Policy Iterations for Reinforcement Learning Problems in Continuous Time and Space — Fundamental Theory and Methods

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Abstract

Policy iteration (PI) is a recursive process of policy evaluation and improvement for solving an optimal decision-making/control problem, or in other words, a reinforcement learning (RL) problem. PI has also served as the fundamental to develop RL methods. In this paper, we propose two PI methods, called differential PI (DPI) and integral PI (IPI), and their variants to solve a general RL problem in continuous time and space (CTS), with the environment modeled by a system of ordinary differential equations (ODEs). The proposed methods inherit the current ideas of PI in classical RL and optimal control and theoretically support the existing RL algorithms in CTS: TD-learning and value-gradient-based (VGB) greedy policy update. We also provide case studies including 1) discounted RL and 2) optimal control tasks. Fundamental mathematical properties — admissibility, uniqueness of the solution to the Bellman equation, monotone improvement, convergence, and optimality of the solution to the Hamilton-Jacobi-Bellman equation (HJBE) — are all investigated in-depth and improved from the existing theory, along with the general and case studies. Finally, the proposed ones are simulated with an inverted-pendulum model and their model-based and partially model-free implementations to support the theory and further investigate them.

Key words: policy iteration, reinforcement learning, optimization under uncertainties, continuous time and space, iterative schemes, adaptive systems

1 Introduction

Policy iteration (PI) is a class of approximate dynamic programming (ADP) for recursively solving an optimal decision-making/control problem by alternating between policy evaluation to obtain the value function (VF) w.r.t. the current policy (a.k.a. the current control law in control theory) and policy improvement to improve the policy by optimizing it using the obtained VF (Sutton and Barto, 2018; Lewis and Vrabie, 2009). PI was first proposed by Howard (1960) in a stochastic environment known as the Markov decision process (MDP) and has served as a fundamental principle to develop RL methods, especially in an environment modeled or approximated by an MDP in discrete time and space. Finite-time convergence of PIs towards the optimal solution has been proven in a finite MDP, and the forward-in-time computation of PI like the other ADP methods alleviates the problem known as the curse of dimensionality (Powell, 2007). A discount factor $\gamma \in [0, 1]$ is normally introduced to both PI and RL to suppress the future reward and thereby have a finite return. Sutton and Barto (2018) give a comprehensive overview of PI and RL algorithms with their practical applications and recent success.

On the other hand, the dynamics of a real physical task is in the majority of cases modeled as a system of (ordinary) differential equations (ODEs) inevitably in continuous time and space (CTS). PI has also been studied in such a continuous domain mainly under the framework of deterministic optimal control, where the optimal solution is characterized by the partial differential Hamilton-Jacobi-Bellman (HJB) equation (HJBE). However, an HJBE is extremely difficult or hopeless to be solved analytically, except for a very few exceptional cases. PI in this field is often referred to as successive approximation of the HJBE (to recursively solve it!), and the main difference among them lies in their policy evaluation — the earlier versions of PI solve the associated differential Bellman equation (BE) (a.k.a. Lyapunov or Hamiltonian equation) to obtain the VF for the target pol-
such a stabilizing policy without knowing the dynamics partially model-free, but it is hard or even impossible to find policy needs to be asymptotically stable to run the PI method in the bounded region around an equilibrium state, provided that stabilizes the dynamics and yield finite returns (at least on a 2002) to ensure that the generated policies all asymptotically were all designed via Lyapunov’s stability theory (Khalil, 2002). Similar restrictions exist in optimal tracking problems that can be transformed into equivalent optimal regulation problems (e.g., see Modares and Lewis, 2014).

In this paper, we consider a general RL framework in CTS, where reasonably minimal assumptions were imposed — 1) the global existence and uniqueness of the state trajectories, 2) (whenever necessary) continuity, differentiability, and/or existence of maximum(s) of functions, and 3) no assumption on the discount factor $\gamma \in (0, 1]$ — to include a broad class of problems. The RL problem in this paper not only contains those in the RL literature (e.g., Doya, 2000; Mehta and Meyn, 2009; Frémaux et al., 2013) in CTS but also considers the cases beyond stability framework (at least theoretically), where state trajectories can be still bounded or even diverge (Proposition 2.2; §5.4; §G.2 and G.3 in Appendices (Lee and Sutton, 2020a)). It also includes input-constrained and unconstrained problems presented in both RL and optimal control literature as its special cases.

Independent of the research on PI, several RL methods have come to be proposed in CTS based on RL ideas in the discrete domain. Advantage updating was proposed by Baird III (1993) and then reformulated by Doya (2000) under the environment represented by a system of ODEs; see also Tallec, Blier, and Ollivier (2019)’s recent extension of advantage updating using deep neural networks. Doya (2000) also extended TD($\lambda$) to the CTS domain and then combined it with his proposed policy improvement methods such as the value-gradient-based (VGB) greedy policy update. See also Frémaux et al. (2013)’s extension of Doya (2000)’s continuous actor-critic with spiking neural networks. Mehta and Meyn (2009) proposed Q-learning in CTS based on stochastic approximation. Unlike in MDP, however, these RL methods were rarely relevant to the PI methods in CTS due to the gap between optimal control and RL — the proposed PI methods bridge this gap with a direct connection to TD learning in CTS and VGB greedy policy update (Doya, 2000; Frémaux et al., 2013). The investigations of the ADP for the other RL methods remain as a future work or see our preliminary result (Lee and Sutton, 2017).

1.1 Main Contributions

In this paper, the main goal is to build up a theory on PI in a general RL framework, from the ideas of PI in classical RL and optimal control, when the time domain and the state-action space are all continuous and a system of ODEs models

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1 The term “partially model-free” in this paper means that the algorithm can be implemented using some partial knowledge (i.e., the input-coupling terms) of the dynamics.

2 For an example of a dynamics with no equilibrium state, see (Haddad and Chellaboina, 2008, Example 2.2).
the environment. As a result, a series of PI methods are proposed that theoretically support the existing RL methods in CTS: TD learning and VGB greedy policy update. Our main contributions are summarized as follows.

(1) Motivated by the PI methods in optimal control, we propose a model-based PI named differential PI (DPI) and a partially model-free PI called IPI, in our general RL framework. The proposed schemes do not necessarily require an initial stabilizing policy to run and can be considered a sort of fundamental PI methods in CTS.

(2) By case studies that contain both discounted RL and optimal control frameworks, the proposed PI methods and theory for them are simplified, improved, and specialized, with strong connections to RL and optimal control in CTS.

(3) Fundamental mathematical properties for PI (and ADP) — admissibility, uniqueness of the solution to the BE, monotone improvement, convergence, and optimality of the solution to the HJBE — are all investigated in-depth along with the general and case studies. Optimal control case studies also examine the stability properties of PI. As a result, the existing properties for PI in optimal control are improved and rigorously generalized.

Simulation results for an inverted-pendulum model are also provided with the model-based and partially model-free implementations to support the theory and further investigate the proposed methods under an admissible (but not necessarily stabilizing) initial policy, with the strong connections to `bang-bang control' and 'RL with simple binary reward,' both of which are beyond the scope of our theory. Here, the RL problem in this paper is formulated stability-free (which is well-defined under the minimal assumptions), so that the (initial) admissible policy is not necessarily stabilizing in the theory and the proposed PI methods to solve it.

1.2 Organizations

This paper is organized as follows. In §2, our general RL problem in CTS is formulated along with mathematical backgrounds, notations, and statements related to BEs, policy improvement, and the HJBE. In §3, we present and discuss the two main PI methods (i.e., DPI and IPI) and their variants, with strong connections to the existing RL methods in CTS. We show in §4 the fundamental properties of the proposed PI methods: admissibility, uniqueness of the solution to the BE, monotone improvement, convergence, and optimality of the solution to the HJBE. Those properties in §4 and the Assumptions made in §§2 and 4 are simplified, improved, and relaxed in §5 with the following case studies: 1) concave Hamiltonian formulations (§5.1); 2) discounted RL with bounded VF/reward (§5.2); 3) RL problem with local Lipschitzness (§5.3); 4) nonlinear optimal control (§5.4). In §6, we discuss and provide the simulation results of the main PI methods. Finally, conclusions follow in §7.

Due to space limitations, appendices are published separately (Lee and Sutton, 2020a). It provides related works (§A), a summary of notations and terminologies (§B), details on the theory and implementations (§C–E, and H), a pathological example (§F), additional case studies (§G), and all the proofs (§I). Throughout the paper, any section starting with an alphabet as above will indicate a section in the appendix (Lee and Sutton, 2020a).

1.3 Notations and Terminologies

The following notations and terminologies will be used throughout the paper (see §B for a complete list of notations and terminologies, including those not listed below). In any mathematical statement, iff stands for “if and only if” and s.t. for “such that.” “≈” indicates the equality relationship that is true by definition.

(Sets, vectors, and matrices). \(\mathbb{N}\) and \(\mathbb{R}\) are the sets of all natural and real numbers, respectively. \(\mathbb{R}^{n \times m}\) is the set of all \(n\)-by-\(m\) real matrices. \(A^T\) is the transpose of \(A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}\). \(\mathbb{R}^n\) and \(\mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}\) denote the \(n\)-dimensional Euclidean space. \(\|x\|\) is the Euclidean norm of \(x \in \mathbb{R}^n\), i.e., \(\|x\| = (x^T x)^{1/2}\).

(Euclidean topology). Let \(\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n\). \(\Omega\) is said to be compact iff it is closed and bounded. \(\partial \Omega\) denotes the interior of \(\Omega\); \(\partial \Omega\) is the boundary of \(\Omega\). If \(\Omega\) is open, then \(\Omega \cup \partial \Omega\) (resp. \(\Omega\) is called an \(n\)-dimensional manifold with (resp. without) boundary. A manifold contains no isolated point.

(Functions, sequences, and convergence). A function \(f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m\) is said to be \(C^1\), denoted by \(f \in C^1\), iff all of its first-order partial derivatives exist and are continuous over the interior \(\Omega^o\); \(\nabla f : \Omega^o \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}\) denotes the gradient of \(f\). A sequence of functions \(\langle f_i \rangle_{i=1}^\infty\), abbreviated by \(\langle f_i \rangle\) or \(f_i\), is said to converge locally uniformly iff for each \(x \in \Omega\), there is a neighborhood of \(x\) on which \(f_i\) converges uniformly. For any two functions \(f_1, f_2 : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow [-\infty, \infty]\), we write \(f_1 \leq f_2\) iff \(f_1(x) \leq f_2(x)\) for all \(x \in \mathbb{R}^n\).

2 Preliminaries

Let \(\mathcal{X} \ni \Omega\) be the state space and \(\mathbb{T} \ni [0, \infty)\) be the time space. An \(m\)-dimensional manifold \(\mathcal{U} \subset \mathbb{R}^m\) with or without boundary is called an action space. We also denote \(\mathcal{X}^T \ni \mathbb{R}^{1 \times t}\) for notational convenience. The environment in this paper is described in CTS by a system of ODEs:

\[
\dot{X}_t = f(X_t, U_t), \quad U_t \in \mathcal{U}
\]

where \(t \in \mathbb{T}\) is time instant, \(\mathcal{U} \subset \mathbb{R}^m\) is an action space, and the dynamics \(f : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}\) is a continuous function; \(X_t, \dot{X}_t \in \mathcal{X}\) denote the state vector and its time derivative, at time \(t\), respectively; the action trajectory \(t \rightarrow U_t\) is a continuous function from \(\mathbb{T}\) to \(\mathcal{U}\). We assume that \(t = 0\) is the initial time without loss of generality\(^3\) and that

\(^3\) If the initial time \(t_0\) is not zero, then proceed with the time variable \(t' = t - t_0\), which satisfies \(t' = 0\) at the initial time \(t = t_0\).
Assumption. The state trajectory \( t \mapsto X_t \) is uniquely defined over the entire time interval \( T \). \(^4\)

A policy \( \pi \) refers to a continuous function \( \pi : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{U} \) that determines the state trajectory \( t \mapsto X_t \) by \( U_t = \pi(X_t) \) for all \( t \in T \). For notational efficiency, we employ the \( G \)-notation \( \mathbb{G}_t^x \), which means the value \( Y \) when \( X_0 = x \) and \( U_t = \pi(X_t) \) for all \( t \in T \). Here, \( \mathbb{G} \) stands for “Generator,” and \( \mathbb{G}_t^x \) can be thought of as the corresponding notation of the expectation \( \mathbb{E}_x \cdot \cdot \cdot \) in the RL literature (Sutton and Barto, 2018), without playing any stochastic role. Note that the limits and integrals are exchangeable with \( \mathbb{G}_t^x \cdot \cdot \cdot \) in order (whenever those limits and integrals are defined for any \( X_0 \in \mathcal{X} \) and any action trajectory \( t \mapsto U_t \)). For example, for any continuous function \( v : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R} \),

\[
\mathbb{G}_x^t \left[ \int v(X_t) \, dt \right] = \int \mathbb{G}_x^t [v(X_t)] \, dt = \int v(\mathbb{G}_t^x [X_t]) \, dt,
\]

where the three mean the same: \( \int v(X_t) \, dt \) when \( X_0 = x \) and \( U_t = \pi(X_t) \) \( \forall t \in T \). Also note: \( \mathbb{G}_x^t [U_t] = \mathbb{G}_t^x [\pi(X_t)] \).

Finally, the time-derivative \( \dot{v} : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{U} \to \mathbb{R} \) of a \( C^1 \) function \( v : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R} \) is given by \( \dot{v}(X_t, U_t) = \nabla v(X_t) f(X_t, U_t) \) — applying the chain rule and (1). Here, \( X_t \in \mathcal{X} \) and \( U_t \in \mathcal{U} \) are free variables, and \( \dot{v} \) is continuous since so is \( f \).

2.1 RL problem in Continuous Time and Space

The RL problem considered in this paper is to find the best policy \( \pi \), that maximizes the infinite horizon value function (VF) \( v_\pi : \mathcal{X} \to [-\infty, \infty) \) defined as

\[
v_\pi(x) = \mathbb{G}_x^{\infty} \left[ \int_0^\infty \gamma^t R_t \, dt \right],
\]

where the reward \( R_t \) is determined by a continuous reward function \( r : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{U} \to \mathbb{R} \) as \( R_t = r(X_t, U_t) \); \( \gamma \in (0, 1] \) is the discount factor. Throughout the paper, the attenuation rate

\[
\alpha \doteq - \ln \gamma \geq 0
\]

will be used interchangeably for simplicity. For a policy \( \pi \), we denote \( f_\pi(x) \doteq f(x, \pi(x)) \) and \( r_\pi(x) \doteq r(x, \pi(x)) \), which are continuous as so are \( f \), \( r \), and \( \pi \) by definitions.

Assumption. A maximum of the reward function \( r \):

\[
r_{\max} \doteq \max \left\{ r(x, u) : (x, u) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{U} \right\}
\]

exists and for \( \gamma = 1 \), \( r_{\max} = 0 \). \(^5\)

Note that the integrand \( t \mapsto \gamma^t R_t \) is continuous since so are \( t \mapsto X_t \), \( t \mapsto U_t \), and \( R_t \). So, by the above assumption on \( r \), the time integral and thereby \( v_\pi \) in (2) are well-defined in the Lebesgue sense (Folland, 1999, Chapter 2) over \([-\infty, \infty) \) and as shown below, uniformly upper-bounded.

Lemma 2.1 There exists a constant \( \overline{v} \in \mathbb{R} \) s.t. \( v_\pi \leq \overline{v} \) for any policy \( \pi \); \( \overline{v} = 0 \) for \( \gamma = 1 \) and otherwise, \( \overline{v} = r_{\max}/\alpha \).

By Lemma 2.1, the VF is always less than some constant, but it is still possible that \( v_\pi(x) = -\infty \) for some \( x \in \mathcal{X} \). In this paper, the finite VFs are characterized by the notion of admissibility given below.

Definition. A policy \( \pi \) (or its VF \( v_\pi \) ) is said to be admissible, denoted by \( \pi \in \Pi_a \) (or \( v_\pi \in \mathcal{V}_a \)), iff \( v_\pi(x) \) is finite for all \( x \in \mathcal{X} \). Here, \( \Pi_a \) and \( \mathcal{V}_a \) denote the sets of all admissible policies and admissible VFs, respectively.

To make our RL problem feasible, we assume:

Assumption. There exists at least one admissible policy, and every admissible VF is \( C^1 \). (3)

The following proposition gives a criterion for admissibility and boundedness.

Proposition 2.2 A policy \( \pi \) is admissible if there exist a function \( \rho : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R} \) and a constant \( \kappa < \alpha \), both possibly depending on the policy \( \pi \), such that

\[
\forall x \in \mathcal{X} : \ e^{\kappa t} \cdot \rho(x) \leq \mathbb{G}_x^t [R_t] \quad \forall t \in T.
\]

Moreover, \( v_\pi \) is bounded if so is \( \rho \).

Remark. The criterion (4) means that the reward \( R_t \) under \( \pi \) does not diverge to \(-\infty \) exponentially with the rate \( \alpha \) or higher. For \( \gamma = 1 \) (i.e., \( \alpha = 0 \), it means exponential convergence \( R_t \to 0 \). The condition (4) is fairly general and so satisfied by the examples in \S\textsuperscript{5.2}, G.2, and G.3.

2.2 Bellman Equations with Boundary Condition

Define the Hamiltonian function \( h : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{U} \times \mathcal{X}^T \to \mathbb{R} \) as

\[
h(x, u, \pi) = r(x, u) + p f(x, u)
\]

which is continuous as so are \( f \) and \( r \) and the \( \gamma \)-discounted cumulative reward \( \mathcal{R}_\eta \) up to a given time horizon \( \eta > 0 \) as

\[
\mathcal{R}_\eta = \int_0^\eta \gamma^t \cdot R_t \, dt
\]

as a short-hand notation. The following lemma then shows the equivalence of the Bellman-like (in)equalities.

Lemma 2.3 Let \( \sim \) be a binary relation on \( \mathbb{R} \) that belongs to \( \{=, \leq, \geq\} \) and \( v : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R} \) be \( C^1 \). Then, for any policy \( \pi \),

\[
v(x) \sim \mathbb{G}_x^\infty \left[ \mathcal{R}_\eta + \gamma^\eta \cdot v(X_\eta) \right]
\]

holds for all \( x \in \mathcal{X} \) and all horizon \( \eta > 0 \) iff

\[
\alpha \cdot v(x) \sim h(x, \pi(x), \nabla v(x)) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}.
\]

\(^4\) Not imposed on our problem for generality but strongly related to this global existence of the unique state trajectory \( t \mapsto X_t \) is Lipschitz continuity of \( f \) and \( f_\pi \) (Khalil, 2002, Theorems 3.1 and 3.2); see also \S\textsuperscript{5.3} for related discussions to this.

\(^5\) If \( r_{\max} \neq 0 \) and \( \gamma = 1 \), then, proceed with the reward function \( r'(x, u) \doteq r(x, u) - r_{\max} \) whose maximum is now zero.
By splitting the time-integral in (2) at \( \eta > 0 \), we can easily see that the VF \( v_\pi \) satisfies the Bellman equation (BE):
\[
v_\pi(x) = G_\pi^x [\mathcal{R}_\eta + \gamma \pi \cdot v_\pi(X_\eta)]
\]
(8)
that holds for any \( x \in \mathcal{X} \) and \( \eta > 0 \). Assuming \( v_\pi \in \mathcal{V}_\pi \) and using (8), we obtain its boundary condition at \( \eta = \infty \).

**Proposition 2.4** Suppose that \( \pi \) is admissible. Then,
\[
\lim_{t \to \infty} G_\pi^x [\gamma^t \cdot v_\pi(X_t)] = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}.
\]
By the application of Lemma 2.3 to the BE (8) under (3), the following differential BE holds whenever \( \pi \in \Pi_\pi \):
\[
\alpha \cdot v_\pi(x) = h(x, \pi(x), \nabla v_\pi(x)),
\]
(9)
where the function \( x \mapsto h(x, \pi(x), \nabla v_\pi(x)) \) is continuous since so are the associated functions \( h, \pi, \) and \( \nabla v_\pi \). Whenever necessary, we call (8) the integral BE to distinguish it from the differential BE (9).

In what follows, we state that the boundary condition (12), the counterpart of that in Proposition 2.4, is actually necessary and sufficient for a solution \( v \) of the BE (10) or (11) to be equal to the corresponding VF \( v_\pi \) and ensure \( \pi \in \Pi_\pi \).

**Theorem 2.5 (Policy Evaluation)** Fix the horizon \( \eta > 0 \) and suppose there exists a function \( v : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R} \) s.t. either of the followings holds for a policy \( \pi \):

1. \( v(x) = G_\pi^x [\mathcal{R}_\eta + \gamma \pi \cdot v_\pi(X_\eta)] \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X} \); (10)
2. \( v(x) \in C^1 \) and satisfies the differential BE:
\[
\alpha \cdot v(x) = h(x, \pi(x), \nabla v(x)) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}.
\]
(11)
Then, \( \pi \) is admissible and \( v = v_\pi \) iff
\[
\lim_{k \to \infty} G_\pi^x [\gamma^k \cdot v(X_k)] = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}.
\]
(12)
For sufficiency, the boundary condition (12) can be replaced with inequality on \( v \) and \( \pi \) under certain conditions on \( v \), as shown in §C. This sufficient condition is particularly related to the optimal control framework in §5.4 but applicable to any case in this paper as an alternative to (12) (see §C).

**2.3 Policy Improvement**

Define a partial order among policies: \( \pi \preceq \pi' \) iff \( v_\pi \leq v_{\pi'} \). Then, we say that a policy \( \pi' \) is improved over \( \pi \) iff \( \pi \preceq \pi' \).

In CTS, the Bellman inequality (13) for \( v = v_\pi \) ensures this policy improvement over an admissible policy \( \pi \) as shown below. The inequality becomes the BE (9) when \( \pi = \pi' \).

**Lemma 2.6** If \( v \in C^1 \) is upper-bounded (by zero if \( \gamma = 1 \)) and satisfies for a policy \( \pi' \)
\[
\alpha \cdot v(x) \leq h(x, \pi'(x), \nabla v(x)) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X},
\]
(13)
then \( \pi' \) is admissible and \( v \preceq v_{\pi'} \).

In what follows, for the existence of a maximally improving policy, we assume on the Hamiltonian function \( h \):

**Assumption.** There exists a function \( u_* : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}^T \to \mathcal{U} \) such that \( u_* \) is continuous and
\[
u_*(x,p) \in \arg \max_{u \in \mathcal{U}} h(x,u,p) \quad \forall (x,p) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}^T.
\]
(14)
Here, (14) simply means that for each \( (x,p) \), the function \( u \mapsto h(x,u,p) \) has its maximum at \( u_* (x,p) \) \( \in \mathcal{U} \). Then, for any admissible policy \( \pi \), there exists a continuous function \( \pi' : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{U} \) such that
\[
\pi' (x) \in \arg \max_{u \in \mathcal{U}} h(x,u,\nabla v_\pi(x)) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}.
\]
(15)
We call such a continuous function \( \pi' \) a `maximal policy` (over \( \pi \in \Pi_\pi \)). Given \( u_* \), we can directly obtain a maximal policy \( \pi' \) by
\[
\pi' (x) = u_* (x, \nabla v_\pi(x)).
\]
(16)
In general, there may exist multiple maximal policies, but if \( u_* \) in (14) is `unique`, then \( \pi' \) satisfying (15) is `uniquely` given by (16). For non-affine optimal control problems, Leake and Liu (1967) and Bian, Jiang, and Jiang (2014) imposed assumptions similar to the above Assumption on \( u_* \) plus its uniqueness. Here, the existence of \( u_* \) is ensured if \( \mathcal{U} \) is compact; \( u_* \) is unique if the function \( u \mapsto h(x,u,p) \) is strictly concave and \( C^1 \) for each \( (x,p) \) — see §D for more studies; for such case examples, see §5.1; Cases 1 and 2 in §6.

**Theorem 2.7 (Policy Improvement)**

Suppose \( \pi \) is admissible. Then, the policy \( \pi' \) given by (15) is also admissible and satisfies \( \pi \preceq \pi' \).

2.4 Hamilton-Jacobi-Bellman Equation (HJBE)

Under the Assumptions made so far, the optimal solution of the RL problem can be characterized via the HJBE (17):
\[
\alpha \cdot v_* (x) = \max_{u \in \mathcal{U}} h(x,u,\nabla v_*) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}
\]
(17)
and the associated policy \( \pi_* : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{U} \) such that
\[
\pi_* (x) \in \arg \max_{u \in \mathcal{U}} h(x,u,\nabla v_*) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X},
\]
(18)
both of which are the key to prove the convergence of PIs towards the optimal solution \( v_* \) and \( \pi_* \) in §4. Note that once a \( C^1 \) solution \( v_* : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R} \) to the HJBE (17) exists, then so does a continuous function (i.e., a policy) \( \pi_* \) satisfying (18) by the Assumption on the existence of a continuous function \( u_* \) satisfying (14) and is given by
\[
\pi_* (x) = u_* (x, \nabla v_*) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X},
\]
(19)
In what follows, we show that satisfying the HJBE (17) and (18) is necessary for \( (v_*, \pi_*) \) to be optimal over the entire admissible space.

**Theorem 2.8** If there exists an optimal policy \( \pi_* \) whose VF \( v_* \) satisfies \( v \preceq v_* \) for any \( v \in \mathcal{V}_\pi \), then \( v_* \) and \( \pi_* \) satisfy the HJBE (17) and (18), respectively.
There may exist another optimal policy \( \pi'_t \) than \( \pi_\ast \), but their VFs are always the same by \( \pi_\ast \equiv \pi'_t \) and \( \pi'_e \not\equiv \pi_\ast \) and equal to a solution \( v_\ast \) to the HJBE (17) by Theorem 2.8. In this paper, if exist, \( \pi_\ast \) denotes any one of the optimal policies, and \( v_\ast \) is the unique common VF for them which we call the optimal VF. In general, they denote a solution \( v_\ast \) to the HJBE (17) and an associated HJB policy \( \pi_\ast \), s.t. (18) holds (or if specified, an associated function \( \pi_\ast \), satisfying (18)).

**Remark 2.9** The reward function \( r \) has to be appropriately designed in such a way that the function \( u \mapsto h(x,u,p) \) for each \( (x,p) \) at least has a maximum (so that (14) holds for some \( u_\ast \)). Otherwise, the maximal policy \( \pi'_e \) in (15) and/or the solution \( v_\ast \) to the HJBE (17) (and accordingly, \( \pi_\ast \) in (18)) may not exist since neither do the maxima in those equations; such a pathological example is given in §6F for a simple non-affine dynamics \( f \). In §5, we revisit this issue and propose a technique applicable to a class of non-affine RL problems to ensure the existence and continuity of \( u_\ast \).

The optimality of the HJB solution \( (v_\ast, \pi_\ast) \) is investigated more in §6, e.g., the sufficient conditions and case studies, in connection with the PIs presented in the next section.

### 3 Policy Iterations

Now, we are ready to state the two main PI schemes, DPI and IPI. Here, the former is a model-based approach, and the latter is a partially model-free PI. Their simplified (partially model-free) versions discretized in time will be also discussed after that. Until §6, we present and discuss those PI schemes in an ideal sense without introducing any function approximator, such as neural network, and any discretization in the state space.  

**3.1 Differential Policy Iteration (DPI)**

Our first PI, named differential policy iteration (DPI), is a model-based PI scheme extended from optimal control to our RL problem (e.g., see Leake and Liu, 1967; Beard et al., 1997; Abu-Khalaf and Lewis, 2005). Algorithm 1 describes the whole procedure of DPI — it starts with an initial admissible policy \( \pi_0 \) (line 1) and performs policy evaluation and improvement until \( v_i \) and/or \( \pi_i \) converges (lines 2–5). In policy evaluation (line 3), the agent solves the differential BE (20) to obtain the VF \( v_i = v_{\pi_{i-1}} \) for the last policy \( \pi_{i-1} \). Then, \( v_i \) is used in policy improvement (line 4) to obtain the next policy \( \pi_i \) by maximizing the associated Hamiltonian function in (21). Here, if \( v_i = v_\ast \), then \( \pi_i = \pi_\ast \) by (18) and (21).

