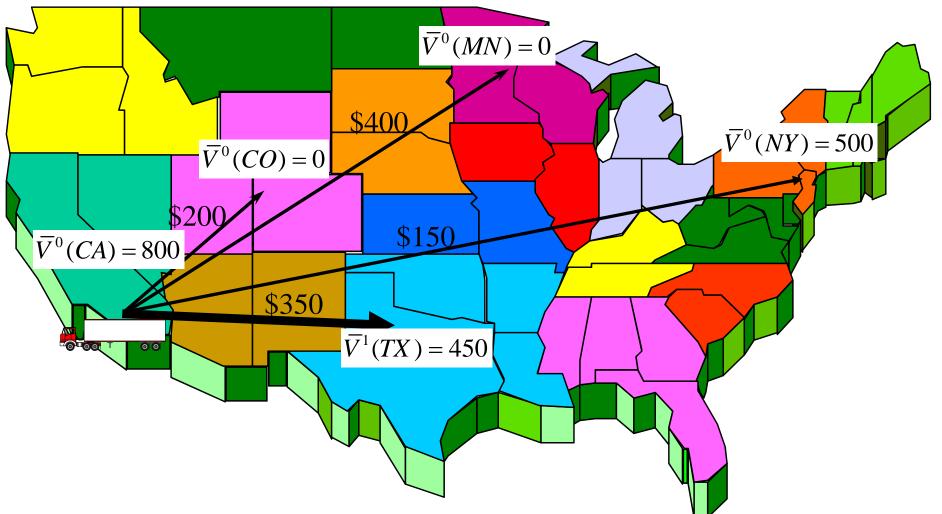
■ Update value of being in NY



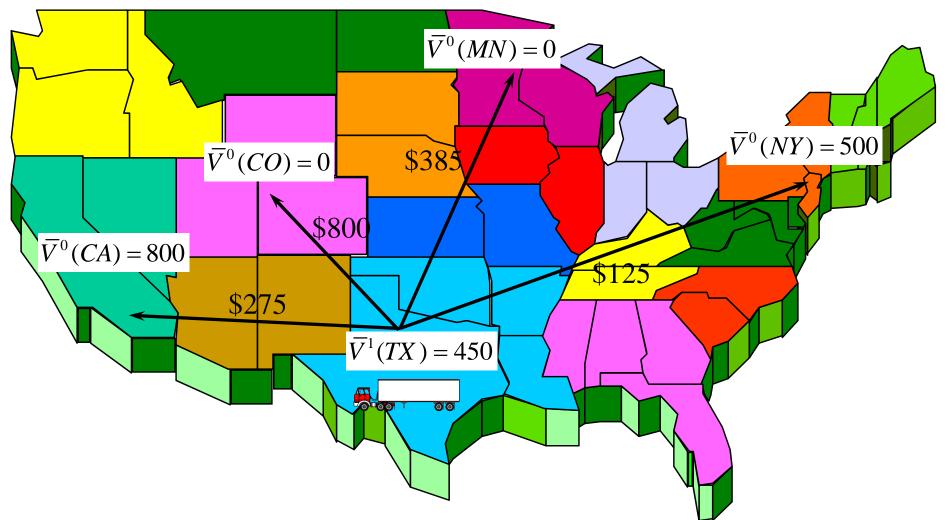
■ Move to California.



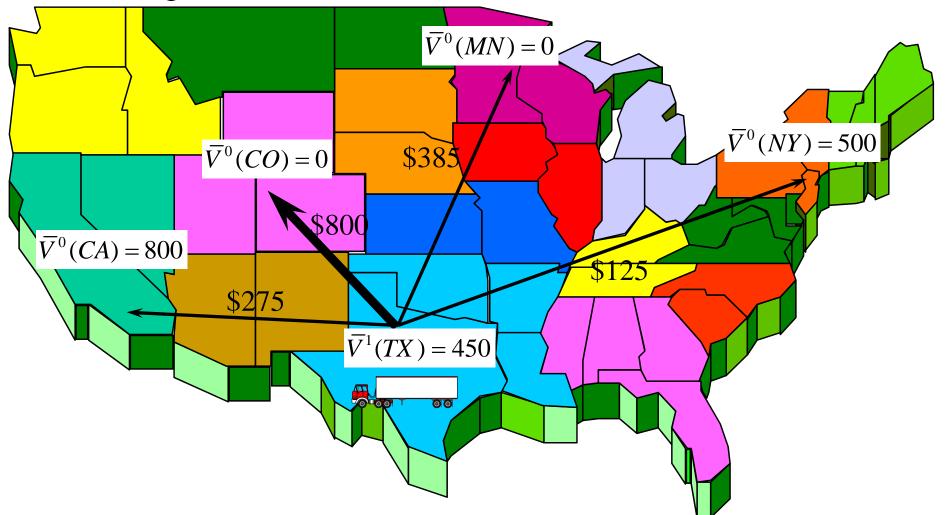
Make decision to return to TX and update value of being in CA



Back in TX, we repeat the process, observing a different set of demands.



