





# Linear Quadratic Regulator (LQR)

The LQR setting assumes a linear dynamical system:

$$x_{t+1} = Ax_t + Bu_t,$$

 $x_t$ : state at time t $u_t$ : input at time tIt assumes a quadratic cost function:

$$g(x_t, u_t) = x_t^\top Q x_t + u_t^\top R u_t$$

with  $Q \succ 0, R \succ 0$ .

For a square matrix X we have  $X \succ 0$  if and only if for all vectors z we have  $z^{\top}Xz > 0$ . Hence there is a non-zero cost for any state different from the all-zeros state, and any input different from the all-zeros input.





# $\begin{aligned} \text{LQR value iteration: } J_1 \\ J_{i+1}(x) &\leftarrow \min_u \left[ x^\top Q x + u^\top R u + J_i (Ax + Bu) \right] \\ \text{Initialize } J_0(x) &= x^\top P_0 x. \end{aligned}$ $\begin{aligned} J_1(x) &= \min_u \left[ x^\top Q x + u^\top R u + J_0 (Ax + Bu) \right] \\ &= \min_u \left[ x^\top Q x + u^\top R u + (Ax + Bu)^\top P_0 (Ax + Bu) \right] \quad (1) \end{aligned}$ $\text{To find the minimum over } u, \text{ we set the gradient w.r.t. } u \text{ equal to zero:} \\ \nabla_u [\dots] &= 2Ru + 2B^\top P_0 (Ax + Bu) = 0, \\ \text{ hence: } u &= -(R + B^\top P_0 B)^{-1} B^\top P_0 Ax \quad (2) \end{aligned}$ $(2) \text{ into } (1): J_1(x) &= x^\top P_1 x \\ \text{ for: } P_1 &= Q + K_1^\top R K_1 + (A + BK_1)^\top P_0 (A + BK_1) \\ K_1 &= -(R + B^\top P_0 B)^{-1} B^\top P_0 A. \end{aligned}$



## Value iteration solution to LQR

Set  $P_0 = 0$ . for i = 1, 2, 3, ... $K_i = -(R + B^\top P_{i-1}B)^{-1}B^\top P_{i-1}A$  $P_i = Q + K_i^\top RK_i + (A + BK_i)^\top P_{i-1}(A + BK_i)$ 

The optimal policy for a i-step horizon is given by:

$$\pi(x) = K_i x$$

The cost-to-go function for a i-step horizon is given by:

$$J_i(x) = x^\top P_i x$$



 $\begin{array}{rcl} x_{t+1} &=& Ax_t + Bu_t \\ g(x_t, u_t) &=& x_t^\top Q x_t + u_t^\top R u_t \end{array}$ 

= for keeping a linear system at the all-zeros state while preferring to keep the control input small.

Extensions which make it more generally applicable:

- Affine systems
- System with stochasticity
- Regulation around non-zero fixed point for non-linear systems
- Penalization for change in control inputs
- Linear time varying (LTV) systems
- Trajectory following for non-linear systems

# LQR Ext0: Affine systems

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\begin{aligned} x_{t+1} &= Ax_t + Bu_t + c\\ g(x_t, u_t) &= x_t^\top Q x_t + u_t^\top R u_t \end{aligned}
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- Optimal control policy remains linear, optimal cost-to-go function remains quadratic
- Two avenues to do derivation:
  - 1. Re-derive the update, which is very similar to what we did for standard setting
  - 2. Re-define the state as: Z<sub>t</sub> = [X<sub>t</sub>; I], then we have:

$$z_{t+1} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{t+1} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & c \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_t \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} B \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} u_t = A'z_t + B'u_t$$

# LQR Ext1: stochastic system

 $\begin{aligned} x_{t+1} &= Ax_t + Bu_t + w_t \\ g(x_t, u_t) &= x_t^\top Q x_t + u_t^\top R u_t \\ w_t, t = 0, 1, \dots \text{ are zero mean and independent} \end{aligned}$ 

- Exercise: work through similar derivation as we did for the deterministic case.
- Result:
  - Same optimal control policy
  - Cost-to-go function is almost identical: has one additional term which depends on the variance in the noise (and which cannot be influenced by the choice of control inputs)

