

Handout: Reinforcement learning

In this handout we analyse reinforcement learning algorithms for Markov decision processes. The reader is referred to [2, 10] for a general background of the subject and to other references listed below for further details. This handout is based on [5].

Stochastic approximation In lecture on November 29th we considered the general stochastic approximation recursion,

$$\theta(n+1) = \theta(n) + a_n[g(\theta(n)) + \Delta(n+1)], \quad n \geq 0, \theta(0) \in \mathbb{R}^d. \quad (1)$$

Here we provide a summary of the main results from [5].

Associated with the recursion (1) are two O.D.E.s,

$$\frac{d}{dt}x(t) = g(x(t)) \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}x(t) = g_\infty(x(t)), \quad (3)$$

where $g_\infty : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ is the scaled function, $\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} r^{-1}g(rx) = g_\infty(x)$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$. We assumed in lecture that this limit exists, along with some additional properties,

- (A1) The function g is Lipschitz, and the limit $g_\infty(x)$ exists for each $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$. Furthermore, the origin in \mathbb{R}^d is an asymptotically stable equilibrium for the O.D.E. (3).
- (A2) The sequence $\{\Delta(n) : n \geq 1\}$ is a martingale difference sequence with respect to $\mathcal{F}_n = \sigma(\theta(i), \Delta(i), i \leq n)$. Moreover, for some $\sigma_\Delta^2 < \infty$ and any initial condition $\theta(0) \in \mathbb{R}^d$,

$$\mathbb{E}[\|\Delta(n+1)\|^2 | \mathcal{F}_n] \leq \sigma_\Delta^2(1 + \|\theta(n)\|^2), \quad n \geq 0.$$

The sequence $\{a_n\}$ is deterministic and is assumed to satisfy one of the following two assumptions. Here TS stands for ‘tapering stepsize’ and BS for ‘bounded stepsize’.

- (TS) The sequence $\{a_n\}$ satisfies $0 < a_n \leq 1$, $n \geq 0$, and

$$\sum_n a_n = \infty, \quad \sum_n a_n^2 < \infty.$$

- (BS) The sequence $\{a_n\}$ is constant: $a_n \equiv a > 0$ for all n .

Stability of the O.D.E. (3) implies stability of the algorithm:

Theorem 1 Assume that (A1), (A2) hold. Then, for any initial condition $\theta(0) \in \mathbb{R}^d$,

- (i) Under (TS), $\sup_n \|\theta(n)\| < \infty$ a.s..
- (ii) Under (BS) there exists $a_0 > 0$, $b_0 < \infty$, such that for any fixed $a \in (0, a_0]$,

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}[\|\theta(n)\|^2] \leq b_0.$$

□

For the TS model we have convergence when the O.D.E. (2) has a stable equilibrium point:

Theorem 2 *Suppose that (A1), (A2), (TS) hold and that the O.D.E. (2) has a unique globally asymptotically stable equilibrium θ^* . Then $\theta(n) \rightarrow \theta^*$ a.s. as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for any initial condition $\theta(0) \in \mathbb{R}^d$.*

We can also obtain bounds for the fixed stepsize algorithm. Let e denote the error sequence,

$$e(n) = \|\theta(n) - \theta^*\|, \quad n \geq 0.$$

Theorem 3 *Assume that (A1), (A2) and (BS) hold, and suppose that (2) has a globally asymptotically stable equilibrium point θ^* . Then, for $a \in (0, a_0]$, and for every initial condition $\theta(0) \in \mathbb{R}^d$,*

(i) *For any $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $b_1 = b_1(\varepsilon) < \infty$ such that*

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{P}(e(n) \geq \varepsilon) \leq b_1 a.$$

(ii) *If θ^* is a globally exponentially asymptotically stable equilibrium for the O.D.E. (2), then there exists $b_2 < \infty$ such that,*

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathbb{E}[e(n)^2] \leq b_2 a.$$

□

Suppose that the increments of the model take the form,

$$g(\theta(n)) + \Delta(n+1) = f(\theta(n), N(n+1)), \quad n \geq 0, \quad (4)$$

where N is an i.i.d. sequence on \mathbb{R}^q . In this case, for the BS model, the stochastic process θ is a (time-homogeneous) Markov chain. Assumptions (5) and (6) below are required to establish ψ -irreducibility:

There exists a $n^ \in \mathbb{R}^q$ with $f(\theta^*, n^*) = 0$, and a continuous density $p : \mathbb{R}^q \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ satisfying $p(n^*) > 0$ and*

$$\mathbb{P}(N(1) \in A) \geq \int_A p(z) dz, \quad A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^q); \quad (5)$$

