

# Lec27

Sunday, March 26, 2023 2:49 PM

## Delayed feedback

Friday, March 20, 2009 3:31 PM

- In the above discussions, we have assumed a slotted model where the feedback is assumed to be instantaneous after each time slot.

$$x_s(t) = \operatorname{argmax}_{x_s} U_s(x_s) - x_s \cdot \sum_l q_l(t) H_s^l$$

$$q_l(t+1) = \left[ q_l(t) + \gamma \left( \sum_s H_s^l x_s(t) - R_l \right) \right]^+$$

- In practice, the feedback delay can be larger than the time it takes for sources/links to update their control decisions
- Also, the feedback delay can vary significantly.
- It then leads to a new set of equations

$$x_s(t) = \operatorname{argmax}_{x_s} U_s(x_s) - x_s \sum_l H_s^l q_l(t - D_s^l(t))$$

$$q_l(t+1) = \left[ q_l(t) + \gamma \left( \sum_s H_s^l x_s(t - D_l^s(t)) - R_l \right) \right]^+$$

- In typical control systems, such delay tends to lead to oscillation (instability)
- ⇒ Needs to reduce the "gain" to ensure stability.

⇒ Needs the stepsize to be small

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- Let us try to understand why small stepsize leads to convergence (even with delay to).

- When  $\gamma$  is small, the value of  $f$  changes slowly

⇒ the estimation  $\hat{f}$  will not be too different from  $f$

⇒ the update direction will be closer to the gradient

(10)

S. H. Low and D. E. Lapsley, "Optimization Flow Control-I: Basic Algorithm and Convergence," IEEE/ACM Transactions on Networking, vol. 7, no. 6, pp. 861-874, December 1999.

## Stepsize and delay - simplified

Tuesday, November 7, 2023 9:09 AM

- Suppose that we wish to minimize  $f(x)$  using a gradient algorithm:

$$x(t+1) = x(t) - \gamma \nabla f(x(t))$$

- Due to delay, however, at time  $t$  we can only access  $\nabla f(x(t-D))$ , i.e.

$$x(t+1) = x(t) - \gamma \nabla f(x(t-D))$$

- We can still analyze the change of norm as before

$$\begin{aligned} \|x(t+1) - x^*\|^2 &= \|x(t) - x^*\|^2 - 2\gamma \langle \nabla f(x(t-D)), x(t) - x^* \rangle \\ &\quad + \gamma^2 \|\nabla f(x(t-D))\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \|x(t) - x^*\|^2 - 2\gamma \langle \nabla f(x(t-D)), x(t-D) - x^* \rangle \\ &\quad + \gamma^2 \|\nabla f(x(t-D))\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$- 2\gamma \langle \nabla f(x(t-D)), \underbrace{x(t) - x(t-D)} \rangle$$

- When  $\gamma$  is small, this should be  $O(\gamma \cdot D \cdot \|\nabla f\|)$
- Together, the additional term should be  $O(\gamma^2)$

should be negative when  $\gamma$  is sufficiently small &  $f$  is smooth

$$\approx O(\gamma \|\nabla f\|^2)$$

- Overall, we can expect that  $\|x(t) - x^*\|$  will still decrease when  $\gamma$  is small

$$- \text{Need } \gamma \sim \frac{1}{D}$$

## Stepsize and delay - skip

Friday, March 20, 2009 3:45 PM

Why small stepsize improves stability?

- Consider a delayed version of the dual controller.

$$p_i(t+1) = \left[ p_i(t) + \alpha \left( \sum_s H_s^i \hat{X}_{1s}(t) - R^i \right) \right]^+$$

where  $\hat{X}_{1s}(t)$  is a delayed estimate of the source rates

$$\hat{X}_{1s}(t) = \sum_{t'=t-t_0}^t a_{1s}(t', t) X_s(t')$$

$$\sum_{t'=t-t_0}^t a_{1s}(t', t) = 1 \quad \forall t$$

For example:

① constant delay  $d$ :  $a_{1s}(t', t) = \begin{cases} 1 & t' = t - d \\ 0 & \text{o/w} \end{cases}$

② use past average:  $a_{1s}(t', t) = \frac{1}{t_0 + 1}$

Similarly,

$$x_s(t) = \operatorname{argmax} U_s(x_s) - x_s \cdot \sum_l H_l^s \hat{p}_{1l}(t)$$

where  $\hat{p}_{1l}(t) = \sum_{t'=t-t_0}^t b_{1l}(t', t) \cdot p_l(t')$

$$\sum_{t'=t-t_0}^t b_{1l}(t', t) = 1 \quad \forall t$$

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- Let us try to understand why small stepsize

leads to convergence (even with delay  $t_0$ ).