## LQR Ext2: non-linear systems

Nonlinear system:  $x_{t+1} = f(x_t, u_t)$ We can keep the system at the state  $x^*$  iff  $\exists u^*$ s.t.  $x^* = f(x^*, u^*)$ Linearizing the dynamics around  $x^*$  gives:  $x_{t+1} \approx f(x^*, u^*) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x^*, u^*)(x_t - x^*) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x^*, u^*)(u_t - u^*)$ Equivalently: A B  $x_{t+1} - x^* \approx A(x_t - x^*) + B(u_t - u^*)$ Let  $z_t = x_t - x^*$ , let  $v_t = u_t - u^*$ , then:  $z_{t+1} = Az_t + Bv_t$ ,  $\text{cost} = z_t^\top Qz_t + v_t^\top Rv_t$  [=standard LQR]  $v_t = Kz_t \Rightarrow u_t - u^* = K(x_t - x^*) \Rightarrow u_t = u^* + K(x_t - x^*)$ 







LQR Ext4: Linear Time Varying (LTV) Systems

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x_{t+1} &=& A_t x_t + B_t u_t \\ g(x_t, u_t) &=& x_t^\top Q_t x_t + u_t^\top R_t u_t \end{array}$$

LQR Ext4: Linear Time Varying (LTV) Systems Set  $P_0 = 0$ . for i = 1, 2, 3, ...  $K_i = -(R_{H-i} + B_{H-i}^{\top}P_{i-1}B_{H-i})^{-1}B_{H-i}^{\top}P_{i-1}A_{H-i}$   $P_i = Q_{H-i} + K_i^{\top}R_{H-i}K_i + (A_{H-i} + B_{H-i}K_i)^{\top}P_{i-1}(A_{H-i} + B_{H-i}K_i)$ The optimal policy for a *i*-step horizon is given by:  $\pi(x) = K_i x$ The cost-to-go function for a *i*-step horizon is given by:  $J_i(x) = x^{\top}P_i x.$ 





## Most general cases

 Methods which attempt to solve the generic optimal control problem

$$\min_{u} \qquad \sum_{t=0}^{H} g(x_{t}, u_{t})$$
  
subject to  $x_{t+1} = f(x_{t}, u_{t}) \quad \forall t$ 

by iteratively approximating it and leveraging the fact that the linear quadratic formulation is easy to solve.

# Iteratively apply LQR

Initialize the algorithm by picking either (a) A control policy  $\pi^{(0)}$  or (b) A sequence of states  $x_0^{(0)}, x_1^{(0)}, \ldots, x_H^{(0)}$  and control inputs  $u_0^{(0)}, u_1^{(0)}, \ldots, u_H^{(0)}$ . With initialization (a), start in Step (1). With initialization (b), start in Step (2). Iterate the following:

- (1) Execute the current policy  $\pi^{(i)}$  and record the resulting state-input trajectory  $x_0^{(i)}, u_0^{(i)}, x_1^{(i)}, u_1^{(i)}, \dots, x_H^{(i)}, u_H^{(i)}$ .
- (2) Compute the LQ approximation of the optimal control problem around the obtained state-input trajectory by computing a first-order Taylor expansion of the dynamics model, and a second-order Taylor expansion of the cost function.
- (3) Use the LQR back-ups to solve for the optimal control policy  $\pi^{(i+1)}$  for the LQ approximation obtained in Step (2).
- (4) Set i = i + 1 and go to Step (1).

### Iterative LQR: in standard LTV format

Standard LTV is of the form  $z_{t+1} = A_t z_t + B_t v_t$ ,  $g(z, v) = z^{\top} Q z + v^{\top} R v$ . Linearizing around  $(x_t^{(i)}, u_t^{(i)})$  in iteration *i* of the iterative LQR algorithm gives us (up to first order!):

$$x_{t+1} = f(x_t^{(i)}, u_t^{(i)}) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_t^{(i)}, u_t^{(i)})(x_t - x_t^{(i)}) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x_t^{(i)}, u_t^{(i)})(u_t - u_t^{(i)})$$

