# Continuous Time Stochastic Optimal Control 

Copyright © Javier R. Movellan

June 7, 2011

Please cite as
Movellan J. R. (2011) Continuous Time Stochastic Optimal Control MPLab Tutorials, University of California San Diego

Consider a dynamical system governed by the following system of stochastic differential equations

$$
\begin{equation*}
d X_{t}=a\left(X_{t}, U_{t}\right) d t+c\left(X_{t}, U_{t}\right) d B_{t} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $d B_{t}$ is a Brownian motion differential. One way to think of this equation is the limit as $\Delta_{t} \rightarrow 0$ of the following process

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta X_{t}=a\left(X_{t}, U_{t}\right) \Delta_{t}+c\left(X_{t}, U_{t}\right) \sqrt{\Delta_{t}} Z_{t} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Z_{t}$ is a vector of independent standard Gaussian random variables.

### 0.1 The HJB Equation for Finite Horizon Value Functions

Consider a fixed policy $\pi$ and terminal time $T$. The value of visiting state $x$ at time $t$ is defined as follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
v(x, t)=E\left[\left.\int_{t}^{T} e^{-\frac{1}{\tau}(s-t)} r\left(X_{s}, U_{s}, s\right) d s+e^{-\frac{1}{\tau}(T-t)} g\left(X_{T}\right) \right\rvert\, X_{t}=x\right] \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $r$ is the instantaneous reward, $\tau$ the time constant for the temporal discount of the reward, and $g$ is the terminal reward.

For $s \geq t$ let

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{s} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} v\left(X_{s}, s\right) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using Ito's rule we get

$$
\begin{align*}
d Y_{s}=d v\left(X_{s}, s\right)= & v_{t}\left(X_{s}, s\right) d s+v_{x}\left(X_{s}, s\right) \cdot d X_{s} \\
& +\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left(c\left(X_{s}, U_{s}\right) c^{\prime}\left(X_{s}, U_{s}\right) v_{x x}\left(X_{s}, s\right)\right) d s \tag{5}
\end{align*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
& U_{s} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \pi\left(X_{s}, s\right)  \tag{6}\\
& v_{t}(x, s) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \frac{\partial v(x, s)}{\partial s}  \tag{7}\\
& v_{x}(x, s) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \frac{\partial v(x, s)}{\partial x}  \tag{8}\\
& v_{x x}(x, s) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \frac{\partial^{2} v(x, s)}{\partial x \partial x^{\prime}} \tag{9}
\end{align*}
$$

Taking expected values given $X_{t}=x$, and noting that expected values of stochastic integrals are zero

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{d E\left[Y_{s} \mid X_{t}=x\right]}{d s} & =E\left[v_{t}\left(X_{s}, s\right)+v_{x}\left(X_{s}, s\right)^{\prime} a\left(X_{s}, U_{s}\right)\right. \\
& \left.\left.+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left(c\left(X_{s}, U_{s}\right) c^{\prime}\left(X_{s}, U_{s}\right) v_{x x}\left(X_{s}, s\right)\right) \right\rvert\, X_{t}=x\right] \tag{10}
\end{align*}
$$

Evaluating it at $s=t$ we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left.\frac{d E\left[Y_{s} \mid X_{t}=x\right]}{d s}\right|_{s=t}=v_{t}(x, t)+v_{x}(x, t)^{\prime} a(x, t)+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left(c(x, u) c^{\prime}(x, u) v_{x x}(x, t)\right) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Next we show that the left hand side of the equation above takes the following form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left.\frac{d E\left[Y_{s} \mid X_{t}=x\right]}{d s}\right|_{s=t}=\frac{1}{\tau} v(x, t)-r(x, \pi(x), t) \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

First let's get a better understanding of what this time derivative means

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{d E\left[Y_{s} \mid X_{t}=x\right]}{d s} & =\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon} E\left[Y_{s+\epsilon}-Y_{s} \mid X_{t}=x\right] \\
& =\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon} E\left[v\left(X_{s+\epsilon}, s+\epsilon\right)-v\left(X_{s}, s\right) \mid X_{t}=x\right] \tag{13}
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left.\frac{d E\left[Y_{s} \mid X_{t}=x\right]}{d s}\right|_{s=t}=\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon} E\left[v\left(X_{t+\epsilon}, t+\epsilon\right)-v(x, t) \mid X_{t}=x\right] \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note

$$
\begin{array}{rl}
v(x, t)=E & {\left[\left.\int_{t}^{t+\epsilon} e^{-\frac{1}{\tau}(s-t)} r\left(X_{s}, U_{s}, s\right) d s \right\rvert\, X_{t}=x\right]} \\
& +E\left[\left.\int_{t+\epsilon}^{T} e^{-\frac{1}{\tau}(s-(t+\epsilon))} r\left(X_{s}, U_{s}, s\right) d s \right\rvert\, X_{t}=x\right] e^{-\frac{1}{\tau} \epsilon} \\
=E & E\left[\left.\int_{t}^{t+\epsilon} e^{-\frac{1}{\tau}(s-t)} r\left(X_{s}, U_{s}, s\right) d s \right\rvert\, X_{t}=x\right] \\
& +E\left[v\left(X_{t+\epsilon}, t+\epsilon\right) \mid X_{t}=x\right] e^{-\frac{1}{\tau} \epsilon} \tag{15}
\end{array}
$$

and

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{1}{\epsilon}\left(E\left[v\left(X_{t+\epsilon}, t+\epsilon\right) \mid X_{t}=x\right] e^{-\epsilon / \tau}-v(x, t)\right) \\
& \quad=-\frac{1}{\epsilon} E\left[\left.\int_{t}^{t+\epsilon} e^{-\frac{1}{\tau}(s-t)} r\left(X_{s}, U_{s}, s\right) d s \right\rvert\, X_{t}=x\right] \tag{16}
\end{align*}
$$

Taking limits on the right hand side of (0.1)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0}-\frac{1}{\epsilon} E\left[\left.\int_{t}^{t+\epsilon} e^{-\frac{1}{\tau}(s-t)} r\left(X_{s}, U_{s}, s\right) d s \right\rvert\, X_{t}=x\right]=-r(x, \pi(x), t) \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon}\left(E\left[v\left(X_{t+\epsilon}, t+\epsilon\right) \mid X_{t}=x\right] e^{-\epsilon / \tau}-v(x, t)\right)=-r(x, \pi(x), t) \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Regarding the left hand side of (0.1), let

