## Introduction to optimal control

#### 1.1 Optimal control problem formulation

Consider the continuous-time system  $(t \in \mathbb{R})$ 

$$\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t), u(t), t) \tag{1.1}$$

$$y(t) = h(x(t), u(t), t)$$

$$(1.2)$$

- $x(t) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  state of the system at time t
- $u(t) \in \mathbb{R}^m$  input of the system at time t
- $y(t) \in \mathbb{R}^p$  output of the system at time t

We will mainly work with time invariant systems,  $\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t), u(t))$ . We consider nonlinear, discrete-time systems described by

$$x(t+1) = f_t(x(t), u(t)) \quad t \in \mathbb{N}_0$$

but from now on we will use the compact notation

$$x_{t+1} = f_t(x_t, u_t) \quad t \in \mathbb{N}_0$$

where  $x_t \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $u_t \in \mathbb{R}^m$  are the state and the input of the system at time t.

Consider a nonlinear, discrete-time system on a finite time horizon

$$x_{t+1} = f_t(x_t, u_t)$$
  $t = 0, \dots, T-1$ 

We use  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{nT}$  and  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^{mT}$  to denote, respectively, the stack of the states  $x_t$  for all  $t \in \{1, \dots, T\}$  and the unputs  $u_t$  for all  $t \in \{0, \dots, T-1\}$ , that is:

$$\mathbf{x} := \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_T \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{u} := \begin{bmatrix} u_0 \\ \vdots \\ u_{T-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Trajectory of a system

Definition: A pair  $(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, \bar{\mathbf{u}}) \in \mathbb{R}^{nT} \times \mathbb{R}^{mT}$  is called a trajectory of system (1) if  $\bar{x}_{t+1} = f_t(\bar{x}_t, \bar{u}_t)$  for all  $t \in \{0, \dots, T-1\}$ ., That is, if  $\bar{\mathbf{x}}, \bar{\mathbf{u}}$ ) satisfies the system dynamics (the same holds for continuous time systems with proper adjustments). In particular,  $\bar{\mathbf{x}}$  is the state trajectory, while  $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$  is the input trajectory.

#### Equilibrium

Definition: A state-input pair  $(x_e, u_e) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m$  is called an equilibrium pair of (1) if  $(x_t, u_t) = (x_e, u_e), t \in \mathbb{N}_0$  is a trajectory of the system.

Equilibria of time-invariant systems satisfy  $x_e = f(x_e, u_e)$ 

#### Linearization of a system about a trajectory

Given the dynamics (1) and a trajectory  $(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, \bar{\mathbf{u}})$ , the linearization of (1) about  $(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, \bar{\mathbf{u}})$  is given by the linear (possibly) time-varying system

$$\Delta x_{t+1} = A_t \Delta x_t + B_t \Delta u_t \quad t \in \mathbb{N}_0$$

with  $A_t$  and  $B_t$  the Jacobians of  $f_t$ , with respect to state and input respectively, evaluated at  $(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, \bar{\mathbf{u}})$ 

$$A_t = \left. \frac{\partial}{\partial x} f(\bar{x}_t, \bar{u}_t) \right|_{(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, \bar{\mathbf{u}})} \quad B_t = \left. \frac{\partial}{\partial u} f(\bar{x}_t, \bar{u}_t) \right|_{(\bar{\mathbf{x}}, \bar{\mathbf{u}})}$$

#### 1.1.1 Optimization

#### Main ingredients

- Decision variable:  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- Cost function:  $\ell(x): \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  cost associated to decision x
- Constraints (constraint sets): for some given functions  $h_i : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}, i = 1, ..., m$ , and  $g_j : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ , the decision vector  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  needs to satisfy

$$h_i(x) = 0$$
  $i = 1, ..., m$   
 $g_j(x) = 0$   $j = 1, ..., r$ 

equivalently we can say that we require  $x \in X$  with

$$X = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n | h(x) = 0, g(x) \le 0 \},\$$

where we compactly denoted  $h(x) = \operatorname{col}(h_1(x), \dots, h_m(x))$  and  $g(x) = \operatorname{col}(g_1(x), \dots, g_r(x))$ 

