

Lecture 1: Introduction

YIANNIS KARAYIANNIDIS, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR www.yiannis.info
AUTOMATIC CONTROL, FACULTY OF ENGINEERING. yiannis@control.lth.se



State-space models (autonomous systems)

- State vector: x represent the memory that the dynamical system has of its past
- Input vector: u typically control input applied to make the output to behave in a specific manner
- Output vector: y variables of particular interest e.g. measurable or variables required to be controlled

- General: $f(x, u, y, \dot{x}, \dot{u}, \dot{y}, \dots) = 0$
- Explicit: $\dot{x} = f(x, u), \quad y = h(x)$
- Affine in the control: $\dot{x} = f(x) + g(x)u, \quad y = h(x)$
- Linear time-invariant: $\dot{x} = Ax + Bu, \quad y = Cx$

Affine map
 $f(x) = Ax + b$ "bias"
Linear map

$$\dot{x} = \frac{dx}{dt}$$

Non-autonomous systems

- Autonomous forced system: $\dot{x} = f(x, u)$
- Control Input vector: $u = \gamma(t, x)$ may contain functions of time e.g. feedforward terms
- Non-autonomous system: $\dot{x} = f(x, t)$ becomes unforced after substituting explicitly the controller

Always possible to transform to autonomous system

Introduce $x_{n+1} = \text{time}$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= f(x, x_{n+1}) \\ \dot{x}_{n+1} &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

if t is a result of adding an integrator in the control input then the system can be transformed to autonomous by introducing $x_{n+1} = \int_0^t 1 dt$



Linear Systems

State space representation $\dot{x} = \frac{d}{dt}x(t)$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= Ax + Bu \\ y &= Cx + Du \end{aligned}$$

Transfer function

$$\begin{aligned} H(s) &= C(sI - A)^{-1}B + D \\ Y(s) &= H(s)U(s) \end{aligned}$$

State space models of systems are not unique

$$\dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & 1 \\ -a_k & -a_{k-1} & \dots & -a_1 \end{bmatrix} x + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u, \quad x = \begin{bmatrix} y \\ \dot{y} \\ \vdots \\ y^{(k-1)} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y^{(k)} + a_1 y^{(k-1)} + \dots + a_{k-1} \dot{y} + a_k y = u$$

- Controllable Canonical Form
- Observable Canonical Form

Linear Systems

State space representation $\dot{x} = \frac{d}{dt}x(t)$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= Ax + Bu \\ y &= Cx + Du \end{aligned}$$

Properties:

- Unique equilibrium if A is full-rank
- Regardless of the initial value, the equilibrium point is stable when the eigenvalues have negative real-parts
- Analytic solution: superposition of the natural modes of the system

Equilibrium $\dot{x} = 0 \Rightarrow Ax = 0$ if A full rank $x = 0$

Lecture 02



Linear Systems

State space representation $\dot{x} = \frac{d}{dt}x(t)$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= Ax + Bu \\ y &= Cx + Du \end{aligned}$$

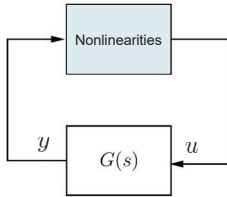
Properties:

- Principle of superposition and scaling
 $S(\alpha u_1 + \beta u_2) = \alpha S(u_1) + \beta S(u_2)$
- If the unforced system is asymptotically stable, the forced system is bounded-input bounded-output stable
- Sinusoidal input \rightarrow Sinusoidal output at the same frequency

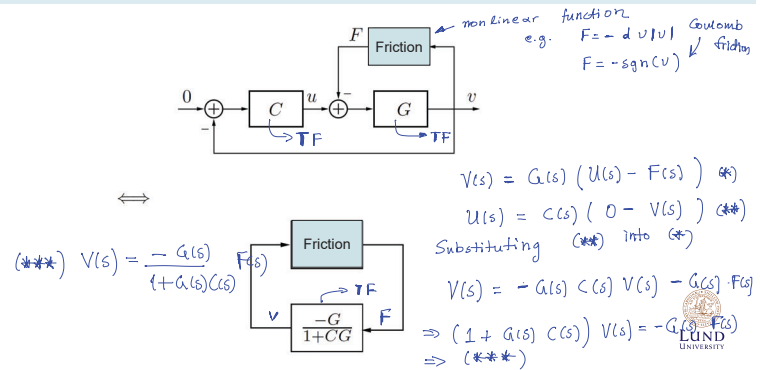
Properties:

- Unique equilibrium if A is full-rank
- Regardless of the initial value, the equilibrium point is stable when the eigenvalues have negative real-parts
- Analytic solution: superposition of the natural modes of the system

A standard form for analysis



Example: closed loop with friction



First order linear and nonlinear differential equations

- First order unforced systems described by differential equations
 - $\dot{x} = \frac{dx}{dt}$
 - $\dot{x} = -ax$ Linear $f(x) = -ax$
 - $\dot{x} = x^2$ nonlinear
 - $\dot{x} = -|x|x$ nonlinear
 - $\dot{x} = x(1-x)$ nonlinear
- Damping – linear dynamic friction $m\dot{v} + dv = u$
- Damping – nonlinear viscous friction (drag underwater vehicles) $m\dot{v} + d|v|v = u$
- Population growth example $\dot{N} = aN \left(1 - \frac{N}{M}\right)$
 - Population
 - Maximum size that can be reached
 - if $N=0$ $\dot{N}=0$ remains 0
 - if $N < M$ $\dot{N} > 0$ N will reach the maximum pop. M



Second order nonlinear equations

- Hardening spring $m\ddot{x} + d\dot{x} + k(x + ax^3) = 0$
 - linear part
 - nonlinear part
- Pendulum $MR^2\ddot{\theta} + kR\dot{\theta} + MgR \sin \theta = 0$
 - In linear control systems $\sin \theta \approx \theta$ for small angles.
 - this cannot hold for fast swinging up
- Mechanical systems with friction $m\ddot{x} + f(x, \dot{x}) = u$
- Circuit with negative resistance $CL\ddot{v} + Lh'(v)\dot{v} + v = 0$
 - many electronic components have non-linear characteristics
- Robot manipulators $M\ddot{q} + C(q, \dot{q})\dot{q} + g(q) + F_f(q, \dot{q}) = u$
 - positive definite but nonlinear inertial matrix



Transformation to first order systems & Equilibrium points

$$\dot{x} = f(x)$$

Assume $y^{(k)} = \frac{d^k y}{dt^k}$ highest derivative of y
Introduce $x = [y \quad \dot{y} \quad \dots \quad y^{(k-1)}]^T$

Example: Pendulum

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} \theta \\ \dot{\theta} \end{bmatrix}^T \text{ gives}$$

$$MR\ddot{\theta} + k\dot{\theta} + Mg \sin \theta = 0 \quad \text{2nd order (DE)}$$

$$\ddot{\theta} = \frac{1}{MR} (-k\dot{\theta} - Mg \sin \theta)$$

$$\dot{x}_1 = x_2$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = -\frac{k}{MR}x_2 - \frac{g}{R} \sin x_1$$

$$\dot{x}_1 = \dot{\theta} = x_2$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = \ddot{\theta} = -\frac{k}{MR}x_2 - \frac{g}{R} \sin x_1$$



Transformation to first order systems & Equilibrium points

- The system can stay at equilibrium forever without moving
- Set all derivatives equal to zero!

Assume $y^{(k)} = \frac{d^k y}{dt^k}$ highest derivative of y

Introduce $x = [y \quad \dot{y} \quad \dots \quad y^{(k-1)}]^T$ \Rightarrow Set $\dot{x} \equiv [\dot{y} \quad \ddot{y} \quad \dots \quad y^{(k)}]^T = [0 \quad 0 \quad \dots \quad 0]^T$

General: $f(x_0, u_0, y_0, 0, 0, \dots) = 0$

Explicit: $f(x_0, u_0) = 0 \Rightarrow$ nonlinear equation

Linear: $Ax_0 + Bu_0 = 0$ (has analytical solution(s)) \Rightarrow linear systems of equations

$$\text{if } u_0 = -Kx_0 \Rightarrow (A-BK)x_0 = 0$$

$$\text{if } u_0 \text{ is given as constant}$$

$$Ax_0 = -Bu_0 \Rightarrow x_0 = -A^{-1}Bu_0$$

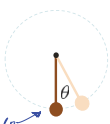


Multiple isolated equilibria

• Pendulum

$$MR\ddot{\theta} + k\dot{\theta} + Mg \sin \theta = 0$$

$$\text{Equilibria given by } \ddot{\theta} = \dot{\theta} = 0 \Rightarrow \sin \theta = 0 \Rightarrow \theta = \pm n\pi \quad n \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$$



Stable



unstable (d small disturbance can make it move away from this equilibrium)

• Population growth

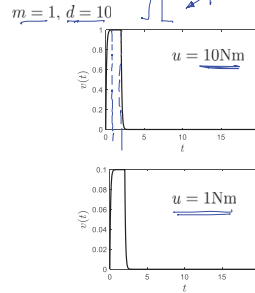
$$\dot{N} = aN \left(1 - \frac{N}{M}\right)$$

$$N = 0 \quad N = M$$



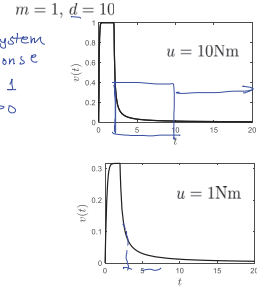
Response to the input

$$m\dot{v} + dv = u$$



Linear System
Same response
from 0 to 1
and 1 to 0

$$m\dot{v} + d|v|v = u$$



goes slower
from 1 to 0
damping ~ |v|
smaller for
low velocities



Finite escape time

$$\text{Solution: } \frac{dx}{dt} = x^2 \Rightarrow \frac{dx}{x^2} = dt \Rightarrow \int \frac{dx}{x^2} = \int dt \Rightarrow -\frac{1}{x} + C = t \Rightarrow x = \frac{1}{C-t} \xrightarrow{C=1} x(t) = \frac{1}{1-t}$$

Example: The differential equation

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = x^2, \quad x(0) = x_0$$

has solution

$$x(t) = \frac{x_0}{1 - x_0 t}, \quad 0 \leq t < \frac{1}{x_0}$$

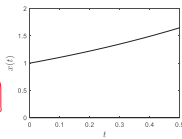
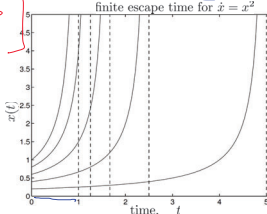
Finite escape time:

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow t_f} x(t) = \infty$$

Compare with instability of linear systems

Example: $\dot{x} = x, \quad x(0) = x_0$

$$\text{Solution: } x(t) = x_0 e^t, \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} x(t) = \infty$$



Region of attraction

Region of attraction: The set of all initial conditions such that the solution converges to the equilibrium point

Example: The differential equation

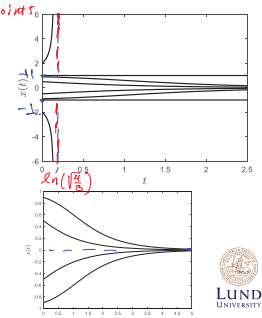
$$\dot{x} = -x + x^3, \quad x(0) = x_0$$

has solution

$$x(t) = \frac{x_0 e^{-t}}{\sqrt{1 - x_0^2 + x_0^2 e^{-2t}}}$$

- If $|x_0| \leq 1$ the solution exists $\forall t \geq 0$
- If $|x_0| > 1$ the solution exists for:

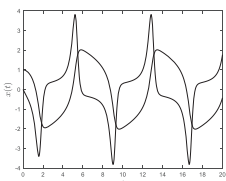
$$0 \leq t < \ln \frac{x_0^2}{x_0^2 - 1} \quad \text{finite escape time.}$$



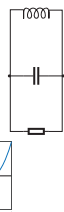
Limit Circles

• Circuit with negative resistance

$$CL\ddot{v} + Lh'(v)\dot{v} + v = 0$$



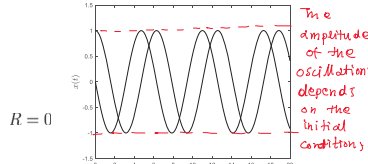
Nonlinear systems limit cycles Amplitude independent of initial condition



• Circuit with no resistance

$$CL\ddot{v} + v = 0$$

$$v(0) = 1 \quad \dot{v}(0) = 0$$



$$\ddot{x} = -x$$



Lipschitz Continuity and existence and uniqueness of solutions

Lipschitz-continuous

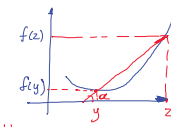
$$\|f(z) - f(y)\| \leq L\|z - y\|$$

Local

$$\forall z, y \in \Omega_R$$

Global

$$\forall z, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$$



A straight line joining any two points of f(x) cannot have a slope greater than L. Infinite slope functions are not locally Lipschitz at the point of discontinuity. See e.g. f(x) = 1/x

Criteria for checking Lipschitz continuity

Check the continuity of $f(x)$ and the boundedness of first order partial derivatives

Examples:

$$f(x) = \sqrt{x}$$

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$$

$$f(x) = x^3$$

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 \rightarrow \infty \text{ for } x \rightarrow \infty$$

$$f(x) = \tanh x$$

$$f'(x) = 1 - \tanh^2 x$$

locally Lipschitz in a set around 0 globally Lipschitz



Lipschitz Continuity and existence and uniqueness of solutions

Lipschitz-continuous	$\ f(z) - f(y)\ \leq L\ z - y\ $	A solution of the diff. equation $\begin{cases} \dot{x}(t) = f(x(t)) \\ x(0) = a \end{cases}$ <u>exists</u>
Local	$\forall z, y \in \Omega_R$	$\longrightarrow x(t), \quad 0 \leq t < R/C_R,$
Global	$\forall z, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$	$\longrightarrow x(t), \quad t \geq 0, \quad C_R = \max_{x \in \Omega_R} \ f(x)\ $

A solution of the diff. equation $\begin{cases} \dot{x}(t) = f(x(t)) \\ x(0) = a \end{cases}$ exists and is unique if

- $f(x)$ is locally Lipschitz $\forall x \in \Omega_R$
- and if it is known that every solution of the differential equation starting at a closed and bounded set $W \subset \Omega_R$ remains in it.



Lipschitz Continuity and existence and uniqueness of solutions

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Local	$\forall z, y \in \Omega_R$ and $x(t) \in W \subset \Omega_R$	$\longrightarrow x(t), \quad t \geq 0.$

Check the continuity of $f(x)$ and the boundedness of first order partial derivatives $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$

Examples:	$f(x) = \sqrt{x}$	$f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$
	$f(x) = x^3$	$f'(x) = 3x^2$
	$f(x) = \tanh x$	$f'(x) = 1 - \tanh^2 x$



Lipschitz Continuity and existence and uniqueness of solutions

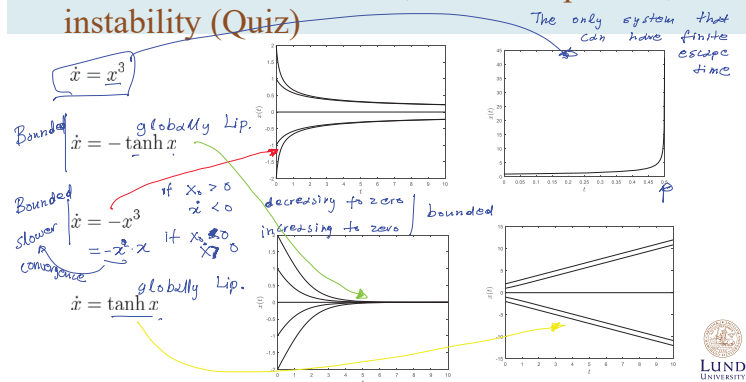
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Existence of the solution, finite escape time, instability (Quiz)



Uniqueness problems

Does the initial value problem have more than one solution?

If so, the differential equation cannot be used for prediction

Example: The equation $\dot{x} = \sqrt{x}$, $x(0) = 0$ has many solutions:

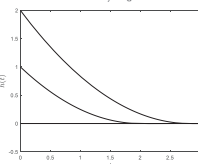
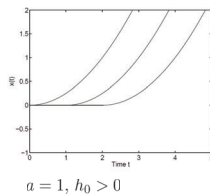
$$x(t) = \begin{cases} (t-C)^2/4 & t > C \\ 0 & t \leq C \end{cases}$$

Compare with water tank:

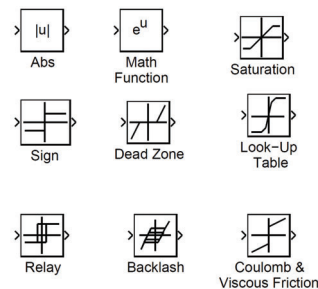
$$\dot{h} = -a\sqrt{h}, \quad h: \text{height (water level)}$$

Change to backward-time: "If I see it empty, when was it full?"

$$h(t) = \begin{cases} (t-2\sqrt{h_0})^2/4 & t < 2\sqrt{h_0} \\ 0 & t \geq 2\sqrt{h_0} \end{cases}$$



Some nonlinearities -simulink



- Phase plane analysis for 2nd order linear systems
- Linearization
- Stability definitions
- Simulation in Matlab



FRNT05 Nonlinear Control Systems and Servo Systems

Lecture 2: Linearization and Phase plane analysis

YIANNIS KARAYIANNIDIS, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR
AUTOMATIC CONTROL, FACULTY OF ENGINEERING. www.yiannis.info
yiannis@control.lth.se



Outline

- Linearization around equilibrium
- Phase plane analysis of linear systems

Material

- Glad and Ljung: Chapter 13
- Khalil: Chapter 2.1–2.3
- Lecture notes



Linearization around an equilibrium point

- Linear systems with non-zero equilibrium points

Change of variables to move the origin to the equilibrium point

Example $\dot{x} = Ax + b$ $\dot{x} \equiv 0$

$$Ax+b=0 \text{ Equilibrium } x^* = -A^{-1}b$$

A full rank New variable $\tilde{x} = x - x^*$

- Linear approximation of nonlinear systems (Taylor expansion) $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n$

$$\dot{x} = f(x)$$

$\dot{x} = 0$ Equilibrium $f(x^*) = 0$

New variable $\tilde{x} = x - x^*$



Linearization around an equilibrium point

- Linear approximation of nonlinear systems (Taylor expansion)

The diagram illustrates the Taylor expansion of a function $f(\tilde{x} + x^*)$ around an equilibrium point x^* . The expansion is shown as:

$$f(\tilde{x}) = f(x^*) + J_f(x^*)\tilde{x} + \frac{1}{2}\tilde{x}^T H_f(x^*)\tilde{x} + \dots$$

where $J_f(x^*)$ is the Jacobian matrix and $H_f(x^*)$ is the Hessian matrix. The Jacobian is defined as:

$$J_f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

The Hessian is defined as:

$$H_f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2^2} & \dots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

The diagram also shows the linear approximation:

$$\dot{\tilde{x}} = f(x^*) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x^*)\tilde{x} + \text{H.O.T.}$$

and the quadratic approximation:

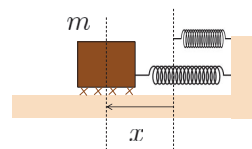
$$\dot{\tilde{x}} \approx \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x^*)\tilde{x} + \text{H.O.T.}$$

for small scalar \tilde{x} , the quadratic approximation simplifies to:

$$\dot{\tilde{x}} \approx \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x^*)\tilde{x}$$

The diagram also includes a box for the equilibrium point $f(x^*) = 0$.

Example (nonlinear spring with external force)



- Differential Equation

$$m\ddot{x} + k_v\dot{x} + k_s x^3 = F$$

- State space representation

Position: $x_1 = x$ **Velocity:** $x_2 = \dot{x}$

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x}_1 &= x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 &= -\frac{k_s}{m}x_1^3 - \frac{k_v}{m}x_2 + \frac{F}{m}\end{aligned}$$

- State space representation (vector form) $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \end{bmatrix}^T$

$$\dot{x} = f(x) \quad \begin{bmatrix} f_1(x) \\ f_2(x) \end{bmatrix} f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{k_s}{m}x_1^3 - \frac{k_v}{m}x_2 + \frac{F}{m} \\ \dots \end{bmatrix}$$



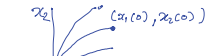
Phase plane analysis

- The phase plane method is the graphical study of second-order autonomous systems:

$$\dot{x}_1 = f_1(x_1, x_2)$$


$$\dot{x}_2 = f_2(x_1, x_2)$$

$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \dot{x}_1(t) \\ \dot{x}_2(t) \end{pmatrix}$


- Phase plane has x_1 and x_2 as coordinates.
- Phase plane trajectory: a curve of the phase plane representing the solution for initial conditions $x_1(0)$, $x_2(0)$ with time t varied from 0 to infinity
- Phase portrait: a family of phase plane trajectories from various initial conditions
- Example: $\ddot{y} + y = 0$

$x_1 = y(t) = \sin(\omega t + \phi_0)$
 $x_2 = \dot{y}(t) = \omega \cos(\omega t + \phi_0)$

$x_1^2 + x_2^2 = c$
 $\text{for } x_2 > 0$
 $\text{for } x_2 > 0 \Rightarrow x_1 \text{ increases}$



A first glimpse on phase portraits

Solution of Linear Systems of diff. eq.