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(\epsilon) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} E\left[v\left(X_{t+\epsilon}, t+\epsilon\right) \mid X_{t}=x\right] \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{\epsilon}\left(E\left[v\left(X_{t+\epsilon}, t+\epsilon\right) \mid X_{t}=x\right] e^{-\frac{1}{\tau} \epsilon}-v(x)\right)=\frac{f(\epsilon) e^{-\frac{1}{\tau} \epsilon}-f(0)}{\epsilon} \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using the product rule for derivatives it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0}=\frac{f(\epsilon) g(\epsilon)-f(0) g(0)}{\epsilon}=\dot{f}(0) g(0)+f(0) \dot{g}(0) \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\dot{f} \dot{g}$ are the first derivative of $f, g$. Thus with

$$
\begin{align*}
& g(x)=e^{-\frac{1}{\tau} x}  \tag{22}\\
& \dot{g}(x)=-\frac{1}{\tau} g(x) \tag{23}
\end{align*}
$$

it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0}=\frac{f(\epsilon) e^{-\frac{1}{\tau} \epsilon}-f(0)}{\epsilon}=\dot{f}(0)-\frac{1}{\tau} f(0) \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
\dot{f}(0) & =\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\epsilon)-f(0)}{\epsilon}=\lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0}\left(E\left[v\left(X_{t+\epsilon}, t+\epsilon\right) \mid X_{t}=x\right]-v(x, t)\right) \\
& =\left.\frac{d E\left[Y_{s} \mid X_{t}=x\right]}{d s}\right|_{s=t} \tag{25}
\end{align*}
$$

Thus

$$
\begin{align*}
& \lim _{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\epsilon}\left(E\left[v\left(X_{t+\epsilon}, t+\epsilon\right) \mid X_{t}=x\right] e^{-\frac{1}{\tau} \epsilon}-v(x, t)\right) \\
& =\left.\frac{d E\left[Y_{s} \mid X_{t}=x\right]}{d s}\right|_{s=t}-\frac{1}{\tau} v(x, t) \tag{26}
\end{align*}
$$

and using (18)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d E\left[v\left(X_{t}\right) \mid X_{t}=x\right]}{d t}-\frac{1}{\tau} v(x, t)=-r(x, \pi(x), t) \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

From which (12) follows. Putting together (12) and (11) we get the Hamilton Jacoby Belman equation (HJB) for the value function of a fixed policy $\pi$

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{1}{\tau} v(x, t)=r(x, u, t)+\frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial t}+\frac{\partial v(x, t)^{\prime}}{\partial x} a(x, u)+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left(c(x, u) c(x, u)^{\prime} \frac{\partial^{2} v(x, t)}{\partial x^{2}}\right) \\
& u=\pi(x, t) \\
& v(x, T)=g(x) e^{-\frac{1}{\tau}(T-t)} \tag{28}
\end{align*}
$$

Stochastic Discrete Time Approximation Basically we approximate the continuous time HJB with a discrete time Bellman equation. From (15) we note

$$
\begin{equation*}
v(x, t) \approx r\left(x, \pi\left(u_{t}\right)\right) \Delta t+e^{-\Delta t / \tau} E\left[v\left(X_{t+\Delta t}, t+\Delta t\right) \mid X_{t}=x\right] \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

We know $v(\cdot, T)$ so we can approximate $v(x, T-\Delta t)$ by running the SDE forward from time $T-\Delta t$ to time $T$ with initial condition $x$. We can use this for a set of states and use function interpolation to get an estimate for all the other states. This gives us $v(\cdot, T-\Delta t)$ we can then keep moving backwards until we reach the initial timet. One problem with this approach is that it does not use any knowledge about the spatial derivatives of the value function.

Deterministic Discrete Time Approximation We have the value of $v$ for time $T$. If we can get the first and second derivatives of $v$ with respect to $x$ we can then use the HJB equation to obtain $\partial v(x, T) \partial t$. This determines $v(x, T-\Delta t)$.

$$
\begin{equation*}
v\left(x, T-\Delta_{t}\right) \approx v(x, T)-\Delta_{t} \frac{\partial v(x, T)}{\partial t} \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

We can then progress backwards in time until we reach the starting time $t$.
The temporal derivative at time $T$ equals the temporal derivative at time $T-\Delta t$. We approximate approximate $v$ at time $T-\Delta t$ as a weighted sum of features of $x$. The spatial derivaites are then also a weighted sum of features of $x$. This results on a regression problem. For a set of sates of interest the predictors are

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\frac{1}{\tau} v(x, t)+v_{x}(x, t)^{\prime} a(x, u)+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left(c(x, u) c(x, u)^{\prime} \nabla_{x x}^{2} v(x, t)\right) \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

which are a linear function of features of the state. The predicted values are

$$
\begin{equation*}
-r(x, u, t)-\frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial t} \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

we do non-linear regression to find $w$. We can then use this to find $v$ for time step $T-\Delta_{t}$ for a set of points. We can then move our way backwards until we reach the startint time $t$.

### 0.2 The Bellman Equation for the $Q$ function

I have the impression that changing an action at a specific point in time will not change the value. We may need to divide by dt or something like that. So this section is ifi Let $v^{\pi}$ represent the value function under policy $\pi$. Note

$$
\begin{array}{r}
v^{\pi}(x, t)=\tau\left\{r(x, u, t)+v_{t}^{\pi}(x, t)+v_{x}^{\pi}(x, t) \cdot a(x, u)\right. \\
\left.+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left(c(x, u) c(x, u)^{\prime} v_{x x}^{\pi}(x, t)\right)\right\} \tag{33}
\end{array}
$$

where $u=\pi(x, t)$. Consider what would happen if we defined a new policy $\pi$ identical to $\pi$ except for the fact that at time $t$ it maps $x$ into another action $u^{\prime}$, i.e., $\pi^{\prime}(x, t)=u^{\prime}$. The value function under the new policy would be as follows

$$
\begin{array}{r}
v^{\pi^{\prime}}(x, t)=\tau\left\{r\left(x, u^{\prime}, t\right)+v_{t}^{\pi^{\prime}}(x, t)+v_{x}^{\pi^{\prime}}(x, t) \cdot a\left(x, u^{\prime}\right)\right. \\
\left.+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left(c\left(x, u^{\prime}\right) c\left(x, u^{\prime}\right)^{\prime} v_{x x}^{\pi^{\prime}}(x, t)\right)\right\} \tag{34}
\end{array}
$$

We can thus think of the value of responding to $x$ at time $t$ with action $u$ and then following the fixed policy $\pi$ as follows

$$
\begin{array}{r}
Q^{\pi}(x, u, t)=\tau\left\{r(x, u, t)+v_{t}^{\pi}(x, t)+v_{x}^{\pi}(x, t) \cdot a(x, u)\right. \\
\left.+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left(c(x, u) c(x, u)^{\prime} v_{x x}^{\pi}(x, t)\right)\right\} \tag{35}
\end{array}
$$