Subtracting the same term on both sides gives the format we want:

$$x_{t+1} - x_{t+1}^{(i)} = f(x_t^{(i)}, u_t^{(i)}) - x_{t+1}^{(i)} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_t^{(i)}, u_t^{(i)})(x_t - x_t^{(i)}) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x_t^{(i)}, u_t^{(i)})(u_t - u_t^{(i)})$$

Hence we get the standard format if using:

$$\begin{aligned} z_t &= [x_t - x_t^{(i)} \quad 1]^\top \\ v_t &= (u_t - u_t^{(i)}) \\ A_t &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_t^{(i)}, u_t^{(i)}) & f(x_t^{(i)}, u_t^{(i)}) - x_{t+1}^{(i)} \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ B_t &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x_t^{(i)}, u_t^{(i)}) \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

A similar derivation is needed to find Q and R.

# Determine the optimal policy for the LQ approximation might end up not staying close to the sequence of points around which the LQ approximation was computed by Taylor expansion. Solution: in each iteration, adjust the cost function so this is the case, i.e., use the cost function (1 - α)g(xt, ut) + α(||xt - xtticle || 2 + ||ut - utticle || 2) Assuming g is bounded, for α close enough to one, the 2nd term will dominate and ensure the linearizations are good approximations around the solution trajectory found by LQR.























# Controllability

- A system is t-time-steps controllable if from any start state, X<sub>0</sub>, we can reach any target state, X<sup>\*</sup>, at time t.
- For a linear time-invariant systems, we have:

$$x_t = A^t x_0 + A^{t-1} B u_0 + A^{t-2} B u_1 + \ldots + A B u_{t-2} + B u_{t-1}$$

hence the system is t-time-steps controllable if and only if the above linear system of equations in  $U_0, ..., U_{t-1}$  has a solution for all choices of  $X_0$  and  $X_t$ . This is the case if and only if

$$\operatorname{rank} \begin{bmatrix} A^{t-1}B & A^{t-2}B & \cdots & A^2B & AB & B \end{bmatrix} = n$$

with n the dimension of the statespace.

The Cayley-Hamilton theorem from linear algebra says that for all A, for all  $t \geq n$  :

$$\exists w \in \mathbb{R}^n, \ A^t = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} w_i A^i$$

Hence we obtain that the system (A,B) is controllable for all times t>=n, if and only if

$$\operatorname{rank} \begin{bmatrix} A^{n-1}B & A^{n-2}B & \cdots & A^2B & AB & B \end{bmatrix} = n$$

# Feedback linearization

Consider system of the form:

 $\dot{x} = f(x) + g(x)u$ 

If g(x) is square (i.e., number of control inputs = number of state variables) and it is invertible, then we can linearize the system by a change of input variables:

v = f(x) + g(x)u

gives us:

 $\dot{x} = v$ 

Prototypical example: fully actuated manipulators:

 $H(q)\ddot{q} + b(q,\dot{q}) + g(q) = \tau$ 

Feedback linearize by using the following transformed input:

$$v = H^{-1}(q) \left(\tau - g(q) - b(q, \dot{q})\right)$$

which results in

 $\ddot{q} = v$ 



Feedback linearization	
Example from Scoline & L:, 6.12 $\begin{cases} \dot{z}_{1} = -2z_{1} + a  x_{2} + sin  x_{1} \\ \dot{z}_{2} = -x_{2} \cos z_{1} + u \cos(2x_{1}) \end{cases}$ Change of sight (sample): $\begin{cases} z_{1} = z_{1} \\ z_{2} = a  x_{2} + sin  x_{1} \end{cases}$ $= \begin{cases} \dot{z}_{1} = -2z_{1} + z_{2} \\ \dot{z}_{1} = -2z_{1} \cos z_{1} + \cos z_{1} \sin z_{1} - a  u  cos(ex_{1}) \end{cases}$ $= AT = a  u  cos(2z_{1}) + \cos z_{1} \sin z_{1} - 2z_{1} \cos z_{1} \end{cases}$ $\begin{cases} \dot{z}_{1} = -2z_{1} + z_{2} \\ \dot{z}_{2} = -2z_{1} + z_{2} \\ \dot{z}_{3} = -2z_{1} + z_{2} \end{cases}$	



