

# Model Predictive Control

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github.com/silvasta/summary-mpc



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Introduction	
Requirements for MPC	
1. A model of the system	
2. A state estimator	

3. Define the optimal problem	2
4. Set up the optimization problem	2
5. Get the optimal control sequence (solve the optimization problem)	2
6. Verify that the closed-loop system performs as desired	3
1 System Theory Basics	
1.1 Learning Objectives	
- Describe dynamics with continuous-time state-space models	
- Derive linearized model and understand limitations of linear description	
- Discretize nonlinear and linear systems and contrast model properties	
- Analyse stability, controllability, observability of linear systems	
- Understand Lyapunov stability and prove stability of nonlinear systems	
- Construct a Lyapunov function for stable linear systems	
1.2 Model of Dynamic Systems	
Goal Introduce mathematical models to be used in Model Predictive Control (MPC) for describing the behavior of dynamic systems	
- If not stated differently, we use deterministic models	
- Models of physical systems derived from first principles are mainly:	
nonlinear, time-invariant, continuous-time, state space models (*)	
- Target models for standard MPC are mainly:	
linear, time-invariant, discrete-time, state space models (t)	
- Focus of this section is on how to 'transform' (*) to (t)	
1.2.1 Physical Model	
Nonlinear Time-Invariant Continuous-Time State Space Models	
$\dot{x} = g(x, u)$	
$y = h(x, u)$	
$g(x, u) : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ system dynamics	
$h(x, u) : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$ output function	
$x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ state vector	
$u \in \mathbb{R}^m$ input vector	
$y \in \mathbb{R}^p$ output vector	
- Very general class of models	
- Higher order ODEs can be easily brought to this form	
- Analysis and control synthesis generally hard $\rightarrow$ linearization to bring it to linear, time-invariant (LTI), continuous-time, state space form	
1.2.2 Continuous LTI-Model	
$\dot{x} = A^c x + B^c u$	
$y = Cx + Du$	
$A^c \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ system matrix	
$B^c \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ input matrix	
$C \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$ output matrix	
$D \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times m}$ throughput matrix	
$x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ state vector	
$u \in \mathbb{R}^m$ input vector	
$y \in \mathbb{R}^p$ output vector	
Solution to linear ODEs	
$x(t) = e^{A^c(t-t_0)}x_0 + \int_{t_0}^t e^{A^c(t-\tau)}B^cu(\tau)d\tau$	
Problem Most physical systems are nonlinear but linear systems are much better understood	
Nonlinear systems can be well approximated by a linear system in a small neighborhood around a point in state space	

Idea keep the system around some operating point  $\rightarrow$  replace nonlinear by a linearized system around operating point TAYLOR  
**Linearization**  
Stationary operating point:  $x_s, u_s$   
 $\dot{x}_s = g(x_s, u_s) = 0$   
 $y_s = h(x_s, u_s)$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= \underbrace{g(x_s, u_s)}_{=0} + \underbrace{\frac{\partial g}{\partial x^T} \Big|_{x_s}}_{=A^c} \underbrace{(x - x_s)}_{=\Delta x} + \underbrace{\frac{\partial g}{\partial u^T} \Big|_{x_s}}_{=B^c} \underbrace{(u - u_s)}_{=\Delta u} \\ \Rightarrow \dot{x} - \underbrace{\dot{x}_s}_{=0} &= \Delta \dot{x} = A^c \Delta x + B^c \Delta u \\ y &= \underbrace{h(x_s, u_s)}_{y_s} + \underbrace{\frac{\partial h}{\partial x^T} \Big|_{x_s}}_{=C} (x - x_s) + \underbrace{\frac{\partial h}{\partial u^T} \Big|_{x_s}}_{=D} (u - u_s) \\ \Rightarrow y - y_s &= \Delta y = C \Delta x + D \Delta u \end{aligned}$$

Subsequently, instead of  $\Delta x, \Delta u$  and  $\Delta y, x, u$  and  $y$  are used for brevity.