#### Minimization

We can write our optimization problem as

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \ell(x) \tag{1.3}$$

subj. to 
$$h_i(x) = 0$$
  $i = 1, ..., m$  (1.4)

$$g_j(x) \le 0 \quad j = 1, \dots, r \tag{1.5}$$

where  $h_i: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $g_j: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ We can write it more compactly as

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \ell(x)$$
 subj. to  $h(x) = 0$   $g(x) \le 0$ 

where  $h: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $q: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^r$ 

#### 1.1.2 Discrete-time optimal control

#### main ingredients

• Dynamics: a discrete-time system in state space form

$$x_{t+1} = f_t(x_t, u_t)$$
  $t = 0, 1, \dots, T - 1$ 

 $\bullet$  the dynamics introduce T equality constraints

$$x_1 = f(x_0, u_0)$$
 i.e.  $x_1 - f_t(x_0, u_0) = 0$   
 $x_2 = f(x_1, u_1)$  i.e.  $x_1 - f_t(x_1, u_1) = 0$   
 $\vdots$   
 $x_T = f(x_{T-1}, u_{T-1})$  i.e.  $x_T - f_t(x_{T-1}, u_{T-1}) = 0$ 

This is equivalent to nT scalar constraints

• Cost function: a cost "to be payed" for a chosen trajectory. We consider an additive structure in time

$$\ell(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}) = \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \ell_t(x_t, u_t) + \ell_T(x_T)$$

where  $\ell_t : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}$  is called stage-cost, while  $\ell_T : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is the terminal cost.

• End-point constraints: function of the state variable prescribed at initial and/or final point

$$r(x_0, x_T) = 0$$

 Path constraints: point-wise (in time) constraints representing possible limits on states and inputs at each time t

$$g_t(x_t, u_t) \le 0, \quad t \in \{0, \dots, T-1\}$$

A discrete-time optimal control problem can be written as

$$\min_{\substack{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_T \\ u_0, \dots, u_{T-1} \\ t = 0}} \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \ell_t(x_t, u_t) + \ell_T(x_T)$$
subj. to 
$$x_{t+1} = f_t(x_t, u_t), \quad t \in \{0, \dots, T-1\}$$

$$r(x_0, x_T) = 0$$

$$g_t(x_t, u_t) \le 0, \quad t \in \{0, \dots, T-1\}$$

#### Optimal control for trajectory generation

We can pose a trajectory generation problem as

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^m} \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \frac{1}{2} \|x_t - x_t^{\text{des}}\|_Q^2 + \frac{1}{2} \|u_t - u_t^{\text{des}}\|_R^2 + \frac{1}{2} \|x_T - x_T^{\text{des}}\|_{P_f}^2$$

#### Continuous-time Optimal Control problem

A continuous-time optimal control problem, i.e.,  $t \in \mathbb{R}$  can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{(x(\cdot),u(\cdot))\in\mathcal{F}} \int_0^T \ell_\tau(x(\tau),u(\tau))d\tau + \ell_T(x(T)) \\ \text{subj. to} \quad \dot{x}(t) &= f_t(x(t),u(t)) \quad t \in [0,T] \\ \quad r(x(0),x(T)) &= 0 \\ \quad g_t(x(t),u(t)) \leq 0 \quad t \in [0,T) \end{aligned}$$

Note that  $\mathcal{F}$  is a space of functions (function space). This is an infinite dimensional optimization problem

• Cost functional  $\ell: \mathcal{F} \to \mathbb{R}$ 

$$\ell(x(\cdot), u(\cdot)) = \int_0^T \ell_\tau(x(\tau), u(\tau)) d\tau + \ell_T(x(T))$$

