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Brief paper

# Average cost temporal-difference learning<sup>☆</sup>

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## Abstract

We propose a variant of temporal-difference learning that approximates average and differential costs of an irreducible aperiodic Markov chain. Approximations are comprised of linear combinations of fixed basis functions whose weights are incrementally updated during a single endless trajectory of the Markov chain. We present a proof of convergence (with probability 1) and a characterization of the limit of convergence. We also provide a bound on the resulting approximation error that exhibits an interesting dependence on the “mixing time” of the Markov chain. The results parallel previous work by the authors, involving approximations of discounted cost-to-go. © 1999 Elsevier Science Ltd. All rights reserved.

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## 1. Introduction

Temporal-difference (TD) learning, as proposed by Sutton (1988), is an algorithm for approximating the cost-to-go function of a Markov chain (the expected future cost, as a function of the initial state) by a linear combination of a given collection of basis functions, on the basis of simulation or observation of the process. Such approximations are used primarily in approximate policy iteration methods for large-scale Markov decision problems, when the size of the state space is too large to allow exact computation of the cost-to-go function (Bertsekas & Tsitsiklis, 1996).

A comprehensive convergence analysis for the case of discounted Markov chains has been provided by the authors (Tsitsiklis & Van Roy, 1997). A simplified version of that work, together with extensions to the case of

undiscounted absorbing Markov chains, is presented in (Bertsekas & Tsitsiklis, 1996). Related analyses are given by (Sutton, 1988; Dayan, 1992; Gurvits, Lin & Hansen, 1994), and (Pineda, 1996). The purpose of the present paper is to propose and analyze a variant of TD learning that is suitable for approximating differential cost functions of undiscounted Markov chains (i.e., solutions to Poisson’s equation). The results parallel those available for the discounted case: we have convergence (with probability 1), a characterization of the limit, and graceful bounds on the resulting approximation error. Furthermore, a relationship between error bounds and mixing properties of the Markov chain are identified.

We note that the simulation-based (or reinforcement learning) methods pertinent to the average cost formulation that have been studied in the literature generally involve look-up table representations, which store and update one value per state in the state space; see (Mahadevan, 1996) for a survey of relevant experimental work and (Abounadi, 1998) for a theoretical treatment. In the context of approximations, the common practice is to use a discounted formulation as a proxy for an average cost problem. (The discount factor is usually set very close to unity, which can lead to numerical difficulties.) Our results show that this practice is unnecessary, as has already been illustrated in a successful application to

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a large-scale problem (Marbach, Mihatsch & Tsitsiklis, 1998).

## 2. Average cost temporal-difference learning

We consider a Markov chain  $\{i_t | t = 0, 1, \dots\}$  on a finite state space  $S = \{1, \dots, n\}$ , with transition probability matrix  $P$ .

**Assumption 1.** *The Markov chain corresponding to  $P$  is irreducible and aperiodic.*

It follows that the Markov chain has a unique invariant probability distribution  $\pi$ , that satisfies  $\pi'P = \pi'$ , with  $\pi(i) > 0$  for all  $i$ . Let  $E_0[\cdot]$  denote expectation with respect to this distribution.

Let  $g(i)$  be a cost per stage associated with state  $i$ . We define the average cost by  $\mu^* = E_0[g(i_t)]$ , and a differential-cost function as any function  $J: S \mapsto \mathfrak{R}$  satisfying Poisson's equation, which takes the form

$$J = g - \mu^*e + PJ,$$

where  $e \in \mathfrak{R}^n$  is the vector with each component equal to 1, and  $J$  and  $g$  are viewed as vectors in  $\mathfrak{R}^n$ . Under Assumption 1, it is known that differential cost functions exist and the set of all differential cost functions takes the form  $\{J^* + ce | c \in \mathfrak{R}\}$ , for some function  $J^*$  satisfying  $\pi'J^* = 0$  (see, e.g., Gallager, 1996). We will refer to  $J^*$  as the *basic* differential cost function, and it is known that, under Assumption 1, this function is given by

$$J^* = \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} P^t(g - \mu^*e). \quad (1)$$

We consider approximations to differential cost functions using a function of the form

$$\tilde{J}(i, r) = \sum_{k=1}^K r(k)\phi_k(i).$$

Here,  $r = (r(1), \dots, r(K))'$  is a tunable parameter vector and each  $\phi_k$  is a basis function defined on the state space  $S$  to be viewed as a vector of dimension  $n$ .

It is convenient to define a vector-valued function  $\phi: S \mapsto \mathfrak{R}^K$ , by letting  $\phi(i) = (\phi_1(i), \dots, \phi_K(i))'$ . With this notation, the approximation can also be written in the form  $\tilde{J}(i, r) = r'\phi(i)$  or  $\tilde{J}(r) = \Phi r$ , where  $\Phi$  is an  $n \times K$  matrix whose  $k$ th column is equal to  $\phi_k$ .

**Assumption 2.** (a) *The basis functions  $\{\phi_k | k = 1, \dots, K\}$  are linearly independent. In particular,  $K \leq n$  and  $\Phi$  has full rank.*

(b) *For every  $r \in \mathfrak{R}^K$ ,  $\Phi r \neq e$ .*

Suppose that we observe a sequence of states  $i_t$  generated according to the transition probability matrix  $P$ .

Given that at a time  $t$ , the parameter vector  $r$  has been set to some value  $r_t$ , and we have an approximation  $\mu_t$  to the average cost  $\mu^*$ , we define the temporal difference  $d_t$  corresponding to the transition from  $i_t$  to  $i_{t+1}$  by

$$d_t = g(i_t) - \mu_t + \tilde{J}(i_{t+1}, r_t) - \tilde{J}(i_t, r_t). \quad (2)$$

The TD( $\lambda$ ) algorithm that we will be studying updates  $r_t$  and  $\mu_t$  according to

$$\mu_{t+1} = (1 - \eta_t)\mu_t + \eta_t g(i_t),$$

and

$$r_{t+1} = r_t + \gamma_t d_t \sum_{k=0}^t \lambda^{t-k} \phi(i_k), \quad (3)$$

where  $\gamma_t$  and  $\eta_t$  are scalar step sizes and  $\lambda$  is a parameter in  $[0, 1)$ . It is convenient to define a sequence of *eligibility vectors*  $z_t$  (of dimension  $K$ ) by

$$z_t = \sum_{k=0}^t \lambda^{t-k} \phi(i_k). \quad (4)$$

With this new notation, the parameter updates are given by

$$r_{t+1} = r_t + \gamma_t d_t z_t,$$

and the eligibility vectors can be updated according to

$$z_{t+1} = \lambda z_t + \phi(i_{t+1}),$$

initialized with  $z_{-1} = 0$ .