We get a different decision and a new estimate of the value of being in TX



Value function approximations

■ Updating the value function:

Old value:

 $\overline{V}^1(TX) = \$450$

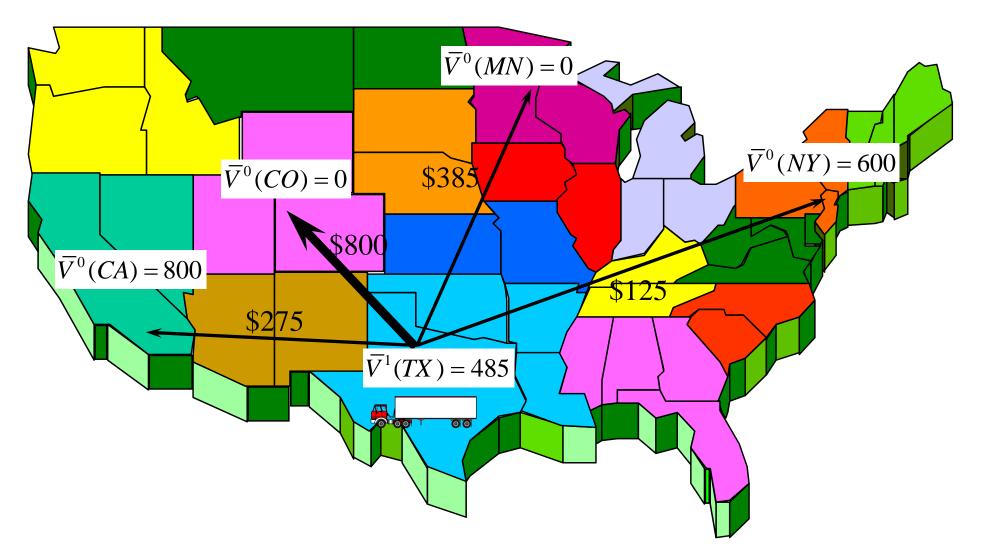
New estimate:

 $\hat{v}^2(TX) = \$800$

How do we merge old with new? $\overline{V}^2(TX) = (1 - \alpha)\overline{V}^1(TX) + (\alpha)\hat{v}^2(TX)$ = (0.90)\$450 + (0.10)\$800 = \$485

Value function approximations

An updated value of being in TX



Value function approximation

■ Notes:

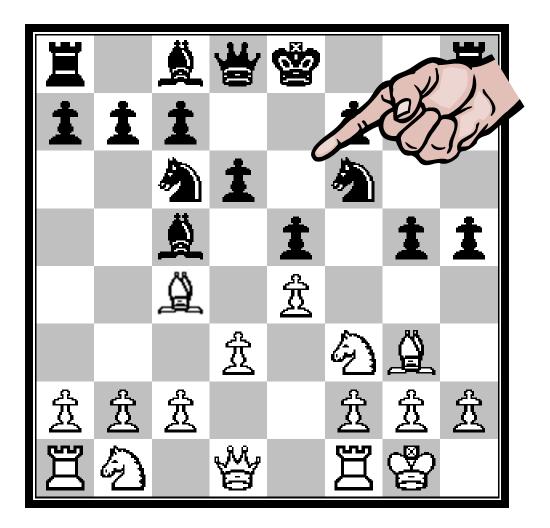
- » At each step, our truck driver makes a decision based on *previously computed estimates* of the value of being in each location.
- » Using these value function approximations, decisions which capture (approximately) downstream impacts become quite easy.
- » But you have to trust the quality of your approximation.
- » There is an entire field of research that focuses on how to approximate value functions known as "approximate dynamic programming."

Lecture outline

What is a policy?