- When  $\gamma$  is small, the value of  $f$  changes slowly

$\Rightarrow$  the estimation  $\hat{q}$  will not be too different from  $q$

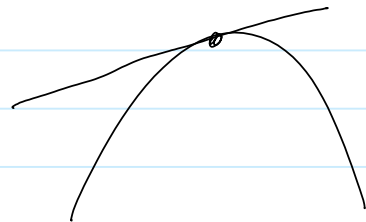
$\Rightarrow$  the update direction will be closer to the gradient

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- Easier to work with the dual objective function

Let  $z(t) = \bar{q}(t+1) - \bar{q}(t)$ . By growth lemma

$$g(\bar{q}(t+1)) \geq g(\bar{q}(t)) + \nabla g(\bar{q}(t)) \cdot z(t) - \frac{1}{2} \beta \|z(t)\|^2$$



- When there is no delayed feedback,  $z(t)$  will be around the direction of  $\nabla g(\bar{q}(t))$ .

Let  $z(t) = \gamma \nabla g(\bar{q}(t))$ , then

$$\nabla g(\bar{q}(t)) \cdot z(t) = \frac{1}{\gamma} \|z(t)\|^2$$

When  $\gamma$  is small  $\Rightarrow g \uparrow$ .

- When there is delay, in general  $\mathbf{z}(t)$  is NOT in the same direction as  $\nabla \tilde{J}(\vec{\hat{\gamma}}(t))$ .

Let  $\lambda(t) = \frac{1}{S} \sum H_s^1 X_{1s}^{\wedge}(t) - R^1$ . Then  $\mathbf{z}(t)$  is along the direction  $\lambda(t)$ .

Assume  $\mathbf{z}(t) = \delta \lambda(t)$ , then

$$\lambda(t) \cdot \mathbf{z}(t) = \frac{1}{\delta} \|\mathbf{z}(t)\|^2.$$

- Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{J}(\vec{\hat{\gamma}}(t+1)) &\geq \tilde{J}(\vec{\hat{\gamma}}(t)) + \lambda(t) \cdot \mathbf{z}(t) + \left[ \nabla \tilde{J}(\vec{\hat{\gamma}}(t)) - \lambda(t) \right] \cdot \mathbf{z}(t) \\ &\quad - \frac{\beta}{2} \|\mathbf{z}(t)\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \tilde{J}(\vec{\hat{\gamma}}(t)) + \left( \frac{1}{\delta} - \frac{\beta}{2} \right) \|\mathbf{z}(t)\|^2 \\ &\quad + \left[ \nabla \tilde{J}(\vec{\hat{\gamma}}(t)) - \lambda(t) \right] \cdot \mathbf{z}(t). \end{aligned}$$

- Note that the last-term represents the "error" due to the difference btw the update direction & the gradient

- We now show that the last-term is on the order of  $\frac{\delta^2}{2} \|\mathbf{z}(t)\|^2$  (Hence, the "error" is comparatively small when  $\delta \downarrow$ )

- The difference between  $\nabla \tilde{J}(\vec{\hat{\gamma}}(t)) - \lambda(t)$  is

$$\left| \frac{1}{t} \sum H_s^1 X_s(t) - \frac{1}{S} \sum H_s^1 X_{1s}^{\wedge}(t) \right|$$

$$= \left| \sum_S H_S^1 \cdot \sum_{t'=t-t_0}^t a_{1s}(t', t) \cdot (x_s(t) - x_s(t')) \right|$$

$$\leq \sum_S H_S^1 \cdot \max_{t'} |x_s(t) - x_s(t')|$$

- The difference between  $|x_s(t) - x_s(t')|$  is bounded by

$$\left| U_s'^{-1} \left( \sum_i H_S^1 \hat{r}_i(t) \right) - U_s'^{-1} \left( \sum_i H_S^1 \hat{r}_i(t') \right) \right|$$

- By the <sup>bounded curvature</sup> property of  $U_s'^{-1}(\cdot)$ ,

$$\left| x_s(t) - x_s(t') \right| \lesssim \sum_i H_S^1 \left| \hat{r}_i(t) - \hat{r}_i(t') \right|$$

- The difference between  $\hat{r}_i(t) - \hat{r}_i(t')$  is

$$\left| \hat{r}_i(t) - \sum_{t''=t-t_0}^{t'} b_i(t'', t) \cdot \hat{r}_i(t'') \right|$$

$$\leq \max_{t-t_0 \leq t'' \leq t} \left| \hat{r}_i(t) - \hat{r}_i(t'') \right|$$

$$\leq \sum_{t''=t-2t_0}^t \|\hat{r}_i(t'')\|$$

Hence, by choosing small  $\delta$ , the positive term will dominate

$\Rightarrow$  The algorithm will still converge



The larger the delay, the larger the error term

⇒ The smaller the stepsize needs to be

See handout (windows.pdf).