Policy improvement: This leads to the following approach to improve a policy $\pi$. For state $t$ and time $t$ define a new policy $\pi^{\prime}$ that chooses an action $u^{\prime}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
Q^{\pi^{\prime}}\left(x, u^{\prime}, t\right)>Q^{\pi}(x, u, t) \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

One way to do so would be to have

$$
\begin{equation*}
u^{\prime}=u+\epsilon \frac{\partial v^{\pi}(x, t)}{\partial u} \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 0.3 Optimal Value Function for Finite Horizon Problems

The optimal value function is defined as follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{v}(x, t)=\sup _{\pi} v^{\pi}(x, t) \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $v^{\pi}$ is the value function with respect to policy $\pi$. Thus
$\hat{v}(x, t)=\sup _{\pi} \tau\left\{r(x, \pi(x), t)+v_{t}^{\pi}(x, t)+v_{x}^{\pi}(x, t) \cdot a(x, \pi(x))+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left(c(x, \pi(x)) c(x, \pi(x))^{\prime} v_{x x}^{\pi}(x, t)\right)\right\}$
and since at the extremum $\pi$ takes the value of the optimal policy

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{v}(x, t)=\sup _{\pi} \tau\left\{r(x, \pi(x))+\hat{v}_{t}(x, t)+\hat{v}_{x}(x, t) \cdot a(x, \pi(x))+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left(c(x, \pi(x)) c(x, \pi(x))^{\prime} \hat{v}_{x x}(x, t)\right)\right\} \tag{40}
\end{equation*}
$$

And since the only part of the equation that depends on $\pi$ is $u=\pi(x)$ the HJB equation for the optimal value function follows

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{1}{\tau} \hat{v}(x, t)=\sup _{u}\left\{r(x, u)+\hat{v}_{t}(x, t)+\hat{v}_{x}(x, t) \cdot a(x, u)+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left(c(x, u) c(x, u)^{\prime} \hat{v}_{x x}(x, t)\right)\right\} \\
& \hat{v}(x, T)=g(x) \tag{41}
\end{align*}
$$

### 0.4 Value Function for Infinite Horizon Problems

We can think of the infinite horizon case as a the limiting case of a finite horizon problem.

$$
\begin{equation*}
v(x)=\lim _{T \rightarrow \infty} E\left[\left.\int_{t}^{T} e^{-\frac{1}{\tau}(s-t)} r\left(X_{s}, U_{s}\right) s \right\rvert\, X_{t}=x, \pi\right] \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note we made the reward to be independent of the time $t$, in which case the value function will also be independent of $t$. Thus the derivative of $v$ with respect to time needs to be zero and the HJB for the value function follows

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{1}{\tau} v(x)=r(x, u)+v_{x}(x) \cdot a(x, u)+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left(c^{2}(x, u) v_{x x}(x)\right)  \tag{43}\\
& u=\pi(x)
\end{align*}
$$

Using the same logic, we get the HJB for the optimal value function

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{\tau} \hat{v}(x)=\sup _{u}\left\{r(x, u)+\hat{v}_{x}(x) \cdot a(x, u)+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left(c^{2}(x, u) \hat{v}_{x x}(x)\right)\right\} \tag{44}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 0.5 An important special case

Consider a process defined by the following stochastic differential: equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
d X_{t}=a\left(X_{t}\right) d t+b\left(X_{t}\right) U_{t} d t+c\left(X_{t}\right) d B_{t} \tag{45}
\end{equation*}
$$

For an arbitrary $t$ we let

$$
\begin{equation*}
v(x, t) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \max _{\pi} E\left[\left.\int_{t}^{T} e^{-\frac{1}{\tau}(s-t)} r\left(X_{s}, U_{s}\right) d s+g_{T}\left(X_{T}\right) \right\rvert\, X_{t}=x, \pi\right] \tag{46}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $U_{s}=\pi\left(X_{s}\right)$ and the instantaneous reward takes the following form

$$
\begin{equation*}
r(x, u) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} g(x)-\frac{1}{2} u^{\prime} q u \tag{47}
\end{equation*}
$$

In this case the HJB equation looks as follows

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{1}{\tau} v(x, t)= & \max _{u}\left\{g(x)-\frac{1}{2} u^{\prime} q u+\frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial t}+a(x)^{\prime} \frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial x}+u^{\prime} b(x)^{\prime} \frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial x}\right. \\
& \left.+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left[c(x) c(x)^{\prime} \frac{\partial^{2} v(x, t)}{\partial x^{2}}\right]\right\} \tag{48}
\end{align*}
$$

Most importantly the maximum over $u$ can be computed analytically. Taking the gradient of the right hand side of (56) with respect to $u$ and setting it to zero we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
-q u+b(x)^{\prime} \frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial x}=0 \tag{49}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus the optimal action is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{u}=q^{-1} b(x)^{\prime} \frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial x} \tag{50}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $q$ is not full rank then there is an infinite number of optimal actions. We can choose one by using the pseudo-inverse of $q$. We need to be careful about $q$. For example, consider the 1-D case. If we let $q=0$ the optimal gain would go to infinity, which basically sets the state to zero in an infinitesimal time $d t$.

Substituting the optimal action into the HJB equation we get

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{1}{\tau} v(x, t) & =g(x)-\frac{1}{2} \hat{u}^{\prime} q \hat{u}+\frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial t} \\
& +a(x)^{\prime} \frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial x}+\hat{u}^{\prime} q \hat{u}+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left[c(x) c(x)^{\prime} \frac{\partial^{2} v(x, t)}{\partial x^{2}}\right] \tag{51}
\end{align*}
$$

Simplifying, the HJB equation for the optimal value function looks as follows

$$
\begin{align*}
& -\frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial t}=-\frac{1}{\tau} v(x, t)+g(x)+\frac{1}{2} \hat{u}^{\prime} q \hat{u}+\frac{\partial v(x, t)^{\prime}}{\partial x} a(x) \\
& \quad+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left[c(x) c(x)^{\prime} \frac{\partial^{2} v(x, t)}{\partial x^{2}}\right]  \tag{52}\\
& \hat{u}(x)=q^{-1} b(x)^{\prime} \frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial x}
\end{align*}
$$

