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Büchi Objectives in Countable MDPs

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Abstract
We study countably infinite Markov decision processes with Büchi objectives, which ask to visit a given subset $F$ of states infinitely often. A question left open by T.P. Hill in 1979 [10] is whether there always exist $\varepsilon$-optimal Markov strategies, i.e., strategies that base decisions only on the current state and the number of steps taken so far. We provide a negative answer to this question by constructing a non-trivial counterexample. On the other hand, we show that Markov strategies with only 1 bit of extra memory are sufficient.

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1 Introduction

Background. Markov decision processes (MDPs) are a standard model for dynamic systems that exhibit both stochastic and controlled behavior [16]. MDPs play a prominent role in numerous domains, including artificial intelligence and machine learning [19, 18], control theory [4, 1], operations research and finance [5, 17], and formal verification [9, 2]. In an MDP, the system starts in the initial state and makes a sequence of transitions between states. Depending on the type of the current state, either the controller gets to choose an enabled transition (or a distribution over transitions), or the next transition is chosen randomly according to a defined distribution. By fixing a strategy for the controller, one obtains a probability space of runs of the MDP. The goal of the controller is to optimize the expected value of some objective function on the runs.

The type of strategy needed for an optimal (resp. $\varepsilon$-optimal) strategy for some objective is also called the strategy complexity of the objective. There are different types of strategies, depending on whether one can take the whole history of the run into account (history-dependent; (H)), or whether one is limited to a finite amount of memory (finite memory; (E)).
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(F)) or whether decisions are based only on the current state (memoryless; (M)). Moreover, the strategy type depends on whether the controller can randomize (R) or is limited to deterministic choices (D). The simplest type MD refers to memoryless deterministic strategies. Markov strategies are strategies that base their decisions only on the current state and the number of steps in the history or the run. Thus they do use infinite memory, but only in a very restricted form by maintaining an unbounded step-counter. For finite MDPs, there exist optimal MD-strategies for many (but not all) objectives [6, 7, 8, 16], but the picture is more complex for countably infinite MDPs [13, 15, 16].

We study here so-called Goal objectives defined via a subset of goal states $F$: In the basic Goal objective (also called the Reachability objective) one simply wants to reach the set $F$. In the Büchi objective one wants to visit the set $F$ infinitely often. For finite MDPs there exist optimal MD-strategies for both these objectives [7, 16]. For countably infinite MDPs, optimal strategies (where they exist) and $\varepsilon$-optimal strategies for Reachability can be chosen MD [15, 16]. Similarly, optimal strategies for Büchi (where they exist) can be chosen MD [13]. However, $\varepsilon$-optimal strategies for Büchi require infinite memory (cannot be chosen FR); cf. [13, 14].

![Figure 1](image)

(a) Finitely branching, but infinitely many controlled states.  
(b) Infinitely branching, but just one controlled state.

Figure 1 Two MDPs where $\varepsilon$-optimal strategies for Büchi require infinite memory. Let $F = \{s_0\}$ be the set of goal states. Here and throughout the paper we indicate goal states by double borders, and controlled states as rectangles.

**Example 1.** Consider the MDPs in Figure 1. Every finite memory (FR) strategy will only attain probability 0 for Büchi in these examples [13]. However, there exists an $\varepsilon$-optimal Markov strategy for every $\varepsilon > 0$: At the $i$-th time that state $s_0$ is visited, pick the successor state $r_{i+k}$ where $k$ is some sufficiently large number depending on $\varepsilon$, e.g., $k = \lceil \log_2(1/\varepsilon) \rceil$. For example (b) this can easily be done with a step-counter since $s_0$ is visited for the $i$-th time in step $2(i-1)$ unless the system has reached the state $\bot$. For example (a), under this strategy, state $s_0$ is visited for the $i$-th time in step $\sum_{j=1}^{i-1}(k+j+1)$ unless the system has reached the state $\bot$.

**Example 2.** Consider the MDP from Figure 2, taken from [11, Example 4.2]. Every FR-strategy attains only probability 0 of Büchi. Moreover, the strategy that, in state $s_0$, subsequently picks $r_1, r_2, \ldots$ also attains probability 0, unlike in Example 1. But a different infinite-memory strategy achieves a positive probability. Indeed, let $\sigma$ be the strategy that, in $s_0$, picks $2^1$ times $r_1$ and then $2^2$ times $r_2$ and $2^i$ times $r_i$, etc. This strategy $\sigma$ achieves a positive probability of Büchi. (In more detail, $\sigma$ achieves a positive probability of not falling in a losing sink $\bot$, and in almost all of the remaining runs it visits a goal state infinitely often.) Note that $\sigma$ is a Markov strategy.
The open problem. While the MDPs in Examples 1 and 2 require infinite memory, Markov strategies suffice for them. Such examples led to the question whether there always exists a family of $\varepsilon$-optimal Markov strategies for Büchi in all countably infinite MDPs.

A partial answer was given by Hill [10] (Proposition 5.1), who showed that $\varepsilon$-optimal Markov strategies for Büchi exist in the special case where the MDP contains only a finite number of controlled states. This result applies to the MDPs from Example 2 and Figure 1b), but not directly to the one in Figure 1a).

The question for general MDPs was stated as an open problem in [10] (p.158, l.4) and mentioned again in [11] (Q1 in Section 5).

Our contributions. We provide a negative answer to the open problem. We construct a non-trivial example of a countable acyclic and finitely branching MDP and prove that no $\varepsilon$-optimal Markov strategies for Büchi exist for it (for any $\varepsilon < 1$). In combination with the example from Figure 1, this shows that for general MDPs neither finite memory (FR) nor Markov strategies are sufficient.