• Space of trajectories ( or trajectory manifold)

$$\mathcal{T} = \{ (x(\cdot), u(\cdot)) \in \mathcal{F} | \dot{x}(t) = f_t(x(t), u(t)), t \ge 0 \}$$

## Nonlinear Optimization

#### 2.1 Unconstrained Optimization

Consider the unconstrained optimization problem

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \ell(x)$$

with  $\ell: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  a cost function to be minimized and x a decision vector We say that  $x^*$  is a

- global minimum if  $\ell(x^*) \leq \ell(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- strict global minimum if  $\ell(x^*) < \ell(x)$  for all  $x \neq x^*$
- local minimum if there exists  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $\ell(x^*) \le \ell(x)$  for all  $x \in B(x^*, \epsilon) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | ||x x^*|| < \epsilon \}$
- strict local minimum if there exists  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $\ell(x^*) < \ell(x)$  for all  $x \in B(x^*, \epsilon)$

#### Notation

We denote  $\ell(x^*)$  the optimal (minimum) value of a generic optimization problem, i.e.

$$\ell(x^*) = \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \ell(x)$$

where  $x^*$  is the minimum point (optimal value for the optimization variable) i.e.

$$x^* = \arg\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \ell(x)$$

#### Gradient and Hessian

Gradient of a function: for a function  $r: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  the gradient is denoted as

$$\nabla r(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial r(x)}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial r(x)}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$$

Hessian matrix of a function: for a fountion  $r:\mathbb{R}^n\to\mathbb{R}$  the Hessian matrix is denoted as

$$\nabla^{2}(r(x)) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^{2}r(x)}{\partial x_{1}^{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2}r(x)}{\partial x_{1}x_{n}} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^{2}r(x)}{\partial x_{n}x_{1}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2}r(x)}{\partial x_{1}^{2}} \end{bmatrix}$$

Gradient of a vector-valued function: for a vector field  $r: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ , the gradient is denoted as

$$\nabla r(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla r_1(x) & \cdots & \nabla r_m(x) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial r_1(x)}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial r_m(x)}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial r_1(x)}{\partial x_n} & \cdots & \frac{\partial r_m(x)}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$$

which is the transpose of the Jacobian matrix of r

#### 2.1.1 Conditions of optimality

#### First order necessary condition (FNC) of optimality (unconstrained)

Let  $x^*$  be an unconstrained local minimum of  $\ell : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  and assume that  $\ell$  is continuously differentiable  $(\mathcal{C}^1)$  in  $B(x^*, \epsilon)$  for some  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then  $\nabla \ell(x^*) = 0$ 

#### Second order necessary condition (FNC) of optimality (unconstrained)

If additionally  $\ell$  is twice continuously differentiable  $(\mathcal{C}^2)$  in  $B(x^*, \epsilon)$ , then  $\nabla^2 \ell(x^*) \geq 0$  (The Hessian of  $\ell$  is positive semidifinite)

#### Second order sufficient conditions of optimality (unconstrained)

Let  $\ell: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R} \in \mathcal{C}^2$  in  $b(x^*, \epsilon)$  for some  $\epsilon > 0$ . Suppose that  $x^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfies

$$\nabla \ell(x^*) = 0 and \nabla^2 \ell(x^*) > 0$$

Then  $x^*$  is a strict (unconstrained) local minimum of  $\ell$ 

#### Convex set

A set  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is convex if for any two points  $x_A$  and  $x_B$  in X and for all  $\lambda \in [0,1]$ , then

$$\lambda x_a + (1 - \lambda)x_B \in X$$

#### Convex functions

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a convex set. A function  $\ell: X \to \mathbb{R}$  is convex if for any two points  $x_A$  and  $x_B$  in X and for all  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ , then

$$\ell(\lambda x_A + (1 - \lambda)x_B) \le \lambda \ell(x_A) + (1 - \lambda)\ell(x_B)$$

#### 2.1.2 Minimization of convex functions

#### Proposition

Let  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  be a convex set and  $\ell: X \to \mathbb{R}$  a convex function. Then a local minimum of  $\ell$  is also a global minimum

Proof: not done in class but present in slides for funsies

#### Necessary and sufficient condition of optimality (unconstrained)

For the unconstrained minimization of a convex function it can be shown that the first order necessary condition of optimality is also sufficient (for a global minimum).

