Meta-Learning Linear Quadratic Regulators: A Policy Gradient MAML Approach for Model-free LQR

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Abstract

We investigate the problem of learning linear quadratic regulators (LQR) in a multi-task, heterogeneous, and model-free setting. We characterize the stability and personalization guarantees of a policy gradient-based (PG) model-agnostic meta-learning (MAML) (Finn et al., 2017) approach for the LQR problem under different task-heterogeneity settings. We show that our MAML-LQR algorithm produces a stabilizing controller close to each task-specific optimal controller up to a task-heterogeneity bias in both model-based and model-free learning scenarios. Moreover, in the model-based setting, we show that such a controller is achieved with a linear convergence rate, which improves upon sub-linear rates from existing work. Our theoretical guarantees demonstrate that the learned controller can efficiently *adapt* to unseen LQR tasks.

Keywords: Linear Quadratic Regulator; Model-Agnostic Meta-Learning; Model-free Learning

1. Introduction

One of the main successes of reinforcement learning (RL) (for example, in the context of robotics) is its ability to learn control policies that rapidly adapt to different agents and environments (Wang et al., 2016; Duan et al., 2016; Rothfuss et al., 2018). This idea of learning a control policy that efficiently adapts to unseen RL tasks is referred to as meta-learning, or learning to learn. The most popular approach is the model-agnostic meta-learning (MAML) (Finn et al., 2017, 2019). In the context of RL, the role of MAML is to exploit task diversity of RL tasks drawn from a common task distribution to learn a control policy in a multi-task and heterogeneous setting that is only a few policy gradient (PG) steps away from an unseen task's optimal policy.

Despite its success in image classification and RL, more needs to be understood about the theoretical convergence guarantees of MAML for both model-based and model-free learning. This is due to the fact that, in general, the MAML objective is non-convex and requires a careful analysis depending on the considered task-setting (e.g., classification and regression (Fallah et al., 2020; Johnson and Mitra, 2011; Abbas et al., 2022; Ji et al., 2022; Zhan and Anderson, 2024), RL (Fallah et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2022; Beck et al., 2023)). There is a recent body of work on multi-task/agent learning for estimation (Zhang et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2023; Zhang et al., 2024; Toso et al., 2023a; Chen et al., 2023) and control (Wang et al., 2023b; Tang et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2023c; Toso et al., 2024a), where theoretical guarantees are provided for different learning techniques in a variety of control settings. Therefore, to characterize the personalization guarantees of MAML for a baseline and well-established control setting, we consider the model-free MAML-LQR problem.

In the optimal control domain, a highly desired feature is the fast adaptation of a designed controller to unseen situations during deployment, for example, in the setting where a manufacturer (of e.g., robots or drones) is responsible for designing optimal controllers for individual systems' objectives. Designing such controllers from scratch is sample-inefficient since it requires a large amount of trajectory data and several PG steps. Since manufacturers utilize production lines with the purpose of producing nearly identical systems, a controller should not need to be designed from scratch for every system. As such, the MAML-LQR approach exploits this similarity amongst systems within the same fabrication slot to design an LQR controller that *adapts* to fresh new slots of systems. This significantly reduces the amount of trajectory data required since it relies now on a simple fine-tuning step of the learned MAML-LQR controller to suit each system's objective.

Even for a simple discrete-time control setting, provably guaranteeing that a MAML-LQR approach produces a controller that adapts to unseen LQR tasks is not an easy endeavor and requires careful handling of the task heterogeneity and the stability of the sampled tasks under the learned controller. As well-established in the literature of PG methods for the LQR problem (Fazel et al., 2018; Malik et al., 2019; Gravell et al., 2020; Mohammadi et al., 2019; Hu et al., 2023), some properties of the LQR objective (e.g., gradient dominance and local smoothness) are crucial to derive global convergence guarantees. Although tempting, we cannot simply extend these guarantees to the MAML-LQR approach since those properties of the LQR cost are no longer valid for the meta learning objective (Molybog and Lavaei, 2021; Musavi and Dullerud, 2023).

In contrast to Molybog and Lavaei (2021); Musavi and Dullerud (2023), this work establishes personalization guarantees for the MAML-LQR problem in both model-based and model-free settings. In particular, Molybog and Lavaei (2021) only characterizes the convergence of the *model-based* learning for the *single-task* setting. Here, we consider the multi-task and heterogeneous setting. Musavi and Dullerud (2023) establish convergence to a stationary point (i.e., local convergence analysis). It is not clear in their results how the heterogeneity across the tasks may impact the convergence of the MAML approach and how efficiently the learned controller adapts to unseen tasks. Therefore, in this work, we address these points and provide meaningful personalization guarantees that support the ability of the learned controller to adapt to unseen LQR tasks under different task-heterogeneity settings. It is also worth emphasizing that our MAML-LQR setting is different from the one considered in Richards et al. (2023), where a control-oriented meta-learning approach is proposed to design adaptive control laws for the nonlinear feedback control problem.