Basically, DPI is model-based (see the definition (5) of \( h \)) and does not rely on any state trajectory data. On the other hand, its policy evaluation is closely related to TD learning methods in CTS (Doya, 2000; Frémaux et al., 2013). To see this, note that (20) can be expressed w.r.t. \( (X_t, U_t) \) as \( G_{\pi_{i-1}}(\delta_i(v)) = 0 \) for all \( x \in \mathcal{X} \) and \( t \in T \), where \( \delta_i \) denotes the TD error defined as

\[
\delta_i(v) = R_i + v(X_t, U_t) - \alpha \cdot v(X_t)
\]

for any \( C^1 \) function \( v : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \). Frémaux et al. (2013) used \( \delta_i \) as the TD error in their model-free actor-critic and approximated \( v \) and the model-dependent part \( \delta_i \) with a spiking neural network. \( \delta_i \) is also the TD error in TD(0) in CTS (Doya, 2000), where \( \delta_i(X_t, U_t) \) is approximated by \( (v(X_t) - v(X_{t-\Delta t})) / \Delta t \) in backward time, for a sufficiently small time step \( \Delta t \) chosen within the time interval \((0, \alpha^{-1})\): under the above approximation of \( \delta_i \), \( \delta_i(v) \) can be expressed in a similar form to the TD error in discrete-time as

\[
\delta_i(v) \approx R_i + \gamma_i \cdot V(X_t) - V(X_{t-\Delta t}) \tag{22}
\]

for \( V \equiv v / \Delta t \) and \( \gamma_i \equiv 1 - \alpha \Delta t \approx e^{-\alpha \Delta t} = \gamma^\Delta t \). Here, the discount factor \( \gamma_i \) belongs to \((0, 1)\) if so is \( \gamma \), thanks to \( \Delta t \in (0, \alpha^{-1}) \), and \( \gamma_i = 1 \) whenever \( \gamma = 1 \). In summary, the policy evaluation of DPI is a process to solve the ideal BE corresponding to the existing TD learning methods in CTS (Doya, 2000; Frémaux et al., 2013).

**3.2 Integral Policy Iteration (IPI)**

Algorithm 2 describes the second PI, integral policy iteration (IPI), whose difference from DPI is that (20) and (21) in the policy evaluation and improvement are replaced by (23) and (24), respectively. The other steps are the same as DPI, except that the time horizon \( \eta > 0 \) is initialized (line 1) before the main loop.

In policy evaluation (line 3), IPI solves the integral BE (23) for a given fixed horizon \( \eta > 0 \) without using the explicit knowledge of the dynamics \( f \) of the system (1) — there are no explicit terms of \( f \) in (23), and the information on the dynamics \( f \) is implicitly captured by the state trajectory.

---

**Algorithm 1: Differential Policy Iteration (DPI)**

1. **Initialize:**
   \[ \pi_0, \text{ an initial admissible policy; } \]
   \[ i \leftarrow 1, \text{ iteration index; } \]
2. **repeat**
   3. **Policy Evaluation:** given \( \pi_{i-1} \), find a \( C^1 \) function \( v_i : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) satisfying the differential BE:
      \[ \alpha \cdot v_i(x) = h(x, \pi_{i-1}(x), \nabla v_i(x)) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}; \tag{20} \]
   4. **Policy Improvement:** find a policy \( \pi_i \) such that
      \[ \pi_i(x) = \arg \max_{u \in \mathcal{U}} h(x,u,v_i(x)) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}; \tag{21} \]
   5. \[ i \leftarrow i + 1; \]
3. **until convergence is met.**
data \{X_t: 0 \leq t \leq \eta\} generated under \(\pi_{t-1}\) at each \(t\)th step for a number of initial states \(X_0 \in \mathcal{X}\). Note that by Theorem 2.5, solving the integral BE (23) for a fixed \(\eta > 0\) and its differential version (20) in DPI are equivalent (as long as \(v_i\) satisfies the boundary condition (29) in §4).

In policy improvement (line 4), we consider the decomposition (25) of the dynamics of \(f\):

\[
f(x, u) = f_d(x) + f_c(x, u),
\]

where \(f_d: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}\) called a drift dynamics is independent of the action \(u\) and assumed unknown, and \(f_c: \mathcal{X} \times U \rightarrow \mathcal{X}\) is the corresponding input-coupling dynamics assumed known a priori;\footnote{There are an infinite number of ways of choosing \(f_d\) and \(f_c\); one typical choice is \(f_d(x) = f(x, 0)\) and \(f_c(x, u) = f(x, u) - f_d(x)\).} both \(f_d\) and \(f_c\) are assumed continuous. Since the term \(\nabla v_i(x)f_d(x)\) does not contribute to the maximization with respect to \(u\), policy improvement (15) can be rewritten under the decomposition (25) as

\[
\pi'(x) \in \arg \max_{u \in U} \left[ r(x, u) + \nabla v_i(x)f_c(x, u) \right] \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \tag{26}
\]

by which the policy improvement (line 4) of Algorithm 2 is directly obtained. Note that the policy improvement (24) in Algorithm 2 and (26) are partially model-free, i.e., the maximizations do not depend on the unknown drift dynamics \(f_d\).

The policy evaluation and improvement of IPI are completely and partially model-free, respectively. Thus the whole procedure of Algorithm 2 is partially model-free, i.e., it can be done even when a drift dynamics \(f_d\) is completely unknown. In addition to this partially model-free nature, the horizon \(\eta > 0\) in IPI can be any value — it can be large or small — as long as the cumulative reward \(R_\eta\) has no significant error when approximated in practice. In this sense, the time horizon \(\eta\) plays a similar role as the number \(n\) in the \(n\)-step TD predictions in discrete-time (Sutton and Barto, 2018). Indeed, if \(\eta = n\Delta t\) for some \(n \in \mathbb{N}\) and a sufficiently small \(\Delta t > 0\), then by the forward-in-time approximation \(R_\eta \approx G_n \cdot \Delta t\), where

\[
G_n = R_0 + \gamma \cdot R_{\Delta t} + \gamma^2 \cdot R_{2\Delta t} + \cdots + \gamma^{n-1} \cdot R_{(n-1)\Delta t}
\]

and \(\gamma = \gamma^\Delta t \in (0, 1]\), the integral BE (23) is expressed as

\[
V_i(x) \approx G^n_{\pi_{t-1}} \left[ G_n + \gamma^n \cdot V_i(X_{\Delta t}) \right], \quad \tag{27}
\]

where \(V_i \approx v_i/\Delta t\). We can also apply a higher-order approximation of \(R_\eta\) — for instance, under the trapezoidal approximation, we have

\[
V_i(x) \approx G^n_{\pi_{t-1}} \left[ R_0 + \gamma \cdot V_i(X_{\Delta t}) \right] \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \tag{28}
\]

a similar TD expression to the BE in discrete-time (Sutton and Barto, 2018) and the TD error (22) in CTS.

### 3.3 Variants with Time Discretizations

As discussed in §§3.1 and 3.2 above, the BEs in DPI and IPI can be discretized in time in order to

1. approximate \(\hat{v}_i = \nabla v_i \cdot f\) in DPI, model-free;
2. calculate the cumulative reward \(R_\eta\) in IPI;
3. yield TD formulas similar to the BEs in discrete-time.

For instance, for a sufficiently small \(\Delta t\), the discretized BE corresponding to DPI and TD(0) in CTS (Doya, 2000) is:

\[
V_i(x) \approx \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left[ R_{\Delta t} + \gamma \cdot V_i(X_{\Delta t}) \right] \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X},
\]

where \(V_i \approx v_i/\Delta t\). The discretized BE for IPI is obviously of the form (28) for \(n = 1\) and (27) for \(n > 1\) (or one of the BEs with a higher-order approximation of \(R_\eta\)); if the integral BE (8) is discretized with a trapezoidal approximation for \(n = 1\), then we also have

\[
V_i(x) \approx \mathbb{E}_{\pi} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \left( R_0 + \gamma \cdot V_i(X_{\Delta t}) \right) \right] \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}.
\]

Combining any one of those BEs, discretized in time, with the following policy improvement:

\[
\pi'(x) \in \arg \max_{u \in U} \left[ r(x, u) + \Delta t \cdot \nabla V_i(x)f_c(x, u) \right] \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X},
\]

where \(\Delta t \cdot \nabla V_i\) replaces \(\nabla v_i\) in (26), we can further obtain a partially model-free variant of the proposed PI methods. For example, a one-step IPI variant (\(n = 1\)) is shown in §5.2 (when the reward or initial VF is bounded). These variants are practically important since they contain neither \(\hat{v}_i\) nor \(V_i\) (both of which depend on the full-dynamics \(f\)) nor the cumulative reward \(R_\eta\) (which has been approximated out in the variants of IPI). As these variants are approximate versions of DPI and IPI, they also approximately satisfy the
same properties as DPI and IPI shown in the subsequent sections.

4 Fundamental Properties of Policy Iterations

This section shows the fundamental properties of DPI and IPI — admissibility, the uniqueness of the solution to each policy evaluation, monotone improvement, and convergence (towards an HJB solution). We also discuss the optimality of the HJB solution (§§4.2 and E.1) based on the convergence properties of PIs. In any mathematical statements, \((v_i)\) and \(\langle \pi_i \rangle\) denote the sequences of the solutions to the BEs and the policies, both generated by Algorithm 1 or 2 under:

Boundary Condition. If \(\pi_{i-1}\) is admissible, then
\[
\lim_{t \to \infty} G^x_{\pi_{i-1}} \left[ \gamma^t \cdot v_i(X_t) \right] = 0 \quad \forall x \in X. \tag{29}
\]

Theorem 4.1 \(\pi_{i-1}\) is admissible and \(v_i = v_{\pi_{i-1}} \forall i \in \mathbb{N} \). Moreover, the policies are monotonically improved, that is,
\[
\pi_0 \preceq \pi_1 \preceq \cdots \preceq \pi_{i-1} \preceq \pi_i \preceq \cdots .
\]

Theorem 4.2 (Convergence) Denote \(\hat{v}_\pi(x) \doteq \sup_{\pi \in \Pi} v_{\pi}(x)\). Then, \(\hat{v}_\pi\) is lower semicontinuous; \(v_i \to \hat{v}_\pi\) a. pointwise; b. uniformly on \(\Omega \subset X\) if \(\Omega\) is compact and \(\hat{v}_\pi\) is continuous over \(\Omega\): c. locally uniformly if \(\hat{v}_\pi\) is continuous.

In what follows, \(\hat{v}_\pi\) always denotes the converging function \(\hat{v}_\pi(x) = \sup_{\pi \in \Pi} v_{\pi}(x) = \lim_{i \to \infty} v_i(x)\) in Theorem 4.2.

4.1 Convergence towards \(v_*\) and \(\pi_*\)

Now, we provide convergence \(v_i \to v_*\) to a solution \(v_*\) to the HJBE (17). One core technique is to use the PI operator \(\mathcal{T} : \mathcal{V}_\pi \to \mathcal{V}_\pi\) defined on the space \(\mathcal{V}_\pi\) of admissible VFs as
\[
\begin{align*}
\mathcal{T} v_{\pi_{i-1}} &\doteq v_{\pi_{i-1}} \quad \text{for any } i \in \mathbb{N}; \\
\mathcal{T} v_{\pi} &\doteq v_{\pi'} \quad \text{for any } v_{\pi'} \in \mathcal{V}_\pi,
\end{align*}
\]
where \(\pi'\) is a maximal policy over the given policy \(\pi \in \Pi_\pi\). Let \(\mathcal{T}^N\) be the \(N\)th recursion of \(\mathcal{T}\) defined as \(\mathcal{T}^0 v = v\) and \(\mathcal{T}^N v = \mathcal{T}^{N-1} [\mathcal{T} v]\) for \(v \in \mathcal{V}_\pi\). Then, the VF sequence \(\langle v_i \rangle\) satisfies \(\mathcal{T}^N v_i = v_{i+1}\) for all \(N \in \mathbb{N}\).

In what follows, we denote \(v^*\) a (unique) fixed point of \(\mathcal{T}\).

Proposition 4.3 If \(v^*\) is a fixed point of \(\mathcal{T}\), then \(v^* = v_*\), i.e., \(v^*\) is a solution to the HJBE (17).

By Proposition 4.3, convergence \(v_i \to v^*\) implies that \(\langle v_i \rangle\) converges towards a solution \(v_*\) to the HJBE (17). In what follows, we first show the convergence \(v_i \to v^*\) under:

Assumption 4.4 \(\mathcal{T}\) has a unique fixed point \(v^*\).

Theorem 4.5 Under Assumption 4.4, there exists a metric \(d : \mathcal{V}_\pi \times \mathcal{V}_\pi \to [0, \infty)\) such that \(\mathcal{T}\) is a contraction (and thus continuous) under \(d\) and \(v_i \to v^*\) in the metric \(d\).

Theorem 4.5 shows the convergence \(v_i \to v^*\) in a metric \(d\) under which \(\mathcal{T}\) is continuous. However, there is no information about which metric it is. In what follows, we focus on locally uniform convergence, in connection to Theorem 4.2. Let \(d_\Omega\) be a pseudometric on \(\mathcal{V}_\pi\) defined for \(\Omega \subseteq X\) as
\[
d_\Omega(v, w) = \sup \{|v(x) - w(x)| : x \in \Omega\} \quad \text{for } v, w \in \mathcal{V}_\pi.
\]
Then, uniform convergence \(v_i \to v^*\) on \(\Omega\) becomes equivalent to convergence \(v_i \to v^*\) in the pseudometric \(d_\Omega\).

Theorem 4.6 Suppose \(\hat{v}_\pi \in \mathcal{V}_\pi\) and for each compact subset \(\Omega\) of \(X\), \(\mathcal{T}\) is continuous under \(d_\Omega\). If Assumption 4.4 is true, then \(v_i \to v^*\) locally uniformly and \(v^* = \hat{v}_\pi\).

The convergence condition in Theorem 4.6 comes from Leake and Liu (1967)’s approach that is now extended to our RL framework. The next theorem is motivated by the convergence results of PIs for optimal control of input-affine dynamics (Saridis and Lee, 1979; Beard et al., 1997; Murray et al., 2002; Abu-Khalaf and Lewis, 2005; Vrabie and Lewis, 2009) and provides the conditions for stronger convergence towards \(v_*\) and \(\pi_*\).

Assumption 4.7 For each \(x \in X\), the argmax-correspondence \(p \mapsto \arg \max_{u \in U} h(x, u, p)\) has a closed graph. That is, for each \(x \in X\) and any sequence \(\langle p_k \rangle\) in \(X^T\) converging to \(p_*\),
\[
\left\{ \begin{array}{l}
u_k \in \arg \max_{u \in U} h(x, u, p_k) \\
\lim_{k \to \infty} u_k = u_* \in U
\end{array} \right. \implies \nu_k \in \arg \max_{u \in U} h(x, u, p_*).
\]

Assumption 4.8 \(\langle v_i \rangle\) converges locally uniformly; \(\langle \pi_i \rangle\) converges pointwise.

Theorem 4.9 Under Assumptions 4.7 and 4.8, \(\hat{v}_\pi\) is a solution to the HJBE (17) such that \(\nu_* \in C^1\) and
\[
\begin{align*}
(1) \quad v_i \to \nu_*, \nabla v_i \to \nabla \nu_* \quad \text{both locally uniformly}; \\
(2) \quad \pi_i \to \pi_* \quad \text{pointwise, for a function } \pi_* \quad \text{satisfying (18)}.
\end{align*}
\]

Remark 4.10 If the argmax-set is a singleton (so the maximal function \(\nu_*\) satisfying (14) is unique), then Assumption 4.7 is equivalent to the continuity of \(p \mapsto u_*(x, p)\) for each \(x \in X\) and thus implied by the continuity of \(u_*\) (assumed in §2.3!) — for such examples, see §5.1.1 and G.3. In this particular case, \(\pi_*\) in Theorem 4.9 is uniquely given by (19) and thus continuous (i.e., \(\pi_*\) is a policy).

In summary, we have established the following convergence properties:
\[
\begin{align*}
(1) \quad &\text{convergence } v_i \to v_* \text{ in a metric} \\
(2) \quad &\text{locally uniform convergence } v_i \to v_*; \\
(3) \quad &\text{locally uniform convergence } \nabla v_i \to \nabla v_* \text{ and} \\
&\text{pointwise convergence } \pi_i \to \pi_*.
\end{align*}
\]
under certain conditions and the minimal assumptions made in this section and §2.

(Weak/Strong Convergence) Theorem 4.5 ensures weak convergence (C1) under Assumption 4.4 only; Theorem 4.6 gives strong convergence (C2) but with additional conditions — continuity of $T$ in the uniform pseudometric $d_{\Omega}$ and convergence $v_i (= \lim_{i \to \infty} v_i)$ in $\mathcal{V}_2$. We note that

1. the unique fixed point $u^*$ therein and in Assumption 4.4 is a solution $v_\star$ to the HJBE (17) (Proposition 4.3);
2. whenever (C2) is true, both $u^*$ and $v_\star$ are characterized by Theorem 4.2 as $v^\star(x) = v^\star(x) = \sup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} v_i(x)$.

(Stronger Convergence) By Theorem 4.9, if a PI converges in a way described therein, then under Assumption 4.7, it does with stronger convergence properties (C2) and (C3) for $v_\star = \hat{v}_\star \in C^1$, wherein the limit function $\hat{v}_\star (= \lim_{i \to \infty} v_i)$ becomes a solution $v_\star$ to the HJBE (17). In this case,

1. $T$ is never used, hence no assumption is imposed on $T$;
2. the limit function $\pi_\star$ is not guaranteed to be a policy due to its possible discontinuity;
3. the concave Hamiltonian formulation in §5.1 ensures $\pi_i \to \pi_\star$ locally uniformly for a policy $\pi_\star$, with both Assumptions 4.7 and 4.8b relaxed (e.g., Theorem 5.1).

4.2 Optimality: Sufficient Conditions

For each type of convergence above, we provide a sufficient condition for $v_\star$ in the HJBE (17) to be optimal in the sense that for any given initial admissible policy $\pi_0, u_i \to v_\star$ in the respective manner with monotonicity $v_i \leq v_{i+1} \forall i \in \mathbb{N}$. For the optimality of $v_\star$, the stronger convergence, (C2) and (C3), we additionally assume that:

Assumption 4.11 The solution $v_\star$ to the HJBE (17), if exists, is unique over $C^1$ and upper-bounded (by zero if $\gamma = 1$).

Due to space limitation, those sufficient conditions for optimality and related discussions are presented in §E.1.

5 Case Studies

With strong connections to RL and optimal control in CTS, this section studies the special cases of the general RL problem formulated in §2. In those case studies, the proposed PI methods and theory for them are simplified and improved as summarized in Table 1. The blanks in Table 1 are filled with “Assumed” or, in simplified policy improvement sections, “No.” The connections to stability theory in optimal control are also made in this section. The optimality of the HJB solution $(v_\star, \pi_\star)$ for each case is studied and summarized in §E.2; more case studies are given in §G.

For simplicity, we let $f^x(u) \equiv f(x, u)$ and $r^x(u) \equiv r(x, u)$ for $x \in \mathcal{X}$. Both $f^x$ and $r^x$ are continuous for each $x$ since so are $f$ and $r$. The mathematical terminologies employed in this section are given in §B, with a summary of notations.

5.1 Concave Hamiltonian Formulations

Here, we study the special settings of the reward function $r$, which make the function $u \to h(x, u, p)$ strictly concave and $C^1$ (after some input-transformation in the cases of non-affine dynamics). In these cases, policy improvement maximizations (14), (15), and (18) become convex optimizations whose solutions exist and are given in closed-forms. We will see that this dramatically simplifies the policy improvement itself and strengthen the convergence properties. Although we focus on certain classes of dynamics — the input-affine and then a class of non-affine ones — the idea is extendible to a general nonlinear system of the form (1) (see §G.1 for such an extension).

5.1.1 Case I: Input-affine Dynamics

First, consider the following case: for each $x \in \mathcal{X},$

1. $f^x$ is affine, i.e., the input-coupling term $f_c(x, u)$ in the decomposition (25) is linear in $u$, so that the dynamics $f$ can be represented for a matrix-valued continuous function $F_c : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ as

$$f(x, u) = f_d(x) + F_c(x)u;$$

(30)

2. $r^x$ is strictly concave and represented by

$$r(x, u) = r(x) - c(u)$$

(31)

for a continuous function $r : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ and a strictly convex $C^1$ function $c : \mathcal{U} \to \mathbb{R}$ whose gradient $\nabla c$ is surjective, i.e., $\nabla c(\mathcal{U}^0) = \mathbb{R}^m$. Here, $\mathcal{U}^0$ is the interior of $\mathcal{U}$; both $r$ and $-c$ are assumed to have their respective maximums.

This framework includes those in (Rekasius, 1964; Beard et al., 1997; Doya, 2000; Abu-Khalaf and Lewis, 2005; Vrabie and Lewis, 2009; Lee, Park, and Choi, 2015) as special cases; it still contains a broad class of dynamics such as Newtonian dynamics (e.g., robot manipulation and vehicle models). In this case, the function $u \to h(x, u, p)$ is strictly concave and $C^1$ (see the definition (5)). Hence, as mentioned in §2.3 (see §D for the behind theory), the unique maximal function $u_\star \equiv u_\star(x, p)$ satisfying (14) corresponds to the unique regular point $\bar{u} \in \mathcal{U}^0$ s.t. $-\nabla c(\bar{u}) + p F_c(x) = 0$, where the gradient $\nabla c^T : \mathcal{U}^0 \to \mathbb{R}^m$ is strictly monotone and bijective on its domain $\mathcal{U}^0$ (see §L.3). Rearranging it w.r.t. $\bar{u}$, we obtain the closed-form solution $u_\star$ of (14):
and IPI (and their variants) shown in §3 as

**Policy Improvement**: update the next policy \( \pi_i \) by

\[
\pi_i(x) = \sigma(F_C^T(x)\nabla v_i^T(x)).
\] (34)

Similarly, the HJB policy \( \pi_s \) satisfying (18) is also uniquely given by (19) and (32), i.e., \( \pi_s(x) = \sigma(F_C^T(x)\nabla v_s^T(x)) \), under (30) and (31). Moreover, Theorem 4.9 can be simplified and strengthened by relaxing the assumptions on the policies and policy improvement as follows.

**Theorem 5.1** Under (30), (31), and Assumption 4.8a, \( \dot{v}_s \) is a solution \( v_s \) to the HJBIE (17) such that \( v_s \in C^1 \) and \( v_i \rightarrow v_s, \nabla v_i \rightarrow \nabla v_s, \) and \( \pi_i \rightarrow \pi_s \), all locally uniformly.

**Remark 5.2** Assumption 4.8a is necessary for convergence in Theorem 5.1 and, in fact, so are similar uniform convergence assumptions on \( \langle \nabla v_i \rangle \) for convergence given in the existing literature on PIs for optimal control (e.g., Saridis and Lee, 1979; Beard et al., 1997; Murray, Cox, and Saeks, 2003; Abu-Khalaf and Lewis, 2005; Bian et al., 2014 to name a few). This is due to the fact that even the uniform convergence of \( v_i \) (e.g., Theorem 4.2c) implies nothing about the convergence of its gradient \( \nabla v_i \); it cannot even ensure the differentiability of the limit function \( \dot{v}_s \) (Rudin, 1964; Thomson, Bruckner, and Bruckner, 2001). Here, Assumption 4.8a or any type of uniform convergence of \( \langle \nabla v_i \rangle \) is by no means trivial to prove, and thus its relaxation remains as a future work (even in the optimal control frameworks in the existing literature, which are similar to that in §5.4 under (30)–(31), to the best authors’ knowledge).

One way to effectively take the input constraints into consideration is to construct the action space \( \mathcal{U} \) as

\[
\mathcal{U} = \{ u \in \mathbb{R}^m : |u_j| \leq u_{\text{max},j}, 1 \leq j \leq m \},
\]

where \( u_j \in \mathbb{R} \) is the \( j \)-th element of \( u \), and \( u_{\text{max},j} \in (0, \infty) \) is the corresponding physical constraint. In this case, \( c \) in (31) can be chosen as

\[
c(u) = \lim_{\nu \to 0} \int_0^\nu (s^T)^{-1}(u) \cdot \Gamma du \quad (35)
\]

for a positive definite matrix \( \Gamma \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m} \) and a continuous function \( s : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^m \) that is strictly monotone, odd, and bijective and makes \( c(u) \) in (35) finite at any point \( u \) on the boundary \( \partial \mathcal{U} \). This formulation gives the closed-form expression \( \sigma(u) = (\nabla v_i^T)^{-1} (u) = s(\Gamma^{-1} u) \) and includes the sigmoidal examples (Cases 1 and 2) in §6 as special cases — see also (Doya, 2000; Abu-Khalaf and Lewis, 2005) for similar sigmoidal examples. Another well-known example is the unconstrained problem:

\[
\mathcal{U} = \mathbb{R}^m, \quad u_{\text{max},j} = \infty \quad \text{for each } j \quad \text{and} \quad s(u) = u/2, \quad (36)
\]

by which (35) becomes \( c(u) = u^T \Gamma u \); the LQR case in §G.3 with \( E = 0 \) shows such an example.

**Remark 5.3** Once \( r^e \) is strictly concave for each \( x \in \mathcal{X} \), the reward function \( r \) can be always represented as

\[
r(x, u) = r(x) - c(x, u), \quad (37)
\]

where \( r \) and \( c \) are continuous and have a maximum and a minimum, respectively; for each \( x \in \mathcal{X} \), \( c^x = c(x, \cdot) \) is strictly convex. In this general case, if \( c^x \) for each \( x \in \mathcal{X} \)
satisfies the same properties as \( e \) in (31), then the unique maximal function \( u_* \) and the maximal policy \( \pi' \) over \( \pi \in \Pi_a \) can be obtained in the same way to (32) and (33) as

\[
\begin{align*}
    u_*(x, p) &= \sigma^x \left( F^T_e(x) p^T \right) \\
    \pi'(x) &= \sigma^x \left( F^T_e(x) \nabla v^T_e(x) \right)
\end{align*}
\]

(38)

for \( \sigma^x \equiv \left( \nabla v^T_e(x) \right)^T \). In addition, if \( (x, u) \rightarrow \sigma^x(u) \) is continuous, then Theorem 5.1 (specifically, Lemma I.7 in §I.3) can be generalized with \( \sigma \) replaced by \( \sigma^x \). Some examples of such \( \sigma^x \) are as follows.

1. \( \Gamma \) in (35) is a continuous function over \( \mathcal{X} \). In this case, \( \sigma^x \) is given by \( \sigma^x(u) = s(\Gamma^{-1}(x) \cdot u) \).

2. In the LQR setting (§G.3), \( \sigma^x(u) = \Gamma^{-1}(u/2 - E^T x) \) and whenever \( E = 0 \), \( \sigma^x(u) = \sigma(u) = \Gamma^{-1} u/2 \).

5.1.2 Case II: a Class of Non-affine Dynamics

If \( f^x \) is not affine, then the choice of the reward function \( r \) is critical. Provided in §F is such an example, where a choice of \( r \) in the form of (31) and (35) fails to give closed-form solutions to policy improvement and the HJBE (17); such a choice of \( r \) results in a pathological Hamiltonian \( h \) in the unconstrained case (see §F for details).

Such a pathological case and difficulty, on the other hand, can be avoided for the non-affine dynamics \( f \) of the form:

\[
f(x, u) = f_d(x) + F_e(x) \varphi(u),
\]

(39)

where \( \varphi: \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m \) is a continuous function from the action space \( \mathcal{U} \) to another action space \( \mathcal{A} \) and has its inverse \( \varphi^{-1}: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{U} \) between the interiors. Note that (39) corresponds to the decomposition (25) with the input-coupling part \( f_d(x, u) = F_e(x) \varphi(u) \) and includes the non-affine dynamics (30) as a special case \( \varphi(u) = u \) and \( \mathcal{A} = \mathcal{U} \).