- Policy function approximations (PFAs)
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■ It is common to "peek" into the future:



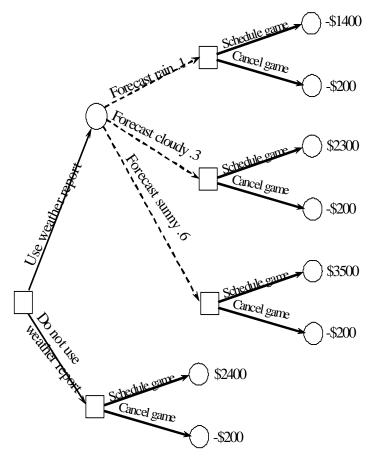
Shortest path problems

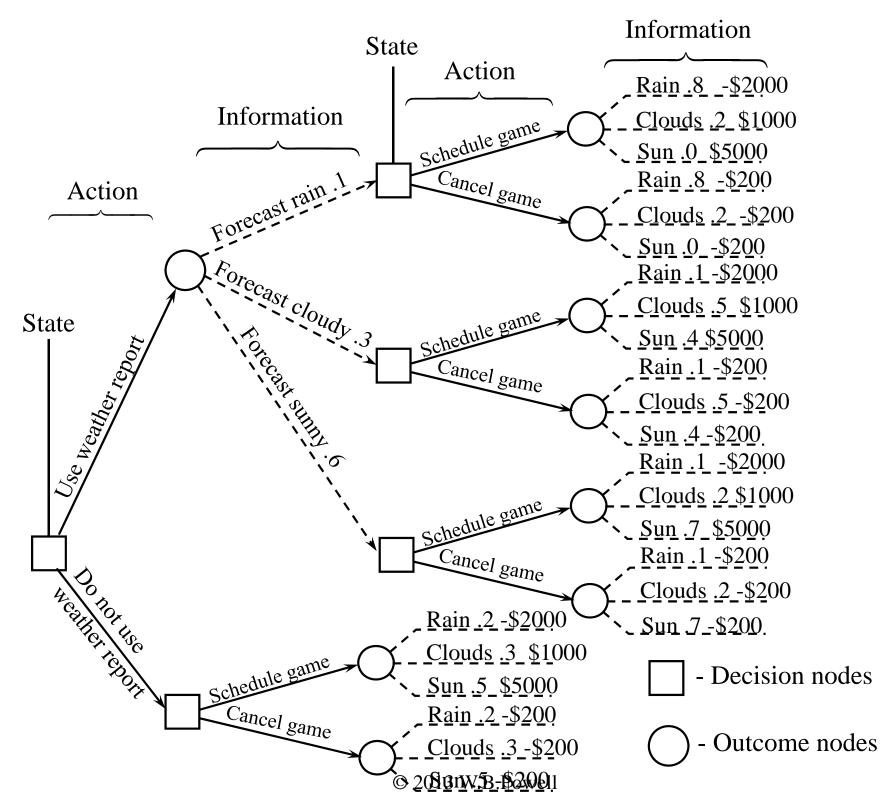
- » Solve shortest path to destination to figure out the next step. We solve the shortest path using a point estimate of the future.
- » As car advances, Google updates traffic estimations (or you may react to traffic as you see it).
- As the situation changes, we recalculate the shortest path to find an updated route.