State space representation: $\dot{x} = Ax$ $\dot{x} = dx \Rightarrow x(t) = x(0) e^{At}$

$$\dot{x} = Ax \quad \text{Similar to scalar}$$
$$\dot{x} = Ax \Rightarrow \dot{x} = W^{-1}MWx \Rightarrow \dot{z} = Mz$$

Complex Eigenvalues $\sigma \pm j\omega$

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma & -\omega \\ \omega & \sigma \end{bmatrix}$$

Complex eigenvectors

$W = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 \end{bmatrix}$ $W = \begin{bmatrix} v & R \frac{v}{2} \end{bmatrix}$ $W = \begin{bmatrix} \Re(v_1) & \Im(v_1) \end{bmatrix}$
Eigenvalues *Eigenvectors* *Real & Imaginary*
 $\det(\lambda I - A) = 0$ $A v = \lambda v$ $R = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \frac{\pi}{2} & \sin \frac{\pi}{2} \\ -\sin \frac{\pi}{2} & \cos \frac{\pi}{2} \end{bmatrix}$

Solution of Linear Systems of diff. eq.

Two real eigenvalues

Direct elimination of time variable Separation of variables Integration

$\frac{\dot{x}_1 - \lambda_1 x_1}{\dot{x}_2 = \lambda_2 x_2} \Rightarrow \frac{dx_1}{dx_2} = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_2}\right)}_{\gamma} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \Rightarrow \frac{dx_1}{x_1} = \gamma \frac{dx_2}{x_2} \Rightarrow x_1 = C x_2^\gamma$

Three diagrams illustrating the relationship between the ratio of wave speeds (γ) and the relative positions of the source (x_1) and observer (x_2):

- Left diagram:** $\gamma > 1$. The source is at x_1 and the observer is at x_2 . The wave front is shown as a semi-circle centered at x_1 . The observer is to the right of the wave front. The wave speed is labeled as "faster" (faster than the observer's speed).
- Middle diagram:** $0 < \gamma < 1$. The source is at x_1 and the observer is at x_2 . The wave front is shown as a semi-circle centered at x_1 . The observer is to the right of the wave front. The wave speed is labeled as "slower" (slower than the observer's speed).
- Right diagram:** $\gamma < 0$. The source is at x_1 and the observer is at x_2 . The wave front is shown as a semi-circle centered at x_1 . The observer is to the right of the wave front. The wave speed is labeled as "faster" (faster than the observer's speed).

Two real eigenvalues

$$\underbrace{\lambda_1}_{\text{faster}} < \underbrace{\lambda_2}_{\text{slower}} < 0$$

$$v_1 \quad v_2$$

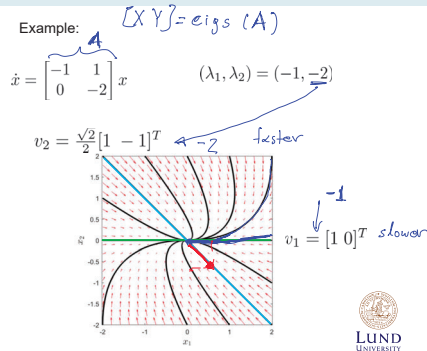
$$x(t) = c_1 e^{\lambda_1 t} v_1 + c_2 e^{\lambda_2 t} v_2$$

Fast eigenvector

$$x(t) \approx c_1 e^{\lambda_1 t} v_1 + c_2 v_2 \text{ for small } t$$

Slow eigenvector

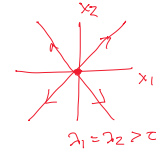
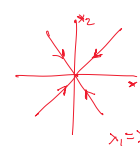
$$x(t) \approx c_2 e^{\lambda_2 t} v_2 \text{ for large } t$$



Some comments

• What if $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2$?

$$x_1 = c x_2 e^{t}$$



Star

• $\lambda_1 \lambda_2 = \det(A)$

$$\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 = \text{Tr}(A)$$

$$\lambda_{1,2} = \frac{1}{2} [\text{Tr}(A) \pm \sqrt{\text{Tr}^2(A) - 4\det(A)}]$$

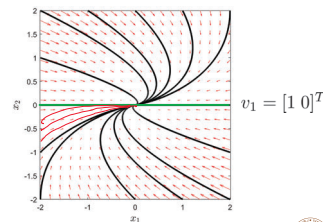


One tangent mode

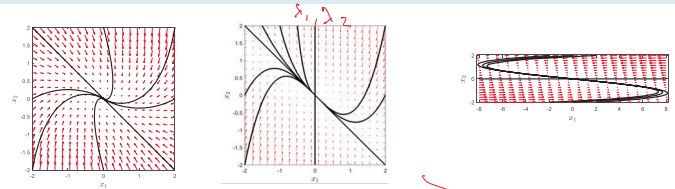
$$\dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & \lambda \end{bmatrix} x, \quad \text{rank}(\lambda I - A) = 1$$

$$x_1(t) = x_1(0)e^{\lambda t} + t x_2(0)e^{\lambda t}$$

$$x_2(t) = x_2(0)e^{\lambda t}$$



Matching quiz 1



$$\dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.5 & 0.5 \\ -0.5 & -1.5 \end{bmatrix} x$$

$$\dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -10 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} x$$

$$\dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ -2 & -3 \end{bmatrix} x$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = -x_2$$



Complex eigenvalues

$$\dot{x} = Ax \quad \xrightarrow{z = W^{-1}x} \quad \dot{z} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma & -\omega \\ \omega & \sigma \end{bmatrix} z$$

$$\sigma \pm j\omega$$

$$W = [\Re(v_1) \quad \Im(v_1)]$$

$$r = \sqrt{z_1^2 + z_2^2}, \theta = \arctan z_2/z_1$$

$$z_1 = r \cos \theta, z_2 = r \sin \theta$$

$$\dot{r} = \sigma r$$

$$\dot{\theta} = \omega$$

If $\sigma > 0$ Unstable focus

If $\sigma = 0$ Center

If $\sigma < 0$ Stable focus

Why?

$$\dot{r} = \sigma r$$

$$\dot{r} = 0$$

$$\dot{r} = -2\sigma r$$

$$r \rightarrow 0$$

$$r \rightarrow \infty$$

$$r \rightarrow 0$$

$$r \rightarrow \infty$$

$$r \rightarrow 0$$

$$r \rightarrow \infty$$

$$r \rightarrow 0$$

$$r \rightarrow \infty$$

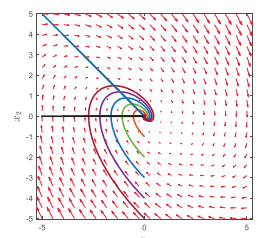
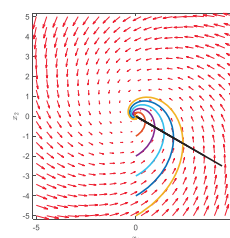
$$r \rightarrow 0$$

$$r \rightarrow \infty$$



Matching quiz 2

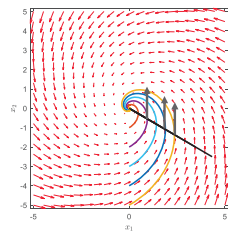
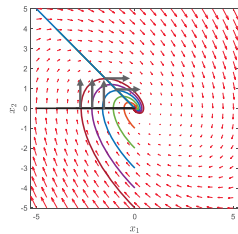
$$\dot{x} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -\sqrt{3} \\ \sqrt{3} & -1 \end{bmatrix} x \quad \lambda_{1,2} = -\frac{1}{2} \pm \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} j \quad \dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} x$$



Example

$$\dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} x \quad \lambda_{1,2} = -\frac{1}{2} \pm \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}j \quad \dot{z} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -\sqrt{3} \\ \sqrt{3} & -1 \end{bmatrix} z \quad \begin{matrix} \dot{r} = -\frac{1}{2}r \\ \dot{\theta} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \end{matrix}$$

- Stable focus $\sigma = -1/2 < 0$



How to draw phase portraits

If done by hand then

1. Find equilibria (also called singularities)
2. Sketch local behavior around equilibria
3. Sketch (\dot{x}_1, \dot{x}_2) for some other points. Use that $\frac{dx_1}{dx_2} = \frac{\dot{x}_1}{\dot{x}_2}$.
4. Try to find possible limit cycles
5. Guess solutions

Matlab: PPTool and some other tools for Matlab is available on Canvas.

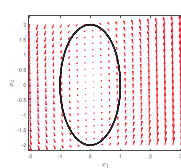
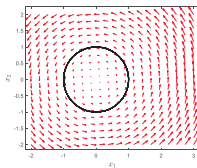
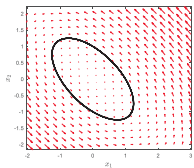


Matching quiz 3

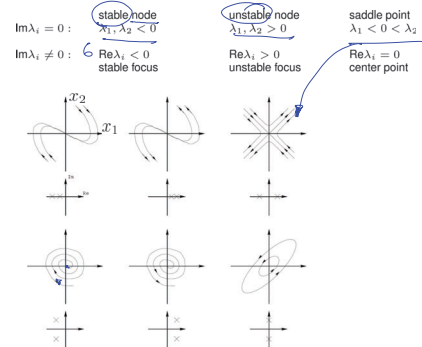
$$\dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x$$

$$\dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -1.5 & -2.5 \\ 2.5 & 1.5 \end{bmatrix} x$$

$$\dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -2 \\ 2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x$$



Summary of phase portraits and their equilibriums



Effect of perturbations

Perturbations in $A + \Delta$

- Structurally stable: the qualitative behavior remains the same under arbitrarily small perturbations in A

Examples: a node (with distinct eigenvalues), a saddle or a focus

- A stable node with multiple eigenvalues could become a stable node or a stable focus under arbitrarily small perturbations in A

- A center is not structurally stable

$$\dot{z} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\omega \\ \omega & 0 \end{bmatrix} z \quad \rightarrow \quad \dot{z} = \begin{bmatrix} \delta & -\omega \\ \omega & \delta \end{bmatrix} z \quad \delta \pm j\omega$$



Back to linearization

Theorem Assume

$$\dot{x} = f(x)$$

is linearized at x^* so that

$$\dot{\tilde{x}} = A\tilde{x} + g(\tilde{x}),$$

where

- $A = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x^*)$
- $g = f(x) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x^*)\tilde{x} \in C^1$ and $\frac{\|g(\tilde{x})\|}{\|\tilde{x}\|} \rightarrow 0$ as $\|\tilde{x}\| \rightarrow 0$

If $\tilde{x} = A\tilde{x}$ has a focus, node, or saddle point, then $\dot{x} = f(x)$ has the same type of equilibrium at the origin.

If the linearized system has a center, then the nonlinear system has either a center or a focus.



Back to linearization

Summary

- Linearization

$$\dot{x} = f(x) \Rightarrow \dot{\tilde{x}} = A\tilde{x} + g(x),$$

- Phase portraits of Linear systems
- Whether the behavior of the Linear system (outcome of linearization) can be inherited to the nonlinear system?



FRNT05 Nonlinear Control Systems and Servo Systems

Lecture 3: Linearization around a trajectory, Limit cycles and Stability definitions

YIANNIS KARAYIANNIDIS, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR www.yiannis.info
AUTOMATIC CONTROL, FACULTY OF ENGINEERING. yiannis@control.lth.se



Outline

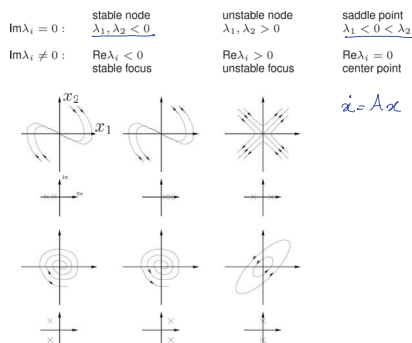
- Linearization around trajectory (general case)
- Limit Cycles
- Definitions of Stability

Material

- Glad & Ljung Ch. 11, 12.1, (Khalil Ch 2.3, part of 4.1, and 4.3)
- Lecture slides



Summary of phase portraits and their equilibriums



Effect of perturbations

Perturbations in $A + \Delta$

- Structurally stable**: the qualitative behavior remains the same under arbitrarily small perturbations in A
Examples: a node (with distinct eigenvalues), a saddle or a focus
- A stable node with multiple eigenvalues could become a stable node or a stable focus under arbitrarily small perturbations in A
- A **center** is not structurally stable

$$\dot{z} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \omega \\ \omega & 0 \end{bmatrix} z \quad \Delta = \delta I \quad \Rightarrow \quad \dot{z} = \begin{bmatrix} \delta & -\omega \\ \omega & \delta \end{bmatrix} z \quad \boxed{\delta \pm j\omega}$$



Linearization around an equilibrium point

- Linear approximation of nonlinear systems (Taylor expansion)

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{\tilde{x}} &= f(\tilde{x} + x^*) \\ &\xrightarrow{\text{Taylor expansion}} \dot{\tilde{x}} = f(x^*) + \left. \frac{\partial f(\tilde{x} + x^*)}{\partial \tilde{x}} \right|_{\tilde{x}=0} \tilde{x} + \text{H.O.T.} \\ &\quad \tilde{x} = x - x^* \\ &\quad \dot{\tilde{x}} = f(x^*) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x^*) \tilde{x} + \text{H.O.T.} \\ &\quad f(x^*) = 0 \\ &\quad \dot{\tilde{x}} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x^*) \tilde{x} + \text{H.O.T.} \\ &\quad \dot{\tilde{x}} \approx \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x^*) \tilde{x}\end{aligned}$$

where $J_f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$ is the Jacobian and $H_f(x^*)$ is the Hessian.

Predicting behaviors close to equilibrium

Linear approximation: $\dot{\tilde{x}} = A\tilde{x} + g(x)$, where $A = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x^*)$ and $g = f(x) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x^*)\tilde{x} \in C^1$ and $\frac{\|g(\tilde{x})\|}{\|\tilde{x}\|} \rightarrow 0$ as $\|\tilde{x}\| \rightarrow 0$.

Valid when $\det(A) \neq 0$, $\lambda_1, \lambda_2 \neq 0$.

???	Center
node	node
saddle	saddle
focus	focus
unstable	$\lambda_1, \lambda_2 > 0$ → unstable
stable	$\lambda_1, \lambda_2 < 0$
???	$\lambda_i = 0$

Linearization around a trajectory

Idea: Make Taylor-expansion around a known solution $\{x^*(t), u^*(t)\}$ satisfying the differential equation:

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= f(x, u) \\ \dot{\tilde{x}} &= f(x^*(t) + \tilde{x}, u^*(t) + \tilde{u}) - f(x^*(t), u^*(t)) \\ &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x^*(t), u^*(t))\tilde{x} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x^*(t), u^*(t))\tilde{u} + \mathcal{O}(\|\tilde{x}, \tilde{u}\|^2) \\ &\approx \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x^*(t), u^*(t))\tilde{x} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x^*(t), u^*(t))\tilde{u} + \mathcal{O}(\|\tilde{x}, \tilde{u}\|^2)\end{aligned}$$

Linearization around a trajectory

Hence, for small (\tilde{x}, \tilde{u}) , approximately

$$\dot{\tilde{x}}(t) = A(t)\tilde{x}(t) + B(t)\tilde{u}(t)$$

Example: if $\dim x = 2$, $\dim u = 1$

$$\begin{aligned}A(t) &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x^*(t), u^*(t)) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix} (x^*(t), u^*(t)) \\ B(t) &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x^*(t), u^*(t)) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial u_1} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial u_1} \end{bmatrix} (x^*(t), u^*(t))\end{aligned}$$

Linearization around a trajectory

Linearization of the output equation $y(t) = h(x(t), u(t))$ around the nominal output $y^*(t) = h(x^*(t), u^*(t))$:

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{\tilde{x}} &= f(x, u) \\ y &= h(x, u) \\ \tilde{y}(t) &= C(t)\tilde{x}(t) + D(t)\tilde{u}(t)\end{aligned}$$

Second order system i.e. $\dim y = \dim x = 2$, $\dim u = 1$

$$\begin{aligned}C(t) &= \frac{\partial h}{\partial x}(x^*(t), u^*(t)) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix} (x^*(t), u^*(t)) \\ D(t) &= \frac{\partial h}{\partial u}(x^*(t), u^*(t)) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial u_1} \\ \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial u_1} \end{bmatrix} (x^*(t), u^*(t))\end{aligned}$$

Time-varying Linear Systems

Example: Time-varying.

$$\dot{\tilde{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & e^{2t} \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \tilde{x}$$

By just checking the eigenvalues someone would think the origin is stable.

However, we can solve first for \tilde{x}_2 and then substitute in \tilde{x}_1 and realize the \tilde{x}_1 grows unbounded.

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{\tilde{x}}_2 &= -\tilde{x}_2 \Rightarrow \tilde{x}_2(t) = \tilde{x}_2(0) e^{-t} \\ \dot{\tilde{x}}_1 &= -\tilde{x}_1 + e^{2t} e^{-t} \tilde{x}_2(0) \\ &= -\tilde{x}_1 + e^t \tilde{x}_2(0)\end{aligned}$$

\tilde{x}_1 will grow unbounded

Time-varying Linear Systems

$$\dot{\tilde{x}}(t) = A(t)\tilde{x}(t)$$

$$\lambda_i[A(t) + A^T(t)] < 0 \quad \forall t \Rightarrow \text{Stable}$$

$$\lambda_i[A(t) + A^T(t)] > 0 \quad \forall t \Rightarrow \text{Unstable}$$

$$\lambda_i[A(t) + A^T(t)] = 0 \quad \forall t \Rightarrow \text{No conclusion}$$

for all $\forall t$
exists $\exists t$



Periodic solutions and Limit Cycles

- A system oscillates when it has a nontrivial periodic solution:

Example: $x(t+T) = x(t), \forall t \geq 0$ for some $T > 0$

$$\dot{z} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\omega \\ \omega & 0 \end{bmatrix} z$$

polar coordinates $\dot{r} = 0, \dot{\theta} = \omega \Rightarrow \theta = \theta_0 + \omega t$

The system has a sustained oscillation of amplitude $r(0)$

- Harmonic oscillator LC circuit

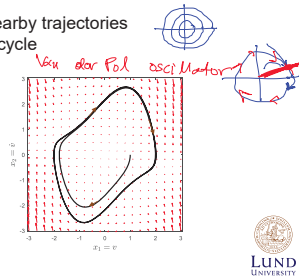
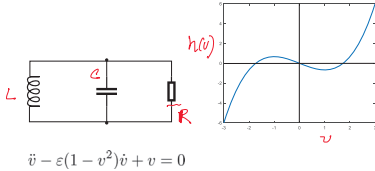


- Small perturbation will destroy the oscillation (e.g. resistance)
- The amplitude depends on the initial conditions



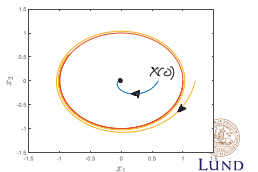
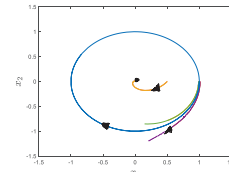
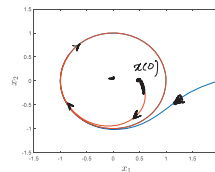
Periodic solutions and Limit Cycles

- An **isolated closed curve** in the phase plane
- Closed**: periodic solution
- Isolated**: limiting nature of the limit cycle, nearby trajectories either converge to or diverge from the limit cycle



Stability of limit cycles

- Stable limit cycle**: all trajectories in the vicinity of the limit cycle converge to it
- Unstable limit cycle**: all trajectories in the vicinity of the limit cycle diverge from it
- Semi-Stable Limit Cycles**: some of the trajectories in the vicinity converge to it, while the others diverge from it

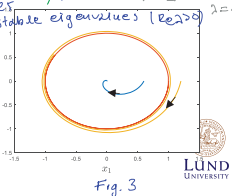
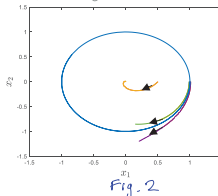
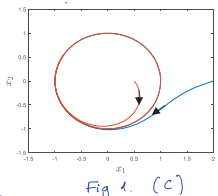


Stability of limit cycles – matching quiz

check first the stability of the eq. (0,0). If it is unstable the system phase portrait corresponds to Fig 1.

$$(A) \begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 - x_1(x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1)^2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = -x_1 - x_2(x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1)^2 \end{cases} \sim \dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} x \Rightarrow \lambda = -1 \pm j$$

$$(B) \begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 + x_1(x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1) \\ \dot{x}_2 = -x_1 + x_2(x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1) \end{cases} \sim \dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} x \Rightarrow \lambda = 1 \pm j$$



Stability of limit cycles (linearization around a trajectory)

- Study the stability of the trajectory $(\sin t, \cos t)$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(\sin t, \cos t) = \begin{bmatrix} 2\sin^2 t & 1 + \sin t \cos t \\ 1 + \sin t \cos t & 2\cos^2 t \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A + A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 4\sin^2 t & 4\sin t \cos t \\ 4\sin t \cos t & 4\cos^2 t \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda = 0, \lambda = 1$$

Since $A + A^T$ is time-dependent we cannot conclude by checking the eigenvalues of $A + A^T$



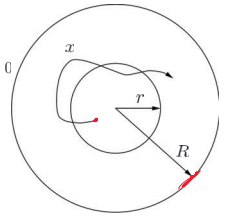
Stability of an equilibrium point

Consider $\dot{x} = f(x)$ where $f(x^*) = 0$

Definition The equilibrium x^* is **stable** if for any $R > 0$, there exists $r > 0$ such that

$$\|x(0) - x^*\| < r \implies \|x(t) - x^*\| < R, \quad \text{for all } t \geq 0$$

Otherwise the equilibrium point x^* is **unstable**.