# Feedback linearization

**Theorem 6.2** The nonlinear system (6.52), with f(x) and g(x) being smooth vector fields, is input-state linearizable if, and only if, there exists a region  $\Omega$  such that the following conditions hold:

• the vector fields  $\{g, ad_f g, ..., ad_f^{n-1}g\}$  are linearly independent in  $\Omega$ 

 $\bullet$  the set  $\{g, ad_f\, g\, , \ldots \, , \, \, ad_f{}^{n-2}\, g\}$  is involutive in  $\Omega$ 

**Definition 6.1** Let  $h: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be a smooth scalar function, and  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  be a smooth vector field on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then the <u>Lie derivative of h with respect to f</u> is a scalar function defined by  $L_f h = \nabla h f$ .

Thus, the Lie derivative  $L_{\mathbf{f}}h$  is simply the directional derivative of h along the direction of the vector  $\mathbf{f}$ .

Repeated Lie derivatives can be defined recursively

 $L_{\mathbf{f}}^{o} h = h$ 

 $L_{f}^{i}h = L_{f}(L_{f}^{i-1}h) = \nabla(L_{f}^{i-1}h) f$ 

for i = 1, 2, ....

Similarly, if g is another vector field, then the scalar function  $L_{g}L_{f}h(\mathbf{x})$  is

 $L_{\mathbf{g}} L_{\mathbf{f}} h = \nabla(L_{\mathbf{f}} h) \mathbf{g}$ 

### Feedback linearization

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**Definition 6.2** Let  $\mathbf{f}$  and  $\mathbf{g}$  be two vector fields on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The Lie bracket of  $\mathbf{f}$  and  $\mathbf{g}$  is a third vector field defined by

 $[\mathbf{f},\mathbf{g}] = \nabla \mathbf{g} \ \mathbf{f} - \nabla \mathbf{f} \ \mathbf{g}$ 

The Lie bracket [f, g] is commonly written as  $ad_f g$  (where ad stands for "adjoint"). Repeated Lie brackets can then be defined recursively by

 $ad_{\mathbf{f}}^{o}\mathbf{g} = \mathbf{g}$ 

 $ad_{\mathbf{f}}^{i}\mathbf{g} = [\mathbf{f}, ad_{\mathbf{f}}^{i-1}\mathbf{g}]$ 

for i = 1, 2, ....



**Theorem 6.2** The nonlinear system (6.52), with f(x) and g(x) being smooth vector fields, is input-state linearizable if, and only if, there exists a region  $\Omega$  such that the following conditions hold:

 $\bullet$  the vector fields  $\{g, \textit{ad}_f g, ..., , \textit{ad}_f^{n-1} g\}$  are linearly independent in  $\Omega$ 

• the set  $\{g, ad_f g, ..., ad_f^{n-2} g\}$  is involutive in  $\Omega$ 

**Definition 6.5** A linearly independent set of vector fields  $\{\mathbf{f}_1, \mathbf{f}_2, ..., \mathbf{f}_m\}$  is said to be <u>involutive</u> if, and only if, there are scalar functions  $\alpha_{ijk} : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$  such that

$$[\mathbf{f}_i, \mathbf{f}_j](\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^m \alpha_{ijk}(\mathbf{x}) \, \mathbf{f}_k(\mathbf{x}) \qquad \forall \ i, j$$
(6.51)











# Lagrangian dynamics Newton: F = ma Quite generally applicable Its application can become a bit cumbersome in multibody systems with constraints/internal forces Lagrangian dynamics method eliminates the internal forces from the outset and expresses dynamics w.r.t. the degrees of freedom of the system



### Lagrangian dynamics: point mass example

Consider a point mass m with coordinates (x, y, z) close to earth and with external forces  $F_x, F_y, F_z$ .

$$T = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2)$$

$$U = mgz$$

Lagrangian dynamic equations:

$$F_x = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} - \frac{\partial L}{\partial x} = m\ddot{x}$$

$$F_y = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{y}} - \frac{\partial L}{\partial y} = m\ddot{y}$$

$$F_z = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{z}} - \frac{\partial L}{\partial z} = m\ddot{z} - mg$$

