# A Formalism for Stochastic Decision Processes with Asynchronous Events

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#### **Abstract**

We present the generalized semi-Markov decision process (GSMDP) as a natural model for stochastic decision processes with asynchronous events in hope to spur interest in asynchronous models, often overlooked in AI literature.

## Introduction

Stochastic processes with asynchronous events and actions have received little attention in the AI literature despite there being an abundance of asynchronous systems in the real world. The canonical example of an asynchronous process is a simple queuing system with a single service station, for example modeling your local post office. Customers arrive at the post office, wait in line until the service station is vacant, spend some time being serviced by the clerk, and finally leave. We can think of the arrival and departure (due to service completion) of a customer as two separate events. There is no synchronization between the arrival and departure of customers, i.e. the two events just introduced are asynchronous, so this is clearly an example of an asynchronous system.

Some attention has recently been given to planning with concurrent actions. Guestrin, Koller, & Parr (2002) and Mausam & Weld (2004) use discrete-time Markov decision processes (MDPs) to model and solve planning problems with concurrent actions, but the approach is restricted to instantaneous actions executed in synchrony. Rohanimanesh & Mahadevan (2001) consider planning problems with temporally extended actions that can be executed in parallel. By restricting the temporally extended actions to Markov options, the resulting planning problems can be modeled as discrete-time semi-Markov decision processes (SMDPs).

All three of the approaches cited above model time as a discrete quantity. This is a natural model of time for synchronous systems driven by a global clock. Asynchronous systems, on the other hand, are best represented using a dense (continuous) model of time (Alur, Courcoubetis, & Dill 1993). Continuous-time MDPs (Howard 1960) can be used to model asynchronous systems, but are restricted to events and actions with exponential trigger time distributions. Continuous-time SMDPs (Howard 1971) lift the

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restriction on trigger time distributions, but cannot model asynchrony.

We therefore propose the generalized semi-Markov decision process (GSMDP), based on the GSMP model of discrete event systems (Glynn 1989), as a model for asynchronous stochastic decision processes. A GSMDP, unlike an SMDP, remembers if an event enabled in the current state has been continuously enabled in previous states without triggering. This is key in modeling asynchronous processes, which typically involve events that race to trigger first in a state, but the event that triggers first does not necessarily disable the competing events. For example, if a customer is currently being serviced at the post office, the fact that another customer arrives does not mean that the service of the first customer has to start over from scratch. Rohanimanesh & Mahadevan (2001) note that if they were to allow semi-Markov options in their models, the resulting global models would no longer be SMDPs for the same reason. It should therefore be clear to the reader that the GSMDP formalism is a true generalization of the SMDP formalism. Intuitively, a GSMDP can be viewed as the composition of asynchronous SMDPs.

#### Generalized Semi-Markov Decision Processes

The generalized semi-Markov process (GSMP), first introduced by Matthes (1962), is an established formalism in queuing theory for modeling continuous-time stochastic discrete event systems (Glynn 1989). We add a decision dimension to the formalism by distinguishing a subset of the events as controllable and adding rewards, thereby obtaining the generalized semi-Markov *decision* process (GSMDP).

#### A Model of Stochastic Discrete Event Systems

A GSMP consists of a countable set of states S and a finite set of events E. At any point in time, the process occupies some state  $s \in S$  in which a subset  $E_s$  of the events are enabled. With each event  $e \in E$  is associated a positive distribution  $G_e$  governing the time e must remain enabled before it triggers, and a next-state probability distribution  $p_e(s'|s)$ . The enabled events in a state race to trigger first, and the event that triggers causes a transition to a state  $s' \in S$  according to the next-state probability distribution for the triggering event. The time we spend in a specific state s before an event occurs is a random variable  $T_s$ . A GSMP is

a semi-Markov process only if the distribution of  $T_s$ , for all  $s \in S$ , is independent of history.

As an example of a GSMP, consider the post office "system" mentioned in the introduction. The state of this simple queuing system is the number of customers currently in the post office. There are two events representing customer arrival and customer departure, respectively. The arrival event is always enabled and the distribution associated with this event represents the inter-arrival time for customers. The departure event is only enabled when there are customers in the post office. The distribution associated with the departure event represents the time it takes to service a single customer. When the departure event triggers, the state changes from n to n-1. The arrival event causes a transition from state n to n+1, unless the post office is full in which case the state does not change.