**1.2.3 Discrete Models**  
Discrete-Time systems are described by difference equations  
 $x(k+1) = g(x(k), u(k))$   
 $y(k) = h(x(k), u(k))$   
 $g(x, u) : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  system dynamics  
 $h(x, u) : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$  output function  
 $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  state vector  
 $u \in \mathbb{R}^m$  input vector  
 $y \in \mathbb{R}^p$  output vector  
- Inputs and outputs of a discrete-time system are defined only at discrete time points, i.e. its inputs and outputs are sequences defined for  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$   
- Discrete time systems describe either  
1. Inherently discrete systems, eg. bank savings account balance at the  $k$ -th month  $x(k+1) = (1 + \alpha)x(k) + u(k)$   
2. Transformed continuous-time system  
- Vast majority of controlled systems not inherently discrete-time systems  
- Controllers almost always implemented using microprocessors  
- Finite computation time must be considered in the control system design  $\rightarrow$  discretize the continuous-time system  
- Discretization is the procedure of obtaining an 'equivalent' discrete-time system from a continuous-time system  
- The discrete-time model describes the state of the continuous-time system only at particular instances  $t_k, k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  in time, where  $t_{k+1} = t_k + T_s$  and  $T_s$  is called the sampling time  
- Usually  $u(t) = u(t_k) \forall t \in [t_k, t_k + 1)$  is assumed (and implemented)

1.2.4 Discretization

1.2.5 Recap

1.3 Analysis of Discrete-Time LTI-Systems

1.3.1 Coordinate Transform

1.3.2 Stability

1.3.3 Controllability

1.3.4 Observability

1.4 Analysis of Discrete-Time Nonlinear-Systems

1.4.1 Stability

1.4.2 Lyapunov

1.5 Recap

2 Unconstrained LQ Optimal Control

2.1 Learning Objectives

- Learn to compute finite horizon unconstrained linear quadratic optimal controller in two ways
- Understand principle of optimality
- Learn to compute infinite horizon unconstrained linear quadratic optimal controller
- Understand impact of horizon length
- Prove stability of infinite horizon unconstrained linear quadratic optimal control
- Learn how to 'simulate' quasi-infinite horizon

2.2 Introduction to Optimal Control

2.2.1 Optimal Control

Discrete-time **optimal control** is concerned with choosing an optimal input sequence  $U := [u_0^T, u_1^T, \dots]^T$  (as measured by some objective function), over a finite or infinite time horizon, in order to apply it to a system with a given initial state  $x(0)$ . The objective, or cost, function is often defined as a **sum of stage costs**  $l(x_i, u_i)$  and, when the horizon has finite length  $N$ , terminal cost  $l_f(x_N)$ :

$$J(x_0, U) := I_f(x_N) + \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} l((x_i, u_i))$$

The states  $\{x_i\}_{i=0}^N$  must satisfy the system dynamics

$$\begin{aligned} x_{i+1} &= g(x_i, u_i) \quad i = 0, \dots, N-1 \\ x_0 &= x(0) \end{aligned}$$

and there may be state and/or input constraints

$$h(x_i, u_i) \leq 0 \quad i = 0, \dots, N-1$$

In the finite horizon case, there may also be a constraint that the final state  $x_N$  lies in a set  $\mathcal{X}_f$ . A general finite horizon optimal control formulation for discrete-time systems is therefore

$$\begin{aligned} J^*(x(0)) &:= \min_U J(x(0), U) \\ \text{subject to } x_{i+1} &= g(x_i, u_i) \quad i = 0, \dots, N-1 \\ h(x_i, u_i) &\leq 0 \quad i = 0, \dots, N-1 \\ x_N &\in \mathcal{X}_f \\ x_0 &= x(0) \end{aligned}$$

2.2.2 Linear Quadratic Optimal Control

In this section, only **linear** discrete-time time-invariant systems

$$x(k+1) = Ax(k) + Bu(k)$$

and quadratic cost functions

$$J(x(0)) := x_N^\top P x_N + \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} (x_i^\top Q x_i + u_i^\top R u_i)$$

are considered, and we consider only the problem of regulating the state to the origin, **without state or input constraints**. The two most common solution approaches will be described here

1. **Batch Approach**, which yields a series of **numerical values** for the input
2. **Recursive Approach**, which uses Dynamic Programming to compute control **policies** or **laws**, i.e. functions that describe how the control decisions depend on the system states.

**2.2.3 Unconstrained Finite Horizon Control Problem**  
**Goal** Find a sequence of inputs  $U := [u_0^T, \dots, u_{N-1}^T]^T$  that minimizes the objective function

$$\begin{aligned} J^*(x(0)) &:= \min_U x_N^\top P x_N + \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} x_i^\top Q x_i + u_i^\top R u_i \\ \text{subject to } x_{i+1} &= Ax_i + Bu_i \quad i = 0, \dots, N-1 \\ x_0 &= x(0) \end{aligned}$$

$P \succeq 0$ , with  $P = P^T$  terminal weight  
 $Q \succeq 0$ , with  $Q = Q^T$  state weight  
 $R \succ 0$ , with  $R = R^T$  input weight  
 $N$  horizon length  
Note that  $x(0)$  is the current state, whereas  $x_0, \dots, x_N$  and  $x_0, \dots, x_{N-1}$  are optimization variables that are constrained to obey the system dynamics and the initial condition.

