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Q-Learning and Enhanced Policy Iteration in Discounted Dynamic Programming

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Abstract

We consider the classical finite-state discounted Markovian decision problem, and we introduce a new policy iteration-like algorithm for finding the optimal Q-factors. Instead of policy evaluation by solving a linear system of equations, our algorithm requires (possibly inexact) solution of a nonlinear system of equations, involving estimates of state costs as well as Q-factors. This is Bellman's equation for an optimal stopping problem that can be solved with simple Q-learning iterations, in the case where a lookup table representation is used; it can also be solved with the Q-learning algorithm of Tsitsiklis and Van Roy [TsV99], in the case where feature-based Q-factor approximations are used. In exact/lookup table representation form, our algorithm admits asynchronous and stochastic iterative implementations, in the spirit of asynchronous/modified policy iteration, with lower overhead and/or more reliable convergence advantages over existing Q-learning schemes. Furthermore, for large-scale problems, where linear basis function approximations and simulation-based temporal difference implementations are used, our algorithm resolves effectively the inherent difficulties of existing schemes due to inadequate exploration.

1. INTRODUCTION

We consider the approximate solution of large-scale discounted infinite horizon dynamic programming (DP) problems. The states are denoted $i = 1, \ldots, n$. State transitions (i, j) under control u occur at discrete times according to given transition probabilities $p_{ij}(u)$, and generate a cost $\alpha^k g(i, u, j)$ at time k, where $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ is a discount factor. We consider deterministic stationary policies μ such that for each i, $\mu(i)$ is a control that belongs to a constraint set $U(i)$. We denote by $J_\mu(i)$ the total discounted expected cost of μ over an infinite number of stages starting from state i, and by $J^*(i)$ the minimal value of $J_\mu(i)$ over all μ. We denote by J_μ and J^* the vectors of $\Re^n$ (n-dimensional space) with components $J_\mu(i)$ and $J^*(i)$, $i = 1, \ldots, n$, respectively. This is the standard discounted Markovian decision problem (MDP) context, discussed in many sources (e.g., Bertsekas [Ber07], Puterman [Put94]).

For problems where the number of states n is very large, simulation-based approaches that are patterned after classical policy iteration methods have been popular (see e.g., [BeT96], [SuB98]). Temporal difference (TD) methods, such as TD(λ) (Sutton [Sut88]), LSPE(λ) (Bertsekas and Ioffe [BeI96]), and LSTD(λ) (Bratdke and Barto [BrB96], Boyan [Boy02]), are commonly used for policy evaluation within this context. The

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corresponding approximate policy iteration methods have been described in detail in the literature, have been extensively tested in practice, and constitute one of the major methodologies for approximate DP (see the books by Bertsekas and Tsitsiklis [BeT96], Sutton and Barto [SuB98], Gosavi [Gos03], Cao [Cao07], Chang, Fu, Hu, and Marcus [CFH07], Meyn [Mey07], Powell [Pow07], and Borkar [Bor08]; the textbook [Ber07] together with its on-line chapter [Ber10] provide a recent treatment and up-to-date references).

Approximate policy iteration schemes have been used both in a model-based form, and in a model-free form for the computation of Q-factors associated with state-control pairs of given policies. In the latter case, TD methods must contend with a serious difficulty: they generate a sequence of samples $\big\{(i_t, \mu(i_t)), t = 0, 1, \ldots\big\}$ using the Markov chain corresponding to the current policy μ, which means that state-control pairs $(i, u) \neq \big(i, \mu(i)\big)$ are not generated in the simulation. As a result the policy iteration process breaks down as it does not provide meaningful Q-factor estimates for $u \neq \mu(i)$. In practice, it is well-known that it is essential to use an artificial mechanism to ensure that a rich and diverse enough sample of state-control pairs is generated during the simulation.

The use of exploration-enhanced policies is often suggested as a remedy for approximate policy iteration involving TD methods. A common approach, well-known since the early days of approximate DP, is an off-policy strategy (using the terminology of Sutton and Barto [SuB98]; see also Precup, Sutton, and Dasgupta [PSD01]), whereby we occasionally generate transitions involving randomly selected controls rather than the ones dictated by μ. Unfortunately, in the context of Q-learning the required amount of exploration is likely to be substantial, and has an undesirable effect: it may destroy the underlying contraction mapping mechanism on which LSPE(λ) and TD(λ) rely for their validity [see e.g., [BeT96], Example 6.7, which provides an instance of divergence of TD(0)]. At the same time, while LSTD(λ) does not have this difficulty (it does not rely on a contraction property), it requires the solution of a linear projected equation, which has potentially large dimension, particularly when the control constraint sets $U(i)$ have large cardinalities. To address the convergence difficulty in the presence of exploration using an off-policy, the TD(λ) method has been modified in fairly complex ways (Sutton, Szepesvari, and Maei [SSM08], Maei et. al. [MSB08], Sutton et. al. [SMP09]).

The purpose of this paper is to propose an approach to policy iteration-based Q-learning with exploration enhancement, which is radically different from existing methods, and is new even in the context of exact DP. It is based on replacing the policy evaluation phase of the classical policy iteration method with (possibly inexact) solution of an *optimal stopping problem*. This problem is defined by a stopping cost and by a *randomized policy*, which are suitably adjusted at the end of each iteration. They encode aspects of the "current policy" and give our algorithm a modified/optimistic policy iteration-like character (a form that is intermediate between value and policy iteration). The randomized policy allows an arbitrary and easily controllable amount of exploration. For extreme choices of the randomized policy and a lookup table representation, our algorithm yields as special cases the classical Q-learning/value iteration and policy iteration methods. Generally, with more exploration and less exact solution of the policy evaluation/optimal stopping problem, the character of the method shifts in the direction of classical Q-learning/value iteration.

We discuss two situations where our algorithm may offer an advantage over existing Q-learning and approximate policy iteration methodology:

(a) In the context of exact/lookup table policy iteration, our algorithm admits asynchronous and stochastic iterative implementations, which can be attractive alternatives to standard methods of asynchronous policy iteration and Q-learning. The advantage of our algorithms is that they involve lower overhead per iteration, by obviating the need for minimization over all controls at every iteration (this is the

generic advantage that modified policy iteration has over value iteration).

(b) In the context of approximate policy iteration, with linear Q-factor approximation, our algorithm may be combined with the TD(0)-like method of Tsitsiklis and Van Roy [TsV99], which can be used to solve the associated stopping problems with low overhead per iteration, thereby resolving the issue of exploration described earlier.

Regarding (a) above, note that aside from their conceptual/analytical value, lookup table representation methods can be applied to large scale problems through the use of aggregation (a low-dimensional aggregate representation of a large, possibly infinite-dimensional problem; see Jaakkola, Jordan, and Singh [JJS94], [JSJ95], Gordon [Gor95], Tsitsiklis and Van Roy [TsV96], and Bertsekas [Ber05], [Ber10]). Let us also note that Bhatnagar and Babu [BhB08] have proposed Q-learning/policy iteration type algorithms with lookup table representation, based on two-time-scale stochastic approximation, and established the convergence for synchronous implementations. Their algorithms also have low computation overhead per iteration like our algorithm. However, viewed at the slow-time-scale, their algorithms are close to the standard Q-learning and have a different basis than our algorithm.

The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we introduce our policy iteration-like algorithm for the case of exact/lookup table representation of Q-factors, and address convergence issues. In Section 3, we show that our algorithm admits an asynchronous implementation that has improved convergence properties over the standard asynchronous policy iteration algorithm for Q-factors. In Section 4, we develop stochastic iterative methods that resemble both Q-learning and modified/optimistic policy iteration, and prove their convergence. In Section 5, we provide some computational results and a comparison between our optimistic policy iteration algorithms and Q-learning. In Section 6, we consider the possibility of approximating the policy evaluation portion of our algorithm, and we derive a corresponding error bound, which is consistent with existing error bounds for related methods. In Section 7, we briefly discuss implementations of policy evaluation with linear feature-based approximations and simulation-based optimal stopping algorithms, such as the one due to Tsitsiklis and Van Roy [TsV99]. These algorithms use calculations of low dimension (equal to the number of features), and require low overhead per iteration compared with the matrix inversion overhead required by approximate policy iteration that uses the LSTD(λ) method for policy evaluation.

2. A NEW Q-LEARNING ALGORITHM

In this section we introduce our Q-learning algorithm in exact form. We first introduce notation and provide some background. It is well-known that the optimal cost vector J^* is the unique fixed point of the mapping $T : \Re^n \mapsto \Re^n$ given by

$$(TJ)(i) = \min_{u \in U(i)} \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}(u)\big(g(i,u,j) + \alpha J(j)\big), \qquad \forall\ i.$$

The optimal Q-factor corresponding to a state-control pair (i,u) is denoted by $Q^*(i,u)$, and represents the optimal expected cost starting from state x, using control u at the first stage, and subsequently using an optimal policy. Optimal Q-factors and costs are related by the equation

$$J^*(i) = \min_{u \in U(i)} Q^*(i,u), \qquad \forall\ i. \tag{2.1}$$

The optimal Q-factor vector Q^* is the unique fixed point of the mapping F defined by

$$(FQ)(i,u) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}(u)\left(g(i,u,j) + \alpha \min_{v \in U(j)} Q(j,v)\right), \qquad \forall\ (i,u). \tag{2.2}$$

One possibility to compute Q^* is the well-known Q-learning algorithm of Watkins [Wat89] (see e.g., [BeT96], [SuB98] for descriptions and discussion), which is an iterative stochastic approximation-like method, based on the fixed point iteration $Q_{k+1} = FQ_k$ for solving the equation $Q = FQ$. Another popular method for computing Q^* is based on policy iteration. At the typical iteration, given the (deterministic stationary) current policy μ, we find Q_μ, the unique fixed point of the mapping F_μ corresponding to μ, and given by

$$(F_\mu Q)(i,u) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}(u)\Big(g(i,u,j) + \alpha Q\big(j,\mu(j)\big)\Big), \qquad \forall\ (i,u), \tag{2.3}$$

(this is the policy evaluation step). We then obtain a new policy $\overline{\mu}$ by

$$\overline{\mu}(i) = \arg\min_{u\in U(i)} Q_\mu(i,u), \qquad \forall\ i, \tag{2.4}$$

(this is the policy improvement step).

In this section we propose an alternative policy iteration-like method. The key idea is to replace the Q-learning mapping F_μ of Eq. (2.3) with another mapping that allows exploration as well as a dependence on μ. This mapping, denoted $F_{J,\nu}$, depends on a vector $J \in \Re^n$, with components denoted $J(i)$, and on a randomized policy ν, which for each state i defines a probability distribution

$$\big\{\nu(u \mid i) \mid u \in U(i)\big\}$$

over the feasible controls at i. It maps Q, a vector of Q-factors, to $F_{J,\nu}Q$, the vector of Q-factors with components given by

$$(F_{J,\nu}Q)(i,u) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}(u)\left(g(i,u,j) + \alpha \sum_{v\in U(j)} \nu(v \mid j)\min\big\{J(j), Q(j,v)\big\}\right), \qquad \forall\ (i,u). \tag{2.5}$$

Comparing $F_{J,\nu}$ and the classical Q-learning mapping of Eq. (2.2) [or the mapping F_μ of Eq. (2.3)], we see that they take into account the Q-factors of the next state j differently: F (or F_μ) uses the minimal Q-factor $\min_{v\in U(j)} Q(j,v)$ [the Q-factor $Q\big(j,\mu(j)\big)$, respectively], while $F_{J,\nu}$ uses a randomized Q-factor [according to $\nu(v \mid j)$], but only up to the threshold $J(j)$. Note that $F_{J,\nu}$ does not require the overhead for minimization over all controls that the Q-learning mapping F does [cf. Eq. (2.2)].

The mapping $F_{J,\nu}$ can be interpreted in terms of an optimal stopping problem defined as follows:

(a) The state space is the set of state-control pairs (i,u) of the original problem.

(b) When at state (i,u), if we decide to stop, we incur a stopping cost $J(i)$ (independent of u).

(c) When at state (i,u), if we decide not to stop, we incur a one-stage cost $\sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}(u)g(i,u,j)$, and transition to state (j,v) with probability $p_{ij}(u)\nu(v \mid j)$.

From well-known general properties of Q-learning for MDP, it can be seen that $F_{J,\nu}$ is a sup-norm contraction of modulus α for all ν and J, i.e.,

$$\|F_{J,\nu}Q - F_{J,\nu}\tilde{Q}\|_\infty \le \alpha\|Q - \tilde{Q}\|_\infty, \qquad \forall\ Q,\ \tilde{Q}, \tag{2.6}$$

where $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ denotes the sup-norm ($\|Q\|_\infty = \max_{(i,u)} \big|Q(i,u)\big|$). Hence $F_{J,\nu}$ has a unique fixed point, which we denote by $Q_{J,\nu}$. We may interpret $Q_{J,\nu}(i,u)$ as a Q-factor of the optimal stopping problem corresponding

to the nonstopping action, i.e., the optimal cost-to-go starting at (i,u) and conditioned on the first decision being not to stop. Another insight is that if J is the cost of some policy π, which can be randomized and history dependent, then we may interpret the components of $Q_{J,\nu}$, as the Q-factors of a policy which switches optimally from following the policy ν to following the policy π.

For a given (J,ν), the optimal stopping problem can be solved exactly by using value iteration. When linear feature-based Q-factor approximation is used, it can be solved with the algorithm of Tsitsiklis and Van Roy [TsV99], a simulation-based TD(0)-type method that uses low-dimensional computation [of order O(s)] at each iteration and does not require an $s \times s$ matrix inversion (like LSTD or LSPE). Later, in Sections 6 and 7, we will envision the use of this algorithm for approximating $Q_{J,\nu}$.

Note that if $\nu = \mu$, where μ is a deterministic policy, we have $Q_{J,\mu} \leq Q_\mu$ for all J, with equality holding if $J_\mu \leq J$. To get an indication that the mapping $F_{J,\mu}$ can have an advantage in some cases over the Q-learning mapping F_μ, suppose that J is a known upper bound to J_μ (for example, in the context of policy iteration, J may be the cost vector of the policy preceding μ). Then it can be seen that $Q_\mu \leq F_{J,\mu}Q \leq F_\mu Q$ for all $Q \geq Q_\mu$, which in turn by using induction, shows that

$$Q_\mu \leq F_{J,\mu}^k Q \leq F_\mu^k Q, \qquad \forall\ k = 0, 1, \ldots,$$

i.e., that starting from $Q \geq Q_\mu$, value iteration/Q-learning using $F_{J,\mu}$ converges to Q_μ at least as fast as it converges using F_μ. Indeed, simple 2-state examples show that the differences between the components of $F_{J,\mu}^k Q$ and $F_\mu^k Q$ can be substantial [take $n = 2$, $g(i,u,j) \equiv 0$, $p_{12}(u) = p_{21}(u) \equiv 1$, $Q(1,u) \equiv J(1) = 1$, $Q(2,u) \equiv J(2) = \beta > 1$]. Therefore, in certain circumstances, iterative evaluation of the Q-factors of a policy μ may converge substantially faster using $F_{J,\mu}$ than using F_μ. In this paper, however, we focus primarily on other advantages, which are related to asynchronous implementations and exploration, and will be explained in what follows.