Secondly, we provide an upper bound on the strategy complexity of Büchi. We show that for acyclic countable MDPs there always exist $\varepsilon$-optimal strategies that are deterministic and use only one bit of memory. Since every MDP can be transformed into an acyclic one by encoding a step-counter into the states, it follows that general countable MDPs have $\varepsilon$-optimal strategies for Büchi that are deterministic and use only a step-counter plus one extra bit of memory. Thus Markov strategies are almost, but not quite, sufficient. Table 1 summarizes these results.

Table 1 Existence of various types of $\varepsilon$-optimal strategies for the Büchi objective, for several classes of MDPs. New results are in boldface.
Preliminaries

A probability distribution over a countable set \( S \) is a function \( f : S \rightarrow [0,1] \) with \( \sum_{s \in S} f(s) = 1 \). We write \( \mathcal{D}(S) \) for the set of all probability distributions over \( S \).

For a set \( S \) we write \( S^* \) (resp. \( S^\omega \)) for the set of all finite (resp. infinite) sequences of elements in \( S \). We use slightly generalized regular expressions for sets of sequences, e.g., if \( s_0 \in S \) we may write \( s_0S^\omega \) for the set of infinite sequences starting with \( s_0 \).

Markov decision processes. A Markov decision process (MDP) \( \mathcal{M} = (S, S_0, S_\tau, \rightarrow, P) \) consists of a countable set \( S \) of states, which is partitioned into a set \( S_0 \) of controlled states and a set \( S_\tau \) of random states, a transition relation \( \rightarrow \subseteq S \times S \), and a probability function \( P : S_\rightarrow \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(S) \). We write \( s \rightarrow s' \) if \( (s, s') \in \rightarrow \), and refer to \( s' \) as a successor of \( s \). We assume that every state has at least one successor. The probability function \( P \) assigns to each random state \( s \in S_\tau \) a probability distribution \( P(s) \) over its (non-empty) set of successor states. A sink in \( \mathcal{M} \) is a subset \( T \subseteq S \) closed under the \( \rightarrow \) relation, that is, \( s \in T \) and \( s \rightarrow s' \) implies that \( s' \in T \).

An MDP is acyclic if the underlying directed graph \( (S, \rightarrow) \) is acyclic, i.e., there is no directed cycle. It is finitely branching if every state has finitely many successors and infinitely branching otherwise. An MDP without controlled states \((S_0 = \emptyset)\) is called a Markov chain.

Strategies and Probability Measures. A run \( \rho \) is an infinite sequence \( s_0s_1 \cdots \) of states such that \( s_i \rightarrow s_{i+1} \) for all \( i \in \mathbb{N} \); write \( \rho(i) \equiv s_i \) for the \( i \)-th state along \( \rho \). A partial run is a finite prefix of a run. We say that (partial) run \( \rho \) visits \( s \) if \( s = \rho(i) \) for some \( i \), and that \( \rho \) starts in \( s \) if \( s = \rho(0) \).

A strategy is a function \( \sigma : S^*S_0 \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(S) \) that assigns to partial runs \( \rho s \in S^*S_0 \) a distribution over the successors \( \{s' \in S \mid s \rightarrow s'\} \). The set of all strategies in \( \mathcal{M} \) is denoted by \( \Sigma_{\mathcal{M}} \) (we omit the subscript and write \( \Sigma \) if \( \mathcal{M} \) is clear from the context). A (partial) run \( s_0s_1 \cdots \) is induced by strategy \( \sigma \) if for all \( i \) either \( s_i \in S_0 \) and \( \sigma(s_0s_1 \cdots s_i)(s_{i+1}) > 0 \), or \( s_i \in S_\tau \) and \( P(s_i)(s_{i+1}) > 0 \).

An MDP \( \mathcal{M} = (S, S_0, S_\tau, \rightarrow, P) \), an initial state \( s_0 \in S \), and a strategy \( \sigma \) induce a probability space in which the outcomes are runs starting in \( s_0 \) and with measure \( P_{\mathcal{M}, s_0, \sigma} \) defined as follows. It is first defined on cylinders \( s_0s_1 \cdots s_nS^\omega \), where \( s_1, \ldots, s_n \in S \); if \( s_0s_1 \ldots s_n \) is not a partial run induced by \( \sigma \) then \( P_{\mathcal{M}, s_0, \sigma}(s_0s_1 \ldots s_nS^\omega) \equiv 0 \). Otherwise, \( P_{\mathcal{M}, s_0, \sigma}(s_0s_1 \ldots s_nS^\omega) \equiv \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} \sigma(s_0s_1 \ldots s_i)(s_{i+1}) \), where \( \sigma \) is the map that extends \( \sigma \) by \( \sigma(ws) = P(s) \) for all \( wS \in S^\omega \). By Carathéodory’s theorem [3], this extends uniquely to a probability measure \( P_{\mathcal{M}, s_0, \sigma} \) on the Borel \( \sigma \)-algebra \( \mathcal{F} \) of subsets of \( s_0S^\omega \). Elements of \( \mathcal{F} \), i.e., measurable sets of runs, are called events or objectives here. For \( X \in \mathcal{F} \) we will write \( X \equiv s_0S^\omega \backslash X \in \mathcal{F} \) for its complement and \( E_{\mathcal{M}, s_0, \sigma} \) for the expectation w.r.t. \( P_{\mathcal{M}, s_0, \sigma} \). We drop the indices wherever possible without introducing ambiguity.

Strategy Classes. Strategies are in general randomized (R) in the sense that they take values in \( \mathcal{D}(S) \). A strategy \( \sigma \) is deterministic (D) if \( \sigma(\rho) \) is a Dirac distribution for all runs \( \rho \in S^*S_0 \).