Formal Semantics. To formally define the semantics of a GSMP model, we associate a real-valued clock  $t_e$  with each event that indicates the time remaining until e is scheduled to trigger in the current state. The process starts in some initial state s with events  $E_s$  enabled. For each enabled event  $e \in E_s$ , we sample a trigger time according to the distribution  $G_e$  and set  $t_e$  to the sampled value. For disabled events, we set  $t_e = \infty$ . Let  $e^*$  be the event in  $E_s$  with the smallest clock value, i.e.  $e^* = \arg\min_{e \in E_s} t_e$ . The event  $e^*$  becomes the triggering event in s. Provided that all trigger time distributions are continuous, the probability of two events triggering at exactly the same time is zero so  $e^*$  is uniquely defined. When  $e^*$  triggers after  $t_{e^*}$  time units in s, we sample a next state s' according to  $p_{e^*}(s'|s)$  and update each clock  $t_e$  as follows:

- 1. if  $e \in E_{s'} \cap (\{e^*\} \cup (E \setminus E_s))$ , then  $t'_e$  is sampled from  $G_e$ ;
- 2. if  $e \in E_{s'} \cap (E_s \setminus \{e^*\})$ , then  $t'_e = t_e t_{e^*}$ ;
- 3. otherwise, if  $e \notin E_{s'}$  then  $t'_e = \infty$ .

The first rule covers events that are enabled in s' and either triggered or were not enabled in s. All such events are rescheduled. Events that remain enabled across state transitions without triggering are not rescheduled (rule 2). It is this rule that introduces history dependence and therefore breaks the semi-Markov property, thus a GSMP is not necessarily a semi-Markov process. The third and final rule states that events disabled in s' are scheduled not to trigger. Given a new state s' and new clock values  $t'_e$  for each  $e \in E$ , we repeat the procedure just specified with s = s' and  $t_e = t'_e$  so long as  $E_s \neq \emptyset$ .

By adding the clocks to the description of states we obtain an extended state-space  $X\subset S\times \mathbb{R}^{|E|}_{\geq 0}$ . Given an extended state  $x\in X$ , the next-state distribution over X is well-defined, which means that we can define a Markov chain with state-space X that corresponds to a GSMP with state-space S. This will be a *general state-space* Markov chain (GSSMC; Shedler 1993) because the state-space has both discrete and continuous components. Let  $f_e(t)$  be the probability density function for the distribution  $G_e$  associated with event e. The next-state distribution for the GSSMC

is defined as  $f(x'|x)=p_{e^*}(s'|s)\prod_{e\in E}\tilde{f}_e(t'_e|s',x)$ , where  $\tilde{f}_e(t'_e|s',x)$  is

- 1.  $f_e(t'_e)$ , if  $e \in E_{s'} \cap (\{e^*\} \cup (E \setminus E_s))$ ;
- 2.  $\delta(t'_e (t_e t_{e^*}))$ , if  $e \in E_{s'} \cap (E_s \setminus \{e^*\})$ ;
- 3.  $\delta(t'_e \infty)$ , if  $e \notin E_{s'}$ .

Here,  $\delta(t-t_0)$  is the Dirac delta function (Dirac 1927, p. 625) with the property that  $\int_{-\infty}^x \delta(t-t_0) dt$  is 0 for  $x < t_0$  and 1 for  $x \ge t_0$ . In particular,  $\int_{-\infty}^x \delta(t-\infty) dt$  is 0 for any finite x and 1 for  $x = \infty$ .

**Observation Model.** In general, the future trigger times of enabled events are not known to an observer of the process. Only the discrete part of the state-space is fully observable. However, the time that an event has been enabled is know to an observer, and this information is sufficient to provide the observer with a probability distribution over extended states.

Let  $O\subset S\times\mathbb{R}^{|E|}_{\geq 0}$  be the set of observations. An observation  $o=\langle s,\vec{u}\rangle\in O$  consists of s, the observed discrete part of the current extended state, and a vector  $\vec{u}$  with elements  $u_e$  for each  $e\in E$  being the time that event e has been enabled ( $u_e=0$  if  $e\not\in E_s$ ). Given an observation  $o=\langle s,\vec{u}\rangle$ , a probability density function f(x|o) over X is defined as  $f(x|o)=\prod_{e\in E}\tilde{f}_e(t_e|t_e>u_e,s)$  if  $x=\langle s,\vec{t}\rangle$  and f(x|o)=0 otherwise, where  $\tilde{f}_e(t_e|t_e>u_e,s)$  is  $f_e(t_e|t_e>u_e)$  if  $e\in E_s$  and  $\delta(t_e-\infty)$  otherwise.