The following proposition generalizes the contraction property (2.6). In the proof and for the remainder of the paper, J^x denotes the vector J extended to the space of state-control pairs by

$$J^x(i,u) = J(i), \qquad \forall\ u \in U(i).$$

Furthermore, minimization over two vectors is interpreted componentwise, i.e., $\min\{Q_1, Q_2\}$ denotes the vector with components $\min\big\{Q_1(i,u), Q_2(i,u)\big\}$.

Proposition 2.1: For all ν, J, $\tilde{J}$, Q, and $\tilde{Q}$, we have

$$\|F_{J,\nu}Q - F_{\tilde{J},\nu}\tilde{Q}\|_\infty \leq \alpha \max\big\{\|J - \tilde{J}\|_\infty,\ \|Q - \tilde{Q}\|_\infty\big\}.$$

Proof: We write

$$F_{J,\nu}\,Q = \bar{g} + \alpha \overline{P}_\nu \min\big\{J^x, Q\big\}, \tag{2.7}$$

where $\bar{g}$ is the vector with components

$$\sum_{j=1}^n p_{ij}(u) g(i,u,j), \qquad \forall\ (i,u),$$

and $\overline{P}_\nu$ is the transition probability matrix with probabilities of transition $(i,u) \to (j,v)$ equal to

$$p_{ij}(u)\nu(v \mid j), \qquad \forall\ (i,u),\ (j,v).$$

From Eq. (2.7), we obtain

$$\|F_{J,\nu}Q - F_{\hat{J},\nu}\tilde{Q}\|_\infty \leq \alpha \big\| \min\{J^x, Q\} - \min\{\tilde{J}^x, \tilde{Q}\} \big\|_\infty.$$

We also have†

$$\big\| \min\{J^x, Q\} - \min\{\tilde{J}^x, \tilde{Q}\} \big\|_\infty \leq \max\big\{\|J - \tilde{J}\|_\infty,\ \|Q - \tilde{Q}\|_\infty\big\}.$$

The preceding two relations imply the result. **Q.E.D.**

Our Q-learning algorithm generates a sequence of pairs (Q_k, J_k), starting from an arbitrary pair (Q_0, J_0). Given (Q_k, J_k), we select an arbitrary randomized policy ν_k and an arbitrary positive integer m_k, and we obtain the next pair (Q_{k+1}, J_{k+1}) as follows:

Iteration k with Lookup Table Representation:

(1) Generate Q_{k+1} with m_k iterations involving the mapping F_{J_k,ν_k}, with ν_k and J_k held fixed:

$$Q_{k+1} = F^{m_k}_{J_k,\nu_k} Q_k. \tag{2.8}$$

(2) Update J_{k+1} by

$$J_{k+1}(i) = \min_{u \in U(i)} Q_{k+1}(i,u), \qquad \forall\ i. \tag{2.9}$$

We will show shortly that Q_k and J_k converge to the optimal Q-factor and cost vector of the original MDP, respectively, but we first discuss the qualitative behavior of the algorithm. To this end, we first consider the two extreme cases where $m_k = 1$ and $m_k = \infty$. For $m_k = 1$,

$$\begin{aligned} Q_{k+1}(i,u) &= \sum_{j=1}^n p_{ij}(u) \left(g(i,u,j) + \alpha \sum_{v \in U(j)} \nu_k(v \mid j) \min\left\{ \min_{v' \in U(j)} Q_k(j,v'), Q_k(j,v) \right\} \right) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n p_{ij}(u) \left(g(i,u,j) + \alpha \min_{v \in U(j)} Q_k(j,v) \right), \qquad \forall\ (i,u), \end{aligned}$$

† Here we are using a nonexpasiveness property of the minimization map: for any Q_1, Q_2, $\tilde{Q}_1$, $\tilde{Q}_2$, we have

$$\big\| \min\{Q_1, Q_2\} - \min\{\tilde{Q}_1, \tilde{Q}_2\} \big\|_\infty \leq \max\big\{\|Q_1 - \tilde{Q}_1\|_\infty, \|Q_2 - \tilde{Q}_2\|_\infty\big\}.$$

To see this, write for every (i,u),

$$Q_m(i,u) \leq \max\big\{\|Q_1 - \tilde{Q}_1\|_\infty, \|Q_2 - \tilde{Q}_2\|_\infty\big\} + \tilde{Q}_m(i,u), \qquad m = 1,2,$$

take the minimum of both sides over m, exchange the roles of Q_m and $\tilde{Q}_m$, and take maximum over (i,u).

so Eq. (2.8) coincides with the synchronous Q-learning algorithm $Q_{k+1} = FQ_k$, while Eq. (2.9) coincides with the value iteration $J_{k+1} = TJ_k$ for the original MDP.

On the other hand, in the limiting case where $m_k = \infty$, Q_{k+1} is the Q-factor Q_{J_k,ν_k} of the associated stopping problem (the unique fixed point of F_{J_k,ν_k}), and the algorithm takes the form

$$J_{k+1}(i) = \min_{u\in U(i)} Q_{J_k,\nu_k}(i,u), \qquad \forall\ i. \tag{2.10}$$

Assume further that ν_k is chosen to be the deterministic policy μ_k that attains the minimum in the equation

$$\mu_k(i) = \arg\min_{u\in U(i)} Q_k(i,u), \qquad \forall\ i, \tag{2.11}$$

with ν_0 being some deterministic policy μ_0 satisfying $J_0 \geq J_{\mu_0}$. Then Q_1 is equal to Q_{J_0,μ_0} (since $m_k = \infty$) and can be seen to be also equal to the (exact) Q-factor vector of μ_0 (since $J_0 \geq J_{\mu_0}$), so μ_1 as generated by Eq. (2.11), is the policy generated from μ_0 by exact policy improvement for the original MDP. Similarly, it can be shown by induction that for $m_k = \infty$ and $\nu_k = \mu_k$, the algorithm generates the same sequence of policies as exact policy iteration for the original MDP.

Generally, the iteration (2.8), (2.9) resembles in some ways the classical *modified policy iteration* for MDP (see e.g., [Ber07], [Put94]), where policy evaluation is approximated with a finite number m_k of value iterations, with the case $m_k = 1$ corresponding to value iteration/synchronous Q-learning, and the case $m_k = \infty$ corresponding to (exact) policy iteration.

However, our algorithm has another qualitative dimension, because the randomized policy ν_k may differ significantly from the deterministic policy (2.11). In particular, suppose that $m_k = \infty$ and ν_k is chosen to assign positive probability to nonoptimal controls, i.e., so that $\nu_k\big(\mu^*(j) \mid j\big) = 0$ for all j and optimal policies μ^*. Then since $J_k \to J^*$ (as we will show shortly), we have for all j and sufficiently large k, $J_k(j) < Q_{J_k,\nu_k}(j,v)$ for all v with $\nu_k(v \mid j) > 0$, so that

$$\begin{aligned} J_{k+1}(i) &= \min_{u\in U(i)} \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}(u) \left(g(i,u,j) + \alpha \sum_{v\in U(j)} \nu_k(v \mid j) \min\big\{J_k(j), Q_{J_k,\nu_k}(j,v)\big\} \right) \\ &= \min_{u\in U(i)} \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}(u)\big(g(i,u,j) + \alpha J_k(j)\big), \qquad \forall\ i. \end{aligned}$$

Thus the algorithm, for sufficiently large k, reduces to synchronous Q-learning/value iteration for the original MDP, even though $m_k = \infty$, and produces the same results as with the choice $m_k = 1$ (or any value of m_k)!

The preceding arguments illustrate that the choices of ν_k and m_k are the two factors that affect most the qualitative character of the algorithm. With little exploration [approaching the extreme case where ν_k is the deterministic policy (2.11)] our algorithm tends to act nearly like modified policy iteration (or exact policy iteration for $m_k = \infty$). With substantial exploration [approaching the extreme case where $\nu_k\big(\mu_k(j) \mid j\big) = 0$ for any policy μ_k generated according to Eq. (2.11)] it tends to act nearly like Q-learning/value iteration (regardless of the value of m_k). This reasoning also suggests that with substantial exploration it may be better to use small values of m_k.

When exploration is desired, as in the case where feature-based Q-factor approximations are used (cf. Sections 6 and 7), a reasonable way to operate the algorithm is to determine ν_k by "superimposing" some exploration to the deterministic policy μ_k of Eq. (2.11). For example, we may use a distribution ν_k that is a random mixture of μ_k and another policy that induces exploration, including visits to state-control pairs

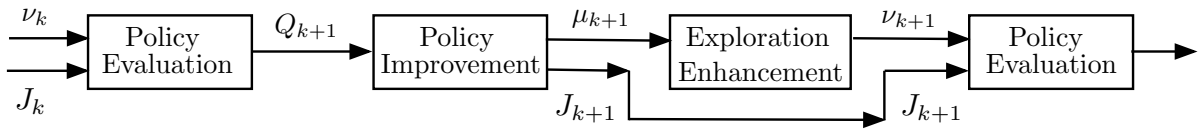

Figure 2.1. Illustration of exploration-enhanced policy iteration algorithm. The policy evaluation consists of a finite number of Q-value iterations for the optimal stopping problem involving the randomized policy ν and the theshold/stopping cost J [cf. Eq. (2.8)]. It is followed by policy improvement that produces a new deterministic policy [cf. Eq. (2.11)], which forms the basis for constructing the new randomized policy using some exploration mechanism.

that are unlikely/impossible to generate under μ_k). In this case, we may view the calculation of Q_{k+1} via Eq. (2.8) as a form of approximate policy evaluation, somewhat similar to one or more value iterations, depending on the degree of exploration allowed by ν_k and the value of m_k, and we may view Eq. (2.11) as a form of corresponding policy improvement (see Fig. 2.1).

We now prove our main convergence result.

Proposition 2.2: For any choice of (Q_0, J_0), $\{\nu_k\}$, and $\{m_k\}$, a sequence $\{(Q_k, J_k)\}$ generated by the algorithm (2.8)-(2.9) converges to (Q^*, J^*), and the rate of convergence is geometric. Furthermore, for all k after some index $\overline{k}$, the generated policies μ_k are optimal.

Proof: Since $J^*(i) = \min_{u\in U(i)} Q^*(i,u)$ [cf. Eq. (2.1)], we have using Eqs. (2.2) and (2.5), $F_{J^*,\nu}Q^* = FQ^* = Q^*$ for all ν. From Prop. 2.1, it follows that

$$\|F_{J,\nu}Q - Q^*\|_\infty \leq \alpha \max\big\{\|J - J^*\|_\infty, \|Q - Q^*\|_\infty\big\}, \qquad \forall\ Q,\ J,\ \nu.$$

Using this relation, we have

$$\|F^2_{J_k,\nu_k}Q_k - Q^*\|_\infty \leq \alpha \max\big\{\|J_k - J^*\|_\infty, \|F_{J_k,\nu_k}Q_k - Q^*\|_\infty\big\} \leq \max\big\{\alpha\|J_k - J^*\|_\infty, \alpha^2\|Q_k - Q^*\|_\infty\big\},$$

and by repeating this process,

$$\|Q_{k+1} - Q^*\|_\infty = \|F^{m_k}_{J_k,\nu_k}Q_k - Q^*\|_\infty \leq \max\big\{\alpha\|J_k - J^*\|_\infty, \alpha^{m_k}\|Q_k - Q^*\|_\infty\big\}. \tag{2.12}$$

Since for all Q, and $\tilde{Q}$, we have †

$$\max_{i=1,\ldots,n}\left|\min_{u\in U(i)} Q(i,u) - \min_{u\in U(i)} \tilde{Q}(i,u)\right| \leq \|Q - \tilde{Q}\|_\infty, \tag{2.13}$$

† This is a well-known property. For a proof, write

$$Q(i,u) \leq \|Q - \tilde{Q}\|_\infty + \tilde{Q}(i,u), \qquad \forall\ (i,u),$$

take minimum of both sides over $u \in U(i)$, exchange the roles of Q and $\tilde{Q}$, and take maximum over i.

it follows by taking $Q = Q_k$ and $\tilde{Q} = Q^*$, that for $k > 0$,

$$\|J_k - J^*\|_\infty \leq \|Q_k - Q^*\|_\infty. \tag{2.14}$$

Combining Eqs. (2.12) and (2.14), we obtain

$$\|Q_{k+1} - Q^*\|_\infty \leq \alpha \|Q_k - Q^*\|_\infty. \tag{2.15}$$

Thus Q_k converges to Q^* geometrically, and in view of Eq. (2.14), $\{J_k\}$ also converges to J^* geometrically. The optimality of μ_k for sufficiently large k follows from the convergence $Q_k \to Q^*$, since a policy μ^* is optimal if and only if $\mu^*(i)$ minimizes $Q^*(i,u)$ over $U(i)$ for all i. **Q.E.D.**

The preceding proof can also be used to establish a fact that complements Prop. 2.1, namely that for every randomized policy ν and integer $m \geq 1$, the mapping underlying our algorithm,

$$(Q, J) \quad \mapsto \quad \left(F^m_{J,\nu} Q,\ M\, F^m_{J,\nu} Q \right),$$

where

$$(M\, F^m_{J,\nu} Q)(i) = \min_{u \in U(i)} (F^m_{J,\nu} Q)(i,u), \qquad \forall\ i = 1, \ldots, n,$$

is a sup-norm contraction of modulus α, and its unique fixed point is (Q^*, J^*). This is the mathematical foundation for the convergence properties of the algorithm (2.8)-(2.9), as well as its asynchronous variants to be discussed in the next section.