We formalize the amount of memory needed to implement strategies. Let \( M \) be a countable set of memory modes, and let \( \tau : M \times S \rightarrow \mathcal{D}(M \times S) \) be a function that meets the following two conditions: for all modes \( m \in M \),

- for all controlled states \( s \in S_0 \), the distribution \( \tau(m, s) \) is over \( M \times \{s' \mid s \rightarrow s'\} \).
- for all random states \( s \in S_\tau \), we have \( \sum_{m' \in M} \tau(m, s)(m', s') = P(s)(s') \).
The function \( \tau \) together with an initial memory mode \( m_0 \) induce a strategy \( \sigma_\tau : S^* S_0 \to \mathcal{D}(S) \) as follows. Consider the Markov chain with the set \( M \times S \) of states and the probability function \( \tau \). A sequence \( \rho = s_0 \cdots s_i \) corresponds to a set \( H(\rho) = \{(m_0, s_0) \cdots (m_i, s_i) \mid m_0, \ldots, m_i \in M\} \) of runs in this Markov chain. Each \( \rho s \in S^* S_0 \) induces a probability distribution \( \mu_{\rho s} \in \mathcal{D}(M) \), the probability of being in state \((m, s)\) conditioned on having taken some partial run from \( H(\rho s) \). We define \( \sigma_\tau \) such that \( \sigma_\tau(\rho s)(s') = \sum_{m, m' \in M} \mu_{\rho s}(m) \tau(m, s)(m', s') \) for all \( \rho s \in S^* S_0 \) and all \( s' \in S \).

We say that a strategy \( \sigma \) can be implemented with memory \( M \) if there exist \( m_0 \in M \) and \( \tau \) such that \( \sigma_\tau = \sigma \). We define certain classes of strategies:

- A strategy \( \sigma \) is finite memory (F) if there exists a finite memory \( M \) implementing \( \sigma \).
- A strategy \( \sigma \) is memoryless (M) (also called positiona) if it can be implemented with a memory of size \( 1 \). We may view M-strategies as functions \( \sigma : S_0 \to \mathcal{D}(S) \).
- A strategy \( \sigma \) is 1-bit if it can be implemented with a memory of size \( 2 \). Such a strategy is then determined by a function \( \tau : \{0, 1\} \times S \to \mathcal{D}(\{0, 1\} \times S) \). Intuitively \( \tau \) uses one bit of memory to capture two different modes.
- A strategy \( \sigma \) is Markov if it can be implemented with the natural numbers \( \mathbb{N} \) as the memory, and a function \( \tau \) such that the distribution \( \tau(m, s) \) is over \( \{m + 1\} \times S \) for all \( m \in M \) and \( s \in S \). Intuitively, such a strategy depends only on the the current state and the number of steps taken so far, i.e., it has access to a step-counter. We view Markov strategies as functions \( \sigma : \mathbb{N} \times S_0 \to \mathcal{D}(S) \). Note that such a strategy is generally not finite memory.
- A strategy \( \sigma \) is 1-bit Markov if it can be implemented with \( \mathbb{N} \times \{0, 1\} \) as the memory, and a function \( \tau \) such that the distribution \( \tau(n, b, s) \) is over \( \{n + 1\} \times \{0, 1\} \times S \) for all \( (n, b) \in M \) and \( s \in S \). We view such strategies as functions \( \sigma : \mathbb{N} \times \{0, 1\} \times S_0 \to \mathcal{D}(\{0, 1\} \times S) \).

**Payoffs, Values, Optimality.** We are interested in strategies to maximize the expectation of a given measurable payoff function \( f : S^0 \to \mathbb{R} \), a random variable that assigns a real value to every run. The value of state \( s \) (w.r.t. \( f \)) is the supremum of expected values of \( f \) over all strategies:

\[
\text{val}_{M, f}(s) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \sup_{\sigma \in \Sigma} \mathcal{E}_{M, s, \sigma}(f),
\]

For \( \varepsilon \geq 0 \) and \( s \in S \), we say that a strategy \( \sigma \) is \( \varepsilon \)-optimal if \( \mathcal{E}_{M, s, \sigma}(f) \geq \text{val}_{M, f}(s) - \varepsilon \) and uniformly \( \varepsilon \)-optimal if this holds for every \( s \in S \). A (uniformly) 0-optimal strategy is simply called (uniformly) optimal.

In this paper, we will need two types of payoff functions. The first is the total reward, a random variable given as \( f(\rho) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} r(\rho(t)) \), where \( r : S \to \mathbb{R} \) is some given reward function. A useful fact [16, Theorem 7.1.9] is that if \( S \) is finite and the range of \( r \) is bounded then there exist optimal strategies (for total reward) which are memoryless and deterministic.

The second type of payoff functions we consider are those with range \( \{0, 1\} \). Each such payoff function \( f \) uniquely identifies an objective (set of runs) \( \varphi \) by viewing \( f \) as the characteristic function of \( \varphi \), i.e., \( f(\rho) = 1 \) if \( \rho \in \varphi \) and 0 otherwise. Then \( \mathcal{E}_{M, s, \sigma}(f) = P_{M, s, \sigma}(\varphi) \). We call this the probability of achieving \( \varphi \) (using strategy \( \sigma \) starting from the state \( s \)) and simply write \( \text{val}_{M, f}(s) = \text{val}_{M, f}(s) = \sup_{\sigma \in \Sigma} P_{M, s, \sigma}(\varphi) \).

Our main focus are reachability (sometimes also called goal) and Büchi objectives, which are determined by a set of states \( F \subseteq S \) and defined as follows. Let us slightly abuse notation and identify \( F \) with its characteristic function, i.e., \( F(s) = 1 \) if \( s \in F \).