The pair of matrices (A, B) is controllable with

$$A = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(\theta^*, n^*) \quad \text{and} \quad B = \frac{\partial}{\partial n} f(\theta^*, n^*), \quad (6)$$

Under Assumptions (5) and (6) there exists a neighborhood $B(\epsilon)$ of θ^* that is *small* in the sense that there exists a probability measure ν on \mathbb{R}^d and $\delta > 0$ such that

$$P^d(x, A) := \mathbb{P}\{\theta(r) \in A \mid \theta(0) = x\} \geq \delta \nu(A), \quad x \in B(\epsilon)$$

Stability of the O.D.E. (2) can be used to show that the resolvent satisfies,

$$R(x, B(\epsilon)) := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^{-k-1} P^k(x, B(\epsilon)) > 0, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^d,$$

which is equivalent to ψ -irreducibility [9].

Theorem 4 Suppose that (A1), (A2), (5), and (6) hold for the Markov model satisfying (4) with $a \in (0, a_0]$. Then we have the following bounds:

- (i) There exist positive-valued functions A_0 and ε_0 of a , and a constant A_1 independent of a , such that

$$\mathbb{P}\{e(n) \geq \varepsilon \mid \theta(0) = x\} \leq A_0(a) + A_1(\|x\|^2 + 1) \exp(-\varepsilon_0(a)n), \quad n \geq 0, \quad a \in (0, a_0].$$

The functions satisfy $A_0(a) \leq b_1 a$ and $\varepsilon_0(a) \rightarrow 0$ as $a \downarrow 0$.

- (ii) If in addition the O.D.E. (2) is exponentially asymptotically stable, then the stronger bound holds,

$$\mathbb{E}[e(n)^2 \mid \theta(0) = x] \leq B_0(a) + B_1(\|x\|^2 + 1) \exp(-\varepsilon_0(a)n), \quad n \geq 0, \quad a \in (0, a_0],$$

where $B_0(a) \leq b_2 a$, $\varepsilon_0(a) \rightarrow 0$ as $a \downarrow 0$, and B_1 is independent of a .

Markov decision processes We now review general theory for Markov decision processes. It is assumed that the state process $\mathbf{X} = \{X(t) : t \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$ takes values in a finite state space $\mathbf{X} = \{1, 2, \dots, s\}$, and the control sequence $\mathbf{U} = \{U(t) : t \in \mathbb{Z}_+\}$ takes values in a finite action space $\mathbf{U} = \{u_0, \dots, u_r\}$. The controlled transition probabilities are denoted $P_u(i, j)$ for $i, j \in \mathbf{X}, u \in \mathbf{U}$. We are most interested in stationary policies of the form $U(t) = \phi(X(t))$, where the *feedback law* ϕ is a function $\phi: \mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbf{U}$.

Let $c: \mathbf{X} \times \mathbf{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the one-step cost function, and consider first the infinite horizon discounted cost control problem of minimizing over all admissible \mathbf{U} the total discounted cost

$$h_U(i) = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} (1 + \gamma)^{-t-1} c(X(t), U(t)) \mid X(0) = i\right],$$

where $\gamma \in (0, \infty)$ is the discount factor. The minimal value function is defined as

$$h^*(i) = \min_U h_U(i),$$

where the minimum is over all admissible control sequences \mathbf{U} . The function h^* satisfies the dynamic programming equation

$$(1 + \gamma)h^*(i) = \min_u \left[c(i, u) + \sum_j P_u(i, j) h^*(j) \right], \quad i \in \mathbf{X},$$

and the optimal control minimizing h is given as the stationary policy defined through the feedback law ϕ^* given as any solution to

$$\phi^*(i) := \arg \min_u \left[c(i, u) + \sum_j P_u(i, j) h^*(j) \right], \quad i \in \mathbf{X}.$$

The *value iteration algorithm* is an iterative procedure to compute the minimal value function. Given an initial function $h_0: \mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ one obtains a sequence of functions $\{h_n\}$ through the recursion

$$h_{n+1}(i) = (1 + \gamma)^{-1} \min_u \left[c(i, u) + \sum_j P_u(i, j) h_n(j) \right], \quad i \in \mathbf{X}, \quad n \geq 0. \quad (7)$$

This recursion is convergent for any initialization $h_0 \geq 0$.

