A High-Level Overview of Path Integral Control

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Discrete-Time OCP

minimize
$$c_T(x_T) + \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} c_t(x_t, u_t)$$

subject to $x_{t+1} = f_t(x_t, u_t)$, for $t = 1, \dots, T-1$
given x_1 .

The **value function** of a parametric mathematical program is the mapping from program parameters to optimal value. Here the "parameters" (inputs) are x_1 and the value is $c_T(x_T^\star) + \sum_{t=1}^{T-1} c_t(x_t^\star, u_t^\star)$ where $\{x_t^\star\}_{t=2}^T$ and $\{u_t^\star\}_{t=1}^{T-1}$.

Bellman Optimality Equations

In the optimal control context, the value function is called the cost-to-go function and satisfies the Bellman optimality equations:

$$J_{T}(x_{T}) \triangleq c_{T}(x_{T})$$

$$J_{t}(x_{t}) \triangleq \min_{u_{t} \in \mathcal{U}(x_{t})} \left\{ c_{t}(x_{t}, u_{t}) + J_{t+1}(f_{t}(x_{t}, u_{t})) \right\} \quad t = 1, \dots, T-1.$$

The above are DP equations in a discrete-time finite horizon MDP.

Special case: Linear Quadratic Regulation

minimize
$$x_T Q_T x_T + \sum_{t=1}^T \left(x_t^\top Q x_t + u_t^\top R u_t \right)$$

subject to $x_{t+1} = A x_t + B u_t$, $t = 1, \dots, T-1$
given x_1 .

Backward Induction for LQR: Ricatti Equation

The local minimization problem in the Bellman optimality equations can be solved in closed-form under the LQR setting.

The cost-to-go function is quadratic and of the form $J_t(x_t) \triangleq x_t^\top P_t x_t$ for all t = 1, ..., T. and the matrices $\{P_1, ..., P_T\}$ can be found by backward induction:

- ightharpoonup Set $P_T = Q_T$
- From t = T 1, ..., 1:
 - ► Set $P_t = Q + A^T P_{t+1} A A^T P_{t+1} B (R + B^T P_{t+1} B)^{-1} B^T P_{t+1} A$
 - ► Set $K_t = -(R + B^T P_{t+1} B)^{-1} B^T P_{t+1} A$

You can then compute the optimal control at time t in state x_t with $u_t^* = K_t x_t$ (the optimal controls are linear in the states).

Continuous-Time

Is there also a Dynamic Programming approach to continuous-time OCPs?

minimize
$$c(x(t_f)) + \int_{t_0}^{t_f} c(x(t), u(t)) dt$$

subject to $\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t), u(t))$
given $x(t_0) = x_0$.

The Hamilton-Jacobi Equations

We can show that the cost-to-go for the above continuous-time problem function satisfies for all x, t:

$$J(x,T) = c(x) \text{ and } 0 = \min_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \left\{ c(x,u) + \underbrace{D_2 J(x,t)}_{\text{time derivative}} + \underbrace{D_1 J(x,t)}_{\text{f}} f(x,u) \right\}$$

Note that while the OCP only involves an ODE, the HJB are partial differential equations (PDEs): a specification of how the partial derivatives of a function ought to behave together.

Theorem (Sufficiency). Let V(x, t) be a solution to the PDE:

$$0 = \min_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \left\{ c(x, u) + D_2 V(x, t) + D_1 V(x, t) f(x, u) \right\} \text{ for all } x, t \ ,$$

and boundary condition $V(x, t_f) = c(x)$ for all x. Then V is the cost-to-go function J and an optimal policy $\mu(x, t)$ can be obtained by minimizing the expression above given V(x, t).



Potential issue: We assumed that *J* is differentiable, but this may not be the case, and we may not be able to solve the corresponding HJB equations. But if we happen to do find a solution, analytically, or numerically, then we're in good shape!

Stochastic Optimal Control via and Path Integral

Problem formulation

The problem formulation is still in continuous-time, but we now add noise: ie the dynamics are described by stochastic differential equations (SDEs) rather than ODEs.

We also make two important assumptions:

- Control-affine dynamics
- Quadratic cost

SDE Dynamics

The PI framework assumes that we have control-affine dynamics: the system has a linear relationship on the controls but can be nonlinear elsewhere:

$$dX(t) = \underbrace{f(X(t), t)dt}_{\text{drift}} + \underbrace{g(X(t), t) \left(u(X(t), t)dt + dW(t)\right)}_{\text{diffusion}}$$

- ► The "drift" term is also sometimes referred to as the "passive dynamics" of the system (eg. gravity).
- ► dW(t) is Gaussian noise with $\mathbb{E}\left[dW(t)\right] = 0$

Euler-Maruyama

The Euler discretization counterpart for SDEs is the "Euler-Maruyama" method, which for an SDE

$$dX(t) = \underbrace{\mu(X(t), t))dt}_{\text{drift}} + \underbrace{\sigma(X(t), t)dW(t)}_{\text{diffusion}},$$

we compute the random sequence:

$$X_{k+1} = X_k + \mu(X_k, kh)h + \sigma(X_k, kh)\Delta W_k$$
 where $\Delta W_k \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sqrt{h})$.

for a fixed discretization of the interval [0, T] into n bins of width h = T/n.