### 0.6 Action Dependent Noise

We can generalize the previous case to include action dependent noise

$$
\begin{equation*}
d X_{t}=a\left(X_{t}\right) d t+b\left(X_{t}\right) U_{t} d t+\left(c\left(X_{t}\right)+\sum_{k} U_{k, t} h_{k}\left(X_{t}\right)\right) d B_{t} \tag{53}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $U_{k, t}$ is the $k^{t h}$ component of $U_{t}$. For an arbitrary $t$ we let

$$
\begin{equation*}
v(x, t) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \max _{\pi} E\left[\left.\int_{t}^{T} e^{-\frac{1}{\tau}(s-t)} r\left(X_{s}, U_{s}\right) d s+g_{T}\left(X_{T}\right) \right\rvert\, X_{t}=x, \pi\right] \tag{54}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $U_{s}=\pi\left(X_{s}\right)$ and the instantaneous reward takes the following form

$$
\begin{equation*}
r(x, u) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} g(x)-\frac{1}{2} u^{\prime} q(x, t) u \tag{55}
\end{equation*}
$$

In this case the HJB equation looks as follows

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{1}{\tau} v(x, t)= & \max _{u}\left\{g(x)-\frac{1}{2} u^{\prime} \tilde{q}(x, t) u+\frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial t}+a(x)^{\prime} \frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial x}+u^{\prime} b(x)^{\prime} \frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial x}\right. \\
& \left.+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left(c(x) c\left(x^{\prime}\right) \frac{\partial^{2} v(x, t)}{\partial x^{2}}\right)\right\} \tag{56}
\end{align*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tilde{q}(x, t)=q(x, t)+w(x, t) \tag{57}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
w(x, t)_{i, j}=-\operatorname{Tr}\left(h_{i}(x) h_{j}(x)^{\prime} \frac{\partial^{2} v(x, t)}{\partial x^{2}}\right) \tag{58}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that having noise proportional to the action is equivalent to having a state dependent quadratic cost on the action. The maximum over $u$ can be computed analytically. Taking the gradient of the right hand side of (56) with respect to $u$ and setting it to zero we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\left(\tilde{q}(x, t) u+b(x)^{\prime} \frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial x}=0\right. \tag{59}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus the optimal action is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{u}=(\tilde{q}(x, t))^{-1} b(x)^{\prime} \frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial x} \tag{60}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\tilde{q}$ is not full rank then there is an infinite number of optimal actions. We can choose one by using the pseudo-inverse of $\tilde{q}$. We need to be careful about $q$. For example, consider the 1-D case. If we let $q=0$ the optimal gain would go to infinity, which basically sets the state to zero in an infinitesimal time $d t$.

Substituting the optimal action into the HJB equation we get

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{1}{\tau} v(x, t) & =g(x)-\frac{1}{2} \hat{u}^{\prime} \tilde{q}(x, t) \hat{u}+\frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial t} \\
& +a(x)^{\prime} \frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial x}+\hat{u}^{\prime} \tilde{q}(x, t) \hat{u}+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left[c(x) c(x)^{\prime} \frac{\partial^{2} v(x, t)}{\partial x^{2}}\right] \tag{61}
\end{align*}
$$

Simplifying, the HJB equation for the optimal value function looks as follows

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -\frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial t}=-\frac{1}{\tau} v(x, t)+g(x)+\frac{1}{2} \hat{u}^{\prime} \tilde{q}(x, t) \hat{u}+\frac{\partial v(x, t)^{\prime}}{\partial x} a(x) \\
& \quad+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left[c(x) c(x)^{\prime} \frac{\partial^{2} v(x, t)}{\partial x^{2}}\right] \\
& \begin{array}{l}
\hat{u}(x)=\tilde{q}^{-1}(x, t) b(x)^{\prime} \frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial x} \\
\tilde{q}(x, t)=q(x, t)+w(x, t) \\
w(x, t)_{i, j}=\operatorname{Tr}\left[h_{i}(x) h_{j}(x)^{\prime} \frac{\partial^{2} v(x, t)}{\partial x^{2}}\right]
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

### 0.7 Linear Quadratic Tracker and Regulator

Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
d X_{t}=a X_{t}+b U_{t}+c d B_{t} \tag{63}
\end{equation*}
$$

with

$$
\begin{equation*}
v(x, t)=E\left[\left.\int_{t}^{T} r\left(X_{s}, U_{s}\right) e^{-\frac{1}{\tau}(s-t)} d s \right\rvert\, X_{t}=x, \pi\right] \tag{64}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
& U_{s}=\pi\left(X_{s}\right)  \tag{65}\\
& r(x, u)=-(x-\xi)^{\prime} p(x-\xi)-u^{\prime} q u \tag{66}
\end{align*}
$$

where the target state $\xi$ can be a function of time. This corresponds to the problem of having the state $X_{t}$ track the trajectory $\xi_{t}$. We assume the value function takes the following form

$$
\begin{equation*}
v(x, t)=-\left(x^{\prime} \alpha_{t} x-2 \beta_{t}^{\prime} x+\gamma_{t}\right) \tag{67}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus,

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial x}=2\left(\beta_{t}-\bar{\alpha}_{t} x\right)  \tag{68}\\
& \frac{\partial^{2} v(x, t)}{\partial x^{2}}=-2 \bar{\alpha}_{t}  \tag{69}\\
& \frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial t}=-x^{\prime} \dot{\alpha}_{t} x+2 \dot{\beta}_{t}^{\prime} x-\dot{\gamma}_{t} \tag{70}
\end{align*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
\bar{\alpha}_{t} & =\frac{\alpha_{t}+\alpha_{t}^{\prime}}{2}  \tag{71}\\
\dot{\alpha}_{t} & =\frac{d \alpha_{t}}{d t}  \tag{72}\\
\dot{\beta}_{t} & =\frac{d \beta_{t}}{d t}  \tag{73}\\
\dot{\gamma}_{t} & =\frac{d \gamma_{t}}{d t} \tag{74}
\end{align*}
$$

Consider the optimal HJB equation (62)

$$
\begin{align*}
&-\frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial t}=-\frac{1}{\tau} v(x, t)+g(x)+\hat{u}^{\prime} q \hat{u}+\frac{\partial v(x, t)^{\prime}}{\partial x} a x \\
&+\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left[c(x)^{\prime} c(x) \frac{\partial^{2} v(x, t)}{\partial x^{2}}\right] \tag{75}
\end{align*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
& g(x)=-(x-\xi)^{\prime} p(x-\xi)  \tag{76}\\
& \hat{u}(x)=\frac{1}{2} q^{-1} b^{\prime} \frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial x}=q^{-1} b^{\prime}\left(\beta_{t}-\bar{\alpha}_{t} x\right) \tag{77}
\end{align*}
$$

The control law can be expressed as a standard feedback controller

$$
\begin{align*}
& \hat{u}(x)=k_{t}\left(\omega_{t}-x_{t}\right)  \tag{78}\\
& k_{t}=q^{-1} b^{\prime} \bar{\alpha}_{t}  \tag{79}\\
& \omega_{t}=\bar{\alpha}_{t}^{-1} \beta_{t} \tag{80}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\bar{\alpha}_{t}^{-1}$ is the pseudoinverse of $\bar{\alpha}_{t}, k_{t}$ is the feedback gain and $\omega_{t}$ is a virtual target state tracked by the feedback controller.