3. ASYNCHRONOUS VERSION OF THE ALGORITHM

The algorithm, as given in Eqs. (2.8)-(2.9), may be viewed as synchronous in the sense that the Q-factors of all state-control pairs are simultaneously updated at each iteration. The contraction property of the underlying mappings [cf. Prop. 2.1 and Eqs. (2.13)-(2.15)] can be used to establish the convergence of the algorithm under far more irregular conditions. In particular, we consider in this section asynchronous updating of Q-factors and state costs corresponding to blocks of components, and we discuss in Section 4 model-free sampled versions, which do not require the explicit knowledge of $p_{ij}(u)$ and the calculation of expected values.

In standard asynchronous versions of policy iteration for Q-factors [cf. Eqs. (2.3)-(2.4)], the updates of μ and Q are executed selectively, for only some of the states and state-control pairs. In a fairly general implementation discussed in the literature ([BeT96], Section 2.2, or [Ber07], Section 1.3.3), there are two types of iterations: those corresponding to an index subset K_Q where Q is updated, and those corresponding to the complementary subset K_μ where μ is updated. The algorithm generates a sequence of pairs (Q_k, μ_k), starting from an arbitrary pair (Q_0, μ_0) as follows:

$$Q_{k+1}(i,u) = \begin{cases} (F_{\mu_k} Q_k)(i,u) & \text{if } (i,u) \in R_k, \\ Q_k(i,u) & \text{if } (i,u) \notin R_k, \end{cases} \qquad \forall\ k \in K_Q, \tag{3.1}$$

$$\mu_{k+1}(j) = \begin{cases} \arg\min_{v \in U(j)} Q_k(j,v) & \text{if } j \in S_k, \\ \mu_k(j) & \text{if } j \notin S_k, \end{cases} \qquad \forall\ k \in K_\mu, \tag{3.2}$$

where R_k and S_k are subsets of state-control pairs and states, respectively, one of which is nonempty while the other is empty [so that either Eq. (3.1), or Eq. (3.2) is performed]. Relative to ordinary Q-learning, the

advantage is that the minimization in Eq. (3.2) is performed only for $k \in K_\mu$ and only for the states in S_k (rather than at each iteration, and for all states), thereby saving computational overhead (this is the generic advantage that modified policy iteration has over ordinary value iteration). Unfortunately, the convergence of the asynchronous policy iteration (3.1)-(3.2) to Q^* is questionable in the absence of additional restrictions; some assumption, such as $F_{\mu_0}Q_0 \leq Q_0$, is required for the initial policy μ_0 and vector Q_0 (see Williams and Baird [WiB93] for a proof and counterexamples to convergence, or [BeT96], Prop. 2.5, and [Ber07], Prop. 1.3.5). The restriction $F_{\mu_0}Q_0 \leq Q_0$ can be satisfied by adding to Q_0 a sufficiently large multiple of the unit vector. The need for it, however, indicates that the convergence properties of the algorithm (3.1)-(3.2) are fragile and sensitive to the assumptions, which may cause convergence difficulties in both its deterministic and its stochastic simulation-based variants. In particular, no related convergence results or counterexamples are currently known for the case where the expected value of Eq. (3.1) is replaced by a single sample in a stochastic approximation-type of update.

In a corresponding asynchronous version of our algorithm (2.8)-(2.9), again Q is updated selectively, for only some of the state-control pairs, and J is also updated at some iterations and for some of the states. There may also be a policy μ that is maintained and updated selectively at some of the states. This policy may be used to generate a randomized policy ν which enters the algorithm in a material way. However, the algorithm is valid for any choice of ν, so its definition need not involve the policy μ and the method in which it is used to update ν (we will later give an example of an updating scheme for μ and ν). Specifically, our asynchronous algorithm, stated in general terms, generates a sequence of pairs (Q_k, J_k), starting from an arbitrary pair (Q_0, J_0). Given (Q_k, J_k), we obtain the next pair (Q_{k+1}, J_{k+1}) as follows:

Asynchronous Policy Iteration:

Select a randomized policy ν_k, a subset R_k of state-control pairs, and a subset of states S_k such that $R_k \cup S_k \neq \emptyset$, generate Q_{k+1} according to

$$Q_{k+1}(i,u) = \begin{cases} (F_{J_k,\nu_k} Q_k)(i,u) & \text{if } (i,u) \in R_k, \\ Q_k(i,u) & \text{if } (i,u) \notin R_k, \end{cases} \tag{3.3}$$

and generate J_{k+1} according to

$$J_{k+1}(i) = \begin{cases} \min_{u \in U(i)} Q_k(i,u) & \text{if } i \in S_k, \\ J_k(i) & \text{if } i \notin S_k. \end{cases} \tag{3.4}$$

As mentioned earlier, ν_k may be selected in special ways so that it gives the algorithm a policy iteration character, which can then be compared with (synchronous or asynchronous) modified policy iteration for Q-factors, such as the one of Eqs. (3.1)-(3.2). For an example of such an algorithm, assume that a policy μ_k is also maintained, which defines ν_k (so ν_k is the deterministic policy μ_k). The algorithm updates Q according to

$$Q_{k+1}(i,u) = \begin{cases} (F_{J_k,\mu_k} Q_k)(i,u) & \text{if } (i,u) \in R_k, \\ Q_k(i,u) & \text{if } (i,u) \notin R_k, \end{cases} \tag{3.5}$$

and it updates J and μ according to

$$J_{k+1}(j) = \begin{cases} \min_{v \in U(j)} Q_k(j,v) & \text{if } j \in S_k, \\ J_k(j) & \text{if } j \notin S_k, \end{cases} \qquad \mu_{k+1}(j) = \begin{cases} \arg\min_{v \in U(j)} Q_k(j,v) & \text{if } j \in S_k, \\ \mu_k(j) & \text{if } j \notin S_k, \end{cases} \tag{3.6}$$

where R_k and S_k are subsets of state-control pairs and states.

We may view Eq. (3.5) as a policy evaluation iteration for the state-control pairs in R_k, and Eq. (3.6) as a policy improvement iteration only for the states in S_k. In comparing the new algorithm (3.5)-(3.6) with the known algorithm (3.1)-(3.2), we see that the essential difference is that Eq. (3.5) involves the use of J_k and the minimization in the right-hand side, while Eq. (3.1) does not. As we will show in the following proposition, this precludes the kind of anomalous behavior that is exhibited in the Williams and Baird counterexamples [WiB93] mentioned earlier. Mathematically, the reason for this may be traced to the presence of the cost vector J in Eq. (3.3) and its special case Eq. (3.5), and the sup-norm contraction in the space of (Q, J), which underlies iterations (3.3)-(3.4) and (3.5)-(3.6) [cf. Prop. 2.1 and Eqs. (2.13)-(2.15)].

The following convergence result bears similarity to general convergence results for asynchronous distributed DP and related algorithms involving sup-norm contractions (see [Ber82], [Ber83], and [BeT89], Section 6.2).

Proposition 3.1: Assume that each pair (i, u) is included in the set R_k infinitely often, and each state i is included in the set S_k infinitely often. Then any sequence $\{(Q_k, J_k)\}$ generated by the algorithm (3.3)-(3.4) converges to (Q^*, J^*).

Proof: Let $\{k_j\}$ and $\{\hat{k}_j\}$ be sequences of iteration indices such that $k_0 = 0$, $k_j < \hat{k}_j < k_{j+1}$ for $j = 0, 1, \ldots$, and for all j, each (i, u) is included in $\cup_{k=k_j}^{\hat{k}_j - 1} R_k$ at least once, while each i is included in $\cup_{k=\hat{k}_j}^{k_{j+1}-1} S_k$ at least once. Thus, between iterations k_j and $\hat{k}_j$, each component of Q is updated at least once, and between iterations $\hat{k}_j$ and k_{j+1}, each component of J is updated at least once.

By using Prop. 2.1, we have for all k

$$|Q_{k+1}(i,u) - Q^*(i,u)| \leq \alpha \max\big\{\|J_k - J^*\|_\infty, \|Q_k - Q^*\|_\infty\big\}, \qquad \forall\ (i,u) \in R_k, \tag{3.7}$$

$$Q_{k+1}(i,u) = Q_k(i,u), \qquad \forall\ (i,u) \notin R_k. \tag{3.8}$$

Also, by using the nonexpansive property of the minimization operation [cf. Eq. (2.13)], we have for all k

$$|J_{k+1}(i) - J^*(i)| \leq \|Q_k - Q^*\|_\infty, \qquad \forall\ i \in S_k, \tag{3.9}$$

$$J_{k+1}(i) = J_k(i), \qquad \forall\ i \notin S_k. \tag{3.10}$$

From these relations, it follows that

$$\max\big\{\|J_{k+1} - J^*\|_\infty, \|Q_{k+1} - Q^*\|_\infty\big\} \leq \max\big\{\|J_k - J^*\|_\infty, \|Q_k - Q^*\|_\infty\big\}, \qquad \forall\ k = 0, 1, \ldots. \tag{3.11}$$

For each $k \in [\hat{k}_j, k_{j+1}]$, we have from Eqs. (3.7), (3.8),

$$|Q_k(i,u) - Q^*(i,u)| \leq \alpha \max\big\{\|J_{\tilde{k}(i,u,k)} - J^*\|_\infty, \|Q_{\tilde{k}(i,u,k)} - Q^*\|_\infty\big\}, \qquad \forall\ (i,u), \tag{3.12}$$

where $\tilde{k}(i,u,k)$ is the last iteration index between k_j and k when the component $Q(i,u)$ is updated. Since each component of Q is updated at least once between iterations k_j and $k \in [\hat{k}_j, k_{j+1}]$, using also Eq. (3.11), it follows that

$$\|Q_k - Q^*\|_\infty \leq \alpha \max\big\{\|J_{k_j} - J^*\|_\infty, \|Q_{k_j} - Q^*\|_\infty\big\}, \qquad \forall\ j = 0, 1, \ldots,\ k \in [\hat{k}_j, k_{j+1}]. \tag{3.13}$$

Since each component of J is updated at least once between iterations $\hat{k}_j$ and k_{j+1}, we have from Eqs. (3.9) and (3.10) that

$$|J_{k_{j+1}}(i) - J^*(i)| \leq \|Q_{\tilde{k}(i)} - Q^*\|_\infty, \qquad \forall\ i = 1, \ldots, n,$$

where $\tilde{k}(i)$ is the last iteration index between $\hat{k}_j$ and k_{j+1} when the component $J(i)$ is updated, so from Eq. (3.13), it follows that

$$\|J_{k_{j+1}} - J^*\|_\infty \leq \alpha \max\big\{\|J_{k_j} - J^*\|_\infty,\, \|Q_{k_j} - Q^*\|_\infty\big\}, \qquad \forall\ j = 0, 1, \ldots. \tag{3.14}$$

Combining Eqs. (3.13) and (3.14), we obtain

$$\max\big\{\|J_{k_{j+1}} - J^*\|_\infty,\, \|Q_{k_{j+1}} - Q^*\|_\infty\big\} \leq \alpha \max\big\{\|J_{k_j} - J^*\|_\infty,\, \|Q_{k_j} - Q^*\|_\infty\big\}, \qquad \forall\ j = 0, 1, \ldots,$$

so $\max\big\{\|J_{k_j} - J^*\|_\infty,\, \|Q_{k_j} - Q^*\|_\infty\big\} \to 0$ as $j \to \infty$, i.e., that $(Q_{k_j}, J_{k_j}) \to (Q^*, J^*)$ as $j \to \infty$. Using also Eq. (3.11), this implies that the entire sequence $\big\{(Q_k, J_k)\big\}$ converges to (Q^*, J^*). **Q.E.D.**

4. STOCHASTIC ITERATIVE VERSIONS OF THE ALGORITHM

In this section we consider stochastic iterative versions of our algorithm, which are patterned after the classical Q-learning algorithm of Watkins [Wat89], as well as optimistic and modified policy iteration methods ([BeT96], Section 5.4). We will compare our algorithm with the classical Q-learning algorithm, whereby we generate a sequence of state-control pairs $\big\{(i_k, u_k) \mid k = 0, 1, \ldots\big\}$ by any probabilistic mechanism that guarantees that each pair (i, u) appears infinitely often with probability 1, and at each time k, we generate a successor state j_k according to the distribution $p_{i_k j}(u_k)$, $j = 1, \ldots, n$, and we update only the Q-factor of (i_k, u_k),

$$Q_{k+1}(i_k, u_k) = \big(1 - \gamma_{(i_k,u_k),k}\big) Q_k(i_k, u_k) + \gamma_{(i_k,u_k),k}\Big(g(i_k, u_k, j_k) + \alpha \min_{v \in U(j)} Q_k(j_k, v)\Big), \tag{4.1}$$

while leaving all other components of Q_k unchanged: $Q_{k+1}(i, u) = Q_k(i, u)$ for all $(i, u) \neq (i_k, u_k)$. The positive stepsizes $\gamma_{(i_k,u_k),k}$ may depend on the current pair (i_k, u_k), and must satisfy assumptions that are standard in stochastic approximation methods (i.e., must diminish to 0 at a suitable rate). There are also distributed asynchronous versions of the algorithm (4.1), where $Q_k(j_k, v)$ may be replaced by $Q_{\tau_{k,v}}(j_k, v)$, where $k - \tau_{k,v}$ may be viewed as a nonnegative integer "delay" that depends on k and v, as discussed by Tsitsiklis [Tsi94], and other sources on asynchronous stochastic approximation methods such as [TBA86], [BeT89], [Bor98], [ABB02], and [Bor08].

In what follows in this section, we present three model-free optimistic policy iteration algorithms, which update a cost vector J in addition to the Q-factor vector Q, similar to the algorithms of Sections 2 and 3. We focus on a specific order of updates (simultaneous updates of selected components of J and Q), but other orders may also be considered. We refer to these algorithms as Algorithms I-III, and we briefly describe them below:

(I) This algorithm resembles the classical Q-learning algorithm (4.1), but requires less overhead per iteration [the minimization over $u \in U(j)$ is replaced by a simpler operation]. It also bears similarity with a known partially optimistic TD(0) algorithm, discussed in Section 5.4 of [BeT96], but has improved convergence properties.

(II) This algorithm parallels the asynchronous policy iteration method (3.3)-(3.4) of the preceding section, but is model-free and uses a single sample per state instead of computing an expected value.

(III) This algorithm generalizes the first two, and allows more complex mechanisms for generating state control pairs, as well as "delayed" components of state costs and Q-factors in its iteration. Among others, the extra generality is helpful in addressing implementations in an asynchronous distributed computing system, and also facilitates the convergence analysis, as we will explain later.

