# Linear Dependence of Stationary Distributions in Ergodic Markov Decision Processes 

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#### Abstract

In ergodic MDPs we consider stationary distributions of policies that coincide in all but $n$ states, in which one of two possible actions is chosen. We give conditions and formulas for linear dependence of the stationary distributions of $n+2$ such policies, and show some results about combinations and mixtures of policies.


Key words: Markov decision process; Markov chain; stationary distribution 1991 MSC: Primary: 90C40, 60J10; Secondary: 60J20

## 1 Introduction

Definition $1 A$ Markov decision process (MDP) $\mathcal{M}$ on a (finite) set of states $S$ with a (finite) set of actions $A$ available in each state $\in S$ consists of
(i) an initial distribution $\mu_{0}$ that specifies the probability of starting in some state in $S$,
(ii) the transition probabilities $p_{a}\left(s, s^{\prime}\right)$ that specify the probability of reaching state $s^{\prime}$ when choosing action a in state $s$, and
(iii) the payoff distributions with mean $r_{a}(s)$ that specify the random reward for choosing action a in state s.
$A$ (deterministic) policy on $\mathcal{M}$ is a mapping $\pi: S \rightarrow A$.
Note that each policy $\pi$ induces a Markov chain on $\mathcal{M}$. We are interested in MDPs, where in each of the induced Markov chains any state is reachable from any other state.

[^0]Definition 2 An MDP $\mathcal{M}$ is called ergodic, if for each policy $\pi$ the Markov chain induced by $\pi$ is ergodic, i.e. if the matrix $P=\left(p_{\pi(i)}(i, j)\right)_{i, j \in S}$ is irreducible.

It is a well-known fact (cf. e.g. [1], p.130ff) that for an ergodic Markov chain with transition matrix $P$ there exists a unique invariant and strictly positive distribution $\mu$, such that independent of the initial distribution $\mu_{0}$ one has $\mu_{n}=\mu_{0} \bar{P}_{n} \rightarrow \mu$, where $\bar{P}_{n}=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} P^{j}$. Thus, given a policy $\pi$ on an ergodic MDP that induces a Markov chain with invariant distribution $\mu$, the average reward of that policy can be defined as

$$
V(\pi):=\sum_{s \in S} \mu(s) r_{\pi(s)}(s)
$$

A policy $\pi^{\circ}$ is called optimal, if for all policies $\pi: V(\pi) \leq V\left(\pi^{\circ}\right)$. It can be shown ([2], p.360ff) that the optimal value $V\left(\pi^{\circ}\right)$ cannot be increased by allowing time-dependent policies, as there is always a deterministic policy that gains optimal average reward.

## 2 Main Theorem and Proof

Given $n$ policies $\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}, \ldots, \pi_{n}$ we say that another policy $\pi$ is a combination of $\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}, \ldots, \pi_{n}$, if for each state $s$ one has $\pi(s)=\pi_{i}(s)$ for some $i$.

Theorem 3 Let $\mathcal{M}$ be an ergodic MDP and $\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}, \ldots, \pi_{n+1}$ pairwise distinct policies on $\mathcal{M}$ that coincide on all but $n$ states $s_{1}, s_{2}, \ldots, s_{n}$. In these states each policy applies one of two possible actions, i.e. we assume that for each $i$ and each $j$ either $\pi_{i}\left(s_{j}\right)=0$ or $\pi_{i}\left(s_{j}\right)=1$. Let $\pi$ be a combination of the policies $\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}, \ldots, \pi_{n+1}$. We may assume without loss of generality that $\pi\left(s_{j}\right)=1$ for all $j$ by swapping the names of the actions correspondingly. Let $\mu_{i}$ be the stationary distribution of policy $\pi_{i}(i=1, \ldots, n+1)$, and let $S_{n}$ be the set of permutations of the elements $\{1, \ldots, n\}$. Then setting

$$
\Gamma_{k}:=\left\{\gamma \in S_{n+1} \mid \gamma(k)=n+1 \text { and } \pi_{j}\left(s_{\gamma(j)}\right)=0 \text { for all } j \neq k\right\}
$$

and for all $s \in S$

$$
\mu(s):=\frac{\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{k}} \operatorname{sgn}(\gamma) \mu_{k}(s) \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^{n+1} \mu_{j}\left(s_{\gamma(j)}\right)}{\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{k}} \operatorname{sgn}(\gamma) \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^{n+1} \mu_{j}\left(s_{\gamma(j)}\right)}
$$

$\mu$ is the stationary distribution of $\pi$, provided that $\mu \neq \boldsymbol{0}$.
For clarification of Theorem 3, we proceed with an example.