Thus

$$
\begin{align*}
x^{\prime} \dot{\alpha}_{t} x-2 \dot{\beta}_{t}^{\prime} x+\dot{\gamma}_{t} & =\frac{1}{\tau} x^{\prime} \alpha_{t} x-\frac{2}{\tau} \beta_{t}^{\prime} x+\frac{1}{\tau} \gamma-\left(x-\xi_{t}\right)^{\prime} p\left(x-\xi_{t}\right)  \tag{81}\\
& +\left(\beta_{t}-\bar{\alpha}_{t} x\right)^{\prime} b q^{-1} b^{\prime}\left(\beta_{t}-\bar{\alpha}_{t} x\right)  \tag{82}\\
& +2\left(\beta_{t}-\bar{\alpha}_{t} x\right)^{\prime} a x-\operatorname{Tr}\left[c^{\prime} c \bar{\alpha}_{t}\right] \tag{83}
\end{align*}
$$

Expanding some terms

$$
\begin{align*}
x^{\prime} \dot{\alpha}_{t} x-2 \dot{\beta}_{t}^{\prime} x+\dot{\gamma}_{t} & =\frac{1}{\tau} x^{\prime} \alpha_{t} x-\frac{2}{\tau} \beta_{t}^{\prime} x+\frac{1}{\tau} \gamma  \tag{84}\\
& -x^{\prime} p x+2 \xi_{t}^{\prime} p x-\xi_{t}^{\prime} p \xi_{t}  \tag{85}\\
& +x^{\prime} \bar{\alpha}_{t} b q^{-1} b^{\prime} \bar{\alpha}_{t} x-2 \beta_{t}^{\prime} b q^{-1} b^{\prime} \bar{\alpha}_{t} x+\beta_{t}^{\prime} b q^{-1} b^{\prime} \beta_{t}  \tag{86}\\
& +2 \beta_{t}^{\prime} a x-2 x^{\prime} \bar{\alpha}_{t} a x-\operatorname{Tr}\left[c^{\prime} c \bar{\alpha}_{t}\right] \tag{87}
\end{align*}
$$

Gathering quadratic, linear, and constant terms we get the continuous time Ricatti equations

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{u}_{t}(x)=k_{t}\left(\omega_{t}-x_{t}\right) \\
& k_{t}=q^{-1} b^{\prime} \bar{\alpha}_{t} \\
& \omega_{t}=\bar{\alpha}_{t}^{-1} \beta_{t} \\
& v(x, t)=-x^{\prime} \alpha_{t} x+2 \beta_{t}^{\prime} x-\gamma_{t} \\
& \dot{\alpha}_{t}=\frac{1}{\tau} \alpha_{t}-p+\bar{\alpha}_{t} b q^{-1} b^{\prime} \bar{\alpha}_{t}-2 \bar{\alpha}_{t} a \\
& \dot{\beta}_{t}=-\frac{1}{\tau} \beta_{t}-p^{\prime} \xi_{t}+\bar{\alpha}_{t} b q^{-1} b^{\prime} \beta_{t}-a^{\prime} \beta_{t} \\
& \dot{\gamma}_{t}=\frac{1}{\tau} \gamma_{t}-\xi_{t}^{\prime} \xi_{t}+\beta_{t}^{\prime} b q^{-1} b^{\prime} \beta_{t}-\operatorname{Tr}\left[c^{\prime} c \alpha_{t}\right] \\
& \bar{\alpha}_{t}=\left(\alpha_{t}+\alpha_{t}^{\prime}\right) / 2 \\
& \alpha_{T}=p_{T} \\
& \beta_{T}=p_{T} \xi_{T} \\
& \gamma_{T}=\xi_{T}^{\prime} p_{T} \xi_{T}
\end{aligned}
$$

Alternatively the optimal action can be computed using the following procedure that does not require to take the pseudoinverse of $\bar{\alpha}_{t}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{u}_{t}(x)=q^{-1} b^{\prime}\left(\beta_{t}-\bar{\alpha}_{t} x_{t}\right) \tag{89}
\end{equation*}
$$

For initialization we used the fact that $x^{\prime} a y=x^{\prime}\left(a+a^{\prime}\right) y / 2$.
We can solve this equation numerically using Euler's method. We start at time $T$. This gives us the temporal derivatives for $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$. Their values at time $t-\Delta_{t}$ can be obtained from those derivatives. We can then iterate until we reach the current time $t$. Below shows a simple example code.

```
function [omega, k, alpha beta, gamma]= ctfhlqt(xi,a,b,c,p,pT,q,tau,dt)
    s = length(xi);
    itau = 1/tau;
    qinv = pinv(q);
    qinvbt = qinv*b';
    alpha = pT;
    beta = pT*xi(:,s);
    gamma = xi(:,s)'*pT*xi(:,s);
    nu = length(q);
    nx = length(a);
    omega = zeros(nx,s);
    k2= zeros(nu,nx,s);
```

```
for t=s:-1: 1
    alphaBar= (alpha + alpha')/2;
    dalpha = alpha*itau -p + alphaBar*b*qinv*b'*alphaBar - 2*alphaBar*a;
    dbeta = -beta*itau - p'*xi(:,t)+ alphaBar*b*qinv*b'*beta - a'*beta;
    dgamma = - gamma*itau - xi(:,t)'*p*xi(:,t) + beta'*b*qinv*beta- ...
        trace(c'*c*alpha);
    omega(:,t) = pinv(alphaBar)*beta;
    k(:,:,t) = qinvbt*alphaBar;
    alpha = alpha - dt*dalpha;
    beta = beta - dt*dbeta;
    gamma = gamma - dt*dgamma;
end
```

Linear Quadratic Regulator A special case of the linear quadratic tracker is the linear quadratic regulator. In this case $\xi_{t}=0$ for all $t$.