**2.2.4 Batch Approach**  
The batch solution explicitly represents all future states  $x_i$  in terms of initial condition  $x_0$  and inputs  $u_1, \dots, u_{N-1}$ . Starting with  $x_0 = x(0)$ , we have  $x_1 = Ax(0) + Bu_0$  and  $x_2 = Ax_1 + Bu_1 = A^2x(0) + ABu_0 + Bu_1$ , by substitution for  $x_1$ , and so on. Continuing up to  $x_N$  we obtain:

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{I} \\ A \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ A^N \end{bmatrix} x(0) + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \dots & \dots & 0 \\ B & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ AB & B & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ A^{N-1}B & \dots & AB & B \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_0 \\ u_1 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ u_{N-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

The equation above can be represented as  
 $X := S^x x(0) + S^u U$   
**Cost**  
 $\bar{Q} := \text{blockdiag}(Q, \dots, Q, P)$   
 $\bar{R} := \text{blockdiag}(R, \dots, R)$   
**Summary**  
The Batch Approach expresses the cost function in terms of the initial state  $x(0)$  and input sequence  $U$  by eliminating the states  $x_i$ . Because the cost  $J(x(0), U)$  is a positive definite quadratic function of  $U$ , its minimizer  $U^*$  is unique and can be found by setting  $\nabla_U J(x(0), U) = 0$ . This gives the optimal input sequence  $U^*$  as a linear function of the initial state  $x(0)$ .  
**Optimal Input**

$$U^*(x(0)) = - \underbrace{((S^u)^\top \bar{Q} S^u + \bar{R})}_{H(\text{Hessian})^{-1}} \underbrace{(S^u)^\top \bar{Q} S^x}_{F^\top} x(0)$$

**Optimal Cost**

$J^*(x(0)) = x(0)^\top (S_x^\top \bar{Q} S_x - S_x^\top \bar{Q} S_u (S_u^\top \bar{Q} S_u + \bar{R})^{-1} S_u^\top \bar{Q} S_x) x(0)$   
**Note** If there are state or input constraints, solving this problem by matrix inversion is not guaranteed to result in a feasible input sequence

**2.2.5 Recursive Approach**  
Alternatively, we can use dynamic programming to solve the same problem in a recursive manner. Define the  $j$ -step optimal cost-to-go as the optimal cost attainable for the step  $j$  problem:

$$\begin{aligned} J_j^*(x(j)) &:= \min_{U_{j \rightarrow N}} x_N^\top P x_N + \sum_{i=j}^{N-1} x_i^\top Q x_i + u_i^\top R u_i \\ \text{subject to } x_{i+1} &= Ax_i + Bu_i \quad i = 0, \dots, N-1 \\ x_j &= x(j) \end{aligned}$$

This is the minimum cost attainable for the remainder of the horizon after step  $j$ . Start at time  $N-1$ . Iterate backwards  
**Optimal Control Policy**

$$u_i^* = -(B^\top P_{i+1} B + R)^{-1} B^\top P_{i+1} A \cdot x(i) := F_i x_i$$

**Optimal Cost-To-Go**

$$J_i^*(x_i) = x_i^\top P_i x_i$$

**Riccati Difference Equation (RDE)**

$$P_i = A^\top P_{i+1} A + Q - A^\top P_{i+1} B (B^\top P_{i+1} B + R)^{-1} B^\top P_{i+1} A$$

Find any  $P_i$  by recursive evaluation from  $P_N = P$  (the given terminal weight). Evaluating down to  $P_0$ , we obtain the  $N$ -step cost-to-go

$$J^*(x(0)) = J_0^*(x(0)) = x(0)^\top P_0 x(0)$$

The recursive solution method used from here relies on Bellman's **Principle of Optimality**. For any solution for steps 0 to  $N$  to be optimal, any solution for steps  $j$  to  $N$  with  $j \geq 0$ , taken from the 0 to  $N$  solution, must itself be optimal for the  $j$ -to- $N$  problem. Therefore we have, for any  $j = 0, \dots, N$

$$\begin{aligned} J_j^*(x_j) &= \min_{u_j} I(x_i, u_i) + J_{j+1}^*(x_{j+1}) \\ \text{subject to } x_{j+1} &= Ax_j + Bu_j \end{aligned}$$

**Interpretation**

Suppose that the fastest route from Los Angeles to Boston passes through Chicago. Then the principle of optimality formalizes the obvious fact that the Chicago to Boston portion of the route is also the fastest route for a trip that starts from Chicago and ends in Boston.