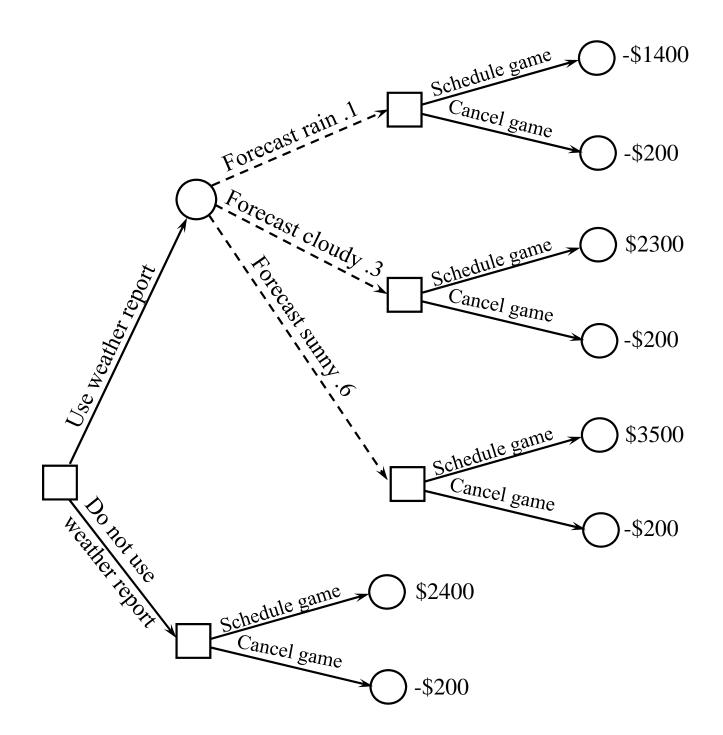


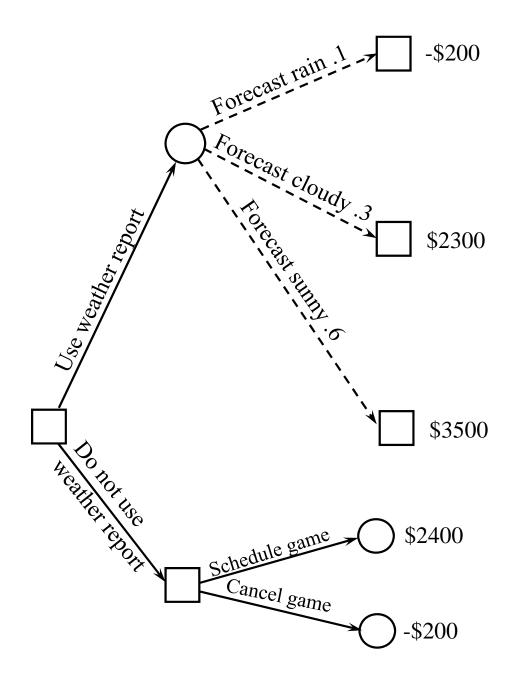
Decision trees

- » A form of lookup table representation
 - Square nodes Make a decision
 - Circles Outcome nodes
 Represents state-action pairs
- » Solving decision trees means finding the value at each outcome node.









Approximate value of being in this state

After rolling back, we use the value at each node to make the best decision. This value captures the effect of all future information and decisions.

\$2770

\$2400

Use Weather report

Do not use report

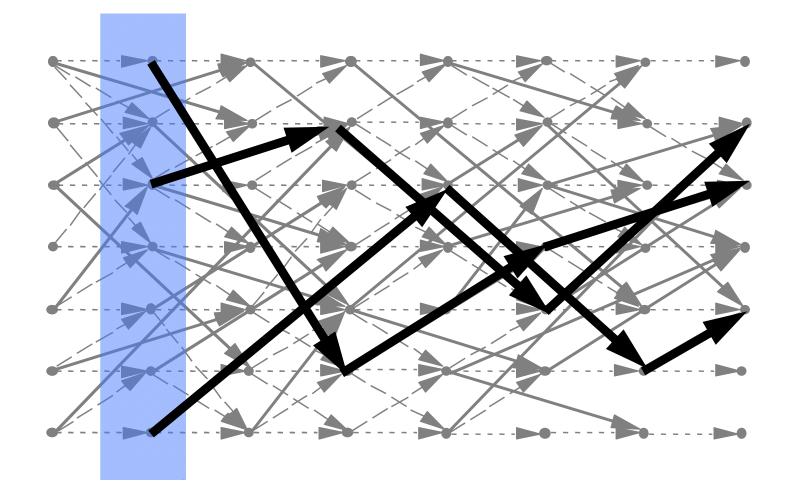
Sometimes, our lookahead policy involves solving a linear program over multiple time periods:

$$X(S_{t}) = \arg\min_{x_{t}, x_{t+1}, \dots, x_{t+T}^{i}} c_{ti} x_{ti} + \sum_{t'=t+1}^{T} \sum_{i} c_{t'i} x_{t'i}$$

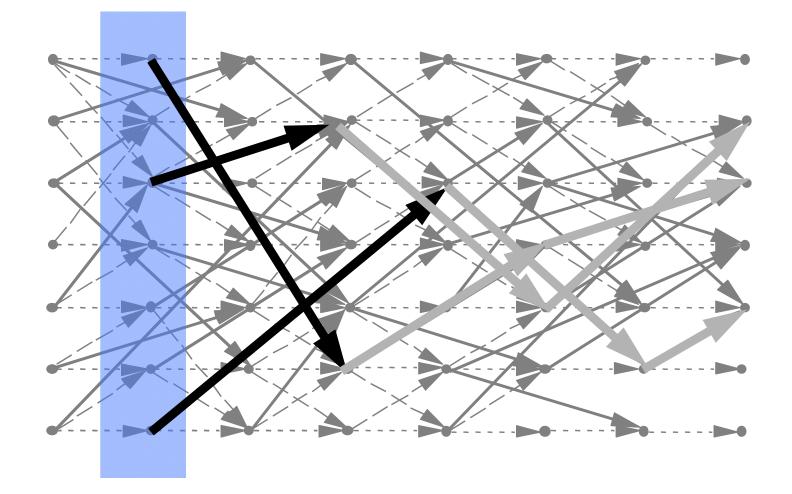
Optimizing into the future

» This strategy requires that we pretend we know everything that will happen in the future, and then optimize deterministically.

