

## 4.1 Control Problems

The simplest control problem takes the form

$$\min_{u(t)} \int_0^T f_0(x(t), u(t)) dt$$

subject to

$$\dot{x} = f_1(x, u), \tag{1}$$

$$x(0) = x_0, \quad x(T) = x_1.$$

The function  $u(t)$  is known as the **control** function, whereas  $x(t)$  is the **state** function since its intended meaning is the description of a dynamical system whose evolution over time is determined by equation (1) from the initial condition  $x(0) = x_0$  and the control  $u$ . Equation (1) is therefore called the **state equation** (or the kinetic equation).

**Remark** The fact that  $x_0$  and  $u(t)$  determine  $x(t)$  uniquely over time is a theorem in the theory of differential equations, given continuity assumptions on  $f_1$ .

**Example** Minimize  $\int_0^1 (x^2 + u^2) dt$

subject to  $\dot{x} = -x + u$

$$x(0) = x_0, \quad x(T) = 0.$$

We shall return to this example after some useful preliminaries.

**Remark** Note the absence of  $\dot{x}$  in  $f_0(x, u)$ .

**4.2 Introducing the Hamiltonian** We can turn the control problem into a constrained optimization problem in the Calculus of Variations provided we see ourselves as selecting a pair  $(x, u)$  in  $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{U}$  where  $\mathcal{X}$  is a vector space of differentiable functions and  $\mathcal{U}$  is a vector space of appropriate control functions. In applications  $\mathcal{U}$  is often - though not always as we see later - a vector space of continuous functions. In this formulation we seek to minimize

$$F(x, u) = \int_0^T f_0(x(t), u(t)) dt$$

subject to the constraint equation

$$G(x, u) \equiv x(t) - x_0 - \int_0^t f_1(x(s), u(s)) ds = 0$$

and  $x(T) = x_1$ . As regards the terminal value specification, it is possible to relax the problem and not demand that the system be driven to a predetermined state. In general, it will not be clear, however, whether the system is ‘controllable’, i.e. can be driven from a given state  $x_0$  to an arbitrary terminal state  $x(T)$ , though we might assume it.

Note that  $G : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{U} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$  where  $\mathcal{Y}$  is again a vector space of continuous functions (if, as we will wish to assume,  $f_1(\cdot, \cdot)$  is continuous). Observe that we have eliminated  $\dot{x}$  by integrating.

The Lagrangian is thus

$$L(x, u, \lambda) = F(x, u) + \lambda^* G(x, u),$$

where  $\lambda^* \in \mathcal{Y}^*$ .

Let us suppose  $\mathcal{Y} = \mathcal{C}[0, T]$  with  $\|x\|_\infty$  norm. Then  $\mathcal{Y}^*$  is the space  $BV[0, T]$  of functions of bounded variation and

$$\lambda^*(y) = \int_0^T y(t) d\alpha(t)$$

for some  $\alpha \in BV[0, T]$ .

We thus have

$$L = \int_0^T f_0(x, u) dt + \int_0^T \left( x(t) - x_0 - \int_0^t f_1(x(s), u(s)) ds \right) d\alpha(t),$$

so, integrating by parts, we get

$$L = \int_0^T f_0(x, u) dt + \left[ \alpha(t) \left\{ x(t) - x_0 - \int_0^t f_1(x(s), u(s)) ds \right\} \right]_0^T - \int_0^T \alpha(t) \{ \dot{x}(t) - f_1(x(t), u(t)) \} dt.$$

$$L = \int_0^T (f_0 + \alpha f_1 - \alpha \dot{x}) dt + \alpha(T) \{ x(T) - x_0 - \int_0^T f_1(x(t), u(t)) dt \}.$$