Clearly,  $u_e$  is only significant for  $e \in E_s$ . Furthermore, if the distribution  $G_e$  associated with e is memoryless, i.e.  $f_e(t|t>t_0)=f_e(t)$  as is the case for the exponential distribution, we do not need to know for how long e has been enabled. Thus, an observation only needs to consist of s and  $u_e$  for all  $e \in E_s$  such that  $G_e$  is not a memoryless distribution. A GSMP with all events associated with an exponential distribution is simply a continuous-time Markov chain (Glynn 1989).

We define a function  $obs: X \times O \times S \to O$  that given an extended state x, an observation of x, and the observable part s' of a successor x' of x, provides the observation of x'. We have  $obs(x,o,s') = \langle s', \vec{u}' \rangle$ , where  $\vec{u}'$  consists of elements  $u'_e$  for each  $e \in E$ , with  $u'_e$  being

- 1.  $u_e + t_{e^*}$ , if  $e \in E_{s'} \cap (E_s \setminus \{e^*\})$ ;
- 2. 0 otherwise.

The first case covers events that remain enabled across state transitions without triggering. The time that e has remained enabled is simply the time it had remained enabled when entering state s ( $u_e$ ) plus the time spent in s ( $t_{e^*}$ ). The second case covers events that were not previously enabled or just triggered. Clearly, these events have not been enabled without triggering so the observation is 0 in this case. Note that the continuous component of x' is irrelevant to the observation of x'.

We could of course record the time an event has been enabled in the extended state rather than the trigger time of the event. An extended state would in that case be fully observable, but the result would be a general state-space *semi-Markov* process instead of a Markov chain.

$$v_{\alpha}^{\pi}(o) = \int_{X} f(x|o) \left( \int_{0}^{t_{e^{*}}} e^{-\alpha t} c(s,\pi(o)) dt + e^{-\alpha t_{e^{*}}} \int_{X} f(x'|x,o) \left( k(s,e^{*},s') + v_{\alpha}^{\pi}(obs(x,o,s')) \right) dx' \right) dx$$

$$= \int_{X} f(x|o) \left( \frac{1}{\alpha} \left( 1 - e^{-\alpha t_{e^{*}}} \right) c(s,\pi(o)) + e^{-\alpha t_{e^{*}}} \left( \hat{k}(s,e^{*}) + \sum_{s' \in S} p_{e^{*}}(s'|s) v_{\alpha}^{\pi}(obs(x,o,s')) \right) \right) dx$$

$$(1)$$

$$v_{\alpha}^{\pi}(s) = \int_{0}^{\infty} \lambda_{s}^{\pi} e^{-\lambda_{s}^{\pi} t} \sum_{e \in E_{s}^{\pi}} \frac{\lambda_{e}}{\lambda_{s}^{\pi}} \left( \frac{1}{\alpha} \left( 1 - e^{-\alpha t} \right) c(s, \pi(s)) + e^{-\alpha t} \left( \hat{k}(s, e) + \sum_{s' \in S} p_{e}(s'|s) v_{\alpha}^{\pi}(obs(s')) \right) \right) dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{\lambda_{s}^{\pi} + \alpha} \left( c(s, \pi(s)) + \sum_{e \in E_{s}^{\pi}} \lambda_{e} \left( \hat{k}(s, e) + \sum_{s' \in S} p_{e}(s'|s) v_{\alpha}^{\pi}(obs(s')) \right) \right)$$

$$(2)$$

## Actions, Policies, and Rewards

Given a GSMP with event set E, we identify a set  $A \subset E$ of controllable events, or actions. The remaining events are called exogenous events. Actions differ from exogenous events in that they can be disabled at will in a state, while an exogenous event e always remains enabled in a state s if  $e \in E_s$ . A control policy  $\pi$  determines which actions should be enabled at a given time in a state. We allow the action choice to depend on the entire execution history of the process, which can be captured in an observation  $o \in O$  as described above. Thus, a policy is a mapping from observations to sets of actions:  $\pi: O \to 2^A$ . A GSMDP controlled by a policy  $\pi$  is a GSSMC with  $E_s$  replaced by  $E^{\pi}(o) = \pi(o) \cup (E_s \setminus A)$  in the definition of  $e^*$ , f(x|o), and obs(x, o, s'). The next-state distribution is redefined as  $f(x'|x,o) = p_{e^*}(s'|s) \prod_{e \in E} \tilde{f}_e(t'_e|s',x,o)$ , where  $\tilde{f}_e(t'_e|s',x,o)$  is defined as  $\tilde{f}_e(t'_e|s',x)$  with  $E^\pi(o)$  replacing  $E_s$  and  $E^\pi_{obs(x,o,s')}$  replacing  $E_{s'}.$ 

For the post office example, we could make the departure event into an action. This would signify that we can open and close the service station at will. If we close the service station (i.e. disable the departure event) while a customer is being serviced, the time we have spent with the customer is forgotten and the customer must be serviced from scratch if we reopen the service station (i.e. enable the departure event).

