Fast Approximate Dynamic Programming for Infinite-Horizon Markov Decision Processes

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Abstract. In this study, we consider the infinite-horizon, discounted cost, optimal control of stochastic nonlinear systems with separable cost and constraints in the state and input variables. Using the linear-time Legendre transform, we propose a novel numerical scheme for the implementation of the corresponding value iteration (VI) algorithm in the conjugate domain. Detailed analyses of the convergence, time complexity, and error of the proposed algorithm are provided. In particular, with a discretization of size $X$ and $U$ for the state and input spaces, respectively, the proposed approach reduces the time complexity of each iteration in the VI algorithm from $O(XU)$ to $O(X + U)$, by replacing the minimization operation in the primal domain with a simple addition in the conjugate domain.

Keywords: Stochastic optimal control; value iteration; input-affine systems; Fenchel duality; computational complexity.

1. Introduction

Value iteration (VI) is one of the most basic and widespread algorithms employed for tackling problems in reinforcement learning (RL) and optimal control [10, 30] formulated as Markov decision processes (MDPs). The VI algorithm simply involves the consecutive applications of the dynamic programming (DP) operator

$$T J(x_t) = \min_{u_t} \{C(x_t, u_t) + \gamma E J(x_{t+1})\},$$

where $C(x_t, u_t)$ is the cost of taking the control action $u_t$ at the state $x_t$. This fixed point iteration is known to converge to the optimal value function for discount factors $\gamma \in (0, 1)$. However, this algorithm suffers from a high computational cost for large-scale finite state spaces. For problems with a continuous state space, the DP operation becomes an infinite-dimensional optimization problem, rendering the exact implementation of VI impossible in most cases. A common solution is to incorporate function approximation techniques and compute the output of the DP operator for a finite sample (i.e., a discretization) of the underlying continuous state space. This approximation again suffers from a high computational cost for fine discretizations of the state space, particularly in high-dimensional problems. We refer the reader to [10, 27] for various approximation schemes for the implementation of VI.

For some problems, however, it is possible to partially address this issue by using duality theory, i.e., approaching the minimization problem in the conjugate domain. In particular, as we will see in Section 3, the minimization in the primal domain in DP can be transformed to a simple addition in the dual domain, at
the expense of three conjugate transforms. However, the proper application of this transformation relies on efficient numerical algorithms for conjugation. Fortunately, such an algorithm, known as linear-time Legendre transform (LLT), has been developed in the late 90s [24]. Other than the classical application of LLT (and other fast algorithms for conjugate transform) in solving the Hamilton-Jacobi equation [1, 14, 15], these algorithms are used in image processing [25], thermodynamics [13], and optimal transport [18].

The application of conjugate duality for the DP problem is not new and goes back to Bellman [5]. Further applications of this idea for reducing the computational complexity were later explored in [16, 19]. However, surprisingly, the application of LLT for solving discrete-time optimal control problems has been limited. In particular, in [12], the authors propose the “fast value iteration” algorithm (without a rigorous analysis of the complexity and error of the proposed algorithm) for a particular class of infinite-horizon optimal control problems with state-independent stage cost $C(x, u) = C(u)$ and deterministic linear dynamics $x_{t+1} = Ax_t + Bu_t$, where $A$ is a non-negative, monotone, invertible matrix. More recently, in [21], we also considered the application of LLT for solving the DP operation in finite-horizon, optimal control of input-affine dynamics $x_{t+1} = f_s(x_t) + Bu_t$ with separable cost $C(x, u) = C_s(x) + C_i(u)$. In particular, we introduced the “discrete conjugate DP” (d-CDP) operator, and provided a detailed analysis of its complexity and error. As we will discuss shortly, the current study is an extension of the corresponding d-CDP algorithm that, among other things, considers infinite horizon, discounted cost problems. We note that the algorithms developed in [17, 25] for “distance transform” can also potentially tackle the optimal control problems similar to the ones of interest in the current study. In particular, these algorithms require the stage cost to be reformulated as a convex function of the “distance” between the current and next states. While this property might arise naturally, it can generally be restrictive, as it is in the problem class considered in this study. Another line of work that is closely related to ours involves utilizing max-plus algebra in solving deterministic, continuous-state, continuous-time, optimal control problems; see, e.g., [2, 26]. These works exploit the compatibility of the DP operation with max-plus operations, and approximate the value function as a max-plus linear combination. Recently, in [3, 6], the authors used this idea to propose an approximate VI algorithm for continuous-state, deterministic MDPs. In this regard, we note that the proposed approach in the current study also involves approximating the value function as a max-plus linear combination, namely, the maximum of affine functions. The key difference is however that by choosing a grid-like (factorized) set of slopes for the linear terms (i.e., the basis of the max-plus linear combination), we take advantage of the linear time complexity of LLT in computing the constant terms (i.e., the coefficients of the max-plus linear combination).

**Main contribution.** In this study, we focus on an approximate implementation of VI involving discretization of the state and input spaces for solving the optimal control problem of discrete-time systems, with continuous state-input space. Building upon our earlier work [21], we employ conjugate duality to speed up VI for problems with separable stage cost (in state and input) and input-affine dynamics. We propose the conjugate VI (ConjVI) algorithm based on a modified version of the d-CDP operator introduced in [21], and extend the existing results in three directions: We consider infinite-horizon, discounted cost problems with stochastic dynamics, while incorporating a numerical scheme for approximation of the conjugate of input cost. The main contributions of this paper are as follows:

(i) we provide sufficient conditions for the convergence of ConjVI (Theorem 3.11);
(ii) we show that ConjVI can achieve a linear time complexity of $O(X + U)$ in each iteration (Theorem 3.12), compared to the quadratic time complexity of $O(XU)$ of the standard VI, where $X$ and $U$ are the cardinalities of the discrete state and input spaces, respectively;
(iii) we analyze the error of ConjVI (Theorem 3.13) and use that result to provide specific guidelines on the construction of the discrete dual domain (Section 3.4);
(iv) we provide a MATLAB package for the implementation of the proposed ConjVI algorithm [22].
Paper organization. The problem statement and its standard solution via the VI algorithm (in primal domain) are presented in Section 2. In Section 3, we present our main results: We begin with presenting the class of problems that are of interest, and then introduce the alternative approach for VI in the conjugate domain and its numerical implementation. The theoretical results on the convergence, complexity, and error of the proposed algorithm along with the guidelines on the construction of dual grids are also provided in this section. In Section 4, we compare the performance of the ConjVI with that of VI algorithm through three numerical examples. Section 5 concludes the paper with some final remarks. All the technical proofs are provided in Appendix A.

Notations. We use $\mathbb{R}$ and $\overline{\mathbb{R}} = \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ to denote the real line and the extended reals, respectively, and $E_{w}[\cdot]$ to denote expectation with respect (w.r.t.) to the random variable $w$. The standard inner product in $\mathbb{R}^n$ and the corresponding induced 2-norm are denoted by $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ and $\|\cdot\|_2$, respectively. We also use $\|\cdot\|_2$ to denote the operator norm (w.r.t. the 2-norm) of a matrix; i.e., for $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, we denote $\|A\|_2 = \sup\{\|Ax\|_2 : \|x\|_2 = 1\}$. The infinity-norm is denoted by $\|\cdot\|_\infty$.

Continuous (infinite, uncountable) sets are denoted as $X, Y,$ etc. For finite (discrete) sets, we use the superscript $d$ as in $X^d, Y^d, \ldots$ to differentiate them from infinite sets. Moreover, we use the superscript $g$ to differentiate grid-like finite sets. Precisely, a grid $\mathbb{X}^g \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is the Cartesian product $\mathbb{X}^g = \Pi_{i=1}^n \mathbb{X}_i^g$, where $\mathbb{X}_i^g$ is a finite subset of $\mathbb{R}$. We also use $\mathbb{X}_{n_{sub}}^g$ to denote the sub-grid of $\mathbb{X}^g$ derived by omitting the smallest and the largest elements of $\mathbb{X}^g$ in each dimension. The cardinality of a finite set $X^d$ or $X^g$ is denoted by $X$. Let $X, Y$ be two arbitrary sets in $\mathbb{R}^n$. The convex hull of $X$ is denoted by $co(X)$. The diameter of $X$ is defined as $\Delta_X := \sup_{x, \bar{x} \in X} \|x - \bar{x}\|_2$. We use $d(X, Y) := \inf_{x \in X, y \in Y} \|x - y\|_2$ to denote the distance between $X$ and $Y$. The one-sided Hausdorff distance from $X$ to $Y$ is defined as $d_H(X, Y) := \sup_{x \in X} \inf_{y \in Y} \|x - y\|_2$.

Let $h : \mathbb{R}^n \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ be an extended real-valued function with a non-empty effective domain $\text{dom}(h) = X := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : h(x) < \infty\}$, and range $\text{rng}(h) = \max_{x \in X} h(x) - \min_{x \in X} h(x)$. We use $h^d : X^d \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ to denote the discretization of $h$, where $X^d$ is a finite subset of $\mathbb{R}^n$. Whether a function is discrete is usually also clarified by providing its domain explicitly. We particularly use this notation in combination with a second operation to emphasize that the second operation is applied on the discretized version of the operand. E.g., we use $h^d : \mathbb{R}^n \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$ to denote a generic extension of $h^d$. If the domain $X^d = \mathbb{X}^g$ of $h^d$ is grid-like, we then use $h^d$ (as opposed to $h^d$) for the extension using multi-linear interpolation and extrapolation (LERP). The Lipschitz constant of $h$ over a set $Y \subset \text{dom}(h)$ is denoted by $L(h; Y) := \sup_{x, y \in Y} |h(x) - h(y)| / \|x - y\|_2$. We also denote $L(h) := L(h; \text{dom}(h))$ and $\mathbb{L}(h) := \prod_{i=1}^n [L_i^{-}(h), L_i^{+}(h)]$, where $L_i^{-}(h)$ (resp. $L_i^{+}(h)$) is the maximum (resp. minimum) slope of the function $h$ along the $i$-th dimension. The subdifferential of $h$ at a point $x \in X$ is defined as $\partial h(x) := \{y \in \mathbb{R}^n : h(\bar{x}) \geq h(x) + \langle \bar{x} - x, y \rangle, \forall \bar{x} \in X\}$. Note that $\partial h(x) \subseteq \mathbb{L}(h)$ for all $x \in X$; in particular, $\mathbb{L}(h) = \cup_{x \in X} \partial h(x)$ if $h$ is convex. The Legendre-Fenchel transform (convex conjugate) of $h$ is the function $h^* : \mathbb{R}^n \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$, defined by $h^*(y) = \sup_{x \in X} \{\langle y, x \rangle - h(x)\}$. Note that the conjugate function $h^*$ is convex by construction. We again use the notation $h^{d*}$ to emphasize the fact that the domain of the underlying function is finite, that is, $h^{d*}(y) = \sup_{x \in X^d} \{\langle y, x \rangle - h(x)\}$. The biconjugate and discrete biconjugate operators are defined accordingly and denoted by $[\cdot]^* = ([\cdot]^*)^*$ and $[\cdot]^{d*} = ([\cdot]^{d*})^{d*}$, respectively.