Motivated by Kimars, Kang, and Lewis (2016), we propose to set the reward function \( r \) under (39) as

\[
r(x, u) = t(x) - e(\varphi(u)),
\]

(40)

where \( t: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) and \( e: \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) are functions that satisfy the properties of \( t \) and \( e \) in (31) but w.r.t. the action space \( \mathcal{A} \) in place of \( \mathcal{U} \). Under (39) and (40), the proposed PIs have the following properties, extended from §I.1.1 (e.g., Theorem 5.1), although the argument-set "argmax_{u \in \mathcal{U}} h(x, u, p)" in this case may not be a singleton (another maximizer may exist on the boundary \( \partial \mathcal{U} \)). For notational simplicity, we denote \( \sigma(u) = \varphi^{-1}(\sigma(x)) \) in the theorem below.

**Theorem 5.4** Under (39) and (40), a. a maximal policy \( \pi' \) over \( \pi \in \Pi_a \) is given by \( \pi'(x) = \hat{\sigma}(F^T_e(x) \nabla v^T_e(x)) \) explicitly; b. if the policies are updated in policy improvement by

\[
\pi_i(x) = \hat{\sigma}(F^T_e(x) \nabla v^T_i(x)),
\]

(41)

then under Assumption 4.8a, \( \pi_i \) is a solution \( v_i \) to the HJBE (17) s.t. \( v_i \in C^1 \) and \( v_i \rightarrow v_* \), \( \nabla v_i \rightarrow \nabla v_* \), and \( \pi_i \rightarrow \pi_* \), all locally uniformly, where \( \pi_i(x) = \hat{\sigma}(F^T_e(x) \nabla v^T_i(x)) \).

Similarly to Remark 5.3, the results are extendible to the general case where \( \varphi \) and/or \( e \) depend on the state \( x \in \mathcal{X} \).

5.2 Discounted RL with Bounded VF

Boundedness of a VF is stronger than admissibility. Likewise, when discounted, a bounded VF has stronger properties than admissible ones. One example is continuity stated in the next proposition; the extension to the general cases \( \gamma = 1 \) and/or \( v_* \in V_* \) is by no means trivial.

**Proposition 5.5** Suppose that \( f_\pi \) is locally Lipschitz and that \( \gamma \in (0, 1) \). Then, \( v_* \) is continuous if \( v_* \) is bounded.

Continuity is a necessary condition to be \( C^1 \). In the RL problem formulation in §2, we have assumed the \( C^1 \)-regularity (3) and thereby continuity on every admissible VF, but no proof was provided regarding them; Proposition 5.5 above bridges this gap when the VF is discounted and bounded. In this case, the boundary condition (12) is also true.

**Proposition 5.6** If \( v: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) is bounded and \( \gamma \in (0, 1) \), then \( v \) satisfies the boundary condition (12) for any policy \( \pi \).

Moreover, when the VF is discounted and bounded, the BE (10) (resp. (11)) has the unique solution \( v = v_* \) over all bounded (resp. bounded \( C^1 \)) functions, and the boundedness is preserved under the policy improvement operation.

**Corollary 5.7** Let \( \gamma \in (0, 1) \) and \( \pi \) be a policy. Then;

1. if there exists a bounded function \( v \) satisfying the integral BE (10) or with \( v \in C^1 \), the differential BE (11), then \( v_* \) is bounded (hence, admissible) and \( v = v_* \);

2. if \( v_* \) is bounded (hence, admissible), then so is \( v_* \) and we have \( \pi \equiv \pi' \), where \( \pi' \) is a maximal policy over \( \pi \).

**Algorithm 3**: Variants of IPI and DPI with Bounded \( v_{\pi_0} \)

1. Initialize: \( \Delta t > 0 \), a small time step \( (0 < \Delta t < 1) \);
   \( i \leftarrow 1 \);
2. repeat (under \( \gamma \in (0, 1) \))
3. **Policy Evaluation**: given policy \( \pi_{i-1} \), find a bounded \( C^1 \) function \( V_i: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) such that for all \( x \in \mathcal{X} \),
   - (IPI Variant): \( V_i(x) \approx \int_{x_{i-1}}^x \left[ R_0 + \gamma_a \cdot V_i(x_{i}) \right] \);  
   - (DPI Variant): for \( \alpha_d \equiv \alpha \Delta t = (-ln \gamma_d) \), \( \alpha_d \cdot V_i(x) = h(x, \pi_{i-1}(x), \Delta t \cdot \nabla V_i(x)) \);
4. **Policy Improvement**: find a policy \( \pi_i \) s.t. for all \( x \in \mathcal{X} \),
   \( \pi_i(x) \in \arg \max_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \{ r(x, u) + \Delta t \cdot \nabla V_i(x) f_e(x, u) \} \);
   \( i \leftarrow i + 1 \);
5. until convergence is met.
In fact, if the reward function $r$ is bounded, then so is the VF for any given policy (so long as the state trajectory $t \mapsto X_t$ exists); hence the above results become stronger as follows.

**Assumption 5.8** $r$ is bounded and $\gamma \in (0, 1)$.

**Corollary 5.9** Under Assumption 5.8, the followings hold for any given policy $\pi$ and any maximal policy $\pi'$ over $\pi$:

1. $v_\pi$ and $v_{\pi'}$ are bounded (hence, admissible); $\pi \leq \pi'$;

2. $v_\pi$ is continuous if $f_\pi$ is locally Lipschitz;

3. if a bounded function $v$ satisfies the integral BE (10) or with $v \in C^1$, the differential BE (11), then $v = v_\pi$.

For a given policy $\pi$, the VF properties in Corollary 5.9 are also true when $r_\pi$ (but not necessarily $r$) is bounded (see the proof of Corollary 5.9 in §3). In this case (and the general cases where $v_\pi$ is bounded somehow), Proposition 5.5, Corollary 5.7, and mathematical induction show that the above results become stronger as follows.

**Corollary 5.10** $\pi'$ and $\pi_\ast$ are bounded somewhrough $v_\pi$ (e.g., see Khalil, 2002, Example 3.3). To circumvent this finite-time explosion issue, we set $v_\pi(x)$ to “$-\infty$” whenever $t_{\max}(x; \pi)$ is finite, that is, redefine $v_\pi$ as

$$v_\pi(x) = \begin{cases} \mathbb{G}^\pi_x \left[ \int_0^{t_{\max}(x; \pi)} \gamma^t \cdot R_t \ dt \right] & \text{if } t_{\max}(x; \pi) = \infty, \\ -\infty, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Here, existence and uniqueness of the state trajectories were not assumed; $t_{\max}(x; \pi)$ and thus $v_\pi$ in (42) are well-defined as long as $\pi \in \Pi_{\text{Lip}}$. Hence, with slight abuse of notation, we restrict the admissible sets $\Pi_a$ and $\mathcal{V}_a$ by redefining them as

$$\Pi_a = \{ \pi \in \Pi_{\text{Lip}} : v_\pi(x) \text{ is finite for all } x \in \mathcal{X} \}$$

$$\mathcal{V}_a = \{ v_\pi : \pi \in \Pi_a \}.$$

Note that for each $x \in \mathcal{X}$, the value $v_\pi(x)$ is finite and the state trajectory $t \mapsto \mathbb{G}^\pi_x \left[ X_t \right]$ is defined uniquely over $\mathbb{T}$ if $\pi \in \Pi_a$ or $v_\pi \in \mathcal{V}_a$. This global existence of the unique state trajectories was assumed in the general RL problem formulated in §2 but now is encapsulated by admissibility.

In what follows, we provide the policy improvement theorem extended from Theorem 2.7, without assuming any existence and uniqueness of the state trajectories, but under

**Assumption.** $\mathcal{V}_a \subset C^1_{\text{Lip}}$

to ensure the maximal policy $\pi' \in \Pi_{\text{Lip}}$ whenever $v_\pi \in \mathcal{V}_a$.

**Theorem 5.10 (Policy Improvement)** If there exist a compact subset $\Omega \subset \mathcal{X}$ and $K_\infty$ functions $\rho_1$, $\rho_2$ such that for a policy $\pi \in \Pi_a$,

$$\rho_1(\|x\|_\Omega) \leq v - v_\pi(x) \leq \rho_2(\|x\|_\Omega) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X},$$

where $\|x\|_\Omega \equiv \inf_{y \in \Omega} \|x - y\|$, then $\pi' \in \Pi_a$ and $\pi \leq \pi'$.
5.4 Nonlinear Optimal Control

The objective of optimal control is to stabilize the system (1) w.r.t. a given equilibrium point \((x_e, u_e)\) while minimizing a given cost functional. Here, any point in \(X \times U\) such that \(\dot{x}_e = f(x_e, u_e) \equiv 0\) is called an equilibrium point \((x_e, u_e)\); it can be transformed to \((0, 0)\) and thus let \((x_e, u_e) = (0, 0)\) without loss of generality (Khalil, 2002) and assume that \(f(0, 0) = 0\). Note that if a policy \(\pi\) satisfies \(\pi(0) = 0\), then we have \(0 = f_\pi(0)\), i.e., \(x_e = 0\) is an equilibrium point of the system (1) under \(\pi\).

The optimal control framework in this subsection is a particular case of the locally Lipschitz RL problem in §5.3 above. Hence, we impose the same assumptions on it: the local Lipschitzness of the locally Lipschitz RL problem in \(\pi\) the system (1) under we have without loss of generality (Khalil, 2002) and assume that \(f(0, 0) = 0\). On the other hand, we define a class of policies \(\Pi\) given by

\[
\Pi_v = \{\pi \in \Pi_\text{lip} : v_\pi(x) \text{ is finite for all } x \in X\}
\]

and, with slight abuse of notation, redefine \(\Pi_a\) and \(\Pi_v\) by

\[
\Pi_0 = \{\pi \in \Pi_\text{lip} : \pi(0) = 0\}
\]

\[
\Pi_a = \{\pi \in \Pi_0 : v_\pi(x) \text{ is finite for all } x \in X\}
\]

\[
\Pi_v = \{v_\pi : \pi \in \Pi_v\}
\]

Here, we have merely added the condition \(\pi(0) = 0\) into the definitions of \(\Pi_a\) and \(\Pi_v\) in §5.3. With these notations, \(x_e = 0\) comes to be an equilibrium point of the system (1) under \(\pi \in \Pi_0\) (\(\pi \in \Pi_a\)).

Similarly to §5.3, this subsection does not assume existence and uniqueness of the state trajectories; \(\pi \in \Pi_0\) ensures global existence of the unique state trajectories under \(\pi\). In addition, the boundary conditions (12) and (29) are not assumed but either proven or replaced by those corresponding to Theorem C.1 in §C (e.g., see Theorem 5.16).

Whenever necessary, we use the cost functions \(c, c_\pi\), \(c_v\), \(c_\pi\), \(c_{\pi_v}\), \(c_{\pi_v}\), and \(c_{\pi_v}\), rather than \(\pi\), \(\pi_v\), \(\pi_v\), \(\pi_v\), respectively, for simplicity and consistency to optimal control; the cost at time \(t \in T\) is denoted by \(C_t \equiv c(X_t, U_t) = -R_\epsilon\).

We consider a positive definite cost function \(c, i.e., assume

\[
c(x, u) > 0 \quad \forall (x, u) \neq (0, 0), \quad \text{and } c(0, 0) = 0.
\]

Then, by (43) and the definition, the value \(J_\pi(x)\) is always restricted to \([0, \infty]\) and, similarly to (42), \(J_\pi(x) = \infty\) whenever \(t_{\text{max}}(x; \pi) < \infty\); otherwise, \(J_\pi(x) = \sum_{\gamma} \int_{0}^{\infty} \gamma t C_t \, dt\).

Lemma 5.11 \(c_\pi\) for \(\pi \in \Pi_0\) is positive definite.

Lemma 5.12 Let \(\pi \in \Pi_a\). Then, \(\alpha J_\pi(x, \pi(x))\) is negative semidefinite if

\[
\alpha J_\pi \leq c_\pi\quad (44)
\]

and \(x \mapsto J_\pi(x, \pi(x))\) is negative definite if

\[
\alpha J_\pi(x) < c_\pi(x) \quad \forall x \in X \setminus \{0\}.
\]

In what follows, we assume that \(c_\pi\) for any \(\pi \in \Pi_0\) does not radially converge to zero, i.e.,

\[
c_\pi(x) \neq 0 \quad \text{whenever } \|x\| \to \infty.
\]

Given the conditions in Lemma 5.12, \(J_\pi\) is, in fact, a Lyapunov function for the dynamics \(\dot{x} = f_\pi(x)\) (Khalil, 2002), as shown in the Lyapunov stability theorem below.

Theorem 5.13 The equilibrium point \(x_e = 0\) of dynamics \(f_\pi\) under \(\pi \in \Pi_a\) is stable if (44) holds, asymptotically stable if (45) is true, and globally asymptotically stable if \(\gamma = 1\) or, in addition to (45), \(J_\pi\) is radially unbounded.

Remark 5.14 Whenever \(\gamma = 1\), (45) is true since \(\alpha = 0\) and \(c_\pi\) is positive definite by Lemma 5.11. Hence, admissibility directly implies global asymptotic stability by Theorem 5.13 (here, the radial unboundedness of \(J_\pi\) is not assumed!).

Next, we show that global asymptotic stability ensures the uniqueness of the solution to the BEs.

Theorem 5.15 (Policy Evaluation) Let \(x_e = 0\) under \(\pi \in \Pi_0\) be globally asymptotically stable. If there exists a function \(v : X \to \mathbb{R}\) s.t. \(v\) is continuous at 0, \(v(0) = 0\), and the BE (10) or, with \(v \in C^1\), (11) holds, then \(\pi \in \Pi_a\) and \(v = v_\pi\).

The uniqueness of the solution to the BE can be also given under another condition than stability. When discounted, it is more general than the stability conditions (44) and (45) as well as contains the cases where \(x_e = 0\) is not necessarily stable, and the state trajectories could even diverge. For the statement and further discussions, we define

\[
\Pi = \{\pi \in \Pi_0 : t_{\text{max}}(x; \pi) = \infty \quad \text{for all } x \in X\}
\]

which satisfies the chain of inclusions: \(\Pi_0 \subset \Pi \subset \Pi_a\).

Theorem 5.16 (Policy Evaluation) Suppose that there exists \(v \in C^1\) satisfying the BE (10) or (11) for a policy \(\pi \in \Pi\). Then, \(\pi \in \Pi_a\) and \(v = v_\pi\) if \(J = -v\) is positive definite and \(KJ \leq c_\pi\) for some \(K > 0\).

The policy improvement theorem in §5.3, i.e., Theorem 5.10, can be also extended as follows.

Theorem 5.17 (Policy Improvement) Let \(\pi \in \Pi_a\) and \(J_\pi\) be radially unbounded. Then, \(\pi_t \in \Pi_a\) and \(J_{\pi_t} \leq J_\pi\).

From the theory and discussions above, we propose the following three conditions for the PI methods in the optimal control framework: for all \(i \in \mathbb{N}\) and \(J_i \equiv -v_i\),

1. \(\pi_0 \in \Pi_a\),
2. \(J_i \in C^1_{\text{lip}}\) is positive definite and radially unbounded,
3. there exists \(\kappa_i > 0\) such that \(\alpha \kappa_i J_i \leq c_{\pi_{i-1}}\).

Those three conditions are devised in order to run the PI methods without assuming the existence of unique state trajectories and the boundary condition (29). In the second one,
the positive definiteness of $J_i$ is required for policy evaluation, and its radial unboundedness is for policy improvement. The third one (47) is always true for $\gamma = 1$, but when discounted ($\alpha > 0$), it is just a different representation of the inequality in Theorem 5.16 and thus required to be true for policy evaluation. Note that when $\kappa_i \in (0, 1)$, (47) is weaker than both of the stability conditions $\alpha J_i \leq c_{\pi_i}$ and

$$\alpha J_i(x) < c_{\pi_i}(x) \quad \forall x \notin \mathcal{X} \setminus \{0\} \quad (48)$$

corresponding to (44) and (45), respectively.

**Theorem 5.18** Under the three conditions above, $\pi_i \in \Pi_s$ and $J_i = J_{\pi_i} \geq J_{\pi} \forall i \in \mathbb{N}$. Moreover, $x_\pi = 0$ is globally asymptotically stable under $\pi_i$ if (48) is true (or if $\gamma = 1$).

Without assuming the boundary condition (29) and the existence of unique state trajectories, the other properties in §4 can be also extended under the above three conditions, by following the same proofs in §4, but with Theorem 4.1 therein replaced by Theorem 5.18.

Once the optimal cost VF $J_i$ is known *a priori*, the radial unboundedness of each $J_i$ can be replaced by that of $J_x$. In this case, every $J_i$ for $\pi \in \Pi_s$ is radially unbounded by optimality $0 \leq J_i \leq J_{\pi} \forall \pi \in \Pi_s$. Hence, $J_i$ becomes radially unbounded if $J_i \in \Pi_s$. We note that in the middle of the proof of Theorem 5.18 (see §13), $J_i \in \Pi_s$ is proven before the radial unboundedness of $J_i$ is applied.

Limitations also exist. First, it is difficult to check the radial unboundedness and (47); $J_i$ is unknown until we have found it at the end. Secondly, the results cannot be applied to the locally admissible cases, where the VF (equivalently $J_x$) is finite only around the equilibrium point $x_\pi = 0$ locally, not globally over $\mathcal{X}$. Lastly, not easy to verify in general is the local Lipschitzness assumptions on $u_\pi$ and $\nabla J_x$ which are necessary for $\pi' \in \Pi_s$. An example that is free from these limitations is the LQR (see §3.3 for a case study).

**Remark 5.19** This article is the first to define admissibility without asymptotic stability to the authors’ knowledge. This concept can be broadly applied, e.g., to the discounted LQR cases in §3.3 where the system may not be stable under an admissible policy due to $\gamma \in (0, 1)$. In fact, when $\gamma = 1$, admissibility of a policy $\pi$ (i.e., $\pi \in \Pi_s$) implies global asymptotic stability under $\pi$, with $J_x$ served as a Lyapunov function, as discussed in Remark 5.14. This reveals that asymptotic stability can be excluded from the definition of admissibility, even in the existing optimal control frameworks (as long as the VF is $C^1$). We also believe that our concept of admissibility can be generalized even when $v_\pi$ (or equivalently, $J_x$) is locally finite around the equilibrium $x_\pi = 0$ (i.e., locally admissible), not globally.

**Remark** If the dynamics $f$ is non-affine, then the cost function $c$ has to be properly designed (e.g., by the techniques introduced in §§5.1.2 and G.1) to avoid the pathology in the Hamiltonian discussed in Remark 2.9 and §5.1.2. Note that such pathology can happen (see §F) even when $c$ is positive definite (and quadratic when unconstrained), which is a typical choice in optimal control.

### 6 Inverted-Pendulum Simulation Examples

To support the theory and further investigate the proposed PI methods, we simulate the variants of DPI and IPI shown in Algorithm 3 applied to an inverted-pendulum model:

$$\dot{\theta}_t = -0.01\dot{\theta}_t + 0.98 \sin \theta_t - U_t \cos \theta_t,$$

where $\theta_t \in \mathbb{R}$ and $U_t \in \mathcal{U}$ are the angular position of and the external torque input to the pendulum at time $t$, respectively; the action space is given by $\mathcal{U} = [-u_{\text{max}}, u_{\text{max}}] \subset \mathbb{R}$, with the torque limit $u_{\text{max}} = 5$ [N·m]. Letting $X_t = (\theta_t \; \dot{\theta}_t)^T$, then the dynamics can be expressed as (1) and (30) with

$$f_d(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ 0.98 \sin x_1 - 0.01 x_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad F_c(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -\cos x_1 \end{bmatrix},$$

where $x = [x_1 \; x_2]^T \in \mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^2$. In the simulations, we employ the zero initial policy $\pi_0(x) = 0$, with the discount factor $\gamma = 0.1$ and the time step $\Delta t = 10$ [ms].

The solution $V_i$ of the policy evaluation at each iteration is represented by a linear function approximator $V$ as

$$V_i(x) \approx V(x; \theta_i) = \theta_i^T \phi(x), \quad (49)$$

for its weights $\theta_i \in \mathbb{R}^L$ and features $\phi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^L$, with $L = 121$. Each policy evaluation determines $\theta_i$ as the least-squares solution $\theta_i^*$ minimizing the Bellman errors over the set of initial states uniformly distributed as the $(N \times M)$-grid points over the region $\Omega = [-\pi, \pi] \times [-6, 6] \subset \mathcal{X}$. Here, $N$ and $M$ are the total numbers of the grids in the $x_1$- and $x_2$-directions, respectively; we choose $N = 20$ and $M = 21$, so the total 420 number of grid points in $\Omega$ are used as initial states. When inputting to $V$, the first component $x_1$ of $x$ is normalized to a value within $[-\pi, \pi]$ by adding $\pm 2\pi k$ to it for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$.

In what follows, we simulate four different settings, whose learning objective is to swing up and eventually settle down the pendulum at the upright position $\theta_t = 2\pi k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, under the torque limit $|U_t| \leq u_{\text{max}}$. For each case, we basically consider the reward function $r$ given by (31) and (35) with

$$s(u) = u_{\text{max}} \tanh(u/u_{\text{max}}). \quad (50)$$

As the inverted pendulum dynamics is input-affine, this setting corresponds to the concave Hamiltonian formulation in §5.1.1 (with a bounded $r$ if $\tau$ is bounded). The implementation details (the features $\phi$, policy evaluation, and policy improvement) are provided in §H; the MATLAB/Octave code for the simulations is also available online.\footnote{\url{github.com/JaeyoungLee-UoA/PIs-for-RL-Problems-in-CTS/}}
6.1 Case 1: Concave Hamiltonian with Bounded Reward

First, we consider the reward function \( r \) given by (31) and (35) with \( x(\cdot) \) given by (50), \( \Gamma = 10^{-2} \), and \( r(x) = \cos x_1 \). As mentioned above, this setting corresponds to the concave Hamiltonian formulation in §5.1, resulting in the following policy improvement update rule (see §H for details):

\[
\pi_i(x) \approx \pi(x; \theta^*_i) = -5 \tanh(\cos x_1 \cdot \nabla x_2 \phi(x) \cdot \theta^*_i / 5). \tag{51}
\]

As \( r \) (hence \( r \)) is bounded, this setting also corresponds to “discounted RL under Assumption 5.8” in §5.2. Therefore, the initial and subsequent VFs in PIs are all bounded; the properties in §§5.1.1 and 5.2 are all true; the Assumptions in Table 1 w.r.t. §§5.1.1 and 5.2 are also all relaxed.

Figs. 1(a), (c) and Figs. 2(a)–(d) show the trajectories of \( \vartheta_i \) under the policies obtained during PI and the estimates of the optimal solution \( (v_\pi, \pi_\pi) \) finally obtained at the iteration \( i = 50 \), respectively; the yellow regions in Fig. 1 correspond to the trajectories \( \vartheta_i \) generated by the intermediate policies obtained at the iterations \( i = 3, 4, 5, \ldots, 49 \). Although both DPI and IPI variants generate rather different trajectories of \( \vartheta_i \) in Figs. 1(a), (c) due to the difference in the estimates of the VF and policy (e.g., see Figs. 2(a)–(d)), both methods have achieved the learning objective merely after the first iteration. Here, the difference in the \( \vartheta_i \)-trajectories mainly comes from the different initial behaviors near \( \vartheta = \pi \) — see the differences in the policies in Figs. 2(c), (d) (and also the VF estimates in Figs. 2(a), (b)) near the borderlines \( \vartheta = \pm \pi \). Also note that both DPI and IPI methods have achieved our learning objective without using an initial stabilizing policy that is usually required in the optimal control setting under the total discounting \( \gamma = 1 \) (e.g., Abu-Khalaf and Lewis, 2005; Vrabie and Lewis, 2009; Lee et al., 2015).

6.2 Case 2: Optimal Control

A better performance can be obtained if the state reward function \( r \) in Case 1 is replaced by

\[
r(x) = -x_1^2 - \epsilon \cdot x_2^2 \quad \text{with} \quad \epsilon = 10^{-2}. \tag{52}
\]

This setting corresponds to the nonlinear optimal control introduced and discussed in §5.4. Whenever input to \( r \) in (52), the first component \( x_1 \) is normalized to a value within \([-\pi, \pi]\). In this case, \( r \) is not bounded due to the existence of the term \(-\epsilon \cdot x_2^2\), but Algorithm 3 (without assuming the boundedness of \( v_{\pi_\pi} \)) can be successfully applied as can be seen from Figs. 1(b), 2(e), and 2(g). Fig. 1(b) illustrates the
Fig. 2. The optimal value function $\hat{V}_{50}(x) = V(x; \theta^*_i)|_{i=50}$ (left sides) and the optimal policy $\hat{\pi}_{50}(x) = \pi(x; \theta^*_i)|_{i=50}$ (right sides), estimated by DPI and IPI variants over $\Omega$. The horizontal and vertical axes correspond to $x_1 = \vartheta$ and $x_2 = \dot{\vartheta}$, respectively.

trajectories $\vartheta_t$ under the policies obtained by the DPI variant, under (52). Compared with Case 1, this setting gives a better initial and asymptotic performance — every trajectory $\vartheta_t$ in Fig. 1(b) is almost the same as the final one (faster convergence of the PI) and converges to the goal state $x = (0, 0)$ more rapidly than any trajectories $\vartheta_t$'s in Case 1. In particular, the initial behavior near $\vartheta = \pm \pi$ has been improved, so that the policies in this case swing up the pendulum much faster than Case 1. One possible explanation about this is that the higher magnitude of the gradient of $r$ near $x_1 = \pm \pi$ expedites the initial swing-up process (note, in Case 1, $\nabla r(\pm \pi, x_2) = 0$ for any $x_2$). See also the difference of the final VF and policy in Figs. 2(e), (g) (this case) from those in Figs. 2(a)–(d) (Case 1). The trajectories $\vartheta_t$'s for IPI are almost similar to DPI in this case, so omitted.

6.3 Case 3: Bang-bang Control

If $\Gamma \to 0$, the reward function $r$ and the policy update rule (51) in Case 1 ($\S$6.1) are simplified to $r(x, u) = \cos x_1$ and

$$
\pi_i(x) \approx \pi(x; \theta^*_i) = -u_{\max} \cdot \text{sign}(\cos x_1 \cdot \nabla x_2 \phi(x; \theta^*_i))
$$

(see $\S$H for details), a bang-bang type discrete control. The PI methods can be also applied to optimize this bang-bang type controller. Note that this case is beyond our scope of the theory developed in $\S$S2–5 since the policy is discrete, not continuous. Fig. 1(d) shows the trajectory $\vartheta_t$ generated by the IPI variant in Algorithm 3 applied to this bang-bang control framework. Though the fast switching behavior of the control $U_t$ near $x = (0, 0)$ is inevitable, the initial and asymptotic control performance, compared with Case 1, has been increased in the limit $\Gamma \to 0$ up to the performance of optimal control (Case 2).

By limiting $\Gamma \to 0$, the control policy in Case 2 can be also made a bang-bang type control, but in this case, with

$$
r(x, u) = -x_1^2 - \epsilon \cdot x_2^2 \quad \text{with} \quad \epsilon = 10^{-2}.
$$

(53)

We have observed that the performance of the PI methods in this case is almost same as that shown in Fig. 1(d) for the previous case “$r(x, u) = \cos x_1$,” derived from Case 1. Figs. 2(f) and (h) show the envelopes of the VF and the bang-bang policy under (53), both of which are consistent with the envelopes for $\Gamma = 10^{-2}$ shown in Figs. 2(e) and (g).
6.4 Case 4: Bang-bang Control with Binary Reward

In RL problems, the reward is often binary and sparingly given only at or near the goal state. To investigate this case, we also consider the bang-bang policy given in the previous subsection, but with the binary reward function: \( r(x, u) = 1 \) if \( |x_1| \leq 6/\pi \) and \( |x_2| \leq 1/2 \) and \( r(x, u) = 0 \) otherwise. This gives the reward signal \( R_i = 1 \) near the goal state \( x = (0, 0) \) only. Figs. 1(e) and (f) illustrate the \( \theta^*_i \)-trajectories under the policies generated by the DPI and IPI variants (i.e., Algorithm 3), respectively. Though the initial performance is neither stable \((i = 1)\) nor consistent to each other \((i = 1, 2)\), both PI methods eventually converge to the same seemingly near-optimal point \((i = 3, 4, \ldots, 50)\). Note that the performance after learning \((i = 50)\) for both cases is the same as that of Cases 2 and 3 until around \( t = 3[s] \) as can be seen from Figs. 1(b) and (d–f). Figs. 2(i)–(l) also show the estimates of the optimal VF and policy at \( i = 50 \). Although the details are a bit different, we can see that both methods finally result in similar consistent estimates of the VF and policy. In this binary reward case, the shapes of the VF shown in Figs. 2(i) and (j) are distinguished from the others illustrated in Figs. 2(a), (b), (e), and (f) due to the reward information condensed near the goal state \( x = (0, 0) \) only. Even in this situation, our PI methods were able to achieve the goal at the end, as shown in Figs. 1(e) and (f). For the DPI variant, we have simulated this case with \( M = 20 \), instead of \( M = 21 \).