Time-Discretization

Consider our control-affine system:

$$dX(t) = f(X(t), t)dt + g(X(t), t) \left(u(X(t), t)dt + dW(t) \right) ,$$

Furthermore, let's be a bit more precise and assume that $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ so that $g :\in \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is a **control matrix** and $f :\in \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^m$. The Euler-Maruyma discretization is:

$$x_{k+1} = x_k + f_k h + G_k \left(u_k h + \Delta w_k \right), \ \Delta W_k \sim \mathcal{N} \left(0, \sqrt{h} \right) \ .$$

Gaussian Process

$$x_{k+1} = x_k + f_k h + G_k \left(u_k h + \Delta w_k \right), \quad \Delta W_k \sim \mathcal{N} \left(0, \sqrt{h} \right).$$

The above is a discrete-time Markov Decision Process whose transition probability function is given by:

$$p(x_{k+1}|x_k, u_k) = \mathcal{N}\left(x_k + f_k h + G_k u_k h, G_k \Sigma G_k^{\top}\right)$$

where Σ is the covariance matrix of the Wiener process. To see this, remember the "reparameterization" properties of the Normal distribution, ie. if $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$ with $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^n, \Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and under the affine transformation: Y = a + BX then the transformed variable is distributed as $Y \sim \mathcal{N}\left(a + B\mu, B\Sigma B^{\top}\right)$.

Discrete-time MDP Counterpart

Having a discrete-time Markov process, we can define an approximate MDP counterpart:

$$J(x_T, T) \triangleq c_T(x_T)$$

$$J(x_t, t) \triangleq \min_{u_t \in \mathcal{U}(x_t)} \left\{ c_t(x_t, u_t) + \mathbb{E} \left[J(X_{t+1}, t+1) \mid U_t = u_t \right] \right\}.$$

The expectation is now taken under the Gaussian defined above and the cost function is assumed to be quadratic in the controls:

$$c_t(x_t, u_t) \triangleq l(x, t) + u^\top R_t u$$
.

where *l* can be a nonlinear function.

HJB Equation for PI Control

If we take the second-order Taylor expansion of *J*, replace it back into the discrete-time Bellman's equations and take the limit of the step size to 0, we get an HJB equation of the form:

$$D_2J(x,t) = l(x,t) + \min_{u \in \mathcal{U}} \left(u^\top R_t u + D_1 J(x,t) (f_t + G_t u) + \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{tr} \left(D_1^2 J(x,t) G_t \Sigma G_t^\top \right) \right) ,$$

Because of the control-affine assumption, we can solve for u directly and get that the minimizing action u_t^* is:

$$u_t^{\star} = -R^{-1}G_t^{\top} \left(D_1 J(x,t) \right)^{\top}$$

But how can we solve this PDE?

Exponential Transformation

We are going to transform the above PDE by setting:

$$J(x,t) = -\lambda \log \Psi(x,t) ,$$

for some function Ψ satisfying:

$$\begin{aligned} -D_2\Psi(x,t) &= \\ &-\frac{1}{\lambda}l(x,t)\Psi(x,t) + D_1\Psi(x,t)f_t + \frac{1}{2}\mathrm{tr}\left(D_1^2\Psi(x,t)G_t\Sigma G_t^\top\right) \end{aligned}$$

This PDE is special: it's called the Kolmogorov backward PDE, a second-order **linear** PDE.

Feynman-Kac

The Feynman-Kac theorem allows us to solve such PDEs (Kolmogorov) numerically, by showing that their solution is that of an expectation (an integral) over paths.

Theorem (informal) Feynman-Kac (informal) If X(t) satisfies an SDE of the form dX(t) = f(X(t), t)dt + G(X(t))dW(t) then:

$$\Psi(x,t) = \mathbb{E}\left[\exp\left(-\frac{1}{\lambda}c_T(X(T)) - \frac{1}{\lambda}\int_t^T l(X(t),t)dt\right)\right]$$

iff Ψ satisfies the Backward-Kolmogorov PDE:

$$\begin{aligned} -D_2\Psi(x,t) &= \\ &-\frac{1}{\lambda}l(x,t)\Psi(x,t) + D_1\Psi(x,t)f_t + \frac{1}{2}\mathrm{tr}\left(D_1^2\Psi(x,t)G_t\Sigma G_t^\top\right) \end{aligned}$$

Recap

- We posed the stochastic optimal control problem under the assumptions of control-affine SDE dynamics + quadratic cost on the controls
- The corresponding SOCP can be solved via the HJB equation, a PDE
- To solve the PDE, we use the exponetial transform: this gives us a linear PDE
- 4. This linear PDE happens to be the Backward-Kolmogorov PDE
- 5. The Backward-Kolmogorov PDE can be solved numerically using the Monte-Carlo method using the Feyman-Kac theorem