**Assumption 3.** (a) *The sequence  $\gamma_t$  is positive, deterministic, and satisfies  $\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma_t = \infty$  and  $\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma_t^2 < \infty$ .*

(b) *There exists a positive scalar  $c$  such that the sequence  $\eta_t$  satisfies  $\eta_t = c\gamma_t$ , for all  $t$ .*

## 3. Convergence result

We begin with some notation that helps to streamline the formal statement of results, as well as the analysis.

Recall that  $\pi(1), \dots, \pi(n)$  denote the steady-state probabilities for the process  $i_t$ . We define an  $n \times n$  diagonal matrix  $D$  with diagonal entries  $\pi(1), \dots, \pi(n)$ . It is easy to see that  $\langle x, y \rangle_D = x'Dy$  defines an inner product space with norm  $\|\cdot\|_D = \sqrt{\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_D}$ . To interpret this norm, note that for every  $J: S \mapsto \mathfrak{R}$ , we have

$$\|J\|_D^2 = E_0[J(i_t)^2].$$

We say that two vectors  $J, \tilde{J}$  are  $D$ -orthogonal if  $J'D\tilde{J} = 0$ . We will also use  $\|\cdot\|$ , without a subscript, to denote the Euclidean norm on vectors or the Euclidean-induced norm on matrices. (That is, for any matrix  $A$ , we have  $\|A\| = \max_{\|x\|=1} \|Ax\|$ .)

We define a projection matrix  $\Pi$  that projects onto the subspace spanned by the basis functions. In particular,

we let  $\Pi = \Phi(\Phi'D\Phi)^{-1}\Phi'D$ . For any  $J \in \mathfrak{R}^n$ , we then have

$$\Pi J = \operatorname{argmin}_{\bar{J} \in \{\Phi r \mid r \in \mathfrak{R}^k\}} \|J - \bar{J}\|_D.$$

For any  $\lambda \in [0,1)$ , we define an operator  $T^{(\lambda)}: \mathfrak{R}^n \mapsto \mathfrak{R}^n$  by

$$T^{(\lambda)}J = (1 - \lambda) \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda^m \left( \sum_{t=0}^m P^t(g - \mu^*e) + P^{m+1}J \right).$$

To interpret  $T^{(\lambda)}$  in a meaningful manner, note that, for each  $m$ , the term

$$\sum_{t=0}^m P^t(g - \mu^*e) + P^{m+1}J$$

is an approximation to the basic differential cost function where the summation in Eq. (1) is truncated after  $m$  terms, and the remainder of the summation is approximated by  $P^{m+1}J$ . In fact, the remainder of the summation is exactly equal to  $P^{m+1}J^*$ , so  $P^{m+1}J$  is a reasonable approximation when  $J^*$  is unknown and  $J$  is its estimate. The function  $T^{(\lambda)}J$  is therefore a geometrically weighted average of approximations to the differential cost function.

Our convergence result follows.

**Theorem 1.** *Under Assumptions 1–3, the following hold:*

- (a) *For any  $\lambda \in [0,1)$ , the average cost TD( $\lambda$ ) algorithm, as defined in Section 2, converges with probability 1.*
- (b) *The limit of the sequence  $\mu_t$  is the average cost  $\mu^*$ .*
- (c) *The limit  $r^*$  of the sequence  $r_t$  is the unique solution of the equation*

$$\Pi T^{(\lambda)}(\Phi r^*) = \Phi r^*.$$

### 3.1. Preliminaries

In order to represent the algorithm in a compact form, we construct a process  $X_t = (i_t, i_{t+1}, z_t)$ , where  $z_t$  is the eligibility vector defined by Eq. (4). It is easy to see that  $X_t$  is a Markov process. In particular,  $z_{t+1}$  and  $i_{t+1}$  are deterministic functions of  $X_t$ , and the distribution of  $i_{t+2}$  only depends on  $i_{t+1}$ . Note that at each time  $t$ , the random vector  $X_t$ , together with the current values of  $\mu_t$  and  $r_t$ , provides all necessary information for computing  $\mu_{t+1}$  and  $r_{t+1}$ .

So that we can think of the TD( $\lambda$ ) algorithm as adapting only a single vector, we introduce a sequence  $\theta_t \in \mathfrak{R}^{k+1}$  with components  $\theta_t(1) = \mu_t$  and  $\theta_t(i) = r_t(i - 1)$  for  $i \in \{2, \dots, n + 1\}$ , or using more compact notation,

$$\theta_t = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_t \\ r_t \end{bmatrix}.$$

The TD( $\lambda$ ) updates can be rewritten as

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + \gamma_t(A(X_t)\theta_t + b(X_t)), \tag{5}$$

where for any  $X = (i, j, z)$ , we have

$$A(X) = \begin{bmatrix} -c & 0 \cdots 0 \\ -z & z(\phi'(j) - \phi'(i)) \end{bmatrix},$$

$$b(X) = \begin{bmatrix} cg(i) \\ zg(i) \end{bmatrix},$$

and  $c$  is the constant in Assumption 3(b).

As we will show later,  $A(X_t)$  and  $b(X_t)$  have well-defined ‘‘steady-state’’ expectations, which we denote by  $A$  and  $b$ . General results concerning stochastic approximation algorithms can be used to show that the asymptotic behavior of the sequence generated by Eq. (5) mimics that of an ordinary differential equation:

$$\dot{\theta}_t = A\theta_t + b.$$

Our analysis can be broken down into two parts. The first establishes that the relevant ordinary differential equation converges (we will show that the matrix  $A$  is stable). The second involves the application of a result from stochastic approximation theory to show that the algorithm delivers similar behavior.