Example 4 Let $\mathcal{M}$ be an ergodic MDP with state space $S=\left\{s_{1}, \ldots, s_{N}\right\}$ and $\pi_{000}, \pi_{010}, \pi_{101}, \pi_{110}$ policies on $\mathcal{M}$ whose actions differ only in three states $s_{1}$, $s_{2}$ and $s_{3}$. The subindices of a policy correspond to the word $\pi\left(s_{1}\right) \pi\left(s_{2}\right) \pi\left(s_{3}\right)$, so that e.g. $\pi_{010}\left(s_{1}\right)=\pi_{010}\left(s_{3}\right)=0$ and $\pi_{010}\left(s_{2}\right)=1$. Now let $\mu_{000}, \mu_{010}$, $\mu_{101}$, and $\mu_{110}$ be the stationary distributions of the respective policies. As for $n=3$ the possibility of $\mu=\mathbf{0}$ can be excluded (see sufficient condition (i) of Remark 6 below), by Theorem 3 we may calculate the distributions of all other policies that play in states $s_{1}, s_{2}, s_{3}$ action 0 or 1 , and coincide with the above mentioned policies in all other states. In order to obtain e.g. the stationary distribution $\mu_{111}$ of policy $\pi_{111}$ in an arbitrary state $s$, first we have to determine the sets $\Gamma_{000}, \Gamma_{010}, \Gamma_{101}$, and $\Gamma_{110}$. This can be done by interpreting the subindices of our policies as rows of a matrix. In order to obtain $\Gamma_{k}$ one cancels row $k$ and looks for all possibilities in the remaining matrix to choose three 0s that neither share a row nor a column:

| 000 | 000 | 000 | 000 | 000 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 010 | $\overline{0} 10$ | $0 \overline{1} 0$ | $\overline{0} 10$ | $01 \overline{0}$ |
| $\overline{1} 01$ | 101 | 101 | $10 \overline{1}$ | $\overline{1} 01$ |
| $1 \overline{1} \underline{0}$ | $1 \overline{1} \underline{0}$ | 110 | $1 \overline{1} 0$ | $1 \overline{10}$ |

Each of the matrices now corresponds to a permutation in $\Gamma_{k}$, where $k$ corresponds to the cancelled row. Thus $\Gamma_{000}, \Gamma_{010}$ and $\Gamma_{101}$ contain only a single permutation, while $\Gamma_{110}$ contains two. The respective permutation can be read off each matrix as follows: note for each row one after another the position of the chosen 0 , and choose $n+1$ for the cancelled row. Thus the permutation for the third matrix is $(2,1,4,3)$. Now for each of the matrices one has a term that consists of four factors (one for each row). The factor for a row $j$ is $\mu_{j}\left(s^{\prime}\right)$, where $s^{\prime}=s$ if row $j$ was cancelled (i.e. $j=k$ ), or equals the state that corresponds to the column of row $j$ in which the 0 was chosen. Thus for the third matrix above one gets $\mu_{000}\left(s_{2}\right) \mu_{010}\left(s_{1}\right) \mu_{101}(s) \mu_{110}\left(s_{3}\right)$. Finally, one has to consider the sign for each of the terms which is the sign of the corresponding permutation. Putting all together, normalizing the output vector and abbreviating $a_{i}:=\mu_{000}\left(s_{i}\right), b_{i}:=\mu_{010}\left(s_{i}\right), c_{i}:=\mu_{101}\left(s_{i}\right)$, and $d_{i}:=\mu_{110}\left(s_{i}\right)$, one obtains for all states $s_{i}(i=1, \ldots, N)$

$$
\mu_{111}\left(s_{i}\right)=\frac{a_{i} b_{1} c_{2} d_{3}-a_{1} b_{i} c_{2} d_{3}-a_{2} b_{1} c_{i} d_{3}+a_{1} b_{3} c_{2} d_{i}-a_{3} b_{1} c_{2} d_{i}}{b_{1} c_{2} d_{3}-a_{1} c_{2} d_{3}-a_{2} b_{1} d_{3}+a_{1} b_{3} c_{2}-a_{3} b_{1} c_{2}} .
$$

Theorem 3 can be obtained from the following more general result where the stationary distribution of a randomized policy is considered.