The value iteration algorithm is initialized with a function $h_0: \mathbf{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$. In contrast, the *policy iteration algorithm* is initialized with a feedback law ϕ^0 , and generates a sequence of feedback laws $\{\phi^n : n \geq 0\}$. At the n th stage of the algorithm a feedback law ϕ^n is given, and the value function h_n is computed. Interpreted as a column vector in \mathbb{R}^s , the vector h_n satisfies the equation

$$((1 + \gamma)I - P_n)h_n = c_n \quad (8)$$

where the $s \times s$ matrix P_n is defined by $P_n(i, j) = P_{\phi^n(i)}(i, j)$, $i, j \in \mathbf{X}$, and the column vector c_n is given by $c_n(i) = c(i, \phi^n(i))$, $i \in \mathbf{X}$. Given h_n , the next feedback law ϕ^{n+1} is then computed via

$$\phi^{n+1}(i) = \arg \min_u \left[c(i, u) + \sum_j P_u(i, j) h_n(j) \right], \quad i \in \mathbf{X}. \quad (9)$$

Each step of the policy iteration algorithm is computationally intensive for large state spaces since the computation of h_n requires the inversion of the $s \times s$ matrix $(1 + \gamma)I - P_n$ to solve (8). For each n , this can be solved using the ‘fixed-policy’ version of value iteration,

$$V_{N+1}(i) = (1 + \gamma)^{-1} [P_n V_N(i) + c_n], \quad i \in \mathbf{X}, \quad N \geq 0, \quad (10)$$

where $V_0 \in \mathbb{R}^s$ is given as an initial condition. Then $V_N \rightarrow h_n$, the solution to (8), at a geometric rate as $N \rightarrow \infty$.

In the average cost optimization problem one seeks to minimize over all admissible \mathbf{U} ,

$$\eta_{\mathbf{U}}(x) := \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{t=0}^{n-1} \mathbb{E}_x [c(X(t), U(t))]. \quad (11)$$

The policy iteration and value iteration algorithms to solve this optimization problem remain unchanged with a few exceptions. One is that the constant γ must be set equal to zero in equations (7) and (10). Secondly, in the policy iteration algorithm the value function h_n is replaced by a solution to Poisson’s equation

$$P_n h_n = h_n - c_n + \eta_n, \quad (12)$$

where η_n is the steady state cost under the policy ϕ^n . The computation of h_n and η_n again involves matrix inversions via

$$\pi_n(I - P_n + ee') = e', \quad \eta_n = \pi_n c_n, \quad (I - P_n + ee')h_n = c_n,$$

where $e \in \mathbb{R}^s$ is the column vector consisting of all ones, and the row vector π_n is the invariant probability for P_n . The introduction of the outer product ensures that the matrix $(I - P_n + ee')$ is invertible, provided that the invariant probability π_n is unique.

Q-learning If we define *Q-values* via

$$Q^*(i, u) = c(i, u) + \sum_j P_u(i, j) h^*(j), \quad i \in \mathbf{X}, u \in \mathbf{U}, \quad (13)$$

then $h^*(i) = \min_u Q^*(i, u)$ and the matrix Q^* satisfies

$$Q^*(i, u) = c(i, u) + (1 + \gamma)^{-1} \sum_j P_u(i, j) \min_v Q^*(j, v), \quad i \in \mathbf{X}, u \in \mathbf{U}.$$

The matrix Q^* can be computed using the equivalent formulation of value iteration,

$$Q_{n+1}(i, u) = c(i, u) + (1 + \gamma)^{-1} \sum_j P_u(i, j) \left(\min_v Q_n(j, v) \right), \quad i \in \mathbf{X}, u \in \mathbf{U}, n \geq 0, \quad (14)$$

where $Q_0 \geq 0$ is arbitrary.

If transition probabilities are unknown so that value iteration is not directly applicable, one may apply a stochastic approximation variant known as the *Q-learning algorithm* of Watkins [11, 12]. This is defined through the recursion

$$Q_{n+1}(i, u) = Q_n(i, u) + a_n \left[(1 + \gamma)^{-1} \min_v Q_n(\Xi_{n+1}(i, u), v) + c(i, u) - Q_n(i, u) \right], \quad i \in \mathbf{X}, u \in \mathbf{U},$$

where $\Xi_{n+1}(i, u)$ is an independently simulated \mathbf{X} -valued random variable with law $P_u(i, \cdot)$.