**2.2.6 Comparison of Batch and Recursive Approaches**  
- Fundamental difference: Batch optimization returns a sequence  $U^*(x(0))$  of **numeric values** depending only on the initial state  $x(0)$ , while dynamic programming yields **feedback policies**  $u_i^* = F_i x_i, i = 0, \dots, N-1$  depending on each  $x_i$ .  
- If the state evolves exactly as modelled, then the sequences of control actions obtained from the two approaches are identical.  
- The recursive solution should be more robust to disturbances and model errors, because if the future states later deviate from

their predicted values, the exact optimal input can still be computed.

- The Recursive Approach is computationally more attractive because it breaks the problem down into single-step problems. For large horizon length, the Hessian  $H$  in the Batch Approach, which must be inverted, becomes very large.
- Without any modification, both solution methods will break down when inequality constraints on  $x_i$  or  $u_i$  are added.
- The Batch Approach is far easier to adapt than the Recursive Approach when constraints are present: just perform a constrained minimization for the current state.

2.3 Receding Horizon

Receding horizon strategy introduces feedback. For unconstrained systems, this is a **constant linear controller**. However, can extend this concept to much more complex systems (MPC)

2.4 Infinite Horizon LQR

2.4.1 Infinite Horizon Control Problem

2.4.2 Stability of Infinite Horizon LQR

2.4.3 Choices of Terminal Weight P in Finite Horizon Control

2.4.4 Choices of Terminal Weight P in Finite Horizon Control

**Goal** Control law to minimize relative *energy* of input and state/output

- Why?**
- Easy to describe objective / tune controller
  - Simple to compute and implement
  - Proven and effective
- Why infinite-horizon?**
- Stable
  - Optimal solution (doesn't usually matter)
- In MPC we normally cannot have an infinite horizon because it results in an infinite number of optimization variables. Use *tricks* to *simulate* quasi-infinite horizon.

3 Optimization

3.1 Learning Objectives

- Learn to 'read' and define optimization problems
- Understand property of convexity of sets and functions
- Understand benefit of convex optimization problems
- Learn and contrast properties of LPs and QPs
- Pose the dual problem to a given primal optimization problem
- Test optimality of a primal and dual solution by means of KKT conditions
- Understand meaning of dual solution for the cost function

3.2 Main Concepts

A mathematical optimization problem is generally formulated as:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{x \in \text{dom}(f)} & f(x) \\ \text{s.t. } & g_i(x) \leq 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, m \\ & h_i(x) = 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, p \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

- $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  decision variable
- $f : \text{dom}(f) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  objective function
- $\mathcal{X} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : g(\xi) \leq 0, h(\xi) = 0\}$  feasible set

3.3 Convex Sets

**Definition 1** (Convex Set). A set  $\mathcal{C}$  is convex if and only if

$$\theta x + (1 - \theta)y \in \mathcal{C} \forall x, y \in \mathcal{C}, \quad \forall \theta \in [0, 1]$$

(hyperplane || half-space)  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid a^\top x (=|\leq) b\}$

polyhedra  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid A^q \times^n x \preceq b^q \times 1, C^r \times^n x = d^r \times 1\}$   
 polytope

**Intersection**  $C_1, C_2$  cv  $\Rightarrow C_1 \cap C_2$  convex (**cv**)

**Image under affine map**  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  cv  $\Rightarrow \{Ax + b \mid x \in C\}$  cv

**Inverse loaM**  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$  cv  $\Rightarrow \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid Ax + b \in C\}$  cv

### 3.4 Convex Functions

**Check Convexity**  $f$  is convex if it is composition of simple convex function with convexity preserving operations or if  
 $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  twice differentiable,  $\partial^2 f / \partial x^2 \succeq 0 \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$   
 $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with  $g(t) = f(x + tv)$  convex in  $t \forall x, v \in \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow f$  convex (restriction to a line)