### 3.2. Lemmas

We start with an easy consequence of Jensen’s inequality, which is central to our analysis; see Lemma 1 in (Tsitsiklis & Van Roy, 1997) for a proof.

**Lemma 1.** *Under Assumption 1, for all  $J \in \mathfrak{R}^n$ ,*

$$\|PJ\|_D \leq \|J\|_D.$$

*Furthermore, unless  $J$  is proportional to  $e$ , we have  $PJ \neq J$ .*

Under Assumption 1, the matrix  $P^{(\lambda)}$  defined below is an irreducible and aperiodic stochastic matrix, and Lemma 2 follows from Lemma 1.

**Lemma 2.** *Let  $P^{(\lambda)} = (1 - \lambda) \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda^m P^{m+1}$ . Then, under Assumption 1, for any  $\lambda \in [0,1)$  and  $J \in \mathfrak{R}^n$ ,*

$$\|P^{(\lambda)}J\|_D \leq \|J\|_D.$$

*Furthermore, unless  $J$  is proportional to  $e$ , we have  $P^{(\lambda)}J \neq J$ .*

We now establish that the set of fixed points of  $T^{(\lambda)}$  is the set of differential cost functions.

**Lemma 3.** *Under Assumption 1, for any  $\lambda \in [0,1)$ , we have*

$$T^{(\lambda)}J = J \quad \text{if and only if } J \in \{J^* + ce \mid c \in \mathfrak{R}\}.$$

**Proof.** Suppose that  $J = J^* + ce$ , for some scalar  $c$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} T^{(\lambda)}J &= (1 - \lambda) \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda^m \left( \sum_{t=0}^m P^t(g - \mu^*e) + P^{m+1}(J^* + ce) \right) \\ &= (1 - \lambda) \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda^m \left( \sum_{t=0}^m P^t(g - \mu^*e) + P^{m+1}J^* \right) + ce \\ &= (1 - \lambda) \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda^m \left( \sum_{t=0}^m P^t(g - \mu^*e) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + P^{m+1} \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} P^t(g - \mu^*e) \right) + ce \\ &= (1 - \lambda) \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda^m \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} P^t(g - \mu^*e) + ce \\ &= J^* + ce \\ &= J. \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, suppose that  $J$  is not of the form  $J^* + ce$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} T^{(\lambda)}J &= T^{(\lambda)}J^* + P^{(\lambda)}(J - J^*) \\ &= J^* + P^{(\lambda)}(J - J^*) \\ &\neq J^* + (J - J^*) \\ &= J, \end{aligned}$$

where the inequality follows from Lemma 2.  $\square$

We next set out to characterize the “steady-state” expectations of  $A(X_t)$  and  $b(X_t)$ . While this can be done by taking limits of expectations as  $t$  goes to infinity, it is simpler to characterize expectations of a process that is already in steady state. We therefore make a short digression to construct a stationary version of  $X_t$ .

We proceed as follows. Let  $\{i_t | -\infty < t < \infty\}$  be a Markov chain that evolves according to the transition probability matrix  $P$  and is in steady state, in the sense that  $\Pr(i_t = i) = \pi(i)$  for all  $i$  and all  $t$ . Given any sample path of this Markov chain, we define

$$z_t = \sum_{\tau=-\infty}^t \lambda^{t-\tau} \phi(i_\tau). \tag{6}$$

Note that  $z_t$  is constructed by taking the stationary process  $\phi(i_t)$ , whose magnitude is bounded by a constant, and passing it through an exponentially stable linear time invariant filter. The output  $z_t$  of this filter is stationary and its magnitude is bounded by a constant (the same constant applies to all sample paths). With  $z_t$  so constructed, we let  $X_t = (i_t, i_{t+1}, z_t)$  and note that this is a Markov process with the same transition probabilities as the process constructed in Section 3.2. Furthermore, the state space of this process, which we will denote by  $\mathcal{S}$ , is bounded. We can now identify  $E_0[\cdot]$  with the expectation with respect to the invariant distribution of this process.

We now characterize the steady-state expectation of several expressions of interest. We omit the proof, because it follows the same steps as the proof of Lemma 7 in (Tsitsiklis & Van Roy, 1997).

**Lemma 4.** Under Assumption 1, the following relations hold:

- (a)  $E_0[z_t \phi'(i_t)] = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda^m \Phi' D P^m \Phi,$
- (b)  $E_0[z_t \phi'(i_{t+1})] = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda^m \Phi' D P^{m+1} \Phi,$
- (c)  $E_0[z_t] = \frac{1}{1 - \lambda} \Phi' D e.$
- (d)  $E_0[z_t g(i_t)] = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda^m \Phi' D P^m g.$

The following lemma characterizes the steady-state expectations  $E_0[A(X_t)]$  and  $E_0[b(X_t)]$  of the terms in Eq. (5), which we will denote by  $A$  and  $b$ .

**Lemma 5.** Under Assumption 1, the steady-state expectations  $A = E_0[A(X_t)]$  and  $b = E_0[b(X_t)]$  are given by

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -c & 0 \dots 0 \\ -\frac{1}{1-\lambda} \Phi' D e & \Phi' D (P^{(\lambda)} - I) \Phi \end{bmatrix},$$

and

$$b = \begin{bmatrix} c\mu^* \\ \Phi' D (1 - \lambda) \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda^m \sum_{t=0}^m P^t g \end{bmatrix}.$$

**Proof.** Using Lemma 4, and the relation

$$\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (\lambda P)^m = (1 - \lambda) \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda^m \sum_{t=0}^m P^t,$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} E_0[z_t(\phi'(i_{t+1}) - \phi(i_t))] &= \Phi' D \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} (\lambda P)^m (P - I) \Phi \\ &= \Phi' D ((1 - \lambda) \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda^m P^{m+1} - I) \Phi \\ &= \Phi' D (P^{(\lambda)} - I) \Phi. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $A$  is given by

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -c & 0 \dots 0 \\ -E_0[z_t] & E_0[z_t(\phi'(i_{t+1}) - \phi'(i_t))] \end{bmatrix},$$

this establishes the desired characterization of  $A$ . As for the case of  $b$ , using Lemma 4, we have

$$\begin{aligned} E_0[z_t g(i_t)] &= \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda^m \Phi' D P^m g \\ &= \Phi' D (1 - \lambda) \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda^m \sum_{t=0}^m P^t g. \end{aligned}$$

Combining this with the fact that

$$b = \begin{bmatrix} cE_0[g(i_t)] \\ E_0[z_t g(i_t)] \end{bmatrix},$$

completes the proof.  $\square$

The following lemma establishes that the expectations of  $A(X_t)$  and  $b(X_t)$  converge to their steady-state values at a geometric rate. The proof makes use of the geometric convergence of finite state Markov chains to steady state. It is similar to the proof of a corresponding lemma in Tsitsiklis and Van Roy (1997), and is omitted.