Contributions: Toward this end, our main contributions are summarized as follows:

- This is the first work to provide personalization guarantees for both model-based and model-free learning settings (Theorems 12 and 13). Our convergence bounds characterize the distance between the learned and MAML-LQR optimal controller to each task-specific optimal controller and reveal the ultimate goal of the MAML-LQR approach, i.e., the quick adaptation to unseen tasks. In the *model-based* setting, we show that the learned controller is achieved with a linear convergence rate that improves upon sub-linear rates in the existing work.
- This is the first work to establish stability (Theorem 11) and convergence guarantees (Theorem 13) for the MAML-LQR approach in the model-free setting. Our convergence guarantees demonstrate that the learned controller stabilizes and is close to each task-specific optimal controller up to a task-heterogeneity bias. Furthermore, our analysis underscores the impact of different heterogeneity settings (i.e., system heterogeneity, cost heterogeneity, system, and cost heterogeneity) on the convergence of the MAML-LQR.

2. Model Agnostic Meta-Learning (MAML) for the LQR problem

Consider M discrete-time and linear time-invariant (LTI) dynamical systems

$$x_{t+1}^{(i)} = A^{(i)}x_t^{(i)} + B^{(i)}u_t^{(i)}, \quad t = 0, 1, 2, \dots,$$

$$(1)$$

where $A^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x \times n_x}$, $B^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x \times n_u}$, with $n_x \geq n_u$. The initial state of (1) is drawn from an arbitrary distribution \mathcal{X}_0 that satisfies $\mathbb{E}[x_0^{(i)}] = 0$ and $\mathbb{E}[x_0^{(i)}x_0^{(i)\top}] \succ \mu I_{n_x}$, for some $\mu > 0$, for all $i \in [M]$. The objective of the LQR problem is to design an optimal control sequence $u_t^{(i)} := -K_i^{\star} x_t^{(i)}$ that minimizes a quadratic cost in both states $x_t^{(i)}$ and input $u_t^{(i)}$. The optimal controllers K_i^{\star} solve

$$K_i^{\star} := \underset{K \in \mathcal{K}^{(i)}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left\{ J^{(i)}(K) := \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} x_t^{(i)\top} \left(Q^{(i)} + K^{\top} R^{(i)} K\right) x_t^{(i)}\right] \right\}, \text{ s.t } (1), \tag{2}$$

where $Q^{(i)} \in \mathbb{S}^{n_x}_{\succ 0}$, $R^{(i)} \in \mathbb{S}^{n_u}_{\succ 0}$, and $\mathcal{K}^{(i)} := \{K \mid \rho(A^{(i)} - B^{(i)}K) < 1\}$ denotes the set of stabilizing controllers of the i^{th} system, and $\rho(\cdot)$ denotes the spectral radius.

Definition 1 The LQR task is a tuple $\mathcal{T}^{(i)} := (A^{(i)}, B^{(i)}, Q^{(i)}, R^{(i)})$ equipped with the objective of designing K_*^* that minimizes the LQR cost $J^{(i)}(K)$.

Consider a distribution of LQR tasks denoted by $p(\mathcal{T})$ from which a collection of M LQR tasks $\mathcal{T} := \{\mathcal{T}^{(i)}\}_{i=1}^M$ are sampled. The objective of the MAML approach for the LQR problem is to design a controller K_{ML}^\star based only on the tasks in \mathcal{T} that can *efficiently adapt* to any unseen LQR task originating from $p(\mathcal{T})$, i.e., we aim to find a controller that is only a few PG iterations away from any unseen task-specific optimal controller. Precisely, K_{ML}^\star solve

$$K_{\mathrm{ML}}^{\star} := \underset{K \in \bar{\mathcal{K}}}{\mathrm{argmin}} \left\{ J_{\mathrm{ML}}(K) := \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} J^{(i)} \underbrace{\left(K - \eta_{l} \nabla J^{(i)}(K)\right)}_{\text{single-step PG}} \right\}, \text{ s.t (1) } \forall i \in [M], \quad (3)$$

where $\bar{\mathcal{K}} := \bigcap_{i \in [M]} \mathcal{K}^{(i)}$ is the MAML stabilizing set and η_l denotes some positive step-size. To solve (3), we exploit a PG-based approach where the update rule is described as follows:

$$K \leftarrow K - \eta \nabla J_{\text{ML}}(K), \text{ where } \nabla J_{\text{ML}}(K) := \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} H^{(i)}(K) \nabla J^{(i)}(K - \eta_l \nabla J^{(i)}(K)),$$
 (4)

with $H^{(i)}(K) := I_{n_u} - \eta_l \nabla^2 J^{(i)}(K)$, and η being some positive (possibly time-varying) step-size. Next, we define the task-specific and MAML stabilizing sub-level sets.

Definition 2 (Stabilizing sub-level set) The task-specific and MAML stabilizing sub-level sets are defined as follows:

^{1.} The expectation is with respect to $x_0^{(i)} \sim \mathcal{X}_0$.

^{2.} This assumption is standard in PG methods for the LQR problem (Fazel et al., 2018; Malik et al., 2019). It guarantees that all stationary solutions are global optima.

• Given a task $\mathcal{T}^{(i)}$, the task-specific sub-level set $\mathcal{S}^{(i)} \subseteq \mathcal{K}^{(i)}$ is

$$\mathcal{S}^{(i)} := \left\{ K \mid J^{(i)}(K) - J^{(i)}(K_i^{\star}) \leq \gamma_i \Delta_0^{(i)} \right\}, \text{ with } \Delta_0^{(i)} = J^{(i)}(K_0) - J^{(i)}(K_i^{\star}).$$

where K_0 denotes an initial controller and γ_i being any positive constant.