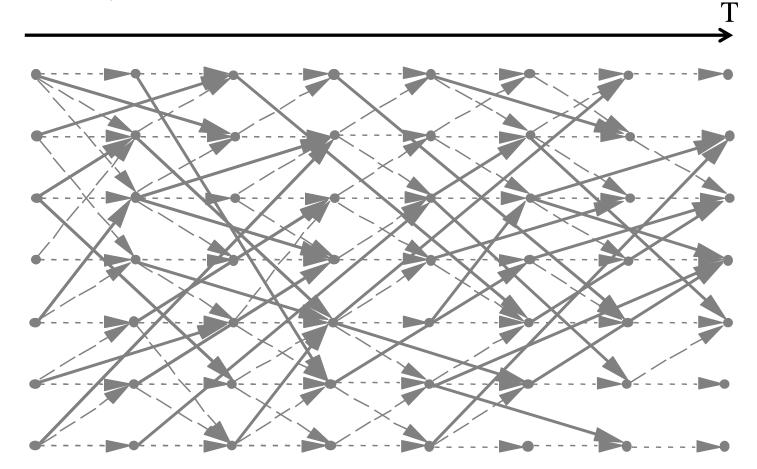
We can handle vector-valued decisions by solving linear (or integer) programs over a horizon.



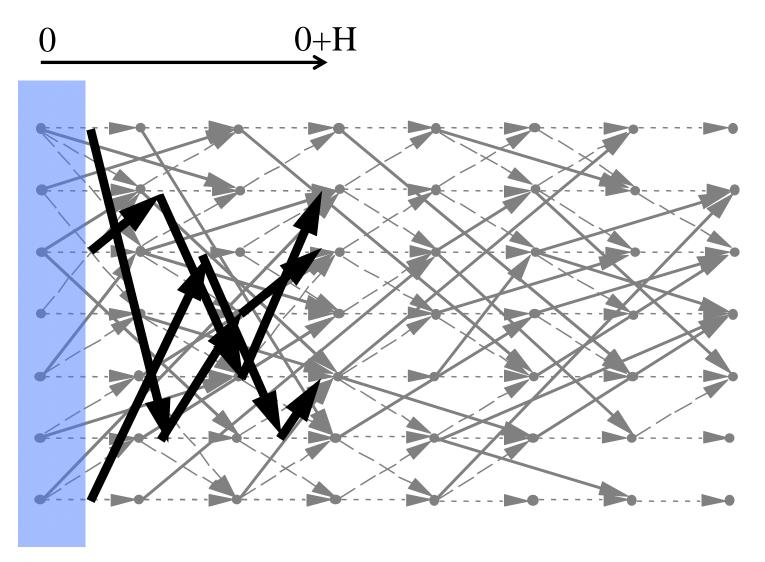
We optimize into the future, but then ignore the decisions that would not be implemented until later.



Assume that this is the full model (over T time periods)

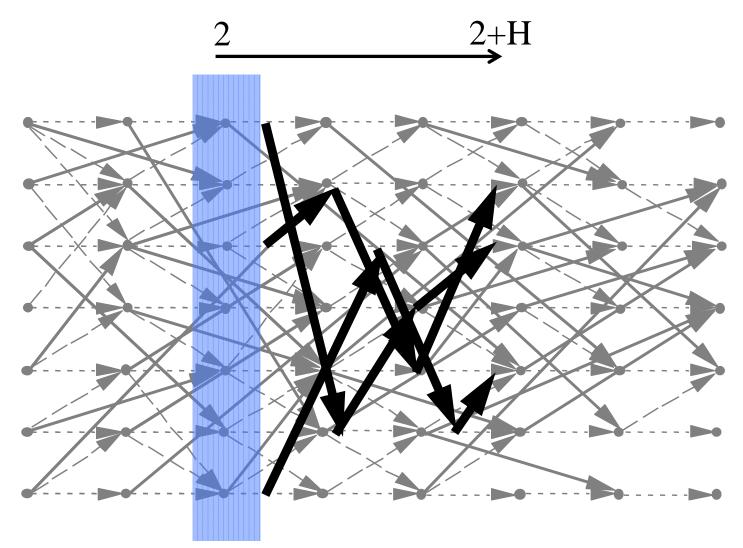


■ But we solve a smaller lookahead model (from t to t+H)