We find it useful to present Algorithms I and II first, since they offer different advantages in different situations, and they help to motivate the more general Algorithm III. We establish the convergence of the latter algorithm using the asynchronous stochastic approximation-type convergence framework of Tsitsiklis [Tsi94]. All the variables involved in the algorithms (states, state-control pairs, costs of states, Q-factors, policies, sets of indexes that determine which components are updated, etc) are to be viewed as random variables defined on a common probability space. Specific technical assumptions about their probabilistic properties will be given at the appropriate points later.

4.1. Some Model-Free Optimistic Policy Iteration Algorithms

Similar to classical Q-learning, our first algorithm generates a sequence of state-control pairs $\{(i_k, u_k) \mid k = 0, 1, \dots\}$, and updates only the Q-factor of (i_k, u_k) at iteration k, using a positive stepsize $\gamma_{(i_k,u_k),k}$. It also updates a single component of J if $k \in K_J$, where K_J is an infinite subset of indices (which need not be predetermined, but may depend on algorithmic progress). The algorithm may choose ν_k arbitrarily for each k and with dependence on (i_k, u_k), but one possibility is to maintain a policy μ_k that is updated at selected states simultaneously with J, and then use $\nu_k = \mu_k$, similar to algorithm (3.5)-(3.6). Furthermore, the controls u_k may be generated in accordance with ν_k; this gives the algorithm a modified/optimistic policy iteration character. The states i_{k+1} may be generated according to $p_{i_k j}(u_k)$, as in some optimistic policy iteration methods, although this is not essential for the convergence of the algorithm. Compared to the preceding Q-learning algorithm (4.1), the algorithm has an advantage similar to the one that modified policy iteration has over value iteration [less overhead because it does not require the minimization over all controls $v \in U(j)$ at every iteration]. In particular, given the pair (Q_k, J_k), the algorithm obtains (Q_{k+1}, J_{k+1}) as follows:

Model-Free Optimistic Policy Iteration I:

(1) Select a state-action pair (i_k, u_k). If $k \in K_J$, update J_k according to

$$J_{k+1}(j) = \begin{cases} \min_{v \in U(j)} Q_k(j, v) & \text{if } j = i_k, \\ J_k(j) & \text{if } j \neq i_k; \end{cases} \tag{4.2}$$

otherwise leave J_k unchanged ($J_{k+1} = J_k$).

(2) Select a stepsize $\gamma_{(i_k,u_k),k} \in (0, 1]$ and a policy $\nu_{(i_k,u_k),k}$. Generate a successor state j_k according to the distribution $p_{i_k j}(u_k)$, $j = 1, \dots, n$, and generate a control v_k according to the distribution $\nu_{(i_k,u_k),k}(v \mid j_k)$, $v \in U(j_k)$.

(3) Update the (i_k, u_k)th component of Q according to

$$Q_{k+1}(i_k, u_k) = \big(1 - \gamma_{(i_k,u_k),k}\big)Q_k(i_k, u_k) + \gamma_{(i_k,u_k),k}\Big(g(i_k, u_k, j_k) + \alpha \min\big\{J_k(j_k), Q_k(j_k, v_k)\big\}\Big), \tag{4.3}$$

and leave all other components of Q_k unchanged: $Q_{k+1}(i, u) = Q_k(i, u)$ for all $(i, u) \neq (i_k, u_k)$.

The preceding algorithm (Algorithm I) has similarities with the partially optimistic TD(0) algorithm, discussed in Section 5.4 of [BeT96]. The latter algorithm updates only J [rather than (J, Q)] using TD(0), and also maintains a policy, which is updated at selected iterations. However, its convergence properties are dubious, as discussed in p. 231 of [BeT96] (see also Tsitsiklis [Tsi02]). By contrast, we will show that our algorithm above has satisfactory convergence properties.

We now give another stochastic iterative algorithm, which parallels the asynchronous policy iteration method (3.3)-(3.4) of Section 3. Given the pair (Q_k, J_k), the algorithm obtains (Q_{k+1}, J_{k+1}) as follows:

Model-Free Optimistic Policy Iteration II:

Select a subset R_k of state-control pairs, and a subset of states S_k such that $R_k \cup S_k \neq \emptyset$.

Update J_k according to

$$J_{k+1}(i) = \begin{cases} \min_{u \in U(i)} Q_k(i, u) & \text{if } i \in S_k, \\ J_k(i) & \text{if } i \notin S_k. \end{cases} \tag{4.4}$$

For each $\ell = (i, u) \in R_k$, select a stepsize $\gamma_{\ell,k} \in (0, 1]$ and a policy $\nu_{\ell,k}$, and:

(1) Generate a successor state j_k according to the distribution $p_{ij}(u)$, $j = 1, \ldots, n$, and generate a control v_k according to the distribution $\nu_{\ell,k}(v \mid j_k)$, $v \in U(j_k)$.

(2) Update the (i, u)th component of Q_k according to

$$Q_{k+1}(i, u) = \big(1 - \gamma_{(i,u),k}\big)Q_k(i, u) + \gamma_{\ell,k}\Big(g(i, u, j_k) + \alpha \min\big\{J_k(j_k), Q_k(j_k, v_k)\big\}\Big). \tag{4.5}$$

Leave all other components of Q_k unchanged: $Q_{k+1}(i, u) = Q_k(i, u)$ for all $(i, u) \notin R_k$.

In the preceding algorithm (Algorithm II), the successor state-control pair (j_k, v_k) corresponding to the different pairs $\ell = (i, u) \in R_k$ are different random variables. We have used the same notation for simplicity. Compared with Algorithm I, the chief difference in Algorithm II is that it allows multiple components of J and Q to be updated at each iteration. Compared with the deterministic asynchronous version (3.3)-(3.4), the chief difference is that selected components of Q are updated using a single sample in place of the expected value that defines $F_{J_k,\nu_{\ell,k}}$ [cf. Eqs. (3.3) and (3.5)]. Such updates must satisfy certain properties, to be discussed in what follows, so that the error due to simulation noise will vanish in the limit.

It is convenient to view the next algorithm (Algorithm III) as an algorithm that operates in the joint space of the pair (J, Q). We denote $x_k = (J_k, Q_k)$ and introduce outdated information in updating x_k. This is natural for asynchronous distributed computation, in which case each component ℓ may be associated with

a processor, which keeps at time k a local, outdated version of x_k, denoted by $x_k^{(\ell)}$. We introduce outdated information not just for more generality, but also to facilitate the association with the algorithmic framework of [Tsi04], which we will use in our convergence proof. In particular, $x_k^{(\ell)}$ has the form

$$x_k^{(\ell)} = \big(x_{1,\tau_{1,k}^\ell}, \ldots, x_{m,\tau_{m,k}^\ell}\big), \tag{4.6}$$

where the nonnegative difference $k - \tau_{j,k}^\ell$ indicates a "communication delay" relative to the "current" time k for the jth component of x at the processor updating component ℓ ($j, \ell = 1, \ldots, m$, with m being the sum of the number of states and the number of state-control pairs). We write $x_k^{(\ell)}$ in terms of its components J and Q as

$$x_k^{(\ell)} = \big(J_k^{(\ell)}, Q_k^{(\ell)}\big). \tag{4.7}$$

We will require later that $\lim_{k\to\infty} \tau_{j,k}^\ell = \infty$ for all ℓ and j, but the exact values of $\tau_{j,k}^\ell$ are immaterial and need not even be known to the processor.

In the following Algorithm III, we can use outdated information to update J and Q, and the choice of the policy ν at time k may depend on the successor state j_k in addition to the history of the algorithm up to time k. To be more precise, let I_k be an information vector, a random variable that consists of the entire history of the algorithm up to time k (this includes the stepsizes $\gamma_{\ell,t}$, the index sets S_t and R_t selected for cost and Q-factor updates, the results of the updates, and the delays $t - \tau_{j,t}^\ell$, at all times $t \le k$). We will assume that the selection of the policy is based on (I_k, j_k), where j_k is the successor state generated according to probabilities $p_{ij}(u)$ similar to Algorithm II.

Model-Free Optimistic Policy Iteration III:

Select a subset R_k of state-control pairs, and a subset of states S_k such that $R_k \cup S_k \neq \emptyset$. For each $\ell \in R_k \cup S_k$, choose a stepsize $\gamma_{\ell,k} \in (0, 1]$ and times $\tau_{j,k}^\ell \le k$, $j = 1, \ldots, m$. Let $(J_k^{(\ell)}, Q_k^{(\ell)})$ be as defined in Eqs. (4.6) and (4.7).

Update J_k according to

$$J_{k+1}(i) = \begin{cases} (1-\gamma_{\ell,k})J_k(i) + \gamma_{\ell,k} \min_{u\in U(i)} Q_k^{(\ell)}(i,u), \text{ with } \ell = i, & \text{if } i \in S_k, \\ J_k(i) & \text{if } i \notin S_k. \end{cases} \tag{4.8}$$

For each $\ell = (i, u) \in R_k$:

(1) Generate a successor state $j_{\ell,k}$ according to the distribution $p_{ij}(u)$, $j = 1, \ldots, n$. Select a policy $\nu_{\ell,I_k,j_{\ell,k}}$ based on the information $(I_k, j_{\ell,k})$, and generate a control $v_{\ell,k}$ according to the distribution $\nu_{\ell,I_k,j_{\ell,k}}(v \mid j_{\ell,k})$, $v \in U(j_{\ell,k})$.

(2) Update the (i,u)th component of Q_k according to

$$Q_{k+1}(i,u) = \big(1-\gamma_{\ell,k}\big)Q_k(i,u) + \gamma_{\ell,k}\Big(g(i,u,j_{\ell,k}) + \alpha \min\big\{J_k^{(\ell)}(j_{\ell,k}), Q_k^{(\ell)}(j_{\ell,k}, v_{\ell,k})\big\}\Big). \tag{4.9}$$

Leave all other components of Q_k unchanged: $Q_{k+1}(i,u) = Q_k(i,u)$ for all $(i,u) \notin R_k$.

4.2. A General Algorithmic Model

As preparation for an analytically more convenient description of Algorithm III, we introduce some notation. Let $\mathcal{M}$ denote the set of all stationary (deterministic or randomized) policies. For each $\nu \in \mathcal{M}$, define an operator L^ν on the space of (J, Q) by

$$(\tilde{J}, \tilde{Q}) = L^\nu(J, Q), \tag{4.10}$$

where

$$\tilde{J}(i) = \min_{u \in U(i)} Q(i,u), \quad i = 1, \ldots, n, \qquad \tilde{Q} = F_{J,\nu} Q. \tag{4.11}$$

Denote the ℓth component of the mapping L^ν by L^ν_ℓ, where $\ell = 1, \ldots, m$. As can be seen from Eq. (4.11), if ℓ corresponds to the ith component of J, then $L^\nu_\ell(J,Q) = \min_{u \in U(i)} Q(i,u)$, whereas if ℓ corresponds to the (i,u)th component of Q, then $L^\nu_\ell(J,Q) = (F_{J,\nu}Q)(i,u)$.

We note that for a given $\ell \in R_k$, the policy $\nu_{\ell,I_k,j_{\ell,k}}$ is a measurable $\mathcal{M}$-valued random variable with respect to the σ-field $\sigma(I_k, j_{\ell,k})$ generated by $(I_k, j_{\ell,k})$ [since it is selected with knowledge of $(I_k, j_{\ell,k})$]. We introduce the $\sigma(I_k)$-measurable $\mathcal{M}$-valued random variable $\bar{\nu}_{\ell,I_k} = \big\{\bar{\nu}_{\ell,I_k}(v \mid j) \mid v \in U(j), j = 1, \ldots, n\big\}$, which is the conditional distribution of v corresponding to the joint distribution $P\,(j_{\ell,k} = j,\, v_{\ell,k} = v \mid I_k)$, i.e.,

$$P\,(j_{\ell,k} = j,\, v_{\ell,k} = v \mid I_k) = p_{ij}(u)\, \bar{\nu}_{\ell,I_k}(v \mid j), \qquad \forall\, j,\ v \in U(j). \tag{4.12}$$

[If $\ell = (i,u)$ and j is such that $p_{ij}(u) = 0$, we have $P\,(j_{\ell,k} = j,\, v_{\ell,k} = v \mid I_k) = 0$ for all $v \in U(j)$, and we may define $\bar{\nu}_{\ell,I_k}(v \mid j)$ to be any distribution over $U(j)$, for example the uniform distribution.] Note that if in Algorithm III, $\nu_{\ell,I_k,j_{\ell,k}}(\cdot \mid j)$ is chosen before $j_{\ell,k}$ is generated, then $\bar{\nu}_{\ell,I_k}$ coincides with $\nu_{\ell,k}$; this is the case in Algorithm II.

We can now express Algorithm III in a compact form using the mappings L^ν of Eqs. (4.10)-(4.11). It can be equivalently written as

$$x_{\ell,k+1} = (1 - \gamma_{\ell,k}) x_{\ell,k} + \gamma_{\ell,k}\Big(L_\ell^{\bar{\nu}_{\ell,I_k}}\big(x_k^{(\ell)}\big) + w_{\ell,k}\Big), \tag{4.13}$$

where:

(a) If $\ell = (i,u) \in R_k$, we have $\gamma_{\ell,k} \in (0,1]$, and $w_{\ell,k}$ is a noise term given by

$$w_{\ell,k} = g(i,u,j_{\ell,k}) + \alpha \min\big\{J_k^{(\ell)}(j_{\ell,k})\,,\, Q_k^{(\ell)}(j_{\ell,k}, v_{\ell,k})\big\} - \Big(F_{J_k^{(\ell)},\bar{\nu}_{\ell,I_k}} Q_k^{(\ell)}\Big)(i,u). \tag{4.14}$$

[cf. Eqs. (4.9) and (4.11), and noticing that $L_\ell^{\bar{\nu}_{\ell,I_k}}(x_k^{(\ell)}) = (F_{J_k^{(\ell)},\bar{\nu}_{\ell,I_k}} Q_k^{(\ell)})(i,u)$.]

(b) If $\ell \in S_k$, we have $\gamma_{\ell,k} \in (0,1]$, $w_{\ell,k} = 0$, and $\bar{\nu}_{\ell,I_k}$ is immaterial [cf. Eqs. (4.8) and (4.11)].

(c) If $\ell \notin R_k \cup S_k$, we have $\gamma_{\ell,k} = 0$, $w_{\ell,k} = 0$.

With $\gamma_{\ell,k}$ defined for all ℓ and k, the sets R_k, S_k may also be specified implicitly by those $\gamma_{\ell,k}$ that are positive.