We report the complexities using the standard big-O notations $\mathcal{O}$ and $\tilde{\mathcal{O}}$, where the latter hides the logarithmic factors. In this study, we are mainly concerned with the dependence of the computational complexities on the size of the finite sets involved (discretization of the primal and dual domains). In particular, we ignore the possible dependence of the computational complexities on the dimension of the variables, unless they appear in the power of the size of those discrete sets; e.g., the complexity of a single evaluation of an analytically available function is taken to be of $\mathcal{O}(1)$, regardless of the dimension of its input and output arguments.
2. VI in primal domain

We are concerned with the infinite-horizon, discounted cost, optimal control problems of the form

$$J_\gamma(x) = \min \mathbb{E}_{w_t} \left[ \sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^t C(x_t, u_t) \bigg| x_0 = x \right]$$

s.t. $$x_{t+1} = g(x_t, u_t, w_t), \quad x_t \in \mathcal{X}, \quad u_t \in \mathcal{U}, \quad w_t \sim \mathcal{P}(W), \quad \forall t \in \{0, 1, \ldots\},$$

where $$x_t \in \mathbb{R}^n$$, $$u_t \in \mathbb{R}^m$$, and $$w_t \in \mathbb{R}^l$$ are the state, input and disturbance variables at time $$t$$, respectively; $$\gamma \in (0, 1)$$ is the discount factor; $$C : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{U} \to \mathbb{R}$$ is the stage cost; $$g : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^l \to \mathbb{R}^n$$ describes the dynamics; $$\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$$ and $$\mathcal{U} \subset \mathbb{R}^m$$ describe the state and input constraints, respectively; and, $$\mathcal{P}(\cdot)$$ is the distribution of the disturbance over the support $$\mathcal{W} \subset \mathbb{R}^l$$. Assuming the stage cost $$C$$ is bounded, the optimal value function solves the Bellman equation $$J_\gamma = \mathcal{T} J_\gamma$$, where $$\mathcal{T}$$ is the DP operator ($$C$$ and $$J$$ are extended to infinity outside their effective domains) [8, Prop. 1.2.2].

Indeed, $$\mathcal{T}$$ is $$\gamma$$-contractive in the infinity-norm, i.e., $$\| \mathcal{T} J_1 - \mathcal{T} J_2 \|_\infty \leq \gamma \| J_1 - J_2 \|_\infty$$ [8, Prop. 1.2.4]. This property then gives rise to the VI algorithm $$J_{k+1} = \mathcal{T} J_k$$ which converges to $$J_\gamma$$ as $$k \to \infty$$, for arbitrary initialization $$J_0$$. Moreover, assuming that the composition $$J \circ g$$ (for each $$w$$) and the cost $$C$$ are jointly convex in the state and input variables, $$\mathcal{T}$$ also preserves convexity [9, Prop. 3.3.1].

For the numerical implementation of VI, we need to address three issues. First, we need to compute the initialization $$J_0$$, which converges to $$J_\gamma$$ as $$k \to \infty$$. Second, we need to address the computational cost of this operation explicitly, which renders the exact implementation of VI impossible, except for a few cases with available closed-form solutions. A common solution to this problem is to deploy a sample-based approach, accompanied by a function approximation scheme. To be precise, for a finite subset $$\mathcal{X}_d$$ of $$\mathcal{X}$$, at each iteration $$k = 0, 1, \ldots$$, we take the discrete function $$J_d^t : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$$ as the input, and compute the discrete function $$\tilde{J}_{k+1}^d = \mathcal{T} J_k^d : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R},$$

where $$\tilde{J}_{k+1}^d : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$$ is an extension of $$J_d^t$$. Finally, for each $$x \in \mathcal{X}_d$$, we have to solve the minimization problem (1) over the control input. Since this minimization problem is often a difficult, non-convex problem, a common approximation again involves enumeration over a discretization $$\mathcal{U}_d \subset \mathcal{U}$$ of the input space.

Incorporating these approximations, we end up with the approximate VI algorithm $$J_{k+1}^d = \mathcal{T}^d J_k^d$$, characterized by the discrete DP (d-DP) operator

$$\mathcal{T}^d J^d(x) = \min_{w \in \mathcal{W}_d} \left\{ C(x, u) + \gamma \sum_{w \in \mathcal{W}_d} p(w) \cdot J^d(g(x, u, w)) \right\}, \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}_d.$$  

The convergence of approximate VI described above depends on the properties of the extension operation [7]. In particular, if [7] is non-expansive (in the infinity-norm), then $$\mathcal{T}^d$$ is also $$\gamma$$-contractive. For example, for a grid-like discretization of the state space $$\mathcal{X}_d = \mathcal{X}_g$$, the extension using interpolative LERP is non-expansive;

\footnote{Indeed, $$\mathcal{W}_d$$ can be considered as a finite approximation of the true support $$\mathcal{W}$$ of the disturbance. Moreover, one can consider other approximation schemes, such as Monte Carlo simulation, for this expectation operation.}

\footnote{The extension can be considered as a generic parametric approximation $$\tilde{J}_{\theta_k} : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$$, where the parameters $$\theta_k$$ are computed using regression, i.e., by fitting $$\tilde{J}_{\theta_k}$$ to the data points $$J_k^d : \mathcal{X}_d \to \mathbb{R}.$$}
see Lemma A.2. The error of this approximation (\( \lim \| J^d - J^d \|_\infty \)) also depends on the extension operation \( \tilde{\cdot} \) and its representative power. We refer the interested reader to [8, 11, 27] for detailed discussions on the convergence and error of different approximation schemes for VI.

The d-DP operator and the corresponding approximate VI algorithm will be our benchmark for evaluating the performance of the alternative algorithm developed in this study. To this end, we finish this section with some remarks on the time complexity of the d-DP operation. Let the time complexity of a single evaluation of the extension operator \( \tilde{\cdot} \) in (2) be of \( \mathcal{O}(E) \).

Then, the time complexity of the d-DP operation (2) is of \( \mathcal{O}(XUWE) \). In this regard, note that the scheme described above essentially involves approximating a continuous-state/action MDP with a finite-state/action MDP, and then applying VI. This, in turn, implies the lower bound \( \Omega(XU) \) for the time complexity (corresponding to enumeration over \( u \in \mathbb{U}^d \) for each \( x \in \mathbb{X}^d \)). This lower bound is also compatible with the best existing time complexities in the literature for VI for finite MDPs; see, e.g., [3, 28]. However, as we will see in the next section, for a particular class of problems, it is possible to exploit the structure of the underlying continuous system to achieve a better time complexity in the corresponding discretized problem.

3. Reducing complexity via conjugate duality

In this section, we present the class of problems that allows us to employ conjugate duality and propose an alternative path for solving the corresponding DP operator. We also present the numerical scheme for implementing the proposed alternative path and analyze its convergence, complexity, and error. We note that the proposed algorithm and its analysis are based on the d-CDP algorithm presented in [21, Sec. 5] for finite-horizon, optimal control of deterministic systems. Here, we extend those results for infinite-horizon, discounted cost, optimal control of stochastic systems. Moreover, unlike [21], our analysis includes the case where the conjugate of input cost is not analytically available and has to be computed numerically; see [21, Assump. 5.1] for more details.

3.1. VI in conjugate domain

Throughout this section, we assume that the problem data satisfy the following conditions.

Assumption 3.1 (Problem class). The problem data has the following properties:

(i) The dynamics is of the form \( g(x, u, w) = f(x, u) + w = f_s(x) + Bu + w \), with additive disturbance, where \( f_s : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n \) is a Lipschitz continuous, possibly nonlinear map, and \( B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m} \).

(ii) The stage cost \( C \) is separable in state and input; that is, \( C(x, u) = C_s(x) + C_i(u) \), where the state cost \( C_s : \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{R} \) and the input cost \( C_i : \mathbb{U} \to \mathbb{R} \) are Lipschitz continuous.

(iii) The constraint sets \( \mathbb{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^n \) and \( \mathbb{U} \subset \mathbb{R}^m \) are compact. Moreover, for each \( x \in \mathbb{X} \), the set of admissible inputs \( \mathbb{U}(x) := \{ u \in \mathbb{U} : g(x, u, w) \in \mathbb{X}, \forall w \in \mathbb{W}^d \} \) is nonempty.

Some remarks are in order regarding the preceding assumptions. We first note that the setting of Assumption 3.1 goes beyond the classical LQR. In particular, it includes nonlinear dynamics, state and input constraints, and non-quadratic stage costs. Second, the properties laid out in Assumption 3.1 implies that the set of admissible inputs \( \mathbb{U}(x) \) is a compact set for each \( x \in \mathbb{X} \). This, in turn, implies that the optimal value in (1) is achieved if \( J : \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{R} \) is also assumed to be lower semi-continuous. Finally, as we discuss shortly,

3For example, for the linear approximation \( \tilde{J}^d(x) = \sum_{i=1}^d \alpha_i \cdot b_i(x) \), we have \( E = B \) (the size of the basis), while for the kernel-based approximation \( \tilde{J}^d(x) = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{X}^d} \alpha_i \cdot r(x, \hat{x}) \), we generally have \( E \leq X \). In particular, if \( \mathbb{X}^d = X^d \) is grid-like, and \( \tilde{J}^d = \tilde{J}^d \) is approximated using LERP, then \( E = \log X \) [21, Rem. 2.2].
the two assumptions on the dynamics and the cost play an essential role in the derivation of the alternative algorithm and its computationally efficient implementation.

For the problem class of Assumption (3.1), we can use duality theory to present an alternative path for computing the output of the DP operator. This path forms the basis for the algorithm proposed in this study. To this end, let us fix $x \in \mathbb{X}$ and consider the following reformulation of the optimization problem (1)

$$
TJ(x) = C_s(x) + \min_{u,z} \{ C_i(u) + \gamma \cdot E_w J(z + w) : z = f(x, u) \},
$$

where we used additivity of disturbance and separability of stage cost. The corresponding dual problem then reads as

$$
\hat{T}J(x) := C_b(x) + \max_y \min_{u,z} \{ C_i(u) + \gamma \cdot E_w J(z + w) + \langle y, f(x, u) - z \rangle \},
$$

where $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the dual variable corresponding to the equality constraint. For the dynamics of Assumption 3.1-(i), we can then obtain the following representation for the dual problem.

**Proposition 3.2** (CDP operator). The dual problem (3) equivalently reads as

$$
\begin{align*}
(4a) & \quad \epsilon(x) := \gamma \cdot E_w J(x + w), \\
(4b) & \quad \phi(y) := C_i^*(\langle -B^T y \rangle^* + \epsilon^*(y)), \\
(4c) & \quad \hat{T}J(x) = C_b(x) + \phi^*(f_b(x)),
\end{align*}
$$

where $[.]^*$ denotes the conjugate operation.

Following [21], we call the operator $\hat{T}$ in (4) the conjugate DP (CDP) operator. We next provide an alternative representation of the CDP operator that captures the essence of this operation.

**Proposition 3.3** (CDP reformulation). The CDP operator $\hat{T}$ equivalently reads as

$$
\hat{T}J(x) = C_b(x) + \min_u \{ C_i^{**}(u) + \gamma \cdot [E_w J(\cdot + w)]^{**}(f(x, u)) \},
$$

where $[.]^{**}$ denotes the biconjugate operation.

The preceding result implies that the indirect path through the conjugate domain essentially involves substituting the input cost and (expectation of the) value function by their biconjugates. In particular, it points to a sufficient condition for zero duality gap.

**Corollary 3.4** (Equivalence of $T$ and $\hat{T}$). If $C_i : U \to \mathbb{R}$ and $J : \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ are convex, then $\hat{T}J = TJ$.

Hence, $\hat{T}$ has the same properties as $T$ if $C_i$ and $J$ are convex. More importantly, if $T$ and $\hat{T}$ preserve convexity, then the conjugate VI (ConjVI) algorithm $J_{k+1} = \hat{T}J_k$ also converges to the optimal value function $J_*$, with arbitrary convex initialization $J_0$. For convexity to be preserved, however, we need more assumptions: First, the state cost $C_s : \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ needs to be also convex. Then, for $\hat{T}J$ to be convex, a sufficient condition is convexity of $J \circ f$ (jointly in $x$ and $u$), given that $J$ is convex. The following assumption summarizes the sufficient conditions for equivalence of VI and ConjVI algorithms.

**Assumption 3.5** (Convexity). Consider the following properties for the constraints, costs, and dynamics:

(i) The sets $\mathbb{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ and $U \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ are convex.

(ii) The costs $C_i : \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ and $C_1 : U \to \mathbb{R}$ are convex.

