Enhancing Q-Learning for Optimal Asset Allocation Ralph Neuneier 1997 Siemens AG, Corporate Technology

### What this paper is about

The paper is about improving an earlier version of the Q-Learning algorithm for making investment decisions across different assets. In the earlier work by Neuneier (1996), Q-Learning was used for deciding how to allocate money between just two assets, under some strict assumptions. This new version removes some of those restrictions, making it more flexible and practical for real portfolio management.

#### The main improvements

- 1. Single value function for many assets Instead of having to maintain a separate value function for each asset, the new method uses one value function that works for all. This simplifies the learning process.
- 2. Model-free policy iteration The new setup can improve its policy without needing a detailed mathematical model of the market. This means it can learn directly from experience (historical or simulated market data).
- 3. More realistic assumptions -
  - \* Before, it was assumed you could only invest in two assets; now you can handle more.
- \* Before, it assumed you always invested 100% of your money (no partial allocation) and had no risk aversion; now the method can include risk preferences.

# How portfolio management is framed

The paper treats portfolio allocation as a Markov Decision Problem (MDP). In simple terms:

- \* The state describes the current market situation and your current portfolio.
- \* The action is how you choose to reallocate your investments.
- \* The transition probabilities capture the uncertainty in how markets will change after your action.
- \* The return function tells you how much profit or loss you get.

## By putting it in this framework:

- \* Transaction costs are naturally included (because reallocating costs money).
- \* You can easily apply rules or constraints (like legal or institutional limits).
- \* You can revise your decision at every time step.

#### Why this matters

Classical portfolio optimization often works in two separate steps:

- 1. Predict expected returns and risk.
- 2. Use mean-variance optimization to decide allocations.

This paper integrates those into one learning process using reinforcement learning. That way, the system learns to make allocation decisions that directly maximize long-term returns while respecting risk preferences and costs.

### Testing and results

The original Q-Learning version was tested on the German stock index DAX and beat a simple benchmark strategy. The new version was also tested on real data, but now it can:

- \* Manage more than two assets at once.
- \* Include investor risk aversion in the decision-making.
- \* Be used as a multi-period portfolio system that adapts over time.

#### 1. Why controlling variance matters

Investors are not only interested in achieving the highest possible return; they also care about controlling risk. In finance, "risk" often refers to the variability (or volatility) of returns. Two portfolios could both have the same average return, but one might have large swings in value while the other is more stable — most investors prefer the stable one.

This idea goes back to Markowitz's portfolio theory, which says you should choose an allocation that gives the maximum expected return for a certain acceptable level of risk. In that framework:

- \* You can change how much you value returns vs. how much you want to avoid volatility by adjusting a risk preference parameter.
- \* By changing this parameter, you can generate a set of "efficient portfolios" each with the least risk possible for a given expected return.

## 2. Risk-adjusted Markov Decision Processes (MDPs)

In the Q-Learning and reinforcement learning context, portfolio management is framed as a Markov Decision Process (MDP). An MDP has states (market + portfolio), actions (how to reallocate), and rewards (returns after costs).

The paper extends this into risk-adjusted MDPs by modifying the objective:

- \* Instead of maximizing just the expected return, they maximize a risk-adjusted return the expected return minus a penalty based on the variance of that return.
- \* The more you care about reducing risk, the larger this penalty parameter becomes.
- \* This approach handles multi-period investment decisions naturally, includes transaction costs, and can respect constraints like minimum or maximum trade sizes and legal allocation limits.

This is more powerful than classical portfolio theory because it works over time and can incorporate real-world frictions.

### 3. The problem with directly computing variance in RL

In theory, if you wanted to perfectly compute the risk of a strategy (variance of returns), you would have to calculate how the variance evolves across time steps. The problem is that variance doesn't fit neatly into the recursive Bellman equation that reinforcement learning normally uses.

Because of that, standard RL methods can't directly optimize for variance in the same way they optimize for expected returns.

- 4. Two practical ways to control risk in RL-based portfolios
- 4.1 Using a variance-penalizing return function

One workaround is to design the reward function so that it already penalizes volatility.

- \* For example, the Sharpe ratio is a popular measure: it divides the mean return by the standard deviation of returns. A higher Sharpe ratio means you're getting more return per unit of risk.
- \* Some researchers, like Moody, have built RL training procedures that directly optimize the Sharpe ratio. Limitation: The Sharpe ratio penalizes all volatility, even "good" volatility from large gains. That means it doesn't distinguish between upside and downside fluctuations.

#### 4.2 Using a non-linear utility function (risk aversion)

Another approach is to use a non-linear utility function that reflects risk aversion — the common human preference where each extra dollar gained feels less valuable than the last, and losses hurt more than equivalent gains. In this setup:

- \* Gains still improve the reward, but each new gain adds less to the total "utility" than the previous one.
- \* Losses are punished more strongly, which naturally encourages strategies with smoother equity curves.

One example given is using the logarithm of the ratio between new portfolio value and old portfolio value as the reward:

- \* This rewards growth, but at a diminishing rate.
- \* Large losses hurt disproportionately, steering the policy toward more stable allocations.

By training Q-Learning with such a utility function, the resulting Q-values can produce more moderate, balanced investment actions — instead of always pushing toward high-risk, high-return extremes.

# 5. Practical effect on strategies

When a risk-adjusted approach is used:

- \* You can generate portfolios that are "efficient" for different levels of risk preference.
- \* If you set the risk aversion low, the algorithm will take more aggressive positions.
- \* If you set it high, the algorithm will choose safer allocations, even if that means sacrificing some return.
- \* The approach works for multi-period decisions, so the algorithm considers how risk accumulates over time, not just in a single trade.

#### 6. Conclusion and future directions

The paper's improvements to Q-Learning bring it closer to bridging the gap between traditional finance theory and adaptive, machine-learning-based portfolio management.

They propose:

- 1. The deterministic intermediate step (from earlier sections) to handle multiple assets efficiently.
- 2. Risk-adjusted Q-Learning methods to control portfolio volatility while still aiming for high returns.

Future work mentioned includes:

- \* Finding ways to directly estimate and optimize the variance of a policy in reinforcement learning without needing complex models.
- \* Using approximation methods and variational techniques to make risk computation more explicit and efficient.
- \* Applying these techniques in a European research project to build a real decision support system for strategic asset allocation.