**Lemma 6.** *Under Assumption 1, there exist scalars  $C$  and  $\rho \in (0,1)$  such that for any  $X_0 \in \mathcal{S}$  and  $t \geq 0$ , we have*

$$\|E[A(X_t)|X_0] - A\| \leq C\rho^t,$$

and

$$\|E[b(X_t)|X_0] - b\| \leq C\rho^t.$$

We say that a square matrix  $M$  is negative definite if  $x'Mx < 0$  for every  $x \neq 0$ , even if  $M$  is not symmetric. The matrix  $A$  is not necessarily negative definite, but becomes negative definite under an appropriate coordinate scaling.

**Lemma 7.** *Under Assumptions 1 and 2, there exists a diagonal matrix  $L$  with positive diagonal entries, such that the matrix  $LA$  is negative definite.*

**Proof.** Let  $J$  be a nonconstant function on the state space. Since the Markov chain  $\{i_t\}$  is irreducible,  $J(i_t)$  is not a constant function of time, which implies that

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &< \frac{1}{2}E_0[(J(i_{t+1}) - J(i_t))^2] \\ &= E_0[J(i_t)^2] - E_0[J(i_{t+1})J(i_t)] = J'DJ - J'DPJ \\ &= J'D(I - P)J. \end{aligned}$$

For any  $r \neq 0$ ,  $J = \Phi r$  is a nonconstant vector, because of Assumption 2. Thus,  $r'\Phi'D(P - I)J\Phi r > 0$  for every  $r \neq 0$ , which shows that the matrix  $\Phi'D(P - I)\Phi$  is negative definite. The same argument works for the matrix  $\Phi'D(P^{(\lambda)} - I)\Phi$ , because  $P^{(\lambda)}$  is also an irreducible and aperiodic stochastic matrix with the same invariant distribution.

Let  $L$  be a diagonal matrix with the first diagonal entry equal to some scalar  $\ell > 0$  and every other diagonal entry equal to one. Using the special form of the matrix  $A$  (see Lemma 5) and the just established negative definiteness of the lower diagonal block of  $A$ , it is a matter of simple algebra to verify that  $LA$  becomes negative definite, when  $\ell$  is chosen sufficiently large.  $\square$

### 3.3. A result on stochastic approximation

To establish convergence of TD( $\lambda$ ) based on the steady-state dynamics, we rely on results from stochastic approximation theory. The following Theorem (Proposition 4.8 from p. 174 of Bertsekas & Tsitsiklis (1996)) is a special case of a very general result (Theorem 17 on p. 239 of Benveniste, Metivier & Priouret (1990)), and it provides the basis for a corollary that will suit our needs.

**Theorem 2.** *Consider an iterative algorithm of the form*

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t + \gamma_t(A(X_t)\theta_t + b(X_t)),$$

where:

- (a) *The step sizes  $\gamma_t$  are positive, deterministic, and satisfy  $\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma_t = \infty$  and  $\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma_t^2 < \infty$ .*
- (b) *The Markov process  $X_t$ , which evolves in a state space  $\mathcal{S}$ , has an invariant (steady state) distribution. Let  $E_0[\cdot]$  stand for the expectation with respect to this invariant distribution.*
- (c) *The matrix  $A$  defined by  $A = E_0[A(X_t)]$  is negative definite.*
- (d) *There exists a constant  $C$  such that  $\|A(X)\| \leq C$  and  $\|b(X)\| \leq C$ , for all  $X \in \mathcal{S}$ .*
- (e) *There exist scalars  $C$  and  $\rho \in (0,1)$  such that*

$$\|E[A(X_t)|X_0 = X] - A\| \leq C\rho^t, \quad \forall t \geq 0, X \in \mathcal{S},$$

and

$$\|E[b(X_t)|X_0 = X] - b\| \leq C\rho^t, \quad \forall t \geq 0, X \in \mathcal{S},$$

where  $b = E_0[b(X_t)]$ .

Then,  $\theta_t$  converges to  $\theta^*$ , with probability 1, where  $\theta^*$  is the unique vector that satisfies  $A\theta^* + b = 0$ .

Consider the change of coordinates  $\tilde{\theta}_t = L^{1/2}\theta_t$ . If we rewrite the algorithm in terms of  $\tilde{\theta}$ , the matrix  $A$  gets replaced by  $L^{1/2}AL^{-1/2}$ . If  $LA$  is negative definite, so is  $L^{1/2}AL^{-1/2}$ , and Theorem 2 implies the following.

**Corollary 1.** *The conclusions of Theorem 2 remain valid if Condition (c) is replaced by the following condition:*

(c') *Let the matrix  $A$  be defined by  $A = E_0[A(X_t)]$ . There exists a diagonal matrix  $L$  with positive diagonal entries such that  $LA$  is negative definite.*