(iii) The deterministic dynamics $f : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is such that given a convex function $J : \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{R}$, the composition $J \circ f$ is jointly convex in the state and input variables.
Algorithm 1 ConjVI: Approximate VI in conjugate domain

Input: dynamics $f_s : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$, $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$; finite state space $X^d \subset X$; finite input space $U^d \subset U$; state cost function $C^d : X^d \to \mathbb{R}$; input cost function $C^i : U^d \to \mathbb{R}$; finite disturbance space $\mathcal{W}^d$ and its p.m.f. $p : \mathcal{W}^d \to [0, 1]$; discount factor $\gamma$; termination bound $\epsilon_t$.

Output: discrete value function $\tilde{J}^d : X^d \to \mathbb{R}$

initialization:
1. construct the grid $V^8$;
2. use LLT to compute $C^d_{\text{conv}} : V^8 \to \mathbb{R}$ from $C^d : X^d \to \mathbb{R}$;
3. construct the grid $Z^8$;
4. construct the grid $Y^8$;
5. $J_i^d(x) \leftarrow 0$ for $x \in X^d$;
6. $J_i^d(x) \leftarrow C^d_i(x) - \min C^d_i$ for $x \in X^d$;

iteration:
7. while $\|J_i^d - J_{i-1}^d\|_\infty \geq \epsilon_t$ do
8. $J_{i-1}^d \leftarrow J_i^d$;
9. d-CDP operation:
10. $\varepsilon_i^d(x) \leftarrow \gamma \cdot \sum_{w \in \mathcal{W}^d} p(w) \cdot J_i^d(x + w)$ for $x \in X^d$;
11. use LLT to compute $\varepsilon_i^{\text{conv}} : V^8 \to \mathbb{R}$ from $\varepsilon_i^d : X^d \to \mathbb{R}$;
12. for each $y \in Y^8$ do
13. use LERP to compute $\overline{C^d_{\text{conv}}}(-B^\top y)$ from $C^d_{\text{conv}} : V^8 \to \mathbb{R}$;
14. $\phi_i^d(y) \leftarrow \overline{C^d_{\text{conv}}}(-B^\top y) + \varepsilon_i^{\text{conv}}(y)$;
15. use LLT to compute $\phi_i^{\text{conv}} : Z^8 \to \mathbb{R}$ from $\phi_i^d : Y^8 \to \mathbb{R}$;
16. for each $x \in X^d$ do
17. use LERP to compute $\overline{\phi_i^{\text{conv}}(f_i(x))}$ from $\phi_i^{\text{conv}} : Z^8 \to \mathbb{R}$;
18. $J_i^d(x) \leftarrow C^d_i(x) + \overline{\phi_i^{\text{conv}}(f_i(x))}$;
19. end for
20. end while
21. output $\tilde{J}^d \leftarrow J_{i-1}^d$.

We note that the last condition in the preceding assumption usually does not hold for nonlinear dynamics, however, for $f_s(x) = Ax$ with $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, this is indeed the case for problems satisfying Assumptions 3.1 and 3.5 [7]. Note that, if convexity is not preserved, then the alternative path suffers from duality gap in the sense that in each iteration it uses the convex envelope of (the expectation of) the output of the previous iteration.

3.2. ConjVI algorithm

The approximate ConjVI algorithm involves consecutive applications of an approximate implementation of the CDP operator (4) until some termination condition is satisfied. Algorithm 1 provides the pseudo-code of this procedure. In particular, we consider solving (4) for a finite set $X^d \subset X$, and terminate the iterations when the difference between two consecutive discrete value functions (in the infinity-norm) is less than a given constant $\epsilon_t > 0$; see Algorithm 1.7. Since we are working with a finite subset of the state space, we can restrict the feasibility condition of Assumption 3.1-(iii) to all $x \in X^d$ (as opposed to all $x \in X$):

Assumption 3.6 (Feasible discretization). The set of admissible inputs $U(x)$ is nonempty for all $x \in X^d$.

In what follows, we describe the main steps within the initialization and iterations of Algorithm 1. In particular, the conjugate operations in (4) are handled numerically via the linear-time Legendre transform (LLT) algorithm [24]. LLT is an efficient algorithm for computing the discrete conjugate function over a
finite grid-like dual domain. Precisely, to compute the conjugate of the function \( h : \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \), LLT takes its discretization \( h^d : \mathbb{X}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) as an input, and outputs \( h^{d*} : \mathbb{Y}^s \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \), for the grid-like dual domain \( \mathbb{Y}^s \). We refer the reader to [24] for a detailed description of LLT. The main steps of the proposed approximate implementation of the CDP operator (4) are as follows:

(i) For the expectation operation in (4a), by Assumption 2.1, we again have

\[
\mathbb{E}_w J(\gamma + w) = \sum_{w \in \mathbb{W}^d} p(w) \cdot J(\gamma + w).
\]

Hence, we need to pass the value function \( J^d : \mathbb{X}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) through the “scaled expection filter” to obtain \( \epsilon^d : \mathbb{X}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) in (6a) as an approximation of \( \epsilon \) in (4a). Notice that here we are using an extension \( J^d : \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) of \( J^d \) (recall that we only have access to the discrete value function \( J^d \)).

(ii) To compute \( \phi \) in (4b), we need access to two conjugate functions:

(a) For \( \epsilon^* \), we use the approximation \( \epsilon^{d*} : \mathbb{Y}^s \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) in (6b), by applying LLT to the data points \( \epsilon^d : \mathbb{X}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) for a properly chosen state dual grid \( \mathbb{Y}^s \subset \mathbb{R}^n \).

(b) If the conjugate \( C^*_1 \) of the input cost is not analytically available, we approximate it as follows:

For a properly chosen input dual grid \( \mathbb{Y}^s \subset \mathbb{R}^n \), we employ LLT to compute \( C^{1*}_1 : \mathbb{Y}^s \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) in (6c), using the data points \( C^{1d}_i : \mathbb{U}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \), where \( \mathbb{U}^d \) is a finite subset of \( U \).

With these conjugate functions at hand, we can now compute \( \varphi^d : \mathbb{Y}^s \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) in (6d), as an approximation of \( \phi \) in (4b). In particular, notice that we use the LERP extension \( C^{1*}_1 \) of \( C^{1d}_i \) to approximate \( C^*_1 \) at the required point \( \langle -B^T y \rangle \) for each \( y \in \mathbb{Y}^s \).

(iii) To be able to compute the output according to (4c), we need to perform another conjugate transform.

In particular, we need the value of \( \phi^* \) at \( f_s(x) \) for \( x \in \mathbb{X}^d \). Here, we use the approximation \( \varphi^{d*} : \mathbb{Z}^s \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) in (6e), by applying LLT to the data points \( \varphi^d : \mathbb{Y}^s \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) for a properly chosen grid \( \mathbb{Z}^s \subset \mathbb{R}^n \).

Finally, we use the LERP extension \( \varphi^{d*} \) of \( \varphi^d \) to approximate \( \varphi^* \) at the required point \( f_s(x) \) for each \( x \in \mathbb{X}^d \), and compute \( \bar{J}^d J^d \) in (6f) as an approximation of \( \bar{J} \) in (4c).

With these approximations, we can introduce the discrete CDP (d-CDP) operator as follows

\[
\begin{align*}
\epsilon^d(x) &:= \gamma \cdot \sum_{w \in \mathbb{W}^d} p(w) \cdot J^d(x + w), & x \in \mathbb{X}^d, \\
\epsilon^{d*}(y) &:= \max_{x \in \mathbb{X}^d} \left\{ (x, y) - \epsilon^d(x) \right\}, & y \in \mathbb{Y}^s, \\
C^{1*}_1(v) &:= \max_{u \in \mathbb{U}^d} \left\{ (u, v) - C^{1d}_i(u) \right\}, & v \in \mathbb{Y}^s, \\
\varphi^d(y) &:= C^{1*}_1(-B^T y) + \epsilon^{d*}(y), & y \in \mathbb{Y}^s, \\
\varphi^{d*}(z) &:= \max_{y \in \mathbb{Y}^s} \left\{ (y, z) - \varphi^d(y) \right\}, & z \in \mathbb{Z}^s, \\
\bar{J}^d J^d(x) &:= C^*_1(x) + \varphi^{d*}(f_s(x)), & x \in \mathbb{X}^d.
\end{align*}
\]

The proper construction of the grids \( \mathbb{Y}^s, \mathbb{Y}^s, \) and \( \mathbb{Z}^s \) will be discussed in Section 3.4. We finish this subsection with the following remarks on the modification of the proposed algorithm for two special cases.

**Remark 3.7** (Deterministic systems). For deterministic systems, i.e., \( g(x, u, w) = f(x, u) \), we do not need to compute any expectation. Then, the operation in (6a) becomes the simple scaling \( \epsilon^d = \gamma \cdot J^d \).

**Remark 3.8** (Analytically available \( C^*_1 \)). If the conjugate \( C^*_1 \) of the input cost is analytically available, we can use it directly in (6d) instead of \( C^{1*}_1 \) and avoid the corresponding approximation; i.e., there is no need for construction of \( \mathbb{Y}^s \) and the computation of \( C^{1*}_1 \) in (6c).
3.3. Analysis of ConjVI algorithm

We now provide our main theoretical results concerning the convergence, complexity, and error of the proposed algorithm. Let us begin by presenting the assumptions to be called in this subsection.

**Assumption 3.9** (Grids). Consider the following properties for the grids in Algorithm 1 (consult the Notations in Section 1):

(i) The grid \( Y^S \) is constructed such that \( \text{co}(Y^S_{\text{sub}}) \supseteq \mathbb{L}(C^d) \).
(ii) The grid \( Z^S \) is constructed such that \( \text{co}(Z^S) \supseteq f_s(X^d) \).
(iii) The construction of \( Y^S, Y^S, \) and \( Z^S \) requires at most \( O(X + U) \) operations. The cardinality of the grids \( Y^S \) and \( Z^S \) (resp. \( V^S \)) in each dimension is the same as that of \( X^d \) (resp. \( U^d \)) in that dimension so that \( Y, Z = X \) and \( V = U \).

**Assumption 3.10** (Extension operator). Consider the following properties for the operator \( \tilde{\chi} \) in (6a):

(i) The extension operator is non-expansive w.r.t. the infinity norm; that is, for two discrete functions \( J^d_i : X^d \to \mathbb{R} (i = 1, 2) \) and their extensions \( J^d_i : X \to \mathbb{R} \), we have \( \|J^d_1 - J^d_2\|_\infty \leq \|J^d_1 - J^d_2\|_\infty \).
(ii) Given a function \( J : X \to \mathbb{R} \) and its discretization \( J^d : X^d \to \mathbb{R} \), the error of the extension operator is uniformly bounded, that is, \( \|J - J^d\|_\infty \leq e_c \) for some constant \( e_c \geq 0 \).

Our first result concerns the contractiveness of the d-CDP operator.

**Theorem 3.11** (Convergence). Let Assumptions 3.9-(ii) and 3.10-(i) hold. Then, the d-CDP operator (6) is \( \gamma \)-contractive w.r.t. the infinity-norm.

The preceding theorem implies that the approximate ConjVI Algorithm 1 is indeed convergent given that the required conditions are satisfied. In particular, for deterministic dynamics, \( \text{co}(Z^S) \supseteq f_s(X^d) \) is sufficient for Algorithm 1 to be convergent. We next consider the time complexity of our algorithm.

**Theorem 3.12** (Complexity). Let Assumption 3.9-(iii) hold. Also assume that each evaluation of the extension operator \( \tilde{\chi} \) in (6a) requires \( O(E) \) operations. Then, the time complexities of initialization and each iteration in Algorithm 1 are of \( O(X + U) \) and \( \tilde{O}(XWE) \), respectively.