#### Proposition

Let  $\ell_{\mathbb{R}}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be a convex function. Then  $x^*$  is a global minimum if and only if  $\nabla \ell(x^*) = 0$ Proof: not done in class but present in slides for funsies

#### 2.1.3 Quadratic programming

Let us consider a special class of optimization problems, namely quadratic optimization problems or quadratic programs:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} x^T Q x + b^t x$$

with  $Q = Q^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  and  $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ 

#### optimality conditions

First-order necessary condition for optimality: if  $x^*$  is a minimum then

$$\nabla \ell(x^*) = 0 \implies 2Qx^* + b = 0$$

Second-order necessary condition for optimality: if  $x^*$  is a minimum then

$$\nabla^2 \ell(x^*) \ge 0 \implies 2Q > 0$$

A necessary condition for the existence of minima for a quadratic program is that  $Q \ge 0$ . Thus, quadratic programs admitting at least a minimum are convex optimization problems.

#### properties

Since quadratic programs are convex programs ( $Q \ge 0$  is necessary to have a local minimum), then the following holds:

• For a quadratic program necessary conditions of optimality are also sufficient and minima are global

If Q > 0, then there exists a unique global minimum given by

$$x^* = -\frac{1}{2}Q^{-1}b$$

#### 2.2 Unconstrained Optimization Algorithms

#### 2.2.1 Iterative descent methods

We consider optimization algorithms relying on the iterative descent idea. We denote  $x^k \in \mathbb{R}^n$  an estimate of a local minimum at iteration  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . The algorithm starts at a given initial guess  $x^0$  and iteratively generates vectors  $x^1, x^2, \ldots$  such that  $\ell$  is decreased at each iteration, i.e.

$$\ell(x^{k+1}) < \ell(x^k) \qquad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

#### two-step procedure

We consider a general two-step procedure that reads as follows

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + \gamma^k d^k, \qquad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

in which

- 1. each  $\gamma^k > 0$  is a "step-size"
- 2.  $d^k \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a "direction"

The goal is to

- 1. choose a direction  $d^k$  along which the cost decreases for  $\gamma^k$  sufficiently small;
- 2. select a step-size  $\gamma^k$  guaranteeing a sufficient decrease.

In oher references these are called line-search methods.

#### 2.2.2 Gradient methods

Let  $x^k$  be such that  $\nabla \ell(x^k) \neq 0$ . We start by considering the update rule

$$x^{k+1} = x^k - \gamma^k \nabla \ell(x^k)$$

i.e., we choose  $d^k = \nabla \ell(x^k)$ 

From the first order Taylor expansion of  $\ell$  at x we have

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \ell(x^{k+1}) & = & \ell(x^k) + \nabla \ell(x^k)^T (x^{k+1} - x^k) + o(\|x^{k+1} - x^k\|) \\ & = & \ell(x^k) - \gamma^k \|\nabla \ell(x^k)\|^2 + o(\gamma^k) \end{array}$$

Thus, for  $\gamma^k > 0$  sufficiently small it can be shown that  $\ell(x^k + 1) < \ell(x^k)$ 

The update rule

$$x^{k+1} = x^k - \gamma^k \nabla \ell(x^k)$$

can be generalized to so called gradient methods

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + \gamma^k d^k$$

with  $d^k$  such that

$$\nabla \ell(x^k)^T d^k < 0$$

Also,  $d^k$  must be gradient related, i.e.  $d^k$  must not asymptotically become perpendicular to  $\nabla \ell$ 