### 3.4. Proof of Theorem 1

The various lemmas given in Section 3.2 establish that the conditions of Corollary 1 are satisfied by the TD( $\lambda$ ) algorithm. Hence the algorithm converges (with probability 1) to a limit  $\theta^*$  that satisfies

$$A\theta^* + b = 0.$$

Invoking Lemma 5, we recall that  $b(1) = c\mu^*$ , and observe that  $(A\theta^*)(1) = -c\theta^*(1)$ . We therefore have  $\theta^*(1) = \mu^*$ , i.e., the sequence  $\mu_t$  converges to  $\mu^*$ . Let the vector  $r^* \in \mathfrak{R}^n$  be given by  $r^* = (\theta^*(2), \dots, \theta^*(n+1))'$ . Then, using Lemmas 3 and 5, the relation  $1/(1-\lambda) = (1-\lambda)\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda^m(m+1)$ , and the equation  $A\theta^* + b = 0$ , we obtain

$$-\Phi'D(1-\lambda)\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda^m \sum_{t=0}^m P^t g = \Phi'D(P^{(\lambda)} - I)\Phi r^* - \frac{\mu^*}{1-\lambda} \Phi'De,$$

$$-\Phi'D(1-\lambda)\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda^m \sum_{t=0}^m P^t g = \Phi'D(P^{(\lambda)} - I)\Phi r^*$$

$$-\Phi'D(1-\lambda)\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda^m \sum_{t=0}^m \mu^* e,$$

$$\Phi'D\Phi r^* = \Phi'D\left(P^{(\lambda)}\Phi r^* + (1-\lambda)\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda^m \sum_{t=0}^m P^t(g - \mu^* e)\right),$$

$$\Phi'D\Phi r^* = \Phi'DT^{(\lambda)}(\Phi r^*),$$

$$\Phi(\Phi'D\Phi)^{-1}\Phi'D\Phi r^* = \Phi(\Phi'D\Phi)^{-1}\Phi'DT^{(\lambda)}(\Phi r^*),$$

$$\Phi r^* = \Pi T^{(\lambda)}(\Phi r^*).$$

This completes the proof.  $\square$

#### 4. Approximation error

In this section, we propose a definition of approximation error, study a few of its properties, and derive error bounds.

##### 4.1. A definition of error

In our analysis of discounted cost  $TD(\lambda)$  (Tsitsiklis & Van Roy, 1997), we employed the error metric  $\|\Phi r^* - J^*\|_D$ , where  $J^*$  was the cost-to-go function for a discounted Markov chain. This formulation enabled the development of a graceful error bound. In the context of average cost problems, one is usually content with an approximation of *any* differential cost function  $J$ , not necessarily the basic one  $J^*$ . And it is possible that there exists a parameter vector  $\bar{r}$  such that  $\|\Phi\bar{r} - J\|_D$  is very small for some differential cost function  $J$ , while  $\|\Phi r - J^*\|_D$  is large for all  $r$ . For this reason, we will define the approximation error as the infimum of the weighted Euclidean distance from the set of all differential cost functions:

$$\inf_{J \in \{J^* + ce \mid c \in \mathfrak{R}\}} \|\Phi r^* - J\|_D = \inf_{c \in \mathfrak{R}} \|\Phi r^* - (J^* + ce)\|_D.$$

In addition to catering intuitive appeal, this definition will lead to a graceful error bound.

We now derive an alternative characterization of the error metric above. Any vector  $J \in \mathfrak{R}^n$  can be decomposed into a component  $\mathcal{P}J$  that is  $D$ -orthogonal to  $e$ , and a component  $(I - \mathcal{P})J$  that is a multiple of  $e$ , where  $\mathcal{P}$  is the projection matrix defined by

$$\mathcal{P} = I - ee'D.$$

It is easily checked that

$$\mathcal{P} = I - e\pi' = I - \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} P^t.$$

This implies that  $P$  and  $\mathcal{P}$  commute (i.e.,  $P\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}P$ ). By definition of  $J^*$ , we have

$$e'DJ^* = \pi'J^* = 0.$$

It follows that  $\mathcal{P}J^* = J^*$ . Since the minimum distance of the vector  $\Phi r^* - J^*$  from the subspace  $\{ce \mid c \in \mathfrak{R}\}$  is equal to the magnitude of the projection onto the orthogonal complement of the subspace, we have

$$\inf_{c \in \mathfrak{R}} \|\Phi r^* - (J^* + ce)\|_D = \|\mathcal{P}\Phi r^* - J^*\|_D.$$

##### 4.2. A decomposition of basis functions

The projection introduced in the previous subsection can be applied to each basis function  $\phi_k$  to obtain the function  $\mathcal{P}\phi_k$ , which is  $D$ -orthogonal to  $e$ . In this subsection, we show that replacing each  $\phi_k$  by  $\mathcal{P}\phi_k$  does not change the limit to which  $TD(\lambda)$  converges or the resulting approximation error.

Recall that  $TD(\lambda)$  converges to the unique solution  $r^*$  of the equation  $\Pi T^{(\lambda)}(\Phi r^*) = \Phi r^*$ . Let

$$\bar{\Phi} = \mathcal{P}\Phi,$$

and note that  $\bar{\Phi}$  replaces  $\Phi$ , if each basis functions  $\phi_k$  is replaced by  $\mathcal{P}\phi_k$ . If  $r \neq 0$  and  $\mathcal{P}\Phi r = 0$ , then  $\Phi r$  must be a multiple of  $e$ , which is impossible by Assumption 2. Thus,  $\bar{\Phi}$  also satisfies Assumption 2. When the basis functions  $\mathcal{P}\phi_1, \dots, \mathcal{P}\phi_K$  are employed,  $TD(\lambda)$  converges to a vector  $\bar{r}$  that satisfies

$$\bar{\Pi}T^{(\lambda)}(\bar{\Phi}\bar{r}) = \bar{\Phi}\bar{r},$$

where the matrix  $\bar{\Pi}$  is defined by

$$\bar{\Pi} = \bar{\Phi}(\bar{\Phi}'D\bar{\Phi})^{-1}\bar{\Phi}'D.$$

We will now show that  $r^* = \bar{r}$ .