Theorem 5 Under the assumptions of Theorem 3, the stationary distribution $\mu$ of the policy $\pi$ that plays in state $s_{i}(i=1, \ldots, n)$ action 0 with probability
$\lambda_{i} \in[0,1]$ and action 1 with probability $\left(1-\lambda_{i}\right)$ is given by

$$
\mu(s)=\frac{\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{k}^{\prime}} \operatorname{sgn}(\gamma) \mu_{k}(s) \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^{n+1} f(\gamma(j), j)}{\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{k}^{\prime}} \operatorname{sgn}(\gamma) \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^{n+1} f(\gamma(j), j)}
$$

provided that $\mu \neq \boldsymbol{0}$, where $\Gamma_{k}^{\prime}:=\left\{\gamma \in S_{n+1} \mid \gamma(k)=n+1\right\}$ and

$$
f(i, j):= \begin{cases}\lambda_{i} \mu_{j}\left(s_{i}\right), & \text { if } \pi_{j}(i)=1 \\ \left(\lambda_{i}-1\right) \mu_{j}\left(s_{i}\right), & \text { if } \pi_{j}(i)=0\end{cases}
$$

Theorem 3 follows from Theorem 5 by simply setting $\lambda_{i}=0$ for $i=1, \ldots, n$.
Proof of Theorem 5 Let $S=\{1,2, \ldots, N\}$ and assume that $s_{i}=i$ for $i=1,2, \ldots, n$. We denote the probabilities associated with action 0 with $p_{i j}:=p_{0}(i, j)$ and those of action 1 with $q_{i j}:=p_{1}(i, j)$. Furthermore, the probabilities in the states $i=n+1, \ldots, N$, where the policies $\pi_{1}, \ldots, \pi_{n+1}$ coincide, are written as $p_{i j}:=p_{\pi_{k}(i)}(i, j)$ as well. Now setting

$$
\nu_{s}:=\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{k}^{\prime}} \operatorname{sgn}(\gamma) \mu_{k}(s) \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^{n+1} f(\gamma(j), j)
$$

and $\nu:=\left(\nu_{s}\right)_{s \in S}$ we are going to show that $\nu P_{\pi}=\nu$, where $P_{\pi}$ is the probability matrix of the randomized policy $\pi$. Since the stationary distribution is unique, normalization of the vector $\nu$ proves the theorem. Now

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\nu P_{\pi}\right)_{s}= & \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nu_{i}\left(\lambda_{i} p_{i s}+\left(1-\lambda_{i}\right) q_{i s}\right)+\sum_{i=n+1}^{N} \nu_{i} p_{i s} \\
= & \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{k}^{\prime}} \operatorname{sgn}(\gamma) \mu_{k}(i) \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\
j \neq k}}^{n+1} f(\gamma(j), j)\left(\lambda_{i} p_{i s}+\left(1-\lambda_{i}\right) q_{i s}\right) \\
& +\sum_{i=n+1}^{N} \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{k}^{\prime}} \operatorname{sgn}(\gamma) \mu_{k}(i) \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\
j \neq k}}^{n+1} f(\gamma(j), j) p_{i s} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since

$$
\sum_{i=n+1}^{N} \mu_{k}(i) p_{i s}=\mu_{k}(s)-\sum_{i: \pi_{k}(i)=0} \mu_{k}(i) p_{i s}-\sum_{i: \pi_{k}(i)=1} \mu_{k}(i) q_{i s},
$$

this gives

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\left(\nu P_{\pi}\right)_{s}= \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{k}^{\prime}} \operatorname{sgn}(\gamma) \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\
j \neq k}}^{n+1} f(\gamma(j), j)\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_{k}(i)\left(\lambda_{i} p_{i s}+\left(1-\lambda_{i}\right) q_{i s}\right)\right. \\
&\left.+\mu_{k}(s)-\sum_{i: \pi_{k}(i)=0} \mu_{k}(i) p_{i s}-\sum_{i: \pi_{k}(i)=1} \mu_{k}(i) q_{i s}\right) \\
&=\nu_{s}+\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{k}^{\prime}} \operatorname{sgn}(\gamma) \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\
j \neq k}}^{n+1} f(\gamma(j), j)\left(\sum_{i: \pi_{k}(i)=0} \mu_{k}(i)\left(\lambda_{i}-1\right)\left(p_{i s}-q_{i s}\right)\right. \\
&\left.+\sum_{i: \pi_{k}(i)=1} \mu_{k}(i) \lambda_{i}\left(p_{i s}-q_{i s}\right)\right) \\
&=\nu_{s}+\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{k}^{\prime}} \operatorname{sgn}(\gamma) \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\
j \neq k}}^{n+1} f(\gamma(j), j) \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(p_{i s}-q_{i s}\right) f(i, k) \\
&= \nu_{s}+\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(p_{i s}-q_{i s}\right) \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{k}^{\prime}} \operatorname{sgn}(\gamma) f(i, k) \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\
j \neq k}}^{n+1} f(\gamma(j), j)
\end{aligned}
$$