- The reachability objective is to visit \( F \) at least once during a run. The corresponding payoff is \( f(\rho) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \max_{t \in \mathbb{N}} r(\rho(t)) \), and we define \( \text{Goal}(F) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \{ \rho \in S^* \mid \max_{t \in \mathbb{N}} F(\rho(t)) = 1 \} \);
- The Büchi objective is to visit \( F \) infinitely often. The corresponding payoff function is \( f(\rho) = \limsup_{t \to \infty} F(\rho(t)) \), and we let \( \text{Büchi}(F) = \{ \rho \in S^* \mid \limsup_{t \to \infty} F(\rho(t)) = 1 \} \).
3 The Lower Bound

In this section we solve Hill’s problem ([10] and [11, Q1]) by exhibiting an MDP where the initial state has value 1 w.r.t. the Büchi objective, but every Markov strategy achieves this objective with probability 0. As explained in the introduction, it follows that in acyclic MDPs, $\varepsilon$-optimal MR-strategies are not guaranteed to exist. In fact, in the following theorem we prove the latter fact first, and subsequently generalize it to solve Hill’s problem.

**Theorem 3.** There exists an acyclic MDP $M$, a state $s_0$ and a set of states $F$ such that
1. for every Markov strategy $\sigma$, we have $\mathcal{P}_{M,s_0,\sigma}(\text{Büchi}(F)) = 0$, and
2. $\text{val}_{\text{Büchi}}(F)(s_0) = 1$ and for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a deterministic 1-bit strategy $\sigma_\varepsilon$ s.t. $\mathcal{P}_{M,s_0,\sigma_\varepsilon}(\text{Büchi}(F)) \geq 1 - \varepsilon$.

In the remainder of this section we provide a proof sketch. The full proof is in [12].

**Proof sketch for Theorem 3.** Our construction is based on an infinite MDP $M$ that consists of a chain of height-$n$ trees, $T^n$, for $n \in \mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, \ldots\}$. Figure 3 depicts its initial segment $T^1, T^2, T^3$. Each such tree is “rooted” at a brown state on the top level, with a transition incoming from a blue state. We make use of some conventions that simplify the presentation and the analysis. In Figure 3, the different colors of the states highlight the structure of the MDP; the colors are also indicated by letters in the states: blue (L), brown (B), yellow (Y), red (R), green (G), white (W). The start state, $s_0$, is the blue state in the top-left corner. The controlled states are exactly the yellow states. The goal set $F$ consists of the green states at the bottom. Two transitions emanate from each red state: a black (right) transition and a red (left) transition, both leading to the same (brown or green) state.

We consider the strengthened Büchi objective that asks to see $F$ infinitely often and moreover that no red transition is taken. This corresponds exactly to the normal Büchi objective if we redirect every red transition to an infinite (losing) chain of non-green states (not depicted in Figure 3). We first argue that no MR-strategy achieves a positive probability of that objective. Then we show that the MDP $M$ can be modified so that no Markov strategy achieves a positive probability.

**Intuition behind the construction of $M$.** The objective, say $\varphi$, of visiting infinitely many green states and no red transition creates tension between trying to visit green states and avoiding too many red states (the latter states incur a risk of taking a red transition). In the proof we need to show that no memoryless strategy strikes a good balance between these competing goals. On the one end of the spectrum, an MR-strategy might always choose the upward transition in the yellow states (which are the only controlled states). But such a strategy never visits any green state, thus clearly violates $\varphi$. On the other end of the spectrum lies the “greedy” MR-strategy, which always chooses the downward transition in the yellow states, in order to visit as many green states as possible. Indeed, under this strategy, let $u_n$ denote the probability that, starting in the top-left brown state of $T^n$, no green state is visited in $T^n$. By induction (given in [12]) one can show that there is $u < 1$ such that $u_n \leq u$ holds for all $n$. Considering the probability of the transitions emanating from the blue states (at the top), the expected overall number of visited green states is at least $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} (1 - u_n) \geq (1 - u) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} = \infty$. It is not hard to strengthen this statement so that the greedy strategy almost surely visits infinitely many green states. So the greedy strategy satisfies one part of $\varphi$, but it does so at the expense of visiting many red states. Red states though are associated with a risk of taking a red transition, and it follows from the proof in [12] that the greedy strategy almost surely ends up taking at least one (and indeed infinitely many) red transition(s).
For this acyclic MDP $M$, there are $\epsilon$-optimal deterministic 1-bit strategies for the Büchi objective $B(T)$ where $T$ contains exactly all green states. No MR-strategy achieves even a positive probability.
The two competing goals discussed in the previous paragraph can be balanced using a deterministic 1-bit strategy, which we describe in the following. This strategy, \( \sigma_1 \), sets its bit to 0 whenever a blue state (at the top) is entered. While the bit is 0, in each tree \( T^n \) it maximizes the probability of visiting a green state by choosing the downward transition in the yellow states, thus accepting a certain risk of taking a red transition. However, if and when a green state in \( T^n \) is visited, the bit is set to 1, and for the remaining sojourn in \( T^n \) the strategy \( \sigma_1 \) chooses the upward transitions in the yellow states, thus avoiding any risk of a red transition in the remainder of \( T^n \). Although \( \sigma_1 \) appears to visit fewer green states than the aforementioned “greedy” MR-strategy, \( \sigma_1 \) still visits infinitely many green states almost surely. This is because for each tree \( T^n \), the two strategies have the same probability of visiting at least one green state in \( T^n \). The strategy \( \sigma_1 \) can be improved, for each \( \varepsilon > 0 \), to achieve \( \varphi \) with probability at least \( 1 - \varepsilon \), by fixing the bit to 1 in the first \( k \) trees \( T^1, \ldots, T^k \), for a \( k \) that depends on \( \varepsilon \). Thus the first \( k \) trees are virtually skipped, eliminating the risk of taking any red transition there. In this way one can make the risk of taking a red transition arbitrarily small, while still visiting infinitely many green states with probability 1.