Using the definition of  $T^{(\lambda)}$  and the property  $e'DP = \pi'P = \pi'$ , it is easily verified that for any  $r$ ,

$$e'D(T^{(\lambda)}(\Phi r) - \Phi r) = 0.$$

By the fixed point equation  $\Pi T^{(\lambda)}(\Phi_{r^*}) = \Phi_{r^*}$ , we also have

$$\phi'_k D(T^{(\lambda)}(\Phi_{r^*}) - \Phi_{r^*}) = 0,$$

for each basis function  $\phi_k$ . It follows that for any projected basis function  $\bar{\phi}_k = \mathcal{P}\phi_k$ , there is a scalar  $c$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{\phi}'_k D(T^{(\lambda)}(\Phi_{r^*}) - \Phi_{r^*}) &= (\phi_k + ce)' D(T^{(\lambda)}(\Phi_{r^*}) - \Phi_{r^*}) \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

The fact that

$$T^{(\lambda)}(\bar{\Phi}_{r^*}) = T^{(\lambda)}(\Phi_{r^*} + \hat{c}e) = T^{(\lambda)}(\Phi_{r^*}) + \hat{c}e,$$

for some constant  $\hat{c}$ , then leads to the conclusion that

$$\bar{\phi}'_k D(T^{(\lambda)}(\bar{\Phi}_{r^*}) - \bar{\Phi}_{r^*}) = \bar{\phi}'_k D(T^{(\lambda)}(\Phi_{r^*}) - \Phi_{r^*}) = 0.$$

Hence,  $\bar{\Pi} T^{(\lambda)}(\bar{\Phi}_{r^*}) = \bar{\Phi}_{r^*}$  and  $r^* = \bar{r}$ .

### 4.3. Mixing factor

In the next subsection, we will provide a bound on the error associated with the limiting weight vector  $r^*$ . Central to the development of this bound will be a “mixing factor”, that reflects the speed with which steady state is reached.

Let  $J$  be some function defined on the state space. Mixing can be viewed as an assumption that  $E[J(i_t) | i_0]$  converges to  $E_0[J(i_t)]$  at the rate of  $\alpha^t$ , where  $\alpha$  is a “mixing factor”. Since our definition of the approximation error factors out constant offsets, and since  $(I - \mathcal{P})J$  is aligned with  $e$ , we can focus on  $E[(\mathcal{P}J)(i_t) | i_0]$ . Thus, one possible assumption could be that  $E[(\mathcal{P}J)(i_t) | i_0]$  decreases like  $\alpha^t$ , for all functions  $J$ . In terms of the transition probability matrix  $P$ , this would be captured by an assumption that  $\|\mathcal{P}P\|_D \leq \alpha$ .

For the purposes of our error bounds, we do not need every possible function  $J$  to converge rapidly to steady state. Rather, it suffices to consider only those functions that are representable by our approximation architecture, i.e., linear combinations of the basis functions  $\phi_k$ . We can capture this effect by projecting, using the projection matrix  $\bar{\Pi}$ , and placing an assumption on the induced norm  $\|\bar{\Pi}\mathcal{P}P\|_D$ , which is actually the same as  $\|\bar{\Pi}P\|_D$  since  $\bar{\Pi}\mathcal{P} = \bar{\Pi}$  (this follows from the fact that  $\bar{\Pi}$  projects onto a subspace of the range onto which  $\mathcal{P}$  projects).

Finally, it turns out that an even weaker assumption will do, using the following idea. Given any  $\delta \in (0,1)$ , we define an auxiliary Markov chain with a transition matrix  $P_\delta = I + \delta(P - I)$  and a cost function  $g_\delta = \delta g$ . The basic differential cost function for this Markov chain remains unchanged. This is because

$$\begin{aligned} \delta g - \delta \mu^* e + (I + \delta(P - I))J^* \\ = \delta(g - \mu^* e + PJ^*) + (1 - \delta)J^* = J^*. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, it is easy to show that TD(0) generates the same limit of convergence for this auxiliary Markov chain as it did for the original one. In this spirit, we can consider  $\|\bar{\Pi}P_\delta\|_D$  as the relevant mixing factor. Furthermore, since there is freedom in choosing  $\delta$ , we can obtain the tightest possible bound by minimizing over all possible choices of  $\delta$ .

For the more general case of  $\lambda \in [0,1)$ , the pertinent mixing time is that of the stochastic matrix  $P^{(\lambda)} = (1 - \lambda)\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \lambda^m P^{m+1}$ . (Note that  $P^{(0)} = P$ , which brings us back to our previous discussion concerning the case of  $\lambda = 0$ .) Similar to the context of TD(0), we define  $P_\delta^{(\lambda)} = I + \delta(P^{(\lambda)} - I)$ , and we define a scalar  $\alpha_\lambda$  for each  $\lambda \in [0,1)$  by

$$\alpha_\lambda = \inf_{\delta > 0} \|\bar{\Pi}P_\delta^{(\lambda)}\|_D.$$

(Note that here we also allow  $\delta \geq 1$ , even though the motivation in the preceding paragraph does not apply.) This mixing factor will be used to establish our error bound.

### 4.4. The error bound

We now state a theorem that provides a bound on approximation error. A proof is provided in the next subsection.

**Theorem 3.** *Let Assumptions 1 and 2 hold. For each  $\lambda \in [0,1)$ , let  $r_\lambda^* \in \mathfrak{R}^K$  be the vector satisfying*

$$\Phi_{r_\lambda^*} = \Pi T^{(\lambda)}(\Phi_{r_\lambda^*}).$$

Then:

- (a) *For each  $\lambda \in [0,1)$ , the mixing factor  $\alpha_\lambda$  is in  $[0,1)$  and  $\lim_{\lambda \uparrow 1} \alpha_\lambda = 0$ .*
- (b) *The following bound holds:*

$$\|\mathcal{P}\Phi_{r_\lambda^*} - J^*\|_D \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \alpha_\lambda^2}} \inf_{r \in \mathfrak{R}^K} \|\mathcal{P}\Phi_r - J^*\|_D.$$

Note that the bound is a multiple of

$$\inf_{r \in \mathfrak{R}^K} \|\mathcal{P}\Phi_r - J^*\|_D,$$

which is the minimal error possible given the fixed set of basis functions. This term becomes zero if there exists a parameter vector  $r$  and a scalar  $c$  for which  $\Phi_r = J^* + ce$ , that is, if our “approximation architecture” is capable of representing exactly some differential cost function.

The term  $1/\sqrt{1 - \alpha_\lambda^2}$  decreases as  $\alpha_\lambda$  decreases. Hence, the term is guaranteed to approach its optimal value of 1 as  $\lambda$  approaches 1. This suggests that larger values of  $\lambda$  may lead to lower approximation error.