• The MAML-LQR stabilizing sub-level set $S_{ML} \subseteq \bar{\mathcal{K}}$ is defined as the intersection between each task-specific stabilizing sub-level set, i.e., $S_{ML} := \bigcap_{i \in [M]} S^{(i)}$.

Remark 3 Observe that, if $K \in S_{ML}$, i.e., K stabilizes all LQR tasks in \mathcal{T} , one may select a stepsize η_l , such that $\bar{K} = K - \eta_l \nabla J^{(i)}(K)$ also stabilizes all the LQR tasks in \mathcal{T} , i.e., $\bar{K} \in S_{ML}$. We prove this fact and provide the condition on η_l to satisfy it in the stability analysis in Theorem 10.

Assumption 1 We have access to an initial stabilizing controller $K_0 \in \mathcal{S}_{ML}$.

Remark 4 The above assumption is standard in PG methods for the LQR problem (Fazel et al., 2018; Gravell et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2023b; Toso et al., 2023b). If the initial controller K_0 fails to stabilize (1), $\forall i \in [M]$, the MAML-LQR update in (4) cannot produce a stabilizing controller, since $\nabla J^{(i)}(K_0)$, $\nabla^2 J^{(i)}(K_0)$ are both undefined for the corresponding unstabilized tasks. Perdomo et al. (2021) and Ozaslan et al. (2022) detail how to find an initial stabilizing controller for the single LQR instance. Moreover, it is worth emphasizing that although K_0 stabilizes (1), $\forall i \in [M]$, it may provide a sub-optimal performance, i.e., $J^{(i)}(K_0) \geq J^{(i)}(K_i^*)$.

As well-established in the literature of PG-LQR, $J^{(i)}(K)$ is, in general, non-convex with respect to K. However, by leveraging some properties of the LQR cost (e.g., gradient domination and local smoothness), Fazel et al. (2018) provide global convergence guarantees of PG methods for both model-based and model-free LQR settings. Although tempting, these properties of the LQR cost cannot simply be extended to the MAML-LQR objective when dealing with task heterogeneity as discussed in Molybog and Lavaei (2021).

In the sequel, we proceed as follows: We first provide conditions on the problem parameters to ensure that given any stabilizing controller $K \in \mathcal{S}_{ML}$, $K - \eta \nabla J_{ML}(K)$ is also MAML stabilizing, i.e., $K - \eta \nabla J_{ML}(K) \in \mathcal{S}_{ML}$. In contrast to Musavi and Dullerud (2023), which guarantees that a model-based MAML-LQR approach finds a stationary solution, we derive global convergence bounds for model-based and model-free learning. In particular, our convergence guarantees underscore the impact of different task-heterogeneity settings on the closeness of the learned controller and each task-specific optimal controller and demonstrate its adaptation to unseen tasks.

2.1. Model-based LQR

In the model-based LQR setting, we assume to have access to the tuple $\mathcal{T}^{(i)} = (A^{(i)}, B^{(i)}, Q^{(i)}, R^{(i)})$. With the ground-truth model in hand, we have closed-form expressions to compute both gradient $\nabla J^{(i)}(K)$ and Hessian $\nabla^2 J^{(i)}(K)$ of the LQR cost:

• Gradient of the LQR cost $\nabla J^{(i)}(K)$ (Fazel et al., 2018): Given $\mathcal{T}^{(i)}$ and a stabilizing controller $K \in \mathcal{S}_{\mathrm{ML}}$, the gradient is given by $\nabla J^{(i)}(K) := 2E_K^{(i)}\Sigma_K^{(i)}$, where

$$E_K^{(i)} := R^{(i)}K - B^{(i)\top}P_K^{(i)}(A^{(i)} - B^{(i)}K), \quad \text{and} \quad \Sigma_K^{(i)} := \mathbb{E}\sum_{t=0}^\infty x_t^{(i)}x_t^{(i)\top},$$

with $x_t^{(i)}$ subject to the system dynamics in (1), and $P_K^{(i)} \in \mathbb{S}_{\succ 0}^{n_x}$ denoting the solution of the Lyapunov equation $P_K^{(i)} := Q^{(i)} + K^\top R^{(i)}K + (A^{(i)} - B^{(i)}K)^\top P_K^{(i)}(A^{(i)} - B^{(i)}K)$.

• Hessian of the LQR cost $\nabla^2 J^{(i)}(K)$ (Bu et al., 2019): Given $\mathcal{T}^{(i)}$ and a stabilizing controller $K \in \mathcal{S}_{ML}$, the Hessian operator at K acting on some $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n_u \times n_x}$, is given by

$$\begin{split} \nabla^2 J^{(i)}(K)[X] &:= 2 \left(R^{(i)} + B^{(i)\top} P_K^{(i)} B^{(i)} \right) X \Sigma_K^{(i)} - 4 B^{(i)\top} \tilde{P}_K^{(i)}[X] (A^{(i)} - B^{(i)}K) \Sigma_K^{(i)}, \\ & \text{with } \tilde{P}_K^{(i)}[X] := (A^{(i)} - B^{(i)}K)^\top \tilde{P}_K^{(i)}[X] (A^{(i)} - B^{(i)}K) + X^\top E_K^{(i)} + E_K^{(i)\top}X. \end{split}$$