The requirements of Assumption 3.9-(iii) will be discussed in Section 3.4. Recall that each iteration of VI (in primal domain) has a complexity of \( O(XUWE) \), where \( E \) denotes the complexity of the extension operation used in (2). This observation points to a basic characteristic of the proposed approach: ConjVI reduces the quadratic complexity of VI to a linear one by replacing the minimization operation in the primal domain with a simple addition in the conjugate domain. Hence, for the problem class of Assumption 3.1, ConjVI is expected to lead to a reduction in the computational cost. We note that ConjVI, like VI and other approximation schemes that utilize discretization/abstraction of the continuous state and input spaces, still suffers from the so-called “curse of dimensionality.” This is because the sizes \( X \) and \( U \) of the discretizations increase exponentially with the dimensions \( n \) and \( m \) of the corresponding spaces. However, for ConjVI, this exponential increase is of rate \( \text{max}\{m, n\} \), compared to the rate \( m + n \) for VI.

Let us also note that the most crucial step that allows the speedup discussed above is the interpolative discrete conjugation in (6f) that approximates \( \varphi^{d^d} \) at the point \( f_s(x) \). In this regard, notice that we can alternatively compute \( \varphi^{d^d}(f_s(x)) \equiv \max_{y \in Y^S} \{ (y, f_s(x)) - \varphi^1(y) \} \) exactly via enumeration over \( y \in Y^S \) for each \( x \in X^d \) (then, the computation of \( \varphi^{d^d} : Z^S \to \mathbb{R} \) in (6e) is not needed anymore). However, this approach requires \( O(XY) = O(X^2) \) operations in the last step, hence rendering the proposed approach computationally impractical. Of course, the application of interpolative discrete conjugation has its cost: The LERP extension
in (6f) can lead to non-convex outputs (even if Assumption 3.5 holds true). This, in turn, can introduce a dualization error. We finish with the following result on the error of the proposed ConjVI algorithm.

**Theorem 3.13 (Error).** Let Assumptions 3.5, 3.9-(i)&(ii), and 3.10-(i) hold. Consider the true optimal value function \( J^*_p : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) and its discretization \( J^d : X^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \), and let Assumption 3.10-(ii) hold for \( J^*_p \). Also, let \( \tilde{J}^d : X^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) be the output of Algorithm 1. Then,

\[
\| \tilde{J}^d - J^d \|_\infty \leq \frac{\gamma (c_e + c_v) + c_d}{1 - \gamma},
\]

where \( c_d = c_u + c_v + c_x + c_y + c_z \), and

\[
\begin{align*}
(8a) \quad & e_u = c_u \cdot d_H (\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{U}^d), \\
(8b) \quad & e_v = c_v \cdot d_H (\co (\mathcal{V}^g), \mathcal{V}^g), \\
(8c) \quad & e_x = c_x \cdot d_H (X, X^d), \\
(8d) \quad & e_y = c_y \cdot \max_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} d (\partial (J^*_p - C^*_p) (x), \mathcal{V}^g), \\
(8e) \quad & e_z = c_z \cdot d_H (J^*_p (X^d), \mathcal{Z}^g),
\end{align*}
\]

with constants \( c_u, c_v, c_x, c_y, c_z > 0 \) depending on the problem data.

Let us first note that Assumption 3.5 implies that the DP and CDP operators preserve convexity, and they both have the true optimal value function \( J^*_p \) as their fixed point (i.e., the duality gap is zero). Otherwise, the proposed scheme can suffer from large errors due to dualization. Moreover, Assumptions 3.9-(i)&(ii) on the grids \( \mathcal{V}^g \) and \( \mathcal{Z}^g \) are required for bounding the error of approximate discrete conjugations using LERP in (6d) and (6f); see the proof of Lemmas A.6 and A.8. The remaining sources of error in the proposed approximate implementation of ConjVI are captured by the three error terms in (7):

(i) \( e_c \) is due to the approximation of the value function using the extension operator \( \hat{\cdot} \);
(ii) \( e_s \) corresponds to the termination of the algorithm after a finite number of iterations;
(iii) \( e_d \) captures the error due to the discretization of the primal and dual state and input domains.

We again finish with the following remarks on the modification of the proposed algorithm for deterministic systems and analytically available \( C^*_i \).

**Remark 3.14 (Deterministic systems).** If the dynamics are deterministic, then the complexity of each iteration of Algorithm 1 reduces to \( \tilde{O}(X) \). Moreover, in this case, the error term \( e_c \) disappears.

**Remark 3.15 (Analytically available \( C^*_i \)).** If the conjugate \( C^*_i \) of the input cost is analytically available and used in (6d) instead of the LERP extension \( C^*_i \) in (6d), the error term due to discretization modifies to \( c_d = e_x + e_y + e_z \). That is, the error terms \( e_u \) and \( e_v \) corresponding to the discretization of the primal and dual input spaces disappear.

3.4. **Construction of the grids**

In this subsection, we provide specific guidelines for the construction of the grids \( \mathcal{V}^g, \mathcal{V}^s \) and \( \mathcal{Z}^g \). We note that these discrete sets must be *grid-like* since they form the dual grid for the three conjugate transforms that are handled using LLT. The presented guidelines aim to minimize the error terms in (8) while taking into account the properties laid out in Assumption 3.9. In particular, the schemes described below satisfy the requirements of Assumption 3.9-(iii).

**Construction of \( \mathcal{V}^g \).** Assumption 3.9-(i) and the error term \( e_v \) in (8b) suggest that we find the smallest input dual grid \( \mathcal{V}^s \) such that \( \co (\mathcal{V}^s_{\text{sub}}) \supseteq \mathcal{L}(C^*_i) \). This latter condition essentially means that \( \mathcal{V}^s \) must “more
where \( \Delta \) is a scaling factor mainly depending on the dimension of the state space. In particular, by setting \( \alpha = 1 \), we need to compute/approximate \( L_j^+(C_i) \) for \( j = 1, \ldots, m \). A conservative approximation is \( L_j^+(C_i) = \min \partial C_i / \partial u_j \) and \( L_j^+(C_i) = \max \partial C_i / \partial u_j \), assuming \( C_i \) is differentiable. Alternatively, we can directly use the discrete input cost \( \hat{C}_i \) for computing \( L_j^+(C_i) \). In particular, if the domain \( \mathbb{R}^d = \prod_{j=1}^m [\hat{L}_j^-(C_i), \hat{L}_j^+(C_i)] \) is grid-like and \( C_i \) is convex, we can take \( L_j^+(C_i) \) (resp. \( L_j^-(C_i) \)) to be the minimum first forward difference (resp. maximum last backward difference) of \( C_i \) along the \( j \)-th dimension (this scheme requires \( \mathcal{O}(U) \) operations). Having \( L_j^+(C_i) \) at our disposal, we can then construct \( \mathbb{Y}^g_{\text{sub}} = \prod_{j=1}^m \mathbb{Y}^g_{\text{sub}j} \) such that, in each dimension \( j \), \( \mathbb{Y}^g_{\text{sub}j} \) is uniform and has the same cardinality as \( \mathbb{Y}^g_j \). Those vertices give the diameter of \( \mathbb{Z}^g \) in each dimension. We can then, for example, take \( \mathbb{Z}^g \) to be the uniform grid with the same cardinality as \( \mathbb{Y}^g \) in each dimension (so that \( Z = Y \)). This way, we have

\[
d_H \left( f_s(X^d), \mathbb{Z}^g \right) \leq d_H \left( \text{co}(\mathbb{Y}^g), \mathbb{Z}^g \right),
\]

and hence \( c_y \) in (8e) reduces by using finer grids \( \mathbb{Z}^g \). This construction has a time complexity of \( \mathcal{O}(X) \).

**Construction of \( \mathbb{Y}^g \).** Construction of the state dual grid \( \mathbb{Y}^g \) is more involved. According to Theorem 3.13, we need to choose a grid that minimizes \( c_y \) in (8d). This can be done by choosing \( \mathbb{Y}^g \) such that \( \mathbb{Y}^g \cap \partial(J_\ast - C_s) \neq \emptyset \) for all \( x \in X^d \) so that \( c_y = 0 \). Even if we had access to the optimal value function \( J_\ast \), satisfying such a condition could lead to a dual grid \( \mathbb{Y}^g \subset \mathbb{R}^n \) of size \( \mathcal{O}(X^n) \). Such a large size violates Assumption 3.9-(iii) on the size of \( \mathbb{Y}^g \), and essentially renders the proposed algorithm impractical for dimensions \( n \geq 2 \). A more practical condition is \( \text{co}(\mathbb{Y}^g) \cap \partial(J_\ast - C_s) \neq \emptyset \) for all \( x \in X^d \) so that

\[
\max_{x, y \in \mathbb{X}^d} d \left( \partial(J_\ast - C_s)(x), \mathbb{Y}^g \right) \leq d_H \left( \text{co}(\mathbb{Y}^g), \mathbb{Y}^g \right),
\]

and hence \( c_y \) reduces by using a finer grid \( \mathbb{Y}^g \). The latter condition is satisfied if \( \text{co}(\mathbb{Y}^g) \supseteq L(J_\ast - C_s) \), i.e., if \( \text{co}(\mathbb{Y}^g) \) “covers the range of slope” of \( (J_\ast - C_s) \). Hence, we need to approximate the range of slope of \( (J_\ast - C_s) \). To this end, we first use the fact that \( J_\ast \) is the fixed point of DP operator (1) to approximate \( \text{rng}(J_\ast - C_s) \) by

\[
R = \frac{\text{rng}(C_i) + \gamma \cdot \text{rng}(C_i)}{1 - \gamma}.
\]

We then construct the grid \( \mathbb{Y}^g = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{Y}^g_i \) such that, for each dimension \( i \), we have

\[
\pm \frac{\alpha R}{\Delta_{X^d}} \in \text{co}(\mathbb{Y}^g_i)
\]

where \( \Delta_{X^d} \) denotes the diameter of the projection of \( X^d \) on the \( i \)-th dimension. Here, the coefficient \( \alpha > 0 \) is a scaling factor mainly depending on the dimension of the state space. In particular, by setting \( \alpha = 1 \), the value \( R/\Delta_{X^d} \) is the slope of a linear function with range \( R \) over the domain \( \Delta_{X^d} \). This construction has a one-time computational cost of \( \mathcal{O}(X + U) \) for computing \( \text{rng}(C_i) \) and \( \text{rng}(C_i) \).

**Dynamic construction of \( \mathbb{Y}^g \).** Alternatively, we can construct \( \mathbb{Y}^g \) dynamically at each iteration to minimize the corresponding error in each application of the d-CDP operator given by (see Lemma A.7 and Proposition A.3)

\[
e_y = c_y \cdot \max_{x \in X^d} d \left( \partial(TJ - C_s)(x), \mathbb{Y}^g \right).
\]

This means that line 4 in Algorithm 1 is moved inside the iterations, after line 8. Similar to the static scheme described above, the aim here is to construct \( \mathbb{Y}^g \) such that \( \text{co}(\mathbb{Y}^g) \supseteq L(TJ - C_s) \). Since we do not have access
to $\mathcal{T}J$ (it is the output of the current iteration), we can again use the definition of the DP operator (1) to approximate $\text{rng}(\mathcal{T}J - C_\delta)$ by

$$R = \text{rng}(C^d_i) + \gamma \cdot \text{rng}(J^d),$$

where $J^d$ is the output of the previous iteration. We then construct the grid $\mathbb{Y}^s = \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbb{Y}^s_i$ such that, for each dimension $i$, the condition (9) holds. This construction has a one-time computational cost of $O(U)$ for computing $\text{rng}(C^d_i)$ and a per iteration computational cost of $O(X)$ for computing $\text{rng}(J^d)$. Notice, however, that under this dynamic construction, the error bound of Theorem 3.13 does not hold true. More importantly, with a dynamic grid $\mathbb{Y}^s$ that varies in each iteration, there is no guarantee for ConjVI to converge.