#### 3.4.1 Operations that preserve convexity (functions)

- the point wise maximum of convex functions is convex

- the sum of convex functions is convex

-  $f(Ax + b)$  is convex if  $f$  is convex

### 3.5 Convex Optimization Problems

Optimal value  $f^* = \inf\{f(x) \mid g_i(x) \leq 0, h_j = 0\}$   
 $f^* = +\infty$  OP is infeasible,  $f^* = -\infty$  OP is unbound below

#### 3.5.1 Linear Programming

minimize  $c^\top x$  s.t.  $Ax - b \geq 0, x \geq 0$

Step 1:  $\mathcal{L}(x, \lambda_1, \lambda_2) = c^\top x - \lambda_1^\top (Ax - b) - \lambda_2^\top x, \lambda_i \geq 0$

Step 2:  $\inf_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \mathcal{L} = \lambda_1^\top b$ , if  $c - A^\top \lambda_1 - \lambda_2 = 0$ , else  $-\infty$

Step 3: Dual, maximize  $b^\top \lambda$  s.t.  $c - A^\top \lambda \geq 0, \lambda \geq 0$  (again LP)

#### 3.5.2 Quadratic Programming

### 3.6 Optimality Conditions

$$\text{We consider } f^* = \inf_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x) \text{ s.t. } g(x) \leq 0, h(x) = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{Lagrange} & \mathcal{L}(x, \lambda, \nu) = f(x) + \lambda^\top g(x) + \nu^\top h(x) \\ \text{Dual Function} & d(\lambda, \nu) = \inf_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \mathcal{L}(x, \lambda, \nu) \end{array}$$

#### 3.6.1 Weak and Strong Duality

**Proposition 1** (Weak Duality).  $d(\lambda, \nu) \leq f^*, \forall \lambda \geq 0, \nu \in \mathbb{R}^h$

**Definition 2** (Constraint qualification).  $C$  convex, **Slaters Condition** holds if  $\exists \hat{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  s.t.  $h(\hat{x}) = 0$  and  $g(\hat{x}) < 0$

**Proposition 2** (Strong Duality). If Slater's condition holds and (4) is convex  $\Rightarrow \exists \lambda \geq 0, \nu \in \mathbb{R}^{n_h}$  s.t.  $d(\lambda, \nu) = f^*$

#### 3.6.2 KKT (Karush-Kuhn-Tucker) Conditions

**Theorem 1** (KKT Conditions). Slater's condition holds and (4) is convex  $\rightarrow x^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a minimizer of the primal (4) and  $(\lambda^* \geq 0, \nu^*) \in \mathbb{R}^{n_g} \times \mathbb{R}^{n_h}$  is a maximizer of the dual  $\Leftrightarrow$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \nabla_x \mathcal{L}(x^*, \lambda^*, \nu^*) = 0 & \text{KKT-1 (Stationary Lagrangian)} \\ g(x^*) \leq 0, h(x^*) = 0 & \text{KKT-2 (primal feasibility)} \\ \lambda^* \geq 0, \nu^* \in \mathbb{R}^{n_h} & \text{KKT-3 (dual feasibility)} \\ \lambda^{*T} g(x^*) = 0 = \nu^{*T} h(x^*) & \text{KKT-4 (complementary slackness)} \end{array}$$

In addition we have:  $\sup_{\lambda \geq 0, \nu \in \mathbb{R}^{n_h}} q(\lambda, \nu) = \inf_{x \in C} f(x)$   
**Remark** Without Slater, KKT1-4 still implies  $x^*$  minimizes (4) and  $\lambda, \nu$  maximizes dual, but the converse is no longer true. There can be primal-minimizer/dual-maximizer not satisfy KKT.

### 3.7 Summary

- Convex optimization problem:

- Convex cost function

- Convex inequality constraints

- Affine equality constraints

- Benefit of convex problems: Local = Global optimality

- Only need to find one minimum, it is the global minimum!