Hence, we can exploit these closed-form expressions in order to update the controller (see step 4 in MAM1-LQR, Algorithm 1) for the model-based MAML-LQR. In step 4, our algorithm computes a one-step inner gradient descent iteration on K_n and $H^{(i)}(K_n) = I_{n_u} - \eta \nabla^2 J^{(i)}(K_n)$, for each task $i \in [M]$ and iteration n. These quantities are then used to update the controller K_{n+1} in step 6. By repeating these steps for N iterations, Algorithm 1 returns K_N . We further prove that K_N is close to each task-specific optimal controller K_i^* , which in turn is proved to be close to the MAML-LQR optimal controller K_{MI}^* . To demonstrate this, we revisit some properties of the LQR cost function.

Lemma 5 (Uniform bounds) Given $\mathcal{T}^{(i)}$ and a stabilizing controller $K \in \mathcal{S}_{ML}$, the gradient $\nabla J^{(i)}(K)$, Hessian $\nabla^2 J^{(i)}(K)$, and controller K are bounded as follows:

$$\|\nabla J^{(i)}(K)\|_F \le h_G(K), \quad \|\nabla^2 J^{(i)}(K)\|_F \le h_H(K), \quad and \quad \|K\|_F \le h_c(K),$$

where $h_G(K)$, $h_H(K)$, and $h_c(K)$ are functions of the problem parameters.

Lemma 6 (Local smoothness) Given $\mathcal{T}^{(i)}$ and two stabilizing controllers $K, K' \in \mathcal{S}_{ML}$ such that $\|\Delta\| := \|K' - K\| \le h_{\Delta}(K) < \infty$. The LQR cost, gradient and Hessian satisfy:

$$\begin{split} &\left|J^{(i)}\left(K'\right) - J^{(i)}(K)\right| \leq h_{cost}(K)J^{(i)}(K)\|\Delta\|_{F}, \\ &\left\|\nabla J^{(i)}\left(K'\right) - \nabla J^{(i)}(K)\right\|_{F} \leq h_{grad}(K)\|\Delta\|_{F}, \\ &\left\|\nabla^{2}J^{(i)}\left(K'\right) - \nabla^{2}J^{(i)}(K)\right\|_{F} \leq h_{hess}\left(K\right)\|\Delta\|_{F} \end{split}$$

where $h_{\Delta}(K)$, $h_{cost}(K)$, $h_{hess}(K)$ and $h_{grad}(K)$ are functions of the problem parameters.

Lemma 7 (Gradient Domination) Given $\mathcal{T}^{(i)}$ and a stabilizing controller $K \in \mathcal{S}_{ML}$. Let K_i^{\star} be the optimal controller of task $\mathcal{T}^{(i)}$. Then, it holds that

$$J^{(i)}(K) - J^{(i)}(K_i^*) \le \frac{1}{\lambda_i} \|\nabla J^{(i)}(K)\|_F^2$$

where $\lambda_i := 4\mu^2 \sigma_{\min}(R^{(i)}) / \|\Sigma_{K_{\cdot}^*}\|$.

The uniform bounds of $\|\nabla J^{(i)}(K)\|_F$ and $\|K\|_F$, and the gradient domination property are proved in Fazel et al. (2018); Wang et al. (2023a). The uniform bound of $\|\nabla^2 J^{(i)}(K)\|_F$ can be found in (Bu et al., 2019, Lemma 7.9). In addition, the proofs for the local smoothness of the cost and gradient are detailed in (Wang et al., 2023b, Appendix F), the local smoothness of the Hessian is proved in (Musavi and Dullerud, 2023, Appendix B). The explicit expressions of $h_G(K)$, $h_c(K)$, $h_H(K)$, $h_{\Delta}(K)$, $h_{\text{cost}}(K)$, and $h_{\text{grad}}(K)$ are given in our technical report Toso et al. (2024b). Throughout the paper, we use $\bar{h} := \sup_{K \in \mathcal{S}_{\text{ML}}} h(K)$ and $\underline{h} := \inf_{K \in \mathcal{S}_{\text{ML}}} h(K)$ to denote the supremum and infimum of a function h(K) over the set of stabilizing controllers \mathcal{S}_{ML} .

Algorithm 1 MAML-LQR: Model-Agnostic Meta-Learning for LQR tasks (Model-based)

```
1: Input: initial stabilizing controller K_0, inner and outer step-sizes \eta_l, \eta

2: for n=0,\ldots,N-1 do

3: for each task i\in[M] in \mathcal{T} compute

4: \bar{K}_n^{(i)}=K_n-\eta_l\nabla J^{(i)}(K_n), and H^{(i)}(K_n)=I_{n_u}-\eta_l\nabla^2 J^{(i)}(K_n)

5: end for

6: K_{n+1}=K_n-\frac{\eta}{M}\sum_{i=1}^M H^{(i)}(K_n)\nabla J^{(i)}(\bar{K}_n^{(i)})

7: end for

8: Output: K_N
```