4. Numerical simulations

In this section, we compare the performance of the proposed ConjVI algorithm with the benchmark VI algorithm (in primal domain) through three numerical examples. For the first example, we focus on a synthetic system satisfying the conditions of assumptions considered in this study to examine our theoretical results. We then showcase the application of ConjVI in solving the optimal control problem of an inverted pendulum and a batch reactor. The simulations were implemented via MATLAB version R2017b, on a PC with an Intel Xeon 3.60 GHz processor and 16 GB RAM. We also provide the ConjVI MATLAB package [22] for the implementation of the proposed algorithm. The package also includes the numerical simulations of this section. We note that multiple routines in the developed package are borrowed from the d-CDP MATLAB package [23]. Also, for the discrete conjugation (LLT), we used the MATLAB package (in particular, the LLTcd routine) provided in [24].

4.1. Example 1 – Synthetic

We consider the linear system $x^+ = Ax + Bu + w$ with $A = [2 \ 1; \ 1 \ 3], B = [1 \ 1; \ 1 \ 2]$. The problem of interest is the infinite-horizon, optimal control of this system with cost functions $C^*_e(x) = 10\|x\|^2$ and $C^*_i(u) = e^{\|u\|_2^2} + e^{\|u\|_2 - 2}$, and discount factor $\gamma = 0.95$. We consider state and input constraint sets $X = [-1, 1]^2$ and $U = [-2, 2]^2$, respectively. The disturbance is assumed to have a uniform distribution over the finite support $\mathbb{W}^d = \{0, \pm 0.05\} \times \{0\}$ of size $W = 3$. Notice how the stage cost is a combination of a quadratic term (in state) and an exponential term (in input). Particularly, the control problem at hand does not have a closed-form solution. We use uniform, grid-like discretizations $\mathbb{X}^s$ and $\mathbb{U}^s$ for the state and input spaces such that $\text{co}(\mathbb{X}^s) = X$ and $\text{co}(\mathbb{U}^s) = U$. This choice allows us to deploy multilinear interpolation, which is non-expansive, as the extension operator $[\cdot]$ in the d-DP operation (2) in VI, and in the d-CDP operation (6a) in ConjVI. The grids $\mathbb{W}^s, \mathbb{Z}^s \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ are also constructed uniformly, following the guidelines provided in Section 3.2. For the construction of $\mathbb{Y}^s \subset \mathbb{R}^2$, we also follow the guidelines of Section 3.2 with $\alpha = 1$. In particular, we also consider the dynamic scheme for the construction of $\mathbb{Y}^s$ in ConjVI (hereafter, referred to as ConjVI-d). Moreover, in each implementation of VI and ConjVI(-d), all of the involved grids ($\mathbb{X}^s, \mathbb{U}^s, \mathbb{Y}^s, \mathbb{V}^s, \mathbb{Z}^s$) are chosen to be of the same size $N^2$ (with $N$ points in each dimension). We are particularly interested in the performance of these algorithms, as $N$ increases. We note that the described setup satisfies all of the assumptions in this study.

The results of our numerical simulations are shown in Figure 1. As shown in Figures 1a, both VI and ConjVI are indeed convergent with a rate less than or equal to the discount factor $\gamma = 0.95$; see Theorem 3.11. In particular, ConjVI terminates in $k_t = 55$ iterations, compared to $k_t = 102$ iterations required for VI to reach the termination bound $e_t = 0.001$. Not surprisingly, this faster convergence, combined with the lower time complexity of ConjVI in each iteration, leads to a significant reduction in the running time of this algorithm compared to VI. This effect can be seen in Figure 1b, where the run-time of ConjVI for $N = 41$ is an order of magnitude less than that of VI for $N = 11$. In this regard, we note that the setting of this
Figure 1. VI vs. ConjVI (CVI) – synthetic example with stochastic dynamics $x^+ = Ax + Bu + w$: (a) Convergence rate for $N = 41$; (b) Running time; (c) Average cost of one hundred instances of the control problem with random initial conditions over $T = 100$ time steps. The black dashed-dotted line in (a) corresponds to exponential convergence with coefficient $\gamma = 0.95$. CVI-d corresponds to dynamic construction of the dual grid $Y_g$ in the ConjVI algorithm.

The numerical example leads to $O(k_t N^4 W)$ and $O(k_t N^2 W)$ time complexities for VI and ConjVI, respectively; see Theorem 3.12 and the discussion after that. Indeed, the running times in Figure 1b match these complexities.

Since we do not have access to the true optimal value function, in order to evaluate the performance of the outputs of the VI and ConjVI, we consider the performance of the greedy policy

$$
\mu(x) \in \arg\min_{u \in U^g(x) \cap U^g} \left\{ C(x, u) + \gamma \cdot E_w J_d \left( g(x, u, w) \right) \right\},
$$

w.r.t. the discrete value function $J_d^4$ computed using these algorithms (we note that, for finding the greedy action, we used the same discretization $U^g$ of the input space and the same extension $J_d^g$ of the value function as the one used in VI and ConjVI, however, this need not be the case in general). Figure 1c reports the average cost of one hundred instances of the optimal control problem with greedy control actions. As shown, the reduction in the run-time in ConjVI comes with an increase in the cost of the controlled trajectories.

Let us now consider the effect of dynamic construction of the state dual grid $Y_g$. As can be seen in Figure 1a, using a dynamic $Y_g$ leads to a slower convergence (ConjVI-d terminates in $k_t = 100$ iterations). We note that the relative behavior of the convergence rates in Figures 1a was also seen for other grid sizes in the discretization scheme. However, we see a small increase in the running time of ConjVI-d compared to ConjVI since the per iteration complexity for ConjVI-d is again of $O(k_t N^2 W)$; see Figure 1b. More importantly, as depicted in Figure 1c, ConjVI-d shows almost the same performance as VI when it comes to the quality of the greedy actions. This is because the dynamic construction of $Y_g$ in ConjVI-d uses the available computational power (related to the size of the discretization) smartly by finding the smallest grid $Y_g$ in each iteration, to minimize the error of that same iteration.

We note that our simulations show that for the deterministic system, ConjVI-d has a similar converge rate as ConjVI. This effect can be seen in Figure 2, where ConjVI-d terminates in 10 iterations. Interestingly, in this particular example, ConjVI converges to the fixed point after 7 iterations ($J_d^4 = \hat{T}^4 J_d^2$) for the deterministic system. Let us finally note that the conjugate $C_i^*$ of the input cost in the provided example is indeed analytically available. One can use this analytic representation to exactly compute $C_i^*$ in (6f) and avoid the corresponding numerical approximation. With such a modification, the computational cost reduces, however, our numerical experiments show that for the provided example, the ConjVI outputs effectively the same value function within the same number of iterations (results are not shown here).
4.2. Example 2 – Inverted pendulum

We use the setup (model and stage cost) of [21, App. C.2.2] with discount factor \( \gamma = 0.95 \). In particular, the state and input costs are both quadratic \((\|\cdot\|^2_2)\), and the discrete-time, nonlinear dynamics is of the form \( x^+ = f_s(x) + Bu + w \), where

\[
    f_s(x_1, x_2) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 + \alpha_{12} x_2 \\ \alpha_{21} \sin x_1 + \alpha_{22} x_2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \beta \end{bmatrix}, \quad (\alpha_{12}, \alpha_{21}, \alpha_{22}, \beta \in \mathbb{R}).
\]

State and input constraints are described by \( X = [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}] \times [-\pi, \pi] \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \) and \( U = [-3, 3] \subset \mathbb{R} \). The disturbance has a uniform distribution over the finite support \( W^s = \{0, \pm 0.025 \frac{\pi}{3}, \pm 0.05 \frac{\pi}{3}\} \times \{0, \pm 0.025 \pi, \pm 0.05 \pi\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \) of size \( W = 5^2 \). We use uniform, grid-like discretizations \( X^s \) and \( U^s \) for the state and input spaces such that \( \text{co}(X^s) = [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}] \times [-\pi, \pi] \subset X \) and \( \text{co}(U^s) = U \). This choice of discrete state space \( X^s \) particularly satisfies the feasibility condition of Assumption 3.6. (Note however that the set \( X \) does not satisfy the feasibility condition of Assumption 3.1-(iii)). Also, we use nearest neighbor extension (which is non-expansive) for the extension operators in (2) for VI and in (6a) for ConjVI. The grids \( V^s \subset R \) and \( Z^s, Y^s \subset R^2 \) are also constructed uniformly, following the guidelines of Section 3.4 (with \( \alpha = 1 \)). We again also consider the dynamic scheme for the construction of \( Y^s \). Moreover, in each implementation of VI and ConjVI(-d) the termination bound is \( e_t = 0.001 \), and all of the involved grids are chosen to be of the same size \( N \) in each dimension, i.e., \( X = Y = Z = N^2 \) and \( U = V = N \).

The results of simulations are shown in Figures 3 and 4. As reported, we essentially observe the same behaviors as before. In particular, the application of ConjVI(-d), especially for deterministic dynamics, leads to faster convergence and a significant reduction in the running time; see Figures 3a, 3b and 4. Note that Figure 4 also shows the non-monotone behavior of ConjVI-d for scaling factor \( \alpha = 3 \). In this regard, recall that when the grid \( Y^s \) is constructed dynamically and varies at each iteration, the d-CDP operator is not necessarily contractive. Moreover, as shown in Figures 3b and 3c, this dynamic scheme leads to a huge improvement in the performance of the corresponding greedy policy at the expense of a small increase in the computational cost.

4.3. Example 3 – Batch Reactor

Our last numerical example concerns the optimal control of a system with four states and two input channels, namely, an unstable batch reactor. The setup (dynamics, cost, and constraints) are borrowed from [20, Sec. 6]. In particular, we consider a deterministic linear dynamics \( x^+ = Ax + Bu \), with costs \( C_s(x) = 2 \|x\|^2_2 \) and \( C_i(u) = \|u\|^2_2 \), discount factor \( \gamma = 0.95 \), and constraints \( x \in X = [-2, 2]^4 \subset \mathbb{R}^4 \) and \( u \in U = [-2, 2]^2 \subset \mathbb{R}^2 \). Once again, we use uniform, grid-like discretizations \( X^s \) and \( U^s \) for the state and
Figure 3. VI vs. ConjVI (CVI) – optimal control of noisy inverted pendulum: (a) Convergence rate for $N = 41$; (b) Running time; (c) Average cost of one hundred instances of the control problem with random initial conditions over $T = 100$ time steps. The black dashed-dotted line in (a) corresponds to exponential convergence with coefficient $\gamma = 0.95$. CVI-d corresponds to dynamic construction of the dual grid $Y^g$ in the ConjVI algorithm.

Figure 4. Convergence of VI and ConjVI with deterministic dynamics $x^+ = f_s(x) + Bu$; cf. Figure 3a.

input spaces such that $\text{co}(X^g) = [-1,1]^4 \subset \mathbb{X}$ and $\text{co}(U^g) = \mathbb{U}$. The grids $\mathbb{V}^g \subset \mathbb{R}^2$ and $\mathbb{Z}^g, \mathbb{Y}^g \subset \mathbb{R}^4$ are also constructed uniformly, following the guidelines of Section 3.4 (with $\alpha = 1$). Moreover, in each implementation of VI and ConjVI, the termination bound is $\epsilon_t = 0.001$ and all of the involved grids are chosen to be of the same size $N$ in each dimension, i.e., $X = Y = Z = N^4$ and $U = V = N^2$. Finally, we note that we use multi-linear interpolation and extrapolation for the extension operator in (2) for VI. Due to the extrapolation, the extension operator is no longer non-expansive and hence the convergence of VI is not guaranteed. On the other hand, since the dynamics is deterministic, there is no need for extension in ConjVI (recall that the scaled expectation in (6a) in ConjVI reduces to the simple scaling $\varepsilon^d = \gamma \cdot J^d$ for deterministic dynamics), and hence the convergence of ConjVI only requires $\text{co}(Z^g) \supseteq f_s(X^g)$ and is guaranteed.