- For convex optimization problem: If slater condition holds,  $x^*$  optimal iff  $\exists (\lambda^*, \nu^*)$  satisfying KKT conditions - Convex optimization problems can be solved efficiently

- Many problems can be written as convex opt. problems (with some effort)

Note: Duality and optimality conditions similarly extend to Convex Cone Programs

#### 3.7.1 Why did we consider the dual problem?

- The dual problem is convex, even if the primal is not -> can be 'easier' to solve than primal

- The dual problem provides a lower bound for the primal problem:  $d \preceq p$  (and  $d(\lambda, \nu) \leq p(x)$  for all feasible  $x, \lambda, \nu$ ) (provides suboptimality bound)

- The dual provides a certificate of optimality via the KKT conditions for convex problems

- KKT conditions lead to efficient optimization algorithms

- Lagrange multipliers provide information about active constraints at the optimal solution: if  $\lambda_i > 0$ , then  $g_i(x^*) = 0$

- Lagrange multipliers provide information about sensitivity of optima

## 4 Introduction

### 4.1 Exact Solution

$$x(t) = e^{A^c(t-t_0)}x_0 + \int_{t_0}^t e^{A^c(t-\tau)}B^c u(\tau)d\tau$$

### 4.2 Linearization

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}_s &= g(x_s, u_s) = 0 \quad y_s = h(x_s, u_s) \\ \Delta \dot{x} &= \dot{x} - \dot{x}_s = A^c \Delta x + B^c \Delta u \\ \Delta y &= y - y_s = C \Delta x + D \Delta u \\ A^c &= \left. \frac{\partial g}{\partial x^T} \right|_{x_s} B^c = \left. \frac{\partial g}{\partial u^T} \right|_{x_s} C = \left. \frac{\partial h}{\partial x^T} \right|_{x_s} D = \left. \frac{\partial h}{\partial u^T} \right|_{x_s} \end{aligned}$$

### 4.3 Discretization

### 4.4 Lyapunov

### 4.5 Optimal Control

Unconstrained Finite Horizon Control Problem

$$\begin{aligned} J^*(x(0)) &:= \min_U x_N^\top P x_N + \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} x_i^\top Q x_i + u_i^\top R u_i \\ &\text{subject to } x_{i+1} = Ax_i + Bu_i \quad i = 0, \dots, N-1 \\ &\quad x_0 = x(0) \end{aligned}$$

### 4.6 Batch Approach

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{I} \\ A \\ \vdots \\ A^N \end{bmatrix} x(0) + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ B & 0 & 0 \\ AB & B & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & 0 \\ A^{N-1}B & \cdots & B \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_0 \\ u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_{N-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Cost

$$\bar{Q} := \text{blockdiag}(Q, \dots, Q, P)$$

$$\bar{R} := \text{blockdiag}(R, \dots, R)$$

#### Optimal Input

$$U^*(x(0)) = - \underbrace{\left( (S^u)^\top \bar{Q} S^u + \bar{R} \right)}_{H(\text{Hessian})^{-1}} \underbrace{(S^u)^\top \bar{Q} S^x}_{F^\top} x(0)$$

#### Optimal Cost

$$J^*(x(0)) = x(0)^\top (S_x^\top \bar{Q} S_x - S_x^\top \bar{Q} S_u (S_u^\top \bar{Q} S_u + \bar{R})^{-1} S_u^\top \bar{Q} S_x) x(0)$$

### 4.7 Recursive Approach

#### 4.8 Infinite Horizon LQR

## 5 Optimization

A mathematical optimization problem is generally formulated as:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{x \in \text{dom}(f)} \quad & f(x) \\ \text{s.t. } & g_i(x) \leq 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, m \\ & h_i(x) = 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, p \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

-  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  decision variable

-  $f : \text{dom}(f) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  objectivev function

-  $\mathcal{X} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : g(\xi) \leq 0, h(\xi) = 0\}$  fesabile set

### 5.1 Convex Sets

**Definition 3** (Convex Set). A set  $C$  is convex if and only if

$$\theta x + (1 - \theta)y \in C \forall x, y \in C, \quad \forall \theta \in [0, 1]$$

(hyperplane || half-space)  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid a^\top x (=||\leq)b\}$   
 polyhedra  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid A^q \times^n x \preceq b^q \times 1, C^r \times^n x = d^r \times 1\}$   
 polytope

**Intersection**  $C_1, C_2$  cv  $\Rightarrow C_1 \cap C_2$  convex (**cv**)

**Image under affine map**  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  cv  $\Rightarrow \{Ax + b \mid x \in C\}$  cv

**Inverse loaM**  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$  cv  $\Rightarrow \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid Ax + b \in C\}$  cv

### 5.2 Convex Functions

**Check Convexity**  $f$  is convex if it is composition of simple convex function with convexity preserving operations or if  
 $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  twice differentiable,  $\partial^2 f / \partial x^2 \succeq 0 \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$   
 $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with  $g(t) = f(x + tv)$  convex in  $t \forall x, v \in \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow f$  convex (restriction to a line)