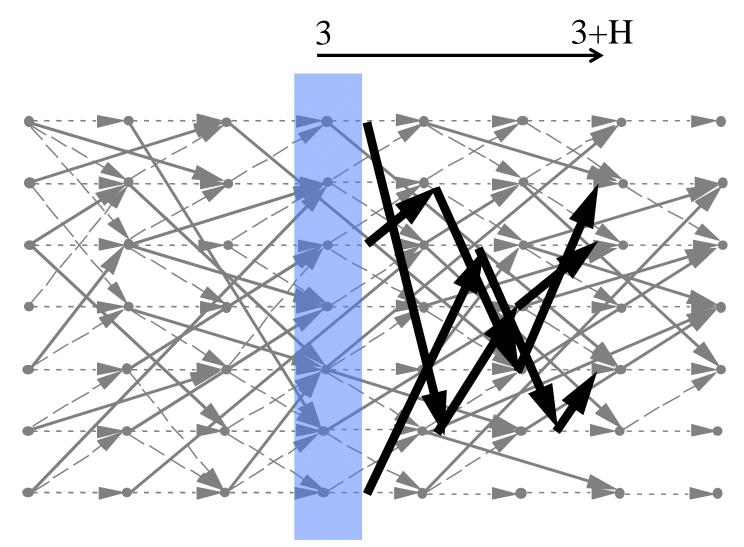


Lookahead policies Following a lookahead policy 1+H

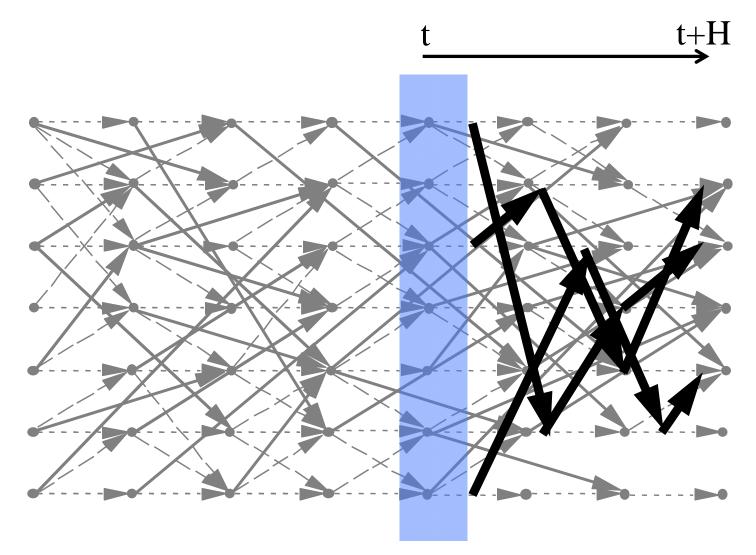
■ ... which rolls forward in time.



• ... which rolls forward in time.



■ ... which rolls forward in time.



■ Notes on lookahead policies:

- » They construct the value of being in a state in the future "on the fly," which allows the calculation to take into account many other variables (e.g. the status of the entire chess board).
- » Lookahead policies are brute force searching the tree of all possible outcomes and decisions can get expensive. Compute times grow exponentially with the length of the horizon.
- » But, they are simple to understand.

Lecture outline

What is a policy?

- > Myopic cost function approximations
- Lookahead policies
- Policies based on value function approximations
- Policy function approximations
- Finding good policies
 - Optimizing continuous parameters

- The process of searching for a good policy depends on the nature of the policy space:
 - » 1) Small number of discrete policies
 - » 2) Single, continuous parameter
 - » 3) Two or more continuous parameters
 - » 4) Finding the best of a subset
 - » other more complicated stuff.

Evaluating policies

» We learned we can write our objective function as

$$\min_{\pi \in \Pi} E\left\{\sum_{t} \sum_{ij} C(S_t, X^{\pi}(S_t))\right\}$$

• We now have to deal with:

- » How do we design a policy?
 - Choose the best type of policy (PFA, CFA, VFA, Look-ahead, hybrid)
 - Tune the parameters of the policy
- » How do we search for the best policy?

Finding the best of two policies

» We simulate a policy N times and take an average:

$$\overline{F}^{\pi} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} F^{\pi}(\omega^{n})$$

- » If we simulate policies π_1 and π_2 , we would like to conclude that π_1 is better than π_2 if $\overline{F}^{\pi_1} > \overline{F}^{\pi_2}$
- » How big should N be (or, is N big enough)?
 - Have to compute confidence intervals. The variance of an estimate of the value of a policy is given by the usual formula:

$$s^{2,\pi} = \frac{1}{N} \left(\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(F^{\pi}(\omega^{n}) - \overline{F}^{\pi} \right)^{2} \right)$$

Now construct confidence interval for the difference:

» $\overline{\delta} = \overline{F}^{\pi_1} - \overline{F}^{\pi_2} = \text{Point estimate of difference}$

» Assume that the estimates of the value of each policy were performed independently. The variance of the difference is then

•
$$s_{\delta}^2 = s^{2,\pi_1} + s^{2,\pi_2}$$

» Now construct a confidence interval around the difference:

•
$$\left(\overline{\delta} - z_{\alpha/2}s_{\delta}, \overline{\delta} + z_{\alpha/2}s_{\delta}\right)$$