Making the appropriate correspondences with the stochastic approximation theory surrounding (1), we have $\theta(n) = Q_n \in \mathbb{R}^{s \times (r+1)}$ and the function $g: \mathbb{R}^{s \times (r+1)} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{s \times (r+1)}$ is defined as follows. Define $F: \mathbb{R}^{s \times (r+1)} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{s \times (r+1)}$ as $F(Q) = [F_{iu}(Q)]_{i,u}$ via,

$$F_{iu}(Q) = (1 + \gamma)^{-1} \sum_j P_u(i, j) \min_v Q(j, v) + c(i, u).$$

Then $g(Q) = F(Q) - Q$ and the associated O.D.E. is

$$\frac{d}{dt} Q = F(Q) - Q := g(Q). \quad (15)$$

The map $F: \mathbb{R}^{s \times (r+1)} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{s \times (r+1)}$ is a contraction w.r.t. the max norm $\| \cdot \|_\infty$,

$$\|F(Q^1) - F(Q^2)\|_\infty \leq (1 + \gamma)^{-1} \|Q^1 - Q^2\|_\infty, \quad Q^1, Q^2 \in \mathbb{R}^{s \times (r+1)}.$$

Consequently, one can show that with $\tilde{Q} = Q - Q^*$,

$$\frac{d}{dt} \|\tilde{Q}\|_\infty \leq -\gamma(1 + \gamma)^{-1} \|\tilde{Q}\|_\infty,$$

which establishes global asymptotic stability of its unique equilibrium point θ^* [7]. Assumption (A1) holds, with the (i, u) -th component of $g_\infty(Q)$ given by

$$(1 + \gamma)^{-1} \sum_j P_u(i, j) \min_v Q(j, v) - Q(i, u), \quad i \in \mathbf{X}, u \in \mathbf{U}.$$

This also is of the form $g_\infty(Q) = F_\infty(Q) - Q$ where $F_\infty(\cdot)$ is an $\| \cdot \|_\infty$ - contraction, and thus the origin is asymptotically stable for the O.D.E. (3).

We conclude that Theorems 1–4 hold for the *Q-learning* model.

Adaptive critic algorithm Next we consider the *adaptive critic algorithm*, which may be considered as the reinforcement learning analog of policy iteration. There are several variants of this, one of which, taken from [8], is as follows. The algorithm generates a sequence of approximations to h^* denoted $\{h_n : n \geq 0\}$, interpreted as a sequence of s -dimensional vectors. Simultaneously, it generates a sequence of randomized policies denoted $\{\phi^n\}$.

At each time n the following random variables are constructed independently of the past:

- (i) For each $i \in \mathbf{X}$, $\Omega_n(i)$ is a \mathbf{U} -valued random variable independently simulated with law $\phi^n(i)$;

- (ii) For each $i \in \mathbf{X}$, $u \in \mathbf{U}$, $\Xi_n^a(i, u)$ and $\Xi_n^b(i, u)$ are independent \mathbf{X} -valued random variables with law $P_u(i, \cdot)$.

For $1 \leq \ell \leq r$ we let \mathbf{e}^ℓ is the unit r -vector in the ℓ -th coordinate direction. We let $\Gamma(\cdot)$ denote the projection onto the simplex $\{x \in \mathbb{R}_+^r : \sum_i x_i \leq 1\}$.

For $i \in \mathbf{X}$ the algorithm is defined by the pair of equations,

$$h_{n+1}(i) = h_n(i) + b_n [(1 + \gamma)^{-1} [c(i, \Omega_n(i)) + h_n(\Xi_n^a(i, \Omega_n(i)))] - h_n(i)], \quad (16)$$

$$\hat{\phi}^{n+1}(i) = \Gamma \left\{ \hat{\phi}^n(i) + a_n \sum_{\ell=1}^r \left([c(i, u_0) + h_n(\Xi_n^b(i, u_0))] - [c(i, u_\ell) + h_n(\Xi_n^b(i, u_\ell))] \right) \mathbf{e}^\ell \right\}. \quad (17)$$

For each i, n , $\phi^n(i) = \phi^n(i, \cdot)$ is a probability vector on \mathbf{U} defined in terms of $\hat{\phi}^n(i) = [\hat{\phi}^n(i, 1), \dots, \hat{\phi}^n(i, r)]$ as follows,

$$\phi^n(i, u_\ell) = \begin{cases} \hat{\phi}^n(i, \ell) & \ell \neq 0; \\ 1 - \sum_{j \neq 0} \hat{\phi}^n(i, j) & \ell = 0. \end{cases}$$

This is an example of a *two time-scale* algorithm: The sequences $\{a_n\}, \{b_n\}$ are assumed to satisfy

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = 0,$$

as well as the usual conditions for vanishing gain algorithms,

$$\sum_n a_n = \sum_n b_n = \infty, \quad \sum_n (a_n^2 + b_n^2) < \infty.$$

To see why this is based on policy iteration, recall that policy iteration alternates between two steps: One step solves the linear system of equation (8) to compute the fixed-policy value function corresponding to the current policy. We have seen that solving (8) can be accomplished by performing the fixed-policy version of value iteration given in (10). The first step (16) in the above iteration is indeed the ‘learning’ or ‘simulation-based stochastic approximation’ analog of this fixed-policy value iteration. The second step in policy iteration updates the current policy by performing an appropriate minimization. The second iteration (17) is a particular search algorithm for computing this minimum over the simplex of probability measures on \mathbf{U} .