6.5 Discussions

We have simulated the variants of DPI and IPI (Algorithm 3) under the four scenarios above. Some of them have achieved the learning objective immediately at the first iteration, and in all of the simulations above, the proposed methods were able to achieve the goal, eventually. On the other hand, the implementations of the PI schemes have the following issues.

(1) The least-squares solution \( \theta^*_i \) at each \( i \)th policy evaluation minimizes the Bellman error over a finite number of initial states in \( \Omega \) (as detailed in §H), meaning that it is not the optimal choice to minimize the Bellman error over the entire region \( \Omega \). As mentioned in §3, the ideal policy evaluation cannot be implemented precisely — even when \( \Omega \) is compact, it is a continuous space and thus contains an uncountably infinite number of points that we cannot fully cover in practice.

(2) As the dimension of the data matrix in the least squares is \( L \times (NM) = 121 \times 420 \) (see §H), calculating the least-squares solution \( \theta^*_i \) is computationally expensive, and the numerical error (and thus the convergence) is sensitive to the choice of the parameters such as (the number of) the features \( \phi \), the time step \( \Delta t \), discounting factor \( \gamma \), and of course, \( N \) and \( M \). In our experiments, we have observed Case 2 (optimal control) was least sensitive to those parameters.

(3) The VF parameterization. Since the pendulum is symmetric at \( x_1 = 0 \), the VFs and policies obtained in Fig 2 are all symmetric, and thus it might be sufficient to approximate the VF over \([0, \pi] \times [-6, 6] \subset \Omega\), with a less number of weights, and use the symmetry of the problem. Due to the over-parameterization, we have also observed that the weight vector \( \theta^*_i \) in certain situations never converges but oscillates between two values, even after the VF \( V_i \) almost converges over \( \Omega \).

All of these algorithmic and practical issues are beyond the scope of this paper and remain as a future work.

7 Conclusions

In this paper, we proposed fundamental PI schemes called DPI (model-based) and IPI (partially model-free) to solve the general RL problem formulated in CTS. We proved their fundamental mathematical properties: admissibility, uniqueness of the solution to the BE, monotone improvement, convergence, and the optimality of the solution to the HJBE. Strong connections to the RL methods in CTS — TD learning and VGB greedy policy update — were made by providing the proposed ones as their ideal PIs. Case studies simplified and improved the proposed PI methods and the theory for them, with strong connections to RL and optimal control in CTS. Numerical simulations were conducted with model-based and partially model-free implementations to support the theory and further investigate the proposed PI methods, under an initial policy that is admissible but not stable. Unlike the existing PI methods in the stability-based framework, an initial stabilizing policy is not necessarily required to run the proposed ones. We believe that this work provides the theoretical background, intuition, and improvement to both (i) PI methods in optimal control and (ii) RL methods, to be developed in the future and developed so far.

References


Policy Iterations for Reinforcement Learning Problems in Continuous Time and Space — Fundamental Theory and Methods: Appendices

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Abstract

This supplementary document provides additional studies and all the details regarding the materials presented by Lee and Sutton (2020b), as listed in the contents below. Roughly speaking, we present related works, details of the theory, algorithms, and implementations, additional case studies, and all the proofs. All the numbers of equations, sections, theorems, lemmas, etc. that do not contain any alphabet will refer to those in the main paper (Lee and Sutton, 2020b), whereas any numbers starting with an alphabet correspond to those in the appendices herein. Additional references cited only in the appendices are also given at the end, separately from the main paper.

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A Highlights and Related Works

First, we briefly review the related works from optimal control and RL fields and highlights the main aspects of the proposed PI methods and the underlying theory developed in the main paper (Lee and Sutton, 2020b) and the appendices.

DPI & IPI. The two main PI methods in the work are DPI, whose policy evaluation is associated with the differential BE, and IPI associated with the integral BE. The former is inspired by the model-based PI methods in optimal control (e.g., Rekasius, 1964; Leake and Liu, 1967; Saridis and Lee, 1979; Beard et al., 1997; Abu-Khalaf and Lewis, 2005; Bian et al., 2014) and has a direct connection to TD(0) in CTS (Doya, 2000; Frémaux et al., 2013). As regards to the latter, the integral BE was first introduced by Baird III (1993) in the field of RL and then spotlighted in the optimal control community, resulting in a series of IPI methods applied to a class of input-affine dynamics for optimal regulations (Vrabie and Lewis, 2009; Lee et al., 2015), robust control (Wang; Li, Liu, and Mu, 2016), and (discounted) LQ tracking control (Modares and Lewis, 2014; Zhu, Modares, Peen, Lewis, and Yue, 2015; Modares et al., 2016), with a number of extensions to off-policy IPI methods (e.g., Bian et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2016; Modares et al., 2016). In our work (Lee and Sutton, 2020b),

(1) the proposed IPI was motivated by the first IPI given by Vrabie and Lewis (2009) for nonlinear optimal regulations;
(2) both DPI and IPI generalize for a broad class of dynamics and reward functions in CTS in §2, which includes the existing RL tasks (Doya, 2000; Mehta and Meyn, 2009; Frémaux et al., 2013) and the tasks of RL and optimal control shown in the case studies in §§5 and G.

Case Studies.

(1) A highlight is in §5.1, which draws the connection to the VGB greedy policy update (Doya, 2000), a general idea of simplifying policy improvement in input-constrained RL problems. There exist similar ideas in the optimal control field for input-constrained (Lyashevskiy, 1996; Abu-Khalaf and Lewis, 2005) and unconstrained optimal regulations (Rekasius, 1964; Saridis and Lee, 1979; Beard et al., 1997; Abu-Khalaf and Lewis, 2005; Vrabie and Lewis, 2009; Lee et al., 2015) under input-affine dynamics, and even for the non-affine dynamics (Bian et al., 2014; Kiumarsi et al., 2016).

(2) The existing PI methods for optimal regulations, presented in the literature above and by Leake and Liu (1967), are strongly linked to §5.4, where we case-study asymptotic stability and fundamental properties of DPI and IPI applied to a general optimal regulation problem with non-affine dynamics and $\gamma \in \{0, 1\}$. The asymptotic stability conditions given in Theorem 5.13 in §5.4 are similar to and inspired by Gaitsgory et al. (2015, Assumptions 2.3 and 3.8).

(3) Another highlight is the discounted RL problem with bounded reward function (§5.2), in which the VF is bounded for any policy; hence the underlying PI theory is dramatically simplified and clear (see Corollary 5.9). This framework is akin to the RL tasks in a finite MDP, where the reward defined for each state transition is bounded (Sutton and Barto, 2018).

§6 provides practical examples and highlights those case studies in §5.1, 5.2, and 5.4 with strong connections to both RL and optimal control.

Admissibility & Asymptotic Stability. Theoretically, since we consider a stability-free RL framework (under the minimal assumptions in §2), asymptotic stability is excluded from the definition of an admissible policy. Here, the notion of admissibility in optimal control was defined with asymptotic stability (e.g., Beard et al., 1997; Abu-Khalaf and Lewis, 2005; Vrabie and Lewis, 2009; Modares and Lewis, 2014; Bian et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2015 to name a few), and this work is the first to define admissibility in CTS without asymptotic stability. Conversely, in a general optimal control problem, we also showed that when $\gamma = 1$, admissibility, according to our definition, implies asymptotic stability (if the associated VF is $C^1$) — see Theorem 5.13 and Remarks 5.14 and 5.19 in §5.4. This means that asymptotic stability can be removed from the definition of admissibility also in optimal control. The global existence of the unique state trajectories in discounted optimal control was also investigated in §5.4 under the condition weaker than a Lyapunov’s asymptotic stability criterion.

(Mode of Convergence. We characterized the convergence properties of the PI methods towards the optimal solution in the following three ways. Those three modes provide different convergence conditions and compensate for one another.

(1) In the first characterization, we use Bessaga (1959)’s converge fixed point principle to show that the VFs generated by the PI methods converge to the optimal one in a metric (Theorem 4.5). This first-type convergence, called convergence in a metric, is weaker than locally uniform convergence below but does not impose any other assumptions than the existence and uniqueness of a fixed point that turns out to be the optimal VF.

(2) The second way is to extend Leake and Liu (1967)’s approach that suggests continuity of the PI operator (see Theorem 4.6) as one of the additional conditions for locally uniform convergence.

(3) Lastly, we also generalize the convergence proof from the optimal control literature (Saridis and Lee, 1979; Beard et al., 1997; Murray et al., 2002; Abu-Khalaf and Lewis, 2005; Bian et al., 2014) to our RL framework, which gives the strongest convergence among the three, under a certain condition other than the two above (see Theorem 4.9). In this
direction, we highlight that for the proof of this third type convergence, the gradients of the VFs obtained by the PIs need to be assumed to converge locally uniformly, even for the existing results in optimal control, as the convergence of the generated VFs does not imply any convergence of their derivatives (see Remark 5.2).

**LQR.** In §G.3, we discuss DPI and IPI applied to a class of the LQR tasks (Lancaster and Rodman, 1995, Chapter 16) where bilinear cost terms of states and controls exist. Here, DPI falls into a special case of the general matrix-form PIs (Arnold III, 1984; Mehrmann, 1991), but this study slightly generalizes the existing PI methods for the LQRs (Kleinman, 1968; Vrabie et al., 2009; Lee, Park, and Choi, 2014) by taking such bilinear cost terms into considerations, with the relaxation of the positive definite matrix assumption imposed on the general matrix-form PI (Mehrmann, 1991, Theorem 11.3).

### B Notations and Terminologies

In this appendix, we provide a complete list of notations and terminologies used in the main paper and/or the appendices. In any statement, iff and s.t. stand for if and only if and such that, respectively. “≡” denotes the equality relationship that is true by definition.

#### B.1 Sets, Vectors, and Matrices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(\mathbb{N})</td>
<td>set of all natural numbers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\mathbb{R})</td>
<td>set of all real numbers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\mathbb{C})</td>
<td>set of all complex numbers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\mathbb{Z})</td>
<td>set of all integers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\mathbb{R}^{n \times m})</td>
<td>set of all (n)-by-(m) real matrices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\mathbb{R}^{n})</td>
<td>(n)-dimensional Euclidean space (\cong \mathbb{R}^{n\times 1})</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For a matrix \(A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}\) and a vector \(x \in \mathbb{R}^{m}\),

- \(A^\top\) transpose of \(A\)
- \(\text{rank}(A)\) rank of \(A\)
- \(\|x\|\) Euclidean norm of \(x\), i.e., \(\|x\| = (x^\top x)^{1/2}\)
- \(\|x\|_{\Omega}\) distance of \(x\) from a subset \(\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{m}\), i.e., \(\|x\|_{\Omega} = \inf\{\|x - y\| : y \in \Omega\}\)
- \(\|A\|\) induced norm of \(A\), i.e., \(\|A\| = \sup_{\|x\| = 1} \|Ax\|\)
- \(I\) identity matrix with a compatible dimension

\[\nabla f : \Omega^a \to \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}\] denotes the gradient of \(f\).

- \(f\) is locally Lipschitz iff for each \(x \in \Omega\), there exists \(L > 0\) and a neighborhood \(\mathcal{N}\) of \(x\) s.t. for all \(y, z \in \mathcal{N}\),
  \[\|f(y) - f(z)\| \leq L\|y - z\|.\]  \hspace{1cm} (B.1)

- \(f\) is globally Lipschitz iff \(\exists L > 0\) s.t. (B.1) holds \(\forall y, z \in \Omega\).
- \(f \in C^1_\text{Lip}\) (i.e., \(f\) is \(C^1\)) iff \(f\) is locally Lipschitz and \(C^1\).

- \(f\) is odd iff \(f(-x) = f(x)\) for all \(x \in \Omega\).
- \(f\) with \(m = n\) is strictly monotone iff for each \(x, x' \in \Omega\),
  \[(f(x) - f(x'))^\top (x - x') > 0\] whenever \(x \neq x'\).

- \(f(\Omega) = \{f(x) : x \in \Omega\}\), the image of \(\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}\) under \(f\).

A sequence \(\langle a_i \rangle_{i=1}^\infty\) is abbreviated as \(\langle a_i \rangle\) or \(a_i\) for notational simplicity. A sequence of function \(\langle f_i \rangle\) converges (to \(f\)) pointwise iff \(f_i(x) \to f(x)\) for each \(x \in \Omega\); uniformly on \(E \subseteq \Omega\) iff \(\sup_{x \in E} \|f_i(x) - f(x)\| \to 0\); locally uniformly iff for each \(x \in \Omega\), there is a neighborhood of \(x\) on which \(f_i \to f\) uniformly.

For any two functions \(f_1, f_2 : \mathbb{R}^n \to [-\infty, \infty)\), we write

- \(f_1 \leq f_2 \iff f_1(x) \leq f_2(x)\) \hspace{0.5cm} \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n\)

A function \(f : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}\) is said to be

- positive semidefinite iff \(f(0) = 0\) and \(f \geq 0\);
- negative semidefinite iff \(-f\) positive semidefinite;
- positive definite iff \(f(0) = 0\) and \(f(x) > 0\) for all \(x \neq 0\);
- negative definite iff \(-f\) positive definite;
- radially unbounded iff \(\lim_{\|x\| \to \infty} |f(x)| = \infty\) as \(r \to \infty\);
- convex iff for each \(x, x' \in \Omega\) and \(\beta \in (0, 1),\)
  \[1) \hspace{0.5cm} x_\beta = \beta x + (1 - \beta)x' \in \Omega \text{ (i.e., } \Omega \text{ is convex)},\]
  \[2) \hspace{0.5cm} f(x_\beta) \leq \beta \cdot f(x) + (1 - \beta) \cdot f(x');\]
- concave iff \(-f\) is convex;
strictly convex iff $f$ is convex and for any $\beta \in (0, 1)$, 
$f(x_\beta) < \beta \cdot f(x) + (1 - \beta) \cdot f(x')$ whenever $x \neq x'$;

strictly concave iff $-f$ is strictly convex.

A square matrix $P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is

positive (semi)definite iff so is $z \mapsto z^T P z$ and $P^T = P$;

negative definite iff $-P$ is positive definite.

For $P, P' \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, we denote $P < P'$ (resp. $P \preceq P'$) iff

$P' - P$ is positive definite (resp. positive semidefinite).

### B.4 Reinforcement Learning

- $l$ dimension $\in \mathbb{N}$ of the state space $\mathcal{X}$
- $m$ dimension $\in \mathbb{N}$ of action spaces (e.g., $\mathcal{U}$ and $\mathcal{A}$)

An action space is an $m$-dimensional manifold in $\mathbb{R}^m$ with or without boundary hence has no isolated point by definition.

$\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{X}^T$ state space $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^l$ and $\mathcal{X}^T \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{1 \times l}$

$\mathcal{U}$ action space $\subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ ($\S 5.1$)

$\mathcal{A}$ a transformed action space $\subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ ($\S 5.1$)

$\mathcal{T}$ time space $\mathcal{T} \subseteq [0, \infty)$

$f, f^x$ dynamics $f : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$ and $f^x(u) \doteq f(x, u)$

$f_d$ drift dynamics $f_d : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$

$f_c$ input-coupling dynamics $f_c : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$

$F_c$ input-coupling matrix $F_c : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ ($\S 5.1$)

$r, r^x$ reward function $r : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$; $r^x(u) \doteq r(x, u)$

$r_{\max}$ the reward maximum $\max(x, u) r(x, u)$

$\gamma$ discount factor $\in (0, 1]$.

$\alpha$ attenuation rate $\alpha \doteq -\ln \gamma \geq 0$

$\beta$ Hamiltonian function $h : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{U} \times \mathcal{X}^T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$u_*$ maximal function $u_*(x, p) \in \arg\max_h h(x, u, p)$

$a_*$ transformed maximal function ($\S 5.1.2$)

$t$ time variable $\in \mathcal{T}$

$\eta$ time horizon $\in [0, \infty]$

$X_t$ state vector $\in \mathcal{X}$ at time $t$

$X_t$ the time derivative $\mathcal{X}$ of $X_t$ at time $t$

$U_t$ action (also called control) vector $\in \mathcal{U}$ at time $t$

$A_t$ a transformed action vector $\in \mathcal{A}$ at time $t$

$R_t$ reward at time $t$, i.e., $r(X_t, U_t) \in \mathbb{R}$

$\mathbb{R}_\eta$ discounted cumulative reward up to horizon $\eta$

$\dot{v}$ time derivative $dv(X_t)/dt = \nabla v(X_t) f(X_t, U_t)$

A policy is a continuous function from $\mathcal{X}$ to $\mathcal{U}$; for a policy $\pi$,

$\mathbb{G}_\pi^\gamma[Y]$ value $Y$ when $X_0 = x$ and $U_t = \pi(X_t) \ \forall t \in \mathcal{T}$

$\pi$ value function (VF) with respect to $\pi$

$\bar{v}$ a uniform upper-bound of VFs ($\bar{v} = 0$ for $\gamma = 1$)

$\bar{v}$ and $\bar{v}_\pi = r_{\max}/\alpha$ otherwise — see Lemma 2.1)

$f_\pi$ closed-loop dynamics $f_\pi(x) \doteq f(x, \pi(x))$

$r_\pi$ closed-loop reward function $r_\pi(x) \doteq r(x, \pi(x))$

$\pi'$ improved/maximal policy $\pi' \succeq \pi$, i.e., $v_{\pi'} \geq v_\pi$

When $f_\pi$ is locally Lipschitz, $t_{\max}(x; \pi)$ is the minimal time s.t. $\forall t \geq t_{\max}(x; \pi)$ no state $\mathbb{G}_\pi^\gamma[X_t]$ exists ($\S 5.3$).

$\Pi_a$ set of all admissible policies

$\Pi_{\text{Lip}}$ set of all locally Lipschitz policies

$\mathcal{V}_a$ set of all admissible VFs

$d, d_\Omega$ a metric and uniform pseudo-metric on $\mathcal{V}_a$

$\mathcal{T}$ PI operator

$v_*$ a solution to the HJBE or the optimal VF

$v^*$ a unique fixed point of $\mathcal{T}$

$\pi_*$ a HJB or the optimal policy

### B.5 Policy Iteration

- $i$ iteration index $\in \mathbb{N}$ of the PIs

$v_i, V_i$ solution to the BE at iteration $i$; $V_i \doteq v_i/\Delta t$

$\hat{v}_i$ limit function $\hat{v}_i(x) \doteq \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} v_i(x)$

$\pi_0, \pi_i$ initial and improved policies at the $i$th iteration

$\Delta t$ small time step ($0 < \Delta t \ll 1$)

$\gamma_d$ discrete-time discount factor $\doteq \gamma^\Delta t$

$\hat{\gamma}_d$ an approximation of $\gamma_d \doteq 1 - \alpha_d$

$\alpha_d$ discrete-time attenuation rate $\doteq \alpha \Delta t = -\ln \gamma_d$

### B.6 Optimal Control and LQRs

- $c$ cost function $c \doteq -r$

$c_\pi$ closed-loop cost function $c_\pi(x) \doteq c(x, \pi(x))$

$C_t$ cost at time $t$, i.e., $c(X_t, U_t) \in \mathbb{R}$

$J_\pi$ cost value function $J_\pi \doteq -v_\pi$

$J_f, J_*$ $J_f \doteq -v_i$ and $J_* \doteq -v_*$

$\Pi_0$ set of all policies $\pi \in \Pi_{\text{Lip}}$ s.t. $\pi(0) = 0$

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times l}$, $B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times l}$, and $C \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times l}$. Then,

$\mathcal{A}$ is Hurwitz iff every eigenvalue has a negative real part;

$(A, B)$ stabilizable iff $\exists K \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times m}$ s.t. $A - BK$ is Hurwitz;

$(C, A)$ observable iff for any $\eta > 0$, the initial state $X_0$ can be determined from the history $(C(X_t, U_t))_{t \in [0, \eta]}$,

where $\{X_t\}_{t \in [0, \eta]}$ satisfies $\dot{X}_t = AX_t + BU_t$.
C Replacement of the Boundary Condition with an Inequality

In §2.2, Lee and Sutton (2020b) showed that the boundary condition (12), i.e., for a given horizon \( \eta > 0 \),
\[
\lim_{k \to \infty} \mathbb{G}_{\pi}^2 \left[ \gamma^k \eta \cdot v(X_{k-\eta}) \right] = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}
\]  
(12)
is necessary and sufficient for a solution \( v \) to the BE (10) or (11) to be equal to the VF \( v_\pi \). In other words, the boundary condition (12) ensures the uniqueness of the solution \( v \) to the BE. However, except for a few cases, (12) is hard or even impossible to check as (12) is a condition in the limit. In this appendix, we introduce an alternative condition on \( v \) and \( \pi \) that does not depend on the horizon or time and is sufficient for (12) to hold when \( v \) is an upper-bounded solution of the BE.

Theorem C.1 (Boundary Condition) Suppose there exists a continuous function \( v : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R} \) satisfying the integral BE (10) or, with \( v \in C^1 \), the differential BE (11) for a policy \( \pi \). If \( v \) is upper-bounded (by zero if \( \gamma = 1 \)) and there exists \( \kappa > 0 \) s.t. \( r_\pi \leq \kappa \cdot v \), then \( v \) satisfies the boundary condition (12).

Proof. Suppose \( v \) satisfies the integral BE (10) without loss of generality (or, convert the differential BE (11) to (10) via Lemma 2.3 and fix \( \eta > 0 \)). Then, the repetitive applications of (10) to itself \( k \)-times result in
\[
v(x) = \mathbb{G}_{\pi}^2 \left[ \eta^2 + \gamma^2 \cdot v(X_{2\eta}) \right] = \mathbb{G}_{\pi}^2 \left[ \eta^2 + \gamma^2 \cdot v(X_{2\eta}) \right] = \cdots = \mathbb{G}_{\pi}^2 \left[ \eta^2 + \gamma^2 \cdot v(X_{k\eta}) \right] \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}.
\]
Rearranging it and substituting \( r_\pi \leq \kappa \cdot v \) into \( \mathbb{G}_{\pi}^2 \left[ \eta^2 + \gamma^2 \cdot v(X_{k\eta}) \right] \), we obtain for \( J_k(x) \equiv -\mathbb{G}_{\pi}^2 \left[ \gamma^k \cdot v(X_k) \right] \);
\[
J_{k-\eta}(x) \leq J_0(x) - \kappa \int_0^{k-\eta} J_k(x) \, dt \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X} \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}
\]
where the dependencies on \( \pi \) and \( \gamma \) are implicit. Then, the application of Grönwall-Bellman inequality (Khalil, 2002) yields
\[
-\epsilon^{-\alpha(k-n)} \cdot M \leq J_n(x) \leq J_0(x) \cdot e^{-\kappa(k-n)} \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X} \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}
\]
for an upper-bound \( M \) in \( \mathbb{R} \) of \( v \) (note: \( \gamma = e^{-\alpha} \)). Take \( M = 0 \) whenever \( \gamma = 1 \). Then, since \( \kappa > 0 \), \( x \geq 0 \), and \( M = 0 \) whenever \( \alpha = 0 \), both left and right sides converge to zero as \( k \to \infty \), resulting in \( \lim_{k \to \infty} J_{k-\eta}(x) = 0 \) for all \( x \in \mathcal{X} \). \( \square \)

Combining Theorems 2.5 and C.1, we obtain the following Corollary.

Corollary C.2 (Policy Evaluation) Under the given conditions in Theorem C.1, \( \pi \) is admissible and \( v = v_\pi \).

In short, if \( v \in C^1 \) is a solution to the BE (10) or (11) and upper-bounded (by zero if \( \gamma = 1 \)), then the inequality \( r_\pi \leq \kappa \cdot v \) for some \( \kappa > 0 \) implies the boundary condition (12) (but not vice versa), hence \( v = v_\pi \in \mathcal{V}_a \). The conditions in Theorem C.1 are particularly related to the optimal control framework in §5.4 but can be also applied to any case in this paper to replace the boundary condition (12). For example, the boundary condition (29) can be replaced by the following two conditions:

1. there exists \( \kappa_i > 0 \) s.t. \( r_{\pi_{i-1}} \leq \kappa_i \cdot v_i \),
2. \( v_i \) is upper-bounded (by zero if \( \gamma = 1 \)).

Under these conditions, Corollary C.2 can replace Theorem 2.5 and the boundary condition (29), in the proofs and statements of the Theorems (e.g., see Theorem 4.1 in §4; also Theorem 5.18 in §5.4, with Theorem 5.16; for their proofs see §8.1.2 and I.3).

D Existence and Uniqueness of the Maximal Function \( u_\pi \)

This appendix provides the details about the existence and uniqueness of the maximal function \( u_\pi \) in §2.3 satisfying
\[
(14)
\]
by which a maximal policy \( \pi' \) over \( \pi \in \Pi_a \) defined as a continuous function \( \pi' : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{U} \) s.t.
\[
\pi'(x) \in \arg\max_{u \in \mathcal{U}} h(x, u, v_\pi(x)) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}
\]  
(15)
can be represented as a closed form:
\[
\pi'(x) = u_\pi(x, \nabla v_\pi(x)).
\]  
(16)
(1) (Existence) If \( U \) is compact, then for each \((x, p) \in X \times X^T\), the maximum of the function \( u \mapsto h(x, u, p) \) exists by continuity of the Hamiltonian function \( h \) (Rudin, 1964, Theorem 4.16). That is, a function \( u_* : X \times X^T \rightarrow U \) satisfying (14) always exists whenever \( U \) is compact.

(2) (Uniqueness) If \( U \) is convex and the function \( u \mapsto h(x, u, p) \) is concave and \( C^1 \) for each \((x, p) \in X \times X^T\), then the maximization (14) falls into a convex optimization in which any regular point \( \bar{u} \) is a solution to the HJB (17) by Proposition 4.3 (but not vice versa). Hence, if every solution \( v \) and (ii) a fixed point \( \pi \) of (14) always exists whenever \( U \) is compact, belongs to the argmax-set in (14) (Sundaram, 1996, Theorem 7.15) and thus can be the maximal argument of \( v \). If \( u \mapsto h(x, u, p) \) is strictly concave, then such a regular point \( \bar{u} \), if exists, is unique, meaning that \( u_*(x, p) \) in (14) is determined uniquely (Sundaram, 1996, Theorems 7.14 and 7.15), hence so is each \( \pi'(x) \) by (16).

E Theory of Optimality

This appendix provides a theory of optimality regarding (i) an HJB solution \((v_*, \pi_*)\):

\[
\forall x \in X : \begin{cases}
\alpha \cdot v_*(x) = \max_{u \in U} h(x, u, \nabla v_*(x)) \\
\pi_*(x) \in \arg \max_{u \in U} h(x, u, \nabla v_*(x))
\end{cases}
\]

and (ii) a fixed point \( v^* \) of \( T \) (i.e., \( v^* \in V_* \) s.t. \( T v^* = v^* \)). Here, note that a fixed point \( v^* \) of \( T \) is always a solution to the HJB (17) by Proposition 4.3 (but not vice versa). Hence, if every solution \( v_* \) to the HJB (17) is proven to be optimal, then so is every fixed point \( v^* \) of \( T \). We first state the following theorem regarding the optimality of the HJB solution \((v_*, \pi_*)\).