No good MR-strategies. We need to show that not only the extreme MR-strategies described above are inadequate but that every MR-strategy achieves \( \varphi \) with probability 0. To this end, for each tree \( T^n \), define two probabilities:

- \( t_n \) (for “total success”): the probability that, starting in the top-left brown state of \( T^n \), at least one green state but no red transition is visited in \( T^n \);
- \( d_n \) (for “death”): the probability that, starting in the top-left brown state of \( T^n \), a red transition is visited in \( T^n \).

A very technical proof shows that \( d_n \geq 0.008 \cdot t_n \) holds for all \( n \), and this key inequality captures the inability of any MR-strategy to strike an adequate balance between the mentioned competing goals. Indeed, one can show that for an MR-strategy to have a positive probability of not visiting any red transition, the series \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} \cdot d_n \) needs to converge; but to have a positive probability of visiting infinitely many green states, the series \( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} \cdot t_n \) needs to diverge (in both cases, the factor \( \frac{1}{n} \) is the probability of visiting the top-left brown node of \( T^n \)). By the inequality above, this is impossible.

No good Markov strategies. For the proof of Theorem 3, we also need to show that all Markov strategies achieve probability 0. To this end, we modify the MDP \( \mathcal{M} \) so that for each state, all paths from the initial state \( s_0 \) to \( s \) have the same length. This can be achieved by replacing some transitions in \( \mathcal{M} \) by longer chains consisting of non-green states. This modification does not change the fact that MR-strategies achieve probability 0. But since in the new MDP each state can only be visited at a certain time, which is known a priori, a step-counter does not help. Hence all Markov strategies, like MR-strategies, achieve \( \varphi \) with probability 0.

Theorem 3 answers Hill’s question negatively. By combining the MDP from Theorem 3 with one of the MDPs from Figure 1 (by adding a new initial random state that branches to the MDPs with probability \( \frac{1}{2} \) each), one can even construct a single MDP whose value w.r.t. Büchi(\( F \)) is 1, but every FR- and every Markov strategy achieves probability 0.

A slight modification of the example above yields a lower bound on the memory requirements for the almost-sure parity objective. Recall that the parity objective is defined on systems whose states are labeled by a finite set of colors \( C \equiv \{1, 2, \ldots, \text{max}\} \subseteq \mathbb{N} \), where a run is in Parity(\( C \)) iff the highest color that is seen infinitely often in the run is even.
Corollary 4. There exist an acyclic MDP $M'$ with colors $\{1, 2, 3\}$ and a state $s_0$ such that
1. for every Markov strategy $\sigma$, we have $P_{M', s_0, \sigma}(\text{Parity}(\{1, 2, 3\})) = 0$, and
2. there exists a deterministic 1-bit strategy $\sigma'$ such that $P_{M', s_0, \sigma'}(\text{Parity}(\{1, 2, 3\})) = 1$.

Proof. We obtain $M'$ by modifying the MDP $M$ from Theorem 3 as follows. Label all green states in $F$ by color 2 and the rest by color 1. Then modify each red transition to go to its target via a fresh state labeled by color 3. Clearly $M'$ is still acyclic and labeled by colors $\{1, 2, 3\}$.

From the proof of Theorem 3 (1), under every Markov strategy in $M$ a.s. seeing infinitely many green states in $F$ by color 2 and the rest by color 1. Then modify each red transition to go to its target via a fresh state labeled by color 3. Clearly $M'$ is still acyclic and labeled by colors $\{1, 2, 3\}$.

From the proof of Theorem 3 (2), there is a deterministic 1-bit strategy $\sigma$ in $M$ that attains probability $\geq 1/2$ for $\text{Büchi}(F)$ without taking any red transition and otherwise a.s. takes a red transition. This property of $\sigma$ holds not only when starting from $s_0$ but from every other state as well. We obtain $\sigma'$ in $M'$ by continuing to play $\sigma$ even after red transitions have been taken. Under $\sigma'$ the probability of going through infinitely many red transitions (and seeing color 3) is $\leq (1/2)\infty = 0$, and the probability of seeing infinitely many states in $F$ (with color 2) is 1. Thus $P_{M', s_0, \sigma'}(\text{Parity}(\{1, 2, 3\})) = 1$.

4. The Upper Bound

We show that acyclic MDPs admit $\varepsilon$-optimal deterministic 1-bit strategies for Büchi.

We start by giving some intuition why 1 bit of memory is needed and how it is used. A step $s' \rightarrow s''$ from some controlled state $s'$ is value-decreasing iff $\text{val}(s'') < \text{val}(s')$. While an optimal strategy can never tolerate any value-decreasing step, an $\varepsilon$-optimal strategy might have to take value-decreasing steps infinitely often. The trick is to keep the collective value-loss sufficiently small ($\leq \varepsilon$), while satisfying the other requirements of the objective. So the strategy needs to play “ever better” (i.e., tolerate only smaller and smaller value decreases) along a run. In general this requires infinite memory, since one might re-visit the same state infinitely often and needs to choose a different transition from it every time; cf. Figure 1. However, in an acyclic MDP, with high probability, the distance to the initial state increases with the number of steps taken. Thus one can partition the state space into separate regions, depending on the distance from the initial state, and fix an acceptable rate of value-decrease for each region. Just limiting the collective value-loss is not sufficient for Büchi, one also needs to make progress and visit the set of goal states $F$ at least once in each region. The problem is that some runs might linger in some region too long, and visit $F$ many times, but see too many value-decreasing steps at the rate of this region. Therefore, as soon as one has visited $F$ in some region, one should try to get to the next outer region (further away from the initial state) where the rate of value-loss is smaller. Thus one needs 1 bit of memory to record whether one has already seen $F$ in this region. (Remember that the same state can be reached by different runs with different histories.) Just 1 bit suffices, because the probability of returning to a previous inner region (and misinterpreting the bit) can be made arbitrarily small, since the MDP is acyclic.