- Use the term "stable (unstable) system" only for linear systems
- A nonlinear system have more than one equilibrium points that each one can be either stable or unstable
- Unstable equilibrium does not mean unbounded trajectories



• Change variables $r = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}$ $\theta = \arctan x_2/x_1$ $\frac{d}{dt}(x_1^2 + x_2^2) = 2x_1\dot{x}_1 + 2x_2\dot{x}_2$

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 - x_1(x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1)^2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = -x_1 - x_2(x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1)^2 \end{cases}$$

$\dot{r} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}}(x_1\dot{x}_1 + x_2\dot{x}_2)$

$\dot{r} = \frac{1}{r} \cdot r^2 (r^2 - 1)^2 = -r(r^2 - 1)^2$

Intuition: if $r(0) > 1$ $\dot{r}(0) < 0$ r is decreasing but will hit 1 and stay there. Otherwise calculate $r(t)$ in closed form.

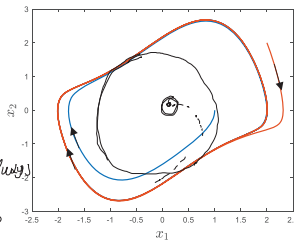
$\frac{d}{dx}(\sqrt{x}) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$
 $\frac{d}{dx}(\arctan x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$



Unstable equilibrium does not mean unbounded trajectories

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}_1 &= x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 &= (1 - x_1^2)x_2 - x_1 \end{aligned}$$

For defining cycles in the limit cycle the trajectory will always escape R even if it starts very close to equilibrium.



Local vs Global Stability of Equilibrium

Definition The equilibrium x^* is **locally asymptotically stable (LAS)** if it

- is stable
- there exists $r > 0$ so that if $\|x(0) - x^*\| < r$ then

$$x(t) \rightarrow x^* \quad \text{as } t \rightarrow \infty.$$

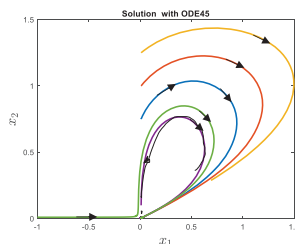
Definition The equilibrium is said to be **globally asymptotically stable (GAS)** if it is LAS and for all $x(0)$ one has

$$x(t) \rightarrow x^* \quad \text{as } t \rightarrow \infty.$$



Convergent but not stable

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}_1 &= \frac{x_1^2(x_2 - x_1) + x_2^5}{(x_1^2 + x_2^2)[1 + (x_1^2 + x_2^2)^2]} \\ \dot{x}_2 &= \frac{x_2^2(x_2 - 2x_1)}{(x_1^2 + x_2^2)[1 + (x_1^2 + x_2^2)^2]} \end{aligned}$$



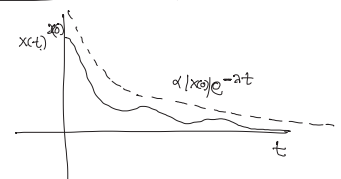
Exponential stability

Definition The equilibrium is said to be **exponentially stable (ES)** if there exists positive constants a and λ such that:

$$\|x(t) - x^*\| \leq a\|x(0) - x^*\|e^{-\lambda t}, \quad \text{for all } t \geq 0$$

Global: For all $x(0)$

Local: For $\|x(0) - x^*\| < r$



Lecture 4: Describing function analysis

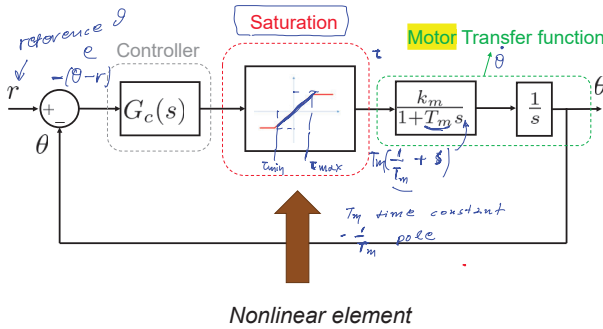
YIANNIS KARAYIANNIDIS, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR www.yiannis.info
AUTOMATIC CONTROL, FACULTY OF ENGINEERING. yiannis@control.lth.se



Outline

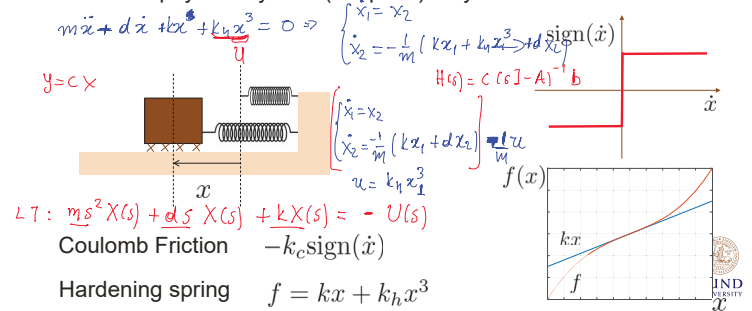
- How to obtain a describing function for a nonlinear element in an "almost" linear system
- Prediction of oscillations based on extended Nyquist Criterion and the describing function of the nonlinearity

Motivation: Nonlinearities in the control system



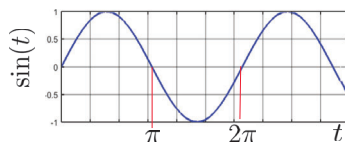
Motivation: Nonlinearities

- The physical system (the plant) may contain nonlinearities



Motivation: prediction of persistent oscillations (limit cycles)

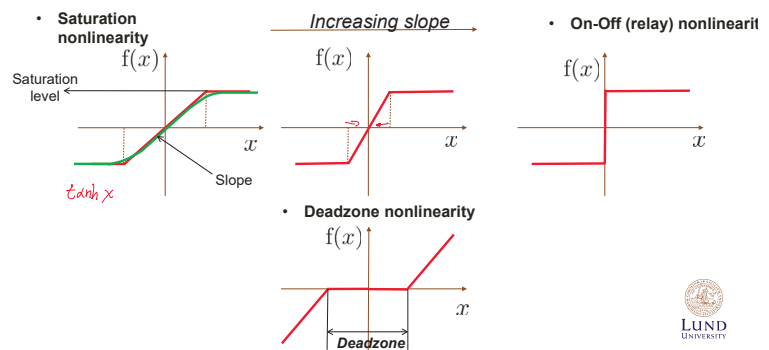
- Oscillations can be desirable: electronic oscillators used in laboratories.



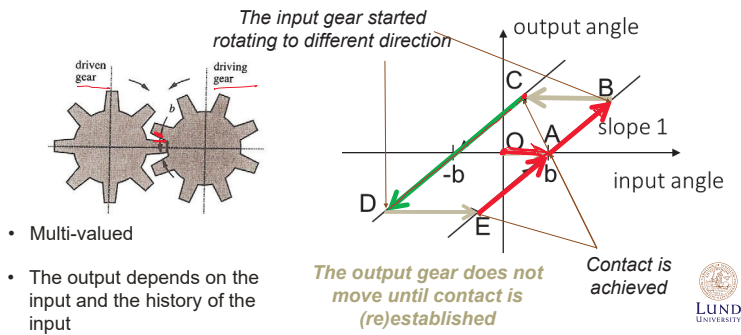
- Oscillations are undesirable

- Oscillations are a sign of instability, tend to cause poor control accuracy
- Constant oscillations can increase wear or even cause mechanical failure

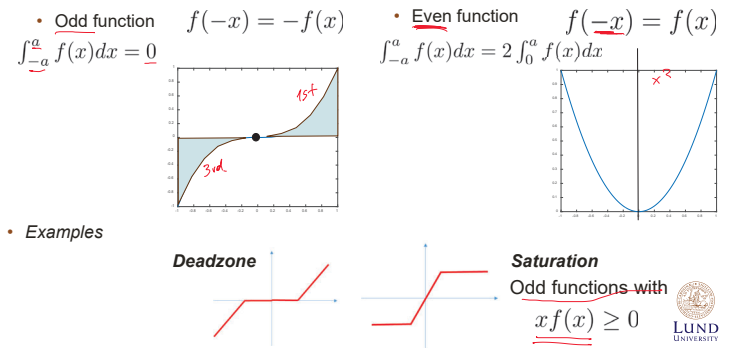
Nonlinearities: Single-valued nonlinearities



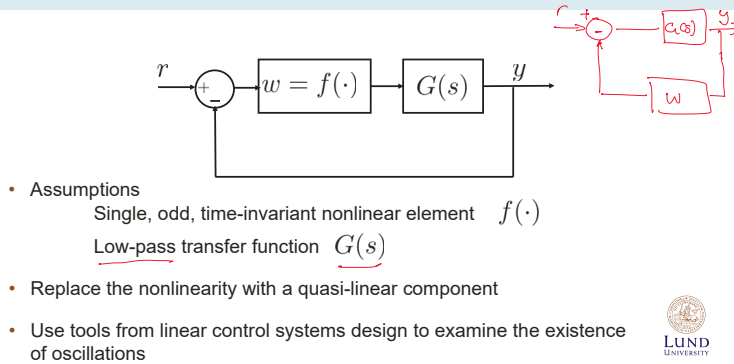
Nonlinearities: Backlash



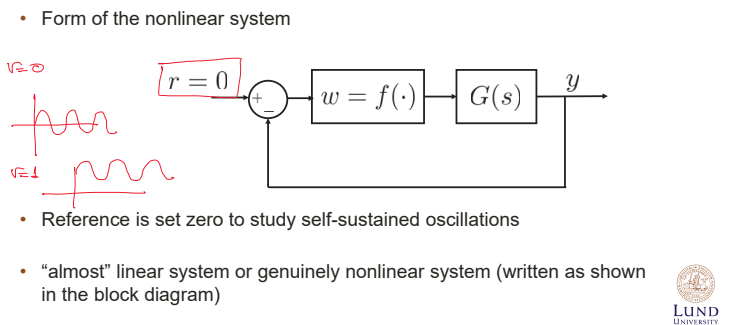
Odd and even functions



Describing function analysis

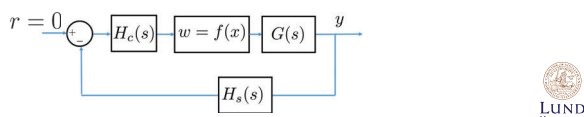


Describing function analysis

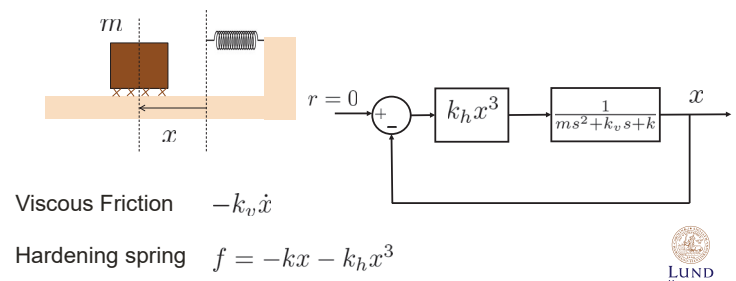


"Almost" linear systems

- Linear Control Design and linear system
- Implementation involves hard nonlinearities, e.g. actuator saturation or sensor dead-zones
- Contain hard nonlinearities in the control loop but are otherwise linear



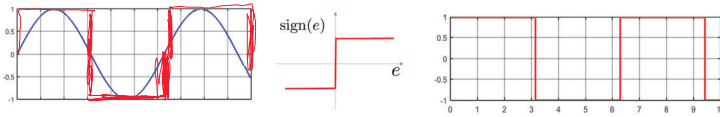
Quiz: Write the nonlinear system in a feedback form where the nonlinearity is in a block



Fourier Transformation

Input $e(t) = A \sin(\omega t)$

Output $w(t) = f(e) = f(A \sin(\omega t))$



Output – Periodic function $w(t + T) = w(t)$

Fourier Transformation $w(t) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [a_n \cos(n\omega t) + b_n \sin(n\omega t)]$

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} w(t) d(\omega t)$$

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} w(t) \cos(n\omega t) d(\omega t)$$

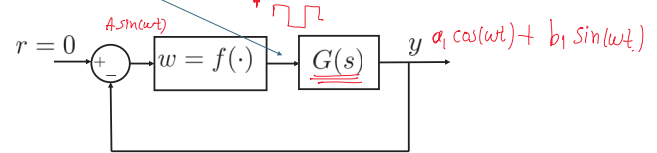
$$b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} w(t) \sin(n\omega t) d(\omega t)$$

0 for odd w



The linear transfer function as a low-pass filter

$$w(t) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [a_n \cos(n\omega t) + b_n \sin(n\omega t)]$$



- If the transfer function is acting as a low pass filter the output y will be mainly affected by the first harmonic of w

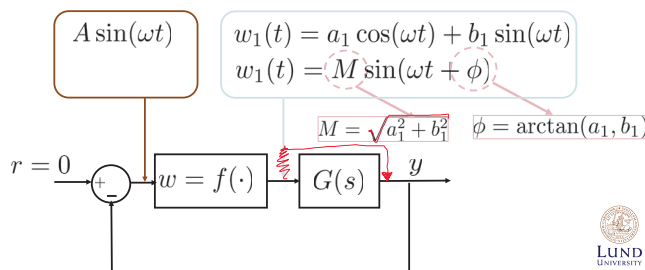
$$w(t) = w_1(t) = a_1 \cos(\omega t) + b_1 \sin(\omega t)$$

- The method is based on approximations (heuristic)



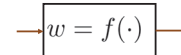
The linear transfer function as a low-pass filter

- “Filtering” Assumption: the first harmonic is taken as output of the nonlinear block



Describing Function

Input of the nonlinear element $A e^{j\omega t}$



Output of the nonlinear element

$$w_1(t) = M e^{(j\omega t + \phi)}$$

$$w_1(t) = (b_1 + j a_1) e^{j\omega t}$$

- Describing function definition

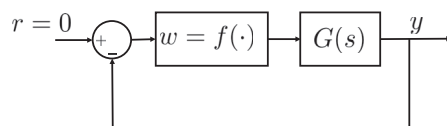
$$N(A, \omega) = \frac{\text{Output}}{\text{Input}} \Rightarrow N(A, \omega) = \frac{M e^{(j\omega t + \phi)}}{A e^{j\omega t}} = \frac{M}{A} e^{j\phi}$$



Describing Function (cont.)

$$N(A, \omega) = \frac{M}{A} e^{j\phi}$$

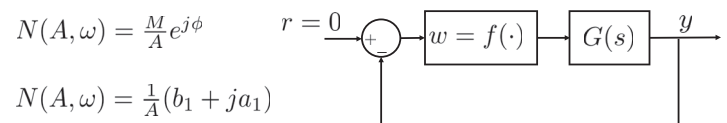
$$N(A, \omega) = \frac{1}{A} (b_1 + j a_1)$$



- Extension of the notion of frequency response for systems with nonlinearities
- Depends on the amplitude of the input signal in contrast to the frequency response for linear systems



Describing Function –special cases



- It is **real** and **independent of the frequency** when the non-linearity is **single-valued**

- Why? $a_1 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} w(t) \cos(\omega t) d(\omega t) \longrightarrow$ • Imaginary part

$$b_1 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} w(t) \sin(\omega t) d(\omega t) \longrightarrow$$

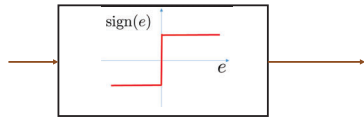
- Real part



Describing Function – Example

$$N(A, \omega) = \frac{1}{A}(b_1 + ja_1) \quad a_1 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} w(t) \cos(\omega t) d(\omega t)$$

$$b_1 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} w(t) \sin(\omega t) d(\omega t)$$



Describing Function – Example

$$N(A, \omega) = \frac{1}{A}(b_1 + ja_1) \quad a_1 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} w(t) \cos(\omega t) d(\omega t)$$

$$b_1 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} w(t) \sin(\omega t) d(\omega t)$$

$$a_1 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \text{sign}[\sin(\omega t)] \cos(\omega t) d(\omega t) = 0$$

$$a_1 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos \sigma d\sigma = -\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^0 \cos \sigma d\sigma + \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \cos \sigma d\sigma = 0 \quad b_1 = \frac{4}{A\pi}$$

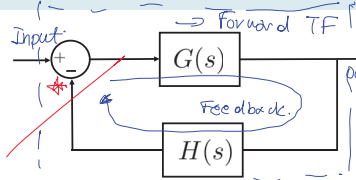
$$b_1 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \text{sign}[\sin(\omega t)] \sin(\omega t) d(\omega t)$$

$$b_1 = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \sin \sigma d\sigma = \frac{2}{\pi} [-\cos \sigma]_0^{\pi} = \frac{4}{\pi}$$

$$N(A, \omega) = \frac{4}{A\pi}$$



Nyquist criterion: Definitions



- Closed loop Transfer Function $G(s)$

$$1 + G(s)H(s)$$

- Open loop Transfer Function

$$G(s)H(s) = \frac{a_m s^m + \dots + a_1 s + a_0}{b_n s^n + \dots + b_1 s + b_0}$$

$m \leq n$ for proper/strictly proper transfer function

- The characteristic equation of the system: $\Delta(s) = 1 + G(s)H(s) = 0$

- Poles of $\Delta(s) \rightarrow$ poles of the OLS system

- Zeros of $\Delta(s) \rightarrow$ poles of the CLS system

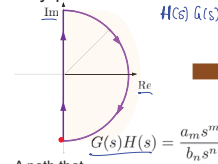
- Example:

$$G(s)H(s) = \frac{s+1}{(s-1)(s-2)}$$



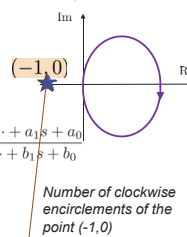
Nyquist contour and plot

- Nyquist contour



A path that encircles the right-half s-plane

- Nyquist plot

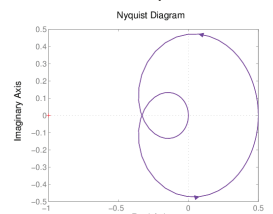


Number of clockwise encirclements of the point $(-1, 0)$

- Nyquist Criterion

$$P_{CL} - P_{OL} = N(-1, 0)$$

Example



$$G(s)H(s) = \frac{s+1}{(s-1)(s-2)}$$

$$G(j\omega)H(j\omega) = \frac{1+j\omega}{(1-j\omega)(-2-j\omega)}$$



Nyquist Criterion

- The number of unstable Closed Loop Poles is equal to the number of open loop poles with positive real part plus the number of clockwise encirclements of the point $(-1, 0)$

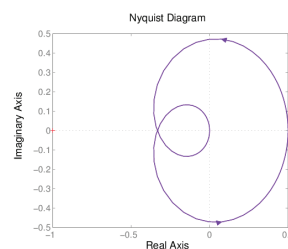
$$P_{CL} = N(-1, 0) + P_{OL}$$

- Given a stable open loop system, the closed loop is stable if the Nyquist plot of the open loop system does not encircle the point $(-1, 0)$.

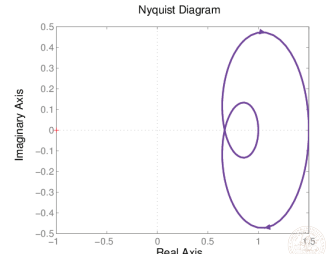


Nyquist Criterion: Quiz

$$G(s)H(s) = \frac{s+1}{(s-1)(s-2)}$$



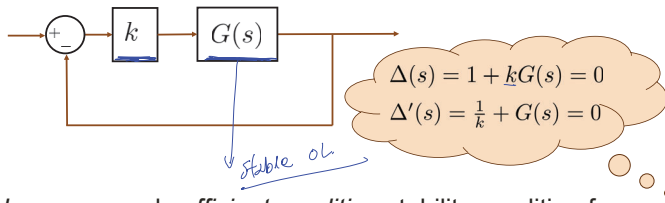
$$G(s)H(s) = \frac{(s+1)^2 + 2}{(s+1)(s+2)}$$



Stable or Unstable?



Nyquist Criterion



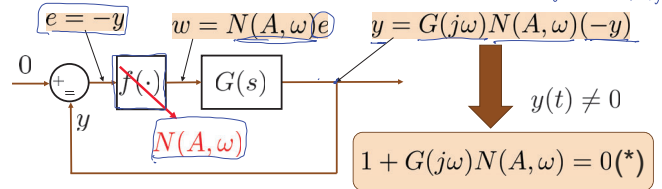
Necessary and sufficient condition stability condition for systems for stable open-loop systems:

The Nyquist plot does not encircle the point $-1/k$



Extension of Nyquist Criterion for Describing Function Analysis (Existence of oscillations)

- Assume that there exists self-sustained oscillations $(1 + G(j\omega)N(A,\omega))y = 0$

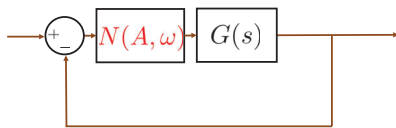


- The amplitude and frequency must satisfy (*) – Harmonic balance

- If (*) has no solutions then there are no oscillations in the system



Extension of Nyquist Criterion for Describing Function Analysis (Stability of oscillations)

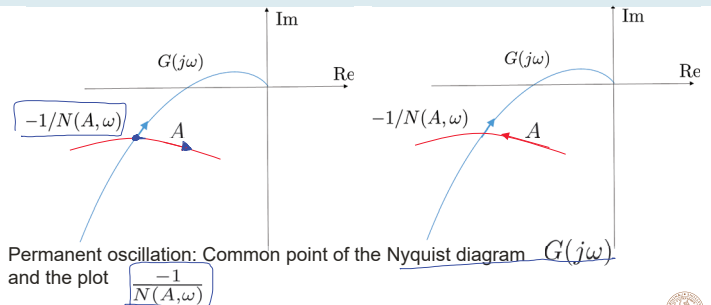


Necessary and sufficient condition stability condition for systems with stable (open-loop) linear part:

The Nyquist plot does not encircle the point $-1/N(A,\omega)$



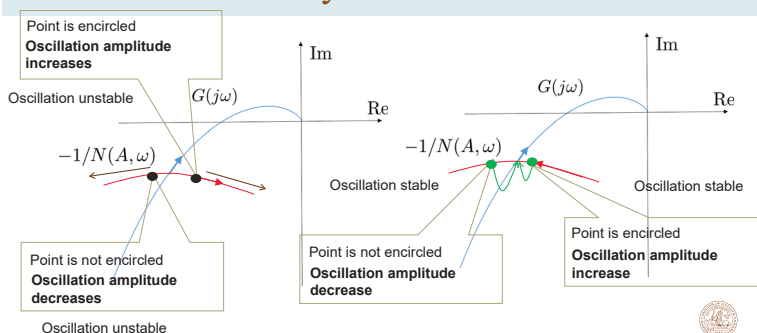
Stability of oscillations



- Permanent oscillation: Common point of the Nyquist diagram $G(j\omega)$ and the plot $-1/N(A,\omega)$
- Stability of the oscillation: Does the oscillation continue after a small perturbation in A?