Theorem E.1 (Optimality) If a solution \( v_* \in C^1 \) to the HJB (17) exists and is upper-bounded (by zero if \( \gamma = 1 \), then for any policy \( \pi_* \) satisfying (18).

a. \( \pi_* \) is admissible and \( v_* \leq v_{\pi_*} \);

b. \( v_{\pi} \leq v_* \) if \( \pi \) satisfies the boundary condition:

\[
\lim_{t \to \infty} G^x_\pi \left[ \gamma^t \cdot v_*(X_t) \right] = 0 \quad \forall x \in X
\]

(conversely, (E.1) is true if \( \pi \) is admissible and \( v_* \leq v_{\pi} \);

c. \( v_* = v_{\pi_*} \) if either (i) the boundary condition (E.1) is true for \( \pi = \pi_* \) or (ii) \( r_{\pi_*} \leq \kappa \cdot v_* \) holds for a constant \( \kappa > 0 \);

d. \( (v_*, \pi_*) \) is optimal if \( v \leq v_* \) for any \( v \in V_* \).

Proof. a. Substituting (18) into the HJB (17), we have

\[
\alpha \cdot v_*(x) = h(x, \pi_*(x), \nabla v_*(x)) \quad \forall x \in X.
\]

Then, \( \pi_* \) is admissible and \( v_* \leq v_{\pi_*} \) by Lemma 2.6.

b. By the HJB (17), \( v_* \) and any policy \( \pi \) satisfy

\[
\alpha \cdot v_*(x) \geq h(x, \pi(x), \nabla v_*(x)) \quad \forall x \in X,
\]

hence if \( \pi \) satisfies (E.1), then applying Lemma 2.3 and taking the limit \( \eta \to \infty \) results in

\[
v_* (x) \geq \lim_{\eta \to \infty} G^x_\pi \left[ \int_{t=0}^{\eta} \gamma^t \cdot R_t \, dt \right] + \lim_{\eta \to \infty} G^x_\pi \left[ \gamma^\eta \cdot v_*(X_\eta) \right] = v_{\pi_*} (x) \quad \forall x \in X
\]

which proves the second statement. Conversely, if \( \pi \) is admissible and \( v_{\pi} \leq v_* \), then Proposition 2.4 and the upper-boundedness of \( v_* \) (by zero if \( \gamma = 1 \)) results in

\[
0 = \lim_{t \to \infty} G^x_\pi \left[ \gamma^t \cdot v_*(X_t) \right] \leq \lim_{t \to \infty} G^x_\pi \left[ \gamma^t \cdot v_*(X_t) \right] \leq \sup_{x \in X} v_*(x) \cdot \lim_{t \to \infty} \gamma^t \leq 0
\]

implying the boundary condition (E.1).
c. The application of Theorems 2.5 and Corollary C.2 to (E.2) directly proves \( v_\pi = v_{\pi^*} \) under the respective conditions.

d. By the first part and the condition, \( \pi_\pi \) is admissible and \( v \leq v_\pi \leq v_{\pi^*} \) for any \( v \in \mathcal{V}_a \); substituting \( v = v_{\pi^*} \) results in \( v_\pi = v_{\pi^*} \), which and the condition completes the proof. \( \square \)

Under the upper-boundedness of \( v_\pi \in \mathcal{C}^1 \) in Theorem E.1, any policy \( \pi_\pi \) given by (18) dominates all policies \( \pi \)’s s.t. the boundary condition (E.1) holds for \( v_\pi \). On the other hand, certain additional conditions (e.g., (E.1) holds for all admissible policies \( \pi \)’s) are required in order to have the optimality condition “\( v \leq v_\pi \) for all \( v \in \mathcal{V}_a \)” in Theorem E.1d (e.g., see case studies in §E.2 and G.2).

### E.1 Sufficient Conditions for Optimality

Based on the properties of PIs — convergence (Theorems 4.2, 4.5, 4.6, and 4.9) and monotonicity (Theorem 4.1) — we provide sufficient conditions for optimality, where the notion of “optimality” can be interpreted in a weaker sense than or in a similar manner to that shown in Theorem 2.8 (e.g., see (E.4)). In the latter case, once \( v_\pi \) is the optimal VF, any policy \( \pi_\pi \) satisfying (18) comes to be optimal (\( \forall v_\pi \leq v_{\pi^*} \) by Theorem 2.7 and \( v_{\pi^*} \leq v_\pi \) by optimality, hence \( v_\pi = v_{\pi^*} \)). Specifically, we establish the notions of weak and strong optimality with the following convergence properties introduced in §4.1:

- (C1) (weak convergence) \( \mathcal{T}^{i-1} v \to v_\pi \) in a metric;
- (C2) (strong convergence) \( \mathcal{T}^{i-1} v \to v_\pi \) locally uniformly;
- (C3) (additional convergence) \( \nabla (\mathcal{T}^{i-1} v) \to \nabla v_\pi \) locally uniformly and \( \pi_i \to \pi_\pi \) pointwise,

where we replaced \( v_i \) with \( \mathcal{T}^{i-1} v \) and \( v_1 = v \).

First, we show that Assumption 4.4 alone is sufficient for \( v^* \) therein to be weak optimal, i.e., optimal in a metric.

**Corollary E.2** Under Assumption 4.4, there exists a metric \( d_\mathcal{V} \) s.t. \( \mathcal{T} \) is a contraction under \( d_\mathcal{V} \) and for every \( v \in \mathcal{V}_a \),

\[
v \leq \mathcal{T} v \leq \mathcal{T}^2 v \leq \cdots \leq \mathcal{T}^N v \xrightarrow{N \to \infty} v^*,
\]

where the convergence is in the metric \( d_\mathcal{V} \).

**Proof.** Apply Theorems 4.1 and 4.5. \( \square \)

Corollary E.2 characterizes \( v^* \) as the optimal VF in the weak sense (C1) — as the unique limit point in a metric \( d_\mathcal{V} \) of every monotonically increasing sequence of VFs generated by applying \( \mathcal{T} \) recursively (or one of the PI methods). Under the metric \( d_\mathcal{V} \), \( \mathcal{T} \) is continuous since it is a contraction. Also, note that \( v^* \) is a solution \( v_\pi \) to the HJBE (17) by Proposition 4.3.

Although the weak optimality of \( v^* \) in Corollary E.2 looks reasonable, the downside is that convergence (E.3) and continuity of \( \mathcal{T} \) are w.r.t. an unknown metric \( d_\mathcal{V} \). With continuity of \( \mathcal{T} \) under the uniform pseudometric \( d_{\Omega} \), a stronger characterization of \( v^* \) is possible, as shown in the next corollary.

**Corollary E.3** If \( \lim_{N \to \infty} \mathcal{T}^N v \in \mathcal{V}_a \) for every \( v \in \mathcal{V}_a \) and for each compact subset \( \Omega \) of \( \mathcal{X} \), \( \mathcal{T} \) is continuous under \( d_{\Omega} \), then under Assumption 4.4, \( v \leq v^* \) for every \( v \in \mathcal{V}_a \).

**Proof.** Note that \( \mathcal{T}^N v_1 = v_{N+1} \to v \) pointwise by Theorem 4.2a and then apply Theorems 4.1 and 4.6. \( \square \)

Under the given conditions on \( \mathcal{T} \), Corollary E.3 states that \( v^* \) in Assumption 4.4 is truly the optimal VF over \( \mathcal{V}_a \), i.e., over all admissible VFs. This characterization of optimality:

\[
v^* \in \mathcal{V}_a \quad \text{and} \quad v \leq v^* \quad \text{for every} \quad v \in \mathcal{V}_a
\]

is exactly the same as that in Theorem 2.8 and obviously stronger than that in Corollary E.2. Moreover, under (E.4), the uniqueness of the fixed point \( v^* \) of \( \mathcal{T} \) can be replaced by that of the solution \( v_\pi \) to the HJBE over \( \mathcal{V}_a \) as shown below.

**Proposition E.4** Suppose \( v_\pi \in \mathcal{V}_a \) is the optimal VF. Then it is a fixed point of \( \mathcal{T} \). Moreover, such a fixed point is unique if so is the solution of the HJBE (17) over \( \mathcal{V}_a \).
Proof. Let \( v_\ast \in \mathcal{V}_a \) be the optimal VF. Then, it satisfies the HJBE (17) by Theorem 2.8, hence we have \( v_\ast \leq \mathcal{T} v_\ast \) by Theorem 2.7. By optimality, \( \mathcal{T} v_\ast \leq v_\ast \) is obvious. Therefore, \( v_\ast = \mathcal{T} v_\ast \), i.e., \( v_\ast \) is a fixed point of \( \mathcal{T} \). Next, suppose \( v_\ast \) is the unique solution to the HJBE (17), but there exists another VF \( v'_\ast \neq v_\ast \) s.t. \( v'_\ast = \mathcal{T} v'_\ast \). Then, \( v'_\ast \) is a solution to the HJBE by Proposition 4.3 and thus by the uniqueness, \( v'_\ast = v_\ast \), a contradiction. Therefore, if \( v_\ast \) is a unique solution to the HJBE (17) over \( \mathcal{V}_a \), then it is a unique fixed point of \( \mathcal{T} \). □

Corollary E.5 Suppose that Assumption 4.8 holds for any initial admissible policy \( \pi_0 \). Then, under Assumptions 4.7 and 4.11, the HJBE (17) has a unique solution \( v_\ast \) over \( C^1 \) s.t.

(1) optimality (E.4) and Assumption 4.4 are true for \( v^\ast = v_\ast \);

(2) for each initial admissible policy \( \pi_0 \), there exists a function \( \pi_\ast \) s.t. (18) holds and the generated VFs and policies satisfy the stronger convergence, i.e., (C2) and (C3).

Proof. Theorems 4.1 and 4.9 imply that for a given admissible initial policy \( \pi_0 \), there exists a solution \( v_\ast \in C^1 \) to the HJBE (17) s.t. (i) \( v_\ast \in \mathcal{V}_a \) and (ii) the convergence (C2) and (C3) hold for a function \( \pi_\ast \) satisfying (18). Since the solution \( v_\ast \) is now unique over \( C^1 \) by Assumption 4.11 and \( \pi_0 \) is arbitrary, the former implies that \( v \leq v_\ast \) for any \( v \in \mathcal{V}_a \). Moreover, by Theorem E.1d, \( v_\ast \) is the optimal VF and thus satisfies the strong optimality (E.4); since \( \mathcal{V}_a \subset C^1 \) by (3), \( v_\ast \) is the unique solution of the HJBE over \( \mathcal{V}_a \subset C^1 \). Therefore, \( v_\ast \) is the unique fixed point of \( \mathcal{T} \) (i.e., Assumption 4.4 holds for \( v^\ast = v_\ast \)) by Proposition E.4, which completes the proof. □

Note that under the given conditions in Corollary E.3 or E.5, (E.3) holds with locally uniform convergence (C2) (apply Theorem 4.1 for monotonicity) — stronger than convergence (C1) in a metric shown in Corollary E.2. In addition, Corollary E.5 provides the additional convergence (C3) without employing the PI operator \( \mathcal{T} \) and any assumptions imposed on it. We note that even the stronger (i.e., locally uniform) convergence of \( \langle \pi_i \rangle \) than that in (C3) can be obtained in the concave Hamiltonian formulation in §5.1, with both Assumption 4.7 and 4.8b for any \( \pi_0 \in \Pi_a \) in Corollary E.5 relaxed.

In summary, we characterize \( v_\ast \) in the Corollaries as a unique VF to which \( \langle \mathcal{T}^N v \rangle \) for any \( v \in \mathcal{V}_a \) monotonically converges (i.e., satisfies (E.3) for \( v^\ast = v_\ast \)) in their respective manners. Here, the uniqueness was assumed and is truly necessary — otherwise, some sequence of VFs generated by PIs may converge to another VF \( v'_\ast \neq v_\ast \). In this case, the optimality of \( v_\ast \) becomes vague and not decidable unless \( v'_\ast \leq v_\ast \) for any of such VFs \( v'_\ast \). Since an optimal VF \( v_\ast \) is unique over \( \mathcal{V}_a \) as discussed in §2.4, any two different VFs \( v_\ast, v'_\ast \in \mathcal{V}_a \) cannot be the optimal at the same time.

A similar characterization of \( v_\ast \) is possible without assuming the uniqueness of the solution to the HJBE and without the assumptions on PI, but by proving or imposing (i) the boundary condition (E.1) for a class of policies and (ii) one of the two conditions on \( (v_\ast, \pi_\ast) \) in Theorem E.1c. This approach will be used in the next subsection (§6.2) to characterize the optimality of \( v_\ast \) under the given respective frameworks and conditions therein, without assuming the uniqueness of \( v_\ast \).

E.2 Case Studies of Optimality

We now provide and discuss the condition(s) for optimality of the HJB solution \( (v_\ast, \pi_\ast) \) under certain classes of RL problems shown in §5 Case Studies — specifically, the cases presented in §§5.1, 5.2, and 5.4.

Concave Hamiltonian Formulation (§5.1). Under (30) and (31), Corollary E.5 can be simplified and strengthened with the assumptions on the policies and policy improvement relaxed.

Corollary E.6 If Assumption 4.8a holds for any initial admissible policy \( \pi_0 \), then under (30), (31), and Assumption 4.11, there exists a unique HJB solution \( (v_\ast, \pi_\ast) \) over \( \mathcal{V}_a \times \Pi_a \) s.t. Assumption 4.4 holds for \( v^\ast = v_\ast \), \( \pi \preceq \pi_\ast \) for all \( \pi \in \Pi_a \), \( v_\ast = v_{\pi_\ast} \), and for any initial admissible policy \( \pi_0 \), \( v_i \to v_\ast, \nabla v_i \to \nabla v_\ast, \) and \( \pi_i \to \pi_\ast \), all locally uniformly.

Proof. Combine Lemma I.7 with Corollary E.5. Also note that the HJB policy \( \pi_\ast \) satisfying (18) is uniquely determined under (30) and (31) — see §5.1.1 for details. □

Here, we have directly extended Corollary E.5 to E.6 above in the same way as extending Theorem 4.9 to 5.1, by applying Lemma I.7 in the concave Hamiltonian formulation (30) and (31). Therefore, as discussed in Remark 5.3 and §5.1.2, Corollary E.6 (specifically, Lemma I.7) can be further extended to

(1) the input-affine case where the reward function \( r \) satisfies the conditions in Remark 5.3 and \( (x, u) \mapsto \sigma^2(u) \) is continuous;

(2) the non-affine case (39) and (40) in a similar manner to Theorem 5.4, even when \( \varphi \) and \( \epsilon \) depend on the state \( x \in \mathcal{X} \).
Discounted RL Problems with Bounded VFs (§§5.2). In this case, we can dramatically improve the optimality theory with respect to the solution \( v_* \) to the HJBE (17) and the HJB policy \( \pi_* \) in (18) (of course, under the Assumptions made in §2).

**Theorem E.7** Let \( \gamma \in (0, 1) \). If the HJBE (17) has a bounded \( C^1 \) solution \( v_* \), then for any HJB policy \( \pi_* \) satisfying (18),

1. \( v_* \) is bounded (hence, admissible) and \( v_* = v_{\pi_*} \);
2. \( \pi \leq \pi_* \) for any admissible policy \( \pi \).

Moreover, \( v_* \) is the unique solution to the HJBE (17) over all bounded \( C^1 \) functions \( v : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R} \).

**Proof.** The first two parts can be proven by applying Proposition 5.6 with \( v = v_* \) and Theorem E.1b and c. For the uniqueness of \( v_* \), note that if \( v'_* \) is another bounded \( C^1 \) solution to the HJBE, then we have \( v_* \leq v'_* \) and \( v'_* \leq v_* \), hence \( v_* = v'_* \). □

**Nonlinear Optimal Control** (§5.4). Under the assumptions and notations in §5.4, the optimality of an HJB solution \( (J_*, \pi_*) \), with \( J_* = -v_* \), can be characterized as follows, without assuming the existence and uniqueness of the state trajectories.

**Theorem E.8** Under the assumptions and notations in §5.4, if there exists a HJB solution \( (v_*, \pi_*) \) of (17) and (19) s.t.

1. \( J_* \in C^1_{\text{Lip}} \), positive definite, and radially unbounded;
2. \( \alpha \cdot J_* \leq c_{\pi} \) for some \( \kappa > 0 \),

then, \( \pi_* \in \Pi_0 \), \( J_* = J_{\pi_*} \), and \( J_* \leq J_* \) for any \( \pi \in \Pi \) such that

\[
\lim_{t \to \infty} \mathbb{E}_{\pi}^x [\gamma^t \cdot J_*(X_t)] = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}.
\]

**Proof.** The HJB policy \( \pi_* \) satisfy (19); \( v_* = -J_* \) is \( C^1_{\text{Lip}} \) and negative definite. Hence, \( \pi_* \in \Pi_0 \) by Lemma I.12. Moreover, the HJBE (17), (18), and the positive definiteness of \( c \), with \( J_* = -v_* \) and \( c = -r \), imply that

\[
\dot{J}_*(x, \pi_* (x)) = \alpha \cdot J_*(x) - c_{\pi_*} (x) \leq \alpha \cdot J_*(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}.
\]

\( J_* \) is continuous, positive definite, and radially bounded. Hence, by Lemma I.11, there exist \( K_\infty \) functions \( \rho_1 \) and \( \rho_2 \) s.t.

\[
\rho_1 (||x||) \leq J_*(x) \leq \rho_2 (||x||) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}.
\]

Therefore, the application of Lemma I.10 proves that \( \pi_* \in \Pi \). The remaining proof is divided into two folds.

1. When \( \gamma = 1 \), the HJBE (17) and (18) is reduced to \( \dot{J}_*(x, \pi_* (x)) = -c_{\pi_*} (x) \forall x \in \mathcal{X} \), where \( c_{\pi_*} \) is positive definite by Lemma 5.11. Therefore, \( x_* = 0 \) under \( \pi_* \) is globally asymptotically stable (Khalil, 2002, Theorem 4.2), with \( J_* \) as the radially-unbounded Lyapunov function, and Theorem 5.15 results in \( \pi_* \in \Pi_a \) and \( J_* = J_{\pi_*} \).

2. For \( \gamma \in (0, 1) \) (i.e., \( \alpha > 0 \)), \( \kappa_* J_* \leq c_{\pi} \) can be rewritten as \( \kappa_* J_* \leq c_{\pi} \) for \( \kappa_* = \alpha \kappa > 0 \). Since the HJBE (17) and (18) imply the differential BE (11) for \( v = v_* \) and \( \pi = \pi_* \), we have \( \pi_* \in \Pi_a \) and \( J_* = J_{\pi_*} \) by Theorem 5.16. For both cases, we have \( \pi_* \in \Pi_a \) and \( J_* = J_{\pi_*} \); the last part “\( J_* \leq J_{\pi} \forall \pi \in \Pi \) s.t. (E.5) holds” is obvious by Theorem E.1b. □

The conditions on \( (J_*, \pi_*) \) in Theorem E.8 can be considered a limit version of the three conditions presented in §5.4:

1. \( \pi_0 \in \Pi_a \);
2. \( J_0 \in C^1_{\text{Lip}} \) is positive definite and radially unbounded,
3. there exists \( \kappa_i > 0 \) such that \( \alpha \kappa_i \cdot J_i \leq c_{\pi_i - 1} \).

So, similarly to the third one, (i) the condition \( \alpha \kappa \cdot J_* \leq c_{\pi} \) is always true if \( \gamma = 1 \) by \( \alpha = 0 \) and (43); (ii) in the discounted case \( \gamma \in (0, 1) \), it can reduce to a simpler one: \( \kappa_* J_* \leq c_{\pi} \) for some \( \kappa_* > 0 \); (iii) when \( \kappa \in (0, 1) \), the condition \( \alpha \kappa \cdot J_* \leq c_{\pi} \) is weaker than both of the stability conditions \( \alpha \kappa J_* \leq c_{\pi} \) and (E.6) below corresponding to (44) and (45), respectively.

**Remark.** Suppose \( \pi_* \in \Pi_a \) and \( J_* = J_{\pi_*} \) in Theorem E.8 are true. Then, \( x_* = 0 \) under \( \pi_* \) is asymptotically stable if

\[
\alpha J_*(x) < c_{\pi_*} (x) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X} \setminus \{0\}
\]

by Theorem 5.13. Note that (E.6) is weaker than the stability condition given by Gaitsgory et al. (2015, Assumption 2.3):

\[
\kappa_* J_*(x) \leq c(x, u) \quad \forall (x, u) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{U}, \quad \text{for some } \kappa_* > \alpha.
\]
Remark. The boundary condition (E.5) is true for all policies \( \pi \in \Pi \) s.t. \( \lim_{t \to \infty} \mathbb{E}_t [X_t] = 0 \) \( \forall x \in \mathcal{X} \), including those that globally asymptotically stabilizes the equilibrium point \( x_e = 0 \), as in the proof of Theorem 5.15 (see §G.3). On the other hand, when discounted, (E.5) contains the cases where the state trajectories are globally bounded as in §G.2 or even diverge exponentially such as in the discounted LQR case in §G.3.

F  A Pathological Example (Kiumarsi et al., 2016)

Presented in this appendix is a counter-example where the dynamics is simple but non-affine, and the design of the reward function \( r \) is critical. In this example, (i) a naive choice of \( r \) fails to give a closed-form solution of policy improvement and the HJBE; (ii) in the unconstrained case, such a choice results in a pathological Hamiltonian \( h \) such that the solutions (i.e., \( \pi' \) in (15) for \( \pi \in \Pi_*, v_* \) in the HJBE (17), and \( \pi_a \) in (18)) do not exist. We encourage the readers to read §D beforehand and for a technique to resolve such an issue, see also §5.1.2.

Consider the scalar dynamics \( l = m = 1 \) with the action space \( \mathcal{U} = [-u_{\text{max}}, u_{\text{max}}] \) for \( u_{\text{max}} \in (0, \infty) \):

\[
X_t = X_{t-1}^3 + U_t^3.
\]

Suppose that the reward function \( r \) given by (31) and (35) with \( \Gamma = 1 \), that is, \( r(x, u) = r(x) - \epsilon(u) \) for a continuous function \( r : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R} \) and \( \epsilon : \mathcal{U} \to \mathbb{R} \) given by

\[
\epsilon(u) = \lim_{v \to u} \int_0^v (s^T)^{-1}(u) \, du.
\]

Then, the Hamiltonian \( h : \mathbb{R} \times \mathcal{U} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R} \) in this case is given by

\[
h(x, u, p) = r(x) - \epsilon(u) + p \cdot (x^3 + u^3). \tag{F.1}
\]

**(Input-constrained Case)** First, we consider \( \mathcal{U} = [-1, 1] \) with \( s = \tanh \). In this case, since \( \mathcal{U} \) is compact, the maximal function \( u_*(x, p) \) satisfying (14) for each \( (x, p) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \) exists (see §D). However, a regular point \( u \in (-1, 1) \) s.t.

\[
\partial h(x, u, p)/\partial u = -\tanh^{-1} u + 3pu^2 = 0 \tag{F.2}
\]

cannot be expressed in a closed form since (F.2) is nonlinear in \( u \).

**(Unconstrained Case)** Next, consider (36), that is, \( u_{\text{max}} = \infty \) and \( s(u) = u/2 \). In this case, the maximal function \( u_* \) does not exist since \( \epsilon(u) = u^2 \) and thus for any \( p > 0 \) and \( x \in \mathbb{R} \), the Hamiltonian (F.1) satisfies

\[
\lim_{u \to -\infty} h(x, u, p) = \lim_{u \to -\infty} h(x, u, -p) = \infty.
\]

Therefore, except the trivial cases \( \nabla v_* = 0 \) and \( \nabla v_* = 0 \), the maximal policy \( \pi' \) in (15) and the solution \( v_* \) to the HJBE (17) (and accordingly, \( \pi_a \) in (18)) fail to exist since so do the maxima in those respective equations. Note that the regular points \( u \) s.t. \( \partial h(x, u, p)/\partial u = 0 \) explicitly given by \( u = 0 \) and \( u = 2/(3p) \) are the local maximum and the local minimum, respectively, but the global maximum does not exist in this case.

The issue in both cases above is that even though \( \epsilon \) is strictly convex, \( h \) is not (strictly) concave due to the cubic term \( u^3 \) in the dynamics \( f(x, u) = x^3 + u^3 \). This means that the uniqueness of \( u_* \) is not guaranteed, and the existing regular points \( u \)'s satisfying \( \partial h(x, u, p)/\partial u = 0 \) are not necessarily the maximum of the Hamiltonian \( h(x, u, p) \) (see §D).
G Additional Case Studies

This appendix provides the additional case studies with (strong) connections to case studies in §5 and our theory on PIs presented in the main work (Lee and Sutton, 2020b) and §E.

G.1 General Concave Hamiltonian Formulation

Here, we generalize the methods and results in §5.1.1 to the original RL problem (1). The core idea is to introduce a continuous bijection \( \psi : \mathcal{U}^0 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m \) (which has a continuous inverse \( \psi^{-1} \) by Lemma I.4) and an \( m \)-dimensional action-dynamics:

\[
\dot{U}_t = A_t, \quad A_t \in \mathcal{A} \tag{G.1}
\]

where \( \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m \) is an action space, and the differential action trajectory \( t \mapsto A_t \) is a continuous function from \( \mathbb{T} \) to \( \mathcal{A} \), determining the rate of change of \( U_t \) for all \( t \in \mathbb{T} \), by (G.1); the effective action \( U_t \in \mathbb{R}^m \) generates the real action \( U_t \) by

\[
U_t = \psi^{-1}(A_t). \tag{G.2}
\]

Under (G.1) and (G.2), the results for the concave Hamiltonian formulation in §5.1 can be applied to the RL problem with the affine dynamics

\[
\begin{bmatrix}
\dot{X}_t \\
\dot{U}_t
\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}
f(X_t, \psi^{-1}(A_t)) \\
0
\end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ I \end{bmatrix} A_t,
\]

with \((X_t, U_t) \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times m}\) considered as its state and \( A_t \in \mathcal{A} \) as the action, and the extended reward function \( r_e \):

\[
\begin{align*}
r_e(x, u, a) &= r(x, \psi^{-1}(u)) - c(a),
\end{align*}
\]

where the real action \( U_t \in \mathcal{U} \) is determined by (G.2). Here, \( c : \mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) satisfies the same properties as \( c \) in (31) and can be \((x, u)\)-dependent in the same way to the \( x \)-dependent \( c \) in (37) (Remark 5.3) — see §5.1. Note that the resulting PI will be model-free — it does not explicitly depend on the input-coupling dynamics \( f_e \) in (25) and, of course, \( f_d \). When \( \mathcal{U} = \mathcal{A} = \mathbb{R}^m \), similar ideas were presented by Murray et al. (2002) for input-affine optimal control and Lee, Park, and Choi (2012) for LQRs.

G.2 Discounted RL with Bounded State Trajectories

When \( \gamma \in (0, 1) \) and the state trajectories are bounded, similar properties and results to “§5.2 Discounted RL with Bounded VF” can be obtained as shown below.

**Definition.** The state trajectories under \( \pi \) are said to be globally bounded iff for each \( x \in \mathcal{X} \), \( t \mapsto \mathbb{G}^x_{\pi} [X_t] \) is bounded over \( \mathbb{T} \).

**Proposition G.1** If the state trajectories under \( \pi \) are globally bounded, and \( v \) is continuous, then under \( \gamma \in (0, 1) \), they satisfy the boundary condition (12).

**Proof.** Since \( t \mapsto \mathbb{G}^x_{\pi} [X_t] \) is bounded and \( v \) is continuous, \( t \mapsto \mathbb{G}^x_{\pi} [v(X_t^r)] \) is also bounded, for each \( x \in \mathcal{X} \). Hence, the proof can be done by applying Lemma I.9 in §I. \( \square \)

**Corollary G.2 (Policy Evaluation)** Let \( \gamma \in (0, 1) \) and the state trajectories under \( \pi \) be globally bounded. Then, \( \pi \) is admissible, and \( v = v_\pi \) is the unique solution to the BEs (10) and (11) over all continuous and \( C^1 \) functions, respectively.