We can of course select  $\alpha(T) = 0$  and dispose of the last term. Alternatively we may regroup the terms of the equation and, noting that  $x(T) - x(0) = \int_0^T \dot{x} dt$ , consider  $\lambda(t) = \alpha(t) - \alpha(T)$ . In either case the Lagrangian then takes the form:

$$L = \int_0^T (f_0 + \lambda f_1 - \lambda \dot{x}) dt.$$

It is, of course, possible that the control  $u(t)$  employed already ensures that the contents of the braces are equal to zero, in which case we need not have worked so hard. We note that although  $\lambda(T) = 0$ , it is not clear that  $\lambda(t)$  is continuous at  $t = T$ ; it is differentiable in the open interval  $(0, T)$  by the Euler-Lagrange equations. See below (Section 4.3). The integrand here, denoted  $l(x, u, \lambda, \dot{x})$  has a very simple dependence on  $\dot{x}$ . We therefore let

$$\mathcal{H} = f_0 + \lambda f_1$$

and call this the **Hamiltonian**. Remembering that  $l(x, u, \lambda, \dot{x}) = \mathcal{H}(x, u, \lambda) - \lambda \dot{x}$ , we may write the Euler-Lagrange equations in the following form:

$$\frac{d}{dt}(l_{\dot{x}}) = l_x, \quad \text{in other words } \frac{d\lambda}{dt} = -\frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial x}, \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}(l_u) = l_u, \quad \text{which reduces to } 0 = -\frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial u}, \quad (3)$$

and of course we also have:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial \lambda}. \quad (4)$$

Note the remarkable similarity between (2) and (4). The Lagrange multiplier is often called the **dual variable** of  $x$  (as it corresponds to the constraint placed on  $x$ ). It is also called the **co-state** variable and equation (2) is referred to as the co-state equation.

Equation (3) tells us that the Hamiltonian is stationary at the optimal  $x, u, \lambda$  in respect of  $x, u$ . In a later chapter we will see that in fact the Hamiltonian is minimized/maximized, depending on context. We stress that this first order condition is available to us on the assumption that the control variable  $u$  is numerically unrestricted. If for instance  $-1 \leq u(t) \leq 1$  is required, then the Pontryagin theory (see the next chapter) will lead us to check for both internal minima (where  $\frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial u} = 0$ ), and boundary minima  $u = \pm 1$ .

We are now in a position to solve the example of section 4.1. **Example** (of 4.1) Evidently

$$\mathcal{H} = x^2 + u^2 + \lambda(u - x).$$

Thus we have

$$\dot{\lambda} = -\frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial x} = -(2x - \lambda), \quad 0 = \frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial u} = 2u + \lambda,$$

and  $\dot{x} = -x + u$ .

We thus have three equations in three unknowns. Now

$$\dot{\lambda} = -2(\dot{x} + x),$$

so  $\dot{\lambda} = -2(\dot{x} + \ddot{x})$ , hence

$$+2(\dot{x} + \ddot{x}) = 2x + 2(\dot{x} + x), \quad \dot{x} + \ddot{x} = x + \dot{x} + x,$$

i.e.  $\ddot{x} = 2x$ .

Roots of the auxiliary equation  $t^2 - 2 = 0$  are  $t = \pm\sqrt{2}$ , so

$$x(t) = Ae^{t\sqrt{2}} + Be^{-t\sqrt{2}}.$$

But  $x(0) = x_0$  and  $x(T) = 0$ , so we calculate as follows.

$$x_0 = A + B \cdot 0 = Ae^{T\sqrt{2}} + (x_0 - A)e^{-T\sqrt{2}} \cdot 0 = A(e^{T\sqrt{2}} - e^{-T\sqrt{2}}) + x_0 e^{-T\sqrt{2}}$$

$$A = -\frac{x_0 e^{-T\sqrt{2}}}{e^{T\sqrt{2}} - e^{-T\sqrt{2}}}$$

$$B = x_0 \left\{ 1 + \frac{e^{-T\sqrt{2}}}{e^{T\sqrt{2}} - e^{-T\sqrt{2}}} \right\} = x_0 \left\{ \frac{e^{T\sqrt{2}}}{e^{T\sqrt{2}} - e^{-T\sqrt{2}}} \right\}$$

$$x(t) = \frac{x_0}{e^{T\sqrt{2}} - e^{-T\sqrt{2}}} \left\{ e^{T\sqrt{2}} e^{-t\sqrt{2}} - e^{-T\sqrt{2}} e^{t\sqrt{2}} \right\} = \frac{e^{(T-t)\sqrt{2}} - e^{t-T}\sqrt{2}}{e^{T\sqrt{2}} - e^{-T\sqrt{2}}} x_0$$

or

$$x(t) = x_0 \frac{sh(T-t)\sqrt{2}}{sh\sqrt{2}T}, \quad 0 \leq t \leq T.$$

Hence

$$u = \dot{x} + x = \frac{x_0}{sh\sqrt{2}T} \left\{ -\sqrt{2}ch(T-t)\sqrt{2} + sh\sqrt{2}(T-t) \right\}.$$