Thus

$$
\begin{align*}
& \alpha_{T}=\frac{p+p^{\prime}}{2}  \tag{90}\\
& \beta_{T}=0  \tag{91}\\
& \gamma_{t}=0 \tag{92}
\end{align*}
$$

The update equation for $\beta$ show that in this case $\dot{\beta}_{T}=0$ and therefore $\beta_{t}=0$. Thus the update equations for the linear quadratic regulator are as follows

$$
\begin{align*}
& \hat{u}_{t}(x)=-k_{t} x  \tag{93}\\
& k_{t}=q^{-1} b^{\prime} \bar{\alpha}_{t}  \tag{94}\\
& \dot{\alpha}_{t}=\frac{1}{\tau} \alpha_{t}-p+\bar{\alpha}_{t} b q^{-1} b^{\prime} \bar{\alpha}_{t}-2 \bar{\alpha}_{t} a  \tag{95}\\
& \dot{\gamma}_{t}=\frac{1}{\tau} \gamma_{t}-\operatorname{Tr}\left[c^{\prime} c \alpha_{t}\right] \tag{96}
\end{align*}
$$

### 0.8 Feedback Linearization

Proposition 0.1. Consider a process of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
d X_{t}=a_{t} X_{t} d t+b_{t} f\left(X_{t}, U_{t}, t\right) d t+c_{t} d B_{t} \tag{97}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $a, b$ are fixed matrices, $U_{t}$ is a control variable and $f$ is a function such that for every $x, t$ the mapping between $U_{t}$ and $f\left(X_{t}, U_{t}, t\right)$ is bijective, i.e. there is a function $h$ such that for every $x, y, t$

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(x, f(x, u, t), t)=u \tag{98}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let the instantaneous reward function take the following form

$$
\begin{equation*}
r(x, u, t)=-\left(\xi_{t}-x_{t}\right)^{\prime} p_{t}\left(\xi_{t}-x_{t}\right)-f\left(x_{t}, u_{t}, t\right)^{\prime} q_{t} f\left(x_{t}, u_{t}, t\right) \tag{99}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\xi$ is a desired state trajectory. Then the following policy is optimal:

$$
\begin{equation*}
U_{t}=h\left(X_{t}, Y_{t}, t\right) \tag{100}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Y_{t}$ is the solution to the following LQT control problem

$$
\begin{equation*}
d X_{t}=a_{t} X_{t} d t+b_{t} Y_{t} d t+c_{t} d B_{t} \tag{101}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Let the control process $U$ be defined as follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
U_{t}=\pi\left(X_{t}, t\right) \tag{102}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\pi$ is a control policy. Let the virtual control policy $\lambda$ be defined a follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{t}=\lambda\left(X_{t}, t\right)=f\left(X_{t}, U_{t}, t\right) \tag{103}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note $\pi$ and $\lambda$ are not independent: For every policy $\pi$ there is a equivalent policy $\lambda$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda\left(X_{t}, t\right)=f\left(X_{t}, \pi\left(X_{t}, t\right), t\right) \tag{104}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover for every virtual policy $\lambda$ there is an equivalent policy $\pi$

$$
\begin{equation*}
U_{t}=\pi\left(X_{t}, t\right)=h\left(X_{t}, \lambda\left(X_{t}, t\right), t\right) \tag{105}
\end{equation*}
$$

We note that when expressed in terms of the $Y$ variables, the control problem is linear quadratic

$$
\begin{align*}
& d X_{t}=a X_{t} d t+b Y_{t} d t+c d B_{t}  \tag{106}\\
& r(x, y, t)=x^{\prime} q_{t} x+y^{\prime} g_{t} y \tag{107}
\end{align*}
$$

Let $\hat{\lambda}$ be the optimal policy mapping states to virtual actions, as found using the standard LQT algorithm on (106), (107). Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{\pi}\left(X_{t}, t\right)=h\left(X_{t}, \lambda\left(X_{t}, Y_{t}, t\right), t\right) \tag{108}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose there is a policy $\pi^{*}$ mapping states to actions better than $\hat{\pi}$. Thus the policy

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda^{*}\left(X_{t}, t\right)=f\left(X_{t}, \pi^{*}\left(X_{t}, t\right), t\right) \tag{109}
\end{equation*}
$$

should be better than $\hat{\lambda}$, which is a contradition.
This is a remarkable result. It let's us solve optimally a non-linear control problem. The key is that we lose control over the action penalty term. Rather than having the penalty be quadratic with respect to the actions $U_{t}$, which could be things like motor torques, we have to use a penalty quadratic with respect to $f\left(X_{t}, U_{t}, t\right)$.

### 0.9 Nonlinear Control

Here we present a recent approach to non-linear continuous time for the special case in 0.5 . The approach is based on (?) but here we we adapt it to the finite horizon problem. We will assume $v$ can be expressed as a linear combination of known features of the state $x$, i.e.,

$$
\begin{equation*}
v(x, t)=\phi(x)^{\prime} w(t)=\sum_{i=1}^{n_{f}} \phi_{i}(x) w_{i}(t) \tag{110}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\phi: R^{n_{x}} \rightarrow R^{n_{f}}$ is a known function that maps each state $x$ into $n_{f}$ features of that state. $w \in R^{n_{f}}$ is an unknown weight vector that tells us how to combine the state features to obtain the value function of a state. Thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial x}=\sum_{i=1}^{n_{f}} \dot{\phi}_{i}(x) w_{i}(t)=\dot{\phi}(x) w(t) \tag{111}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{\phi}(x) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \nabla_{x} \phi(x) \tag{112}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $\dot{\phi}$ is an $n_{x} \times n_{f}$ matrix whose columns are the $\dot{\phi}_{i}$ terms

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{\phi}=\left[\dot{\phi}_{1}, \cdots, \dot{\phi}_{n_{f}}\right] \tag{113}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial^{2} v(x, t)}{\partial x^{2}}=\sum_{i=1}^{n_{f}} w_{i}(t) \ddot{\phi}_{i}(x) \tag{114}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\phi_{i}$ is an $n_{x} \times n_{x}$ Hessian matrix

$$
\begin{equation*}
\ddot{\phi}_{i}(x)=\nabla_{x}^{2} \phi_{i}(x) \tag{115}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus the HJB equation takes the following form

$$
\begin{align*}
-\frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial t}= & -\frac{1}{\tau} \phi(x)^{\prime} w(t)+g(x)+a(x)^{\prime} \dot{\phi}(x) w(t) \\
& +\frac{1}{4} w^{\prime}(t) \dot{\phi}(x)^{\prime} b(x) q^{-1} b(x)^{\prime} \dot{\phi}(x) w(t) \\
& +\frac{1}{4} \operatorname{Tr}\left[c(x)^{\prime} c(x) \sum_{i=1}^{n_{f}} \ddot{\phi}_{i}(x) w_{i}(t)\right] \tag{116}
\end{align*}
$$

Discretizing in time

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{\partial v(x, t)}{\partial t} & =\frac{1}{\Delta t} v(x, t+\Delta t)-\frac{1}{\Delta t} v(x, t)  \tag{117}\\
& =\frac{1}{\Delta t} v(x, t+\Delta t)-\frac{1}{\Delta t} \phi(x)^{\prime} w(t) \tag{118}
\end{align*}
$$