**Proof.** Apply Theorem 2.5 and Proposition G.1. \( \square \)

By Corollary G.2, as long as the state trajectories under \( \pi_{i-1} \) are globally bounded and \( \gamma \in (0, 1) \), \( \pi_{i-1} \) is admissible, and the \( i \)th step of the PI methods can run without assuming the boundary condition (29) that is shown to be true by Proposition G.1 in this case. On the other hand, the VF is not necessarily bounded in this case (see the next example, LQR, in §G.3 in which the admissible VF is always quadratic), and it is a bit unclear when and how the state trajectories are bounded. Some stability-related conditions sufficient for global boundedness of the state trajectories are:

1. input-to-state stability (Khalil, 2002, Definition 4.7), ensuring that the state trajectories are globally bounded under any given policy whenever \( \mathcal{U} \) is bounded;
global asymptotic stability (e.g., see nonlinear optimal control in §5.4 and the LQR in §G.3);

(3) global ultimate boundedness of the state trajectories (Khalil, 2002, Definition 4.6), which is stronger than the global boundedness of the state trajectories but weaker than global asymptotic stability.

In general, stability of the system (1) implies boundedness of the state trajectories within some region, but not vice versa.

Note that global boundedness of the state trajectories under $\pi$, including the above three special cases, guarantees their global existence and uniqueness over the entire time interval, under locally Lipschitz $f_{\pi}$, as can be shown by applying the following proposition for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ (see also §5.3 for a general case with locally Lipschitz $f_{\pi}$, and §§5.4 and G.3 for its applications).

**Proposition G.3** Let $f_{\pi}$ be locally Lipschitz and $x \in \mathcal{X}$. If there exists a compact subset $\Omega_x \subset \mathcal{X}$ s.t. $t \mapsto G_{\pi}^x[x_t]$ lies entirely in $\Omega_x$, then $t \mapsto G_{\pi}^x[x_t]$ is uniquely defined over $\mathbb{T}$.

**Proof.** See (Khalil, 2002, Theorem 3.3) or (Haddad and Chellaboina, 2008, Corollary 2.5). $\square$

The HJB solution $(v_*, \pi_*)$ can be also characterized in the discounted case as the optimal solution among all the policies that make the state trajectories globally bounded.

**Corollary G.4** Suppose $\gamma \in (0, 1)$ and the HJB (17) has an upper-bounded solution $v_* \in C^1$. Then,

1. $\pi_*$ is admissible and $v_* \leq v_{\pi_*}$ for any policy $\pi_*$ s.t. (18) holds;
2. moreover, if the state trajectories under $\pi$ (resp. $\pi_*$) are globally bounded, then $v_\pi \leq v_*$ (resp. $v_* = v_{\pi_*}$).

**Proof.** Obvious by Theorem E.1a–c and Proposition G.1 with $v = v_*$. $\square$

### G.3 Linear Quadratic Regulations (LQRs)

A linear quadratic regulation (LQR) consists of

\[
\begin{cases}
\text{a linear dynamics: } f(x, u) = A^0x + Bu, \\
\text{the unconstrained action space: } \mathcal{U} = \mathbb{R}^m, \\
\text{a quadratic positive cost function: } c(x, u) = \begin{bmatrix} x^T & u^T \end{bmatrix} \mathcal{W} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ u \end{bmatrix} \geq 0, \text{ with } \mathcal{W} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} S & E \\ E^T & \Gamma \end{bmatrix},
\end{cases}
\]

where $(A^0, B, S)$ for $A^0 \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times l}$, $B \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times m}$, $S \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times l}$ is stabilizable and observable, $\mathcal{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{(l+m) \times (l+m)}$ is positive semidefinite and nondegenerate, and $\Gamma \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ is positive definite. Note that the LQR (G.3) falls into a special case of the nonlinear optimal control in §5.4 whenever the matrix $\mathcal{W}$ is positive definite. On other other hand, $f^x$ is affine and $r^x$ is strictly concave for each $x \in \mathcal{X}$, with its dynamics satisfying (30) for $f_d(x) = A^0x$ and $F_c(x) = B$ and its reward function $r (= -c)$ satisfying (37) for

\[
t(x) = -x^TSx \text{ and } c(x, u) = u^T\Gamma u + 2x^TEu.
\]

Moreover, whenever $E = 0$, it becomes (31) with $c$ given by $c(u) = u^T\Gamma u$, the unconstrained case “(35) and (36).” Therefore, the LQR (G.3) is an example of the concave Hamiltonian formulation in §5.1.1. Also note that in LQR, $f$ is obviously globally Lipschitz, ensuring the global existence of the unique state trajectories under any globally Lipschitz policy, e.g., the linear one below (Khalil, 2002, 3a; see also Chen, 1998).

In an LQR (G.3), if a policy $\pi$ is linear, i.e., $\pi(x) = -Kx$ ($K \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times l}$), then $J_{\pi} (\equiv -v_{\pi})$ is quadratic, if finite, and can be expressed as $J_{\pi}(x) = x^TP_{\pi}x$ for a positive definite matrix $P_\pi \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times l}$ (e.g., see Lancaster and Rodman, 1995, Lemma 16.3.2 with Theorem 16.3.3(d); Lee et al., 2014, Section 2). Moreover, the maximal policy $\pi'$ in (38) is linear again and can be represented as

\[
\pi'(x) = -K'x \text{ with } K' = \Gamma^{-1}(B^TP_\pi + E^T).
\]

$\text{rank } (\mathcal{W}) = \text{rank } (S) + m$, which is true when $\mathcal{W}$ is positive definite or $E = 0$.\textsuperscript{10}
Algorithm 4: IPI and DPI for the LQR (G.3)

1. Initialize: \( \pi_0(x) = -K_0x \), the initial admissible policy; \( i \leftarrow 1 \);
2. repeat (under the LQR formulation (G.3))
   3. Policy Evaluation: given policy \( \pi_{i-1}(x) = -K_{i-1}x \), find a quadratic function \( v_i(x) = -x^T P_i x \) such that
      \( v_i \) satisfies the BE (10) for some \( \eta > 0 \) or DPI \( P_i \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times l} \) satisfies the matrix formula (G.4);
   4. Policy Improvement: \( K_i \leftarrow \Gamma^{-1}(B^T P_i + E^T) \);
   5. \( i \leftarrow i + 1 \);
until convergence is met.

This observation gives IPI and DPI for the LQR (G.3) shown in Algorithm 4, where DPI solves the matrix equation:

\[
(A_{i-1}^\alpha)^T P_i + P_i A_{i-1}^\alpha = K_{i-1}^T E^T + E K_{i-1} - S - K_{i-1}^T \Gamma K_{i-1}, \tag{G.4}
\]
at each \( i \)th step of policy evaluation. Here, we denote

\[
A_{i-1}^\alpha \triangleq A^\alpha - B K_{i-1} \text{ for } A^\alpha \triangleq A^0 - \alpha I/2
\]
where \( I \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times l} \) denotes the identity matrix. Note that DPI (and IPI — see Theorem G.5a) in Algorithm 4 is equivalent to the existing matrix-form PIs (Arnold III, 1984; Mehrmann, 1991; see also Kleinman, 1968; Lee et al., 2014 for the case \( E = 0 \)). In addition, if \( \mathcal{W} \) is positive definite, then rearranging (48) using (G.4) yields the very stability condition:

\[
(A_{i-1}^0)^T P_i + P_i A_{i-1}^0 \text{ is negative definite,}
\]
for \( J_i (-v_i) \) to be the Lyapunov function for the linear dynamics \( f(x, u) = A^0 x + B u \) under the policy \( \pi_{i-1}(x) = K_{i-1} x \) (Khalil, 2002, Theorem 4.6).

In fact, if the policy \( \pi \) is linear, the process \( X^\pi_t \) generated by

\[
\dot{X}^\pi_t = A^\alpha X^\pi_t + BU^\alpha_t \tag{G.5}
\]
and \( U^\alpha_t = \pi(X^\pi_t) \) for all \( t \in \mathbb{T} \) yields the following expression (G.6) of \( J_\pi \), without the discount factor \( \gamma \) (or rate \( \alpha \)) in its cumulative cost (Anderson and Moore, 1989):

\[
J_\pi(x) \triangleq \mathbb{E}_\pi^x \left[ \int_0^\infty e^{-\alpha t} \cdot C_t \, dt \right] = \mathbb{G}_{\pi}^x,\alpha \left[ \int_0^\infty C_t \, dt \right], \tag{G.6}
\]
where \( \mathbb{G}_{\pi}^x,\alpha[Y] \) means \( \mathbb{G}_\pi^x[Y] \) if \( \alpha = 0 \) but otherwise the value \( Y \) with respect to the state \( X_t = X^\pi_t \) and the action \( U_t = U^\alpha_t \) for all \( t \in \mathbb{T} \); \( C_t = c(X_t, U_t) \) is the quadratic cost at time \( t \). Here, \( (A^\alpha, B, S) \) is stabilizable and observable since so is \( (A^0, B, S) \) (see §4.4). Therefore, any discounted LQR can be transformed into an equivalent undiscounted total one, simply by replacing \( A^0 \) with \( A^\alpha \).

After transformation into (G.5) and (G.6), we can see that a linear policy \( \pi \) is admissible \(\textit{iff} \) \( X^\pi_t \) under \( \pi \) converges to 0 (see Lancaster and Rodman, 1995, Proposition 16.2.9); the convergence \( X^\pi_t \rightarrow 0 \) implies that any quadratic function \( J (= -v) \), say \( J(x) = x^T P x \) for some \( P \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times l} \), satisfies the boundary condition (12) since

\[
\mathbb{G}_{\pi}^x,\alpha \left[ \gamma^t J(X_t) \right] = \mathbb{G}_{\pi}^x \left[ e^{-\alpha t} \cdot X_t^T P X_t \right] = \mathbb{G}_{\pi}^x,\alpha \left[ J(X_t) \right] \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty. \tag{11}
\]
Therefore, by Theorem 4.1, \( \pi \) in Algorithm 4 is admissible and \( P_i = P_{\pi_{i-1}} \) for all \( i \in \mathbb{N} \), but \textit{without assuming the boundary condition} (29) that is true in LQR, as shown above.

As regards to the HJB solution \( (v_\pi, \pi_\pi) \) and the Assumptions in §4, the applications of the LQR theory (Lancaster and Rodman, 1995, Theorem 16.3.3), Proposition E.4, and Lemma 1.7a with Remark 5.3 to (G.5) and (G.6) show that

(1) \( (v_\pi, \pi_\pi) \) satisfying the HJBE (17) and (18) exists;

11. The equality comes from the fact: \( \mathbb{G}_{\pi}^x[e^{-\alpha t/2} X_t] = \mathbb{G}_{\pi}^x[e^{-\alpha t/2} e^{(A^0-BK)t} X_0] = \mathbb{G}_{\pi}^x[e^{(A^0-BK)t} X_0] = \mathbb{G}_{\pi}^x,\alpha[X_t] \) for \( \pi(x) = -Kx. \)
(2) \( J_* \) (\( \cong -v_* \)) and \( \pi_* \) are optimal and given by
\[
\begin{cases}
J_*(x) = x^TP_*x \\
\pi_*(x) = -K_*x
\end{cases}
\]
for a positive definite \( P_* \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times l} \), with \( K_* \equiv \Gamma^{-1}(B^TP_* + E^T) \).

(3) Assumptions 4.4, 4.7, and 4.11 are all true.

Applying the theory developed in this work, we also obtain the following result regarding the PIs applied to the LQR.

**Theorem G.5** The sequences \( \{K_i\} \) and \( \{P_i\} \) generated by Algorithm 4 satisfy the followings:

- a. \( \forall i \in \mathbb{N}: \pi_i(x) = -K_i x \) is admissible and \( P_i = P_{\pi_{i-1}} \).
- b. \( 0 < P_* \leq \cdots \leq P_{i+1} \leq P_i \leq \cdots \leq P_1 \).
- c. \( \lim_{i \to \infty} P_i = P_* \) and \( \lim_{i \to \infty} K_i = K_* \).

**Proof.** First, Theorem 4.1 and the optimality of \( P_* \) prove the first and second parts. Next, Theorem 4.2 implies that there exists \( P \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times l} \) s.t. \( P_i \to P \) (see §I.4). Let \( M_\Omega \equiv \sup_{x \in \Omega} \|x\| < \infty \) for a compact subset \( \Omega \subset X \). Then, we have
\[
0 \leq \sup_{x \in \Omega} \| (P_i - P)x \| \leq \sup_{x \in \Omega} (\| P_i - P \| \cdot \|x\|) = M_\Omega \cdot \| P_i - P \|,
\]
where \( M_\Omega, \| P_i - P \| \to 0 \) by \( P_i \to P \). Hence, \( \nabla v_i \), given by \( \nabla v_i(x) = -2x^TP_i \), converges uniformly on any compact subset of \( X \) and by Lemma I.1, locally uniformly. Finally, by Theorem 5.1 with Remark 5.3, \( P = P_* \) and \( K_i \to K_* \). \( \square \)

By extending the existing analytical results to the LQR (G.3), we can see more: the convergence \( P_i \to P_* \) is quadratic (see §I.4). Therefore, PI methods have faster convergence rates than linear in both discrete and continuous domains: it is finite in a finite MDP (Powell, 2007; Sutton and Barto, 2018) and quadratic in the LQR (G.3). Moreover, it could also imply the local quadratic convergence \( v_i \to v_* \) for a class of nonlinear optimal control problems in §5.4 as the nonlinear problem can be approximated near the equilibrium point \( (x_e, u_e) = (0, 0) \) by an LQR (G.3) with
\[
A^0 = \nabla_x f(0, 0), \quad B = \nabla_u f(0, 0), \quad W = \nabla^2 c(0, 0)
\]
wherever the gradient \( \nabla f(0, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times (l+m)} \) and the Hessian \( \nabla^2 c(0, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^{(l+m) \times (l+m)} \) exist; \( \nabla_x f \) and \( \nabla_u f \) denote the gradients of \( f(x, u) \) w.r.t. \( x \) and \( u \), respectively. Therefore, the rate of convergence is possibly, locally quadratic for the nonlinear optimal control problem in §5.4 when its linearization \( (A^0, B, W) \) above exists and satisfies the assumptions on the LQR shown in this appendix.

**H  Implementation Details**

This appendix provides details of the implementations of the PI methods (i.e., Algorithm 3) experimented in §6.

**H.1  Structure of the VF Approximator \( V_i \)**

Recall that in §6, the solution to the policy evaluation, \( V_i \), is represented by a linear function approximator \( V \) as
\[
V_i(x) \approx V(x; \theta_i) = \theta_i^T \phi(x),
\]
for its weights \( \theta_i \in \mathbb{R}^L \) and features \( \phi : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}^L \), with the number of features \( L = 121 \). Since the policy improvement needs a differentiable structure, we choose radial basis functions (RBFs) as the features \( \phi \), rather than using (tile-coded) binary ones (Sutton and Barto, 2018). Hence, the \( j \)-th component of the feature vector \( \phi \) is given by
\[
\phi_j(x) = \exp\left(-((x - c_j)^T \Sigma^{-1} (x - c_j))\right)
\]
where \( \Sigma \equiv \text{diag}\{1, 2\} \) is a weighting matrix, and \( \{c_j \in \Omega : 1 \leq j \leq L\} \) is the set of RBF center points \( c_j \) that are uniformly distributed within the compact region \( \Omega = [-\pi, \pi] \times [-6, 6] \subset \mathcal{X} \). In the simulations in §6, we choose \( L = 11 \times 11 = 121 \); the set of center points \( \{c_j\} \) includes the origin \((0,0)\) and some boundaries of \( \Omega \). Also note that whenever inputting to the features \( \phi \), the first component \( x_1 \) of \( x \) is normalized to a value within \([-\pi, \pi]\) by adding \( \pm 2\pi k \) to it for some \( k \in \mathbb{Z} \).
H.2 Least-Squares Solution of Policy Evaluation

In the experiments in §6, the policy evaluation (or the BE) in Algorithm 3 is solved by batch least squares, over the set of initial states \( \{x_k : 1 \leq k \leq N \times M \} \), uniformly distributed as the \((N \times M)\)-grid points over \( \Omega \), where \( N, M \in \mathbb{N} \) are the total numbers of the grids in the \( x_1 \) and \( x_2 \)-directions, respectively. We chose \( N = 20 \) and \( M = 21 \), so the total 420 number of grid points \( x_k \)'s in \( \Omega \) are considered to determine the least-squares solution \( \theta_i^* \) in each policy evaluation, except the DPI variant in Case 4 where we used \( M = 20 \) instead of 21.

To describe the batch least square solution \( \theta_i^* \), note that under the approximation (49), the BEs of the variants of DPI and IPI in Algorithm 3 can be expressed at each point \( x = x_k \) as

\[
y_i(x_k) = \begin{cases} 
\mathbb{E}^x_{\pi_{i-1}}[\varphi(X_0) - \gamma d \cdot \varphi(X_{\Delta t})] & \text{for the variant of IPI}, \\
\alpha_d \cdot \varphi(x) - \Delta t \cdot \nabla \varphi(x) \cdot f_{\pi_{i-1}}(x) & \text{for the variant of DPI}.
\end{cases}
\]

Concatenating the vectors as and denoting them by

\[
\mathbf{y}_i \equiv [y_i(x_1) \ y_i(x_2) \cdots y_i(x_{NM})] \\
\mathbf{e}_i \equiv [\varepsilon_i(x_1) \ \varepsilon_i(x_2) \cdots \varepsilon_i(x_{NM})]^T \\
\mathbf{z}_i \equiv [r(x_1, \pi_{i-1}(x_1)) \ \cdots \ r(x_{NM}, \pi_{i-1}(x_{NM}))]^T
\]

the expression (H.1) can be compactly rewritten as

\[
\mathbf{y}_i^T \cdot \theta_i + \mathbf{e}_i = \mathbf{z}_i,
\]

and the batch least-squares solution \( \theta_i^* \) minimizing the approximation error \( J(\theta_i) \doteq \frac{1}{2} \| \mathbf{e}_i \|^2 \) over \( \{x_k\} \) is given by

\[
\theta_i^* = (\mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{y}_i^T)^{-1} \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{z}_i
\]

so long as \( \text{rank}(\mathbf{y}_i) = L \). We implement each \( i \)th policy evaluation by collecting data \( \mathbf{y}_i \) and \( \mathbf{z}_i \) at the distinct points \( \{x_k\} \subset \Omega \) and then perform the batch least squares to find the minimizing solution \( \theta_i^* \).

H.3 Reward Function and Policy Improvement Update Rule

Recall that each experimental case in §6 basically considers the reward function \( r \) given by (31) and (35) with (50), that is,

\[
r(x, u) = r(x) - c(u), \quad \text{with } c(u) = \lim_{t \to u} \int_0^t (s^T)^{-1}(u) \cdot \Gamma \text{du and } s(u) = u_{\max} \tanh(u/u_{\max}) \tag{H.2}
\]

where \( \Gamma > 0 \) and the sigmoid function \( s \) gives the following expressions of the functions \( \sigma \) in (33) and \( c \):

\[
\sigma(u) = u_{\max} \tanh((\Gamma)^{-1} \cdot u) = 5 \tanh \left( ((\Gamma)^{-1} \cdot u \right),
\]

\[
c(u) = \Gamma \cdot (u^2_{\max}/2) \cdot \ln \left( u_{+}^+ \cdot u_{-}^- \right) = 12.5 \cdot \Gamma \cdot \ln \left( u_{+}^+ \cdot u_{-}^- \right)
\]

for \( u_{\pm} \doteq 1 \pm u_{\max} \). Here, note that \( c(u) \) is finite for all \( u \in \mathcal{U} \) and has its maximum at the end points \( u = \pm u_{\max} \) as \( c(\pm u_{\max}) = \Gamma \cdot (u^2_{\max} \ln 4)/2 \approx 17.3287 \cdot \Gamma \).

As the inverted pendulum dynamics is input-affine, the above reward setting (H.2) corresponds to the concave Hamiltonian formulation in §5.1.1. Hence, the policy improvement becomes the following simple update rule:

\[
\pi_i(x) \approx \pi(x; \theta_i^*) = \sigma(\Delta t \cdot F^T_i(x) \cdot \nabla V^T(x; \theta_i^*)) = -5 \tanh \left( \frac{1}{4 \Gamma} \cdot \cos x_1 \cdot \nabla x_2 \phi(x) \cdot \theta_i^* \right) \tag{H.3}
\]

where \( \nabla x_2 \phi(x) \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times L} \) denotes the gradient of \( \phi(x_1, x_2) \) with respect to the second component \( x_2 \). Cases 1 and 2 in §6 are associated with the above update rule (H.3).
In the limit $\Gamma \to 0^+$, it is obvious that $\sigma(u) \to u_{\text{max}} \cdot \text{sign}(u)$ and $\epsilon(u) \to 0$. In this case, thereby, the reward function (H.2) and the policy improvement update rule (H.3) become $r(x, u) = v(x)$ and

$$\pi_t(x) \approx \pi(x; \theta^*_t) = -u_{\text{max}} \cdot \text{sign}\left(\cos x_1 \cdot \nabla x_2 \phi(x) \cdot \theta^*_t\right).$$

Cases 3 and 4 in §6 consider this type of bang-bang policies, with continuous (Case 3) and binary state-reward $r$ (Case 4).

I Proofs

In this appendix, we provide all the proofs of the Theorems, Lemmas, Propositions, and some Corollaries stated in the main work (Lee and Sutton, 2020b). For the proof of properties of locally uniform convergence, the following lemma is necessary.

**Lemma I.1 (Remmert, 1991)** A sequence of functions $g_i : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}^n$ converges to $g$ locally uniformly iff $g_i \to g$ uniformly on any compact subsets of $\mathcal{X}$.

I.1 Proofs in §2 Preliminaries

**Proof of Lemma 2.1.** For any policy $\pi$ and any $x \in \mathcal{X}$,

$$v_\pi(x) \leq \lim_{\eta \to \infty} \left( r_{\text{max}} \cdot \int_0^\eta \gamma^t dt \right) = \begin{cases} r_{\text{max}}/\alpha \text{ for } \gamma \in (0, 1), \\ 0 \text{ for } \gamma = 1 \end{cases}$$

(note that $r_{\text{max}} = 0$ when $\gamma = 1$). This proves the statement with $\bar{v} = r_{\text{max}}/\alpha$ for $0 < \gamma < 1$ and $\bar{v} = 0$ for $\gamma = 1$. \(\square\)

**Proof of Proposition 2.2.** If the reward $R_t$ under a policy $\pi$ satisfies (4) with $\kappa < \alpha$, then we obtain from the definitions

$$v_\pi(x) = \int_0^\infty e^{-\alpha t} \cdot G^x_\pi[R_t] dt \geq \rho(x) \cdot \int_0^\infty e^{-(\alpha-\kappa)t} dt = (\alpha - \kappa)^{-1} \cdot \rho(x) > -\infty \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X},$$

which also shows that $v_\pi$ is lower-bounded if so is $\rho$. Then, the proof is completed by Lemma 2.1. \(\square\)

**Proof of Lemma 2.3.** By the standard calculus and $\alpha \doteq -\ln \gamma$,

$$\frac{d}{dt} (\gamma^t \cdot v(X_t)) = \gamma^t \cdot (\dot{v}(X_t, U_t) - \alpha \cdot v(X_t)).$$

Hence, applying (7) and noting that $h(x, u, \nabla v(x)) = r(x, u) + \dot{v}(x, u)$, we obtain that for any $t \geq 0$ and $x \in \mathcal{X}$,

$$0 \sim G^x_\pi \left[ \gamma^t \cdot (h(X_t, U_t, \nabla v(X_t)) - \alpha \cdot v(X_t)) \right] = G^x_\pi \left[ \gamma^t \cdot (R_t + \dot{v}(X_t, U_t) - \alpha \cdot v(X_t)) \right] = G^x_\pi \left[ \gamma^t \cdot R_t + \frac{d}{dt} (\gamma^t \cdot v(X_t)) \right]$$

where $\sim$ is equal to $=, \leq, \text{ or } \geq$. Then, integrating it from $t = 0$ to $t = \eta$ yields (6).

For the proof of the opposite direction, assume that $v$ satisfies (6). Then, rearranging (6) as

$$(1 - \gamma^\eta) \cdot v(x) \sim G^x_\pi \left[ \mathcal{R}_\eta + \gamma^\eta \cdot (v(X_\eta) - v(X_0)) \right] \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X} \quad \forall \eta > 0,$$

dividing it by $\eta$, and limiting $\eta \to 0$ yields

$$-\ln \gamma \cdot v(x) \sim r_\pi(x) + \dot{v}(x, \pi(x)) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X},$$

which implies (7) since $\alpha = -\ln \gamma$ and $h(x, \pi(x), \nabla v(x)) = r_\pi(x) + \dot{v}(x, \pi(x))$. \(\square\)

**Proof of Proposition 2.4.** Fix $x \in \mathcal{X}$ and take the limit $\eta \to \infty$ of (8) to have

$$v_\pi(x) = \lim_{\eta \to \infty} G^x_\pi \left[ \mathcal{R}_\eta + \gamma^\eta \cdot v_\pi(X_\eta) \right] = v_\pi(x) + \lim_{\eta \to \infty} G^x_\pi \left[ \gamma^\eta \cdot v_\pi(X_\eta) \right].$$

Hence, noting that $v_\pi(x)$ is finite by $\pi \in \Pi_\alpha$, we obtain the boundary condition $\lim_{\eta \to \infty} G^x_\pi \left[ \gamma^\eta \cdot v_\pi(X_\eta) \right] = 0$. Since $x \in \mathcal{X}$ is arbitrary, the proof is completed. \(\square\)
Proof of Theorem 2.5. Suppose \( v \) satisfies the integral BE (10) without loss of generality (or, convert the differential BE (11) to (10) via Lemma 2.3 and fix \( \eta > 0 \)). Then, the repetitive applications of (10) to itself \( k \)-times result in

\[
v(x) = G_\pi^x [\mathcal{R}_\eta + \gamma^\eta \cdot v(X_\eta)] = G_\pi^x [\mathcal{R}_{2\eta} + \gamma^{2\eta} \cdot v(X_{2\eta})] = \cdots = G_\pi^x [\mathcal{R}_{k\eta} + \gamma^{k\eta} \cdot v(X_{k\eta})] \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}.
\]

Taking the limit \( k \to \infty \) and substituting (12), we obtain

\[
v(x) = \lim_{k \to \infty} G_\pi^x [\mathcal{R}_{k\eta}] = \lim_{k \to \infty} G_\pi^x [\gamma^{k\eta} \cdot v(X_{k\eta})] = v_\pi(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}.
\]

Therefore, \( v = v_\pi \) and since \( v(x) \) is finite for each \( x \in \mathcal{X} \), \( \pi \in \Pi_\eta \). The converse is obvious by Proposition 2.4. \( \square \)

Proof of Lemma 2.6. By Lemma 2.3, the inequality (13) is equivalent to

\[
v(x) \leq G_\pi^x [\mathcal{R}_{\eta} + \gamma^\eta \cdot v(X_\eta)] \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X} \quad \forall \eta > 0.
\]

Then, taking the limit supremum at \( \eta \to \infty \), we obtain for each \( x \in \mathcal{X} \):

\[
v(x) \leq v_{\pi'}(x) + \limsup_{\eta \to \infty} G_\pi^x [\gamma^\eta \cdot v(X_\eta)] \leq v_{\pi'}(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}
\]

where we have substituted

\[
\limsup_{\eta \to \infty} G_\pi^x [\gamma^\eta \cdot v(X_\eta)] \leq \sup_{x \in \mathcal{X}} v(x) \cdot \lim_{\eta \to \infty} \gamma^\eta \leq 0
\]

which is true since \( v \) is upper-bounded (by zero if \( \gamma = 1 \)) and \( \gamma \in (0, 1] \). Since \( v(x) \) is finite for all \( x \in \mathcal{X} \), we have

\[-\infty < v(x) \leq v_{\pi'}(x) \leq \pi < \infty \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}
\]

by Lemma 2.1. Therefore, \( \pi' \) is admissible and \( v \leq v_{\pi'} \). \( \square \)

Proof of Theorem 2.7. The policy \( \pi' \) given by (15) satisfies:

\[
h(x, \pi'(x), \nabla v_\pi(x)) \geq h(x, \pi(x), \nabla v_\pi(x)) = \alpha \cdot v_\pi(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}
\]

where we substituted the differential BE (9). Therefore, the applications of Lemmas 2.1 and 2.6 directly prove the theorem. \( \square \)

Proof of Theorem 2.8. By optimality and Lemma 2.1, \( v \leq v_* \leq \pi \) for any \( v \in V_\pi \), implying \( v_* \in V_\pi \). Moreover, the maximal policy \( \pi_*' \) over \( \pi_* \) is also optimal since \( v_{\pi_*'} = v_{\pi_*} \leq v_{\pi_*} \) by Theorem 2.7 and \( v_{\pi_*'} \leq v_* \) by optimality. Therefore, the differential BE (9) w.r.t. the policy \( \pi = \pi_*' \) and the policy improvement (15) for \( \pi' = \pi_*' \) and \( \pi = \pi_* \), all with \( v_{\pi_*} = v_* = v_{\pi_*} \), result in the HJBE (17). Finally, comparing the HJBE (17) with the differential BE (9) for \( \pi = \pi_* \) and \( v = v_* \), we have (18). \( \square \)

1.2 Proofs in §4 Fundamental Properties of PIs

Proof of Theorem 4.1. \( \pi_0 \) is admissible by initialization. Suppose for some \( i \in \mathbb{N} \) that \( \pi_{i-1} \) is admissible. Then, \( v_i = v_{\pi_{i-1}} \) holds by Theorem 2.5 and the boundary condition (29); \( \pi_i \) is also admissible and \( \pi_{i-1} \preceq \pi_i \) by Theorem 2.7. Therefore, the mathematical induction completes the proof. \( \square \)

Proof of Theorem 4.2. By Theorem 4.1 and Lemma 2.1, we have

\[
v_1(x) \leq \cdots \leq v_i(x) \leq v_{i+1}(x) \leq \cdots \leq \pi < \infty \text{ for each fixed } x \in \mathcal{X}.
\]

That is, the sequence \( \{v_i(x)\} \) in \( \mathbb{R} \) is monotonically increasing and upper bounded by a constant \( \pi \in \mathbb{R} \). Hence, \( v_i(x) \) converges to \( \hat{v}_\pi(x) = \sup_{i \in \mathbb{N}} v_i(x) \) by monotone convergence theorem (Thomson et al., 2001, Theorem 2.28), implying the pointwise convergence \( v_i \to \hat{v}_\pi \).