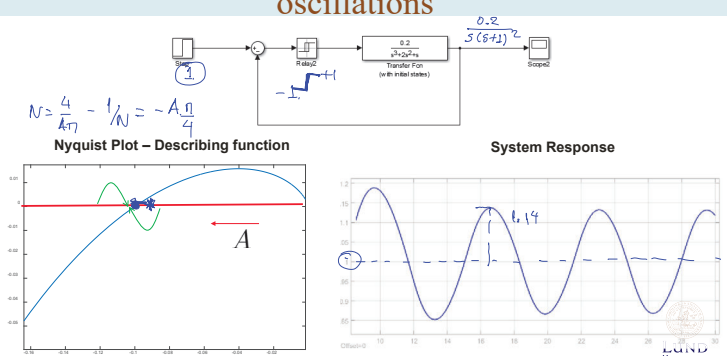


Stability of oscillations

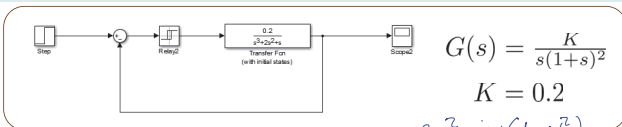


Stability of the oscillation: Does the oscillation continue after a small perturbation in A?

Example – Prediction and stability of persistent oscillations



Example – Prediction of oscillations



$$G(s) = \frac{K}{s(1+s)^2}$$

$$K = 0.2$$

$$G(j\omega) = \frac{K}{j\omega(1+j\omega)^2} = \frac{K}{-2\omega^2 + j\omega(1-\omega^2)}$$

$$= -\frac{2K\omega^2}{4\omega^4 + \omega^2(1-\omega^2)^2} - j\frac{K\omega(1-\omega^2)}{4\omega^4 + \omega^2(1-\omega^2)^2}$$

Real for $\omega = 1 \text{ rad/s}$ $G(j1) = -\frac{K}{2}$

For $K = 0.2$ $A = 0.127$

$N(A) = \frac{4}{A\pi}$

$A = \frac{2K}{\pi}$

$G(j\omega) = -\frac{1}{N(A)}$

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Describing function analysis: pitfalls

- DF analysis may predict a limit cycle, even if it does not exist.
- A limit cycle may exist, even if DF analysis does not predict it.
- The predicted amplitude and frequency are only approximations and can be far from the true values.



FRNT05 Nonlinear Control Systems and Servo Systems

Lecture 5: Lyapunov stability I

YIANNIS KARAYIANNIDIS, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR
AUTOMATIC CONTROL, FACULTY OF ENGINEERING. www.yiannis.info



Outline

- Physics based motivation
- Lyapunov function candidates
- Local Lyapunov Stability
- Global Lyapunov Stability
- Lyapunov stability for linear systems
- Lyapunov stability with linearization



Example (nonlinear spring with external force)

- Differential Equation

$$m\ddot{x} + b|\dot{x}|\dot{x} + k_0x + k_1x^3 = 0$$

Nonlinear damping Hardening spring

- State space representation

Position: $x_1 = x$ Velocity: $x_2 = \dot{x}$

- Plug in the system dynamics
- Derivative along the system trajectories

$$m\ddot{x} = -b|\dot{x}|\dot{x} - k_0x - k_1x^3$$

$$\int_0^x (k_0s + k_1s^3) ds = \frac{1}{2}k_0x^2 + \frac{1}{4}k_1x^4$$

- Energy

$$E(x, \dot{x}) = \frac{m\dot{x}^2}{2} + \int_0^x F_{spring} ds$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}E(x, \dot{x}) = m\dot{x}\ddot{x} + k_0x\dot{x} + k_1x^3\dot{x}$$

$$\frac{d}{dt}E(x, \dot{x}) = -b|\dot{x}|\dot{x}^2 \leq 0$$



3

Lyapunov function candidates

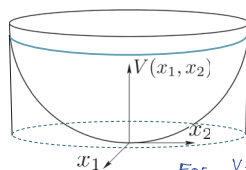
$V(x) : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a C^1 function. $\frac{\partial V}{\partial x}$ exists + continuous

$V(x)$ is positive definite if $V(x) > 0 \forall x \neq 0$, and $V(x) = 0$ only if $x = 0$.

$V(x)$ is positive semi-definite if $V(x) \geq 0 \forall x \in \Omega$

example $V(x) = x_1^2 + x_2^2$

level sets $x_1^2 + x_2^2 = c$



Lyapunov level set where $V = c$ (c constant)

$$\Omega_c = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : V(x) \leq c\}$$

For $V = x_1^2 + x_2^2$


$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial x} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 & 2x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial x} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial V}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial V}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial V}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$



Lyapunov function candidates – positive definite functions

$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$, $x^* = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $x^{**} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $V(x^*) = V(x^{**}) = 0$
 $V(x) = x_1^2 \rightarrow$ positive semidefinite
 $V(x) = x_1^2 + ax_2^2$ if $a > 0$ p.d.
 $V(x) = x_1^2 + (x_1 - x_2)^2$ $V(x) > 0$ when $x_1 = 0$, $x_2 = x_1$, when $x = 0$
 $V(x) = (x_1 + x_2)^2 \rightarrow$ positive semidefinite $V(x) = 0$ when $x_1 = -x_2$
 $V(x) = \int_0^{x_1} h(y) dy + x_2^2$ $h(y)$ increasing function with $h(0) = 0$
 $V(x) = h^2(x_1) + x_2^2$ $h(y) = 0$ unique solution $y^* = 0$
 $V = \int_0^{x_1} h(y) dy + x_2^2$ \rightarrow zero for $x_2 = 0$
 $y > 0 \Rightarrow h(y) > h(0) \Rightarrow h(y) > 0 \Rightarrow \int_0^{x_1} h(y) dy > 0$



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Lyapunov function candidates – quadratic forms

For a symmetric matrix $M = M^T$ all eigenvalues are real and:

- $x^T M x > 0, \forall x \neq 0 \iff M$ positive definite $\iff \lambda_i(M) > 0, \forall i$
- $x^T M x \geq 0, \forall x \iff M$ positive semi-definite $\iff \lambda_i(M) \geq 0, \forall i$

- For a symmetric matrix $M = M^T$

$$\|x\|^2 = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2 \leq x^T M x \leq \lambda_{\max}(M) \|x\|^2, \forall x$$

Proof idea: factorize $M = U \Lambda U^T$, unitary U (i.e., $\|Ux\| = \|x\| \forall x$), $\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$

- For any matrix M

$$\|Mx\| \leq \sqrt{\lambda_{\max}(M^T M)} \|x\|, \forall x$$

$$V = x_1^2 = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\text{eigs}(M) = (1, 0)$
 $M \rightarrow$ positive semidefinite

$$V = x_1^2 + (x_1 - x_2)^2 = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

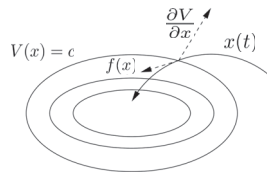
$$\det(M) = 1 > 0 \rightarrow \text{eigs} > 0$$

$M \Rightarrow$ positive def.

Differentiating Lyapunov function candidates along trajectories

$$\dot{V}(x) = \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} \dot{x} = \sum_i \frac{\partial V}{\partial x_i} f_i(x)$$

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial x} = \left[\frac{\partial V}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial V}{\partial x_2}, \dots, \frac{\partial V}{\partial x_n} \right]$$



Example: $V = \frac{1}{2} x_1^2 + \frac{1}{2} x_2^2$

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = -x_1 + x_1 x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = -x_2 - x_1^2 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = -x_2 + x_1 x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = x_1 - x_1^2 \end{cases}$$

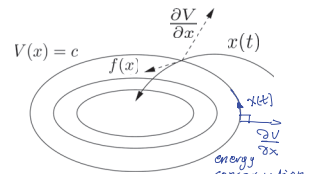
$$\begin{aligned} \dot{V} &= x_1 \dot{x}_1 + x_2 \dot{x}_2 \\ &= -x_1^2 + x_1^2 x_2 - x_2^2 - x_1^2 x_2 \\ &= -x_1^2 - x_2^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{V} &= \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -x_1 + x_1 x_2 \\ x_1 - x_1^2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= -x_1^2 + x_1^2 x_2 + x_2 x_1 - x_1^2 x_2 = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Energy conservation and dissipation

$$\dot{V}(x) = \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} \dot{x} = \sum_i \frac{\partial V}{\partial x_i} f_i(x)$$

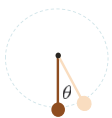
$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial x} = \left[\frac{\partial V}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial V}{\partial x_2}, \dots, \frac{\partial V}{\partial x_n} \right]$$



- Energy conservation:** $\dot{V}(x) = \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} f(x) = 0$, i.e., $f(x) \perp \frac{\partial V}{\partial x}$, normal to the level surface $V(x) = c$

- Energy dissipation:** $\dot{V}(x) = \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} f(x) \leq 0$, i.e., $f(x)$ forms an angle bigger than $\pi/2$ smaller than π (equal)

Energy conservation and dissipation (pendulum)



$$m l^2 \ddot{\theta} + k l \dot{\theta} + m g l \sin \theta = 0$$

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = -\frac{b}{m} x_2 - \frac{g}{l} \sin x_1, \quad b = \frac{k}{l} \end{cases}$$

$$V(x_1, x_2) = E(\theta, \dot{\theta}) = \frac{1}{2} m l^2 \dot{\theta}^2 + m g l (1 - \cos \theta)$$

Energy = kinetic + potential

No friction $b = 0$, lossless mechanical system

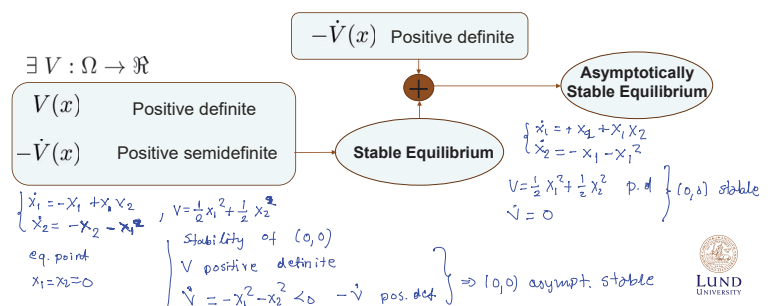
Friction $b > 0$, damping

$$\dot{E}(\theta, \dot{\theta}) = m l^2 \dot{\theta} \ddot{\theta} + m g l \sin \theta \dot{\theta} = \dots = -b l^2 \dot{\theta}^2$$

$$\text{if } b = 0 \quad \dot{E} = 0$$

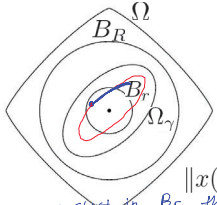
Local stability of an equilibrium point of a nonlinear system – Lyapunov's Direct Method

$$\dot{x} = f(x), f(x^*) = 0 \quad x^* = 0 \in \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$$



Sketchy proof of the basic Lyapunov Theorem on stability

$x^* = 0 \quad \forall R, \exists r(R), x(t)$ starts in $B_r = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x\| \leq r\}$
remains in $B_R = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x\| \leq R\} \subset \Omega$



Choose $\Omega_\gamma = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : V(x) \leq \gamma\} \subset B_R$

Choose $B_r = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|x\| \leq r\} \subset \Omega_\gamma$

$$\dot{V}(x(t)) \leq 0$$

$$\|x(0)\| < r \Rightarrow V(x(t)) \leq V(x(0)) := a, \forall t \geq 0$$

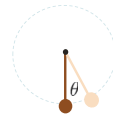
$$x(t) \in \Omega_\gamma, \forall t \geq 0$$

$$x(t) \in B_R, \forall t \geq 0$$

When you start in B_r the worst that can happen is to stay in $V(x) \leq a < \gamma$. The trajectory is in $\Omega_\gamma \subset B_R$.



Stability analysis of eq. for the pendulum



$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = -\frac{b}{m}x_2 - \frac{g}{\ell} \sin x_1, \quad b = \frac{k}{\ell} \end{cases}$$

Equilibrium $x_2 = 0, \sin x_1 = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 = \pm n\pi$

By assuming $\Omega = \{|x_1| < \pi, x_2 < M\}$ $(x_1, x_2) = (0, 0)$ is the only eq. in Ω

$$V(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2} m \ell^2 \dot{x}_2^2 + m g \ell (1 - \cos x_1) \quad \text{p.d. in } \Omega$$

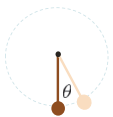
for $|x_1| < \pi$ $(1 - \cos x_1) > 0$

$$\dot{V}(x_1, x_2) = [m g \ell \sin x_1 \quad m \ell^2 x_2]^T \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ -\frac{b}{m} x_2 - \frac{g}{\ell} \sin x_1 \end{bmatrix} = \dots = -b \ell^2 x_2^2 \leq 0$$

Based on the Theorem, the conclusion we make is that the eq. $(0, 0)$ is stable



Stability analysis of eq. for the pendulum



$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = -\frac{b}{m}x_2 - \frac{g}{\ell} \sin x_1, \quad b = \frac{k}{\ell} \end{cases}$$

* We cannot make any conclusion for asymptotic stability (stability and convergence)

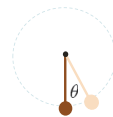
$$V(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2} m \dot{x}_2^2 + \frac{m g}{\ell} (1 - \cos x_1)$$

* we need to further investigate by e.g. considering another Lyapunov function candidate

$$\dot{V}(x_1, x_2) = \left[\frac{m g}{\ell} \sin x_1 \quad m x_2 \right]^T \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ -\frac{b}{m} x_2 - \frac{g}{\ell} \sin x_1 \end{bmatrix} = \dots = -b x_2^2$$



Stability analysis of eq. for the pendulum



$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = -\frac{b}{m}x_2 - \frac{g}{\ell} \sin x_1, \quad b = \frac{k}{\ell} \end{cases}$$

$$V(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2} x^T P x + m g \ell (1 - \cos x_1), \quad P = \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} \\ p_{12} & p_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$V = \frac{1}{2} p_{11} x_1^2 + p_{12} x_1 x_2 + \frac{1}{2} p_{22} x_2^2 + m g \ell (1 - \cos x_1) \quad \text{p.d. for } p_{11} p_{22} - p_{12}^2 > 0, p_{11} > 0$$

$\dot{V} = p_{11} x_1 \dot{x}_1 + p_{12} x_1 \dot{x}_2 + p_{21} x_2 \dot{x}_1 + p_{22} x_2 \dot{x}_2 + m g \ell \sin x_1 x_2$ differentiate V

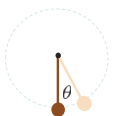
$$\dot{V} = p_{11} x_1 x_2 + p_{12} x_1 \left(-\frac{b}{m} x_2 - \frac{g}{\ell} \sin x_1 \right) + p_{21} x_2^2 + p_{22} x_2 \left(-\frac{b}{m} x_2 - \frac{g}{\ell} \sin x_1 \right) + m g \ell \sin x_1 x_2$$

$$\dot{V} = (p_{11} - p_{12} \frac{b}{m}) x_1 x_2 - p_{12} \frac{g}{\ell} x_1 \sin x_1 + (p_{21} - p_{22} \frac{b}{m}) x_2^2 + (m g \ell - p_{22} \frac{g}{\ell}) x_2 \sin x_1$$

group the terms that involve the states



Stability analysis of eq. for the pendulum



$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = -\frac{b}{m}x_2 - \frac{g}{\ell} \sin x_1, \quad b = \frac{k}{\ell} \end{cases}$$

$$V(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2} x^T P x + m g \ell (1 - \cos x_1), \quad P = \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} \\ p_{12} & p_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$V = \frac{1}{2} p_{11} x_1^2 + p_{12} x_1 x_2 + \frac{1}{2} p_{22} x_2^2 + m g \ell (1 - \cos x_1)$$

$$p_{11} p_{22} - p_{12}^2 > 0 \quad 0 < p_{12} < b \ell^2$$

The terms in boxes are sign indefinite (should be cancelled) we don't know their sign if we don't know the functions

$$\dot{V} = (p_{11} - p_{12} \frac{b}{m}) x_1 x_2 - p_{12} \frac{g}{\ell} x_1 \sin x_1 + (p_{21} - p_{22} \frac{b}{m}) x_2^2 + (m g \ell - p_{22} \frac{g}{\ell}) x_2 \sin x_1$$

$$p_{11} = p_{12} \frac{b}{m}$$

$$p_{12} > 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x_1 \sin x_1 > 0 \quad \text{in } \Omega = \{|x_1| < \pi, |x_2| < M\}$$

$$0 < p_{12} < b \ell^2$$

$$p_{22} = m \ell^2$$

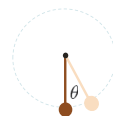
$$p_{11} = \frac{b^2 \ell^2}{2m}$$

$$p_{12} = \frac{b \ell^2}{2}$$

$$p_{22} = m \ell^2$$



Stability analysis of eq. for the pendulum



$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = -\frac{b}{m}x_2 - \frac{g}{\ell} \sin x_1, \quad b = \frac{k}{\ell} \end{cases}$$

$$V(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2} x^T P x + m g \ell (1 - \cos x_1), \quad P = \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} \\ p_{12} & p_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$V = \frac{1}{2} p_{11} x_1^2 + p_{12} x_1 x_2 + \frac{1}{2} p_{22} x_2^2 + m g \ell (1 - \cos x_1)$$

$$p_{11} = \frac{b^2 \ell^2}{2m} \quad p_{12} = \frac{b \ell^2}{2}$$

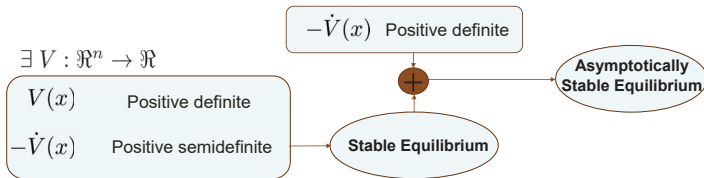
$$p_{22} = m \ell^2$$

$$\dot{V} = -\frac{g \ell}{2} x_1 \sin x_1 - \frac{b \ell^2}{2} x_2^2 \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} V \text{ p.d.} \\ -\dot{V} \text{ p.d.} \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow (0, 0) \text{ asymptotically stable equilibrium}$$



Global stability of an equilibrium point of a nonlinear system – Lyapunov's Direct Method

$$\dot{x} = f(x), f(x^*) = 0 \quad x^* = 0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$$



Is it enough to consider $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^n$?



Study the stability of the eq. point

Example:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = \frac{-6x_1}{(1+x_1^2)^2} + 2x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = \frac{-2(x_1+x_2)}{(1+x_1^2)^2} \end{cases}$$

$$V = \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1^2}{1+x_1^2} + \frac{1}{2} x_2^2 \quad p.d$$

$$\dot{V} = \frac{-x_1 \dot{x}_1}{(1+x_1^2)^2} + x_2 \dot{x}_2 = -\frac{6x_1^2}{(1+x_1^2)^3} - \frac{2x_2^2}{(1+x_1^2)^2} \quad -\dot{V} \text{ p.d}$$

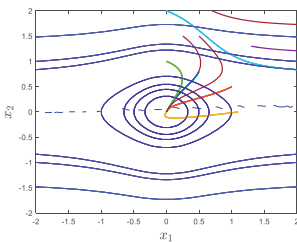
asymptotically stable global?
 → check the next slide



Radially unbounded functions

Example:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = \frac{-6x_1}{(1+x_1^2)^2} + 2x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = \frac{-2(x_1+x_2)}{(1+x_1^2)^2} \end{cases}$$



Radially unbounded function: $V(x) \rightarrow \infty$ as $\|x\| \rightarrow \infty$

Is $V = \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1^2}{1+x_1^2} + \frac{1}{2} x_2^2$ radially unbounded? $\checkmark = \frac{1}{2}$ is unbounded

No

If $\|x\| \rightarrow \infty$ e.g. $x_1 \rightarrow \infty$
 $x_2 \rightarrow K$

then $V \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} K^2$

Find common points
 of $V = C$
 with $x_2 = 0$

$\frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1^2}{1+x_1^2} = C$
 $C = \frac{1}{2}$
 no common points

$x_1^2 - 2Cx_1^2 = 2C$
 $x_1^2 = \frac{2C}{1-2C}$
 when $C = \frac{1}{2}$

Lyapunov function candidates for global stability – radially unbounded functions

$$V(x) = x_1^2 + ax_2^2$$

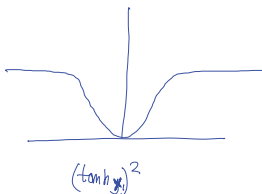
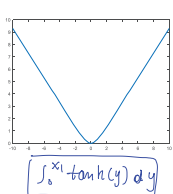
$$V(x) = x_1^2 + (x_1 - x_2)^2$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} V(x) &= \int_0^{x_1} h(y) dy + x_2^2 \\ V(x) &= h^2(x_1) + x_2^2 \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{aligned} h(y) &\text{ increasing function with} \\ h(0) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$



Lyapunov function candidates – radially unbounded functions

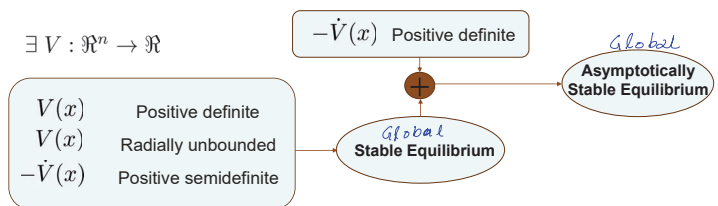
$$\left. \begin{aligned} V(x) &= \int_0^{x_1} h(y) dy + x_2^2 \\ V(x) &= h^2(x_1) + x_2^2 \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{aligned} h(y) &\text{ increasing function with} \\ h(0) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$



Global stability of an equilibrium point of a nonlinear system – Lyapunov's Direct Method

$$\dot{x} = f(x), f(x^*) = 0 \quad x^* = 0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\exists V : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$



$$\Omega = \mathbb{R}^n$$



Stability of an equilibrium point of a nonlinear system – Lyapunov's Direct Method

$$\dot{x} = f(x), f(x^*) = 0 \quad x^* = 0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\Omega(\mathbb{R}^n)$$

$$\exists V : \Omega(\mathbb{R}^n) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$-\dot{V}(x)$ Positive definite

Asymptotically Stable Equilibrium

$V(x)$ Positive definite

$V(x)$ Radially unbounded

$-\dot{V}(x)$ Positive semidefinite

Stable Equilibrium

$$\Omega(\mathbb{R}^n)$$



Lyapunov stability analysis - comments

- The conditions of the Theorem are only sufficient

If conditions are not satisfied:

It does not mean that the equilibrium is unstable.