The results of our numerical simulations are shown in Figure 5. Once again, we see the trade-off between the time complexity and the greedy control performance in VI and ConjVI. On the other hand, ConjVI-d has the same control performance as VI with an insignificant increase in running time compared to ConjVI. In Figure 5a, we again observe the non-monotone behavior of ConjVI-d (the d-CDP operator is expansive in the first six iterations). The VI algorithm is also showing a non-monotone behavior, where for the first nine iterations the d-DP operation is actually expansive. As we noted earlier, this is because the multi-linear extrapolation operation used in extension is expansive.
Figure 5. VI vs. ConjVI (CVI) – optimal control of batch reactor: (a) Convergence rate for $N = 25$; (b) Running time; (c) Average cost of one hundred instances of the control problem with random initial conditions over $T = 100$ time steps. The black dashed-dotted line in (a) corresponds to exponential convergence with coefficient $\gamma = 0.95$. CVI-d corresponds to dynamic construction of the dual grid $\mathcal{Y}^g$ in the ConjVI algorithm.

5. Final remarks

In this paper, we proposed the ConjVI algorithm which reduces the time complexity of the VI algorithm from $\mathcal{O}(XU)$ to $\mathcal{O}(X + U)$. This better time complexity however comes at the expense of restricting the class of problem. In particular, there are two main conditions that must be satisfied in order to be able to apply the ConjVI algorithm:

(i) the dynamics must be of the form $x^+ = f_s(x) + Bu + w$; and,
(ii) the stage cost $C(x, u) = C_s(x) + C_i(u)$ must be separable.

Moreover, since ConjVI essentially solves the dual problem, for non-convex problems, it suffers from a non-zero duality gap. Based on our simulation results, we also notice a trade-off between computational complexity and control action quality: While ConjVI has a lower computational cost, VI generates better control actions. However, the dynamic scheme for the construction of state dual grid $\mathcal{Y}^g$ allows us to achieve almost the same performance as VI when it comes to the quality of control actions, with a small extra computational burden. In what follows, we provide our final remarks on the limitations of the proposed ConjVI algorithm and its relation to existing approximate VI algorithms.

Relation to existing approximate VI algorithms. The basic idea for complexity reduction introduced in this study can be potentially combined with and further improve the existing sample-based VI algorithms. These sample-based algorithms solely focus on transforming the infinite-dimensional optimization in DP problems into computationally tractable ones, and in general, they have a time complexity of $\mathcal{O}(XU)$, depending on the product of the cardinalities of the discrete state and action spaces. The proposed ConjVI algorithm, on the other hand, focuses on reducing this time complexity to $\mathcal{O}(X + U)$, by avoiding the minimization over input in each iteration. Take, for example, the aggregation technique in [27, Sec. 8.1] that leads to a piece-wise constant approximation of the value function. It is straightforward to combine ConjVI with this type of state space aggregation. Indeed, the numerical example of Section 4.2 essentially uses such aggregation by approximating the value function via nearest neighbor extension.

Cost functions with a large Lipschitz constant. Recall that for the proposed ConjVI algorithm to be computationally efficient, the size $Y$ of the state dual grid $\mathcal{Y}^g$ must be controlled by the size $X$ of the discrete state space $\mathcal{X}^d$ (Assumption 3.9-(iii)). Then, as the range of slope of the value function $J_*$ increases, the corresponding error $e_y$ in (8d) due to the discretization of the dual state space increases. The proposed dynamic approach for the construction of $\mathcal{Y}^g$ partially addresses this issue by focusing on the range of slope

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of $J^d_k$ in each iteration to minimize the discretization error of the same iteration $k$. However, when the cost function has a large Lipschitz constant, even this latter approach can fail to provide a good approximation of the value function. Table 1 reports the result of the numerical simulation of the unstable batch reactor with the stage cost

$$C(x,u) = -\frac{4}{1+\eta} + \sum_{i=1}^{4} \frac{1}{1+\eta|x_i|} - \frac{2}{2+\eta} + \sum_{j=1}^{2} \frac{1}{2+\eta-|u_j|}, \quad \|x\|_\infty \leq 1, \quad \|u\|_\infty \leq 2.$$  

Clearly, as $\eta \to 0$, we increase the range of slope of the cost function. As can be seen, the quality of the greedy action generated by ConjVI-d also deteriorates in this case.

### Gradient-based algorithms for solving the minimization over input.

Let us first note that the minimization over $u$ in sample-based VI algorithms usually involves solving a difficult non-convex problem. This is particularly because the extension operation employed in these algorithms for approximating the value function using the sample points does not lead to a convex function in $u$ (e.g., take kernel-based approximations or neural networks). This is why in MDP and RL literature, it is quite common to consider a finite action space in the first place \[11, 27\]. Moreover, the minimization over $u$ again must be solved for each sample point in each iteration, while the application of ConjVI avoids solving this minimization in each iteration. In this regard, let us note that ConjVI uses a convex approximation of the value function, which allows for the application of a gradient-based algorithm for minimization over $u$ within the ConjVI algorithm. Indeed, in each iteration $k = 0, 1, \ldots$, ConjVI solves (for deterministic dynamics)

$$J^d_{k+1}(x) = C_s(x) + \min_u \left\{ C_i(u) + \gamma \cdot \max_{y \in Y^s} \left[ \langle y, f_s(x) + Bu \rangle - J^d_k(y) \right] \right\}, \quad x \in X^d,$$

where

$$J^d_k(y) = \max_{x \in X^d} \left\{ \langle x, y \rangle - J^d_k(x) \right\}, \quad y \in Y^s,$$

is the discrete conjugate of the output of the previous iteration (computed using the LLT algorithm). Then, it is not hard to see that a subgradient of the objective of the minimization can be computed using $O(Y)$ operations: for a given $u$, assuming we have access to the subdifferential $\partial C_i(u)$, the subdifferential of the objective function is $\partial C_i(u) + \gamma \cdot B^T y_u$, where

$$y_u = \arg\max_{y \in Y^s} \left\{ \langle y, f_s(x) + Bu \rangle - J^d_k(y) \right\}.$$  

This leads to a per iteration time complexity of $O(XY) = O(X^2)$, which is again practically inefficient.

### Appendix A. Technical proofs

#### A.1. Proof of Proposition 3.2

This result is an extension of \[21, \text{Lem. 4.2}\] that accounts for the separable cost, the discount factor, and additive disturbance. Inserting the dynamics of Assumption 3.1-(i) into (3), we can use the definition of

| Algorithm  | Run-time (sec) | Average cost (100 runs) |
|------------|---------------|------------------------|
| VI         | 7669          | 33.9                   |
| ConjVI     | 55            | 73.5                   |
| ConjVI-d   | 90            | 74.0                   |
conjugate transform to obtain (all the functions are extended to infinity outside their effective domains)

\[
\tilde{\mathcal{F}}(x) - C_s(x) = \max_y \min_{u,z} \{ C_i(u) + \gamma \cdot \mathbb{E}_w J(z + w) + \langle y, f_s(x) + Bu - z \rangle \}
\]

\[
= \max_y \left\{ \langle y, f_s(x) \rangle - \max_u \left[ (\langle -B^T y, u \rangle - C_i(u)) - \max_{\tilde{z}} \langle y, z - \gamma \cdot \mathbb{E}_w J(z + w) \rangle \right] \right\}
\]

\[
= \max_y \left\{ \langle y, f_s(x) \rangle - \max_u \left[ C_i^* (-B^T y) - [\gamma \cdot \mathbb{E}_w J(\cdot + w)]^* (y) \right] \right\}
\]

\[
= \max_y \left\{ \langle y, f_s(x) \rangle - C_i^* (-B^T y) - \epsilon^*(y) \right\}
\]

\[
= \max_y \{ \langle y, f_s(x) \rangle - \phi(y) \}
\]

\[
= \phi^* (f_s(x)),
\]

where we used the definition of \( \epsilon \) and \( \phi \) in (4a) and (4b), respectively.

### A.2. Proof of Proposition 3.3

We can use the representation (4) and the definition of conjugate operation to obtain

\[
\tilde{\mathcal{F}}(x) - C_s(x) = \max_y \{ \langle f_s(x), y \rangle - \phi(y) \}
\]

\[
= \max_y \left\{ \langle f_s(x), y \rangle - C_i^* (-B^T y) - \epsilon^*(y) \right\}
\]

\[
= \max_y \left\{ \langle f_s(x), y \rangle - \max_{u \in \text{co}(\mathbb{U})} \left[ (\langle -B^T y, u \rangle - C_i^*(u)) - \epsilon^*(y) \right] \right\}
\]

\[
= \max_y \left\{ \langle f_s(x), y \rangle - \min_{u \in \text{co}(\mathbb{U})} \{ C_i^*(u) + (y, f_s(x) + Bu) - \epsilon^*(y) \} \right\},
\]

where we used the fact that \( C_i^* : \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R} \) is proper, closed, and convex, and hence \( C_i^* \cap \text{co}(\mathbb{U}) \). This follows from the fact that \( \text{dom}(C_i) = \mathbb{U} \) is assumed to be compact (Assumption 3.1-(iii)). Hence, the objective function of this maximin problem is convex in \( u \), with \( \text{co}(\mathbb{U}) \) being compact, which follows from convexity of \( C_i^* : \text{co}(\mathbb{U}) \to \mathbb{R} \). Also, the objective function is concave in \( y \), which follows from the convexity of \( \epsilon^* \). Then, by Sion’s Minimax Theorem (see, e.g., [29, Thm. 3]), we have minimax-maximin equality, i.e.,

\[
\tilde{\mathcal{F}}(x) - C_s(x) = \min_u \max_y \left\{ C_i^*(u) + \langle y, f(x, u) \rangle - \epsilon^*(y) \right\}
\]

\[
= \min_u \left\{ C_i^*(u) + \max_y \left[ \langle y, f(x, u) \rangle - \epsilon^*(y) \right] \right\}
\]

\[
= \min_u \left\{ C_i^*(u) + \epsilon^* (f(x, u)) \right\}
\]

\[
= \min_u \left\{ C_i^*(u) + \gamma \cdot [\mathbb{E}_w J(\cdot + w)]^* (f(x, u)) \right\},
\]

where the last equality, we used the fact that \( [\gamma h] \cap \text{co}(\mathbb{U}) \). This follows from convexity of \( \epsilon^* \). Then, by Sion’s Minimax Theorem (see, e.g., [29, Thm. 3]), we have minimax-maximin equality, i.e.,

\[
\tilde{\mathcal{F}}(x) - C_s(x) = \min_u \max_y \left\{ C_i^*(u) + \langle y, f(x, u) \rangle - \epsilon^*(y) \right\}
\]

\[
= \min_u \left\{ C_i^*(u) + \max_y \left[ \langle y, f(x, u) \rangle - \epsilon^*(y) \right] \right\}
\]

\[
= \min_u \left\{ C_i^*(u) + \epsilon^* (f(x, u)) \right\}
\]

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\]

where the last equality, we used the fact that \( [\gamma h] \cap \text{co}(\mathbb{U}) \). This follows from convexity of \( \epsilon^* \). Then, by Sion’s Minimax Theorem (see, e.g., [29, Thm. 3]), we have minimax-maximin equality, i.e.,

### A.3. Proof of Corollary 3.4

By Proposition 3.3, we need to show \( C_i^* = C_i \) and \( [\mathbb{E}_w J(\cdot + w)]^* = \mathbb{E}_w J(\cdot + w) \) so that

\[
C_i^*(u) + \gamma \cdot [\mathbb{E}_w J(\cdot + w)]^* (f(x, u)) = C_i(u) + \gamma \cdot [\mathbb{E}_w J(\cdot + w)] (f(x, u)) \]

\[
= C_i(u) + \gamma \cdot \mathbb{E}_w J(f(x, u) + w) \]

\[
= C_i(u) + \gamma \cdot \mathbb{E}_w J(g(x, u, w)).
\]

This holds if \( C_i \) and \( \mathbb{E}_w J(\cdot + w) \) are proper, closed and convex. This is indeed the case since \( \mathbb{X} \) and \( \mathbb{U} \) are compact, and \( C_i : \mathbb{U} \to \mathbb{R} \) and \( J : \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{R} \) are assumed to be convex.
A.4. Proof of Theorem 3.11

We begin with two preliminary lemmas on the non-expansiveness of conjugate and multilinear interpolation operations within the d-CDP operation (6).