Ref:

S. H. Low and D. E. Lapsley, "Optimization Flow Control-I: Basic Algorithm and Convergence,"  
IEEE/ACM Transactions on Networking, vol. 7, no. 6, pp. 861-874, December 1999.

(30)

# Global stability - skip

Friday, March 20, 2009 4:26 PM

We can show that

$$g(\vec{v}(t+1)) - g(\vec{v}(t))$$

$$\geq \left(\frac{1}{\gamma} - \frac{\beta}{2}\right) \|\mathbf{x}(t)\|^2$$

$$- A_2 \sum_{t'=t-2t_0}^t \|\mathbf{x}(t')\| \|\mathbf{x}(t)\|$$

$$\geq \left(\frac{1}{\gamma} - \frac{\beta}{2} - A_2 t_0\right) \cdot \|\mathbf{x}(t)\|^2$$

$$- \frac{A_2}{2} \cdot \sum_{t'=t-2t_0}^t \|\mathbf{x}(t')\|^2$$

Summing over  $k=1, \dots, t$

$$g(\vec{v}(t+1)) \geq g(\vec{v}(0))$$

$$+ \left(\frac{1}{\gamma} - \frac{\beta}{2} - A_2 t_0\right) \cdot \sum_{k=1}^t \|\mathbf{x}(k)\|^2$$

$$- \frac{A_2}{2} (2t_0 + 1) \cdot \sum_{k=1}^t \|\mathbf{x}(k)\|^2$$

If  $\frac{1}{\gamma} - \frac{\beta}{2} - A_2 (2t_0 + \frac{1}{2}) > 0$  done

Note:  $\beta = \bar{\alpha} \bar{s} \bar{L}$

$$A_2 = \sqrt{L} \bar{\alpha} \bar{s} \bar{L}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \bar{\alpha} \bar{s} \bar{L} & \uparrow & \sigma \downarrow \\ \uparrow & & \sigma \downarrow \end{array}$$

S. H. Low and D. E. Lapsley, "Optimization Flow Control-I: Basic Algorithm and Convergence,"  
IEEE/ACM Transactions on Networking, vol. 7, no. 6, pp. 861-874, December 1999.

## Why MDP (Markov Decision Process)?

Thursday, November 2, 2023 10:21 AM

- Let us consider the following set-up
  - Customers arrive to a system at the rate of  $\lambda(p)$ , which depends on the price  $p$
  - For example
$$\lambda(p) = 1 - p \quad , \quad 0 \leq p \leq 1$$
    - The higher the price, the lower the interests.
  - Suppose that the system controller wishes to set the price  $p$ , so that the maximum revenue is attained.
  - This is a simple unconstrained optimization problem

$$\max p \cdot \lambda(p) = p(1-p)$$

- The maximum solution is

$$p_1^* = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\lambda(p_1^*) = \frac{1}{2}$$

- The revenue is

$$\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} = 0.25$$

- But suppose that the system has capacity constraints
  - It can serve on average 0.2 customers per unit time

- We should then model this as a constrained optimization problem

$$\max p \lambda(p) = p(1-p)$$

$$\text{sub to } \lambda(p) = (1-p) \leq 0.2$$

- The solution is

$$p_2^* = 0.8$$

$$\lambda(p_2^*) = 0.2$$

The revenue is

$$0.8 \times 0.2 = 0.16$$

- But let us consider more stringent performance requirements.

- If the arrivals and services of the customers are random, then typically you will see some queue build-up

- There is a new arrival in each time slot with prob.  $\lambda(p)$ , there is no arrival otherwise

- The system can serve one customer in each time-slot with prob. 0.2, and serve no customer otherwise.

- Can we constrain our problem, so that the average queue length is bounded, say, by  $q$ ?

- It turns out that, if we use  $\lambda(p_2^*) = 0.2$ , the average queue length will actually be  $+\infty$ !