#### 4.5. Proof of Theorem 3

We begin by establishing part (a) of the theorem. Since  $\alpha_\lambda$  is the infimum of a set of nonnegative reals,  $\alpha_\lambda \geq 0$ . From Lemma 2, we have  $\|P^{(\lambda)}\|_D \leq 1$  and  $P^{(\lambda)}J \neq J$  if  $J$  is not proportional to  $e$ . It follows that for any  $\delta \in (0,1)$  and any  $J$  that is not proportional to  $e$ , we have

$$\|\mathcal{P}P_\delta^{(\lambda)}J\|_D \leq \|P_\delta^{(\lambda)}J\|_D = \|\delta P^{(\lambda)}J + (1-\delta)J\|_D < \|J\|_D.$$

(The first inequality uses the nonexpansive property of projections. The last one holds because  $J$  and  $P^{(\lambda)}J$  are distinct elements of the ball  $\{J \mid \|J\|_D \leq \|J\|_D\}$ , so their strictly convex combination must lie in the interior.) Note that  $\|\mathcal{P}P_\delta^{(\lambda)}J\|_D$  is a continuous function of  $J$  and that the set  $\{J \mid \|J\|_D \leq 1\}$  is compact. It follows from Weierstrass' theorem that for any  $\delta \in (0,1)$ ,  $\|\mathcal{P}P_\delta^{(\lambda)}\|_D < 1$ . Since  $\bar{\Pi} = \bar{\Pi}\mathcal{P}$ , we then have

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_\lambda &= \inf_{\delta > 0} \|\bar{\Pi}P_\delta^{(\lambda)}\|_D \\ &\leq \inf_{\delta > 0} \|\mathcal{P}P_\delta^{(\lambda)}\|_D \leq \inf_{\delta \in (0,1)} \|\mathcal{P}P_\delta^{(\lambda)}\|_D < 1. \end{aligned}$$

As for the limit as  $\lambda$  approaches 1, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{\lambda \uparrow 1} \alpha_\lambda &= \lim_{\lambda \uparrow 1} \inf_{\delta > 0} \|\bar{\Pi}P_\delta^{(\lambda)}\|_D \\ &\leq \lim_{\lambda \uparrow 1} \|\bar{\Pi}P^{(\lambda)}\|_D \leq \lim_{\lambda \uparrow 1} \|\mathcal{P}P^{(\lambda)}\|_D. \end{aligned}$$

Assumption 1 implies that

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \|\mathcal{P}^t\|_D = 0.$$

It follows that

$$\lim_{\lambda \uparrow 1} \|\mathcal{P}P^{(\lambda)}\|_D = \lim_{\lambda \uparrow 1} \left\| (1-\lambda) \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \lambda^t \mathcal{P}^t P^{t+1} \right\|_D = 0.$$

This completes the proof for part (a).  $\square$

Let  $T_\delta^{(\lambda)} = (1-\delta)I + \delta T^{(\lambda)}$ . It is easy to see that  $T_\delta^{(\lambda)}J^* = J^*$  and  $\bar{\Pi}T_\delta^{(\lambda)}(\bar{\Phi}r_\lambda^*) = \bar{\Phi}r_\lambda^*$ . For any nonnegative scalar  $\delta$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathcal{P}\bar{\Phi}r_\lambda^* - J^*\|_D^2 &= \|\bar{\Phi}r_\lambda^* - J^*\|_D^2 \\ &= \|\bar{\Pi}T_\delta^{(\lambda)}(\bar{\Phi}r_\lambda^*) - T_\delta^{(\lambda)}J^*\|_D^2 \\ &\leq \|\bar{\Pi}T_\delta^{(\lambda)}(\bar{\Phi}r_\lambda^*) - \bar{\Pi}T_\delta^{(\lambda)}J^*\|_D^2 \\ &\quad + \|T_\delta^{(\lambda)}J^* - \bar{\Pi}T_\delta^{(\lambda)}J^*\|_D^2 \\ &= \|\bar{\Pi}P_\delta^{(\lambda)}(\bar{\Phi}r_\lambda^*) - \bar{\Pi}P_\delta^{(\lambda)}J^*\|_D^2 \\ &\quad + \|J^* - \bar{\Pi}J^*\|_D^2 \\ &\leq \|\bar{\Pi}P_\delta^{(\lambda)}\|_D^2 \|\bar{\Phi}r_\lambda^* - J^*\|_D^2 + \|J^* - \bar{\Pi}J^*\|_D^2. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\delta$  is an arbitrary nonnegative scalar, we have

$$\|\mathcal{P}\bar{\Phi}r_\lambda^* - J^*\|_D^2 \leq \alpha_\lambda^2 \|\bar{\Phi}r_\lambda^* - J^*\|_D^2 + \|J^* - \bar{\Pi}J^*\|_D^2,$$

and it follows that

$$\|\mathcal{P}\bar{\Phi}r_\lambda^* - J^*\|_D \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\alpha_\lambda^2}} \|J^* - \bar{\Pi}J^*\|_D.$$

Since

$$\|J^* - \bar{\Pi}J^*\|_D = \inf_r \|\mathcal{P}\bar{\Phi}r - J^*\|_D,$$

this completes the proof for part (b).  $\square$

#### 5. Using a fixed average cost estimate

In this section, we introduce and study a variant that employs a fixed estimate  $\mu$  of the average cost, in place of  $\mu_t$ . In particular, the parameter vector  $r_t$  is updated according to the same rule (Eq. (3)), but the definition of the temporal difference (2) is changed to

$$d_t = (g(i_t) - \mu) + \phi'(i_{t+1})r_t - \phi'(i_t)r_t.$$

Our analysis involves an additional mixing factor defined by

$$\beta_\lambda = \inf_{\delta \in [0,1]} \|\Pi P_\delta^{(\lambda)}\|_D,$$

which is similar to  $\alpha_\lambda$  but involves a projection onto the range of  $\Phi$  instead of  $\bar{\Phi}$ .