Now it is easy to see that $\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \sum_{\gamma \in \Gamma_{k}^{\prime}} \operatorname{sgn}(\gamma) f(i, k) \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^{n+1} f(\gamma(j), j)=0$ : fix $k$ and some permutation $\gamma \in \Gamma_{k}^{\prime}$, and let $l:=\gamma^{-1}(i)$. Then there is exactly one permutation $\gamma^{\prime} \in \Gamma_{l}^{\prime}$, such that $\gamma^{\prime}(j)=\gamma(j)$ for $j \neq k, l$ and $\gamma^{\prime}(k)=i$. The pairs $(k, \gamma)$ and $\left(l, \gamma^{\prime}\right)$ correspond to the same summands

$$
f(i, k) \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^{n+1} f(\gamma(j), j)=f(i, l) \prod_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq l}}^{n+1} f\left(\gamma^{\prime}(j), j\right)
$$

- yet, since $\operatorname{sgn}(\gamma)=-\operatorname{sgn}\left(\gamma^{\prime}\right)$, they have different sign and cancel out each other, which finishes the proof.

Remark 6 The condition $\mu \neq \boldsymbol{0}$ in the theorems is (unfortunately) necessary, as there are some degenerate cases where the formula gives $\mathbf{0}$. Choose e.g. an MDP and policies that violate condition (iii) below, such that the stationary distribution of each policy is the uniform distribution over the states. Then in the setting of Theorem 3, one obtains $\mu=\boldsymbol{0}$. It is an open question whether these "singularities" can be characterized or whether there is a more general formula that avoids them. At the moment, only the following sufficient conditions guaranteeing $\mu \neq 0$ are available:
(i) $n<4$,
(ii) the distributions $\mu_{i}$ are linearly independent,
(iii) the $n \times(n+1)$ matrix $\left(\pi_{j}\left(s_{i}\right)\right)_{i j}$ has rank $n$.

While (ii) is trivial, (i) and (iii) can be verified by noting that $\mu(s)$ can be
written as the following determinant:

$$
\mu(s)=\left|\begin{array}{cccc}
f(1,1) & f(1,2) & \cdots & f(1, n+1) \\
f(2,1) & f(2,2) & \cdots & f(2, n+1) \\
\vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
f(n, 1) & f(n, 2) & \cdots & f(n, n+1) \\
\mu_{1}(s) & \mu_{2}(s) & \cdots & \mu_{n+1}(s)
\end{array}\right|
$$

Sometimes (iii) can be guaranteed by simply swapping names of the actions, but there are cases where this doesn't work.

## 3 Applications

### 3.1 Not All Combined Policies are Worse

A consequence of Theorem 3 is that given two policies $\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}$, not all combined policies can be worse than $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$. For the case where $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$ differ only in two states this is made more precise in the following proposition.

Proposition 7 Let $\mathcal{M}$ be an ergodic MDP. Let $\pi_{00}, \pi_{01}, \pi_{10}, \pi_{11}$ be four policies on $\mathcal{M}$ that coincide in all but two states $s_{1}, s_{2}$, in which either action 0 or 1 (according to the subindices) is chosen. We denote the average rewards of the policies by $V_{00}, V_{01}, V_{10}, V_{11}$. Let $\alpha, \beta \in\{0,1\}$ and set $\neg z:=1-z$. Then it cannot be the case that both, $V_{\alpha \beta}>V_{\neg \alpha, \beta}, V_{\alpha, \neg \beta}$ and $V_{\neg \alpha, \neg \beta} \geq V_{\neg \alpha, \beta}, V_{\alpha, \neg \beta}$. Analogously, it cannot hold that both, $V_{\alpha \beta}<V_{\neg \alpha, \beta}, V_{\alpha, \neg \beta}$ and $V_{\neg \alpha, \neg \beta} \leq V_{\neg \alpha, \beta}, V_{\alpha, \neg \beta}$.

Proof Let the invariant distributions of the policies $\pi_{00}, \pi_{01}, \pi_{10}, \pi_{11}$ be $\mu_{00}=$ $\left(a_{i}\right)_{i \in S}, \mu_{01}=\left(b_{i}\right)_{i \in S}, \mu_{10}=\left(c_{i}\right)_{i \in S}, \mu_{11}=\left(d_{i}\right)_{i \in S}$. Assume without loss of generality that $\alpha=\beta=0$ and $V_{00} \leq V_{11}$. We show that if $V_{00}>V_{01}, V_{10}$, then $V_{00}>V_{11}$, contradicting our assumption.