It means that the chosen Lyapunov function does not allow to make a conclusion

It requires further investigation

- try to find another Lyapunov function
- Use other Theorems ☺



Lyapunov analysis for Linear systems

Linear system: $\dot{x} = Ax$

$$\dot{x} = Ax = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 4 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

To check stability:

- Find the eigenvalues of A , λ_i .
- Verify that they are negative.

Eigenvalues of A : $\{-1, -3\}$

\Rightarrow (global) asymptotic stability.

Try to prove stability with:

$$V(x) = \|x\|^2 = x^T x = x_1^2 + x_2^2$$

$$\dot{V} = x_1 \dot{x}_1 + x_2 \dot{x}_2$$

$$= -x_1^2 + 4x_1x_2 - 3x_2^2$$

$$= -\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det(M) = 3 - 4 = -1$$

$-\dot{V}$ is not p.d.



FRNT05 Nonlinear Control Systems and Servo Systems

Lecture 6: Lyapunov stability II

YIANNIS KARAYIANNIDIS, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR
AUTOMATIC CONTROL, FACULTY OF ENGINEERING.

www.yiannis.info



Stability of an equilibrium point of a nonlinear system – Lyapunov's Direct Method

$$\dot{x} = f(x), f(x^*) = 0 \quad x^* = 0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\Omega(\mathbb{R}^n)$$

$$\exists V : \Omega(\mathbb{R}^n) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$-\dot{V}(x)$ Positive definite

Asymptotically Stable Equilibrium

$V(x)$ Positive definite

$V(x)$ Radially unbounded

$-\dot{V}(x)$ Positive semidefinite

Stable Equilibrium

$$\Omega(\mathbb{R}^n)$$

Even if $\dot{V}(x) = 0$ the trajectory can escape to infinity if the condition on radially unboundedness is not satisfied



Lyapunov stability analysis - comments

- The conditions of the Theorem are only sufficient

If conditions are not satisfied:

It does not mean that the equilibrium is unstable.

It means that the chosen Lyapunov function does not allow to make a conclusion

It requires further investigation

- try to find another Lyapunov function
- Use other Theorems ☺



Outline

- Softer conditions
- Convergence rate (exponential stability)
- Invariant Sets
- Region of attraction
- Asymptotic stability of invariant sets
- Lyapunov stability for linear systems



Asymptotic Stability (softer condition on \dot{V})

Barbashin, Krasovskii Theorem (LaSalle Invariance Principle is more general and proved afterwards, we can call this LaSalle Theorem)

Theorem: Let $\dot{x} = f(x)$ and $f(x^*) = 0$. If there exists a C^1 function $V : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that

(1) $V(x) > 0$ for all $x \neq x^*$ and $V(x^*) = 0$

(2) $V(x) \rightarrow \infty$ as $\|x\| \rightarrow \infty$

(3) $\dot{V}(x) \leq 0$ for all x

(4) No solution of $\dot{x} = f(x)$ can stay identically in $E = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \dot{V} = 0\}$ except of $x = x^*$

then x^* is globally asymptotically stable.

$- \dot{V}$ is not positive definite

1. Find the solution corresponding to $\dot{V} = 0$
2. Substitute in $\dot{x} = f(x)$ and show that corresponds to $x = x^*$



Example (revisited)

$m\ddot{x} = -b\dot{x}|x| - k_0x - k_1x^3$

$V(x, \dot{x}) = \frac{(2m\dot{x}^2) + (2k_0x^2 + k_1x^4)}{4} > 0, \quad V(0, 0) = 0$

$\dot{V}(x, \dot{x}) = -b|\dot{x}|^3$ gives $E = \{(x, \dot{x}) : \dot{x} = 0\}$.

• $\dot{V} \leq 0$ (it is not negative definite because it can be zero for all x)
negative semidefinite

• $\dot{V} = 0 \Rightarrow \dot{x} = 0 \Rightarrow \ddot{x} = 0 \Rightarrow k_0x(1 + \frac{k_1}{k_0}x^2) = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 = 0$

$\dot{V} = 0$ implies $\dot{x} = 0$
Differentiating we get $\ddot{x} = 0$.

And substituting in (*) we get $x = 0$

Global asymptotic stability of $(x, \dot{x}) = (0, 0)$

Barbashin, Krasovskii or LaSalle



Exponential stability

Theorem: Let $\dot{x} = f(x)$ and $f(x^*) = 0$. If there exists a C^1 function $V : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and numbers $\alpha, \epsilon, c > 0$ such that

(1) $V(x^*) = 0$

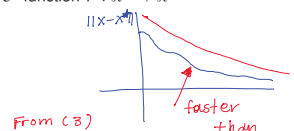
(2) $V(x) > \epsilon \|x - x^*\|^c > 0$ for all $x \neq x^*$

(3) $\dot{V}(x) \leq -\alpha V(x)$ for all x

(4) $V(x) \rightarrow \infty$ as $\|x\| \rightarrow \infty$

then x^* is globally exponentially stable.

More strict condition than p.d.



From (3) $V(x) \leq V(0) e^{-\alpha t}$

From (2) $\epsilon \|x - x^*\|^c \leq V(0) e^{-\alpha t}$

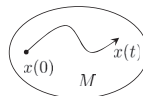
$\Rightarrow \|x - x^*\| \leq \left(\frac{V(0)}{\epsilon}\right)^{\frac{1}{c}} e^{-\frac{\alpha}{c}t}$



Invariants Sets

Invariant set M for the system $\dot{x} = f(x)$.

$$x(0) \in M \Rightarrow x(t) \in M \quad \forall t \geq 0.$$



- Examples:**
- equilibrium points
 - limit cycles
 - the whole \mathbb{R}^n
 - Lyapunov sets



Lyapunov sets as invariant sets

- Notice that the condition $\dot{V} \leq 0$ implies that if a trajectory crosses a Lyapunov surface $V(x) = \gamma$ it can never come out again.

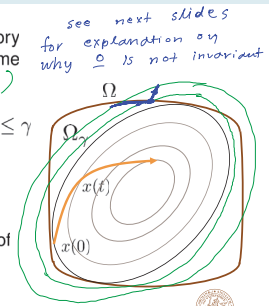
Why? $x(0) \in \Omega_\gamma \quad \dot{V} \leq 0 \Rightarrow V(x(t)) \leq V(x(0)) \leq \gamma$

$$V(x(0)) \leq \gamma \Rightarrow x(t) \in \Omega_\gamma = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : V(x) \leq \gamma\}, \quad \forall t \geq 0$$

- If $V(x) \in C^1$ and satisfies $\dot{V}(x) \leq 0$ along the solutions of $\dot{x} = f(x)$, then the set:

$$\Omega_\gamma = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : V(x) \leq \gamma\} \subset \Omega$$

is an invariant set.



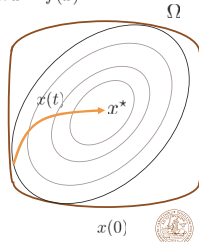
Region of Attraction

- Local asymptotic stability theorems guarantee existence of a possibly small neighborhood of the equilibrium point where such an attraction takes place
- The region of attraction to the equilibrium point x^* of the system $\dot{x} = f(x)$ is defined by $\mathcal{R}_A = \{x(0) \in \Omega : x(t) \rightarrow x^* \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty\}$.
- If $V(x) \in C^1$ and satisfies $\dot{V}(x) \leq 0$ along the solutions of $\dot{x} = f(x)$, then the set:

$$\Omega_\gamma = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : V(x) \leq \gamma\} \subset \Omega$$

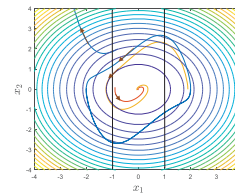
is an invariant set and can be used as an **estimate of region of attraction**.

- The estimate of the region of attraction based on Lyapunov level sets is conservative $\Omega_\gamma \subset \mathcal{R}_A$



Discussion

Why we cannot claim that Ω is an estimate of region of attraction?



$$\Omega = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \dot{V} \leq 0\}$$

Van der Pol equation in reverse time

$$\dot{x}_1 = -x_2$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = x_1 - (1 - x_1^2)x_2$$

$$V = \frac{1}{2}(x_1^2 + x_2^2) \text{ positive definite for all } x$$

$$\dot{V} = -(1 - x_1^2)x_2^2 \text{ negative semidefinite for } |x_2| < 1$$

The conditions for applying LaSalle Theorem for asymptotic stability are satisfied in $\Omega = \{|x_1| < 1, |x_2| < L\}$ L arbitrarily large constant.

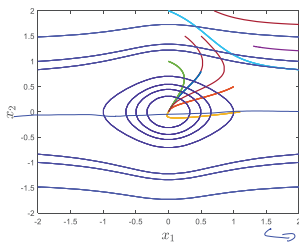
Thus, the origin is local asymptotically stable. However Ω is not invariant. Starting within Ω the trajectory can move to Lyapunov surfaces $V(x) = \gamma$ with smaller γ s but there is no guarantee that the trajectory will remain in Ω . See the blue trajectories. Once leaving Ω , \dot{V} could be positive and the trajectory may move to Lyapunov surfaces with higher γ . Observe that one of the blue trajectories is a limit cycle. Characterize its stability.



Example 1

Example:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = \frac{-6x_1}{(1+x_1^2)^2} + 2x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = \frac{-2(x_1+x_2)}{(1+x_1^2)^2} \end{cases}$$



$$\begin{cases} x_2 = 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1^2}{1+x_1^2} + \frac{1}{2} x_2^2 = c \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1^2}{1+x_1^2} = c \end{cases}$$

$$V = \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1^2}{1+x_1^2} + \frac{1}{2} x_2^2 > 0 \text{ and } V(0) = 0 \text{ for } \text{has solution when } c < \frac{1}{2} \text{ (ok)}$$

$$V = \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1^2}{1+x_1^2} + \frac{1}{2} x_2^2 \text{ is radially unbounded for } V(x) < 1$$

$$\dot{V} = \frac{x_1 \dot{x}_1}{(1+x_1^2)^2} + x_2 \dot{x}_2 = -6 \frac{x_1^2}{(1+x_1^2)^4} - 2 \frac{x_2^2}{(1+x_1^2)^2} < 0, \dot{V}(0) = 0$$

$x_2 = 0$
The axis $x_2 = 0$ intersects with a Lyapunov surface $V(x) = c$ when $c < \frac{1}{2}$

- Local asymptotic stability
- Estimate of region of attraction $\Omega_\gamma = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : V(x) < 1/2\}$



Example 2

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = -x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = \frac{x_1}{2} + x_2^3 - x_2 \end{cases}$$

$$V = \frac{x_1^2}{2} + x_2^2 > 0 \text{ and } V(0) = 0$$

$$V = \frac{x_1^2}{2} + x_2^2 \text{ radially unbounded}$$

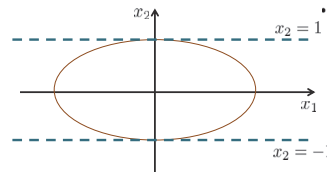
$$\dot{V} = x_1 \dot{x}_1 + 2x_2 \dot{x}_2 = \dots = 2x_2^2(x_2 - 1)$$

$$\dot{V} \leq 0 \text{ for } |x_2| < 1$$

$$\dot{V} \equiv 0 \Rightarrow x_2 \equiv 0 \Rightarrow \dot{x}_1 \equiv 0 \text{ for } |x_2| < 1$$

Local asymptotic stability

Estimate of region of attraction $\Omega_1 = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : V(x) < 1\}$



Example 3

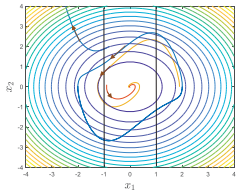
Van der Pol equation in reverse time

$$\dot{x}_1 = -x_2$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = x_1 - (1 - x_1^2)x_2$$

$$V = \frac{1}{2}(x_1^2 + x_2^2) \text{ positive definite for all } x$$

$$\dot{V} = -(1 - x_1^2)x_2^2 \text{ negative semidefinite for } |x_1| < 1$$



The conditions for applying LaSalle Theorem for asymptotic stability are satisfied in $\Omega = \{|x_1| < 1, |x_2| < L\}$ L arbitrarily large constant. Thus, the origin is local asymptotically stable.

- Derive an estimate of the region of attraction.
- Which is the actual region of attraction?



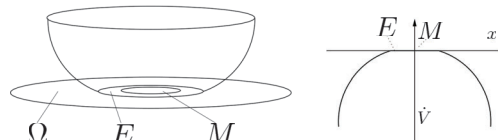
LaSalle's invariance principle

LaSalle's invariant set Theorem

- Let $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ compact invariant set for $\dot{x} = f(x)$.
- Let $V : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a C^1 function such that $\dot{V}(x) \leq 0, \forall x \in \Omega$.
- $E := \{x \in \Omega : \dot{V}(x) = 0\}$, $M :=$ largest invariant subset of E

$$\forall x(0) \in \Omega, x(t) \text{ approaches } M \text{ as } t \rightarrow +\infty$$

Note that Ω can be defined independent of V . In many cases, it is easier to construct Ω based on V as $\Omega = \Omega_\gamma = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : V(x) \leq \gamma\}$.



Example – Limit Cycle

Show that $M = \{x : \|x\| = 1\}$ is an asymptotically stable limit cycle for (almost globally, except for starting at $x = 0$)

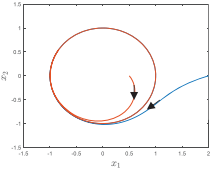
$$\|x\|^2 = x_1^2 + x_2^2$$

$$\dot{x}_1 = x_2 - x_1(x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1)$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = -x_1 - x_2(x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1)$$

The system has one equilibrium at the origin and one limit cycle. Thus the set of trajectories that are invariant for the system are in the set $E = \{x : \|x\| = 0 \text{ or } \|x\| = 1\}$. We can actually show this by calculating the derivative $\frac{d}{dt}(\|x\|^2) = -\|x\|^2(\|x\|^2 - 1)$:

- If $\|x(0)\| = 0$ or $\|x(0)\| = 1$ the derivative is zero $\frac{d}{dt}(\|x(0)\|^2)$ and thus the norm of x will not change.
- $\|x(t)\| = 0$ corresponds to the equilibrium point at the origin $\dot{x}_1 = \dot{x}_2$ while $\|x(t)\| = 1$ corresponds to $\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = -x_1 \end{cases}$ defining a limit cycle moving clockwise
- Remark: From the derivative $\frac{d}{dt}(\|x\|^2) = -2\|x\|^2(\|x\|^2 - 1)$ and if we consider a Lyapunov-like function $V_0 = \frac{1}{2}$ we can see that $\Omega' = \{\|x\| < 1\}$ cannot be proved invariant since $\dot{V}_0 > 0$.



Example – Limit Cycle

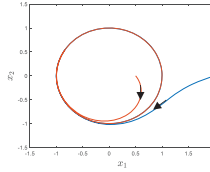
$$\dot{x}_1 = x_2 - x_1(x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1)$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = -x_1 - x_2(x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1)$$

- Take the Lyapunov-like $V = (x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1)^2$, that is positive but not positive definite. It encodes some distance metric from the limit cycle $x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1$.

- Differentiating V along the system trajectories, we get: $\dot{V} = -4(x_1^2 + x_2^2)(x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1)^2 \leq 0$.

- Choose $\Omega = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : 0 < \|x\| \leq 1\}$ to exclude $\|x\| = 0$. Note that Ω is invariant as it is subset of $\Omega_1 = \{V < 1\}$. Check this. By excluding $x = 0$, the maximum invariant set is $M = \{x \in \Omega : \|x\| = 1\}$.



LaSalle's Invariance Principle

$x \rightarrow M$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$ almost globally



Example – Set of equilibriums

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = \lambda x_1 - x_1 x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = a x_1^2 \end{cases}$$

At equilibrium

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = \lambda x_1 - x_1 x_2 = 0 \\ \dot{x}_2 = a x_1^2 = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow x_1 = 0, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$V = \frac{1}{2}x_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}(x_2 - c)^2 > 0, \text{ radially unbounded}$$

$$\dot{V} = -(c - \lambda)x_1^2 \leq 0 \text{ for } c > \lambda$$

$$E := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \dot{V}(x) = 0\} \equiv M := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_1 = 0\}$$

LaSalle's Invariance Theorem

$$x \rightarrow M \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty$$



Lyapunov analysis for Linear systems

Linear system: $\dot{x} = Ax$

$$\dot{x} = Ax = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 4 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

To check stability:

- Find the eigenvalues of A , λ_i .

Eigenvalues of A : $\{-1, -3\}$

- Verify that they are negative.

\Rightarrow (global) asymptotic stability.

Try to prove stability with:

$$V(x) = \frac{1}{2}\|x\|^2 = \frac{1}{2}x^T x = \frac{1}{2}Cx_1^2 + x_2^2$$

$$\dot{V} = x_1 \dot{x}_1 + x_2 \dot{x}_2$$

$$= -x_1^2 + 4x_1x_2 - 3x_2^2$$

$$= -\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det(M) = 3 - 4 = -1$$

$-\dot{V}$ is not p.d.



Lyapunov analysis for Linear systems

Linear system: $\dot{x} = Ax$

To check stability:

- Find the eigenvalues of A , λ_i .

- Verify that they are negative.

Try to prove stability with:

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} \\ p_{12} & p_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$V(x) = \|x\|^2 = x^T P x \quad \text{Parametric Lyapunov function in a quadratic form}$$

$$\dot{V}(x) = x^T P \dot{x} + \dot{x}^T P x = x^T (PA + A^T P)x \quad \text{Choose parameters for } P \text{ such that } -\dot{V}(x) \text{ p.d.}$$

$$-x^T Q x < 0$$

$$\hookrightarrow \text{e.g. } Q = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 & 0 \\ 0 & q_2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ if } q_1, q_2 > 0$$



Lyapunov analysis for Linear systems

- Let $Q = I_2$

$$\dot{x} = Ax = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 4 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Solve P from the Lyapunov equation

$$A^T P + P A = -I$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 4 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} \\ p_{12} & p_{22} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} \\ p_{12} & p_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 4 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2p_{11} & -4p_{12} + 4p_{11} \\ -4p_{12} + 4p_{11} & 8p_{12} - 6p_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solving for p_{11} , p_{12} and p_{22} gives

$$\begin{aligned} 2p_{11} &= -1 \\ -4p_{12} + 4p_{11} &= 0 \\ 8p_{12} - 6p_{22} &= -1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} \\ p_{12} & p_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 5/6 \end{bmatrix} > 0$$



Lyapunov analysis for Linear systems

Linear system: $\dot{x} = Ax$

To check stability:

1. Find the eigenvalues of A , λ_i .
2. Verify that they are negative.

or

1. Choose an arbitrary symmetric, positive definite matrix Q . Lyapunov function: $V(x) = x^T P x$
2. Find P that satisfies Lyapunov equation $\dot{V}(x) = x^T P \dot{x} + \dot{x}^T P x = -x^T Q x$

$$PA + A^T P = -Q$$

and verify that it is positive definite.



FRNT05 Nonlinear Control Systems and Servo Systems

Lecture 7: Indirect Lyapunov's method and Input-Output Stability

YIANNIS KARAYIANNIDIS, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR
AUTOMATIC CONTROL, FACULTY OF ENGINEERING. www.yiannis.info



- Lab 1 today
- Lecture 28 Nov Monday
→ 2 Dec Friday

Outline

- Lyapunov Analysis for Linearized systems Indirect Lyapunov method.
- Indirect Lyapunov's Method
- Small-gain theorem
- Circle Criterion (the point $-1/k$ is replaced by a cycle)



Lyapunov analysis for Linear systems

Linear system: $\dot{x} = Ax$

To check stability:

1. Find the eigenvalues of A , λ_i .
2. Verify that they are negative.

or

1. Choose an arbitrary symmetric, positive definite matrix Q . Lyapunov function $V(x) = x^T P x$
2. Find P that satisfies Lyapunov equation $\dot{V}(x) = x^T P \dot{x} + \dot{x}^T P x = -x^T Q x$

$$A x = b \rightarrow PA + A^T P = -Q$$

and verify that it is positive definite.