### 4.3 Discontinuous Lagrange multiplier: an elucidation

We are entitled to assume  $\alpha(T) = 0$  as in the notes. However, what need not be true is that  $\alpha(t)$  is continuous (a fact we are used to in Riemann-Stieltjes integration). In fact:

**Theorem** *The Lagrange multiplier,  $\alpha$ , in the control problem of 4.1 is continuous in  $(0, T)$ . However:*

- (a) if  $x(T)$  specified,  $\alpha$  is discontinuous at  $t = T$ , whereas
- (b) if  $x(T)$  is not specified, then  $\alpha$  is continuous at  $t = T$ .

It follows from this and the Euler-Lagrange equations that  $\alpha(t)$  is differentiable in  $(0, 1)$ . However, the condition  $\alpha(T) = 0$  is only meaningful in case (b). In case (a) the specification of  $x(T)$  will determine the extremal curve and a limiting value of  $\alpha(t)$  as  $t \rightarrow T$  which will be different from 0.

The above result explains why certain exercise problems may at first appear to be over-specified when  $\alpha(T) = 0$  is used to determine constants in the solution of the adjoint equation. In fact the end-point condition can only be applied if the solution of the adjoint equation is continuous at that end-point. Thus in fact the condition  $\alpha(T) = 0$  does not contradict the determination of constants of integration from the initial and terminal conditions of the state function(s). A partial explanation of the Theorem is offered in a following exercise set.

### 4.4 Several variables

In general the state of a dynamical system is described by a vector of state variables  $(x_1(t), \dots, x_n(t))$  and the control problem takes the form

$$\min \int_0^T f_0(\mathbf{x}, u) dt$$

$$s.t. \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \dot{x}_1 = f_1(\mathbf{x}, u) \\ \dot{x}_2 = f_2(\mathbf{x}, u) \\ \dots \\ \dot{x}_n = f_n(\mathbf{x}, u) \end{array} \right\} \text{ i.e. } \dot{\mathbf{x}} = f(\mathbf{x}, u)$$

with  $\mathbf{x}(0)$  and  $\mathbf{x}(T)$  specified.

For that matter the controls available on the dynamical system might well form a vector  $(u_1(t), \dots, u_m(t))$  but we shall refrain from this generalization for now.

**Example** Minimize  $\int_0^T u^2 dt$  subject to  $\ddot{x} = u$  with  $x(0) = x_0$ ,  $x(T) = x_1$  and  $\dot{x}(0)$  also specified.

**Remark** This is a very natural example - the state equation takes the form of Newton's Law of Motion - acceleration equals force.

**Reformulation** We can turn the single equation of second order  $\ddot{x} = u$  into two first order equations by letting  $x_1 = x$  and  $x_2 = \dot{x}$  so that  $\ddot{x} = \dot{x}_2$ . We thus have the equivalence

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \ddot{x} = u \\ \Leftrightarrow \\ \dot{x}_1 = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = u \end{array} \right\}$$

which is in the form considered in the first chapter.

Evidently we can always re-write the constraints in the form

$$G(\mathbf{x}, u) \equiv \left( \dot{x}_1(t) - x_1(0) - \int_0^T f_1(\mathbf{x}, u) dt, \dot{x}_2(t) - x_2(0) - \int_0^T f_2(\mathbf{x}, u) dt \right) = \left( 0, 0 \right)$$

so that  $G$  maps into  $\mathcal{Y} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{X} \times \dots \times \mathcal{X}$  ( $n$  times) and say  $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{C}[0, T]$ , as earlier. We need to determine the dual of  $\mathcal{Y}$ .

**Lemma**  $(\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y})^* = \mathcal{X}^* \oplus \mathcal{Y}^*$  for any normed vector spaces  $\mathcal{X}$  and  $\mathcal{Y}$ .