#### 5.2.1 Operations that preserve convexity (functions)

- the point wise maximum of convex functions is convex

- the sum of convex functions is convex

-  $f(Ax + b)$  is convex if  $f$  is convex

### 5.3 Convex Optimization Problems

Optimal value  $f^* = \inf\{f(x) \mid g_i(x) \leq 0, h_j = 0\}$   
 $f^* = +\infty$  OP is infeasible,  $f^* = -\infty$  OP is unbound below

#### 5.3.1 Linear Programming

minimize  $c^\top x$  s.t.  $Ax - b \geq 0, x \geq 0$

Step 1:  $\mathcal{L}(x, \lambda_1, \lambda_2) = c^\top x - \lambda_1^\top (Ax - b) - \lambda_2^\top x, \lambda_i \geq 0$

Step 2:  $\inf_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \mathcal{L} = \lambda_1^\top b$ , if  $c - A^\top \lambda_1 - \lambda_2 = 0$ , else  $-\infty$

Step 3: Dual, maximize  $b^\top \lambda$  s.t.  $c - A^\top \lambda \geq 0, \lambda \geq 0$  (again LP)

#### 5.3.2 Quadratic Programming

### 5.4 Optimality Conditions

Lagrange Duality

We consider ...

$$f^* = \inf_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x) \text{ s.t. } g(x) \leq 0, h(x) = 0 \quad (4)$$

Lagrange

$$\mathcal{L}(x, \lambda, \nu) = f(x) + \lambda^\top g(x) + \nu^\top h(x)$$

Dual Function

$$d(\lambda, \nu) = \inf_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \mathcal{L}(x, \lambda, \nu)$$

$$\text{Lagrange} \quad \mathcal{L}(x, \lambda, \nu) = f(x) + \lambda^\top g(x) + \nu^\top h(x)$$

$$\text{Dual Function} \quad d(\lambda, \nu) = \inf_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \mathcal{L}(x, \lambda, \nu)$$

#### 5.4.1 Weak and Strong Duality

**Proposition 3** (Weak Duality).  $d(\lambda, \nu) \leq f^*, \forall \lambda \geq 0, \nu \in \mathbb{R}^h$

**Definition 4** (Constraint qualification).  $C$  convex, **Slaters Condition** holds if  $\exists \hat{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  s.t.  $h(\hat{x}) = 0$  and  $g(\hat{x}) < 0$

**Proposition 4** (Strong Duality). If Slater's condition holds and (4) is convex  $\Rightarrow \exists \lambda \geq 0, \nu \in \mathbb{R}^{n_h}$  s.t.  $d(\lambda, \nu) = f^*$

## KKT Conditions (Karush-Kuhn-Tucker)

**Theorem 2** (KKT Conditions). If Slater's condition holds and (4) is convex  $\rightarrow x^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a minimizer of the primal (4) and  $(\lambda^* \geq 0, \nu^*) \in \mathbb{R}^{n_g} \times \mathbb{R}^{n_h}$  is a maximizer of the dual  $\Leftrightarrow$  is equivalent to the following statements:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{KKT-1 (Stationary Lagrangian)} & \nabla_x \mathcal{L}(x^*, \lambda^*, \nu^*) = 0 \\ \text{KKT-2 (primal feasibility)} & g(x^*) \leq 0, h(x^*) = 0 \\ \text{KKT-3 (dual feasibility)} & \lambda^*, \nu^* \in \mathbb{R}^{n_h} \geq 0 \\ \text{KKT-4 (compementary slackness)} & \lambda^{*T} g(x^*) = 0 \\ & \nu^{*T} h(x^*) = 0 \end{array}$$

In addition we have:  $\sup_{\lambda \geq 0, \nu \in \mathbb{R}^{n_h}} q(\lambda, \nu) = \inf_{x \in C} f(x)$

**Remark** Without Slater, KKT1-4 still implies  $x^*$  minimizes (4) and  $\lambda, \nu$  maximizes dual, but the converse is no longer true. There can be primal-minimizer/dual-maximizer not satisfy KKT.