Lyapunov analysis for Linear systems

1. Let $Q = I_2$
2. Solve P from the Lyapunov equation

$$A^T P + P A = -I$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 4 & -3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} \\ p_{12} & p_{22} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} \\ p_{12} & p_{22} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 4 \\ 0 & -3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2p_{11} & -4p_{12} + 4p_{11} \\ -4p_{12} + 4p_{11} & 8p_{12} - 6p_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solving for p_{11} , p_{12} and p_{22} gives

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{V} &= -x^T Q x \\ \dot{V} &\leq -\lambda_{\min}(Q) \|x\|^2 \\ \dot{V} &\leq -\lambda_{\min}(Q) \|x\|^2 \end{aligned} \quad \begin{aligned} 2p_{11} &= -1 \\ -4p_{12} + 4p_{11} &= 0 \\ 8p_{12} - 6p_{22} &= -1 \end{aligned} \quad \Rightarrow \quad P = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 5/6 \end{bmatrix} > 0$$

$$\det(P) > 0$$

$$p_{11} \text{ or } p_{22} > 0$$



Lyapunov's indirect method

Theorem Consider

$$\dot{x} = f(x)$$

Assume that $f(0) = 0$. Linearization

$$\dot{x} = Ax + g(x), \quad \|g(x)\| = o(\|x\|) \text{ as } x \rightarrow 0.$$

- (1) $\operatorname{Re} \lambda_k(A) < 0, \forall k \Rightarrow x = 0$ locally asympt. stable

- (2) $\exists k : \operatorname{Re} \lambda_k(A) > 0 \Rightarrow x = 0$ unstable

Lyapunov function candidate: $V(x) = x^T P x$

$$A = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=0} \quad A^T P + P A = -Q$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Jacobian} \\ A = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix} \\ \dot{x} &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=0} x + \left[f(x) - \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Big|_{x=0} x \right] \\ &\quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow \\ &\quad A \quad g(x) \end{aligned}$$



Lyapunov's indirect method

- Choose Q and solve $PA + A^T P = -Q$.

Lyapunov function candidate: $V(x) = x^T P x$

Differentiating $\dot{V}(x)$ along system's trajectories $\dot{x} = Ax + g(x) = f(x)$

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{V}(x) &= x^T P \dot{f}(x) + f^T(x) P x \\ &= x^T P [Ax + g(x)] + [x^T A^T + g^T(x)] P x \\ &= x^T (PA + A^T P)x + 2x^T P g(x) = -x^T Q x + 2x^T P g(x)\end{aligned}$$

$\|x\| \leq r \implies \|g(x)\| \leq \gamma \|x\|$

and for all $\gamma > 0$ there exists $r > 0$ such that

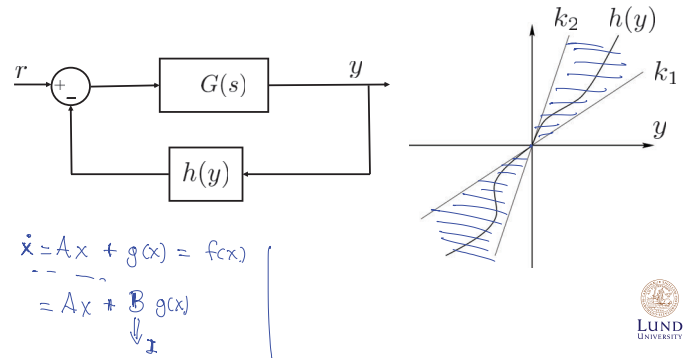
$$\dot{V} \leq -\lambda_{\min}(Q) \|x\|^2 + 2\gamma \|x\| \cdot \|x\|$$

Thus, choosing γ sufficiently small gives

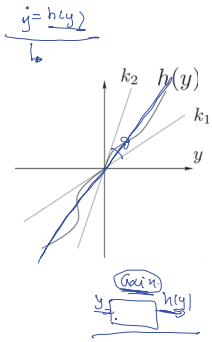
$$\dot{V} \leq -\lambda_{\min}(Q) \|x\|^2 + 2\gamma \|x\| \cdot \|x\|$$



Feedback form where the nonlinearity is in a block



Sector nonlinearity



Bound in sector function $h \in \text{sector}[k_1, k_2]$

- $h(y)$ continuous wrt y
- $h(0) = 0$
- $k_1 \leq \frac{h(y)}{y} \leq k_2, \forall y \neq 0$ or equivalently $k_1 y^2 \leq y h(y) \leq k_2 y^2, \forall y$

Other cases:

- $h \in \text{sector}[k_1, k_2] \implies k_1 \leq \frac{h(y)}{y} \leq k_2$
- $h \in \text{sector}[k_1, \infty) \implies k_1 \leq \frac{h(y)}{y}$
- $h \in \text{sector}[0, \infty)$ (first and third quadrant)

$$h \in [0, \infty)$$



Signal norms and spaces

- A signal $x(t)$ is a function from \mathbb{R}^+ to \mathbb{R}^d $x(t) \in \mathbb{R}^d$ $\|x\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + \dots + x_d^2}$
- A signal norm is a way to measure the size of $x(t)$ in long run:

2-norm (energy norm): $\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{\int_0^\infty \|x(t)\|^2 dt}$

sup-norm: $\|x\|_\infty = \sup_{t \in \mathbb{R}^+} |x(t)|$

- The space of signals with $\|x\|_2 < \infty$ is denoted \mathcal{L}_2 .
- The space of signals with $\|x\|_\infty < \infty$ is denoted \mathcal{L}_∞ .
- $x(t) \in \mathcal{L}_2$ corresponds to bounded energy signals.
- $x(t) \in \mathcal{L}_\infty$ corresponds to bounded signals.

Equivalent expression in frequency domain

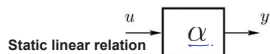
$$\|x\|_2^2 = \int_0^\infty \|x(t)\|^2 dt = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^\infty \|X(j\omega)\|^2 d\omega$$



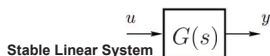
Gain of a system \mathcal{L}_2

Gain of S : $\gamma(S) = \sup_{u \in \mathcal{L}_2} \frac{\|y\|_2}{\|u\|_2} = \sup_{u \in \mathcal{L}_2} \frac{\|S(u)\|_2}{\|u\|_2}$

S is bounded-input bounded-output (BIBO) stable if $\gamma(S) < \infty$.



$$\gamma(\alpha) = \sup_{u \in \mathcal{L}_2} \frac{\|\alpha u\|_2}{\|u\|_2} = \sup_{u \in \mathcal{L}_2} \frac{|\alpha| \|u\|_2}{\|u\|_2} = |\alpha|$$

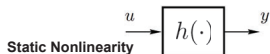


$$\gamma(G) = \sup_{u \in \mathcal{L}_2} \frac{\|Gu\|_2}{\|u\|_2} = \sup_{\omega \in (0, \infty)} |G(j\omega)|$$

$$\dot{x} = Ax + Bu$$

$$y = Cx + Du$$

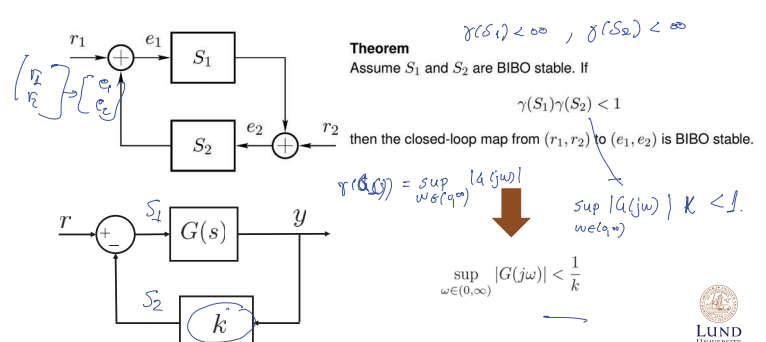
$$G(s) = C(sI - A)^{-1}B + D$$



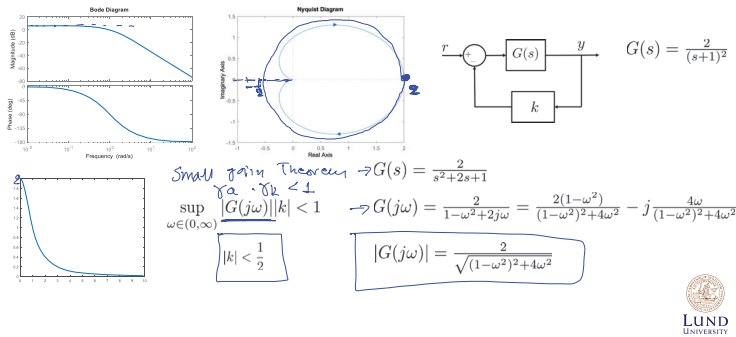
$$\gamma(h) = \sup_{u \in \mathcal{L}_2} \frac{\|h(u)\|_2}{\|u\|_2} = K$$



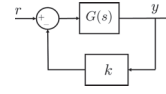
The Small-Gain Theorem



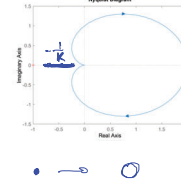
Small-Gain Theorem is conservative



Nyquist criterion



$$P_{CL_{Re>0}} = N(-1/k, 0) + P_{OL_{Re>0}}$$

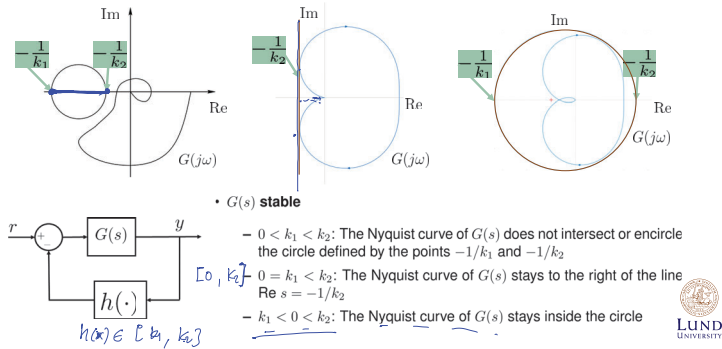


- Given a stable open loop system, the closed loop is stable if the Nyquist plot of the open loop system does not encircle the point $(-1/k, 0)$ in the clockwise direction.

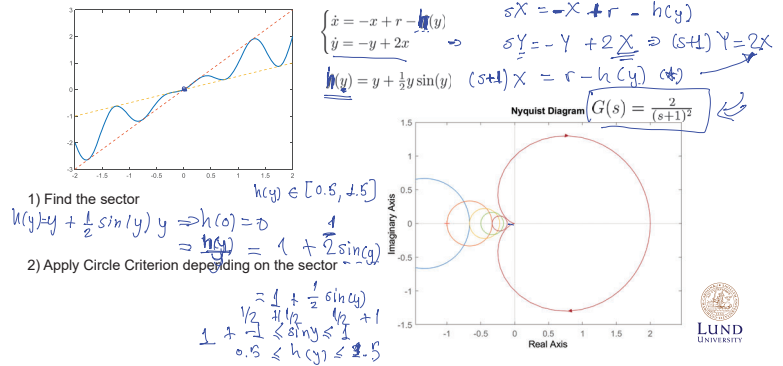
$$k_1 < \frac{1}{k_2} \Rightarrow k_1 = k_2$$



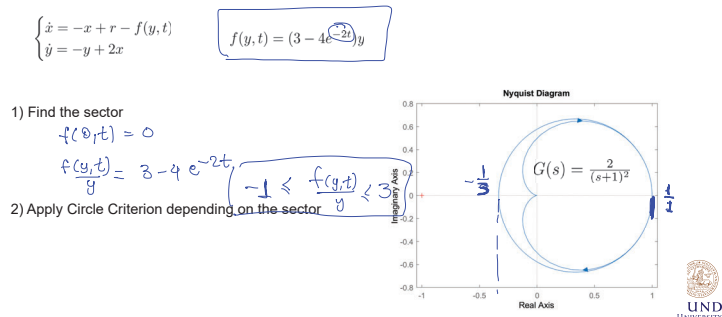
Circle criterion



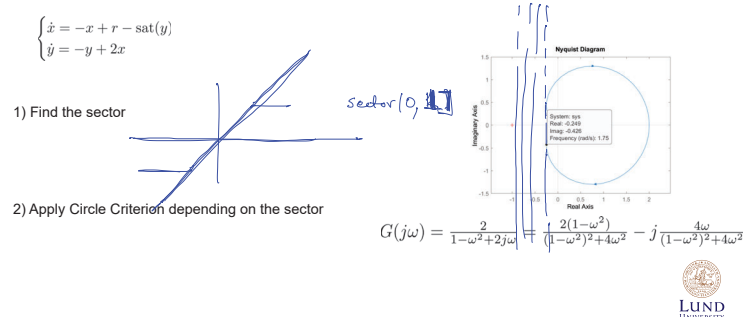
Circle criterion – Example 1



Circle criterion – Example 2



Circle criterion – Example 3



Lecture 8: Input-Output Stability Intro to Control-design

YIANNIS KARAYIANNIDIS, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR
AUTOMATIC CONTROL, FACULTY OF ENGINEERING. www.yiannis.info



Outline

- Circle criterion and positive real functions (passivity)
- Control design based on linearization
- Lyapunov-based control design

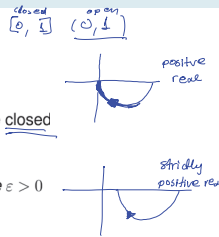
(Strictly) Positive Real Transfer Functions

A proper rational transfer function $G(s)$ is positive real if:

- The poles of $G(s)$ are in $\text{Re} \leq 0$
- $\text{Re}[G(j\omega)] \geq 0, \forall \omega \in [0, \infty) \rightarrow$ Nyquist plot of $G(j\omega)$ lies in the closed right-half complex plane.

$G(s)$ is called strictly positive real if $G(s - \varepsilon)$ is positive real for some $\varepsilon > 0$.
It is easier to check directly the following conditions:

- The poles of $G(s)$ are in $\text{Re} < 0$.
- $\text{Re}[G(j\omega)] > 0, \forall \omega \in [0, \infty)$ and $G(\infty) \geq 0$ or $\lim_{\omega \rightarrow \infty} \omega^2 \text{Re}[G(j\omega)] > 0$
 \rightarrow Nyquist plot of $G(j\omega)$ lies in the closed right-half complex plane and does not touch the Imaginary axis.



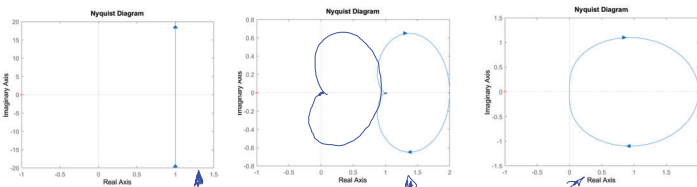
Quiz

- $G(s) = \frac{1}{s} \Rightarrow G(j\omega) = \frac{1}{j\omega} = -j \frac{1}{\omega} \Rightarrow \text{Re}[G(j\omega)] = 0$
- $G(s) = \frac{1}{s+1} \Rightarrow G(j\omega) = \frac{1}{j\omega+1} = \frac{1-j\omega}{1+\omega^2} \Rightarrow \text{Re}[G(j\omega)] = \frac{1}{1+\omega^2} > 0$
- $G(s) = \frac{1}{s^2+2s+1} \Rightarrow G(j\omega) = \frac{1}{- \omega^2 + 2j\omega + 1} = \frac{1}{(1-\omega^2) + 2j\omega}$

$$= \frac{(1-\omega^2) - 2j\omega}{(1-\omega^2)^2 + 4\omega^2}$$

for $|\omega| > 1$ $\text{Re}[G(j\omega)] < 0$ Not positive real

Matching Quiz



a. $G(s) = \frac{s+1}{s} = 1 + \frac{1}{s}$ (integrator + 1)

b. $G(s) = \frac{s+2}{(s+1)^2}$

c. $G(s) = \frac{s^2+2s+2}{s^2+2s+1} = \frac{1+(s+1)^2}{(s+1)^2} = 1 + \frac{1}{(s+1)^2}$ (Non positive real transfer function)

Kalman Yakubovich Popov Lemma

Minimal realization of $G(s)$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= Ax + Bu \\ y &= Cx + Du \end{aligned}$$

• (A, B) : controllable
• (A, C) : observable

$$R = \begin{bmatrix} B & AB & \dots & A^{n-1}B \end{bmatrix}$$

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} C \\ AC \\ \vdots \\ A^{n-1}C \end{bmatrix}$$

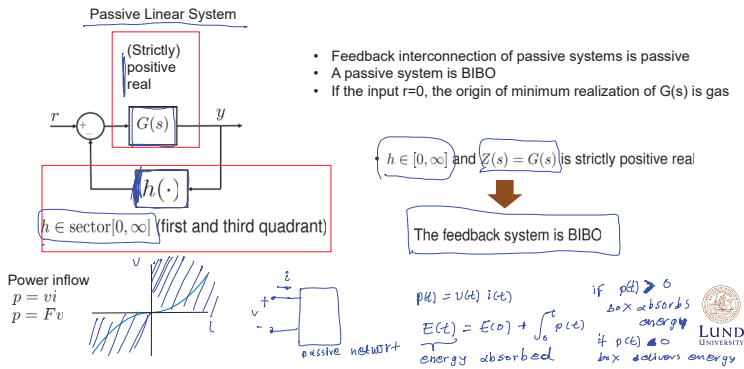
$G(s)$ strictly positive real

$\exists P = P^T > 0, Q = Q^T \geq 0, \epsilon > 0$ s.t. $\begin{cases} PA + A^T P = -Q - \epsilon P \\ PB = C^T \end{cases}$

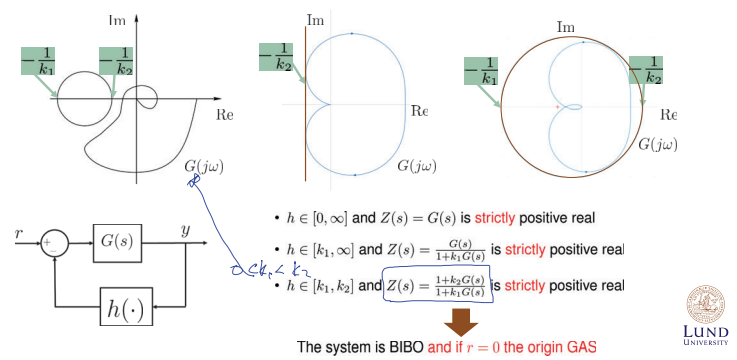
$G(s)$ positive real

$\exists P = P^T > 0, Q = Q^T \geq 0$ s.t. $\begin{cases} PA + A^T P = -Q \\ PB = C^T \end{cases}$

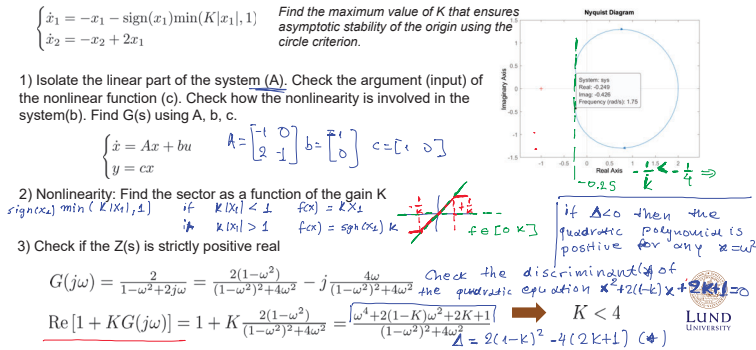
Passivity Theorem(s)



Passivity theorem – Circle criterion



Circle criterion – Strictly positive real functions



Linear control design based on linearization

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

$A = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x^*, u^*)$ $B = \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x^*, u^*)$

Controllability condition: $\text{rank}(R) = n$

$R = [B \quad AB \quad \dots \quad A^{n-1}B]$

$\dot{x} = f(x, u^* - K(x - x^*))$

$u = u^* - K(x - x^*)$

$\dot{x} = (A - BK)x$

Example (Linearization)

An inverted pendulum controlled by a motor torque u at the joint:

$$\ddot{\phi}(t) = \frac{g}{l} \sin(\phi(t)) + \frac{1}{ml^2} u,$$

where $u(t)$ is acceleration, can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}_1 &= x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 &= \frac{g}{l} \sin(x_1) - \frac{1}{ml^2} u \end{aligned}$$

Linearize the system and find a control input that can stabilize the system at angle δ . Is the linear system controllable for all δ ?

$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \frac{g}{l} \cos(\delta) & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -\frac{1}{ml^2} \end{bmatrix}$

$x = x^* = \begin{bmatrix} \delta \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $u = u^* = mg l \sin(\delta)$

$AB = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -\frac{g}{l} \cos(\delta) & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -\frac{1}{ml^2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{ml^2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Example (Linearization)

An inverted pendulum with vertically moving pivot point

$$\ddot{\phi}(t) = \frac{1}{l} (g + u(t)) \sin(\phi(t)),$$

where $u(t)$ is acceleration, can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}_1 &= x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 &= \frac{1}{l} (g + u) \sin(x_1) \end{aligned}$$

Try this home – See lecture notes 2.

Lyapunov-based design

Steps of Lyapunov-based design:

1. Select a positive definite $V(x)$. $\dot{x} = f(x, u)$
2. Calculate $\dot{V}(x) = \frac{\partial V}{\partial x} f(x, u)$.
3. Find a (possibly) nonlinear feedback control law that makes \dot{V} negative.