Theorem 5. For every acyclic countable MDP $M$, finite set of initial states $I$, set of states $F$ and $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists a deterministic 1-bit strategy for $\text{Büchi}(F)$ that is $\varepsilon$-optimal from every $s \in I$.
We now define the Borel objectives $\mathcal{P}_{M,s,\sigma}(\varphi) \geq \val_{M,\varphi}(s) - \varepsilon$. However, the strategies $\sigma_i$ might differ from each other and might use randomization and a large (or even infinite) amount of memory. We will construct a single deterministic strategy $\sigma'$ that uses only 1 bit of memory such that $\forall s \in I \mathcal{P}_{M,s,\sigma}(\varphi) \geq \val_{M,\varphi}(s) - 2\varepsilon$. This proves the claim as $\varepsilon$ can be chosen arbitrarily small.

In order to construct $\sigma'$, we first observe the behavior of the finitely many $\sigma_i$ for $s \in I$ on an infinite, increasing sequence of finite subsets of $S$. Based on this, we define a second stronger objective $\varphi'$ with

$$\varphi' \subseteq \varphi,$$

and show that all $\sigma_i$ attain at least $\val_{M,\varphi}(s) - 2\varepsilon$ w.r.t. $\varphi'$, i.e.,

$$\forall s \in I \mathcal{P}_{M,s,\sigma}(\varphi') \geq \val_{M,\varphi}(s) - 2\varepsilon.$$

We construct $\sigma'$ as a deterministic 1-bit optimal strategy w.r.t. $\varphi'$ from all $s \in I$ and obtain

$$\mathcal{P}_{M,s,\sigma}(\varphi) \geq \mathcal{P}_{M,s,\sigma}(\varphi') \geq \mathcal{P}_{M,s,\sigma}(\varphi') \geq \val_{M,\varphi}(s) - 2\varepsilon.$$ 

Informal outline: Behavior of $\sigma_i$, objective $\varphi'$ and properties (2) and (3). For the formal proof see [12].

Let $\text{bubble}_k(I)$ be the set of states that can be reached from some initial state in $I$ within at most $k$ steps. Since $I$ is finite and $M$ is finitely branching, $\text{bubble}_k(I)$ is finite for every $k$.

We define a sequence of sufficiently large and increasing numbers $k_i$ and $l_i$ with $k_i < l_i < l_{i+1}$ for $i \in \mathbb{N}$ and finite sets $K_i \equiv \text{bubble}_k(I)$ and $L_i \equiv \text{bubble}_{l_i}(I)$. Every run from a state $s \in I$ according to $\sigma_i$ must eventually leave each of these finite sets, because $M$ is acyclic. Moreover, we choose these numbers so that once a run has left $L_i$ it is very unlikely to return to $K_i$. Let $F_i \equiv F \cap K_i \setminus L_{i-1}$. Runs according to $\sigma_i$ are very likely to follow a particular pattern. Let $R_i \equiv (K_i \setminus F_i)^*F_i$, $R_{i+1} \equiv (K_{i+1} \setminus F_{i+1})^*F_{i+1}$ and $R_i \equiv (K_i \setminus (F_{i+1} \cup F_{i-1}))^*F_{i+1}$ for $i \geq 2$. We show that

$$\forall s \in I \mathcal{P}_{M,s,\sigma}(\varphi \cap R_1R_2\ldots R_{i+1}(S \setminus K_i)) \leq \varepsilon.$$

We now define the Borel objectives $R_{\leq i} \equiv R_1R_2\ldots R_iS^\omega$ and $\varphi' \equiv \bigcap_{i \in \mathbb{N}} R_{\leq i}$. Since $F_i \cap F_k = \emptyset$ for $i \neq k$ and $\varphi'$ implies a visit to the set $F_i$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$, we have $\varphi' \subseteq \varphi$ and obtain (2). Using (4), we show that $\forall s \in I \mathcal{P}_{M,s,\sigma}(\varphi') \geq \val_{M,\varphi}(s) - 2\varepsilon$ and thus obtain (3).

Definition of the 1-bit strategy $\sigma'$. We now define a deterministic 1-bit strategy $\sigma'$ that is optimal for objective $\varphi'$ from every $s \in I$. First we define certain “suffix” objectives of $\varphi'$. Recall that $R_i = (K_i \setminus (F_i \cup K_{i-2}))^*F_i$. Let $R_{i,j} \equiv R_iR_{i+1}\ldots R_jS^\omega$ and $R_{i,j} = \bigcap_{j \geq i} R_{i,j}$. Consider the objectives $R_{i,i+1}$ for runs that start in states $s' \in F_i$. For every state $s' \in F_i$ we consider its value w.r.t. the objective $R_{i,i+1}$, i.e., $\val_{M,R_{i,i+1}}(s') \equiv \sup_{\sigma} \mathcal{P}_{M,s',\sigma}(R_{i,i+1})$. 