2.2. Task Heterogeneity

In contrast to Musavi and Dullerud (2023), we consider the MAML-LQR problem in a variety of heterogeneity settings. Our goal is to determine precisely how task heterogeneity impacts convergence of MAML-LQR – in model-based setting (Algorithm 1) and the *model-free setting* (described later). We consider a task-heterogeneity setting characterized by the combination of system and cost heterogeneity. That is, we assume that there exist positive scalars ϵ_1 , ϵ_2 , ϵ_3 and ϵ_4 , such that

$$\max_{i \neq j} \|A^{(i)} - A^{(j)}\| \le \epsilon_1, \max_{i \neq j} \|B^{(i)} - B^{(j)}\| \le \epsilon_2, \max_{i \neq j} \|Q^{(i)} - Q^{(j)}\| \le \epsilon_3, \max_{i \neq j} \|R^{(i)} - R^{(j)}\| \le \epsilon_4.$$

Observe that this setting spans three different types of task heterogeneity: 1) system heterogeneity, with $\epsilon_3=\epsilon_4=0$, i.e., $Q^{(i)}=Q$, $R^{(i)}=R$, $\forall i\in[M]$. 2) cost heterogeneity, with $\epsilon_1=\epsilon_2=0$, i.e., $A^{(i)}=A$, $B^{(i)}=B$, $\forall i\in[M]$. 3) system and cost heterogeneity, where ϵ_1 , ϵ_2 , ϵ_3 and ϵ_4 are non-zero. Next, we bound the norm of the gradient difference between two distinct tasks.

Lemma 8 (Gradient heterogeneity) For any two distinct LQR tasks $\mathcal{T}^{(i)}$ and $\mathcal{T}^{(j)}$, and stabilizing controller $K \in \mathcal{S}_{ML}$. It holds that,

$$\|\nabla J^{(i)}(K) - \nabla J^{(i)}(K)\| \le f_z(\bar{\epsilon}) := \epsilon_1 h_{het}^1(K) + \epsilon_2 h_{het}^2(K) + \epsilon_3 h_{het}^3(K) + \epsilon_4 h_{het}^4(K),$$
 (5)

for any $i \neq j \in [M]$, where $z \in \{1, 2, 3\}$, \bar{s} and $\bar{\epsilon} = \{\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \epsilon_3, \epsilon_4\}$, where $h^1_{het}(K), h^2_{het}(K), h^3_{het}(K)$, and $h^4_{het}(K)$ are positive polynomials that depend on the problem parameters.

The proof and explicit expressions of $h^1_{\text{het}}(K), h^2_{\text{het}}(K), h^3_{\text{het}}(K)$, and $h^4_{\text{het}}(K)$, are detailed in Toso et al. (2024b). We observe that as long as the heterogeneity level $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \epsilon_3, \epsilon_4$ is small, the gradient descent direction of task $\mathcal{T}^{(i)}$ (4) is close to the one of task $\mathcal{T}^{(j)}$. Moreover, by combining (5) along with the uniform bound of the Hessian (Lemma 5), we observe that $\nabla J_{\text{ML}}(K)$ is also close to $\nabla J^{(i)}(K)$. This is a crucial step we use in our stability and convergence analysis for both model-based and model-free settings.

2.3. Model-free LQR

We now consider the setting where the tuple $\mathcal{T}^{(i)} = (A^{(i)}, B^{(i)}, Q^{(i)}, R^{(i)})$ is unknown. Therefore, computing the gradient and Hessian through closed-form expressions is no longer possible. This forces us to resort to methods that approximate such quantities. Following numerous work in the literature of model-free PG-LQR (Fazel et al., 2018; Malik et al., 2019; Gravell et al., 2020; Mohammadi et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2023b), we focus on zeroth-order methods to estimate the

^{3.} z=1 refers to the system heterogeneity, z=2 to cost heterogeneity and z=3 to system and cost heterogeneity.

gradient and Hessian of the LQR cost. In particular, we consider a two-point estimation scheme since it has a lower estimation variance compared to its one-point counterpart (Malik et al., 2019).

Zeroth-order methods with two-point estimation solely rely on querying cost values at symmetric perturbed controllers to construct a biased estimation of both the gradient and Hessian. In particular, zeroth-order estimation is a Gaussian smoothing approach (Nesteroy and Spokoiny, 2017) based on Stein's identity (Stein, 1972) that relates gradient and Hessian to cost queries.

Algorithm 2 ZO2P: Zeroth-order with two-point estimation

- 1: **Input:** controller K, number of samples m and smoothing radius r,
- 2: **for** l = 1, ..., m **do**
- Sample controllers $K_l^1=K+U_l$ and $K_l^2=K-U_l$, where U_l is drawn uniformly at random over matrices with Frobenius norm r. A cost oracle provides $J(K^1)$, $J(K^2)$ and J(K)
- 4: end for
- $$\begin{split} \widehat{\nabla}J(K) &= \frac{n_x n_u}{2r^2 m} \sum_{l=1}^m (J(K_l^1) J(K_l^2)) U_l \\ \widehat{\nabla}^2 J(K) &= \frac{n_u^2}{r^2 m} \sum_{l=1}^m (J(K_l^1) J(K)) (U_l U_l^\top I_{n_u}) \end{split}$$
- 7: **Return** $\widehat{\nabla} J(K)$, $\widehat{\nabla}^2 J(K)$