4.3. Convergence Analysis

Our convergence analysis of the general algorithm (4.8)-(4.9), equivalently given in (4.13)-(4.14), uses extensions of two results from Tsitsiklis [Tsi94], which relate to the convergence of algorithms of the form (4.13)

with the exception that there is only a single contraction mapping L in place of $L^{\bar{\nu}_\ell, I_k}$. Our analysis is based on the observation that these results of [Tsi94] extend to the case with multiple mappings, if the latter are contraction mappings with respect to the same norm and have the same fixed point.

Thus, the first step of our convergence proof is to establish a common contraction property of L^ν for all stationary policies ν. Define a weighted sup-norm $\|\cdot\|_\zeta$ on the space of (J, Q) by

$$\|(J,Q)\|_\zeta = \max\left\{\frac{\|J\|_\infty}{\xi}, \|Q\|_\infty\right\}, \tag{4.15}$$

where ξ is a positive scalar such that

$$\xi > 1, \quad \alpha\xi < 1. \tag{4.16}$$

Proposition 4.1: Let $\|\cdot\|_\zeta$ and ξ be given by Eqs. (4.15) and (4.16), respectively, and let $\beta = \max\{\alpha\xi, 1/\xi\} < 1$. For all stationary policies ν, (J^*, Q^*) is the unique fixed point of the mapping L^ν given by Eqs. (4.10)-(4.11), and we have

$$\|L^\nu(J,Q) - L^\nu(J',Q')\|_\zeta \leq \beta\|(J,Q) - (J',Q')\|_\zeta \tag{4.17}$$

for all pairs (J, Q) and (J', Q').

Proof: At the beginning of the proof of Prop. 2.2 we showed that (J^*, Q^*) is a fixed point of L^ν for all ν. The uniqueness of the fixed point will be implied by Eq. (4.17), which we now prove. Let $(\tilde{J}, \tilde{Q}) = L^\nu(J, Q)$ and $(\tilde{J}', \tilde{Q}') = L^\nu(J', Q')$. By Prop. 2.1, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\|\tilde{Q} - \tilde{Q}'\|_\infty &\leq \alpha \max\{\|J - J'\|_\infty\,,\, \|Q - Q'\|_\infty\} \\
&= \alpha \max\left\{\xi \cdot \frac{\|J - J'\|_\infty}{\xi}\,,\, \|Q - Q'\|_\infty\right\} \\
&\leq \alpha \max\left\{\xi \cdot \frac{\|J - J'\|_\infty}{\xi}\,,\, \xi \cdot \|Q - Q'\|_\infty\right\} \\
&= \alpha\xi \cdot \|(J,Q) - (J',Q')\|_\zeta,
\end{aligned} \tag{4.18}$$

where we used $\xi > 1$ to derive the second inequality. We also have

$$\|\tilde{J} - \tilde{J}'\|_\infty \leq \|Q - Q'\|_\infty,$$

which implies that

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{\|\tilde{J} - \tilde{J}'\|_\infty}{\xi} &\leq \frac{1}{\xi} \cdot \|Q - Q'\|_\infty \\
&\leq \frac{1}{\xi} \cdot \max\left\{\frac{\|J - J'\|_\infty}{\xi}, \|Q - Q'\|_\infty\right\} \\
&= \frac{1}{\xi} \cdot \|(J,Q) - (J',Q')\|_\zeta.
\end{aligned} \tag{4.19}$$

Equations (4.18) and (4.19) imply the desired property (4.17):

$$\begin{aligned}\|(\tilde{J},\tilde{Q})-(\tilde{J}',\tilde{Q}')\|_\zeta &= \max\left\{\frac{\|\tilde{J}-\tilde{J}'\|_\infty}{\xi},\|\tilde{Q}-\tilde{Q}'\|_\infty\right\}\\ &\le \max\{\alpha\xi,1/\xi\}\cdot\|(J,Q)-(J',Q')\|_\zeta\\ &= \beta\,\|(J,Q)-(J',Q')\|_\zeta.\end{aligned}$$

Q.E.D.

We now specify conditions on the variables involved in the algorithm (4.13)-(4.14). Our conditions parallel the assumptions given in [Tsi94] (Assumptions 1-3), which are standard for asynchronous stochastic approximation. We use the shorthand "w.p.1" for "with probability 1." The first condition is a mild, natural requirement for the delays.

Condition 4.1: For any ℓ and j, $\lim_{k\to\infty}\tau^\ell_{j,k}=\infty$ w.p.1.

The next condition is mainly about the noise terms $w_{\ell,k}$. Let $(\Omega,\mathcal{F},P)$ be the common probability space on which all the random variables involved in the algorithm are defined, and let $\{\mathcal{F}_k,k\ge 0\}$ be an increasing sequence of subfields of $\mathcal{F}$.

Condition 4.2:

(a) x_0 is $\mathcal{F}_0$-measurable.

(b) For every ℓ corresponding to a component of Q and every k, $w_{\ell,k}$ is $\mathcal{F}_{k+1}$-measurable.

(c) For every j, ℓ, and k, $\gamma_{\ell,k}$, $\tau^\ell_{j,k}$ and $\bar{\nu}_{\ell,I_k}$ are $\mathcal{F}_k$-measurable.

(d) For every ℓ corresponding to a component of Q and every k,

$$E\big[w_{\ell,k}\mid\mathcal{F}_k\big]=0.$$

(e) There exist (deterministic) constants A and B such that for every ℓ corresponding to a component of Q and every k,

$$E\big[w^2_{\ell,k}\mid\mathcal{F}_k\big]\le A+B\max_j\max_{\tau\le k}|x_{j,\tau}|^2.$$

The next condition deals with the stepsize variables.

Condition 4.3:

(a) For every ℓ,

$$\sum_{k\ge 0}\gamma_{\ell,k}=\infty,\quad w.p.1.$$

(b) There exists some (deterministic) constant C such that for every ℓ corresponding to a component of Q,

$$\sum_{k\ge 0}\gamma^2_{\ell,k}\le C,\quad w.p.1.$$

Condition 4.3(a) implies that all components of J and Q are updated infinitely often, which is also part of the assumptions of Prop. 3.1. A simple way to choose stepsize sequences $\{\gamma_{\ell,k}\}$ that satisfy Condition 4.3

is to define them using a positive scalar sequence $\{\gamma_k\}$ which diminishes to 0 at a suitable rate [e.g., $O(1/k)$]: For all $\ell \in R_k$, let $\gamma_{\ell,k}$ have a common value γ_k, and select all state-control pairs (i,u) "comparably often" in the sense that the fraction of times (i,u) is selected for iteration is nonzero in the limit (see Borkar [Bor08]).

There are two insignificant differences between the preceding conditions and the assumptions in [Tsi94] (Assumptions 1-3). First, Condition 4.2(c) is imposed on the random variables $\bar{\nu}_{\ell,I_k}$, which do not appear in [Tsi94]. Second, Conditions 4.2(d) and 4.2(e) are imposed on the noise terms $w_{\ell,k}$, which are involved in the updates of components of Q only [for components of J, there is no noise ($w_{\ell,k}=0$) in the updates and these conditions are trivially satisfied]. For the same reason, Condition 4.3(b), a standard condition for bounding asymptotically the error due to noise, is also imposed on the components of Q only [in [Tsi94], Condition 4.3(b) is imposed on all components of x].

We now verify that by its definition, the algorithm (4.13)-(4.14) satisfies Condition 4.2. Let $\mathcal{F}_k = \sigma(I_k)$. Then Conditions 4.2(a)-(c) are satisfied by the definition of the algorithm; in particular, note that $\bar{\nu}_{\ell,I_k}$ is by definition $\mathcal{F}_k$-measurable [cf. Eq. (4.12)]. We verify Conditions 4.2(d)-(e), similar to the standard Q-learning case given in [Tsi94]. Let $\ell \in R_k$ and $(j_{\ell,k}, v_{\ell,k})$ be the corresponding successor state-control pair. From the way $j_{\ell,k}$ is generated, it is seen that

$$E\big[g(i,u,j_{\ell,k}) \mid \mathcal{F}_k\big] = \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}(u)\, g(i,u,j).$$

From the way $\big(j_{\ell,k}, v_{\ell,k}\big)$ is generated and the definition of $\bar{\nu}_{\ell,I_k}$ [cf. Eq. (4.12)], we have

$$E\left[\min\left\{J_k^{(\ell)}(j_{\ell,k}), Q_k^{(\ell)}\left(j_{\ell,k}, v_{\ell,k}\right)\right\} \;\middle|\; \mathcal{F}_k\right] = \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}(u) \sum_{v\in U(j)} \bar{\nu}_{\ell,I_k}(v \mid j) \min\big\{J_k^{(\ell)}(j)\,,\, Q_k^{(\ell)}(j,v)\big\}.$$

Taking conditional expectation in Eq. (4.14) and using the preceding two equations, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} E\big[w_{\ell,k} \mid \mathcal{F}_k\big] &= \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij}(u) \left(g(i,u,j) + \alpha \sum_{v\in U(j)} \bar{\nu}_{\ell,I_k}(v \mid j) \min\big\{J_k^{(\ell)}(j)\,,\, Q_k^{(\ell)}(j,v)\big\} \right) \\ &\quad - \big(F_{J_k^{(\ell)},\bar{\nu}_{\ell,I_k}} Q_k^{(\ell)}\big)(i,u) \\ &= 0, \end{aligned}$$

so Condition 4.2(d) is satisfied. It can also be seen that we may write $w_{\ell,k} = Z_1 + Z_2$ with

$$\begin{aligned} Z_1 &= g(i,u,j_{\ell,k}) - E\big[g(i,u,j_{\ell,k}) \mid \mathcal{F}_k\big], \\ Z_2 &= \alpha \min\left\{J_k^{(\ell)}(j_{\ell,k})\,,\, Q_k^{(\ell)}\left(j_{\ell,k}, v_{\ell,k}\right)\right\} - E\left[\alpha \min\left\{J_k^{(\ell)}(j_{\ell,k})\,,\, Q_k^{(\ell)}\left(j_{\ell,k}, v_{\ell,k}\right)\right\} \;\middle|\; \mathcal{F}_k\right], \end{aligned}$$

where the first expectation is over $j_{\ell,k}$ and the second is over $(j_{\ell,k}, v_{\ell,k})$. Since the number of state-control pairs is finite, the variance of $g(i,u,j_{\ell,k})$ can be bounded by a constant C for all (i,u): $E\big[Z_1^2 \mid \mathcal{F}_k\big] \le C$. † The conditional variance of $\min\left\{J_k^{(\ell)}(j_{\ell,k}), Q_k^{(\ell)}\left(j_{\ell,k}, v_{\ell,k}\right)\right\}$, conditioned on $\mathcal{F}_k$, is bounded by the square of the largest absolute value that this random variable can possibly take, so

$$E\big[Z_2^2 \mid \mathcal{F}_k\big] \le \alpha^2 \max_j \max_{\tau\le k} |x_{j,\tau}|^2.$$

† If instead of a scalar, $g(i,u,j)$ is also treated as random, then one may impose a finite variance condition on it.

Thus, using also the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, we have

$$\begin{aligned} E\big[w_{\ell,k}^2 \mid \mathcal{F}_k\big] &\leq C + \alpha^2 \max_j \max_{\tau \leq k} |x_{j,\tau}|^2 + 2\sqrt{C \cdot \alpha^2 \max_j \max_{\tau \leq k} |x_{j,\tau}|^2} \\ &\leq A + B \max_j \max_{\tau \leq k} |x_{j,\tau}|^2, \qquad \forall\ k,\ \ell \in R_k, \end{aligned}$$

for some deterministic constants A and B, so Condition 4.2(e) is satisfied.

Proposition 4.2: Under Conditions 4.1 and 4.3, any sequence $\{x_k\}$ with $x_k = (J_k, Q_k)$ generated by the model-free optimistic policy iteration algorithm (4.13)-(4.14) [or equivalently, (4.8)-(4.9)] converges to $x^* = (J^*, Q^*)$ with probability 1.

Proof: We have shown that Condition 4.2 is satisfied by the algorithm (4.13)-(4.14), so under the assumption of the proposition, we have that all Conditions 4.1-4.3 hold. We apply the analysis of [Tsi94], and in particular, the proofs of Theorems 1 and 3 of that reference. The two theorems imply the boundedness of $\{x_k\}$ and the convergence of $\{x_k\}$ to x^* with probability 1, respectively, for iterates of the form

$$x_{\ell,k+1} = (1 - \gamma_{\ell,k}) x_{\ell,k} + \gamma_{\ell,k}\big(L_\ell\big(x_k^{(\ell)}\big) + w_{\ell,k}\big),$$

where L is a contraction mapping with fixed point x^*, under assumptions that parallel Conditions 4.1-4.3 with minor differences, which we address below [in our algorithm, there are multiple contraction mappings L^ν that share the same fixed point, and the condition 4.3(b) is satisfied only for ℓ corresponding to components of Q].

First, for a contraction mapping L with modulus β and with respect to a weighted sup-norm $\|\cdot\|_\zeta$, L enters in the proofs of Theorems 1 and 3 of [Tsi94], only via the two inequalities:

$$\|L(x)\|_\zeta \leq \beta \|x\|_\zeta + D, \quad \forall x, \tag{4.20}$$

where D is some constant, and

$$\|L(x) - x^*\|_\zeta \leq \beta \|x - x^*\|_\zeta, \quad \forall x. \tag{4.21}$$

Implications of these inequalities are used to bound $L_\ell(x_k^{(\ell)})$ in the iterates $x_{\ell,k+1}$ for each sample path from a set of probability one.

Second, in the proofs of Theorems 1 and 3 of [Tsi94], the effect of the noise $\{w_{\ell,k}\}$ on $\{x_{\ell,k}\}$ for each component ℓ is analyzed in two lemmas, Lemmas 1 and 2, under Conditions 4.2(b)-(e) and 4.3 for that particular component. It is only in those two places that Condition 4.3(b) for a component is used. The rest of the analysis for Theorems 1 and 3 relies only indirectly on Condition 4.3(b) through the two lemmas.