**Sketch Proof** In the first place we need to remark that  $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$  is the vector space of pairs  $(x, y)$  where

$$\alpha(x_1, y_1) + \beta(x_2, y_2) = (\alpha x_1 + \beta x_2, \alpha y_1 + \beta y_2)$$

and  $\|(x, y)\| = \sqrt{\|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2}$ .

Now if  $H : \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$  is a continuous linear functional then

$$H(x, y) = H((x, 0) + (0, y)) = H(x, 0) + H(0, y).$$

Evidently  $f(x) \equiv H(x, 0)$  is a member of  $\mathcal{X}^*$  and  $g(y) \equiv H(0, y)$  is a member of  $\mathcal{Y}^*$ , hence the result.

Returning to our control problem the Lagrange Multiplier appropriate to  $G(\mathbf{x}, u)$  is thus of the form

$$\lambda^*(\mathbf{y}) = \lambda_1^*(y_1) + \lambda_2^*(y_2) + \dots + \lambda_n^*(y_n)$$

where each  $\lambda_i^*$  is in  $\mathcal{X}^*$ . It is now easy to check that the argument of section 4.2 may be expanded to yield a Hamiltonian

$$H = f_0 + \lambda_1 f_1 + \lambda_2 f_2 + \dots + \lambda_n f_n$$

corresponding to the Lagrangian  $L = \int_0^T l dt$  where

$$l = \mathcal{H} - \lambda_1 \dot{x}_1 - \lambda_2 \dot{x}_2 - \dots - \lambda_n \dot{x}_n.$$

We thus obtain from the Euler-Lagrange equations the following co-state equations

$$\dot{\lambda}_i = -\frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial x_i} \quad (i = 1, 2, \dots, n),$$

as well as the original state equations

$$\dot{x}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial \lambda_i},$$

and the stationarity condition

$$0 = \frac{\partial H}{\partial u}.$$

We now address the example in two variables given at the beginning of this section.

**Example** Extremize  $\int_0^1 u^2 dt$  with  $u$  unconstrained subject to  $\ddot{x} = u$  with  $x(0) = \dot{x}(0) = 1$  ;  $x(1), \dot{x}(1)$  not specified.

**Solution** We put  $x_1 = x, x_2 = \dot{x}$ . Thus

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \dot{x}_2 (= \ddot{x}) &= u, \dot{x}_1 = x_2. \end{aligned} \right\}$$

The Hamiltonian is  $\mathcal{H} = u^2 + \lambda_1 x_2 + \lambda_2 u$  and in the Hamiltonian formulation the Euler-Lagrange equations are:

$$\dot{\lambda}_1 = -\frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial x_1} = 0, \dot{\lambda}_2 = -\frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial x_2} = -\lambda_1.$$

Thus  $\lambda_1 = \text{constant}$  and  $\lambda_2 = -\lambda_1 t + c$ .

To minimize  $\mathcal{H}$  we set

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{H}}{\partial u} = 0.$$

Thus  $2u + \lambda_2 = 0$  i.e.  $u = -\frac{1}{2}\lambda_2$  giving

$$u = -\frac{1}{2}(-\lambda_1 t + c) = \frac{1}{2}(\lambda_1 t - c)$$

i.e. a general linear expression.

We may now integrate up the equation

$$\ddot{x} = \frac{1}{2}(\lambda_1 t - c)$$

yielding a general cubic

$$x(t) = At^3 + Bt^2 + Ct + D.$$

In particular  $t = 0$  gives  $D = 1, \dot{x}(0) = C = 1$ . Hence

$$1 = x(1) = A + B + 2 \quad \text{i.e.} \quad A + B = -1. \quad (1)$$

Since  $\dot{x}(1) = x_2(1)$  is not specified, we apply the continuity condition to  $\lambda_2$  at  $t = 1$  to obtain  $0 = -\lambda_1 + c$ , i.e.  $\ddot{x}(T) = 0$ , so

$$0 = [A3.2t + B2.1.t]_{t=1} \quad \text{i.e.} \quad 2B + 6B = 0. \quad (2)$$

Finally

$$B = \frac{1}{2} \quad A = -\frac{3}{2}.$$