Collecting terms constant, linear and quadratic with respect to $w$ we get

$$
\begin{align*}
& g(x)+\frac{1}{\Delta t} v(x, t+\Delta t) \\
& +\left(\dot{\phi}(x)^{\prime} a(x)+h(x)-\left(\frac{1}{\tau}+\frac{1}{\Delta t}\right) \phi(x)\right)^{\prime} w(t) \\
& +\frac{1}{2} w^{\prime}(t) \dot{\phi}(x)^{\prime} b(x) q^{-1} b(x)^{\prime} \dot{\phi}(x) w(t)=0 \tag{119}
\end{align*}
$$

where $h(x)$ is an $n_{f}$ dimensional vector whose $i^{\text {th }}$ element is defined as follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
h_{i}(x)=\frac{1}{2} \operatorname{Tr}\left[c^{\prime}(x) c(x) \ddot{\phi}_{i}(x)\right] \tag{120}
\end{equation*}
$$

This gives us as the key for an algorithm to find $v(x, t)$ : If we knew $v(x, t+$ $\Delta t), \dot{\phi}(x), \ddot{\phi}(x)$ we could search for values of $w(t)$ that satisfy (119).

If we have a explicit form for $g_{T}(x)$ then we just let $v(x, T)=g_{T}(x)$. Otherwise we just need to find a $w(T)$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi(x)^{\prime} w(T) \approx g_{T}(x) \tag{121}
\end{equation*}
$$

from a sample of states $\left\{x^{1}, x^{2}, \cdots x^{n_{s}}\right\}$ where $x^{i} \in \Re^{n_{x}}$. These states can be chosen in any way we want. $w(T)$ can be found by solving the following linear regression problem

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho(w(T))=\sum_{i=1}^{n_{s}}\left[g_{T}(x)-\phi\left(x^{i}\right)^{\prime} w(T)\right]^{2} \tag{122}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $t<T$ we choose either the same sample or a different of sample states in any way we want. We let the error at time $t$ defined as follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho(w(t))=\sum_{i=1}^{n_{s}}\left[\mathbf{a}_{i}(t)+\mathbf{b}_{i}^{\prime}(t) w(t)+w(t)^{\prime} \mathbf{c}_{i}(t) w(t)\right]^{2} \tag{123}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
& \mathbf{a}_{i}(t)=g\left(x^{i}\right)+\frac{1}{\Delta t} v\left(x^{i}, t+\Delta t\right)  \tag{124}\\
& \mathbf{b}_{i}(t)=\dot{\phi}\left(x^{i}\right)^{\prime} a\left(x^{i}\right)+h\left(x^{i}\right)-\left(\frac{1}{\tau}+\frac{1}{\Delta t}\right) \phi\left(x^{i}\right)  \tag{125}\\
& \mathbf{c}_{i}(t)=\frac{1}{4} \dot{\phi}\left(x^{i}\right)^{\prime} b\left(x^{i}\right) q^{-1} b\left(x^{i}\right)^{\prime} \dot{\phi}\left(x^{i}\right) \tag{126}
\end{align*}
$$

This is a Quadratic Regression problem that can be solved using iterative methods (see Appendix).. Unfortunately this problem has local minima (or difficult plateaus). Thus it is important to get good starting points. The solution for time $T$ is unique and we can use it as the starting point for time $t-\Delta_{t}$. Provided $\Delta_{t}$ is small, this should be a good starting solution. For some reason, starting points close to zero seem to also work well. Note to compute the $\mathbf{a}_{i}(t)$ terms
we need $v(x, t+\Delta t)$. We can thus solve the problem by doing a backward pass, starting at time $T$.

Another important issue s to have enough samples so that the regression problem to estimate $w(t)$ is not underconstrained. If the number of samples is small one possibility is to use something like Bayesian regression which allows for sequential learning of the parameters.

## Requirements:

- $a(x), b(x)$ can be learned from examples using non-linear regression with error

$$
\begin{equation*}
e(x)=\Delta x-a(x) \Delta_{t}+b(x) u \Delta_{t} \tag{127}
\end{equation*}
$$

- $c(x)$ can be obtained from model's error

$$
\begin{equation*}
c(x) c(x)^{\prime}=\operatorname{Cov}\left(\Delta X / \Delta_{t}-a(X)-b(X) U\right) \tag{128}
\end{equation*}
$$

- $q$ the matrix for the quadratic error of the action.
- A way to sample from $g(x)$ and $g_{T}(x)$, the cost of the state.


### 0.9.1 Using Gaussian Radial Basis Functions

Gaussian functions centered at a fixed set of states $\mu^{1} \cdots \mu^{n_{f}}$, and with fixed precision matrices $\nu_{i}$ can be used as feature functions, i.e.,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\phi_{i}(x)=\exp \left(-\frac{1}{2}\left(x^{i}-\mu^{i}\right)^{\prime} \nu_{i}\left(x^{i}-\mu^{i}\right)\right) \tag{129}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\mu^{i}$ is a fixed $n_{x}$ dimensional vector and $\nu_{i}$ is an $n_{x} \times n_{x}$ symmetric positive definite matrix. Thus in this case

$$
\begin{align*}
& \dot{\phi}_{i}(x)=\phi_{i}(x) \nu_{i}\left(\mu_{i}-x\right)  \tag{130}\\
& \ddot{\phi}(x)=\phi_{i}(x)\left(\nu_{i}\left(x-\mu_{i}\right)\left(x-\mu_{i}\right)^{\prime} \nu_{i}-\nu_{i}\right) \tag{131}
\end{align*}
$$

## 1 Appendix

Lemma 1.1. If $w_{i} \geq 0$ and $\hat{\beta}$ maximizes $f(i, \beta)$ for all $i$ then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\max _{\beta} \sum_{i} w_{i} f(i, \beta)=\sum_{i} w_{i} \max _{\beta} f(i, \beta) \tag{132}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof.