In our case, the inequalities (4.20) and (4.21) are satisfied by all $L^{\bar{\nu}_{\ell,I_k}}$ for the same $\|\cdot\|_\zeta, \beta, D$, and $x^* = (J^*, Q^*)$, as established in Prop. 4.1. Moreover, when ℓ corresponds to a component of J, while the stepsizes $\gamma_{\ell,k}$ are not restricted by Condition 4.3(b), because the noise terms $w_{\ell,k}, k \geq 0$ are always zero, Lemmas 1 and 2 of [Tsi94] trivially hold without Condition 4.3(b) for such ℓ. It then follows that Lemmas 1 and 2 hold for all components ℓ of x in our case. We can thus apply the proofs of the two theorems of [Tsi94] with $L_\ell\big(x_k^{(\ell)}\big)$ replaced by $L_\ell^{\bar{\nu}_{\ell,I_k}}\big(x_k^{(\ell)}\big)$ to establish the convergence to x^* with probability 1 for the sequence $\{x_k\}$ generated by the algorithm (4.13)-(4.14). **Q.E.D.**

5. COMPUTATIONAL EXPERIMENTS

In this section we illustrate the behavior of our algorithms of Sections 3 and 4 with three numerical examples. In summary, our experiments confirm the results of the theoretical analysis. In particular:

(1) Our asynchronous policy iteration algorithms of Section 3 converge under conditions where the classical algorithm fails.

(2) Our Q-learning algorithms of Section 4 exhibit comparable convergence to the standard Q-learning algorithm, with substantially less overhead per iteration.

5.1. Williams-Baird Counterexample

Williams and Baird [WiB93] provided several examples in which the initial conditions and the order of updating the components (i.e., the sets R_k and S_k) are chosen so that the sequence of Q-factors generated by the asynchronous modified policy iteration algorithm (3.1)-(3.2) oscillates and fails to converge. In Fig. 5.1 we compare the behavior of three asynchronous algorithms for one such example (Example 2 of [WiB93], which involves 6 states and 2 controls; we chose the discount factor to be 0.9). The three algorithms are the algorithm (3.1)-(3.2), the algorithm (3.3)-(3.4), and the non-stochastic version of the Q-learning algorithm (2.2). Our experiments with algorithm (3.3)-(3.4) involved two special choices of the policies ν_k, yielding two variant algorithms. The first variant is the one of Eqs. (3.5)-(3.6), and its updates are shown in the second column. The second variant involves a deterministic policy ν_k selected randomly according to the uniform distribution, and its updates are shown in the third column.

Figure 5.1 shows the values of Q_k for a fixed state-control pair, which is indicated at the beginning of each row. It can be seen that our algorithm converges as predicted by the theoretical analysis, and so does Q-learning.

5.2. Dynamic Allocation Example

We next compare the stochastic optimistic policy iteration algorithms of Section 4 on a dynamic allocation problem adapted from the book [Put94] (Problem 3.17, p. 70-71, attributed to Rosenthal, Whitel, and Young). A repairman moves between 10 sites according to certain stationary transition probabilities, and a trailer carrying supplies to the repairman may be relocated to any of the sites. The problem is to dynamically relocate the trailer, with knowledge of the locations of the repairman and the trailer, so as to minimize the expected discounted total cost. We chose the discount factor to be 0.98. We define the one-stage costs as follows: at each stage, if the repairman and the trailer are at sites d_r and d_e, respectively, and the trailer is moved to site $\tilde{d}_e$, then the cost is $|d_r - d_e| + |d_e - \tilde{d}_e|/2$. Regarding the repairman's transition probabilities, if the repairman is at site d_r, he next moves to any site $d_r \leq d \leq 10$ with equal probability unless $d_r = 10$, in which case he moves to site 1 with probability 3/4 and stays at site 10 with probability 1/4.

In this problem there are 10^2 states (d_r, d_e), $d_r, d_e = 1, \ldots, 10$, corresponding to the locations of the repairman and the trailer, and 10 controls $\tilde{d}_e = 1, \ldots 10$, corresponding to the next location of the trailer. So there are 10^3 Q-factors, which we denote by $Q\big((d_r, d_e), \tilde{d}_e\big)$. Because the movement of the repairman is uncontrolled, if he moves from site d_r to $\tilde{d}_r$, this transition can be used to update simultaneously the Q-factors $Q\big((d_r, d_e), \tilde{d}_e\big)$ for all possible locations and moves of the trailer, $d_e, \tilde{d}_e = 1, \ldots, 10$. The simulation results we present below are obtained in this way. In particular, we simulate a single trajectory of sites $s_0, s_1, \ldots$ visited by the repairman. Simultaneously we apply the optimistic policy iteration algorithm II

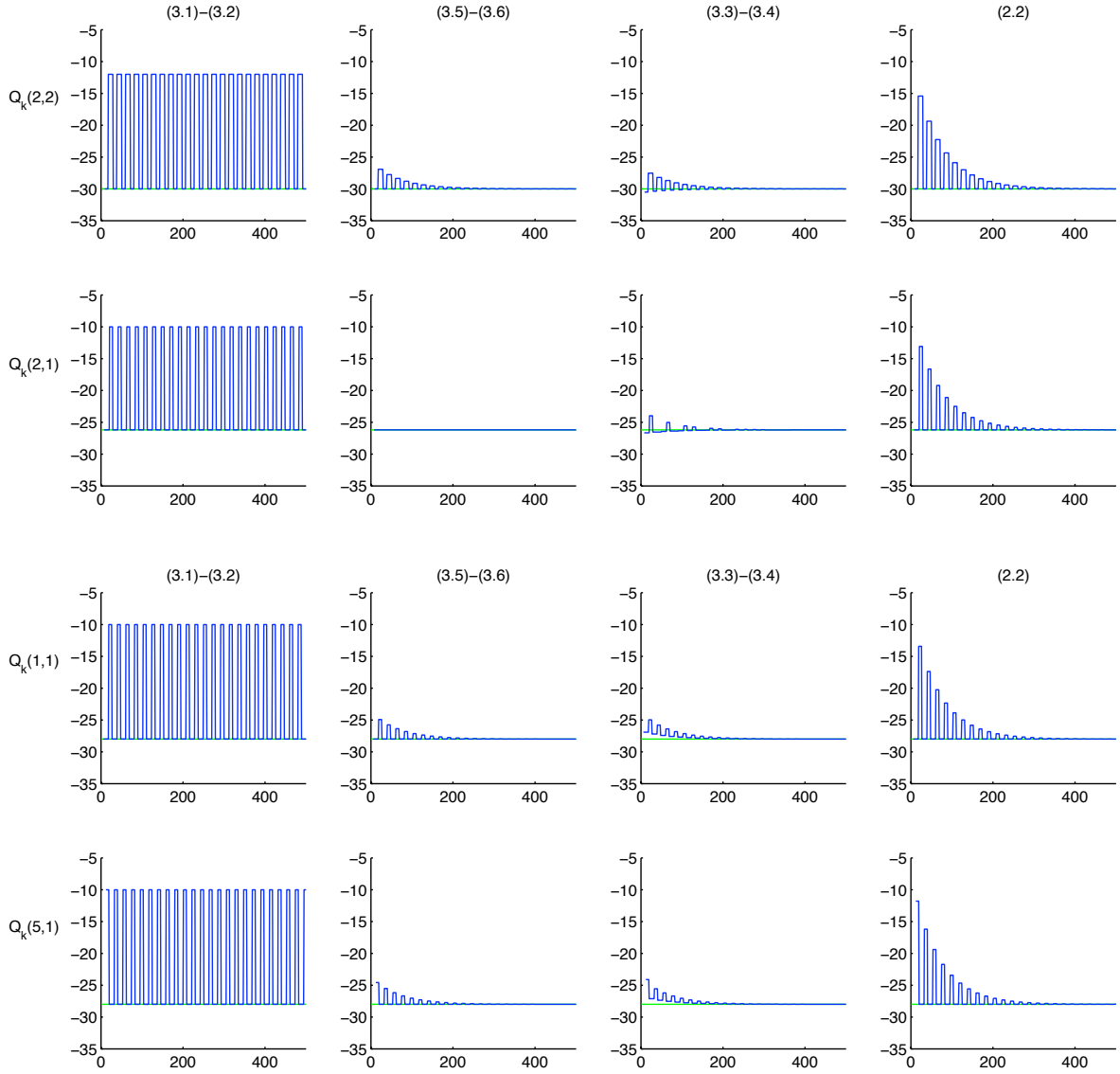

Figure 5.1. Illustration of performance on Example 2 of [WiB93] for the algorithm (3.1)-(3.2), the algorithm (3.5)-(3.6), the algorithm (3.3)-(3.4) with random selection of ν_k, and the non-stochastic version of the Q-learning algorithm (2.2). The plots give the values of four Q-factors as functions of iteration number, with the desired limit values indicated by horizontal lines.

[Eqs. (4.4)-(4.5)], in which, for updating Q-factors at iterations $k = 0, 1, \ldots$, we let the set R_k of state-control pairs be $\big\{(s_k, d_e, \tilde{d}_e) \mid d_e, \tilde{d}_e = 1, \ldots, 10\big\}$, while we update J_k once every 50 iterations, with the corresponding set R_k of states being $\big\{(s_k, d_e) \mid d_e = 1, \ldots, 10\big\}$. We use the stepsize $\gamma_{\ell,k} = (10 + k)^{-0.55}$.

Figure 5.2 compares the algorithm (4.4)-(4.5) with ordinary Q-learning. Both algorithms use the same stepsize sequence, the same trajectory of the repairman's move, and the same set R_k for the block of Q-factors to be updated at each iteration. Each subfigure corresponds to a simulation run, and shows the values of Q_k at two state-control pairs generated by the two algorithms. The two pairs consist of the same state with two different controls, one being optimal and the other non-optimal for that state. Together with the true

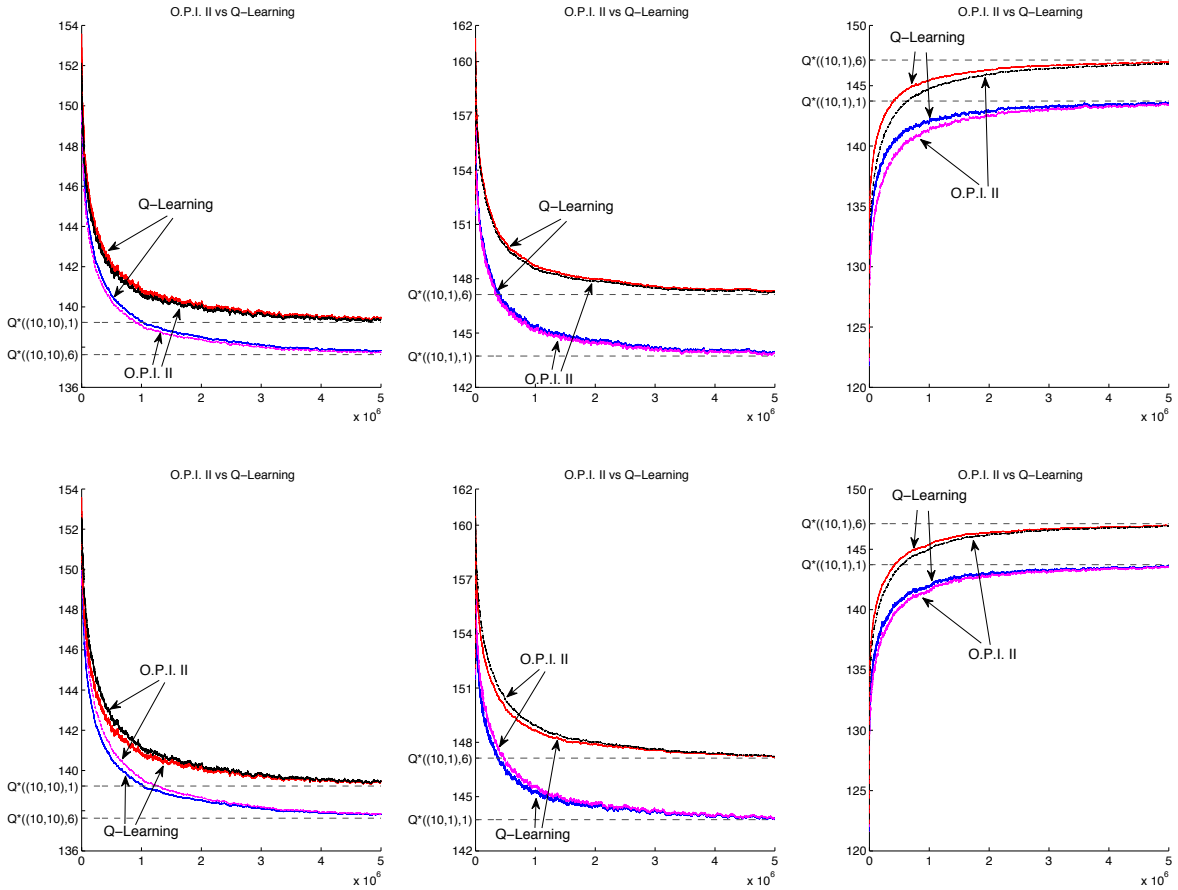

Figure 5.2. Comparison of the optimistic policy iteration algorithm II and Q-learning for the dynamic allocation problem. The two rows correspond to two variants of the algorithm resulting from different choices of the policies $\nu_{\ell,k}$, with the second choice involving more exploration than the first one.

values, they are indicated on the vertical axis of each subfigure. The optimistic policy iteration algorithm II is designated by "O.P.I. II." In Fig. 5.2 we present results with two variants of the algorithm, which differ in the choice of the policy $\nu_{\ell,k}$. In the first variant (shown in the top row of Fig. 5.2), $\nu_{\ell,k} = \nu_k$, a deterministic policy, initially chosen randomly and maintained throughout iterations. Its components $\nu_k(i), i \in S_k$ are updated to be the controls that attain the minima in Eq. (4.4), whenever we update J_k. In the second variant (shown in the bottom row of Fig. 5.2), we let $\nu_{\ell,k}$ be a deterministic policy chosen randomly according to the uniform distribution.

As the figures show, our optimistic policy iteration algorithm behaves similar to Q-learning for both choices of $\nu_{\ell,k}$, even though it has about 90% percent less computation overhead in the minimization operations than Q-learning. We also run the algorithms with initial values Q_0 and J_0 well below the optimal. The results are shown in the third column of Fig. 5.2, from which it can be seen that the updates of our algorithm tend to produce smaller values and increase more slowly than Q-learning. This can be attributed to the minimization operation in Eq. (4.5).