#### selecting the descent direction

Several gradient methods can be written as

$$x^{k+1}0x^k - \gamma^k D^k \nabla \ell(x^k) \quad k = 1, 2, \dots$$

where  $D^k \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is a symmetric positive definite matrix. It can be immediately seen that

$$-\nabla \ell(x^k)^T D^k \nabla \ell(x^k) < 0$$

i.e.  $d^k = -D^k \nabla \ell(x^k)$  is a descent direction. The choice of  $D^k$  must be made such that there exist  $d_1, d_2$  positive real, such that  $d_1 I \leq D^k \leq d_2 I$ 

Some choices for  $D^k$ :

- Steepest descent  $D^k = I_n$
- Newton's method  $D^k = (\nabla^2 \ell(x^k))^{-1}$ It can be used when  $\nabla^2 \ell(x^k) > 0$ . It typically converges very fast asymptotically. For  $\gamma^k = 1$  pure Newton's method
- Discretized Newton's method  $D^k = (H(x^k))^{-1}$ , where  $H(x^k)$  is a positive definite symmetric approximation of  $\nabla^2 \ell(x^k)$  obtained by using finite difference approximations of the second derivatives
- Some regularized version of the Hessian

#### 2.2.3 gradient method

The update rule obtained for  $D^k = I$  is called steepest descent. The name steepest descent is due to the following property: the normalized negative gradient direction

$$d^k = -\frac{\nabla \ell(x^k)}{\|\nabla \ell(x^k)\|}$$

minimizes the slope  $\nabla \ell(x^k)^T d^k$  among all normalized directions, i.e. it gives the steepest descent.

#### 2.2.4 Newton's method for root finding

Consider the nonlinear root finding problem

$$r(x) = 0$$

Idea: iteratively refine the solution such that the improved guess  $x^{k+1}$  represents a root of the linear approximation of r about the current tentative solution  $x^k$ . Consider the linear approximation of r about  $x^k$ , we have

$$r^k(x^k + \Delta x^k) = r(x^k) + \nabla r(x^k)^T \Delta x^k$$

then, finding the zeros of the approximation, we have

$$\Delta x^k = -(\nabla r(x^k)^T)^{-1} r(x^k)$$

Thus, the solution is improved as

$$x^{k+1} = x^k - (\nabla r(x^k)^T)^{-1} r(x^k)$$

#### 2.2.5 Newton's method for unconstrained optimization

Consider the unconstrained optimization problem

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \ell(x)$$

stationary points  $\bar{x}$  satisfy the first order optimality condition

$$\nabla \ell(\bar{x}) = 0$$

We can look at it as a root finding problem, with  $r(x) = \nabla \ell(x)$ , and solve it via Newton's method. Therefore, we can compute  $\Delta x^k$  as the solution of the linearization of  $r(x) = \nabla \ell(x)$  at  $x^k$ , i.e.

$$\nabla \ell(x^k) + \nabla^2 \ell(x^k) \Delta x^k = 0$$

and run the update

$$x^{k+1} = x^k - (\nabla^2 \ell(x^k))^{-1} \nabla \ell(x^k)$$

We can introduce a variable step-size

$$x^{k+1} = x^k - \gamma^k (\nabla^2 \ell(x^k))^{-1} \nabla \ell(x^k)$$

This is called generalized Newton's method

#### Newton's method via Quadratic Optimization

Observe that

$$\nabla \ell(x^k) + \nabla^2 \ell(x^k) \Delta x^k = 0$$

is the first-order necessary and sufficient condition of optimality for the quadratic program

$$\Delta x^k = \underset{\Delta x}{\arg\min} \nabla \ell(x^k)^T \Delta x + \frac{1}{2} \Delta x^T \nabla^2 \ell(x^k) \Delta x \tag{2.1}$$

Thus, the k-th iteration of Newton's method can be seen as

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + \Delta x^k$$

with  $\Delta x^k$  solution of the quadratic problem 2.1. Generalized version:

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + \gamma^k \Delta x^k$$

#### 2.2.6 Gradient methods via quadratic optimization

Similarly to Newton's method, a descent direction  $\Delta x^k = D^k \nabla \ell(x^k)$  can be seen as the direction that minimizes at each iteration a different quadratic approximation of  $\ell$  about  $x^k$ . In fact, consider the quadratic approximation  $\ell^k(x)$  about  $x^k$  given by

$$\ell^k(x) = \ell(x^k) + \nabla \ell(x^k)^T (x - x^k) + \frac{1}{2} (x - x^k)^T (D^k)^{-1} (x - x^k)$$

By setting the derivative to zero, we have

$$\nabla \ell(x^k) + (D^k)^{-1}(x - x^k) = 0$$

we can calculate the minimum of  $\ell^k(x)$  and set it as the next iterate  $x^{k+1}$ 

$$\Delta x^k = -D^k \nabla \ell(x^k)$$

#### 2.2.7 step-size selection rules

- Constant step-size:  $\gamma^k = \gamma > 0$
- Diminishing step-size:  $\gamma^k \to 0$  as  $k \to \infty$ . It must hold that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k = +\infty \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (\gamma^k)^2 < +\infty$$

The above conditions avoid pathological choices of  $\gamma^k$ 

- minimization rule
- Armijo rule

#### Armijo rule

Step-size is selected following the procedure:

1. set 
$$\bar{\gamma}^0 > 0$$
,  $\beta \in (0,1)$ ,  $c \in (0,1)$ 

given  $d^k$  descent direction we can consider

$$q^k(\gamma) = \ell(x^k + \gamma d^k), \quad q: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$$

The value of  $g^k(\gamma)$  for  $\gamma = 0$  is  $\ell(x^k)$ . The minimization rule chooses as the value for  $\gamma$  the value that minimizes  $g^k(\gamma)$ . The partial minimization rule would search for a minimum in a restricted set of values for  $\gamma$ . Let us differentiate g wrt  $\gamma$ :

$$g'(\gamma) = \frac{d}{d\gamma}g(\gamma) = \frac{d}{d\gamma}\ell(x^k + \gamma d^k)$$
$$g'(0) = \frac{d}{d\gamma}\ell(x^k + \gamma d^k) |\gamma = 0|_{=} \nabla \ell(x^k)^T d^k$$

We compute a linear approximation of  $g(\gamma)$ :

$$g(\gamma) = g(0) + g'(0)\gamma + o(\gamma)$$
$$\ell(x^k + \gamma d^k) = \ell(x^k) + \nabla \ell(x^k) d^k \gamma + o(\gamma)$$

This is the tangent to the  $g(\gamma)$  curve at  $\gamma = 0$ . We also consider the line

$$\ell(x^k) + c\gamma \nabla \ell(x^k)^T d^k$$

which is a line with a slightly less negative slope given that  $c \in (0,1)$  The Armijo rule is applied as follows:

- 1. Set  $\bar{\gamma}^0 > 0$ ,  $\beta \in (0,1)$ ,  $c \in (0,1)$
- 2. While  $\ell(x^k + \bar{\gamma}^1 d^k) \ge \ell(x^k) + c\bar{\gamma}^i \nabla \ell(x^k)^T d^k$ :

$$\bar{\gamma}^{i+1} = \beta \bar{\gamma}^i$$

3. Set  $\gamma^k = \bar{\gamma}^i$ 

Typical values are  $\beta = 0.7$  and c = 0.5

#### Proposition: convergence with Armijo step-size

Let  $\{x^k\}$  be a sequence generated by a gradient method  $x^{k+1} = x^k - \gamma^k D^k \nabla \ell(x^k)$  with  $d_1 I \leq D^k \leq d_2 I$ ,  $d_1, d_2 > 0$ . Assume that  $\gamma^k$  is chosen by the Armijo rule and  $\ell(x) \in \mathcal{C}^1$ . Then, every limit point  $\bar{x}$  of the sequence  $\{x^k\}$  is a stationary point, i.e.  $\nabla \ell(\bar{x}) = 0$ 

Recall that a vector  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a limit point of a sequence  $\{x^k\}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  if there exists a subsequence of  $\{x^k\}$  that converges to x.