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial x} f(x, u) \rightarrow 0$$

- $\dot{V} \leq 0 \rightarrow x = 0$ may be asymptotically stable (check LaSalle)
- $\dot{V} < 0$ for all $x \neq 0 \rightarrow x = 0$ asymptotically stable
- $\dot{V} \leq -\lambda V \rightarrow x = 0$ exponentially stable if additionally $V \geq c\|x\|^2$

Comments:

- Selection of $V(x)$
- Depends on the system dynamics $\dot{x} = f(x, u)$



Example 1 (Lyapunov-based design)

Consider the nonlinear system

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x}_1 &= -3x_1 + 2x_1x_2^2 + u \\ \dot{x}_2 &= -x_2^3 - x_2\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{V} &= -3x_1^2 - x_2^2 - x_2^4 \\ \dot{V} &= -x_1^2 - x_2^2 - 2x_1^2 - x_2^4 \\ \dot{V} &\leq -x_1^2 - x_2^2 = -2V \Rightarrow \dot{V} \leq -2V\end{aligned}$$

Find a nonlinear feedback control law which makes the origin globally asymptotically stable.

$$\begin{aligned}V &= \frac{1}{2}(x_1^2 + x_2^2) \\ \dot{V} &= [x_1 \ x_2] \begin{bmatrix} -3x_1 + 2x_1x_2^2 + u \\ -x_2^3 - x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{-3x_1^2}_{<0} + \underbrace{2x_1^2x_2^2}_{>0} + \underbrace{x_1u}_{<0} - \underbrace{x_2^4}_{<0} - \underbrace{x_2^2}_{<0} \\ u &= -2x_1x_2^2 \\ \dot{V} &< 0 \text{ for all } x \neq 0\end{aligned}$$



Example 2 (Lyapunov-based design)

Consider the nonlinear system

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x}_1 &= -3x_1 + 2x_1x_2^2 + u \\ \dot{x}_2 &= -x_2^3 - x_2\end{aligned}$$

Find a nonlinear feedback control law which makes the origin globally exponentially stable.



Example 3 (Lyapunov-based design)

Consider the system

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x}_1 &= x_2^3 \\ \dot{x}_2 &= u\end{aligned}$$

Find a globally asymptotically stabilizing control law $u = u(x)$.



FRNT05 Nonlinear Control Systems and Servo Systems

Lecture 9: Control design for nonlinear systems

YIANNIS KARAYIANNIDIS, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR www.yiannis.info
AUTOMATIC CONTROL, FACULTY OF ENGINEERING. yiannis@control.lth.se



Outline

- Lyapunov-based control design
- Exact feedback linearization



Exact feedback linearization

- Relative degree 1: For $g(x)$ square and invertible

$$\dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} f(x) + g(x)u \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} \quad u = g^{-1}(x) [-f(x) + v]$$

First order integrator

$$\dot{x} = v$$

- Relative degree n

$$\xi^{(n)} = f(\xi, \dot{\xi}, \dots, \xi^{(n-1)}) + g(\xi, \dot{\xi}, \dots, \xi^{(n-1)})u$$

$$x = [\xi, \dot{\xi}, \dots, \xi^{(n-1)}]^T \quad u = g^{-1}(x) [-f(x) + v]$$

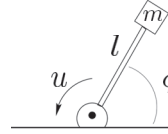
n -th order integrator

$$\xi^{(n)} = v$$

$$\dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I_{n-1} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ f(x) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ g(x) \end{bmatrix} u \quad \Rightarrow \quad \dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I_{n-1} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} v$$

Exact feedback linearization

An inverted pendulum controlled by a motor torque u at the joint:



$$\ddot{\phi}(t) = \frac{g}{l} \sin(\phi(t)) + \frac{1}{ml^2} u$$

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = \frac{g}{l} \sin(x_1) - \frac{1}{ml^2} u \end{cases}$$

Control structure for exact feedback linearization:

$$u = ml^2 \left[\frac{g}{l} \sin(x_1) - v \right]$$

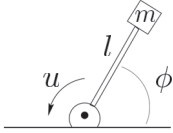
$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}_1 &= x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 &= \frac{g}{l} \sin(x_1) - \left[\frac{g}{l} \sin(x_1) - v \right] = v \end{aligned}$$

Then v is chosen as $v = -k_1 \dot{\phi} - k_2 \phi$



Exact feedback linearization and control-design based on linearization

An inverted pendulum controlled by a motor torque u at the joint:



$$\ddot{\phi}(t) = \frac{g}{l} \sin(\phi(t)) + \frac{1}{ml^2} u$$

$$\dot{x}_1 = x_2$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = \frac{g}{l} \sin(x_1) + \frac{1}{ml^2} u$$

Control structure for exact feedback linearization:

$$u = ml^2 \left[\frac{g}{l} \sin(x_1) + v \right]$$

Control design based on linearization:

$$u = ml^2 \left[-\frac{g}{l} \sin(\delta) + v \right]$$

Closed loop system:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = v \end{cases} \quad \text{Linear}$$

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = v \end{cases} \quad \text{Non-linear system}$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \frac{g}{l} \cos \phi & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(\delta, 0) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \frac{g}{l} \cos \delta & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Multi-joint robot control with exact feedback linearization

Dynamic model of the robotic arm:

$$M(\theta) \ddot{\theta} + C(\theta, \dot{\theta}) \dot{\theta} + G(\theta) = u, \quad \theta \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Called fully actuated if n indep. actuators,

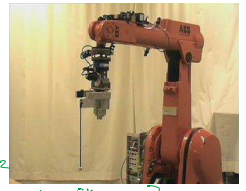
$$\begin{cases} M(\theta) & n \times n \text{ inertia matrix, } M = M^T > 0 \\ C(\theta, \dot{\theta}) \dot{\theta} & n \times 1 \text{ vector of centrifugal and Coriolis forces} \\ G(\theta) & n \times 1 \text{ vector of gravitation terms} \end{cases}$$

Design a controller so that $\theta \rightarrow \theta_r$.

Inverse dynamics approach.

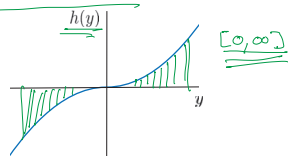
$$M(\theta) \ddot{\theta} + C(\theta, \dot{\theta}) \dot{\theta} + G(\theta) = u$$

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = M(x_1)^{-1} (-C(x_1, x_2) x_2 - G(x_1) + u) \end{cases} \quad u = M(x_1) \ddot{x}_1 + C(x_1, x_2) x_2 + G(x_1) + v$$



Should I cancel or not?

- Good nonlinearities – passive



$$\ddot{x} = -\frac{h(x)}{m} - \frac{z(x)}{m} + u$$

nonlinear spring

Passive: energy absorbed by the damper is positive

$$\dot{x}z(x) = \frac{dP}{dt}$$

Passive: energy stored in the spring is positive

$$P = \int_0^x z(\sigma) d\sigma$$

Total energy as Lyapunov function: $V = \frac{1}{2} \dot{x}^2 + \int_0^x z(\sigma) d\sigma$

Energy derivative along trajectories: $\dot{V} = -\dot{x}h(\dot{x}) + \dot{x}u$

What if I choose: $u = -\varphi_P(x)$

$\varphi_D(\dot{x}) \in (0, \infty)$

$\dot{V} = -\dot{x}h(\dot{x}) - \dot{x}\varphi_D(\dot{x})$



Should I cancel or not?

Total energy as Lyapunov function: $V = \frac{1}{2} \dot{x}^2 + \int_0^x z(\sigma) d\sigma$

Energy derivative along trajectories: $\dot{V} = -\dot{x}h(\dot{x}) + \dot{x}u$

LaSalle: V p.d., $\dot{V} \leq 0 \Rightarrow M = \{x = 0, \dot{x} = 0\}$ is maximum invariant set.

What if I choose: $u = -\varphi_P(x)$



Robot manipulator – Example revisited with Lyapunov-based design

Dynamic model of the robotic arm:

$$M(\theta)\ddot{\theta} + C(\theta, \dot{\theta})\dot{\theta} + G(\theta) = u, \quad \theta \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Called *fully* actuated if n indep. actuators,

$$\begin{aligned} M(\theta) & n \times n \text{ inertia matrix, } M = M^T > 0 \\ C(\theta, \dot{\theta})\dot{\theta} & n \times 1 \text{ vector of centrifugal and Coriolis forces} \\ G(\theta) & n \times 1 \text{ vector of gravitation terms} \end{aligned}$$

Design a controller so that $\theta \rightarrow \theta_r$.

Inverse dynamics approach.

Another notable property:

$$S(\theta, \dot{\theta}) := \dot{M}(\theta) - 2C(\theta, \dot{\theta}) = -S^T(\theta, \dot{\theta})$$

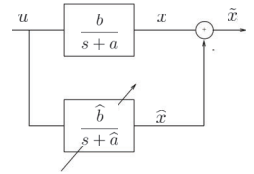


Adaptive noise cancellation

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\hat{x}} + a\hat{x} = bu \\ \dot{\hat{x}} + \hat{a}\hat{x} = \hat{b}u \end{cases} \text{ . Design adaptation law so that } \tilde{x} := x - \hat{x} \rightarrow 0$$

Adaptation laws or update laws: $\dot{\hat{a}} = \dots, \dot{\hat{b}} = \dots$

Introduce $\tilde{x} = x - \hat{x}$, $\tilde{a} = a - \hat{a}$, $\tilde{b} = b - \hat{b}$.
What are the dynamics of the error?



Let us try the Lyapunov function $V = \frac{1}{2}(\tilde{x}^2 + \gamma_a \tilde{a}^2 + \gamma_b \tilde{b}^2)$
 $\dot{V} =$

What do we prove if $\dot{V} \leq 0$?

Are \tilde{a} and \tilde{b} proved to converge?



Simplified Adaptive control

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x} = \theta x^2 + u \\ u = -\hat{\theta}(t)x^2 + v \end{cases}$$

Design:

- an update law for $\hat{\theta}, \dot{\hat{\theta}} = \dots$
- a control signal $v(x)$

such that $x \rightarrow 0$

Introduce the new state $\tilde{\theta} = \theta - \hat{\theta}$.

Find $\dot{x} = f(x, \tilde{\theta}, v)$

Let us try the Lyapunov function $V = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 + \gamma \tilde{\theta}^2)$
 $\dot{V} =$

What do we prove if $\dot{V} \leq 0$?

Set $\hat{\theta}(t) = \theta$

What principle of design is used?



FRNT05 Nonlinear Control Systems and Servo Systems

Lecture 10: Optimal control I

YIANNIS KARAYIANNIDIS, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR www.yiannis.info
AUTOMATIC CONTROL, FACULTY OF ENGINEERING. yiannis@control.lth.se



Simplified Adaptive control

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x} = \theta x^2 + u \\ u = -\hat{\theta}(t)x^2 + v \end{cases} \Rightarrow \dot{x} = \tilde{\theta}x^2 + v$$

Design:

- an update law for $\hat{\theta}, \dot{\hat{\theta}} = \dots$
- a control signal $v(x) = -kx$

such that $x \rightarrow 0$

Introduce the new state $\tilde{\theta} = \theta - \hat{\theta}$.
Find $\dot{x} = f(x, \tilde{\theta}, v)$

Let us try the Lyapunov function $V = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 + \gamma \tilde{\theta}^2)$
 $\dot{V} = x\dot{x} + \gamma \tilde{\theta}\dot{\tilde{\theta}}$

What do we prove if $\dot{V} \leq 0$?

Set $\hat{\theta}(t) = \theta$

What principle of design is used?

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= \theta x^2 + u \\ u &= -\hat{\theta}x^2 + v \\ v &= -kx \end{aligned} \Rightarrow \dot{x} = \tilde{\theta}x^2 + v$$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\tilde{\theta}} &= \dot{\theta} - \dot{\hat{\theta}} \\ \dot{\tilde{\theta}} &= -w \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \frac{1}{2}(x^2 + \gamma \tilde{\theta}^2) \\ \dot{V} &= x\dot{x} + \gamma \tilde{\theta}\dot{\tilde{\theta}} = x(\tilde{\theta}x^2 + v) + \gamma \tilde{\theta}(-w) \\ &= \tilde{\theta}x^3 - \gamma w \tilde{\theta} + xv \\ &= \tilde{\theta}x^3 - \gamma w \tilde{\theta} - kx^2 \end{aligned}$$



Outline

- Static optimization
- Problem formulation
- Maximum principle
- Examples



Optimal Control

Idea: Formulate the design problem as optimization problem

- + Gives systematic design procedure
- + Can use on nonlinear models
- + Can capture limitations etc as constraints
- Hard to find suitable criterion?!
- Can be hard to find the optimal controller



Recap static optimization

Optimization under constraints:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min_{x,u} & \underline{g}_1(\underline{x}, \underline{u}) \\ \text{s.t.} & \underline{q}_2(x, u) = 0 \end{array}$$

Necessary conditions for optimality:

- ∇g_1 points in the same direction as ∇g_2
- $q_2(x, u) = 0$ λ

Lagrangian: $\mathcal{L}(x, u, \lambda) = g_1(x, u) + \lambda^T g_2(x, u)$

$$\begin{aligned} & \bullet \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial x} = 0, \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial u} = 0, \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda} = 0 \\ & \bullet \frac{\partial^2 \mathcal{L}}{\partial x^2} > 0, \frac{\partial^2 \mathcal{L}}{\partial u^2} > 0 \end{aligned} \quad \begin{array}{c} \text{Lagrange} \\ \text{multipliers} \end{array} \quad \left[\begin{array}{c} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial u} \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda} \end{array} \right] = 0 \quad \left[\begin{array}{c} \frac{\partial g_1(x, u)}{\partial u} + \lambda \frac{\partial g_2(x, u)}{\partial u} \\ g_2(x, u) = 0 \end{array} \right] = 0$$



Static optimization

$$\min_{x_1, x_2} \begin{pmatrix} x_1^2 + x_2^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{s.t. } \begin{pmatrix} x_1 x_2 - 1 = 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow 1 \text{ constraint}$$

$$\mathcal{L} = \underline{x_1^2 + x_2^2} + \lambda (x_1 x_2 - 1)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial g_1(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_1} + \lambda \frac{\partial g_2(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial g_1(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_2} + \lambda \frac{\partial g_2(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix} \stackrel{\text{QK}}{\underset{\text{QK}}{=}} 0 \Rightarrow \begin{cases} 2x_1 + \lambda x_2 = 0 \\ 2x_2 + \lambda x_1 = 0 \\ x_1 x_2 - 1 = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\underline{g_2(x_1, x_2) = 0}$$

(1) 2 solutions

$$\frac{x_1 = x_2}{x_1 = -x_2} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} x_2^2 = 1 \Rightarrow x_2 = \pm 1 = x_1 \\ x_1^2 = 1 \Rightarrow x_1 = \pm 1 = x_2 \end{cases}$$

no real solution



Maximum principle – no final time constraint

Optimization Problem (OP1)

Minimize $\int_0^{t_f} \underbrace{L(x(t), u(t))}_{\text{trajectory cost}} dt + \underbrace{\phi(x(t_f))}_{\text{Final cost}}$
 where $x(t) \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\underbrace{u(t) \in U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m}_{\text{ineq}}$
 $\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t), u(t))$, $x(0) = x_0$
 $0 \leq t \leq t_f$, given fixed end-time t_f

Theorem 18.2 of Glad/Ljung Assume that the (OP1) has a solution $\{u^*(t), x^*(t)\}$.
Then

Then $\min_{u \in U} H(x^*(t), u, \lambda(t)) = H(x^*(t), u^*(t), \lambda(t)), \quad 0 \leq t \leq t_f,$ $H(x, u, \lambda) = L(x, u) + \lambda^T(t)f(x, u)$

where $\lambda(t)$ solves the adjoint equation

$$H_x = \frac{\partial H}{\partial x} = \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial x_1} \quad \frac{\partial H}{\partial x_2} \quad \dots \right)$$

$$\frac{d\lambda}{dt} = -H_x^T(x^*(t), u^*(t), \lambda(t)), \quad \text{with } \lambda(t_f) = \phi_x^T(x^*(t_f))$$



Sketchy proof (Hamiltonian)

$$\text{Minimize } \overbrace{\int_{t_0}^{t_f} L(x(t), u(t)) dt}^{\text{Trajectory cost}} + \overbrace{\phi(x(t_f))}^{\text{Final cost}}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &\in R^n, \quad u(t) \in U \subseteq R^m \\ \dot{x}(t) &= f(x(t), u(t)), \quad x(t_0) = x_0 \end{aligned}$$

$$t_0 \leq t \leq t_f, \quad \text{given fixed end-time } t_f$$

$$f - x = 0$$

Optimal Control Problem

$$\begin{aligned} \min_u J &= \min_u \left\{ \phi(x(t_f)) + \int_{t_0}^{t_f} L(x, u) dt \right\} \\ \text{subject to } \dot{x} &= f(x, u), \quad x(t_0) = x_0 \end{aligned}$$

Functions of time the constraint is satisfied over the assumed period of time

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathcal{J} &= \phi(x(t_f)) + \int_{t_0}^{t_f} (L(x, u) + \lambda^T (f - \dot{x})) \, dt \\
 H(x, u, \lambda) &= L(x, u) + \lambda^T f(x, u) \\
 &= \phi(x(t_f)) - [\lambda^T x]_{t_0}^{t_f} + \int_{t_0}^{t_f} (H + \dot{\lambda}^T x) \, dt
 \end{aligned}$$



Sketchy proof (Calculus of variation)

Variation of J :

$$\boxed{\delta J} = \left[\left(\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} - \lambda^T \right) \delta x \right]_{t=t_f} + \int_{t_0}^{t_f} \left[\left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial x} + \dot{\lambda}^T \right) \delta x + \frac{\partial H}{\partial u} \delta u \right] dt$$

Necessary conditions for local minimum ($\delta J = 0$)

$$\lambda(t_f)^T = \left. \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \right|_{t=t_f} \quad \dot{\lambda}^T = - \frac{\partial H}{\partial x} \quad \frac{\partial H}{\partial u} = 0$$

- λ specified at $t = t_f$ and x at $t = t_0$
- Two Point Boundary Value Problem (TPBV)
- For sufficiency $\frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial u^2} \geq 0$



Summary of the approach

Performance, cost function $J(x_0) = \phi(x(t_f)) + \int_{t_0}^{t_f} L(x, u) dt$

System dynamics $\dot{x} = f(x, u), x(t_0) = x_0$

No final-time constraint but final time is a free variable

Hamiltonian $H(x, u, \lambda) = L(x, u) + \lambda^T f(x, u)$

State equation $\dot{x} = f(x, u), x(t_0) = x_0$ (1)

Co-state, adjoint equation $\dot{\lambda} = H_x^T(x, u, \lambda), \lambda(t_f) = \phi_x^T(x(t_f))$ (2)

Hamiltonian minimization with respect to u $\min_{u \in U} H(u)$ (3)

We can often first eliminate the control input $u(t)$ by (3)



Remarks

- The Maximum Principle gives **necessary** conditions
- A pair $(u^*(\cdot), x^*(\cdot))$ is called **extremal** the conditions of the Maximum Principle are satisfied.
- Many extremals can exist.
- The maximum principle gives all possible candidates.
- However, there might not exist a minimum!

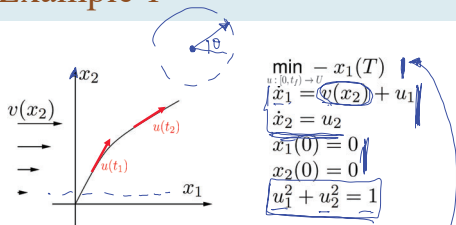
Example

Minimize $x(1)$ when $\dot{x}(t) = u(t)$, $x(0) = 0$ and $u(t)$ is free

Why doesn't there exist a minimum?



Example 1



$$\min_{u: [0, t_f] \rightarrow U} \int_0^{t_f} L(x, u) dt + \phi(x(t_f))$$

$$\phi(x(t_f)) = -x_1(T)$$

$$\min_{u: [0, T] \rightarrow U} -x_1(T)$$

$$\dot{x}_1 = v(x_2) + u_1$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = u_2$$

$$x_1(0) = 0$$

$$x_2(0) = 0$$

$$u_1^2 + u_2^2 = 1$$

- Speed of water $v(x_2)$ in x_1 direction with $\frac{\partial v(x_2)}{\partial x_2} = 1$
- Move (sail) maximum distance in x_1 -direction in fixed time T
- Rudder angle control: $u \in U := \{(u_1, u_2) : u_1^2 + u_2^2 = 1\}$



Example 1

Hamiltonian:

$$H = 0 + \lambda_1^T f = [\lambda_1(t) \lambda_2(t)] \begin{bmatrix} v(x_2) + u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \lambda_1(v(x_2) + u_1) + \lambda_2 u_2$$

Adjoint equation:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{\lambda}_1 \\ \dot{\lambda}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\partial H / \partial x_1 \\ -\partial H / \partial x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -\lambda_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

with boundary conditions

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1(T) \\ \lambda_2(T) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \partial \phi / \partial x_1 |_{x=x^*(t_f)} \\ \partial \phi / \partial x_2 |_{x=x^*(t_f)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\phi(x) = -x_1$$

$$\dot{\lambda}_1 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_1(t) = -1$$

$$\dot{\lambda}_2 = -\lambda_1 \Rightarrow \lambda_2 = t$$

$$\lambda_1(T) = -1 \quad \lambda_2(T) = T$$

$$\lambda_2(0) = 0$$

$$\lambda_2 = t$$



Example 1

$$\min_{\|b\|=1} a^T b \sim \text{when } \theta = \pi \quad a^T b|_{\theta=\pi} = -\|a\|$$

$$\min_{\|b\|=1} a^T b = \|a\| \cos \theta$$

Solution of the co-state $\lambda_1(t) = -1, \lambda_2(t) = t - T$.