- For certain queueing systems (e.g. M/M/1)

- For certain queuing system (e.g.  $M/M/1$  queue), the average queue length is

$$E[Q] = \frac{\lambda/\mu}{1 - \lambda/\mu}$$

- where  $\lambda$  is the arrival rate &  $\mu$  is the service rate
- Indeed, if  $\lambda = \mu$ , then  $E[Q] = +\infty!$
- Let us use the above expression as an approximation of the queue length in our system
- We can then still formulate an opt. problem

$$\max p \lambda(p) = p(1-p)$$

$$\text{sub to } \frac{\frac{\lambda(p)}{0.2}}{1 - \frac{\lambda(p)}{0.2}} \leq 9$$

- The constraint is equivalent to

$$\frac{\lambda(p)}{0.2} = \frac{1-p}{0.2} \leq 0.9$$

- The solution is then

$$p_3^* = 0.82$$

$$\lambda(p_3^*) = 0.18$$

The revenue is

$$0.82 \times 0.18 = 0.148$$

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- As we have seen, as we impose more & more stringent constraints, our rooms for optimization becomes smaller & smaller
- As a result, the solution / decision becomes more & more conservative
- But so far we are still able to see a convex optimization problem.

What if we put ever more stringent constraints?

## Even more stringent

Thursday, November 2, 2023 10:49 AM

- Let us say we even want to limit the queue length to be  $\leq 9$  at ALL times.
- This is actually infeasible for a fixed price
  - Due to randomness, there is always the possibility that there are back-to-back 10 customers arriving, and no service at all.
  - So the queue length will have to be larger than 9!
- One possibility, if we still want to stick to a fixed price, is to approximate the constraint:

$$- P[Q \leq 9] \geq 1 - \varepsilon, \text{ e.g. } \varepsilon = 0.01$$

- Again, assuming M/M/1 queue is a good approximation, we have

$$P[Q = i] = \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)^i \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right), \quad i = 0, 1, \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow P[Q \leq 9] = 1 - \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)^{10}$$

- Our opt. problem becomes

$$\max p \cdot \lambda(p) = p(1-p)$$

$$\text{sub to } \left(\frac{\lambda(p)}{0.2}\right)^{10} = \left(\frac{1-p}{0.2}\right)^{10} \leq \varepsilon = 0.01$$



- The constraint is equivalent to

$$\frac{\lambda(p)}{0.2} = \frac{1-p}{0.2} \leq 0.01^{1/10} = 0.63$$

- The solution is now

$$p_4^* = 0.874$$

$$\lambda(p_4^*) = 0.126$$

The revenue is

$$0.874 \times 0.126 = 0.11$$

- But this really depends on how we pick  $\epsilon$ .

- If  $\epsilon = 0.001$ , then

$$p_5^* = 0.9$$

$$\lambda(p_5^*) = 0.10$$

Revenue

$$0.9 \times 0.1 = 0.09$$

- As  $\epsilon \downarrow$ ,  $\lambda(p^*) \downarrow 0$ . Revenue  $\downarrow 0$

- Is it really that hard to satisfy this type of constraint?

- No. One possible solution is the following:

- We take the price  $p_2^* = 0.8$

$$\lambda(p_2^*) = 0.2$$

- If the current queue length is  $< 9$ , we let new customers in.

- If the current queue length is  $= 9$ , we do not let new customers in.
- This policy will clearly maintain queue length to be  $\leq 9$  at all times.
- We will lose some revenue when the customers are rejected.

- This happens with prob.

$$\approx \frac{\left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)^9 \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)}{1 - \left(\frac{\lambda}{\mu}\right)^{10}}$$

- At  $\frac{\lambda(p_2^*)}{0.2} = 1$ , this prob. is  $\approx \frac{1}{10}$

- The total revenue is

$$\approx p_2^* \lambda(p_2^*) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{10}\right)$$

$$\approx 0.8 \times 0.2 \times 0.9 = 0.144$$

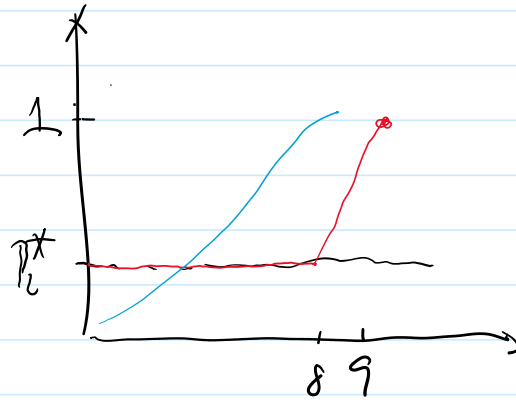
which is much better!

- How can we find this type of solutions/policies?

- One crucial difference from the earlier convex optimization problems is that the decision is now "state" dependent:

- We use the price  $p_2^*$  when queue  $< 9$

use the price 1 when  $q = 9$



- Conceivably, our particular choice may not even be optimal!
- We can use another price function of the "state"
- Can we develop a methodology to optimize within such state-dependent policies?
- MDP or Dynamic programming does exactly that
- In summary, MDP is useful when
  - There are stringent performance obj. & constraints
  - We wish to use "state"-dependent decisions.