In addition to actions, we specify a reward structure to obtain a GSMDP. We assume a traditional reward structure with a lump sum reward k(s,e,s') associated with the transition from state s to s' caused by the triggering of event e, and a continuous reward rate c(s,A') associated with set of actions  $A' \subset A$  being enabled in s (cf. Puterman 1994). The expected lump sum reward if event e triggers in state s is  $\hat{k}(s,e) = \sum_{s' \in S} p_e(s'|s) k(s,e,s')$ .

 $\hat{k}(s,e) = \sum_{s' \in S} p_e(s'|s) k(s,e,s')$ . The expected infinite-horizon discounted value of an observation o for a policy  $\pi$  is given by (1). The parameter  $\alpha$  is the *discount rate*, which can be interpreted as the rate of a termination event with exponential trigger time distribution (Howard 1960). It means that a unit reward earned t time units into the future counts as a  $e^{-\alpha t}$  reward at present time. Note that if rewards were allowed to depend on the ex-

tended state x of the process, and not only on the real state s, we would not be able to get rid of the nested integrations in (1).

Now, let s be a state such that each event  $e \in E_s^\pi$  is associated with an exponential distribution having rate  $\lambda_e$ :  $G_e = Exp(\lambda_e)$ . Let  $\lambda_s^\pi = \sum_{e \in E_s^\pi} \lambda_e$ . The time spent in s before an event triggers is then a random variable with distribution  $Exp(\lambda_s^\pi)$  and the probability that a specific event e triggers first is  $\lambda_e/\lambda_s^\pi$ . These nice properties of the exponential distribution allows us to write the expected infinite-horizon discounted value of s as (2). We write obs(s') for the observation of the next state because it is independent of the current state. If all events are associated with memoryless distributions, then obs(s') can be replaced with s' in (2), which then represents an alternative formulation for continuous-time Markov decision processes.

## **Discussion**

Unless we make limiting assumptions regarding a GSMDP model, for example that all distributions are memoryless, then we most likely have to resort to approximation schemes in order to solve the GSMDP. A straightforward approach would be to discretize time, however, we will suffer greatly from the curse of dimensionality if we do so naively.

Younes & Simmons (2004) present a technique for approximating a GSMDP with a continuous-time MDP by approximating each distribution  $G_e$  with a continuous phase-type distribution (Neuts 1981). The continuous-time MDP can then be solved using standard techniques. The approximation essentially amounts to a discretization into random-length intervals of the observation for how long an event has been enabled. The length of an interval is a random variable with an exponential distribution.

Alternatively, we could use *discrete* phase-type distributions (Neuts 1975) to obtain a discrete-time MDP that approximates our GSMDP. Bobbio *et al.* (2003) describe an algorithm for approximating an arbitrary positive distribution with a discrete phase-type distribution, which could be used for the purpose of approximating a GSMDP with a discrete-time MDP. One clear advantage with this approach over using continuous phase-type distributions is that determinis-

tic distributions can be represented exactly. A disadvantage with approximating a GSMDP with a discrete-time model is that we would have to take into account the possibility of two events triggering at the same time, and it may not be immediately obvious what to do in such a case.

A third possibility is of course to use a function approximator, for example k-nearest neighbor, to represent the value function of a GSMDP. The GSMDP could then be solved using fitted value iteration (Gordon 1995).

Even if we cannot hope to find optimal policies for GSMDPs, it may still be worthwhile trying to determine characteristics of optimal policies. We have defined a policy as a mapping from observations to sets of actions, where an observation includes a clock value for each enabled event. This means that actions can be enabled and disabled at any point in time while in a specific state and not only at the triggering of an event or action. If all trigger time distributions are exponential, i.e. if the GSMDP is a continuoustime MDP, then we do not need to take into consideration the time that events have been enabled in order to maximize the expected infinite-horizon discounted reward. The SMDP case, when the action choice can change between transition, has been analyzed by Chitgopekar (1969), Stone (1973), and Cantaluppi (1984) under various assumptions. An analysis of this sort would be valuable for the general case with asynchronous events as well, and would ideally provide us with conditions for the trigger time distributions under which the optimal policy has a certain structure (for example piecewise constant).

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