In the following, we write for the rewards of the policy $\pi_{00}$ simply $r_{i}$ instead of $r_{\pi_{00}(i)}(i)$. For the deviating rewards in state $s_{1}$ under policies $\pi_{10}, \pi_{11}$ and in state $s_{2}$ under $\pi_{01}, \pi_{11}$ we write $r_{1}^{\prime}$ and $r_{2}^{\prime}$, respectively. Then we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
V_{00}=\sum_{i \in S} a_{i} r_{i}, \quad V_{01} & =b_{2} r_{2}^{\prime}+\sum_{i \in S \backslash\{2\}} b_{i} r_{i}, \quad V_{10}=c_{1} r_{1}^{\prime}+\sum_{i \in S \backslash\{1\}} c_{i} r_{i}, \\
V_{11} & =d_{1} r_{1}^{\prime}+d_{2} r_{2}^{\prime}+\sum_{i \in S \backslash\{1,2\}} d_{i} r_{i} .
\end{aligned}
$$

If we now assume that $V_{00}>V_{01}, V_{10}$, the first three equations yield

$$
\begin{equation*}
b_{2} r_{2}^{\prime}<a_{2} r_{2}+\sum_{i \in S \backslash\{2\}}\left(a_{i}-b_{i}\right) r_{i} \quad \text { and } \quad c_{1} r_{1}^{\prime}<a_{1} r_{1}+\sum_{i \in S \backslash\{1\}}\left(a_{i}-c_{i}\right) r_{i} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

while applying Theorem 3 for $n=2$ together with sufficient condition (i) of Remark 6 to the fourth equation gives

$$
V_{11}=\frac{1}{D}\left(a_{2} b_{1} c_{1} r_{1}^{\prime}+a_{1} b_{2} c_{2} r_{2}^{\prime}+\sum_{i \in S \backslash\{1,2\}}\left(a_{2} b_{1} c_{i}-a_{i} b_{1} c_{2}+a_{1} c_{2} b_{i}\right) r_{i}\right),
$$

where $D=a_{2} b_{1}-b_{1} c_{2}+a_{1} c_{2}$. Substituting according to (1) then yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
& V_{11}<\frac{a_{2} b_{1}}{D}\left(a_{1} r_{1}+\sum_{i \in S \backslash\{1\}}\left(a_{i}-c_{i}\right) r_{i}\right)+\frac{a_{1} c_{2}}{D}\left(a_{2} r_{2}+\sum_{i \in S \backslash\{2\}}\left(a_{i}-b_{i}\right) r_{i}\right) \\
& \quad+\frac{a_{2} b_{1}}{D} \sum_{i \in S \backslash\{1,2\}} c_{i} r_{i}-\frac{b_{1} c_{2}}{D} \sum_{i \in S \backslash\{1,2\}} a_{i} r_{i}+\frac{a_{1} c_{2}}{D} \sum_{i \in S \backslash\{1,2\}} b_{i} r_{i} \\
& =\frac{1}{D}\left(a_{1} a_{2} b_{1} r_{1}+a_{2} b_{1}\left(a_{2}-c_{2}\right) r_{2}+a_{1} a_{2} c_{2} r_{2}+a_{1} c_{2}\left(a_{1}-b_{1}\right) r_{1}\right. \\
& \left.\quad+\left(a_{2} b_{1}+a_{1} c_{2}-b_{1} c_{2}\right) \sum_{i \in S \backslash\{1,2\}} a_{i} r_{i}\right) \\
& =\frac{a_{2} b_{1}-b_{1} c_{2}+a_{1} c_{2}}{D}\left(a_{1} r_{1}+a_{2} r_{2}+\sum_{i \in S \backslash\{1,2\}} a_{i} r_{i}\right)=V_{00} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Corollary 8 Let $V_{00}, V_{01}, V_{10}, V_{11}$ and $\alpha, \beta$ be as in Proposition 7. Then the following implications hold:
(i) $V_{\alpha \beta}<V_{\alpha, \neg \beta}, V_{\neg \alpha, \beta} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad V_{\neg \alpha, \neg \beta}>\min \left(V_{\alpha, \neg \beta}, V_{\neg \alpha, \beta}\right)$.
(ii) $V_{\alpha \beta}>V_{\alpha, \neg \beta}, V_{\neg \alpha, \beta} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad V_{\neg \alpha, \neg \beta}<\max \left(V_{\alpha, \neg \beta}, V_{\neg \alpha, \beta}\right)$.
(iii) $\quad V_{\alpha \beta} \leq V_{\alpha, \neg \beta}, V_{\neg \alpha, \beta} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad V_{\neg \alpha, \neg \beta} \geq \min \left(V_{\alpha, \neg \beta}, V_{\neg \alpha, \beta}\right)$.
(iv) $\quad V_{\alpha \beta} \geq V_{\alpha, \neg \beta}, V_{\neg \alpha, \beta} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad V_{\neg \alpha, \neg \beta} \leq \max \left(V_{\alpha, \neg \beta}, V_{\neg \alpha, \beta}\right)$.
(v) $V_{\alpha \beta}=V_{\alpha, \neg \beta}=V_{\neg \alpha, \beta} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad V_{\neg \alpha, \neg \beta}=V_{\alpha \beta}$.
(vi) $\quad V_{\alpha \beta}, V_{\neg \alpha, \neg \beta} \geq V_{\alpha, \neg \beta}, V_{\neg \alpha, \beta} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad V_{\alpha \beta}=V_{\alpha, \neg \beta}=V_{\neg \alpha, \beta}=V_{\neg \alpha, \neg \beta}$.