Proof. Let $M = (S, S_0, S_C, \rightarrow, P)$ be an acyclic MDP, $I \subseteq S$ a finite set of initial states and $F \subseteq S$ a set of goal states and $\varphi \equiv \text{Buchi}(F)$ denote the Büchi objective w.r.t. $F$. We prove the claim for finitely branching $M$ first and transfer the result to general MDPs at the end. For every $\varepsilon > 0$ and every $s \in I$ there exists an $\varepsilon$-optimal strategy $\sigma_i$ such that

$$\mathcal{P}_{M,s,\sigma_i}(\varphi) \geq \val_{M,\varphi}(s) - \varepsilon.$$
For every $i \geq 1$ we consider the finite subspace $K_i \setminus K_{i-2}$. In particular, it contains the sets $F_{i-1}$ and $F_i$. We define a bounded total reward objective $B_i$ for runs starting in $F_{i-1}$ as follows. Runs that exit the subspace (either by leaving $K_i$ or by visiting $K_{i-2}$) before visiting $F_i$ get reward 0. All other runs must visit $F_i$ eventually (since $\mathcal{M}$ is acyclic and the subspace is finite). When some run reaches the set $F_i$ for the first time in some state $s'$ then this run gets the reward of $\text{val}_{\mathcal{M}, R_{\geq i+1}}(s')$. Using [16, Theorem 7.1.9], we show that there exists a uniform optimal MD-strategy $\sigma$ for $B_i$ on $K_i \setminus K_{i-2}$ in $\mathcal{M}$.

We now define $\sigma'$ by combining different MD-strategies $\sigma_i$, depending on the current state and on the value of the 1-bit memory. The intuition is that the strategy $\sigma'$ has two modes: normal-mode and next-mode. In a state $s' \in K_i \setminus K_{i-1}$, if the memory is $i \pmod{2}$ then the strategy is in normal-mode and plays towards reaching $F_i$. Otherwise, the strategy is in next-mode and plays towards reaching $F_{i+1}$.

Initially $\sigma'$ starts in a state $s \in I$ with the 1-bit memory set to 1. We define the behavior of $\sigma'$ in a state $s' \in K_i \setminus K_{i-1}$ for every $i \geq 1$. If the 1-bit memory is $i \pmod{2}$ and $s' \not\in F_i$ then $\sigma'$ plays like $\sigma_i$. (Intuitively, one plays towards $F_i$, since one has not yet visited it.) If the 1-bit memory is $i \pmod{2}$ and $s' \in F_i$ then the 1-bit memory is set to $(i+1) \pmod{2}$, and $\sigma'$ plays like $\sigma_{i+1}$. (Intuitively, one records the fact that one has already seen $F_i$ and then targets the next set $F_{i+1}$.) If the 1-bit memory is $(i+1) \pmod{2}$ then $\sigma'$ plays like $\sigma_{i+1}$. (Intuitively, one plays towards $F_{i+1}$, since one has already visited $F_i$.)

![Figure 4](image-url) Memory updates along runs $\pi_1, \pi_2, \pi_3$, drawn in blue while the memory-bit is one and in red while the bit is zero. The green region in $K_1$ is $F_1$, and for all $i \geq 2$, the green region in $K_i \setminus L_{i-1}$ is $F_i$. Both $\pi_1$ and $\pi_3$ violate $\varphi'$ and are drawn as dotted lines once they do.

Observe that if a run according to $\sigma'$ exit some set $K_i$ (and thus enters $K_{i+1} \setminus K_i$) with the bit still set to $i \pmod{2}$ (normal-mode) then this run has not visited $F_i$ and thus does not satisfy the objective $\varphi'$. (Or the same has happened earlier for some $j < i$, in which case also the objective $\varphi'$ is violated.) An example is the run $\pi_1$ in Figure 4. However, if a run according to $\sigma'$ exits some set $K_i$ (and thus enters $K_{i+1} \setminus K_i$) with the bit set to $(i+1) \pmod{2}$ (thus $\sigma_{i+1}$ in next-mode) then in the new set $K_{i'} \setminus K_{i'-1}$ with $i' = i + 1$ the bit is set to $i' \pmod{2}$ and $\sigma'$ continues to play like $\sigma_{i+1}$ in normal-mode. Even if this run returns (temporarily) to $K_i$ (but not to $K_{i-1}$) the strategy $\sigma'$ continues to play like $\sigma_{i+1}$ in next-mode. An example is the run $\pi_2$ in Figure 4. Finally, if a run returns to $K_{i-1}$ after having visited $F_i$ then it fails the objective $\varphi'$, e.g., run $\pi_3$ in Figure 4.
The 1-bit strategy $\sigma'$ is optimal for $\psi'$ from every $s \in I$. Let $s \in I$ be arbitrary. For a given run from $s$, let firstin($F_i$) be the first state $s'$ in $F_i$ that is visited (if any). We define a bounded reward objective $B_i'$ for runs starting at $s$ as follows. Every run that does not satisfy the objective $R_{<i}$ gets assigned reward 0. Otherwise, consider a run from $s$ that satisfies $R_{<i}$. When this run reaches the set $F_i$ for the first time in some state $s'$ then this run gets a reward of $val_{M,R_{\geq i+1}}(s')$. Note that this reward is $\leq 1$.

We show that for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$

$$val_{M,\psi}(s) = val_{M,B_i'}(s)$$

Towards the $\geq$ inequality, let $\hat{\sigma}$ be an $\varepsilon$-optimal strategy for $B_i'$ from $s$. We define the strategy $\hat{\sigma}'$ to play like $\hat{\sigma}$ until a state $s' \in F_i$ is reached and then to switch to some $\varepsilon$-optimal strategy for objective $R_{\geq i+1}$ from $s'$. Every run from $s$ that satisfies $\psi'$ can be split into parts, before and after the first visit to the set $F_i$, i.e., $\psi' = \{w_1s'w_2 \mid w_1s' \in R_{\leq i}, s' \in F_i, s'w_2 \in R_{\geq i+1}\}$. Therefore we obtain that $\mathcal{P}_{M,s,\sigma}(\psi') \geq E_{M,s,\sigma}(B_i') - \varepsilon \geq val_{M,B_i'}(s) - 2\varepsilon$. Since this holds for every $\varepsilon > 0$, we obtain $val_{M,\psi}(s) \geq val_{M,B_i'}(s)$.