The different choices of stepsize schedules for the two iterations (16), (17) induces the ‘two time-scale’ effect discussed in [6]. Thus the first iteration sees the policy computed by the second as nearly static, thus justifying viewing it as a fixed-policy iteration. In turn, the second sees the first as almost equilibrated, justifying the search scheme for minimization over \mathbf{U} .

The boundedness of $\{\hat{\phi}^n\}$ is guaranteed by the projection $\Gamma(\cdot)$. For $\{h_n\}$, the fact that $b_n = o(a_n)$ allows one to treat $\hat{\phi}^n(i)$ as constant, say $\bar{\phi}(i)$ [8]. The appropriate O.D.E. then turns out to be

$$\frac{d}{dt} x = F(x) - x := g(x) \quad (18)$$

where $F : \mathbb{R}^s \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^s$ is defined by:

$$F_i(x) = (1 + \gamma)^{-1} \sum_{\ell} \bar{\phi}(i, u_\ell) \left[\sum_j P_{u_\ell}(i, j) x_j + c(i, u_\ell) \right], \quad i \in \mathbf{X}.$$

Once again, $F(\cdot)$ is an $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ -contraction and it follows that (18) is globally asymptotically stable. The limiting function $g_\infty(x)$ is again of the form $g_\infty(x) = F_\infty(x) - x$ with $F_\infty(x)$ defined so that its i -th component is

$$(1 + \gamma)^{-1} \sum_{\ell} \bar{\phi}(i, u_\ell) \sum_j P_{u_\ell}(i, j) x_j.$$

We see that F_∞ is also a $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ -contraction and the global asymptotic stability of the origin for the corresponding limiting O.D.E. follows [7].

Average cost optimal control For the average cost control problem we impose the additional restriction that the chain \mathbf{X} has a *unique* invariant probability measure under any stationary policy so that the steady state cost (11) is independent of the initial condition.

For the average cost optimal control problem the Q -learning algorithm is given by the recursion

$$Q_{n+1}(i, u) = Q_n(i, u) + a_n \left(\min_v Q_n(\Xi_n^a(i, u), v) + c(i, u) - Q_n(i, u) - Q_n(i_0, u_0) \right),$$

where $i_0 \in \mathbf{X}$, $u_0 \in \mathbf{U}$ are fixed a-priori. The appropriate O.D.E. now is (15) with $F(\cdot)$ redefined as $F_{iu}(Q) = \sum_j P_u(i, j) \min_v Q(j, v) + c(i, u) - Q(i_0, u_0)$. The global asymptotic stability for the unique equilibrium point for this O.D.E. has been established in [1]. Once again this fits our framework with $g_\infty(x) = F_\infty(x) - x$ for F_∞ defined the same way as F , except for the terms $c(\cdot, \cdot)$ which are dropped. We conclude that (A1) and (A2) are satisfied for this version of the Q -learning algorithm.

In [8], three variants of the adaptive critic algorithm for the average cost problem are discussed, differing only in the $\{\hat{\phi}^n\}$ iteration. The iteration for $\{h_n\}$ is common to all and is given by

$$h_{n+1}(i) = h_n(i) + b_n [c(i, \Omega_n(i)) + h_n(\Xi_n^a(i, \Omega_n(i))) - h_n(i) - h_n(i_0)], \quad i \in \mathbf{X}$$

where $i_0 \in \mathbf{X}$ is a prescribed fixed state. This leads to the O.D.E. (18) with F redefined as

$$F_i(x) = \sum_{\ell} \bar{\phi}(i, u_\ell) \left(\sum_j p_{u_\ell}(i, j) x_j + c(i, u_\ell) \right) - x_{i_0}, \quad i \in \mathbf{X}.$$

The global asymptotic stability of the unique equilibrium point of this O.D.E. has been established in [3, 4]. Once more, this fits our framework with $g_\infty(x) = F_\infty(x) - x$ for F_∞ defined just like F , but without the $c(\cdot, \cdot)$ terms.

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