Better way:

- » Evaluate each policy using the same set of random variables (the same sample path)
- » Compute a sample realization of the difference:

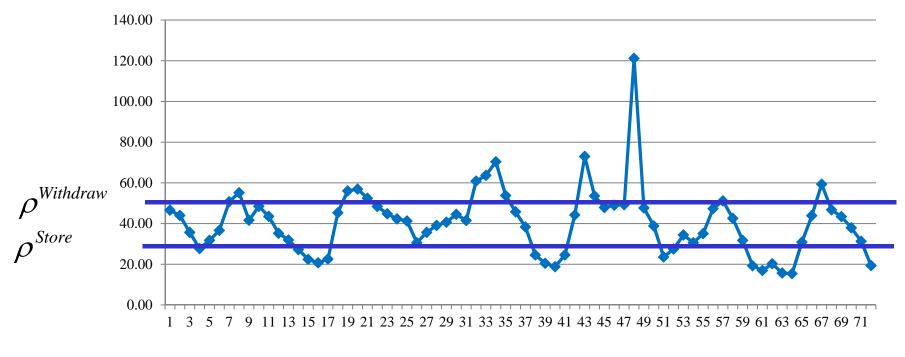
$$\delta(\omega) = F^{\pi_1}(\omega) - F^{\pi_2}(\omega)$$
$$\overline{\delta} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \delta(\omega^n)$$
$$s_{\delta}^2 = \frac{1}{N} \left(\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{n=1}^N \left(\delta(\omega^n) - \overline{\delta} \right)^2 \right)$$

• Now compute confidence interval in the usual way.

■ Notes:

- » First method requires 2N simulations
- » Second method requires N simulations, but they have to be coordinated (e.g. run in parallel).
- » There is another method which further minimizes how many simulations are needed. Will describe this later in the course.

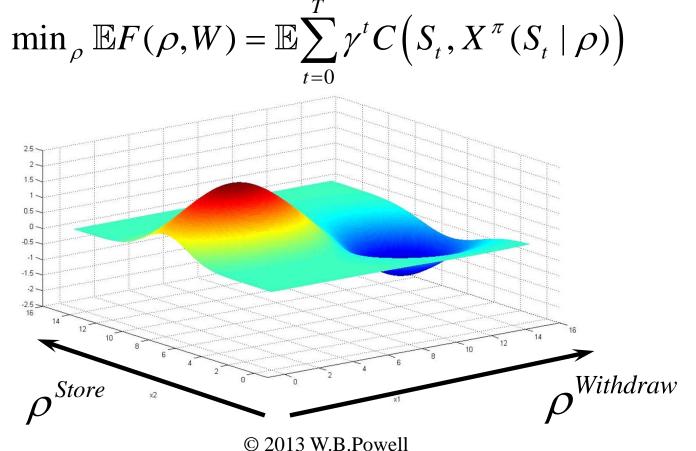
We had to design a *simple*, *implementable* policy that did not cheat!



• We need to search for the best values of the parameters ρ^{Store} and $\rho^{Withdraw}$.

■ Finding the best policy ("policy search")

- » Let $X^{\pi}(S_t | \rho^{store}, \rho^{withdraw})$ be the "policy" that chooses the actions.
- » We wish to maximize the function



■ Illustration of policy search

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			Sell		100.00 s	torage	Bought/sold	Revenue			Mean	30			50		
						0.00					Std	58.30952			58.30952	2	
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1/1/05	2	2	18.47	18.47	1.00	2.00	1.00	-18.47		16.675	6.44405	42.95748	3.52972	3109.097	-45.494	8 0.6623	
1/1/05	3	3	14.43	14.43	1.00	3.00	1.00	-14.43		15.92667	4.902033	-32.3674	-8.43599	1984.083	108.73	5 36.68	
1/1/05	4	4	10.58	10.58	1.00	4.00	1.00	-10.58		14.59	10.41473	62.51413	9.301541	2581.202	137.789	8 61.96	
1/1/05	5	5	6.54	6.54	1.00	5.00	1.00	-6.54		12.98	20.77155	20.13827	11.46889	1959.388	68.3494	4 63.2	
1/1/05	6	6	3.86	3.86	1.00	6.00	1.00	-3.86		11.46		-13.7702	7.262367	1673.68	-6.9417	9 51.542	
1/1/05	7	7	2.54	2.54	1.00	7.00	1.00	-2.54		10.18571	36.76633	-1.67054	5.986237	1406.133	-33.070	1 39.45	
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■ SMART-Solar