Algorithm 2 describes the zeroth-order estimation of the gradient and Hessian of the LQR cost. First, a pair of symmetric perturbations to the controller K are sampled according to $K^1 = K + U$, $K^2 = K - U$ where $U \sim \mathbb{S}_r$. Here \mathbb{S}_r denotes a distribution of $n_u \times n_x$ real matrices with $||U||_F = r$, where r is the smoothing radius. The gradient is estimated via the first-order Gaussian Stein's identity, $\mathbb{E}\left[\nabla J^{(i)}(K)\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{n_x n_u}{2r^2}(J^{(i)}(K^1) - J^{(i)}(K^2))U\right]$ (Mohammadi et al., 2020), and the Hessiaty sian with its second-order counterpart, $\mathbb{E}\left[\nabla^2 J^{(i)}(K)\right] = \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{n_u^2}{r^2}(J^{(i)}(K^1) - J^{(i)}(K))(UU^\top - I_{n_u})\right]$, (Balasubramanian and Ghadimi, 2022), both with m samples.

Remark 9 (Cost oracle) For simplicity, we assume that the true cost is provided by an oracle, as in Malik et al. (2019); Toso et al. (2023b). We emphasize that our work can be readily extended to the setting where only a finite-horizon approximation of the cost is available. That is the case since any finite-horizon approximation of the true cost is upper-bounded by its true value, with the approximation error controlled by the horizon length (Gravell et al., 2020, Appendix B).

With the gradient and Hessian zeroth-order estimators in hand, Algorithm 3 follows the same structure as Algorithm 1. The key differences are steps 4 and 7 where the gradient and Hessian computations are replaced by a zeroth-order estimation. Despite the estimation error in the zerothorder method, we show that this error can be controlled so it does not impact the convergence of our MAML-LQR approach for both model-based and model-free settings.

3. Theoretical Guarantees

We now provide the theoretical guarantees for the stability and convergence of the MAML-LQR for both model-based and model-free settings, i.e., Algorithms 1 and 3.

3.1. Stability Analysis

The objective of the stability analysis is to provide the conditions on the step-sizes η_l , η , heterogeneity $f_z(\bar{\epsilon})$, and zeroth-order estimation parameters m and r, such that for every iteration of Algorithms 1 and 3, the currently obtained controller is MAML stabilizing, i.e., $K_n \in \mathcal{S}_{ML}$, $\forall n$.

Algorithm 3 MAML-LQR: Model-Agnostic Meta-Learning for LQR tasks (Model-free)

- 1: **Input:** initial stabilizing controller K_0 , inner and outer step-sizes η_l , η , smoothing radius r, number of samples m.
- 2: **for** n = 0, ..., N-1 **do**
- for each task $i \in [M]$ in \mathcal{T} compute

4:
$$\left[\widehat{\nabla}J^{(i)}(K_n),\widehat{\nabla}^2J^{(i)}(K_n)\right] = \mathrm{ZO2P}(K_n,m,r)$$

5:
$$\widehat{K}_{n}^{(i)} = K_{n} - \eta_{l} \widehat{\nabla} J^{(i)}(K_{n}), \text{ and } \widehat{H}^{(i)}(K_{n}) = I_{n_{u}} - \eta_{l} \widehat{\nabla}^{2} J^{(i)}(K_{n})$$

6:

7:
$$\widehat{\nabla} J^{(i)}(\widehat{K}_n^{(i)}) = \text{ZO2P}(\widehat{K}_n^{(i)}, m, r), K_{n+1} = K_n - \frac{\eta}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \widehat{H}^{(i)}(K_n) \widehat{\nabla} J^{(i)}(\widehat{K}_n^{(i)})$$

- 8: end for
- 9: Output: K_N

Theorem 10 (Model-based) Given an initial stabilizing controller $K_0 \in \mathcal{S}_{ML}$, suppose that the step-sizes and heterogeneity satisfy $\eta_l \leq \min \left\{ \frac{n_u}{\sqrt{2}h_H}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\bar{h}_{grad}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{12(12\bar{h}_{grad}^2 n_u^2 + \bar{h}_H^2)}} \right\}, \ \eta \leq \frac{1}{4\bar{h}_{grad}} \ and$ $\bar{f}_z(\bar{\epsilon}) \leq \sqrt{\min_i \frac{\lambda_i \Delta_0^{(i)}}{288n_u^3}}$, respectively. Then, $\bar{K}_n^{(i)}$, $K_n \in \mathcal{S}_{ML}$, for every iteration of Algorithm 1.