## 6 Nominal-MPC

### 6.1 Constrained Infinite Time Optimal Control what we would like to solve

$$\begin{aligned} J_\infty^*(x(0)) &= \min_U \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} I(x_i, u_i) \\ \text{s.t. } \quad & x_{i+1} = Ax_i + Bu_i, \quad i = 0, \dots, \infty \\ & x_i \in \mathcal{X}, u_i \in \mathcal{U}, \quad x_0 = x(0) \end{aligned}$$

- Stage cost  $I(x, u)$  *cost* of being in state  $x$  and applying input  $u$

- Optimizing over a trajectory provides a **tradeoff between short- and long-term benefits** of actions

- We'll see that such a control law has many beneficial properties... ... but we can't compute it: there are an **infinite number of variables**

**what we can sometimes solve**

$$\begin{aligned} J^*(x(k)) &= \min_U I_f(x_N) + \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} I(x_i, u_i) \\ \text{s.t. } \quad & x_{i+1} = Ax_i + Bu_i, \quad i = 0, \dots, N-1 \\ & x_i \in \mathcal{X}, u_i \in \mathcal{U}, \mathcal{X}_N \in \mathcal{X}_f, x_0 = x(k) \end{aligned}$$

Truncate after a finite horizon:

•  $I_f(x_N)$ : Approximates the 'tail' of the cost

•  $\mathcal{X}_f$ : Approximates the 'tail' of the constraints

### 6.2 Learning Objectives

- Understand feasible set of constrained finite horizon optimal control (CFTOC) problem

- Write quadratic cost CFTOC as QP

- Write 1-/ $\infty$ -norm cost CFTOC as LP

- Contrast properties of LP and QP solution



6.3 Constrained Linear Optimal Control

Cost Fuction  
Squared Euclidian Norm

J(x(k)) = x\_N^T P x\_N + \sum\_{i=0}^{N-1} x\_i^T Q x\_i + u\_i R u\_i

N is the time horizon and X, U, Xf are polyhedral regions  
Feasible Set  
Set of states for which the optimal control problem is feasible:  
XN = x0 ∈ Rn | ∃(u0, . . . , uN-1) such that xi ∈ X, ui ∈ U, i = 0, . . . , N - 1, xN ∈ Xf, where xi+1 = Axi + Bui  
Note: XN is independent of the cost.

6.4 Constrained Optimal Control: Quadratic cost

6.4.1 Transform Quadratic CFTOC into QP  
Transform CFTOC as defined into QP of the following form:

min\_{z ∈ ℝ^n} 1/2 z^T H z + q^T z + r s.t. G z ≤ h, A z = b

6.4.2 Without Substitution

Idea Keep state equations as equality constraints (often more efficient)

J\*(x(k)) = min\_z [z^T x(k)^T]^T [H 0; 0 Q] [z^T x(k)^T]^T  
s.t. G\_in z ≤ w\_in + E\_in x(k)  
G\_eq z = E\_eq x(k)

Define variable z = [x\_1^T ... x\_N^T u\_0^T ... u\_{N-1}^T]^T  
Equalities from system dynamics x\_{i+1} = A x\_i + B u\_i

G\_eq = [I\_A I\_A ... -B -B ...; -A -A ... 0 0 ...], E\_eq = [A; 0; ...; 0]

Inequalities G\_in z ≤ w\_in + E\_in x(k) for X, U, Xf

X = {x | A\_x x ≤ b\_x}, U = {u | A\_u u ≤ b\_u}, X\_f = {x | A\_f x ≤ b\_f}

G\_in = [0 A\_x A\_x ... A\_f; 0 0 ... 0] w\_in = [b\_x; b\_x; ...; b\_f; b\_u; ...; b\_u] E\_in = [b\_x; b\_x; ...; b\_f; b\_u; ...; b\_u]

6.4.3 Without Substitution

Step 1  
Step 2  
Step 3

6.4.4 Quadratic Cost State Feedback Solution

6.5 Constrained Optimal Control: 1-Norm and ∞-Norm Cost

6.6 Receding Horizon Control Notation

7 Nominal-MPC

CFTOC Constrained Finite Time Optimal Control problem

J(x(k)) = x\_N^T P x\_N + \sum\_{i=0}^{N-1} x\_i^T Q x\_i + u\_i R u\_i

J\*(x(k)) = min\_U I\_f(x\_N) + \sum\_{i=0}^{N-1} I(x\_i, u\_i)

s.t. x\_{i+1} = A x\_i + B u\_i, i = 0, ..., N - 1  
x\_i ∈ X, u\_i ∈ U, X\_N ∈ X\_f, x\_0 = x(k)

N is the time horizon and X, U, Xf are polyhedral regions

8 Practical-MPC

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## 11 Implementation

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