» See http://energysystems.princeton.edu/smartfamily.htm

SMART-Solar: Co-optimization of solar and storage

Regular Charge @ \$	50
Regular Discharge @ \$	7:
Cold Charge @ \$	99
Cold Discharge @ \$	11
Hot Charge @ \$	100
Hot Discharge @ \$	118
Grid Charge @\$	60
Grid Discharge @\$	120
Temp (F)	
Hot	75
Cold	20
Inverter loss	20%
Total battery size (MWh)	
Rate (MW)	
Upper boundary	90%
Lower boundary	10%
Interconnection approval (MW)	8.
Battery size for ES (MWh)	(
Battery size for FR (MWh)	
Battery in use	Yes
Policy/CPLEX	Policy



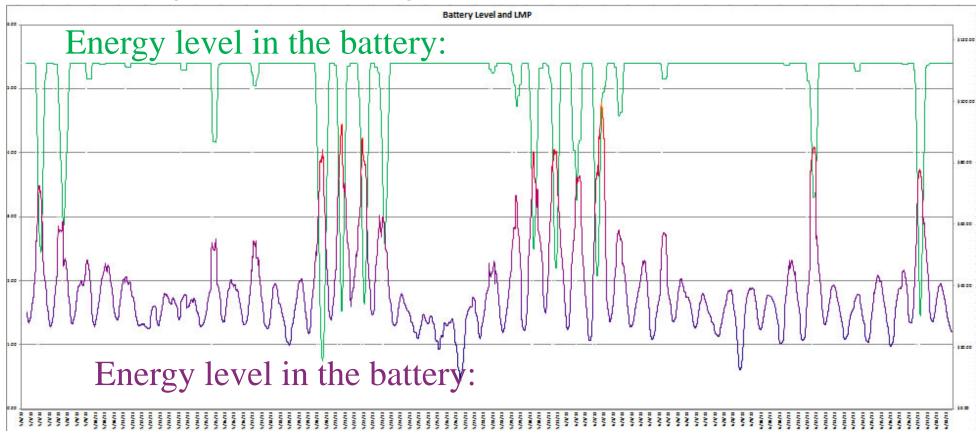
Parameters that control the behavior of the policy.

Payback Years	5.58
Net Revenue 5yr	(\$867,078.29)
Net Revenue 10yr	\$4,229,776.26
Net Revenue 15yr	\$8,345,079.40
Net Revenue 20yr	\$11,578,315.69
NPV 5yr	(\$2,533,117.84)
NPV 10yr	\$985,043.93
NPV 15yr	\$3,174,578.03
NPV 20yr	\$4,522,756.86
ROI 5yr	-6.14%
ROI 10yr	29.96%
ROI 15yr	59.10%
ROI 20yr	82.00%
Revenue from ES (Annual, Yr 1)	\$80,772.68
Revenue from FR (Annual, Yr 1)	\$1,012,252.39
Revenue from Solar (Annual, Yr 1)	\$346,068.10
Revenue from SREC (Annual, Yr 1)	\$543,422.98

Help

All bold values can be changed

The control policy determines when the battery is charged or discharged.



» Different values of the charge/discharge prices are simulated to determine which works the best. This is a form of *policy search*.

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Lecture outline

What is a policy?

- Myopic cost function approximations
- Lookahead policies
- Policies based on value function approximations
- Policy function approximations
- Finding good policies
 - Optimizing continuous parameters

The problem of finding the best policy can be written as a classic stochastic search problem:

 $\min_{x} E\{F(x,W)\}$

- » ... where *x* is a vector of continuous parameters
- » *W* represents all the random variables involved in evaluating a policy.

We can find x using a classic stochastic gradient algorithm
 » Let

$$F(x) = E\left\{F(x,W)\right\}$$

» Now assume that we can find the derivative with respect to each parameter in the policy (not always true). We would write this as

 $g(x,\omega) = \nabla F(x,W(\omega))$

» The stochastic gradient algorithm is then

$$x^n = x^{n-1} - \alpha_{n-1}g(x^{n-1}, \omega^n)$$

» We then use x^n for iteration n+1 (for sample path ω^n)

■ Notes:

» If we are maximizing, we use

$$x^{n} = x^{n-1} + \alpha_{n-1}g(x^{n-1}, \omega^{n})$$

» This algorithm is provably convergent if we use a stepsize such as

$$\alpha_n = \frac{\alpha_0}{a+n-1} \qquad n = 1, 2, \dots$$

» Need to choose α_0 to solve the difference in units between the derivative and the parameters.

- Computing a gradient generally requires some insight into the structure of the problem.
- An alternative is to use a finite difference.
- Assume that x is a scalar. We can find a gradient using

$$g(x,\omega) = F(x+\delta, W(\omega)) - F(x, W(\omega))$$

» Very important: note that we are running the simulation twice using the same sample path.