5.3. Automobile Replacement Example

We now compare the stochastic algorithms of Section 4 with Q-learning on the classical automobile replacement problem from Howard [How60]. The problem is to decide when to replace a car as it ages, given that the cost and value of a car decrease with its age, while the operating expense and the probability of breaking down increase with its age. Decisions of whether to keep the car or to trade it for another car are made at 3-month intervals. We have 41 states corresponding to the age of a car: a new car is at state/age 1, a 3-month-old car at state/age 2, and so on; but if a car breaks down or if it is more than 10 year old, then it is at state/age 41. We have 41 controls: control 1 represents keeping the car, while controls $u = 2, \ldots, 41$ represent trading the car for a car at state/age $u-1$, i.e., a $(u-2)\times$ 3-month-old car. For our experiments, we set the discount factor $\alpha = 0.999$ and scaled down the prices/costs so that 1 unit represents \$100. We found that the optimal policy in this case is to keep the car if it is at any of the states 4-26, and to trade it for a $3\frac{1}{4}$-year-old car (state 14) otherwise.

We run the optimistic policy iteration algorithms II and III, and the ordinary Q-learning algorithm under comparable conditions. In particular, all the algorithms have access to the prices and operating costs of cars at all ages, and they all simulate a trajectory of state-control pairs $(i_0, u_0), (i_1, u_1), \ldots$, where i_{k+1} is generated according to the transition model $p_{ij}(u)$ with $i = i_k, u = u_k$, and u_k is generated by some randomized policy to be described shortly. To make computation more efficient, at iteration k, based on the value of (i_k, u_k), we update multiple Q-factors using the subsequent transition to i_{k+1}. More specifically, given that the control u_k instantly makes the age of the car at hand to be $\bar{i}$, we let the set R_k of state-control pairs, at which the algorithms update the Q-factors, to include (i) the state $\bar{i}$ with the control to keep the car, and (ii) all states i with the control to trade the car at hand for a car of age $\bar{i}$. In the Q-factor updates, we use the stepsize $\gamma_{\ell,k} = (100 + k/10^4)^{-0.8}$.

The controls $u_k, k \geq 0$, are generated as follows. All the algorithms maintain a deterministic policy μ_k. At iteration k, $u_k = \mu_k(i_k)$ with probability 0.7, while with probability 0.3, u_k is chosen randomly uniformly from a set of reasonable controls (which excludes those obviously inferior decisions to trade for an older car that does not result in any instant benefit). Once every 50 iterations, the algorithms update the policy μ_k at 10 randomly chosen states, and set the controls at those states to be the ones minimizing the respective $Q(i, u)$ over u. The optimistic policy iteration algorithms also update the costs J_k at these chosen states, which form the set S_k.

In the experiments shown below, all the algorithms start with $i_0 = 41$ and the initial policy μ_0, which is to always keep the car if it is not at state/age 41, and to buy a new car only then. The initial J_0 and Q_0 are calculated using this policy and the prices/costs given by the model, assuming that a car never breaks.

Figures 5.3 and 5.4 compare Q-learning and the optimistic policy iteration algorithm II [Eqs. (4.4)-(4.5), designated by "O.P.I. II" in the figures]. In the latter algorithm, the policies $\nu_{\ell,k}$ used for the Q-factor updates (4.5) are μ_k. Figure 5.3 shows the iterates $Q_k(10, 1)$ and $Q_k(10, 14)$ generated by the two algorithms. [In the experiments, only $Q_k(i_k, u_k)$ are recorded, and interpolation is used to generate the curves shown in this and the following figures.] It can be seen that the optimistic policy iteration algorithm behaves similar to Q-learning, even though in each Q-factor update, it only compares two values instead of 41 values in the minimization operation. The right subfigure shows that near convergence, the optimistic policy iteration algorithm tends to approach the true values from below and converges more slowly than Q-learning. Again this can be attributed to the minimization operation in Eq. (4.5).

Figure 5.4 shows that during the early phase when the Q-factors are still far from the true values (shown in the left subfigure), the policies μ_k generated by both algorithms improve rapidly. In the middle

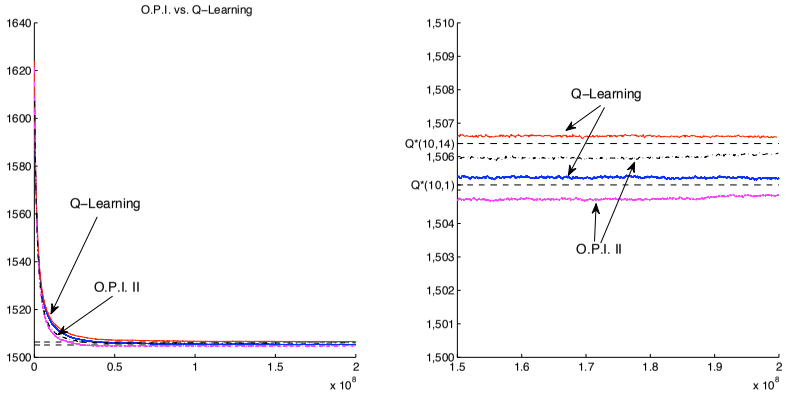

Figure 5.3. Comparison of the optimistic policy iteration algorithm II and Q-learning for the automobile replacement problem.

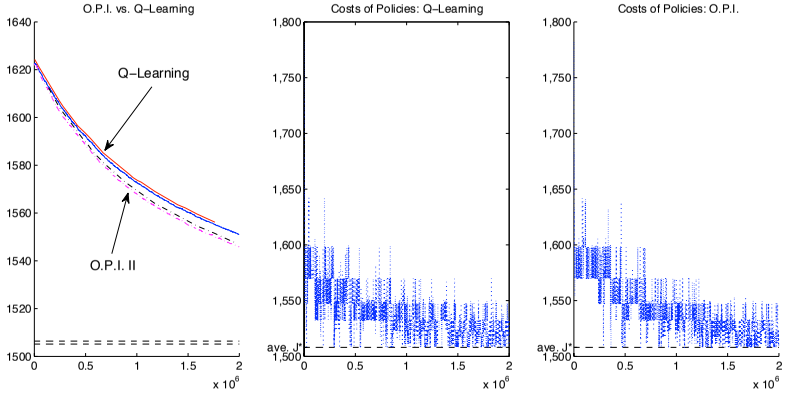

Figure 5.4. Comparison of the optimistic policy iteration algorithm II and Q-learning at the early phase for the automobile replacement problem.

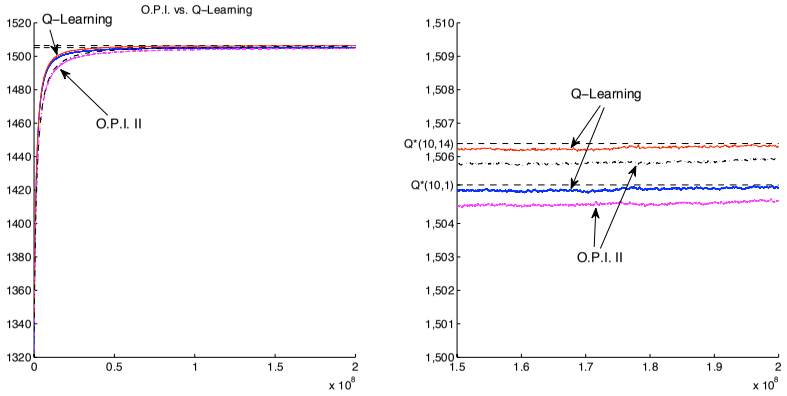

Figure 5.5. Comparison of the optimistic policy iteration algorithm II and Q-learning for the automobile replacement problem.

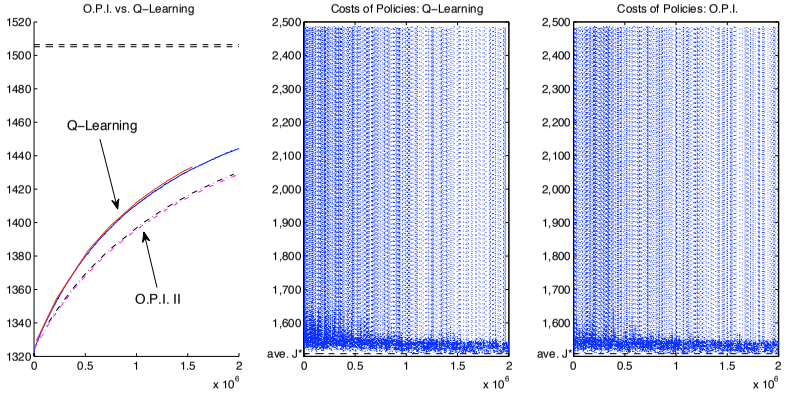

Figure 5.6. Comparison of the optimistic policy iteration algorithm II and Q-learning at the early phase for the automobile replacement problem.

and right subfigures, we plot the averaged cost $\frac{1}{41}\sum_i J_{\mu_k}(i)$ of the policies μ_k for the two algorithms; the averaged optimal value, $\frac{1}{41}\sum_i J^*(i)$, is indicated on the vertical axis. The averaged cost of the initial policy μ_0 is about $1,731$.

We observe that this rapid policy improvement at the early phase depends on how the initial Q_0 and J_0 are chosen. For comparison, Figs. 5.5 and 5.6 illustrate the behavior of both algorithms when Q_0 and J_0 are shifted by a negative constant to make them well below the optimal values. Figure 5.6 shows wild oscillation in the performance of the policies μ_k generated by both algorithms during the early phase. The tendency of the optimistic policy iteration algorithm to generate smaller values can also be observed in Fig. 5.5.

We also run the same experiments to compare standard Q-learning and the optimistic policy iteration algorithm III [Eqs. (4.8)-(4.9), designated by "O.P.I. III" in the figures]. In the latter algorithm, we use a constant stepsize $\gamma_{\ell,k} = 0.5$ to update J_k via Eq. (4.8), and we tested two variants with different choices of the policies $\nu_{\ell,I_k,j_{\ell,k}}$ in the Q-factor updates (4.9). In the first variant, we set $\nu_{\ell,I_k,j_{\ell,k}}$ to be the policy $\mu_{\tilde{k}}$, $\tilde{k} < k$, prior to the most recent policy update that gives the present μ_k. The results are shown in Figs. 5.7 and 5.8. In the second variant, $\nu_{\ell,I_k,j_{\ell,k}}$ depends also on $j_{\ell,k} = i_{k+1}$, the subsequent state of the car. If the latter is no less than 30, $\nu_{\ell,I_k,j_{\ell,k}} = \mu_k$; otherwise, $\nu_{\ell,I_k,j_{\ell,k}}$ is the randomized policy which, with equal probability, follows μ_k or applies a control randomly selected from the set of reasonable controls. The results are shown in Figs. 5.9 and 5.10. It can be seen that the behavior of the algorithm in both cases is similar to the one described above.

6. ERROR BOUNDS FOR APPROXIMATE IMPLEMENTATIONS

In this section, we discuss the effect of approximations on the algorithm of Section 2. In particular, we consider performing the iteration $Q_{k+1} = F_{J_k,\nu_k}^{m_k} Q_k$ [cf. Eq. (2.8)] approximately, possibly using simulation and function approximation. In such an algorithm, we generate a sequence $\{Q_k\}$ such that

$$\left\|Q_{k+1} - F_{J_k,\nu_k}^{m_k} Q_k\right\|_\infty \leq \delta, \tag{6.1}$$

for some $\delta > 0$ and a sequence of positive integers $\{m_k\}$. We then update J_k according to

$$J_{k+1}(i) = \min_{u \in U(i)} Q_{k+1}(i,u), \qquad \forall\ i, \tag{6.2}$$

and let the randomized policy ν_{k+1} be arbitrary as before.

The analysis also holds when m_k may be equal to ∞, in which case Eq. (6.1) is replaced by

$$\|Q_{k+1} - Q_{J_k,\nu_k}\|_\infty \leq \delta.$$

The computation of Q_{k+1} can be done in a number of ways, some of which are discussed in the next section. In this section, we derive an error bound in the following proposition.

Proposition 6.1: Assume that for some $\delta \geq 0$ and each $k \geq 0$, there exists a positive integer m_k such that Eq. (6.1) holds. Let μ_{k+1} be a policy such that $\mu_{k+1}(i)$ attains the minimum in Eq. (6.2) for all i. Then, for any stationary policy μ that is a limit point of $\{\mu_k\}$, we have

$$\|J_\mu - J^*\|_\infty \leq \frac{2\delta}{(1-\alpha)^2}. \tag{6.3}$$

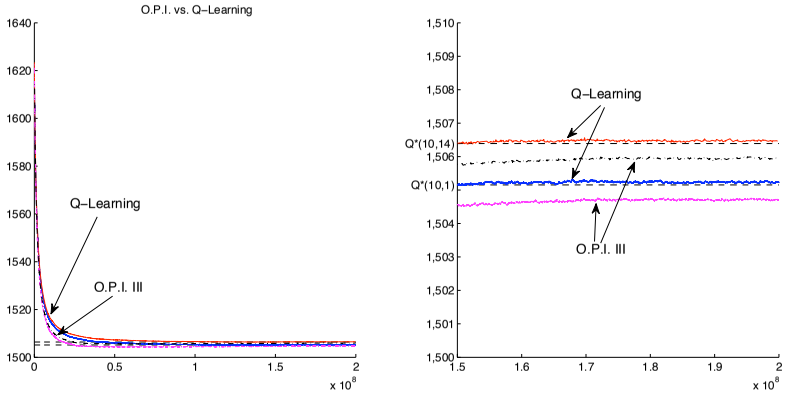

Figure 5.7. Comparison of the optimistic policy iteration algorithm III and Q-learning for the automobile replacement problem.

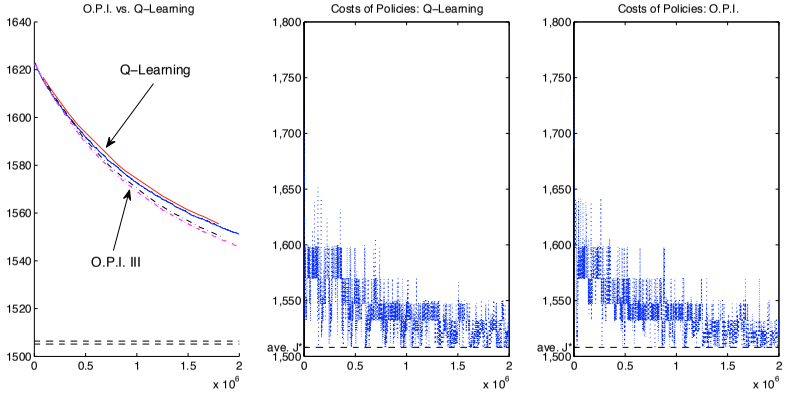

Figure 5.8. Comparison of the optimistic policy iteration algorithm III and Q-learning at the early phase for the automobile replacement problem.