Proof (i)-(iv) are mere reformulations of Proposition 7, while (vi) is an easy consequence. Thus let us consider (v). If $V_{\neg a, \neg b}$ were $<V_{a, \neg b}=V_{\neg a, b}$, then by Proposition 7, $V_{a b}>\min \left(V_{\neg a, b}, V_{a, \neg b}\right)$, contradicting our assumption. Since a similar contradiction crops up if we assume that $V_{\neg a, \neg b}>V_{a, \neg b}=V_{\neg a, b}$, it follows that $V_{\neg a, \neg b}=V_{a, \neg b}=V_{\neg a, b}=V_{a b}$.

Actually, Proposition 7 is a special case of the following theorem.
Theorem 9 Let $\mathcal{M}$ be an ergodic $M D P$ and $\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}$ be two policies on $\mathcal{M}$. If there is a combined policy that has lower average reward than $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$, then
there must be another combined policy that has higher average reward than $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$.

### 3.1.1 Proof of Theorem 9

We show the following implication, from which the theorem follows:
(*) If $V\left(\pi_{1}\right), V\left(\pi_{2}\right) \geq V(\pi)$ for each combination $\pi$ of $\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}$, then $V\left(\pi_{1}\right)=$ $V\left(\pi_{2}\right)=V(\pi)$ for all combinations $\pi$ of $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$.

We assume without loss of generality that $V\left(\pi_{2}\right) \geq V\left(\pi_{1}\right)$. Furthermore, we ignore all states where $\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}$ coincide. For the remaining $n$ states we denote the actions of $\pi_{1}$ by 0 and those of $\pi_{2}$ by 1 . Thus any combination of $\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{2}$ can be expressed as a sequence of $n$ elements $\in\{0,1\}$, where we assume an arbitrary order on the set of states (take e.g. the one used in the transition matrices). We now define sets of policies or sequences, respectively, as follows: First, let $\Theta_{i}$ be the set of policies with exactly $i$ occurrences of 1 . Then set $\Pi_{0}:=\Theta_{0}=\{00 \ldots 0\}$, and for $1 \leq i \leq n$

$$
\Pi_{i}:=\left\{\pi \in \Theta_{i} \mid d\left(\pi, \pi_{i-1}^{*}\right)=1\right\}
$$

where $d$ denotes the Hamming distance, and $\pi_{i}^{*}$ is a (fixed) policy in $\Pi_{i}$ with $V\left(\pi_{i}^{*}\right)=\max _{\pi \in \Pi_{i}} V(\pi)$. Thus, a policy is $\in \Pi_{i}$ if and only if it can be obtained from $\pi_{i-1}^{*}$ by replacing a 0 with a 1 .

Lemma 10 If $n \geq 2$, then $V\left(\pi_{i-1}^{*}\right) \geq V\left(\pi_{i}^{*}\right)$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$.
Proof The lemma obviously holds for $i=1$, since $\pi_{0}^{*}=00 \ldots 0=\pi_{1}$ and by assumption $V\left(\pi_{1}\right) \geq V(\pi)$ for $\pi \in \Pi_{1}$ (presupposed that $n \geq 2$ ). Proceeding by induction, let $i>1$ and assume that $V\left(\pi_{i-2}^{*}\right) \geq V\left(\pi_{i-1}^{*}\right)$. By construction of the elements in each $\Pi_{j}$, the policies $\pi_{i-2}^{*}, \pi_{i-1}^{*}$ and $\pi_{i}^{*}$ differ in at most two states, i.e. the situation is as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\pi_{i-2}^{*} & =\ldots 0 \ldots 0 \ldots \\
\pi_{i-1}^{*} & =\ldots 1 \ldots 0 \ldots \\
\pi_{i}^{*} & =\ldots 1 \ldots 1 \ldots \\
\pi^{\prime} & =\ldots 0 \ldots 1 \ldots
\end{aligned}
$$