#### convergene with constant or diminishing step-size

Let  $\{x^k\}$  be a sequence generated by a gradient method  $x^{k+1}=x^k-\gamma^kD^k\nabla\ell(x^k)$  with  $d_1I\leq D^k\leq d_2I,\ d_1,d_2>0$ . Assume that for some L>0

$$\|\nabla \ell(x) - \nabla \ell(y)\| \le L\|x - y\|, \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

i.e. The gradient is a Lipschitz continuous function. Assume either

1.  $\gamma^k = \gamma > 0$  sufficiently small, or

2. 
$$\gamma^k \to 0$$
 and  $\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} \gamma^k = \infty$ 

Then, every limit point  $\bar{x}$  of the sequence  $\{x^k\}$  is a stationary point, i.e.  $\nabla \ell(\bar{x}) = 0$ 

#### Remarks on gradient methods

- The propositions do not guarantee that the sequence converges and not even existence of limit points. Then either  $\ell(x^k) \to -\infty$  or  $\ell(x^k)$  converges to a finite value and  $\nabla \ell(x^k) \to 0$ . In the second case, one can show that any subsequence  $\{x^{k_p}\}$  converges to some stationary point  $\bar{>}$  satisfying  $\nabla \ell(\bar{x}) = 0$
- Existence of minima can be guaranteed by excluding  $\ell(x^k) \to -\infty$  via suitable assumptions. Assume, e.g.,  $\ell$  coercive (radially unboundend)
- For general (nonconvex) problems, assuming coecivity, only convergence (of subsequences) to stationary points can be proven.
- for convex programs, assuming coercivity, convergence to global minima is guardanteed since necessary conditions of optimality are also sufficient.

#### 2.3 Constrained optimization over convex sets

consider the optimization problem

$$\min_{x \in X} \ell(x)$$

where  $X \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is nonempty, convex, and closed, and  $\ell$  is continuously differentiable on X.

#### **Optimality conditions**

If a point  $x^* \in X$  is a local minimum of  $\ell(x)$  over X, then

$$\nabla \ell(x^*)^T (\bar{x} - x^*) > 0 \qquad \forall \bar{x} \in X$$

#### Projection over a convex set

Given a point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and a closed convex set X, it can be shown that

$$P_X(x) := \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{z \in X} \|z - x\|^2$$

exists and is unique. The point  $P_X(x)$  is called the projection of x on X.

#### 2.3.1 Projected gradient method

Gradient methods can be generalized to optimization over convex sets

$$x^{k+1} = P_X(x^k - \gamma^k \nabla \ell(x^k))$$

The algorithm is based on the idea of generating at each t feasible points (i.e. belonging to X) that give a descent in the cost. The analysis follows similar arguments to the one of unconstrained gradient methods.

#### 2.3.2 Feasible direction method

Find  $\tilde{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that

$$\tilde{x} = \underset{x \in X}{\arg\min} \, \ell(x^k) + \nabla \ell(x^k)^T (x - x^k) + \frac{1}{2} (x - x^k)^T (x - x^k)$$

Update the solution

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + \gamma^k (\tilde{x} - x^k)$$

where  $(\tilde{x} - x^k)$  is a feasible direction as it is contained in the set by construction. For  $\gamma^k$  sufficiently small,  $x^{k+1} \in X$ 

# Optimality conditions for optimal control

Linear Quadratic (LQ) optimal control

## Dynamic Programming

# Numerical methods for nonlinear optimal control

Optimization-based predictive control