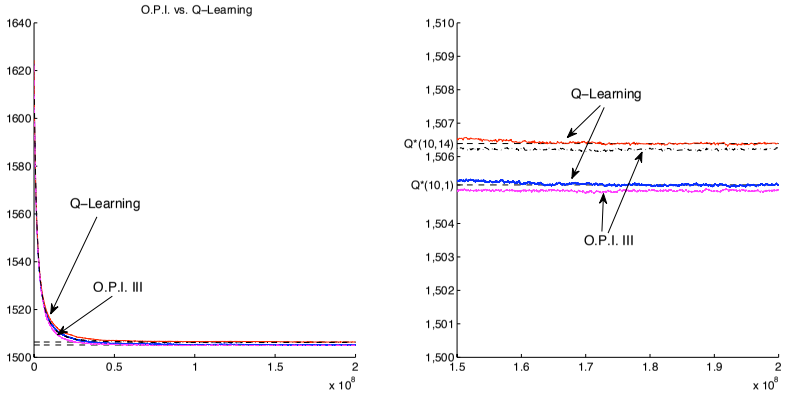

Figure 5.9. Comparison of the optimistic policy iteration algorithm III and Q-learning for the automobile replacement problem.

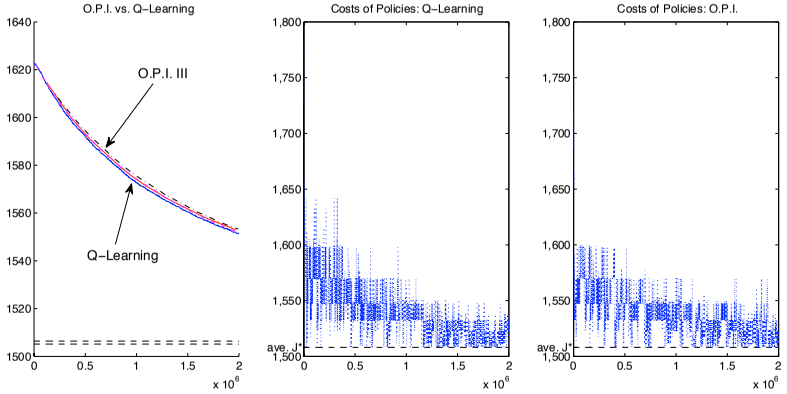

Figure 5.10. Comparison of the optimistic policy iteration algorithm III and Q-learning at the early phase for the automobile replacement problem.

The bound (6.3) is identical to what is generally viewed as the standard bound for the performance of approximate policy iteration ([BeT96], Prop. 6.2). We prove this bound through three lemmas.

Lemma 6.1: For all ν, J, $\tilde{J}$, Q, $\tilde{Q}$, and $m \geq 1$, we have

$$\left\|F_{J,\nu}^m Q - F_{\tilde{J},\nu}^m \tilde{Q}\right\|_\infty \leq \alpha \max\left\{\|J - \tilde{J}\|_\infty,\, \|Q - \tilde{Q}\|_\infty\right\}.$$

Proof: Follows by repeated application of Prop. 2.1. **Q.E.D.**

Lemma 6.2: Given (J, ν) and $\delta \geq 0$, let Q, $\hat{Q}$, and $m \geq 1$ be such that

$$\|\hat{Q} - F_{J,\nu}^m Q\|_\infty \leq \delta,$$

and let $\hat{J}$ be defined by

$$\hat{J}(i) = \min_{u \in U(i)} \hat{Q}(i,u), \qquad \forall\ i.$$

Then,

$$\|\hat{J} - J^*\|_\infty \leq \|\hat{Q} - Q^*\|_\infty \leq \alpha \max\left\{\|J - J^*\|_\infty, \|Q - Q^*\|_\infty\right\} + \delta.$$

Proof: Using the triangle inequality, the fact $Q^* = F_{J^*,\nu}^m Q^*$, and Lemma 6.1, we have

$$\|\hat{Q} - Q^*\|_\infty - \|\hat{Q} - F_{J,\nu}^m Q\|_\infty \leq \|F_{J,\nu}^m Q - Q^*\|_\infty \leq \alpha \max\left\{\|J - J^*\|_\infty, \|Q - Q^*\|_\infty\right\},$$

which together with the assumption $\|\hat{Q} - F_{J,\nu}^m Q\|_\infty \leq \delta$, implies the right-hand side of the desired inequality. The left-hand side follows from the generic inequality (2.13). **Q.E.D.**

For any policy μ, we denote by T_μ the mapping defined by

$$(T_\mu J)(i) = \sum_{j=1}^n p_{ij}\big(\mu(i)\big)\Big(g\big(i, \mu(i), j\big) + \alpha J(j)\Big), \qquad \forall\ i.$$

Lemma 6.3: Given Q, let μ be a policy such that $\mu(i)$ attains the minimum of $Q(i,u)$ over $u \in U(i)$, for all i. Then,

$$\|T_\mu J^* - J^*\|_\infty \leq 2\|Q - Q^*\|_\infty.$$

Proof: Let $\beta = \|Q - Q^*\|_\infty$, and let μ^* be an optimal policy. We have for all i,

$$\big|Q\big(i,\mu(i)\big) - Q^*\big(i,\mu(i)\big)\big| \le \beta, \qquad \big|Q\big(i,\mu^*(i)\big) - Q^*\big(i,\mu^*(i)\big)\big| \le \beta.$$

Note that

$$Q^*\big(i,\mu(i)\big) = (T_\mu J^*)(i), \qquad Q^*\big(i,\mu^*(i)\big) = (T_{\mu^*} J^*)(i) = J^*(i),$$

and by the definition of μ,

$$Q\big(i,\mu(i)\big) \le Q\big(i,\mu^*(i)\big).$$

Combining these relations, we have for all i,

$$(T_\mu J^*)(i) - J^*(i) \le (T_\mu J^*)(i) - Q\big(i,\mu(i)\big) + Q\big(i,\mu^*(i)\big) - J^*(i) \le \beta + \beta = 2\beta,$$

from which the desired inequality follows. **Q.E.D.**

Proof of Prop. 6.1: Let

$$\beta_k = \max\big\{\|J_k - J^*\|_\infty, \|Q_k - Q^*\|_\infty\big\}.$$

By applying Lemma 6.2 with $J = J_k$, $\hat{J} = J_{k+1}$, $Q = Q_k$, $\hat{Q} = Q_{k+1}$, we have

$$\|J_{k+1} - J^*\|_\infty \le \|Q_{k+1} - Q^*\|_\infty \le \alpha \max\big\{\|J_k - J^*\|_\infty, \|Q_k - Q^*\|_\infty\big\} + \delta = \alpha\beta_k + \delta. \tag{6.4}$$

By taking the maximum of the two leftmost terms, this relation also implies that

$$\beta_{k+1} \le \alpha\beta_k + \delta,$$

and by iteration

$$\beta_{k+1} \le \alpha^{k+1}\beta_0 + (\alpha^k + \alpha^{k-1} + \cdots + 1)\delta. \tag{6.5}$$

From Eq. (6.4) and Lemma 6.3,

$$\|T_{\mu_{k+1}} J^* - J^*\|_\infty \le 2\big(\alpha\beta_k + \delta\big).$$

Taking limit along a subsequence of μ_k that converges to a stationary policy μ, we obtain

$$\|T_\mu J^* - J^*\|_\infty \le 2 \limsup_{k\to\infty} \big(\alpha\beta_k + \delta\big) \le \frac{2\delta}{1-\alpha},$$

where the second inequality follows from Eq. (6.5). We also have

$$\begin{aligned}\|T_\mu^k J^* - J^*\|_\infty &\le \|T_\mu^k J^* - T_\mu^{k-1} J^*\|_\infty + \|T_\mu^{k-1} J^* - T_\mu^{k-2} J^*\|_\infty + \cdots + \|T_\mu J^* - J^*\|_\infty \\ &\le (\alpha^{k-1} + \alpha^{k-2} + \cdots + 1)\|T_\mu J^* - J^*\|_\infty.\end{aligned}$$

Combining the last two relations, taking limit as $k \to \infty$, and using the fact $T_\mu^k J^* \to J_\mu$, we obtain

$$\|J_\mu - J^*\|_\infty \le \frac{2\delta}{(1-\alpha)^2}.$$

Q.E.D.

7. APPROXIMATION ALGORITHMS

In this section, we provide some details on how to combine the approximation scheme of Section 6 with Q-factor approximations and simulation-based methods that use low-dimensional calculations. In particular, we discuss algorithms for constructing approximations Q_{k+1} to Q_{J_k,ν_k} or to $F^{m_k}_{J_k,\nu_k}Q_k$ [cf. Eq. (6.1)], which can be combined with the updating rule of Eq. (6.2),

$$J_{k+1}(i) = \min_{u\in U(i)} Q_{k+1}(i,u), \qquad \forall\ i, \tag{7.1}$$

and with some method to select ν_{k+1}. These algorithms can also be viewed as approximation counterparts of specific cases of the lookup-table-based stochastic policy iteration Algorithm I, given in Section 4. The error bound of Prop. 6.1 holds for such schemes (although the constant δ is generally unknown). We first focus on the algorithm of Tsitsiklis and Van Roy [TsV99], which can be used for solving approximately optimal stopping problems. This algorithm obtains a Q-factor vector $\hat{Q}$ that approximates a fixed point $Q_{J,\nu}$, in place of the "policy evaluation" step (2.8) of the algorithm, and belongs to the class of projected equation methods (see e.g., [Ber07], [BeY09]).

For a given J and ν, we view $Q_{J,\nu}(i,u)$ as the Q-factor of the optimal stopping problem described in Section 2, which corresponds to the action of not stopping at pair (i,u). We approximate $Q_{J,\nu}(i,u)$ using a linear approximation architecture of the form

$$\hat{Q}(i,u) = \phi(i,u)'r, \qquad \forall\ (i,u). \tag{7.2}$$

Here, $\phi(i,u)'$ is a row vector of s features whose inner product $\hat{Q}(i,u)$ with a column vector of weights $r\in\Re^s$ provides a Q-factor approximation for (i,u). We may view $\phi(i,u)$ as forming an $n\times s$ matrix whose columns are basis functions for a subspace within which Q-factor vectors are approximated. We do not discuss the important issue of selection of $\phi(i,u)$, but we note the possibility of its optimal choice within some restricted class by using gradient and random search algorithms (see Menache, Mannor, and Shimkin [MMS06], and Yu and Bertsekas [YuB09] for recent work on this subject).

For the typical policy evaluation cycle, we have an estimate of optimal cost

$$J(i) = \min_{u\in U(i)} \phi(i,u)'r_0, \qquad \forall\ i,$$

where r_0 is the weight vector obtained at the end of the preceding policy evaluation cycle (J may be arbitrarily chosen for the first cycle). We select a randomized policy ν, and we generate a single infinitely long simulated trajectory $\big\{(i_0,u_0),(i_1,u_1),\dots\big\}$ corresponding to an unstopped system, i.e., using transition probabilities from (i_t,u_t) to (i_{t+1},u_{t+1}) given by

$$p_{i_ti_{t+1}}(u_t)\nu(u_{t+1}\mid i_{t+1}).$$

Following the transition $\big((i_t,u_t),(i_{t+1},u_{t+1})\big)$, we update r_t by

$$r_{t+1} = r_t - \gamma_t\phi(i_t,u_t)q_t, \tag{7.3}$$

where q_t is the temporal difference

$$q_t = \phi(i_t,u_t)'r_t - g(i_t,u_t,i_{t+1}) - \alpha\min\big\{J(i_{t+1}),\phi(i_{t+1},u_{t+1})'r_t\big\}, \tag{7.4}$$

and γ_t is a positive stepsize that diminishes to 0.

For convergence the stepsize γ_t must satisfy some conditions that are standard for stochastic approximation-type algorithms [e.g., $\gamma_t = O(1/t)$; see [TsV99]]. Assuming that these and some other technical conditions are satisfied [such as a full-rank assumption for the matrix formed by $\phi(i,u)$], Tsitsiklis and Van Roy [TsV99] show the convergence of $\{r_t\}$ to a vector r^* such that $\phi(i,u)'r^*$ is the solution of a projected equation that is characteristic of the TD methodology. They also provide a bound on the error $\phi(i,u)'r^* - Q_{J,\nu}(i,u)$; see also Van Roy [Van09].

The preceding algorithm describes how to obtain an approximation $\hat{Q}_k$ to Q_{J_k,ν_k}. Combined with the update rule (7.1), it yields an approximate policy iteration method, where exploration is encoded in the choice of ν_k (which can be selected arbitrarily). The convergence properties of this method may be quite complicated, not only because $\hat{Q}_k$ is just an approximation to Q_{J_k,ν_k}, but also because when Q-factor approximations of the form (7.2) are used, policy oscillations may occur, a phenomenon described in Section 6.4 of [BeT96] (see also [Ber10], Section 6.3).

We note a related scaled version of the algorithm (7.3), proposed by Choi and Van Roy [ChV06]:

$$r_{t+1} = r_t - \gamma_t D_t^{-1} \phi(i_t,u_t) q_t, \tag{7.5}$$

where D_t is a positive definite scaling matrix. For our purposes, to keep overhead per iteration low, it is important that D_t is chosen to be diagonal, and [ChV96] suggests suitable simulation-based choices. We also note alternative iterative optimal stopping algorithms given by Yu and Bertsekas [YuB07], which have faster convergence properties, but require more overhead per iteration because they require a sum of past temporal differences in the right-hand side of Eq. (7.5).

The preceding algorithms require an infinitely long trajectory $\big\{(i_0,u_0),(i_1,u_1),\dots\big\}$ for convergence. In the context of our policy iteration algorithm, however, it may be important to use finitely long and even short trajectories between updates of J_k and ν_k. This is consistent with the ideas of optimistic policy iteration (explained for example in [BeT96], [SuB98], [Ber07], [Ber10]; for recent experimental studies, see Jung and Polani [JuP07], and Busoniu et al. [BED09]). It is also suggested by the value iteration nature of the lookup table version of the algorithm when ν_k involves a substantial amount of exploration, as explained in Section 2. Some experimentation with optimistic methods and exploration enhancement should be helpful in clarifying the associated issues.

8. CONCLUSIONS

We have developed a new policy iteration-like algorithm for Q-learning in discounted MDP. In its lookup table form, the algorithm admits interesting asynchronous and optimistic implementations, with sound convergence properties and less overhead per iteration over the classical Q-learning algorithm. In its compact representation/approximate form, the algorithm addresses in a new way the critical issue of exploration in the context of simulation-based approximations using TD methods.

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