Towards the $\leq$ inequality, let $\hat{\sigma}$ be any strategy for $\psi'$ from $s$. We have $\mathcal{P}_{M,s,\sigma}(\psi') \leq \sum s' \in F_i \mathcal{P}_{M,s,\sigma}(R_{\leq i} \cap \text{firstin}(F_i) = s') \cdot val_{M,R_{\geq i+1}}(s') = E_{M,s,\sigma}(B_i')$. Thus $val_{M,\psi}(s) \leq val_{M,B_i'}(s)$. Together we obtain (5).

For all $i \in \mathbb{N}$ and every state $s' \in F_i$ we show that

$$val_{M,R_{\geq i+1}}(s') = val_{M,B_{i+1}}(s')$$

Towards the $\geq$ inequality, let $\hat{\sigma}$ be an $\varepsilon$-optimal strategy for $B_{i+1}$ from $s' \in F_i$. We define the strategy $\hat{\sigma}'$ to play like $\hat{\sigma}$ until a state $s'' \in F_{i+1}$ is reached and then to switch to some $\varepsilon$-optimal strategy for objective $R_{\geq i+2}$ from $s''$. We have that $\mathcal{P}_{M,s',\sigma}(R_{\geq i+1}) \geq E_{M,s',\sigma}(B_{i+1}) - \varepsilon \geq val_{M,B_{i+1}}(s) - 2\varepsilon$. Since this holds for every $\varepsilon > 0$, we obtain $val_{M,R_{\geq i+1}}(s') \geq val_{M,B_{i+1}}(s')$.

Towards the $\leq$ inequality, let $\hat{\sigma}$ be any strategy for $R_{\geq i+1}$ from $s' \in F_i$. We have

$$\mathcal{P}_{M,s',\sigma}(R_{\geq i+1}) \leq \sum s'' \in F_{i+1} \mathcal{P}_{M,s',\sigma}(R_{\geq i+1} \cap \text{firstin}(F_{i+1}) = s'') \cdot val_{M,R_{\geq i+2}}(s'') = E_{M,s',\sigma}(B_{i+1}).$$

Thus $val_{M,R_{\geq i+1}}(s') \leq val_{M,B_{i+1}}(s')$. Together we obtain (6).

We show, by induction on $i$, that $\sigma'$ is optimal for $B_i'$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$ from start state $s$, i.e.,

$$E_{M,s,\sigma'}(B_i') = val_{M,B_i'}(s)$$

(7) In the base case of $i = 1$ we have that $B_1' = B_1$. The strategy $\sigma'$ plays $\sigma_1$ until reaching $F_1$, which is optimal for objective $B_1$ and thus optimal for $B_1'$. For the induction step we assume (IH) that $\sigma'$ is optimal for $B_i'$.

$$val_{M,B_{i+1}}(s) = val_{M,B_i'}(s)$$

by (5)

$$= E_{M,s,\sigma'}(B_i')$$

by (IH)

$$= \sum s' \in F_i \mathcal{P}_{M,s',\sigma'}(R_{\leq i} \cap \text{firstin}(F_i) = s') \cdot val_{M,R_{\geq i+1}}(s')$$

by def. of $B_i'$

$$= \sum s' \in F_i \mathcal{P}_{M,s',\sigma'}(R_{\leq i} \cap \text{firstin}(F_i) = s') \cdot val_{M,B_{i+1}}(s')$$

by (6)

$$= \sum s' \in F_i \mathcal{P}_{M,s',\sigma'}(R_{\leq i} \cap \text{firstin}(F_i) = s') \cdot E_{M,s',\sigma_{i+1}}(B_{i+1})$$

opt. of $\sigma_{i+1}$ for $B_{i+1}$

$$= E_{M,s,\sigma'}(B_{i+1})$$

by def. of $\sigma'$ and $B_{i+1}$
So $\sigma'$ attains the value $\val_{M,B'_i}(s)$ of the objective $B'_i$ from $s$ and is optimal. Thus (7).

Now we show that $\sigma'$ performs well on the objectives $R_{\leq i}$ for all $i \in \mathbb{N}$.

$$P_{M,s,\sigma'}(R_{\leq i}) \geq \val_{M,\varphi'}(s)$$

(8)

We have

$$P_{M,s,\sigma'}(R_{\leq i}) \geq \val_{M,B'_i}(s) \quad \text{by (7)}$$

$$= \val_{M,\varphi'}(s) \quad \text{by (5)}$$

So we get (8). Now we are ready to prove the optimality of $\sigma'$ for $\varphi'$ from $s$.

$$P_{M,s,\sigma'}(\varphi') = P_{M,s,\sigma'}(\cap_{i \in \mathbb{N}} R_{\leq i}) \quad \text{by def. of } \varphi'$$

$$= \lim_{i \to \infty} P_{M,s,\sigma'}(R_{\leq i}) \quad \text{by continuity of measures from above}$$

$$\geq \lim_{i \to \infty} \val_{M,\varphi'}(s) \quad \text{by (8)}$$

$$= \val_{M,\varphi'}(s)$$

From finitely to infinitely branching MDPs. Encode infinite branching into finite branching like in Figure 1, apply the above result to obtain a 1-bit strategy for the finitely branching version, and then transform this strategy back into a 1-bit strategy for the original MDP. ▲

Now we show our upper bound on the strategy complexity of Büchi for general MDPs.

▶ Theorem 6. For every countable MDP $M$, finite set of initial states $I$, set of states $F$ and $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists a deterministic 1-bit Markov strategy for Büchi($F$) that is $\varepsilon$-optimal from every $s \in I$.

Proof. Encode a step-counter into the states to obtain an acyclic MDP, apply Theorem 5 to obtain an $\varepsilon$-optimal deterministic 1-bit strategy for it, and then transform this strategy back into an $\varepsilon$-optimal deterministic 1-bit Markov strategy in the original MDP. ▲

References

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