Next, since every admissible VF is assumed \( C^1 \) (see (3)) and \( v_i = v_{\pi_{i-1}} \) is admissible by Theorem 4.1, \( v_i \) is continuous for each \( i \in \mathbb{N} \). Hence, \( \hat{v}_\pi \) is lower semicontinuous (Folland, 1999, Proposition 7.11c) and the monotone sequence \( \{v_i\} \) converges to \( \hat{v}_\pi \) uniformly on \( \Omega \) if \( \Omega \) is compact and \( \hat{v}_\pi \) is continuous over \( \Omega \) by Dini’s theorem (Rudin, 1964, Theorem 7.13). Finally, \( v_i \to \hat{v}_\pi \) uniformly on any compact \( \Omega \subset \mathcal{X} \) if \( \hat{v}_\pi \) is continuous, hence the last statement is obvious by Lemma 1.1. \( \square \)
Proof of Proposition 4.3. Since \( v^* \) is a fixed point of \( T \), we have \( T v^* = v^* \in \mathcal{V}_a \). Let \( \pi^* \) be a policy s.t. \( v_{\pi^*} = T v^* \) and

\[
\pi^*(x) \in \arg \max_{u \in \mathcal{U}} h(x, u, \nabla v^*(x)) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}.
\]  \hspace{1cm} (I.1)

Then, we have \( v_{\pi^*} = v^* \in \mathcal{V}_a \), meaning that \( \pi^* \) is admissible. Since any admissible policy \( \pi \) satisfies the differential BE (9), it is true for \( \pi = \pi^* \), that is, \( \alpha \cdot v_{\pi^*}(x) = h(x, \pi^*(x), \nabla v_{\pi^*}(x)) \) for all \( x \in \mathcal{X} \), from which and \( v_{\pi^*} = v^* \) we finally obtain

\[
\alpha \cdot v^*(x) = h(x, \pi^*(x), \nabla v^*(x)) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}.
\]

Therefore, the substitution of (I.1) concludes that a fixed point \( v^* \) of \( T \) is a solution \( v_* \) to the HJBE (17). \( \square \)

Proof of Theorem 4.5. By Lemma I.2 below and Assumption 4.4, \( v^* \) is a unique fixed point of \( T^N \) for all \( N \in \mathbb{N} \). Hence, Bessaga (1959)’s converse of the Banach fixed point theorem ensures that there exists a metric \( d \) on \( \mathcal{V}_a \) such that \((\mathcal{V}_a, d)\) is a complete metric space and \( T \) is a contraction under \( d \). Then, as \( v^* \) is the unique fixed point of \( T \), the Banach fixed point theorem (e.g., Kirk and Sims, 2013, Theorem 2.2) shows

\[
\forall v_1 \in \mathcal{V}_a : \lim_{N \to \infty} v_{N+1} = \lim_{N \to \infty} T^N v_1 = v^* \text{ in the metric } d,
\]

implying the convergence \( v_i \to v^* \) in the metric \( d \). \( \square \)

Lemma I.2 If \( v^* \) is a unique fixed point of \( T \), then it is a unique fixed point of \( T^N \) for any \( N \in \mathbb{N} \).

Proof. Suppose \( v^* \) is the unique fixed point of \( T \). Then, it is also a fixed point of \( T^N \) for any \( N \in \mathbb{N} \) since

\[
T^N v^* = T^{N-1}[T v^*] = T^{N-1} v^* = \cdots = T v^* = v^*.
\]

To show that \( v^* \) is the unique fixed point of \( T^N \) for all \( N \in \mathbb{N} \) by contradiction, suppose that there exist \( M \in \mathbb{N} \) and \( v \in \mathcal{V}_a \) s.t. \( T^M v = v \neq v^* \). Then, the repetitive applications of Theorem 2.7 result in

\[
v \leq T v \leq T^2 v \leq \cdots \leq T^M v = v
\]

and thus \( T v = v \). Since \( v^* \) is the unique fixed point of \( T \), we have a contradiction, \( v = v^* \). Therefore, \( v^* \) is the unique fixed point of \( T^N \) for all \( N \in \mathbb{N} \), and the proof is completed. \( \square \)

Proof of Theorem 4.6. \( \hat{\pi}_t \in \mathcal{V}_a \) and (3) imply \( \hat{\pi}_t \in C^1 \) and thus continuity of \( \hat{\pi}_t \). Hence, \( v_i \) locally uniformly converges to \( \hat{\pi}_t \) by Theorem 4.2c. This and Lemma I.1 imply that for each compact subset \( \Omega \) of \( \mathcal{X} \), \( v_i \to \hat{\pi}_t \) in the uniform pseudometric \( d_{\Omega} \). By this and continuity of \( T \) under \( d_{\Omega} \), we have

\[
\hat{\pi}_t = \lim_{i \to \infty} v_{i+1} = \lim_{i \to \infty} T v_i = T \left( \lim_{i \to \infty} v_i \right) = T \hat{\pi}_t \text{ in the metric } d_{\Omega},
\]

implying \( d_{\Omega}(\hat{\pi}_t, T \hat{\pi}_t) = 0 \) for every compact subset \( \Omega \subset \mathcal{X} \), hence \( \hat{\pi}_t = T \hat{\pi}_t \). Therefore, we finally have \( \hat{\pi}_t = v^* \) by Assumption 4.4, which completes the proof. \( \square \)

Proof of Theorem 4.9. \( \nabla v_i \) converges locally uniformly by Assumption 4.8a. Hence, for each \( x \in \mathcal{X} \), there is a neighborhood \( \mathcal{N}_x \) of \( x \) on which \( \nabla v_i \) converges uniformly. Since a neighborhood \( \mathcal{N}_x \) of \( x \) contains an open ball \( B_x \equiv \{ y \in \mathcal{X} : \| y - x \| < r \} \) centered at \( x \), for some \( r > 0 \), and every open ball in \( \mathcal{X} \) is convex, Lemma I.3 below ensures that for every \( x \in \mathcal{X} \), \( \hat{\pi}_t \) is \( C^1 \) over \( B_x \) and \( \nabla v_i \to \nabla \hat{\pi}_t \) uniformly on \( B_x \). This and \( \mathcal{X} = \bigcup_{x \in \mathcal{X}} B_x \) establish that \( \hat{\pi}_t \) is \( C^1 \) and

\[
\nabla v_i \to \nabla \hat{\pi}_t \text{ locally uniformly.} \quad \hspace{1cm} (I.2)
\]

Since \( \hat{\pi}_t \) is continuous (it is \( C^1 \)), Theorem 4.2c implies that \( v_i \to \hat{\pi}_t \) locally uniformly. Let \( \hat{\pi}_t : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{U} \) be the function to which \( \langle \pi_i \rangle \) converges pointwise. Such a function \( \hat{\pi}_t \) exists by Assumption 4.8b. Then, since each of the \( i \)th policy \( \pi_i \) satisfies

\[
\pi_i(x) \in \arg \max_{u \in \mathcal{U}} h(x, u, \nabla v_i(x)) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X},
\]

Assumption 4.7 and (I.2) imply that the limit function \( \hat{\pi}_t \) holds

\[
\hat{\pi}_t(x) \in \arg \max_{u \in \mathcal{U}} h(x, u, \nabla \hat{\pi}_t(x)) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}. \quad \hspace{1cm} (I.3)
\]
Note that for each $i \in \mathbb{N}$, $v_i = v_{\pi_{i-1}} \in \mathcal{V}_2$ by Theorem 4.1, hence $\pi_{i-1}$ satisfies the differential BE (9) for $\pi = \pi_{i-1}$. That is,
\[
\alpha \cdot v_i(x) = h(x, \pi_{i-1}(x), \nabla v_i(x)) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X} \quad \forall i \in \mathbb{N}.
\]

Then, taking the pointwise limit $i \to \infty$ on both sides and using continuity of $h$ and (I.3) results in
\[
\alpha \cdot \hat{v}_*(x) = h(x, \hat{\pi}_*(x), \nabla \hat{v}_*(x)) = \max_{u \in \mathcal{U}} h(x, u, \nabla \hat{v}_*(x)) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}.
\]
Here, (I.4) and (I.3) are exactly the HJBE (17) and (18), respectively, for $v_* = \hat{v}_*$ and $\pi_* = \hat{\pi}_*$, completing the proof. \qed

**Lemma I.3** If $\nabla v_i$ uniformly converges on an open convex subset $\mathcal{S} \subset \mathcal{X}$, then
\[
\hat{v}_* \text{ is } C^1 \text{ over } \mathcal{S} \text{ and } \nabla v_i \to \nabla \hat{v}_* \text{ uniformly on } \mathcal{S}.
\]

**Proof.** Let $x \in \mathcal{S}$ and $e_j$ be the unit vector in $\mathcal{X}$ (= $\mathbb{R}^l$) whose $j$th element is 1 and 0 otherwise. Since $\mathcal{S}$ is open, there exists $\theta > 0$ s.t. for each $j$, both
\[
x_j^+ \doteq x + \frac{\theta}{2} \cdot e_j \quad \text{and} \quad x_j^- \doteq x - \frac{\theta}{2} \cdot e_j
\]
belong to $\mathcal{S}$. Define a function $g_j : [0, 1] \to \mathcal{S}$ as
\[
g_j(\beta) = 2^{j+1} \cdot x_j^+ + (1 - \beta) x_j^- \quad \text{for } \beta \in [0, 1],
\]
where the dependencies on $x$ and $\theta$ are implicit; by convexity of $\mathcal{S}$, $g_j(\beta) \in \mathcal{S}$ for all $\beta \in [0, 1]$. Then, the composition $v_i \circ g_j$ pointwise converges to $\hat{v}_* \circ g_j$ by Theorem 4.2a. Moreover, the derivative $(v_i \circ g_j)'(w.r.t. \beta)$ can be expressed by chain rule as
\[
(v_i \circ g_j)'(\beta) = 1 \cdot \nabla v_i(g_j(\beta)) e_j = \theta \cdot \frac{\partial v_i(z)}{\partial x_j}
\]
which reveals that $(v_i \circ g_j)'$ is continuous and converges uniformly on $[0, 1]$ since so is $\nabla v_i$ on $\mathcal{S}$ (note that $v_i = v_{\pi_{i-1}} \in C^1$ by Theorem 4.1 and the regularity Assumption (3)). Hence, the application of (Thomson et al., 2001, Theorem 9.34) shows that $\hat{v}_* \circ g_j$ is differentiable (w.r.t. $\beta$) and
\[
(v_i \circ g_j)'(\beta) \to (\hat{v}_* \circ g_j)' \text{ uniformly on } [0, 1].
\]
By definition, the derivative $(\hat{v}_* \circ g_j)'(\beta)$ at $\beta = 1/2$ satisfies
\[
(\hat{v}_* \circ g_j)'(1/2) = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{\hat{v}_*(g_j(1/2 + \epsilon)) - \hat{v}_*(g_j(1/2))}{\epsilon} = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{\hat{v}_*(x + \epsilon \cdot e_j) - \hat{v}_*(x)}{\epsilon} = \theta \cdot \frac{\partial \hat{v}_*(x)}{\partial x_j}.
\]
Since this is true for any $j \in \{1, 2, \ldots, l\}$ and any $x \in \mathcal{S}$, the gradient $\nabla \hat{v}_*$ exists over $\mathcal{S}$. Moreover, (I.5) at $\beta = 1/2$ implies
\[
\frac{\partial v_i(x)}{\partial x_j} \to \frac{\partial \hat{v}_*(x)}{\partial x_j} \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{S} \quad \forall j \in \{1, 2, \ldots, l\},
\]
hence $\nabla v_i$ uniformly converges to $\nabla \hat{v}_*$ on $\mathcal{S}$. This also implies that the convergent point $\nabla \hat{v}_*$ is continuous over $\mathcal{S}$ (Rudin, 1964, Theorem 7.12). That is, $\hat{v}_*$ is $C^1$ over $\mathcal{S}$. \qed

### 1.3 Proofs in §5 Case Studies

Here, we prove the mathematical statements, including Theorems, Lemmas, Propositions, and some Corollaries, w.r.t. each case study presented in the main paper (Lee and Sutton, 2020b, §5). For some proofs, the following lemmas are required.

**Lemma I.4** For any two action spaces $\mathcal{U}$ and $\mathcal{A}$, the inverse of a continuous bijection $g : \mathcal{U}^0 \to \mathcal{A}^0$ is continuous.

**Proof.** By definitions, $\mathcal{U}^0$ and $\mathcal{A}^0$ are open sets in $\mathbb{R}^m$. Hence, Brouwer (1911)’s invariance of domain theorem implies that $g(O)$ for every open subset $O \subseteq \mathcal{U}^0$ is open. Hence, the inverse $g^{-1}$ is continuous (Rudin, 1964, Theorem 4.8). \qed

**Lemma I.5** Let $\psi : \mathcal{X}^2 \to \mathcal{U}$ be a continuous function. If a sequence $(g_i)$ of continuous functions $g_i : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{X}$ converges to $g$ locally uniformly, then so does $x \mapsto \psi(x, g_i(x))$ to $x \mapsto \psi(x, g(x))$.  

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Proof. Let $\Omega \subset X$ be compact. Then, by locally uniform convergence $g_i \to g$ and Lemma I.1, we have the followings:

(1) $(g_i)$ is uniformly equicontinuous over any compact subset $S \subset X$ (Rudin, 1964, Theorem 7.24), that is, given $\delta > 0$, there exists $\delta' > 0$ s.t. $\|x - x'\| < \delta' \implies \|g_i(x) - g_i(x')\| < \delta, \quad \forall x, x' \in S \quad \forall i \in \mathbb{N}$; (I.6)

(2) $(g_i)$ is uniformly bounded on $\Omega$ (e.g., Rudin, 1964, Theorem 7.25);

(3) $g$ is continuous over $\Omega$ (Rudin, 1964, Theorem 7.12), hence the image $g(\Omega)$ is compact (Rudin, 1964, Theorem 4.14). In short, we have uniform equicontinuity (I.6) over any compact subset $S \subset X$ and a uniform bound $M > 0$ over $\Omega$, that is,

$$
\|g_i(x)\| \leq M \quad \forall x \in \Omega \quad \forall i \in \mathbb{N}.
$$

(I.7)

Next, let $\varepsilon > 0$ and $S_0 \subset X$ be a compact subset defined as $S_0 = \{ y \in X : \|y\| \leq M \}$. Then, the function $\psi$ is uniformly continuous over the compact subset $\Omega \times S_0 \subset X^2$ (Rudin, 1964, Theorem 4.14), hence there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$
\|x - x'\| < \delta \text{ and } \|y - y'\| < \delta \implies \|\psi(x,y) - \psi(x',y')\| < \varepsilon, \quad \forall x, x' \in \Omega \quad \forall y, y' \in S_0
$$

Since $g_i(x), g(x) \in S_0$ for each $x \in \Omega$ and $i \in \mathbb{N}$ by (I.7), the uniform equicontinuity (I.6) over the compact set $S = S_0$ finally results in: for any $x, x' \in \Omega$ and any $i \in \mathbb{N},$

$$
\|x - x'\| < \delta^* \implies \|\psi(x,g_i(x)) - \psi(x,g_i(x))\| < \varepsilon
$$

where $\delta^* = \min\{\delta, \delta'\}$. That is, the sequence of functions $x \mapsto \psi(x, g_i(x))$ is uniformly equicontinuous over $\Omega$. Moreover, for each $x \in X$, $y \mapsto \psi(x, g_i(x))$ is continuous and $g_i(x)$ converges to $g(x)$, hence $\psi(x, g_i(x))$ converges to $\psi(x, g(x))$. Therefore, $x \mapsto \psi(x, g_i(x))$ converges to $x \mapsto \psi(x, g(x))$ uniformly on $\Omega$ (Royden, 1988, Lemma 39 in Chapter 7; or see Rudin, 1964, Exercise 16 in Chapter 7); since the compact set $\Omega$ is arbitrary, the proof is completed by Lemma I.1. \qed

Proof of Properties of $\epsilon$ (§5.1.1). The target properties are w.r.t. the gradient and the gradient inverse of $\epsilon$ shown below:

(1) $\nabla \epsilon^T$ is bijective, so that its inverse $\sigma = (\nabla \epsilon^T)^{-1}$ exists;

(2) $\nabla \epsilon^T$ and $\sigma$ are strictly monotone and continuous.

where $\epsilon : U \to \mathbb{R}$ is a function given in (31). Here, we prove those properties of $\epsilon$.

To begin with, recall that $\epsilon$ is assumed strictly convex, C$^1$, and its gradient $\nabla \epsilon$ is surjective, i.e., $\nabla \epsilon^T(U^o) = \mathbb{R}^m$. First, we focus on $\nabla \epsilon^T$. As $\epsilon$ is assumed $C^1$, continuity of $\nabla \epsilon^T$ is obvious. To prove strict monotonicity, note that $\epsilon$ satisfies Lemma I.6 below; by adding the two strict inequalities in Lemma I.6 and rearranging it, we obtain

$$
(\nabla \epsilon(u) - \nabla \epsilon(u'))(u - u') > 0 \quad \forall u \neq u'.
$$

(1.8)

Hence, $\nabla \epsilon^T$ is strictly monotone.\footnote{The converse (i.e., $\nabla \epsilon^T$ is strictly monotone $\implies \epsilon$ is strictly convex) is also true. This equivalence between convexity of $\epsilon$ and monotonicity of $\nabla \epsilon^T$ is known as Kachurovskii (1960)’s theorem.} Moreover, $\nabla \epsilon^T$ is injective — if not, $\exists u, u' \in U^o$ s.t. $u \neq u'$ but $\nabla \epsilon(u) = \nabla \epsilon(u')$, which and strict monotonicity of $\nabla \epsilon$ directly lead us a contradiction "0 > 0":

$$
0 = 0^T(u - u') = (\nabla \epsilon(u) - \nabla \epsilon(u'))(u - u') > 0.
$$

Therefore, the surjective mapping $\nabla \epsilon^T$ is also injective and thus bijective. This ensures the existence of the inverse $\sigma$; since $\nabla \epsilon^T$ is continuous, so is its inverse $\sigma$ by Lemma I.4 above with $\mathcal{A} = \mathbb{R}^m$.

To prove strict monotonicity of $\sigma$, let $u \equiv \sigma(u)$ and $u' \equiv \sigma(u')$ for arbitrary $u, u' \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Then, we obviously have $u = \nabla \epsilon^T(u)$ and $u' = \nabla \epsilon^T(u')$ and thus by (1.8),

$$
(u - u')^T(\sigma(u) - \sigma(u')) > 0 \quad \forall u \neq u',
$$

which completes the proof. \qed

Lemma I.6 For a strictly convex C$^1$ function $\epsilon : U \to \mathbb{R}$ and for any $u, u' \in U^o$ such that $u \neq u'$,

$$
\begin{cases}
\epsilon(u) > \epsilon(u') + \nabla \epsilon(u')(u - u') \\
\epsilon(u') > \epsilon(u) + \nabla \epsilon(u)(u' - u),
\end{cases}
$$
where the second inequality comes from the interchange of $u$ and $u'$ of the first one.

**Proof.** Let $g(\beta) \doteq c(\beta \cdot u + (1 - \beta) \cdot u')$ for $\beta \in [0, 1]$. Then, $g$ is strictly convex and $C^1$ since so is $c$. By the mean value theorem, there exists $\tilde{\beta} \in (0, 1)$ such that

$$g(1) - g(0) = g'(\tilde{\beta}) > \lim_{\beta \to 0^+} g'(\beta) = \nabla c(u')(u - u'),$$

where the strict inequality comes from the fact that the derivative $g'$ of a strictly convex $C^1$ function $g$ is strictly increasing.\(^{13}\)

Then, the proof is completed by substituting the definition of $g$ into the strict inequality.

**Proof of Theorem 5.1 (§5.1.1).** Combine Lemma I.7 below with Theorem 4.9.

**Lemma I.7** Under (30) and (31),

a. Assumption 4.7 is true;

b. if $\langle \nabla v_i \rangle$ locally uniformly converges to a function $\xi$, then $\langle \pi_i \rangle$ locally uniformly converges to $\sigma(F_c^T, \xi^T)$.

**Proof.** a. Under (30) and (31), the maximal function $u_*$ in (14) is uniquely determined by (32) and thus continuous. This also implies that the argmax-set in (14) is a singleton, hence Assumption 4.7 is equivalent to the continuity of $p \mapsto u_*(x, p)$ (see Remark 4.10) which is obviously true by continuity of $u_*$. \(\square\)

b. For each $i \in \mathbb{N}$, $v_i \in C^1$ (i.e., $\nabla v_i$ is continuous) since $v_i \in \mathcal{V}_c$ by Theorem 4.1 and $\mathcal{V}_c \subset C^1$ by (3). The function $(x, y) \mapsto \sigma(F_c^T(x)y)$ is also continuous since so are $F_c$ and $\sigma$. Therefore, applying Lemma I.5 with $\psi(x, y) = \sigma(F_c^T(x)y)$, $g_i = \nabla v_i$, and $g = \xi$, we complete the proof. \(\square\)

**Proof of Theorem 5.4 (§5.1.2).** Denoting $a \doteq \varphi(u)$ and considering $a \in \mathcal{A}^o$ as the action transformed from $u \in \mathcal{U}^o$, we can formulate the following input-affine dynamics $\bar{f}$ and the reward function $\bar{r}$ from (39) and (40) as

$$\begin{cases} 
\bar{f}(x, a) \doteq f(x, \varphi^{-1}(a)) = f_d(x) + F_c(x) \cdot a \\
\bar{r}(x, a) \doteq r(x, \varphi^{-1}(a)) = r(x) - c(a),
\end{cases}$$

both of which are defined for all $(x, a) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{A}^o$. The associated Hamiltonian $\bar{h} : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{A}^o \times \mathcal{X}^T \to \mathbb{R}$ is given by

$$\bar{h}(x, a, p) = \underbrace{\bar{r}(x, a)}_{\bar{r}(x, a)} + p \cdot \underbrace{(f_d(x) + F_c(x) \cdot a)}_{\bar{f}(x, a)} = h(x, \varphi^{-1}(a), p). \quad (I.9)$$

Here, both $a \mapsto \bar{r}(x, a)$ and $a \mapsto \bar{h}(x, a, p)$ are strictly concave and $C^1$ for each $x \in \mathcal{X}$. Thus, similarly to the maximal function $u_*$ in §5.1, a maximal function $a_* : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}^T \to \mathcal{A}^o$ such that

$$a_*(x, p) \in \arg \max_{a \in \mathcal{A}^o} \bar{h}(x, a, p) \quad \forall (x, p) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}^T$$

exists and is continuous as it can be uniquely represented as (see also §5D)

$$a_*(x, p) = \sigma(F_c^T(x)p^T) \quad \forall (x, p) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}^T. \quad (I.10)$$

**Claim I.8** $\varphi^{-1}[a_*(x, p)] \in \arg \max_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \bar{h}(x, u, p) \quad \forall (x, p) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}^T.$

By (I.10) and Claim I.8, a maximal function $u_*$ satisfying (14) for the RL problem (39) and (40) is given by

$$u_*(x, p) = \tilde{\sigma}(F_c^T(x)p^T) \quad \forall (x, p) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}^T, \quad (I.11)$$

\(^{13}\)Consider the inequalities for $0 \leq x_1 < x'_1 < x_2 < x'_2 \leq 1$:

$$\frac{g(x'_1) - g(x_1)}{x'_1 - x_1} < \frac{g(x_2) - g(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1} < \frac{g(x'_2) - g(x_2)}{x'_2 - x_2}$$

(e.g., see Sundaram, 1996, Theorem 7.5) and take the limits $x'_1 \to x_1$ and $x'_2 \to x_2$, resulting in $g'(x_1) < g'(x_2)$ for $x_1 < x_2$. 

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where $\hat{\sigma}(u) = \varphi^{-1}[\sigma(u)]$. Moreover, $u_*$ is continuous since so are both $a_*$ and the inverse $\varphi^{-1}$ by (I.10) and Lemma I.4, respectively (see Claim I.8 above). Therefore, substituting (I.11) into (16) and (19) result in the following respective closed-form expressions of a maximal policy $\pi'$ over $\pi \in \Pi_\pi$ and a HJB policy $\pi_*$:

$$
\pi'(x) = \hat{\sigma}(F^T_c(x) \nabla v^*_x(x)) \quad \text{and} \quad \pi_*(x) = \hat{\sigma}(F^T_c(x) \nabla v^*_x(x)).
$$

Next, substituting (I.9) and $\pi_*(x) = \varphi^{-1}[a_*(x, \nabla v_*(x))]$ into the HJBE (17), we obtain

$$
\alpha \cdot v_* = h(x, \pi_*(x), \nabla v_*(x)) = \bar{h}(x, a_*(x, \nabla v_*(x)), \nabla v_*(x)) = \max\limits_{a \in \mathcal{A}^o} \bar{h}(x, a, \nabla v_*(x)) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}.
$$

Therefore, the application of Theorem 5.1 to the transformed RL problem shows that for both cases, the limit function $\hat{v}_*$ is a solution $v_* \in C^1$ to the HJBE (17) s.t. $v_* \rightarrow v_*$ and $\nabla v_* \rightarrow \nabla v_*$ both locally uniformly. For locally uniform convergence of $\langle \pi_i \rangle$ to $\pi_*$, apply Lemma I.5 with $\psi(x, y) = \hat{\sigma}(F^T_c(x)y)$, $g_i = \nabla v_i$, and $g = \nabla v_*$. 