**Theorem 4.** *Under Assumptions 1–3, for any  $\lambda \in [0,1)$ , the following hold:*

- The TD( $\lambda$ ) algorithm with a fixed average cost estimate, as defined above, converges with probability 1.
- The limit of convergence  $\bar{r}_\lambda$  is the unique solution of the equation

$$\Pi T^{(\lambda)}(\Phi \bar{r}_\lambda) + \frac{\mu^* - \mu}{1-\lambda} \Pi e = \Phi \bar{r}_\lambda.$$

- For any  $\lambda \in [0,1)$ , the mixing factor  $\beta_\lambda$  is in  $[0,1)$ , and  $\lim_{\lambda \uparrow 1} \beta_\lambda = 0$ .
- The limit of convergence  $\bar{r}_\lambda$  satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathcal{P}\Phi \bar{r}_\lambda - J^*\|_D &\leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\alpha_\lambda^2}} \inf_{r \in \mathfrak{R}^k} \|\mathcal{P}\Phi r - J^*\|_D \\ &\quad + \frac{|\mu^* - \mu|}{(1-\beta_\lambda)(1-\lambda)} \|\Pi e\|_D, \end{aligned}$$

where  $\alpha_\lambda$  and  $\mathcal{P}$  are defined as in Section 5.

There are two somewhat unrelated terms involved in the bound of Theorem 4. The first term is equal to the error bound of Theorem 3, and can be viewed as error brought about by the choice of basis functions. The second term is proportional to the error in the average cost estimate. The term is also proportional to  $\|\Pi e\|_D$ , which is zero if the space spanned by the basis functions is  $D$ -orthogonal to  $e$ . The dependence on  $\lambda$  and  $\beta_\lambda$  is a little more complicated. If either  $\lambda$  or  $\beta_\lambda$  approaches one, the coefficient approaches infinity. In contrast to the discussion in the preceding section, we now have a situation where values of  $\lambda$  close to 1 cease to be preferable.



**Proof of Theorem 4.** We omit the proof of parts (a)–(c) because it is very similar to the proof of Theorems 1 and 3(a). As in the previous sections, we let  $r_\lambda^*$  denote the unique vector satisfying  $\Phi r_\lambda^* = \Pi T^{(\lambda)}(\Phi r_\lambda^*)$ . For any  $\delta \in [0,1]$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} & \|\Phi \bar{r}_\lambda - \Phi r_\lambda^*\|_D \\ &= \|(1-\delta)\Phi \bar{r}_\lambda + \delta\Phi \bar{r}_\lambda - (1-\delta)\Phi r_\lambda^* - \delta\Phi r_\lambda^*\|_D \\ &= \left\| (1-\delta)\Pi\Phi \bar{r}_\lambda + \delta\left(\Pi T^{(\lambda)}(\Phi \bar{r}_\lambda) + \frac{\mu^* - \mu}{1-\lambda}\Pi e\right) \right. \\ &\quad \left. \times \left\| -(1-\delta)\Pi\Phi r_\lambda^* - \delta\Pi T^{(\lambda)}(\Phi r_\lambda^*) \right\|_D \right\|_D \\ &= \left\| \Pi T_\delta^{(\lambda)}(\Phi \bar{r}_\lambda) + \frac{\delta(\mu^* - \mu)}{1-\lambda}\Pi e - \Pi T_\delta^{(\lambda)}(\Phi r_\lambda^*) \right\|_D \\ &\leq \|\Pi T_\delta^{(\lambda)}(\Phi \bar{r}_\lambda) - \Pi T_\delta^{(\lambda)}(\Phi r_\lambda^*)\|_D + \frac{|\mu^* - \mu|}{1-\lambda}\|\Pi e\|_D \\ &= \|\Pi P_\delta^{(\lambda)}(\Phi \bar{r}_\lambda) - \Pi P_\delta^{(\lambda)}(\Phi r_\lambda^*)\|_D + \frac{|\mu^* - \mu|}{1-\lambda}\|\Pi e\|_D \\ &\leq \|\Pi P_\delta^{(\lambda)}\|_D \|\Phi \bar{r}_\lambda - \Phi r_\lambda^*\|_D + \frac{|\mu^* - \mu|}{1-\lambda}\|\Pi e\|_D. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\delta$  is an arbitrary scalar in  $[0,1]$ , we have

$$\|\Phi \bar{r}_\lambda - \Phi r_\lambda^*\|_D \leq \beta_\lambda \|\Phi \bar{r}_\lambda - \Phi r_\lambda^*\|_D + \frac{|\mu^* - \mu|}{1-\lambda}\|\Pi e\|_D,$$

and it follows that

$$\|\Phi \bar{r}_\lambda - \Phi r_\lambda^*\|_D \leq \frac{|\mu^* - \mu|}{(1-\beta_\lambda)(1-\lambda)}\|\Pi e\|_D.$$

The desired bound then follows from Theorem 3 and the triangle inequality.  $\square$

## 6. Conclusion

We have proposed a variant of temporal-difference learning that is suitable for approximating differential cost functions, and we have established the convergence of this algorithm when applied to finite state irreducible aperiodic Markov chains. In addition, we have provided bounds on the distance of the limiting function  $\Phi r_\lambda^*$  from the space of differential cost functions. These bounds involve the expression  $\inf_r \|\mathcal{P}\Phi r - J^*\|_D$ , which is natural because no approximation could have error smaller than this expression (when the error is measured in terms of  $\|\mathcal{P}(\cdot)\|_D$ ).

It is interesting to note that even if a given Markov chain takes a long time to reach steady state, the mixing factor  $\alpha_\lambda$  may be small due to the choice of basis functions. In particular, the expected future value  $E[\phi_k(i_t)|i_0]$  of a basis function may converge rapidly even though  $E[J(i_t)|i_0]$  converges slowly for some other function  $J$ . This may partially explain why

small values of  $\lambda$  seem to lead to good approximations even with Markov chains that converge to steady state rather slowly.

On the technical side, we mention a few straightforward extensions to our results.

1. With some additional technical assumptions, the proof of Theorem 1 can be extended to the case of infinite state Markov chains where approximations are generated using unbounded basis functions. This extension has been omitted for the sake of brevity, but largely involves arguments of the same type as in (Tsitsiklis & Van Roy, 1997).
2. The linear independence of the basis functions  $\phi_k$  is not essential. In the linearly dependent case, some components of  $z_t$  and  $r_t$  become linear combinations of the other components and can be simply eliminated, which takes us back to the linearly independent case.
3. Finally, if Assumption 2(b) is removed, then our line of analysis can be used to show that  $\mathcal{P}\Phi r_t$  still converges, but  $(I - \mathcal{P}\Phi r_t)$  is aligned to  $e$  and need not converge.

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