Define a policy $\pi^{\prime} \in \Pi_{i-1}$ as indicated above. Then $V\left(\pi_{i-2}^{*}\right) \geq V\left(\pi_{i-1}^{*}\right) \geq V\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)$ by induction assumption and optimality of $\pi_{i-1}^{*}$ in $\Pi_{i-1}$. Applying (iv) of Corollary 8 yields that $V\left(\pi_{i}^{*}\right) \leq \max \left(V\left(\pi_{i-1}^{*}\right), V\left(\pi^{\prime}\right)\right)=V\left(\pi_{i-1}^{*}\right)$.

Since $\pi_{0}^{*}=00 \ldots 0=\pi_{1}$ and $\pi_{n}^{*}=11 \ldots 1=\pi_{2}$, it follows from Lemma 10 that $V\left(\pi_{1}\right) \geq V\left(\pi_{2}\right)$. Together with our initial assumption that $V\left(\pi_{2}\right) \geq V\left(\pi_{1}\right)$ this
gives $V\left(\pi_{1}\right)=V\left(\pi_{2}\right)$. Eventually, we are ready to prove (*) by induction on the number of states $n$ in which the policies $\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}$ differ. For $n=1$ it is trivial, while for $n=2$ there are only two combinations of $\pi_{1}=\pi_{0}^{*}$ and $\pi_{2}=\pi_{2}^{*}$. One of them is identical to $\pi_{1}^{*}$ and hence has average return $V\left(\pi_{1}\right)$, so that the other one must have average return $V\left(\pi_{1}\right)$ due to Corollary 8 (v).

Thus, let us assume that $n>2$ and $V\left(\pi_{1}\right), V\left(\pi_{2}\right) \geq V(\pi)$ for each combination $\pi$ of $\pi_{1}, \pi_{2}$. Then we have already shown that the policies $\pi_{i}^{*}$ and hence in particular $\pi_{1}^{*}=00 \ldots 010 \ldots 0$ and $\pi_{n-1}^{*}=11 \ldots 101 \ldots 1$ have average reward $V\left(\pi_{1}\right)$. Since $\pi_{1}^{*}$ and $\pi_{n}^{*}=11 \ldots 1=\pi_{2}$ are policies with average reward $V\left(\pi_{1}\right)$ that share a common digit in some position $k$, we may conclude by induction assumption that all policies with a 1 in position $k$ yield average reward $V\left(\pi_{1}\right)$. A similar argument applied to the policies $\pi_{0}^{*}=00 \ldots 0$ and $\pi_{n-1}^{*}$ shows that all policies with a 0 in position $l$ (the position of the 0 in $\pi_{n-1}^{*}$ ) have average reward $V\left(\pi_{1}\right)$ as well. Note that by construction of the sets $\Pi_{i}, k \neq l$. Thus, we have shown that all considered policies have average reward $V\left(\pi_{1}\right)$, except those with a 1 in position $l$ and a 0 in position $k$. However, as all policies of the form

$$
\begin{gathered}
k \quad l \\
\ldots 0 \ldots 0 \ldots \\
\ldots 1 \ldots 0 \ldots \\
\ldots 1 \ldots 1 \ldots
\end{gathered}
$$

have average reward $V\left(\pi_{1}\right)$, a final application of Corollary 8 (v) shows that those yield average reward $V\left(\pi_{1}\right)$ as well.

### 3.2 Combining and Mixing Optimal Policies

An immediate consequence of Theorem 9 is that combinations of optimal policies in ergodic MDPs are optimal as well.

Theorem 11 Let $\mathcal{M}$ be an ergodic MDP and $\pi_{1}^{\circ}, \pi_{2}^{\circ}$ optimal policies on $\mathcal{M}$. Then any combination of these policies is optimal as well.

Proof If any combination of $\pi_{1}^{\circ}$ and $\pi_{2}^{\circ}$ were suboptimal, then by Theorem 9 there would be another combination of $\pi_{1}^{\circ}$ and $\pi_{2}^{\circ}$ with average reward larger than $V\left(\pi_{1}^{\circ}\right)$, a contradiction to the optimality of $\pi_{1}^{\circ}$.

Obviously, if two combined optimal policies are optimal, so are combinations of an arbitrary number of optimal policies. Thus, one immediately obtains that the set of optimal policies is closed under combination.

Corollary 12 Let $\mathcal{M}$ be an ergodic MDP. A policy $\pi$ is optimal on $\mathcal{M}$ if and only if for each state $s$ there is an optimal policy $\pi^{\circ}$ with $\pi(s)=\pi^{\circ}(s)$.