(Proof of Claim I.8). Fix $(x, p) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X}^T$ and note that the associated Hamiltonian $\bar{h}$ satisfies (see (I.9))

$$
\bar{h}(x, a, p) = h(x, \varphi^{-1}(a), p) \quad \forall a \in \mathcal{A}^o. \tag{I.12}
$$

Since $\varphi$ is a bijection between the interior spaces $\mathcal{U}^o$ and $\mathcal{A}^o$, we have $\varphi(\mathcal{U}^o) = \mathcal{A}^o$, which and (I.12) imply

$$
\max\limits_{a \in \mathcal{A}^o} \bar{h}(x, a, p) = \max\limits_{u \in \mathcal{U}^o} h(x, \varphi(u), p) = \max\limits_{u \in \mathcal{U}^o} h(x, u, p). \tag{I.13}
$$

For simplicity, denote $a_*(x, p)$ by $a_*$ and $u_* \equiv \varphi^{-1}(a_*).$ Here, $a_*$ and $u_*$ belong to the interiors $\mathcal{A}^o$ and $\mathcal{U}^o$, respectively. So,

$$
\max\limits_{a \in \mathcal{A}^o} \bar{h}(x, a, p) = \bar{h}(x, a_*, p) = h(x, \varphi^{-1}(a_*), p) = h(x, u_*, p) \quad \text{by (I.12)}.
$$

This and (I.13) imply that $u_*$ satisfies

$$
u_*(x, p) \in \arg\max\limits_{u \in \mathcal{U}^o} h(x, u, p).
$$

This proves the statement if $\partial \mathcal{U} = \emptyset$. If not, suppose that there exists a $\tilde{u} \in \partial \mathcal{U}$ on the boundary $\partial \mathcal{U}$ s.t.

$$
\bar{h}(x, \tilde{u}, p) > h(x, u, p) \quad \text{for all} \quad u \in \mathcal{U}^o. \tag{I.14}
$$

Then, by continuity of $h$ and the definition of a boundary, for $\varepsilon = h(x, \tilde{u}, p) - h(x, u_*, p) > 0$, there exists $\tilde{u}_*$ in the interior $\mathcal{U}^o$ s.t. $\bar{h}(x, \tilde{u}_*, p) - \bar{h}(x, u_*, p) < \varepsilon$, which implies

$$
\bar{h}(x, \tilde{u}_*, p) > h(x, u_*, p),
$$

meaning that $u_* \in \mathcal{U}^o$ is not a maximum of the map $u \mapsto h(x, u, p)$ over $\mathcal{U}^o$, a contradiction. Therefore, there is no $\tilde{u} \in \partial \mathcal{U}$ s.t. (I.14) holds; we conclude that $u_*$ is a maximum of the map $u \mapsto h(x, u, p)$ over $\mathcal{U}^o \cup \partial \mathcal{U} = \mathcal{U}$. □

Proof of Proposition 5.5 (&5.2). Fix the policy $\pi$ and for simplicity, denote with slight abuse of notation

$$
v = v_\pi, \quad X_t(x) = G^\pi_x[X_t], \quad R_t(x) = G^\pi_x[R_t].
$$

Here, the dependencies on the policy $\pi$ are implicit, and $X_t(x)$ is assumed to exist uniquely for all $t \geq 0$ and all $x \in \mathcal{X}$ (see §2). Also note that $R_t(x) = r_\pi(X_t(x))$ since

$$
R_t(x) = G^\pi_x[R_t] = r_\pi(G^\pi_x[X_t]) = r_\pi(X_t(x)).
$$

Suppose $v$ is bounded and fix $x_0 \in \mathcal{X}$. Then, by continuity of $x \mapsto X_t(x)$ (e.g., Khalil, 2002, Theorem 3.5) and $r_\pi$, we have: for any $\eta > 0$ and any $\beta > 0$, there exists $\delta \equiv \delta(\beta, \eta) > 0$ such that

$$
\|x - x_0\| < \delta \implies |R_t(x) - R_t(x_0)| < \beta \quad \forall t \in [0, \eta],
$$

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from which and the integral BE (8), we obtain that whenever \(|x - x_0| < \delta\),

\[ |v(x) - v(x_0)| \leq \sum_{i=0}^{\eta} \gamma^i \cdot |R_i(x) - R_i(x_0)| dt + \gamma^n \cdot |v(X_\gamma(x))| + \gamma^n \cdot |v(X_\gamma(x_0))| < \beta \cdot \eta + 2 \cdot \gamma^n \cdot M, \]

where \( M > 0 \) is a bound of \( v \), i.e., a constant such that \( \sup_{x \in \mathcal{X}} |v(x)| \leq M \). Since \( \beta, \eta > 0 \) are arbitrary, for given \( \varepsilon > 0 \), choose \( \beta = \varepsilon/2\eta \) and any \( \eta > 0 \) s.t. \( \gamma^n < \varepsilon/(4M) \). Then, we conclude that for any \( \varepsilon > 0 \), there exists \( \delta \equiv \delta(\varepsilon) > 0 \) s.t.

\[ \|x - x_0\| < \delta \implies |v(x) - v(x_0)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon, \]

the \( \varepsilon \)-\( \delta \) statement of the continuity of \( v (= v_\pi) \) at \( x_0 \), and the proof is completed as \( x_0 \in \mathcal{X} \) is arbitrary. \( \Box \)

**Proof of Proposition 5.6 (§5.2).** If \( v \) is bounded, then since \( G^x_\pi |v(X_t)| = v(G^x_\pi |X_t|) \), \( t \to G^x_\pi |v(X_t)| \) for any policy \( \pi \) is bounded over \( \mathbb{T} \) (uniformly in \( x \in \mathcal{X} \)); \( v \) satisfies the boundary condition (12) by Lemma I.9 below. \( \Box \)

**Lemma I.9** *In the discounted case, the boundary condition (12) is true if \( t \to G^x_\pi |v(X_t)| \) is bounded for each \( x \in \mathcal{X} \).*

**Proof.** For \( x \in \mathcal{X} \), let \( M_x > 0 \) be a constant s.t. \( \sup_{t \in \mathbb{T}} G^x_\pi [\gamma^t \cdot |v(X_t)|] \leq M_x \). Then, since \( \gamma \in (0, 1) \), we have

\[ 0 \leq \lim_{t \to \infty} G^x_\pi [\gamma^t \cdot |v(X_t)|] \leq \lim_{t \to \infty} M_x \cdot \gamma^t = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \]

implying the boundary condition (12). \( \Box \)

**Proof of Corollary 5.7 (§5.2).** For the first part, Proposition 5.6 and Theorem 2.5 ensure \( v = v_\pi \), hence \( v_\pi \) is bounded. Next, if \( v_\pi \) is bounded (hence admissible), then we have \( v_\pi \leq v_\pi' \leq v \) by Theorem 2.7 and Lemma 2.1, and thus \( v_\pi' \) is also bounded. \( \Box \)

**Proof of Corollary 5.9 (§5.2).** For any given policy \( \pi \), we can choose \( \kappa \) and \( \rho(x) \) in (4) under Assumption 5.8 as \( \kappa = 0 \) and a constant function \( \rho(x) \equiv \inf \{r(y, u) : (y, u) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{U}\} \in \mathbb{R} \), hence \( v_\pi \) is bounded by Proposition 2.2; the remaining proof is now obvious by Proposition 5.5 and Corollary 5.7. \( \Box \)

**Proof of Theorem 5.10 (§5.3).** Since (15) (hence, (13) for \( v = v_\pi \)) is true for \( \pi \in \Pi_\alpha \) and the maximal policy \( \pi' \) over it,

\[ \dot{v}_\pi(x, \pi'(x)) \geq -r_\pi(x) + \alpha \cdot v_\pi(x) \geq -(r_{\max} - \alpha \cdot v_\pi(x)) = -\alpha \cdot (v - v_\pi(x)) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \]

where the last equality comes from Lemma 2.1. Let \( J_\pi \equiv v - v_\pi \). Then, the inequality can be expressed as

\[ J_\pi(x, \pi'(x)) \leq \alpha J_\pi(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}, \]

by substituting \( \dot{v}_\pi = -\dot{J}_\pi \) and rearranging it. By \( \pi \in \Pi_\alpha \) and the Assumptions, we see that \( u_\pi \) and \( \nabla v_\pi \) are locally Lipschitz. Hence, \( \pi' \) given by (16) is locally Lipschitz (i.e., \( \pi' \in \Pi_{\text{lip}} \)); the application of Lemma I.10 below results in \( t_{\max}(x; \pi') = \infty \) for all \( x \in \mathcal{X} \). Now that the state trajectory exists globally and uniquely, we conclude \( \pi' \in \Pi_\alpha \) and \( \pi \not\equiv \pi' \) by Theorem 2.7. \( \Box \)

**Lemma I.10** *Suppose there exist a \( C^1 \) function \( J : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R} \) and \( K_\infty \)-functions \( \rho_1 \) and \( \rho_2 \) such that for all \( x \in \mathcal{X} \),

\[ \rho_1(\|x\|_\Omega) \leq J(x) \leq \rho_2(\|x\|_\Omega) \]  \hspace{1cm} (I.15)

\[ J(x, \pi(x)) \leq \alpha J(x) \]  \hspace{1cm} (I.16)

for a compact subset \( \Omega \subset \mathcal{X} \) and a policy \( \pi \in \Pi_{\text{lip}} \), then \( t_{\max}(x; \pi) = \infty \) for all \( x \in \mathcal{X} \).*

**Proof.** We denote \( t_{\max}(x) \equiv t_{\max}(x; \pi) \) for simplicity and show \( t_{\max}(x) = \infty \) for all \( x \in \mathcal{X} \). Here, \( t_{\max}(x) \in (0, \infty) \) is defined for each \( x \in \mathcal{X} \) since \( \pi \) and thus \( f_\pi \) are locally Lipschitz.

First, applying Grönwall (1919)'s inequality to (I.16), we obtain \( G^x_\pi [J(X_t)] \leq e^{\alpha t} \cdot J(x) \) and by (I.15),

\[ G^x_\pi [\rho_1(\|X_t\|_\Omega)] \leq G^x_\pi [J(X_t)] \leq e^{\alpha t} \cdot \rho_2(\|x\|_\Omega) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}. \]
Since the inverse of a $K_\infty$ function $\rho^{-1}$ exists and is also $K_\infty$ (Khalil, 2002, Lemma 4.2), we obtain
\[ G^\pi_x[\|X_t\|_\Omega] \leq \rho(x, t) \triangleq \rho^{-1}_1(e^{at} \cdot \rho_2(\|x\|_\Omega)) \quad \forall x \in X. \]

Now, suppose $t_{\max}(x)$ is finite for some $x \in X$. Then, $t \mapsto G^\pi_x[\|X_t\|_\Omega]$ is bounded by $\rho(x, t_{\max}(x))$ and since $\Omega$ is compact, for all $t \in [0, t_{\max}(x))$, the state trajectory $t \mapsto G^\pi_x[X_t]$ remains within the compact set given by
\[ \{ y \in X : \|y\|_\Omega \leq \rho(x, t_{\max}(x)) \} \]
hence is uniquely defined for all $t \in \mathbb{T}$ (see Proposition G.3 in §G.2), a contradiction: $t_{\max}(x) = \infty$ for such $x \in X$ that $t_{\max}(x) < \infty$. Therefore, we conclude $t_{\max}(x) = \infty$ for all $x \in X$. □

Proof of Lemma 5.11. The positive definiteness of $c_\pi$ is obvious by (43) and $c_\pi(0) = c(0, \pi(0)) = 0$ (: $\pi(0) = 0$). □

Proof of Lemma 5.12. a. Since $\pi \in \Pi_\delta \subseteq \Pi_0$, (i) $c_\pi(0) = 0$ by Lemma 5.11; (ii) $x_0 = 0$ is an equilibrium point under $\pi$ (: $\mathcal{J}_\pi(0) = f(0, \pi(0)) = 0$), that is, $\mathcal{G}_\pi^0[X_t] \equiv 0$. Hence, $\mathcal{G}_\pi^0[C_t] = c_\pi(\mathcal{G}_\pi^0[X_t]) = 0$ for all $t \in \mathbb{T}$, implying $J_\pi(0) = 0$. By $\pi \in \Pi_\delta$, we also have $t_{\max}(x; \pi) = \infty$ and
\[ J_\pi(x) = G^\pi_x \left[ \int_0^\infty \gamma^t \cdot C_t \, dt \right] \in [0, \infty) \quad \forall x \in X. \]

Since $c_\pi(0) = 0$ and $c_\pi(x) > 0$ for any $x \neq 0$ by Lemma 5.11, and $t \mapsto C_t$ is continuous, we have that for each $x \neq 0$, there exists $\eta > 0$ s.t. $\mathcal{G}_\pi^0[C_t] > 0$ for all $t \in (0, \eta)$. Therefore, by the integral BE (8),
\[ J_\pi(x) > \gamma^\eta \cdot \mathcal{G}_\pi^0[J_\pi(X_\eta)] \geq 0 \quad \forall x \neq 0, \]
that is, $J_\pi(x) > 0$ for each $x \neq 0$. This and $J_\pi(0) = 0$ prove that $J_\pi$ is positive definite.

b. and c. Since $\pi \in \Pi_\delta$ satisfies the differential BE (9), we have
\[ \tilde{J}_\pi(x, \pi(x)) = \alpha J_\pi(x) - c_\pi(x) \quad \forall x \in X. \] (I.17)
Here, $\tilde{J}_\pi(0, \pi(0)) = 0$ since $J_\pi$ and $c_\pi$ are positive definite; the proof is now obvious by (44), (45), and (I.17). □

Proof of Theorem 5.13 (§5.4). The proof is obvious by Lemma 5.12 and Lyapunov’s stability theorems (Khalil, 2002, Theorems 4.1 and 4.2), except that the asymptotic stability is global when $\gamma = 1$ but $J_\pi$ is not radially unbounded. To prove this case, fix $\pi \in \Pi_\delta$ and let $x_0 = 0$ be asymptotically stable under $\pi$. $\mathcal{B}_\pi \subseteq \mathcal{X}$ denotes the basin of attraction under $\pi$, i.e., the set of all points $x \in \mathcal{X}$ s.t. $X_t(x) \to 0$ as $t \to 0$, where $X_t(x) = G^\pi_x[X_0]$ denotes the state trajectory under $\pi$ starting at $X_0 = x \in \mathcal{X}$. Here, the dependency of $X_t(x)$ on $\pi$ is implicit. Also note that

(1) since $\mathcal{B}_\pi$ is open (Khalil, 2002, Lemma 8.1), there exists $r > 0$ such that
\[ \|x\| < r \implies x \in \mathcal{B}_\pi; \] (I.18)

(2) since $c_\pi$ is positive definite by Lemma 5.11 and continuous by definitions, (46) implies that
\[ \varphi_\pi(r) = \inf \{ c_\pi(x) : \|x\| \geq r \} > 0; \] (I.19)

(3) by time-invariance $X_{\tau+t}(x) = X_t(X_\tau(x))$,
\[ x \notin \mathcal{B}_\pi \implies X_t(x) \notin \mathcal{B}_\pi \text{ for all } t \geq 0 \] (I.20)

(if $X_\tau(x) \in \mathcal{B}_\pi$ for some $\tau > 0$, then we have a contradiction “$x \in \mathcal{B}_\pi$” (: $\lim_{t \to \infty} X_{\tau+t}(x) = \lim_{t \to \infty} X_t(x_\tau(x)) = 0$).

The proof will be done by contradiction. Suppose $\mathcal{B}_\pi \neq \mathcal{X}$. Then, it implies that there exists $x \notin \mathcal{B}_\pi$ in $\mathcal{X}$ and $r > 0$ such that
\[ \|X_t(x)\| \geq r \text{ for all } t \in \mathbb{T} \] (I.21)
by (I.20) and then the contraposition of (I.18). Finally, applying (I.19) and (I.21) to the cost value function for $\gamma = 1$ yields
\[ J_\pi(x) = \lim_{\eta \to \infty} \int_0^\eta c_\pi(X_t(x)) \, dt \geq \varphi_\pi(r) \cdot \lim_{\eta \to \infty} \int_0^\eta 1 \, dt = \infty, \]
a contradiction to $\pi \in \Pi_\delta$. Therefore, $\mathcal{B}_\pi = \mathcal{X}$ and thus the asymptotic stability under $\pi \in \Pi_\delta$ and $\gamma = 1$ is global. □
Proof of Theorem 5.15. By global asymptotic stability, for each $x \in \mathcal{X}$, the state trajectory $t \mapsto \mathbb{G}_x^{\pi} [X_t]$ exists uniquely and globally over $\mathbb{T}$, and $\mathbb{G}_x^{\pi} [X_t] \to 0$ as $t \to \infty$. Hence, continuity of $v$ at $0$ and $v(0) = 0$ imply that $\mathbb{G}_x^{\pi} [\gamma^t v(X_t)] \to 0$ as $t \to \infty$, for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$; the proof is completed by Theorem 2.5. $\square$

Proof of Theorem 5.16. Since $J$ is positive definite, it is lower-bounded by zero. Therefore, the application of Corollary C.2 in $\mathcal{C}$ completes the proof (note that $v = -J$ and $r_\pi = -c_\pi$). $\square$

Proof of Theorem 5.17. $J_\pi$ is (i) positive definite (by Lemma 5.12a), (ii) $C_{1, \text{lip}}$ (by $\pi \in \Pi_\alpha$ and the regularity $\mathcal{V}_\alpha \subset C_{1, \text{lip}}$), and (iii) radially unbounded. So, Lemma I.11 below implies that there exist $K_\infty$ functions $\rho_1$ and $\rho_2$ s.t.

$$\rho_1(||x||) \leq J_\pi(x) \leq \rho_2(||x||) \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}. $$

Moreover, $\pi = 0$ by Lemma 2.1 since $c$ is positive definite (see (43)), hence $r_{\max} = -\min \{ c(x,u) : (x,u) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{U} \} = 0$. Therefore, we conclude $\pi' \in \Pi_\alpha$ and $J_{\pi'} \leq J_\pi$ by Theorem 5.10 with $\Omega = \{ 0 \}$ (i.e., $||x||_{\Omega} = ||x||$) and Lemma I.12 below. $\square$

Lemma I.11 (Khalil, 2002, Lemma 4.3) If $J : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, positive definite, and radially unbounded, then there exists $K_\infty$ functions $\rho_1$ and $\rho_2$ s.t. $\rho_1(||x||) \leq J(x) \leq \rho_2(||x||)$ for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$.

Lemma I.12 If a policy $\pi$ is given by $\pi(x) = u_\pi(x, \nabla v(x))$ for a negative definite function $v \in C_{1, \text{lip}}^\text{on } \mathcal{X}$, then $\pi \in \Pi_\alpha$.

Proof. Since $v$ is $C^1$ and negative definite, $\nabla v(0) = 0$ (=: $x = 0$ is the global maximum). Then, by the definition (5) of the Hamiltonian and the argmax-formula (14) of $u_\pi$, we have at $x = 0$:

$$\pi(0) = u_\pi(0, \nabla v(0)) = u_\pi(0, 0) = \arg \max_{u \in \mathcal{U}} r(0, u).$$

Since $r (= -c)$ is negative definite by (43), $(x, u) = (0, 0)$ is the global maximum of $r$, hence $\pi(0) = 0$. Moreover, $\pi$ is locally Lipschitz since so are both $u_\pi$ and $\nabla v$. Therefore, we conclude $\pi \in \Pi_\alpha$. $\square$

Proof of Theorem 5.18. $\pi_0 \in \Pi_\alpha$ by assumption. Suppose $\pi_{i-1} \in \Pi_\alpha$ for some $i \in \mathbb{N}$. Then, (47) implies that for $\gamma \in (0, 1)$, we have $\bar{\kappa}_i \cdot J_i \leq c_{\pi_{i-1}}$ for $\bar{\kappa}_i \equiv \alpha \kappa_i > 0$. For $\gamma = 1$, $x_e = 0$ is globally asymptotically stable under $\pi_{i-1}$ by Theorem 5.13. For both cases, we have $J_i = J_{\pi_{i-1}}$ by Theorems 5.15 and 5.16. Therefore, (i) global asymptotic stability under (48), (ii) $\pi_i \in \Pi_\alpha$, and (iii) $J_{\pi_i} \leq J_{\pi_{i-1}}$ are all obvious by the radial unboundedness of $J_i$ (assumed!) and Theorems 5.13 and 5.17. Finally, the mathematical induction completes the proof. $\square$

1.4 Proofs of Some Facts in §G.3 LQRs

In this appendix, for completeness, we provide proofs of some of the facts used in §G.3.

Proof of Stabilizability and Observability of $(A^\alpha, B, S)$. Note that $(A, B)$ is stabilizable iff $\text{rank} \left( [A - \lambda I \ B] \right) = l \quad \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $\text{Re} \lambda \geq 0$ (Zhou and Doyle, 1998, Theorem 3.2). Since $(A^\alpha, B)$ is stabilizable, therefore, we obtain

$$\text{rank} \left( [A^\alpha - \lambda I \ B] \right) = \text{rank} \left( [A^\alpha - (\lambda + \alpha \text{/} 2) I \ B] \right) = l \quad \text{(I.22)}$$

for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ such that $\text{Re} \lambda \geq -\alpha \text{/} 2$ with $\alpha \geq 0$. Hence, (I.22) holds whenever $\text{Re} \lambda \geq 0$, i.e., $(A^\alpha, B)$ is stabilizable. Similarly, $(S, A)$ is observable iff $\text{rank} \left( [A^T - \lambda I \ S] \right) = l \quad \forall \lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ (Zhou and Doyle, 1998, Theorem 3.3). Since

$$\text{rank} \left( [A^{\alpha \text{T}} - \lambda I \ S] \right) = \text{rank} \left( [A^{\alpha \text{T}} - \lambda I \ S] \right) = l$$

for all $\bar{\lambda} \equiv \lambda + \alpha \text{/} 2 \in \mathbb{C}$ and thus for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$, the observability of $(S, A^\alpha)$ is now obvious by that of $(S, A^0)$. $\square$

Proof of Existence of $P \text{ s.t. } P_i \to P$. For $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$, let $B_i : \mathcal{X}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ be defined for $J_i(x) = x^T P_i x$ as $B_i(x, y) \equiv J_i(x + y) - J_i(x - y) = 4 x^T P_i y$, and denote $\hat{\nu}_x \equiv -\hat{\nu}_x$. Then, since $J_i \to \hat{\nu}_x$ pointwise by Theorem 4.2a, $B_i$ pointwise converges to $B$ defined as

$$B(x, y) \equiv \hat{\nu}_x (x + y) - \hat{\nu}_x (x - y).$$

Since $B_i$ is bilinear and symmetric, we have the following claim.
Claim I.13  \( B \) is \textbf{a}. bilinear and \textbf{b}. symmetric.

By Claim I.13, there exists a symmetric matrix \( P \) s.t. \( B(x, y) = 4x^TPy \). Moreover, \( \hat{J}_\epsilon(0) = 0 \) (\( \epsilon = J_i(0) \to \hat{J}_\epsilon(0) \)). Therefore, \( \hat{J}_\epsilon \) is quadratic (and thus continuous) as shown below:

\[
\hat{J}_\epsilon(x) = \hat{J}_\epsilon(x) - \hat{J}_\epsilon(0) = B(x/2, x/2) = x^TPx.
\]

Next, let \( \Omega = \{ x \in \mathcal{X} : ||x|| = 1 \} \). Then, \( \Omega \) is obviously compact, hence \( J_i \to \hat{J}_\epsilon \) uniformly on \( \Omega \) by Theorem 4.2b. Moreover, since \( \hat{J}_\epsilon \leq J_i \) for every \( i \in \mathbb{N} \) by Theorem 4.1, every \( P_i - P \) is positive semidefinite and thus represented as \( P_i - P = N_i^TN_i \) for some \( N_i \in \mathbb{R}^{nxL} \) (Chen, 1998, Theorem 3.7.3). Therefore, by the definition of \( d_\Omega \),

\[
d_\Omega(J_i, \hat{J}_\epsilon) = \sup_{x \in \Omega} ||x^T(P_i - P)x|| = \sup_{||x|| = 1} ||N_i||^2 = ||N_i^TN_i|| = ||P_i - P|| \geq 0,
\]

where \( ||N_i||^2 = ||N_i^TN_i|| \) holds since \( || \cdot || \) is induced by the Euclidean norm \( || \cdot || \). Finally, since \( d_\Omega(J_i, \hat{J}_\epsilon) \to 0 \) by the uniform convergence \( J_i \to \hat{J}_\epsilon \) on \( \Omega \), we conclude that \( ||P_i - P|| \to 0 \), i.e., \( P_i \to P \).

\textbf{(Proof of Claim I.13). a. Bilinearity.} Since \( B_i \) is bilinear (i.e., \( B_i(x, y) = 4x^TP_iy \)),

\[
B_i(x_1 + x_2, y) = B_i(x_1, y) + B_i(x_2, y) \quad \forall x_1, x_2, y \in \mathcal{X},
\]

where both sides converge to \( B(x_1 + x_2, y) \) and \( B(x_1, y) + B(x_2, y) \), respectively. This proves that for each \( y \in \mathcal{X}, B(\cdot, y) \) preserves the vector addition. Similarly, we can prove that \( B(\alpha x, y) = \alpha B(x, y) \) for all \( x, y \in \mathcal{X} \) and \( \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \). Therefore, \( B(\cdot, \cdot) \) is linear and in the same way, so is \( B(x, \cdot) \), meaning that \( B \) is bilinear.

\textbf{b. Symmetry.} Since each \( P_i \) is symmetric, so is each \( B_i \); hence for all \( x, y \in \mathcal{X}, B_i(x, y) = B_i(y, x) \); by the pointwise convergence \( B_i \to B \), we have \( B_i(x, y) \to B(x, y) \) and \( B_i(y, x) \to B(y, x) \); by the uniqueness of the limit point, \( B(x, y) = B(y, x) \), for all \( x \in \mathcal{X} \). Therefore, \( B \) is symmetric. \( \square \)

\textbf{Proof of Quadratic Convergence} \( P_i \to P_* \). Note that the matrix formula (G.4) can be rewritten for \( i \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{1\} \) as

\[
(A_{i-1}^\alpha)^TP_i + P_iA_{i-1}^\alpha = -S - KK_{i-1}^\alpha \Gamma K_{i-1}^\alpha,
\]

where \( S \equiv S - ET^{-1}E^T \) is a Schur complement of \( W \) and thus positive semi-definite (Horn and Johnson, 1990); \( K_{i-1}^\alpha \equiv \Gamma^{-1}B^TP_{i-1} \). Here, by the policy improvement and definitions in §G.3, \( A_{i-1}^\alpha \) in (I.23) can be rewritten as

\[
A_{i-1}^\alpha = A^\alpha - BK_{i-1}^\alpha \quad \text{for} \quad A^\alpha \equiv A^0 - \alpha I/2 - B\Gamma^{-1}E^T,
\]

where \( A^\alpha \) is different from \( A^\alpha(\equiv A - \alpha I/2) \). Therefore, one can see that (I.23) is exactly same as the well-known matrix-form PI (Kleinman, 1968) for the LQR (G.3) with \( A^0, S, \) and \( E \) replaced by \( A^\alpha, S \) and \( 0 \), respectively.

Moreover, each policy \( \hat{\pi}_i(x) = -K_{i}x \) is admissible by Theorem 4.1, meaning that the states under \( \hat{\pi}_i \) converge to zero as \( t \to \infty \) (as discussed in §G.3). This convergence happens for the linear system iff \( A^\alpha(= A^\alpha - BK_{i-1}^\alpha) \) is Hurwitz (Chen, 1998; Khalil, 2002) and thus also proves that \( (A^\alpha, B) \) is stabilizable. Since \( (S, A^\alpha) \) is observable, so is \( (S, A^\alpha) \) by Lancaster and Rodman (1995, Lemma 16.2.7) and nondegenerate \( W \). Therefore, the quadratic convergence \( P_i \to P_* \) is directly proven by following Kleinman (1968)’s proof (when \( (A, B) \) is controllable) or generally, by Lee et al. (2014, Theorem 5 and Remark 4 with \( \eta \to \infty \)). Additionally, this approach can provide an alternative proof of Theorem G.5. \( \square \)

\textbf{Additional References}


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