$$
\begin{equation*}
\max _{\beta} \sum_{i} w_{i} f(i, \beta) \leq \sum_{i} \max _{\beta} f(i, \beta)=\sum_{i} w_{i} f(i, \hat{\beta}) \tag{133}
\end{equation*}
$$

moreover

$$
\begin{equation*}
\max _{\beta} \sum_{i} w_{i} f(i, \beta) \geq \sum_{i} f(i, \hat{\beta})=\sum_{i} w_{i} \max _{\beta} f(i \beta) \tag{134}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lemma 1.2. If $w_{i} \geq 0$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\max _{\beta} \sum_{i} w_{i} f(i, \beta)=\sum_{i} w_{i} \max _{\beta} f(i, \beta) \tag{135}
\end{equation*}
$$

then there is $\hat{\beta}$ such that for all $i$ with $w_{i}>0$

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(i, \hat{\beta})=\max _{\beta} f(i, \beta) \tag{136}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(i, \hat{\beta}_{i}\right)=\max _{\beta} f(i, \beta) \tag{137}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(i, \hat{\beta})=\max _{\beta} \sum_{i} w_{i} f(i, \beta) \tag{138}
\end{equation*}
$$

then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i} w_{i}\left(f\left(i, \hat{\beta}_{i}\right)-f(i, \hat{\beta})\right)=0 \tag{139}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, since

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(i, \hat{\beta}_{i}\right)-f(i, \hat{\beta}) \geq 0 \tag{140}
\end{equation*}
$$

it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(i, \hat{\beta})=f\left(i, \hat{\beta}_{i}\right)=\max _{\beta} f(i, \beta) \tag{141}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $i$ such that $w_{i}>0$.
Lemma 1.3 (Optimization of Quadratic Functions). This is one of the most useful optimization problem in applied mathematics. Its solution is behind a large variety of useful algorithms including Multivariate Linear Regression, the Kalman Filter, Linear Quadratic Controllers, etc. Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho(x)=E\left[(b x-C)^{\prime} a(b x-C)\right]+x^{\prime} d x \tag{142}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $a$ and $d$ are symmetric positive definite matrices and $C$ is a random vector with the same dimensionality as bx. Taking the Jacobian with respect to $x$ and applying the chain rule we have

$$
\begin{align*}
J_{x} \rho & =E\left[J_{b x-C}(b x-C)^{\prime} a(b x-C) J_{x}(b x-C)\right]+J_{x} x^{\prime} d x  \tag{143}\\
& =2 E\left[(b x-C)^{\prime} a b\right]+2 x^{\prime} d  \tag{144}\\
\nabla_{x} \rho & =\left(J_{x}\right)^{\prime}=2 b^{\prime} a(b x-\mu)+2 d x \tag{145}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\mu=E[C]$. Setting the gradient to zero we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(b^{\prime} a b+d\right) x=b^{\prime} a \mu \tag{146}
\end{equation*}
$$

This is commonly known as the Normal Equation. Thus the value $\hat{x}$ that minimizes $\rho$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{x}=h \mu \tag{147}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
h=\left(b^{\prime} a b+d\right)^{-1} b^{\prime} a \tag{148}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover

$$
\begin{align*}
\rho(\hat{x}) & =(b h \mu-C)^{\prime} a(b h \mu-C)+\mu^{\prime} h^{\prime} d h \mu  \tag{149}\\
& =\mu^{\prime} h^{\prime} b^{\prime} a b h \mu-2 \mu^{\prime} h^{\prime} b^{\prime} a \mu+E\left[C^{\prime} a C\right]+\mu^{\prime} h^{\prime} d h \mu \tag{150}
\end{align*}
$$

Now note

$$
\begin{align*}
\mu^{\prime} h^{\prime} b^{\prime} a b h \mu+\mu^{\prime} h^{\prime} d h \mu & =\mu^{\prime} h^{\prime}\left(b^{\prime} a b+d\right) h \mu  \tag{151}\\
& =\mu^{\prime} a^{\prime} b\left(b^{\prime} a b+d\right)^{-1}\left(b^{\prime} a b+d\right)\left(b^{\prime} a b+d\right)^{-1} b^{\prime} a \mu  \tag{152}\\
& =\mu^{\prime} a^{\prime} b\left(b^{\prime} a b+d\right)^{-1} b^{\prime} a \mu  \tag{153}\\
& =\mu^{\prime} h^{\prime} b^{\prime} a \mu \tag{154}
\end{align*}
$$

Thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho(\hat{x})=E\left[C^{\prime} a C\right]-\mu^{\prime} h^{\prime} b^{\prime} a \mu \tag{155}
\end{equation*}
$$

An important special case occurs if $C$ is a constant, e.g., it takes the value $c$ with probability one. In such case

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho(\hat{x})=c^{\prime} a c-c^{\prime} h^{\prime} b^{\prime} a c=c^{\prime} k c \tag{156}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
k=a-h^{\prime} b^{\prime} a=a-a^{\prime} b\left(b^{\prime} a b+d\right)^{-1} b^{\prime} a \tag{157}
\end{equation*}
$$

For the more general case it is sometimes useful to express (155) as follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho(\hat{x})=E\left[C^{\prime} a C\right]-\mu^{\prime} h^{\prime} b^{\prime} a \mu=E\left[C^{\prime}\left(a-h^{\prime} b^{\prime} a\right) C\right]+E\left[(C-\mu)^{\prime} h^{\prime} b^{\prime} a(C-\mu)\right] \tag{158}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lemma 1.4 (Quadratic Regression). We want to minimize

$$
\begin{equation*}
\rho(w)=\sum_{i}\left(a_{i}+b_{i}^{\prime} w+w^{\prime} c_{i} w\right)^{2} \tag{159}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $a_{i}$ is a scalar, $b_{i}, w$ are $n$-dimensional vectors and $c_{i}$ an $n \times n$ symetric matrix ${ }^{1}$. We solve the problem iteratively starting at a weight vector $w_{k}$ linearizing the quadratic part of the function and iterating.

[^0]Linearizing about $w_{k}$ we get

$$
\begin{align*}
w^{\prime} c_{i} w & \approx w_{k}^{\prime} c_{i} w_{k}+2 w_{k}^{\prime} c_{i}\left(w-w_{k}\right) \\
& =-w_{k}^{\prime} c_{i} w_{k}+2 w_{k}^{\prime} c_{i} w \tag{160}
\end{align*}
$$

Thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{i}+b_{i}^{\prime} w+w^{\prime} c_{i} w \approx a_{i}-w_{k}^{\prime} c_{i} w_{k}+\left(b_{i}+2 c_{i} w_{k}\right)^{\prime} w \tag{161}
\end{equation*}
$$

This results in a linear regression problem with predicted variables in a vector $y$ with components of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{i}=-a_{i}+w_{k}^{\prime} c_{i} w_{k} \tag{162}
\end{equation*}
$$

and predicting variables into a matrix $x$ with rows

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{i}=\left(b_{i}+2 c_{i} w_{k}\right)^{\prime} \tag{163}
\end{equation*}
$$

with

$$
\begin{equation*}
w_{k+1}=\left(x^{\prime} x\right)^{-1} x^{\prime} y \tag{164}
\end{equation*}
$$


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ We can always symetrize $c_{i}$ with no loss of generality.