**Lemma A.1** (Non-expansiveness of conjugate operator). Consider two functions $h_i$ ($i = 1, 2$), with the same nonempty effective domain $X$. For any $y \in \text{dom}(h_1^*) \cap \text{dom}(h_2^*)$, we have

$$|h_1^*(y) - h_2^*(y)| \leq \|h_1 - h_2\|_{\infty}.$$

**Proof.** For any $y \in \text{dom}(h_1^*) \cap \text{dom}(h_2^*)$, we have

$$h_1^*(y) = \max_{x \in X} \langle x, y \rangle - h_1(x) = \max_{x \in X} \langle x, y \rangle - h_2(x) + h_2(x) - h_1(x).$$

Hence,

$$h_2^*(y) - \|h_1 - h_2\|_{\infty} \leq h_1^*(y) \leq h_2^*(y) + \|h_1 - h_2\|_{\infty},$$

that is,

$$|h_1^*(y) - h_2^*(y)| \leq \|h_1 - h_2\|_{\infty}.$$ 

□

**Lemma A.2** (Non-expansiveness of interpolative LERP operator). Consider two discrete functions $h_i^d$ ($i = 1, 2$) with the same grid-like domain $X^8 \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, and their interpolative LERP extensions $\tilde{h}_i^d : \text{co}(X^8) \to \mathbb{R}$. We have

$$\|\tilde{h}_1^d - \tilde{h}_2^d\|_{\infty} \leq \|h_1^d - h_2^d\|_{\infty}.$$ 

**Proof.** For any $x \in \text{co}(X^8)$, we have ($i = 1, 2$)

$$\tilde{h}_i^d(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{2^n} \alpha^j h_i^d(x^j),$$

where $x^j$, $j = 1, \ldots, 2^n$, are the vertices of the hyper-rectangular cell that contains $x$, and $\alpha^j$, $j = 1, \ldots, 2^n$, are convex coefficients (i.e., $\alpha^j \in [0, 1]$ and $\sum_j \alpha^j = 1$). Then

$$\left|\tilde{h}_1^d(x) - \tilde{h}_2^d(x)\right| \leq \sum_{j=1}^{2^n} \alpha^j \left|h_1^d(x^j) - h_2^d(x^j)\right| \leq \|h_1^d - h_2^d\|_{\infty}.$$ 

□

With these preliminary results at hand, we can now show that $\tilde{F}^d$ is $\gamma$-contractive. Consider two discrete functions $J_i^d : X^d \to \mathbb{R}$ ($i = 1, 2$). For any $x \in X^d \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, we have

$$\left|\tilde{F}^d J_1^d(x) - \tilde{F}^d J_2^d(x)\right| \overset{(6d)}{=} \left|\varphi_1^{d*}(f_1(x)) - \varphi_2^{d*}(f_2(x))\right| \overset{\text{Def.}}{\leq} \left\|\varphi_1^{d*} - \varphi_2^{d*}\right\|_{\infty} \overset{\text{Lem. A.1}}{\leq} \left\|\varphi_1 - \varphi_2\right\|_{\infty} \overset{(6d)}{\leq} \left\|\epsilon_1^{d*} - \epsilon_2^{d*}\right\|_{\infty} \overset{\text{Def.}}{\leq} \left\|\epsilon_1^d - \epsilon_2^d\right\|_{\infty} \overset{\text{Lem. A.1}}{\leq} \left\|\epsilon_1^d - \epsilon_2^d\right\|_{\infty} \overset{\text{Lem. A.2}}{\leq} \left\|\varphi_1 - \varphi_2\right\|_{\infty} \overset{(6d)}{\leq} \left\|\epsilon_1^{d*} - \epsilon_2^{d*}\right\|_{\infty} \overset{\text{Def.}}{\leq} \left\|\epsilon_1^d - \epsilon_2^d\right\|_{\infty} \overset{\text{Lem. A.1}}{\leq} \left\|\epsilon_1^d - \epsilon_2^d\right\|_{\infty} \overset{(6a)}{\leq} \gamma \cdot \sum_{w \in W^d} \left|J_1^d(x + w) - J_2^d(x + w)\right| \overset{\text{Def.}}{\leq} \gamma \cdot \left\|J_1^d - J_2^d\right\|_{\infty}. $$
We note that we are using: (i) Assumption 3.9-(ii) in the application of Lemma A.2, (ii) the fact that \(\text{dom}(\varphi^{d,i}) = \text{dom}(e^{d,i}) = \mathbb{R}^n\) for \(i = 1, 2\) in the two applications of Lemma A.1, and (iii) Assumption 3.10-(i) in the last inequality.

A.5. Proof of Theorem 3.12

In what follows, we provide the time complexity of each line of Algorithm 1. In particular, we use the fact that \(Y, Z = X\) and \(V = U\) by Assumption 3.9-(iii). The complexity of construction of \(\mathbf{V}^\delta \) in line 1 is of \(\mathcal{O}(X+U)\) by Assumption 3.9-(iii). The LLT of line 2 requires \(\mathcal{O}(U+V) = \mathcal{O}(U)\) operations [24, Cor. 5]. The complexity of lines 3 and 4 is of \(\mathcal{O}(X+U)\) by Assumption 3.9-(iii) on the complexity of construction of \(Z^\delta\) and \(\mathbf{Y}^\delta\). The operation of line 5 also has a complexity of \(\mathcal{O}(X)\), and line 6 requires \(\mathcal{O}(X+U)\) operations. This leads to the reported \(\mathcal{O}(X+U)\) time complexity for initialization.

In each iteration, lines 8 requires \(\mathcal{O}(X)\) operations. The complexity of line 9 is of \(\mathcal{O}(X\mathbf{W}\mathbf{E})\) by the assumption on the complexity of the extension operator \([\cdot]\). The LLT of line 10 requires \(\mathcal{O}(X+Y) = \mathcal{O}(X)\) operations [24, Cor. 5]. The application of LERP in line 12 has a complexity of \(\mathcal{O}(\log V)\) [21, Rem. 2.2]. Hence, the for loop over \(y \in \mathbf{Y}^\delta\) requires \(\mathcal{O}(\log V) = \mathcal{O}(X\log V) = \tilde{\mathcal{O}}(X)\) operations. The LLT of line 15 requires \(\mathcal{O}(Z+Y) = \mathcal{O}(X)\) operations [24, Cor. 5]. The application of LERP in line 17 has a complexity of \(\mathcal{O}(\log Z)\) [21, Rem. 2.2]. Hence, the for loop over \(x \in \mathbb{X}^d\) requires \(\mathcal{O}(X\log X) = \tilde{\mathcal{O}}(X)\) operations. The time complexity of each iteration is then of \(\tilde{\mathcal{O}}(X\mathbf{W}\mathbf{E})\).

A.6. Proof of Theorem 3.13

Note that the ConjVI Algorithm 1 involves consecutive applications of the d-CDP operator \(\hat{T}^d\) (6), and terminates after a finite number of iterations corresponding to the bound \(\epsilon_t\). We begin with bounding the difference between the DP and d-CDP operators. We note that this result extends [21, Thm. 5.3] by considering the error of extension operation for computing the expectation w.r.t. to the additive disturbance in (6a) and the approximate discrete conjugation of the input cost in (6d).

Proposition A.3 (Error of d-CDP operation). Let \(J : \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{R}\) be a Lipschitz continuous, convex function that satisfies the condition of Assumption 3.10-(ii). Assume \(C_1 : \mathbb{U} \to \mathbb{R}\) is convex. Also, let Assumptions 3.9-(i)/(ii) hold. Consider the output of the d-CDP operator \(\hat{T}^d J^d : \mathbb{X}^d \to \mathbb{R}\) and the discretization of the output of the DP operator \([TJ]^d : \mathbb{X}^d \to \mathbb{R}\). We have

\[
\left\| \hat{T}^d J^d - [TJ]^d \right\|_\infty \leq \gamma \cdot e_c + e_d.
\]

Proof. First note that, by Corollary 3.4, the DP and CDP operators are equivalent, i.e., \(TJ = \hat{T}J\). Hence, it suffices to bound the error of the d-CDP operator \(\hat{T}^d\) w.r.t. the CDP operator \(\hat{T}\). We begin with the following preliminary lemma.

Lemma A.4. The scaled expectation \(\epsilon\) in (4a) is Lipschitz continuous and convex with a nonempty, compact effective domain. Moreover, \(L(\epsilon) \leq \gamma \cdot L(J)\).

Proof. The convexity follows from the fact that expectation preserves convexity and \(\gamma > 0\). The effective domain of \(\epsilon\) is nonempty by the feasibility condition of Assumption 3.1-(iii), and is compact since \(\mathbb{X}\) is assumed to be compact. Finally, the bound on the Lipschitz constant of \(\epsilon\) immediately follows from (4a).

We now provide our step-by-step proof. Consider the function \(\epsilon\) in (4a) and its discretization \(\epsilon^d : \mathbb{X}^d \to \mathbb{R}\). Also, consider the discrete function \(\epsilon^d : \mathbb{X}^d \to \mathbb{R}\) in (6a).

Lemma A.5. We have \(\text{dom}(\epsilon^d) = \text{dom}(\epsilon^d) \neq \emptyset\). Moreover, \(\|\epsilon^d - \epsilon^d\|_\infty \leq \gamma \cdot e_c\).
Proof. The first statement follows from the feasibility condition of Assumption 3.6. For the second statement, note that for every \( x \in \text{dom}(c^d) = \text{dom}(\varepsilon^d) \), we can use (4a) and (6a) to write

\[
|c^d(x) - \varepsilon^d(x)| = \gamma \cdot \sum_{w \in \mathcal{W}^d} p(w) \cdot (J(x + w) - J^d(x + w))
\]

\[
\leq \gamma \cdot \sum_{w \in \mathcal{W}^d} p(w) \cdot |J(x + w) - J^d(x + w)|
\]

\[
\leq \gamma \cdot \left\| J - J^d \right\|_\infty.
\]

The result then follows from Assumption 3.10-(ii) on \( J \).

Now, consider the function \( \phi : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R} \) in (4b) and its discretization \( \phi^d : \mathbb{Y}^\delta \to \mathbb{R} \). Also, consider the discrete function \( \psi^d : \mathbb{Y}^\delta \to \mathbb{R} \) in (6d).