Theorem 11 (Model-free) Given an initial stabilizing controller $K_0 \in \mathcal{S}_{ML}$ and scalar $\delta \in (0,1)$, suppose that the step-sizes satisfy $\eta_l \leq \min \left\{ \frac{1}{\bar{h}_G}, \frac{n_u}{\bar{h}_H}, \frac{1}{\bar{h}_{grad}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{20(12\bar{h}_{omd}^2 n_u^2 + \bar{h}_H^2)}}, \frac{1}{2} \right\}, \eta \leq \frac{1}{8\bar{h}_{grad}}$. In addition, the heterogeneity, smoothing radius and number of samples satisfy $\bar{f}_z(\bar{\epsilon}) \leq \sqrt{\min_i \frac{\lambda_i \Delta_0^{(i)}}{480n_n^3}}$, $r \leq \min\left\{\underline{h}_r^1\left(\frac{\sqrt{\psi^{(i)}}}{2}\right), \underline{h}_r^2\left(\frac{\sqrt{\psi^{(i)}}}{2}\right)\right\}$, and $m \geq \max\left\{\overline{h}_m^1\left(\frac{\sqrt{\psi^{(i)}}}{2}, \delta\right), \overline{h}_m^2\left(\frac{\sqrt{\psi^{(i)}}}{2}, \delta\right)\right\}^4$, with $\psi^{(i)} := \frac{\lambda_i \Delta_0^{(i)}}{1206}$. Then, with probability, $1 - \delta$, $\bar{K}_n^{(i)}$, $K_n \in \mathcal{S}_{ML}$, for every iteration of Algorithm 3.

The proof of Theorems 10 and 11 are detailed in Toso et al. (2024b). The proof strategy follows from an induction argument where the base case is the first iteration. We combine the local smoothness of each task-specific LQR cost (Lemma 6) along with the gradient heterogeneity bound (Lemma 8) and the definition of the MAML-LQR stabilizing sub-level set to show that $J^{(i)}(K_1) \leq J^{(i)}(K_0)$ for any $i \in [M]$. These results provide the conditions for which the learned controller K_N is MAML stabilizing. This is essential to guarantee that the learned controller K_N in Algorithms 1 and 3 can be promptly utilized to stabilize an unseen LQR task drawn from $p(\mathcal{T})$.

3.2. Convergence Analysis

We now provide the conditions on the step-sizes η_l , η and zeroth-order estimation parameters m, and r, such that we can ensure that the learned MAML-LQR controller K_N is sufficiently close to each task-specific optimal controller K_i^{\star} and to the optimal MAML controller K_{ML}^{\star} . For this purpose, we study the closeness of K_N and K_i^{\star} by bounding $J^{(i)}(K_N) - J^{(i)}(K_i^{\star})$ and the closeness of K_{ML}^{\star} with $J^{(i)}(K_{\text{ML}}^{\star}) - J^{(i)}(K_i^{\star})$.

^{4.} The expressions of the positive polynomials $\underline{h}_r^1(\cdot), \underline{h}_r^2(\cdot), \overline{h}_m^1(\cdot)$ and $\overline{h}_m^2(\cdot)$ are deferred to our technical report.

Theorem 12 (Model-based) Given an initial stabilizing controller $K_0 \in \mathcal{S}_{ML}$, suppose that the step-sizes and number of iterations satisfy $\eta_l \leq \min \left\{ \frac{n_u}{\sqrt{2\bar{h}_H}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\bar{h}_{grad}}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{12(12\bar{h}_{grad}^2 n_u^2 + h_H^2)}} \right\}$, and $\eta \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\bar{h}_{grad}}}$

 $\frac{1}{4h_{grad}}$, $N \geq \frac{8}{\eta \lambda_i} \log \left(\frac{\Delta_0^{(i)}}{\epsilon'} \right)$, respectively, for some small tolerance $\epsilon' \in (0,1)$. Then, it holds that,

$$J^{(i)}(K_N) - J^{(i)}(K_i^*) \le \epsilon' + \frac{144n_u^3 \bar{f}_z^2(\bar{\epsilon})}{\lambda_i},\tag{6}$$

$$J^{(i)}(K_{ML}^{\star}) - J^{(i)}(K_i^{\star}) \le \frac{96\bar{J}_{\max}n_u^3 f_z^2(\bar{\epsilon})}{\mu^2 \min_i \sigma_{\min}(R^{(i)}) \min_i \sigma_{\min}(Q^{(i)})},\tag{7}$$

with $\bar{J}_{\max} := \max_i J^{(i)}(K_0)$.

Theorem 13 (Model-free) Given an initial stabilizing controller $K_0 \in \mathcal{S}_{ML}$ and scalar $\delta \in (0,1)$, suppose that the step-sizes satisfy $\eta_l \leq \min\left\{\frac{1}{h_G}, \frac{n_u}{h_H}, \frac{1}{h_{grad}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{20(12\bar{h}_{grad}^2 n_u^2 + h_H^2)}}, \frac{1}{2}\right\}$ and $\eta \leq \frac{1}{8\bar{h}_{grad}}$, and the smoothing radius satisfies $r \leq \min\left\{\frac{1}{h_T}\left(\frac{\epsilon'\lambda_i}{1296}\right), \frac{h^2}{h_T}\left(\frac{\epsilon'\lambda_i}{1296}\right)\right\}$. Moreover, suppose that the number of samples is selected according to $m \geq \max\left\{\bar{h}_m^1\left(\frac{\epsilon'\lambda_i}{1296},\delta\right), \bar{h}_m^2\left(\frac{\epsilon'\lambda_i}{1296},\delta\right)\right\}$, and the number of iterations satisfies $N \geq \frac{8}{\eta\lambda_i}\log\left(\frac{2\Delta_0^{(i)}}{\epsilon'}\right)$, for some small tolerance $\epsilon' \in (0,1)$. Then, with probability $1-\delta$, it holds that,

$$J^{(i)}(K_N) - J^{(i)}(K_i^*) \le \epsilon' + \frac{240n_u^3 \bar{f}_z^2(\bar{\epsilon})}{\lambda_i}, \text{ and (7)}.$$
 (8)

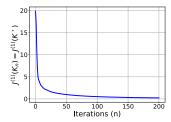
The proofs of Theorems 12 and 13 are deferred to Toso et al. (2024b). The proof strategy follows from the local smoothness of the LQR cost (Lemma 6), gradient domination (Lemma 7), and the gradient heterogeneity bound (Lemma 8). The model-free setting also involves controlling the estimation error through a matrix Bernstein-type of inequality (Tropp, 2012; Gravell et al., 2020).