Theorem 11 can be extended to mixing optimal policies, that is, our policies are not deterministic anymore, but in each state we choose an action randomly. Building up on Theorem 11, we can show that any mixture of optimal policies is optimal as well.

Theorem 13 Let $\Pi^{*}$ be a set of deterministic optimal policies on an ergodic $M D P \mathcal{M}$. Then any policy that chooses at each visit in each state s randomly an action a such that there is a policy $\pi \in \Pi^{*}$ with $a=\pi(s)$, is optimal.

Proof By Theorem 8.9.3 of [2], the limit points of the state-action frequencies (cf. [2], p.399) of a random policy $\pi^{R}$ as described in the theorem are contained in the convex hull of the stationary distributions of policies in $\Pi^{*}$. The optimality of $\pi^{R}$ follows immediately from the optimality of the policies in $\Pi^{*}$.

Theorems 11 and 13 can also be obtained by more elementary means than we have applied here. However, in spite of this and the usefulness of the results (see below), as far as we know there is no mention of them in the literature.

### 3.2.1 Some Remarks

3.2.1.1 No Contexts MDPs are usually presented as a standard example for decision processes with delayed feedback. That is, an optimal policy often has to accept locally small rewards in present states in order to gain large rewards later in future states. One may think that this induces some sort of context in which actions are optimal, e.g. that choosing a locally suboptimal action only "makes sense" in the context of heading to higher reward states. Theorem 13 however shows that this is not the case and optimal actions are rather optimal in any context.
3.2.1.2 An Application of Theorem 13 Consider an algorithm operating on an MDP that every now and then recalculates the optimal policy according to its estimates of the transition probabilities and the rewards, respectively. Sooner or later the estimates are good enough, so that the calculated policy is indeed an optimal one. However, if there is more than one optimal policy, it may happen that the algorithm does not stick to a single optimal policy but starts mixing optimal policies irregularly. Theorem 13 guarantees that the average reward of such a process again is still optimal.
3.2.1.3 Optimality is Necessary Given some policies with equal average reward $V$, in general, it is not the case that a combination of these policies again has average reward $V$, as the following example shows. Thus, optimality is a necessary condition in Theorem 11.

Example 14 Let $S=\left\{s_{1}, s_{2}\right\}$ and $A=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}\right\}$. The transition probabilities are given by

$$
\left(p_{a_{1}}(i, j)\right)_{i, j \in S}=\left(p_{a_{2}}(i, j)\right)_{i, j \in S}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
0 & 1 \\
1 & 0
\end{array}\right)
$$

while the rewards are $r_{a_{1}}\left(s_{1}\right)=r_{a_{1}}\left(s_{2}\right)=0$ and $r_{a_{2}}\left(s_{1}\right)=r_{a_{2}}\left(s_{2}\right)=1$. Since the transition probabilities of all policies are identical, policy $\left(a_{2}, a_{2}\right)$ with an average reward of 1 is obviously optimal. Policy $\left(a_{2}, a_{2}\right)$ can be obtained as a combination of the policies $\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right)$, and ( $a_{2}, a_{1}$ ), which however only yield an average reward of $\frac{1}{2}$.
3.2.1.4 Multichain MDPs Theorem 11 does not hold for MDPs that are multichain as the following simple example demonstrates.

Example 15 Let $S=\left\{s_{1}, s_{2}\right\}$ and $A=\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}\right\}$. The transition probabilities are given by

$$
\left(p_{a_{1}}(i, j)\right)_{i, j \in S}=\left(\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right), \quad\left(p_{a_{2}}(i, j)\right)_{i, j \in S}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\
\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2}
\end{array}\right)
$$

while the rewards are $r_{a_{1}}\left(s_{1}\right)=r_{a_{1}}\left(s_{2}\right)=1$ and $r_{a_{2}}\left(s_{1}\right)=r_{a_{2}}\left(s_{2}\right)=0$. Then the policies $\left(a_{1}, a_{1}\right),\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right),\left(a_{2}, a_{1}\right)$ all gain an average reward of 1 and are optimal, while the combined policy $\left(a_{2}, a_{2}\right)$ yields suboptimal average reward 0 .
3.2.1.5 Infinite MDPs Under the strong assumption that there exists a unique invariant and positive distribution for each policy, Theorems 11 and 13 also hold for MDPs with countable set of states/actions. Proofs are identical to the case of finite MDPs (with the only difference that the induction becomes transfinite). However, in general, countable MDPs are much harder to handle as optimal policies need not be stationary anymore (cf. [2], p.413f).

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