**Lemma A.6.** We have \( \|\phi^d - \psi^d\|_\infty \leq \gamma \cdot e_u + e_v + e_x \), where

\[
e_u = \|B\|_2 \cdot \Delta_{\mathbb{Y}^\delta} + L(C_i) \cdot d_H(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{U}^d),
\]

\[
e_v = \Delta_{\mathbb{Y}^\delta} \cdot d_H(\text{co}(\mathbb{Y}^\delta), \mathbb{Y}^\delta),
\]

\[
e_x = \Delta_{\mathbb{Y}^\delta} + \gamma \cdot d_H(X, X^d).
\]

**Proof.** Let \( y \in \mathbb{Y}^\delta \). According to (4b) and (6d), we have (note that \( \varepsilon^d(y) = \varepsilon^d(y) \))

\[
\phi^d(y) - \psi^d(y) = \phi(y) - \psi(y) = C_i^*(-B^T y) - C_i^d(-B^T y) + \varepsilon(y) - \varepsilon^d(y).
\]

First, let us use [21, Lem. 2.5] to write

\[
0 \leq C_i^*(-B^T y) - C_i^d(-B^T y) \leq \| - B^T y\|_2 + L(C_i) \cdot d_H(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{U}^d)
\]

\[
\leq \|B\|_2 \cdot \Delta_{\mathbb{Y}^\delta} + L(C_i) \cdot d_H(\mathcal{U}, \mathcal{U}^d) = e_u.
\]

Also, Assumption 3.9-(i) allows to use [21, Cor. 2.7] and write

\[
0 \leq C_i^d(-B^T y) - C_i^d(-B^T y) \leq \Delta_{\mathbb{Y}^\delta} \cdot d_H(\text{co}(\mathbb{Y}^\delta), \mathbb{Y}^\delta) = e_v.
\]

Now, by Lemma A.1 (non-expansive of conjugation) and Lemma A.5, we have

\[
|\varepsilon^d(y) - \varepsilon^d(y)| \leq \|\varepsilon^d - \varepsilon^d\|_\infty \leq \gamma \cdot e_v.
\]

Moreover, we can use [21, Lem. 2.5] and Lemma A.4 to obtain

\[
0 \leq \varepsilon(y) - \varepsilon^d(y) \leq \|y\|_2 + L(\varepsilon) \cdot d_H(X, X^d)
\]

\[
\leq \Delta_{\mathbb{Y}^\delta} + \gamma \cdot d_H(X, X^d) = e_x.
\]

Combining (12)-(16), we then have

\[
|\phi^d(y) - \psi^d(y)| = \left| C_i^*(-B^T y) - C_i^d(-B^T y) + \varepsilon(y) - \varepsilon^d(y) \right|
\]

\[
\leq \left| C_i^*(-B^T y) - C_i^d(-B^T y) \right| \leq \left| C_i^d(-B^T y) - C_i^d(-B^T y) \right| + \left| \varepsilon(y) - \varepsilon^d(y) \right| + \left| \varepsilon^d(y) - \varepsilon^d(y) \right|
\]

\[
\leq e_u + e_v + \gamma \cdot e_v + e_x.
\]

Next, consider the discrete composite functions \( [\phi^* \circ f_x]^d : X^d \to \mathbb{R} \) and \( [\phi^d \circ f_x]^d : X^d \to \mathbb{R} \). In particular, notice that \( \phi^* \circ f_x \) appears in (4c).
Lemma A.7. We have \[ \|\phi^* \circ f_s^d - \varphi^{d^*} \circ f_s^d\|_{\infty} \leq \gamma \cdot e_c + e_u + e_v + e_x + e_y, \]
where \( e_y = \left[\Delta_{f_s(x)} + \Delta_X + \|B\|_2 \cdot \Delta_u\right] \cdot \max_{x \in X^d} d\left(\partial(TJ - C_s)(x), \mathbb{Y}^s\right). \)

Proof. Let \( x \in X^d \). Also let \( \phi^d : \mathbb{Y}^s \to \mathbb{R} \) be the discretization of \( \phi : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R} \). Since \( \phi \) is convex by construction, we can use [21, Lem. 2.5] to obtain (recall that \( L(h; X) \) denotes the Lipschitz constant of \( h \) restricted to the set \( X \subset \text{dom}(h) \))

\[
(17) \quad 0 \leq \phi^*(f_s(x)) - \phi^{d^*}(f_s(x)) \leq \min_{y \in \partial(TJ - C_s)(x)} \left\{ \|f_s(x)\|_2 + \Delta_X + \|B\|_2 \cdot \Delta_u \cdot d(y, \mathbb{Y}^s) \right\}
\]

By using (4c) and the equivalence of DP and CDP operators we have \( \phi^* \circ f_s = \hat{T}J - C_s = TJ - C_s \). Also, the definition (4b) implies that

\[
L(\phi) \leq L(C_s^\ast) + L(e^\ast) \leq \|B\|_2 \cdot L(C_s^\ast) + L(e^\ast)
\]

\[
\leq \|B\|_2 \cdot \Delta_{\text{dom}(C_s)} + \Delta_{\text{dom}(e)} \leq \|B\|_2 \cdot \Delta_U + \Delta_X,
\]

where for the last inequality we used the fact that \( \text{dom}(e) \subseteq \text{dom}(J) = X \). Using these results in (17), we have

\[
(18) \quad 0 \leq \phi^*(f_s(x)) - \phi^{d^*}(f_s(x)) \leq \min_{y \in \partial(TJ - C_s)(x)} \left\{ \|f_s(x)\|_2 + \Delta_X + \|B\|_2 \cdot \Delta_u \cdot d(y, \mathbb{Y}^s) \right\}
\]

Second, by Lemmas A.1 and A.6, we have

\[
(19) \quad |\varphi^{d^*}(x) - \varphi^{d^*}(z)| \leq \|\varphi^d - \varphi^d\|_{\infty} \leq \gamma \cdot e_c + e_u + e_v + e_x,
\]

for all \( z \in \mathbb{R}^n \), including \( z = f_s(x) \). Here, we are using the fact that \( \text{dom}(\varphi^d) = \text{dom}(\varphi^{d^*}) = \mathbb{Y}^s \) and \( \text{dom}(\varphi^{d^*}) = \mathbb{Y}^s \). Combining inequalities (18) and (19), we obtain

\[
|\phi^*(f_s(x)) - \varphi^{d^*}(f_s(x))| \leq |\phi^*(f_s(x)) - \varphi^{d^*}(f_s(x))| + |\phi^{d^*}(f_s(x)) - \varphi^{d^*}(f_s(x))|
\]

\[
\leq e_v + \gamma \cdot e_c + e_u + e_v + e_x.
\]

This completes the proof. \( \square \)

We are now left with the final step. Consider the output of the d-CDP operator \( \hat{T}^dJ^d : X^d \to \mathbb{R} \). Also, consider the output of the CDP operator \( \hat{T}J : X \to \mathbb{R} \) and its discretization \( \hat{T}J^d : X^d \to \mathbb{R} \).

Lemma A.8. We have

\[
\left\|\hat{T}^dJ^d - [\hat{T}^dJ]^d\right\|_{\infty} \leq \gamma \cdot e_c + e_u + e_v + e_x + e_y = \gamma \cdot e_c + e_d,
\]

where \( e_x = \Delta_{\mathbb{Y}^s} \cdot d_H \left(f_s(X^d), \mathbb{Z}^s\right). \)

Proof. Let \( x \in X^d \). According to (4c) and (6f), we have

\[
(20) \quad \hat{T}^dJ^d(x) - [\hat{T}^dJ]^d(x) = \hat{T}^dJ^d(x) - \hat{T}J(x) = \varphi^{d^*}(f_s(x)) - \phi^*(f_s(x))
\]

Now, by Lemma A.7, we have

\[
(21) \quad |\phi^*(f_s(x)) - \varphi^{d^*}(f_s(x))| \leq \gamma \cdot e_c + e_u + e_v + e_x + e_y.
\]

Moreover, Assumption 3.9-(ii) allows us to use [21, Cor. 2.7] and obtain

\[
(22) \quad 0 \leq \varphi^{d^*}(f_s(x)) - \varphi^{d^*}(f_s(x)) \leq \Delta_{\mathbb{Y}^s} \cdot d_H \left(f_s(X^d), \mathbb{Z}^s\right) = e_x.
\]
Combining (20), (21), and (22), we then have
\[
\left| \hat{T}^d f^d(x) - [\hat{T} J^d](x) \right| = \left| \varphi^{d_{\text{CRT}}}(f_\delta(x)) - \phi^*(f_\delta(x)) \right|
\leq \left| \varphi^{d_{\text{CRT}}}(f_\delta(x)) - \varphi^{d_x}(f_\delta(x)) \right| + \left| \varphi^{d_x}(f_\delta(x)) - \phi^*(f_\delta(x)) \right|
\leq \gamma \cdot e_u + e_v + e_x + e_v + e_z.
\]

\[\square\]

The inequality (11) then follows from Lemma A.8 by noticing the equivalence of the DP and CDP operators.

With the preceding result at hand, we can now provide a bound for the difference between the fixed points of the d-CDP and DP operators. To this end, let \( \hat{J}_* = \hat{T} J_* : \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{R} \) be the fixed point of the d-CDP operator. Recall that \( J_* = T J_* : \mathbb{X} \to \mathbb{R} \) and \( J^d_* : \mathbb{X}^d \to \mathbb{R} \) are the true optimal value function and its discretization.

**Lemma A.9** (Error of fixed point of d-CDP operator). We have
\[
\left\| \hat{J}_* - J_*^d \right\|_\infty \leq \frac{\gamma \cdot e_u + e_d}{1 - \gamma}.
\]

**Proof.** By Assumptions 3.9-(ii) and 3.10-(i), the operator \( \hat{T}^d \) is \( \gamma \)-contractive (Theorem 3.11) and hence
\[
\left\| \hat{T}^d \hat{J}^d_* - \hat{T}^d J_*^d \right\|_\infty \leq \gamma \cdot \left\| \hat{J}^d_* - J_*^d \right\|_\infty.
\]
Also, notice that Assumptions 3.1 and 3.5 imply that \( J_* \) is Lipschitz continuous and convex. Moreover, \( J_* \) is assumed to satisfy the condition of Assumption 3.10-(ii). Hence, by Proposition A.3, we have
\[
\left\| \hat{T}^d J_*^d - [T J_*]^d \right\|_\infty \leq \gamma \cdot e_v + e_d.
\]

Using these two inequalities, we can then write
\[
\left\| \hat{J}_* - J_*^d \right\|_\infty = \left\| \hat{J}_* - \hat{T}^d J_*^d + \hat{T}^d J_*^d - J_*^d \right\|_\infty
\leq \left\| \hat{J}_* - \hat{T}^d J_*^d \right\|_\infty + \left\| \hat{T}^d J_*^d - J_*^d \right\|_\infty
= \left\| \hat{T}^d \hat{J}_*^d - \hat{T}^d J_*^d \right\|_\infty + \left\| \hat{T}^d J_*^d - [T J_*]^d \right\|_\infty
\leq \gamma \cdot \left\| \hat{J}_*^d - J_*^d \right\|_\infty + \gamma \cdot e_v + e_d.
\]
This completes the proof. \[\square\]

Finally, we can use the fact that \( \hat{T}^d \) is \( \gamma \)-contractive to provide the following bound on the error due to finite termination of the algorithm. Recall that \( \hat{J}^d : \mathbb{X}^d \to \mathbb{R} \) is the output of Algorithm 1.

**Lemma A.10** (Error of finite termination). We have
\[
\left\| \hat{J}^d - \hat{J}_*^d \right\|_\infty \leq \frac{\gamma \cdot e_t}{1 - \gamma}.
\]

**Proof.** By Assumptions 3.9-(ii) and 3.10-(i), the operator \( \hat{T}^d \) is \( \gamma \)-contractive (Theorem 3.11). Let us assume that Algorithm 1 terminates after \( k \geq 0 \) iterations so that \( \hat{J}^d = J_{k+1}^d \) and \( \left\| J_{k+1}^d - J_*^d \right\|_\infty \leq e_t \). Then,
\[
\left\| \hat{J}^d - \hat{J}_*^d \right\|_\infty = \left\| J_{k+1}^d - \hat{T}^d J_{k+1}^d + \hat{T}^d J_{k+1}^d - \hat{J}_*^d \right\|_\infty
\leq \left\| J_{k+1}^d - \hat{T}^d J_{k+1}^d \right\|_\infty + \left\| \hat{T}^d J_{k+1}^d - \hat{J}_*^d \right\|_\infty
\leq \frac{\gamma \cdot e_t}{1 - \gamma}.
\]

\[\square\]
\[\begin{align*}
&= \| \hat{T}^d J^d_k - \hat{T}^d J^d_{k+1} \|_\infty + \| \hat{T}^d J^d_{k+1} - \hat{T}^d J^d_{k} \|_\infty \\
&\leq \gamma \cdot \| J^d_k - J^d_{k+1} \|_\infty + \gamma \cdot \| J^d_{k+1} - J^d_{k} \|_\infty \\
&\leq \gamma \cdot \epsilon_k + \gamma \cdot \| J^d - J^d_{\star} \|_\infty ,
\end{align*}\]

where for the second inequality we used the fact that \( \hat{T}^d \) is a contraction. \( \square \)

The inequality (7) is then derived by combining the results of Lemmas A.9 and A.10.

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