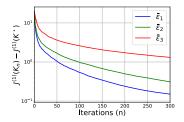
These results characterize the convergence of the MAML-LQR for both model-based and model-free settings. We emphasize that both Algorithms 1 and 3 produce a controller K_N that is provably close to each task-specific optimal controller K_i^* up to a heterogeneity bias. This indicates that under a low heterogeneity regime, K_N will serve as a good initialization for any unseen task that is also drawn from $p(\mathcal{T})$ (i.e., an unseen task that satisfies the same task-heterogeneity level as the ones used in the MAML-LQR learning process). Moreover, in contrast to Musavi and Dullerud (2023), our convergence bounds (6), (7) and (8) emphasize the impact of task heterogeneity on the convergence of Algorithms 1 and 3. In a low heterogeneity regime, where K_N and K_i^* , and K_{ML}^* are also sufficiently close. We also emphasize that, in the model-based setting, the learned controller K_N is achieved with a linear convergence rate on the iteration count, which improves upon the sub-linear rate in Musavi and Dullerud (2023).

4. Experimental Results

Numerical results⁵ are now provided to illustrate and assess the convergence and personalization of the model-free MAML-LQR approach. In particular, we show that initializing from the learned

^{5.} Code can be downloaded from: https://github.com/jd-anderson/MAML-LQR.





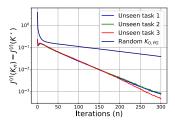


Figure 1: Cost gap between the learned the task-specific optimal controller with respect to iteration. (left) Convergence of the MAML-LQR. (middle) MAML-LQR, $\bar{\epsilon}_1=(1.2,1.1,1.4,1.2)\times 10^{-3}, \bar{\epsilon}_2=(1.3,1.1,1.4,1.2)\times 10^{-2}, \bar{\epsilon}_3=(1.7,1.8,1.9,1.7)\times 10^{-2}$. (right) PG-LQR (Fazel et al., 2018).

MAML-LQR controller (i.e., $K_{0,PG} = K_N$) enables a model-free PG-LQR approach (Fazel et al., 2018, Section 4.2) to be close to the task-specific optimal controller within just a few PG iterations, for an unseen task. To illustrate this, we consider an unstable modification of the Boeing system from Hong et al. (2021) as the nominal LQR task. The nominal task is then used to generate multiple tasks. The technical details on the experimental setup are deferred to Toso et al. (2024b).

Figure 1 (left and middle) depicts the cost gap between the current learned controller and the nominal task (i.e., $\mathcal{T}^{(1)}$) optimal controller with respect to iterations of Algorithm 3. In alignment with Theorem 13, Figure 1-(left) shows that the learned controller closely converges to the nominal task's optimal controller up to a slight bias characterized by $\bar{\epsilon} = (1.2, 1.1, 1.4, 1.2) \times 10^{-3}$. Moreover, Figure 1-(middle) shows that the learned MAML-LQR controller drastically deviates from the nominal task's optimal controller when it faces a significant heterogeneity level. This aligns with Theorem 13, which demonstrates that the learned MAML-LQR controller is close to each task-specific optimal controller up to a heterogeneity bias, where the bias increases with $\bar{\epsilon}$.

Figure 1-(right) illustrates the adaptation of the learned MAML-LQR controller to an unseen task drawn from $p(\mathcal{T})$ (i.e., the same task distribution used in the MAML-LQR learning process). With unseen tasks 1, 2 and 3, this figure shows that, by initializing the PG-LQR approach (Fazel et al., 2018) from the MAML-LQR learned controller, it takes only a few PG iterations to achieve a controller that is sufficiently close to the unseen tasks' optimal, which is significantly fewer than initializing from a randomly sampled initial stabilizing controller $K_{0,PG}$. This aligns with Theorem 13, showing that the learned controller is close to each task-specific optimal controller.

5. Conclusions and Future Work

We investigated the problem of meta-learning linear quadratic regulators in a heterogeneous and model-free setting, characterizing the stability and convergence of a MAML-LQR approach. We provided theoretical guarantees to ensure task-specific stability under the learned controller for both model-based and model-free settings. We established gradient heterogeneity bounds for three different task heterogeneity cases and offered convergence guarantees showing that the learned controller is close to each task-specific optimal controller up to a task-heterogeneity bias, emphasizing its ability to adapt to unseen tasks. Numerical experiments demonstrated the effect of task heterogeneity on the MAML-LQR approach's convergence and assessed the learned controller's adaptation to unseen tasks. Future work may explore variance-reduced approaches to reduce the variance of the zeroth-order gradient and Hessian estimation to improve the model-free sample complexity further.

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