Optimality: Control signal should solve

$$\min_{u_1^2 + u_2^2 = 1} \lambda_1(v(x_2) + u_1) + \lambda_2 u_2$$

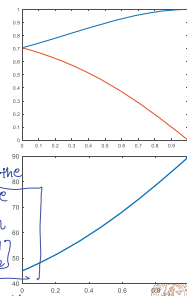
Minimize $\lambda_1 u_1 + \lambda_2 u_2$ so that (u_1, u_2) has length 1

$$u_1(t) = -\frac{\lambda_1(t)}{\sqrt{\lambda_1^2(t) + \lambda_2^2(t)}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + (t-T)^2}}$$

$$u_2(t) = -\frac{\lambda_2(t)}{\sqrt{\lambda_1^2(t) + \lambda_2^2(t)}} = \frac{T-t}{\sqrt{1 + (t-T)^2}}$$

See fig 18.1 for plots

Remark: It can be shown that this optimal control problem has a minimum. Hence it must be the one we found, since this was the only solution to MP



FRNT05 Nonlinear Control Systems and Servo Systems

Lecture 11: Optimal control 2

YIANNIS KARAYIANNIDIS, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR www.yiannis.info
AUTOMATIC CONTROL, FACULTY OF ENGINEERING. yiannis@control.lth.se



Example 2

$$\min \int_0^1 u^4 dt + x(1)$$

$$\dot{x} = -x + u, \quad x(0) = 0$$

$$\min \int_0^{t_f} \underbrace{L(x(t), u(t))}_{\text{Trajectory cost}} dt + \underbrace{\phi(x(t_f))}_{\text{Final cost}}$$

where

$$x(t) \in R^n$$

$$u(t) \in U \subseteq R^m$$

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

$$x(0) = 0$$

Hamiltonian:

$$H = L + \lambda^T \cdot f = u^4 + \lambda(-x + u)$$

Adjoint equation:

$$\dot{\lambda} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial x} = -(-\lambda) \Rightarrow \lambda(t) = Ce^t$$

Final value problem

$$\lambda(t_f) = \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} = 1 \Rightarrow \lambda(1) = 1 = Ce^1 \Rightarrow C = e^{-1} \Rightarrow \lambda(t) = e^{t-1}$$

Optimality: $H_u = 0 \Rightarrow 4u^3 + \lambda = 0$

$$H_u = 0 \Rightarrow u = \sqrt[3]{-\frac{\lambda}{4}}$$



Maximum principle

Optimization Problem (OP2)

$$\text{Minimize } \int_0^{t_f} \underbrace{L(x(t), u(t))}_{\text{Trajectory cost}} dt + \underbrace{\phi(t_f, x(t_f))}_{\text{Final cost}}$$

where

$$x(t) \in R^n, \quad u(t) \in U \subseteq R^m, \quad 0 \leq t \leq t_f$$

$$\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t), u(t)), \quad x(0) = x_0$$

$$\psi(t_f, x(t_f)) = 0$$

Assume that OP2 has a solution. Then there is a vector function $\lambda(t)$, a number $n_0 \geq 0$ and a vector $\mu \in R^r$ such that $[n_0 \ \mu^T] \neq 0$ and

$$H(x, u, \lambda) = n_0 L(x, u) + \lambda^T(t) f(x, u)$$

$$\min_{u \in U} H(x^*(t), u, \lambda(t), n_0) = H(x^*(t), u^*(t), \lambda(t), n_0), \quad 0 \leq t \leq t_f,$$

where $\lambda(t)$ solves the **adjoint equation**

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\lambda}(t) = -H_x^T(x^*(t), u^*(t), \lambda(t), n_0) \\ \lambda(t_f) = n_0 \phi_x^T(t_f, x^*(t_f)) + \psi_x^T(t_f, x^*(t_f)) \mu \end{cases}$$

If the end time t_f is given, then $H(x^*(t_f), u^*(t_f), \lambda(t_f), n_0) = 0$.

If the end time t_f is free:

$$H(x^*(t_f), u^*(t_f), \lambda(t_f), n_0) = -n_0 \phi_t(t_f, x^*(t_f)) - \mu^T \psi_t(t_f, x^*(t_f)).$$



Remarks

- Can scale $n_0, \mu, \lambda(t)$ by the same constant

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\lambda}(t) = -H_x^T(x^*(t), u^*(t), \lambda(t), n_0) \\ \lambda(t_f) = n_0 \phi_x^T(t_f, x^*(t_f)) + \psi_x^T(t_f, x^*(t_f)) \mu \end{cases}$$

$$H(x, u, \lambda) = n_0 L(x, u) + \lambda^T(t) f(x, u)$$

- Can reduce to two cases

$$H(x, u, \lambda) = n_0 L(x, u) + \lambda^T(t) f(x, u)$$

- $n_0 = 1$ (normal)
 - $n_0 = 0$ (abnormal, since L and ϕ don't matter)
- If $n_0 > 0$, renormalize to $n_0 = 1$. Only existence of positive n_0 matters.

- Fixed time t_f and no end constraints \Rightarrow normal case



Optimal control (Linear Control Systems with quadratic running cost)

Performance, cost function

$$J(u) = \frac{1}{2} x^T(t_f) P(t_f) x(t_f) + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{t_f} x^T Q x + u^T R u dt$$

System dynamics
(dynamic constraint)

$$\dot{x} = f(x, u), \quad x(0) = x_0$$

Hamiltonian

$$H(x, u, \lambda) = \frac{1}{2} x^T Q x + u^T R u + \lambda^T (Ax + Bu)$$

Hamiltonian minimization with respect to u

$$\frac{\partial H(u)}{\partial u} = u^T R + \lambda^T B \rightarrow u = -R^{-1} B^T \lambda \quad \lambda(t) = P(t)x(t)$$

State equation

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{\lambda} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A & -BR^{-1}B^T \\ -Q & -A^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ \lambda \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{cases} x(t_0) = x_0 \\ \lambda(t_f) = P(t_f)x(t_f) \end{cases}$$

Co-state, adjoint equation

$$\dot{P}(t) = P(t)A + A^T P(t) + P(t)BR^{-1}B^T P(t) - Q$$

$P(t_f)$ known by the cost function



Example – optimal heating (minimum fuel problem)

$$\min \int_0^{t_f=1} P(t) dt$$

$$\text{s.t. } \dot{T} = P - T, \quad T(0) = 0$$

$$0 \leq P \leq P_{\max}$$

$$T(1) = 1$$

T temperature
 P heat effect

Hamiltonian

$$H = n_0 P + \lambda(P - T)$$

Adjoint equation

$$\dot{\lambda}^T = -H_T = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial T} = \lambda^T \Rightarrow \lambda(t) = \mu e^{t-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow H = \underbrace{(n_0 + \mu e^{t-1})}_{\sigma(t)} P - \lambda T$$

cannot be minimized by $H_u=0$ The constraint on P makes the problem well-defined

At optimality

$$P^*(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & \sigma(t) > 0 \\ P_{\max}, & \sigma(t) < 0 \end{cases}$$



Example – optimal heating

$$\min \int_0^{t_f=1} P(t) dt$$

$$\text{s.t. } \dot{T} = P - T, \quad T(0) = 0$$

$$0 \leq P \leq P_{\max}$$

$$T(1) = 1$$

$$H = \sigma(t)P - \lambda T$$

$$\sigma(t) = n_0 + \underbrace{\mu e^{t-1}}_{\lambda}$$

$$P^*(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & \sigma(t) > 0 \\ P_{\max}, & \sigma(t) < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\mu > 0 \Rightarrow \sigma(t) > 0 \text{ for all } t$$

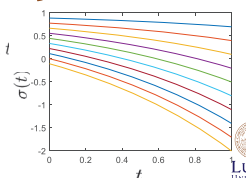
$$\mu = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda(t) = 0 \forall t \Rightarrow \sigma(t) = n_0 > 0 \forall t \Rightarrow P \equiv 0 \Rightarrow \dot{T} = -T, T(0) = 0 \Rightarrow T(1) = 0 \neq 1$$

$$\mu < 0 \Rightarrow \sigma(t) \text{ strictly decreasing for all } t$$

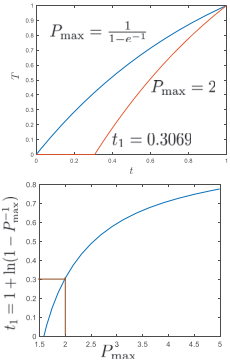
$$\Rightarrow \dot{T} = -(T - P_{\max}), T(t_1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow T(t) = [1 - e^{-(t-t_1)}] P_{\max}$$

T temperature
 P heat effect



Example – optimal heating



If $t_1 = 0$ (no switching)

$$P_{\max} = \frac{1}{1-e^{-1}}$$

If $0 < t_1 < 1$ (switching from 0 to P_{\max})

$$T(1) = [1 - e^{-(1-t_1)}] P_{\max} = 1$$

$$t_1 = 1 + \ln(1 - P_{\max}^{-1})$$

$$P_{\max} > \frac{1}{1-e^{-1}}$$



FRNT05 Nonlinear Control Systems and Servo Systems

Lecture 12: From optimal control to nonlinear control

YIANNIS KARAYIANNIDIS, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR www.yiannis.info
AUTOMATIC CONTROL, FACULTY OF ENGINEERING. yiannis@control.lth.se



Outline

Linear Quadratic Control
Time Optimal Control
Model Predictive Control

Maximum principle – no final time constraint

Optimization Problem (OP2)

$$\text{Minimize } \underbrace{\int_0^{t_f} L(x(t), u(t)) dt}_{\text{Trajectory cost}} + \underbrace{\phi(t_f, x(t_f))}_{\text{Final cost}}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &\in R^n, \quad u(t) \in U \subseteq R^m, \quad 0 \leq t \leq t_f \\ \dot{x}(t) &= f(x(t), u(t)), \quad x(0) = x_0 \\ \psi(t_f, x(t_f)) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Assume that OP2 has a solution. Then there is a vector function $\lambda(t)$, a number $n_0 \geq 0$ and a vector $\mu \in R^r$ such that $[n_0 \ \mu^T] \neq 0$ and

$$H(x, u, \lambda) = n_0 L(x, u) + \lambda^T(t) f(x, u)$$

$$\min_{u \in U} H(x^*(t), u, \lambda(t), n_0) = H(x^*(t), u^*(t), \lambda(t), n_0), \quad 0 \leq t \leq t_f,$$

where $\lambda(t)$ solves the adjoint equation

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\lambda}(t) = -H_x^T(x^*(t), u^*(t), \lambda(t), n_0) \\ \lambda(t_f) = n_0 \phi_x^T(t_f, x^*(t_f)) + \psi_x^T(t_f, x^*(t_f)) \mu \end{cases}$$

If the end time t_f is free, then $H(x^*(t_f), u^*(t_f), \lambda(t_f), n_0) = 0$.

If the end time t_f is given:

$$H(x^*(t_f), u^*(t_f), \lambda(t_f), n_0) = -n_0 \phi_t(t_f, x^*(t_f)) - \mu^T \psi_t(t_f, x^*(t_f)).$$



Optimal control (Linear Control Systems with quadratic running cost)

Performance, cost function
Free-final-state but in the performance function

System dynamics
(dynamic constraint)

Hamiltonian

$$J(u) = \frac{1}{2} x^T(t_f) P(t_f) x(t_f) + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{t_f} x^T Q x + u^T R u dt$$

$$\dot{x} = f(x, u), \quad x(t_0) = x_0$$

$$H(x, u, \lambda) = \frac{1}{2} (x^T Q x + u^T R u) + \lambda^T (A x + B u) - \frac{1}{2} \lambda^T A_1 x$$

Hamiltonian minimization with respect to u



State equation

Co-state, adjoint equation

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial H(u)}{\partial u} &= u^T R + \lambda^T B \rightarrow u = -R^{-1} B^T \lambda \\ \begin{bmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{\lambda} \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} A & -B R^{-1} B^T \\ -Q & -A^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ \lambda \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$x(t_0) = x_0$
 $\lambda(t_f) = P(t_f) x(t_f)$

$$\lambda(t) = P(t) x(t)$$

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}(t) = (A(t) - B R^{-1} B^T P(t)) x(t), & x(0) \text{ given} \\ \dot{P}(t) = P(t) A + A^T P(t) + P(t) B R^{-1} B^T P(t) - Q \\ & P(t_f) \text{ known by the cost function} \end{cases}$$



Optimal control (Linear Control Systems with quadratic running cost and fixed final state)

Performance, cost function

Constraint on

System dynamics
(dynamic constraint)

Hamiltonian

$$J(u) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{t_f} u^T R u dt$$

$$\psi(x(t_f)) = 0 \rightarrow x(t_f) = r$$

$$\dot{x} = f(x, u), \quad x(t_0) = x_0$$

$$H(x, u, \lambda) = \frac{1}{2} u^T R u + \lambda^T (A x + B u)$$

Hamiltonian minimization with respect to u

$$\dot{x} = -a x + f$$

State equation

Co-state, adjoint equation

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial H(u)}{\partial u} &= u^T R + \lambda^T B \rightarrow u = -R^{-1} B^T \lambda \\ \begin{bmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{\lambda} \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} A & -B R^{-1} B^T \\ O & -A^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ \lambda \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

$x(t_0) = x_0$
 $\lambda(t_f) ??$

Steps: 1. solve backwards the second differential equation $\lambda(t) = e^{A^T(t_f-t)} \lambda(t_f)$

2. substitute the solution in the system dynamics and solve the initial value problem

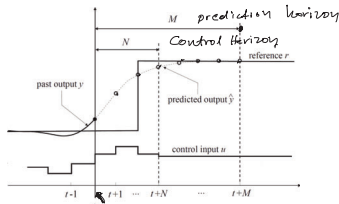
3. use the constraint to find $\lambda(t_f)$

$$x(t_f) = r$$

$$u(t)$$



Receding horizon control – basic idea



1. At time instant t predict the response of the system over a prediction horizon M using inputs over a control horizon N .
2. Optimize a specified objective or cost function with respect to a control sequence $u(t+j)$, $j = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$.
3. Apply the first control $u(t)$ and start over from 1 at next sample.



Unroll the cost

Minimize a cost function, V , of inputs and predicted outputs.

$$V = V(U_t, Y_t), \quad U_t = \begin{bmatrix} u(t+N-1) \\ \vdots \\ u(t) \end{bmatrix}, \quad Y_t = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{y}(t+M|t) \\ \vdots \\ \hat{y}(t+1|t) \end{bmatrix}$$

V often quadratic

$$V(U_t, Y_t) = Y_t^T Q_y Y_t + U_t^T Q_u U_t \quad (1)$$

\Rightarrow linear controller

$$u(t) = -L\hat{x}(t|t)$$



Optimization problem

$$J(t) = y^T(t+M)P(t+M)y(t+M) + \sum_{i=1}^{t+M-1} y^T(i)Q_y y(i) + u^T(i)R u(i) dt$$

Minimize a cost function, V , of inputs and predicted outputs.

$$V = V(U_t, Y_t), \quad U_t = \begin{bmatrix} u(t+N-1) \\ \vdots \\ u(t) \end{bmatrix}, \quad Y_t = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{y}(t+M|t) \\ \vdots \\ \hat{y}(t+1|t) \end{bmatrix}$$

V often quadratic

$$V(U_t, Y_t) = Y_t^T Q_y Y_t + U_t^T Q_u U_t$$

\Rightarrow linear controller

$$u(t) = -L\hat{x}(t|t)$$



Prediction

Discrete-time model

$$\begin{aligned} x(t+1) &= Ax(t) + Bu(t) + B_v v_1(t) \\ y(t) &= Cx(t) + v_2(t) \end{aligned} \quad t = 0, 1, \dots$$

Predictor (v unknown)

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{x}(t+k+1|t) &= A\hat{x}(t+k|t) + Bu(t+k) \\ \hat{y}(t+k|t) &= C\hat{x}(t+k|t) \end{aligned}$$



Receding horizon control

- $\hat{x}(t|t)$ is predicted by a standard Kalman filter, using outputs up to time t , and inputs up to time $t-1$.
- Future predicted outputs are given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{y}(t+M|t) \\ \vdots \\ \hat{y}(t+1|t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} CA^M \\ \vdots \\ CA \end{bmatrix} \hat{x}(t|t) + \begin{bmatrix} CB & CAB & CA^2B & \dots \\ 0 & CB & CAB & \dots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u(t+M-1) \\ \vdots \\ u(t+N-1) \\ \vdots \\ u(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$Y_t = D_x \hat{x}(t|t) + D_u U_t$$



Receding horizon control

+ Flexible method

- * Many types of models for prediction:
 - * state space, input-output, step response, nonlinear models
- * MIMO
- * Time delays

+ Can include constraints on input signal and states

+ Can include future reference and disturbance information

– On-line optimization needed

– Stability (and performance) analysis can be complicated



Receding horizon control

Limitations on control signals, states and outputs,

$$|u(t)| \leq C_u \quad |x_i(t)| \leq C_{x_i} \quad |y(t)| \leq C_y,$$

leads to linear programming or quadratic optimization.
Efficient optimization software exists.



Design of MPC

- Model
- M (look on settling time)
- N as long as computational time allows
- If $N < M - 1$ assumption on $u(t+N), \dots, u(t+M-1)$ needed (e.g., $= 0, = u(t+N-1)$.)
- Q_y, Q_u (trade-offs between control effort and performance)
- C_y, C_u constraints often given
- Sampling time



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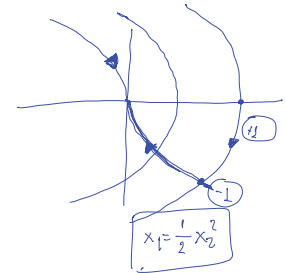
Lecture 13: Control Systems with discontinuities

YIANNIS KARAYIANNIDIS, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR www.yiannis.info
AUTOMATIC CONTROL, FACULTY OF ENGINEERING. yiannis@control.lth.se



Outline

- Time-optimal control
- Sliding mode control
- Friction

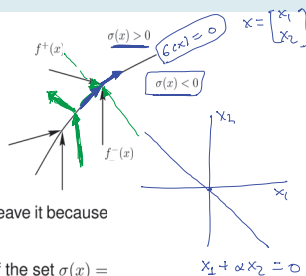


Sliding set

- **Sliding set:**
 $\sigma(x) = 0$
 $\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial x} f^+ < 0$
 $\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial x} f^- > 0$

$$\dot{x} = \begin{cases} f^+(x) & \sigma(x) > 0 \\ f^-(x) & \sigma(x) < 0 \end{cases}$$

f^+ and f^- point towards $\sigma(x) = 0$



- Once the trajectory hits the switching surface S , it cannot leave it because the vector fields on both sides point towards the surface
- If f^+ and f^- point "in the same direction" on both sides of the set $\sigma(x) = 0$, then the solution curves will just pass through and this region will not belong to the sliding set.
- If $f^+(x) = f^-(x)$ on $\sigma(x)$ then the sliding set is actually a set of equilibrium points



Sliding set

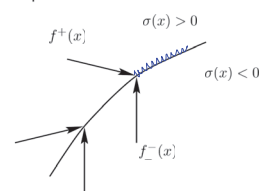
- The general behavior for the solution is to slide on $\sigma(x)$ (sliding mode.)
- The sliding motion can be described by noting that there is a unique convex combination of $f^+(x)$ and $f^-(x)$ that is tangent to $\sigma(x)$ at the point x .
- **Sliding dynamics:**

$$\dot{x} = \alpha(x) f^+(x) + (1 - \alpha(x)) f^-(x)$$

where $\alpha(x)$ is obtained from

$$0 = \frac{d\sigma}{dt} = \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial x} \cdot \dot{x} = \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial x} f^-(x) + \alpha(x) \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial x} [f^+(x) - f^-(x)]$$

- The fast switches will give rise to average dynamics that slide along the set where $\sigma(x) = 0$.



Example

$$\dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} x + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u = \underline{A}x + \underline{B}u$$

$$u = -\text{sgn}\sigma(x) = -\text{sgn}x_2 = -\text{sgn}(Cx)$$

which means that

$$\dot{x} = \begin{cases} Ax - B, & x_2 > 0 \\ Ax + B, & x_2 < 0 \end{cases}$$

Determine the *sliding set* and the *sliding dynamics*.



Example: Sliding set

$$\dot{x}_1 = -x_2 + u = -x_2 - \text{sgn}(x_2)$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = x_1 - x_2 + u = x_1 - x_2 - \text{sgn}(x_2)$$

$$\sigma(x) = 0 \quad f^+ = \begin{bmatrix} -x_2 \\ x_1 - x_2 - 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad f^- = \begin{bmatrix} -x_2 + 1 \\ x_1 - x_2 + 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma(x) &= 0 \\ \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial x} f^+ &< 0 \\ \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial x} f^- &> 0 \end{aligned} \quad \begin{aligned} x_2 &= 0 \\ x_1 - x_2 - 1 &< 0 \\ x_1 - x_2 + 1 &> 0 \end{aligned} \quad \begin{aligned} x_1 &< 1 \\ x_1 &> -1 \end{aligned}$$

We thus have the sliding set $\{-1 < x_1 < 1, x_2 = 0\}$



Example: Sliding dynamics

The *sliding dynamics* are the given by

$$\dot{x} = \alpha f^+ + (1 - \alpha) f^- \quad \text{sliding dynamics}$$

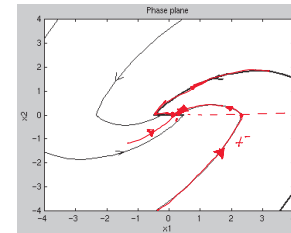
$$0 = \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial x} f^-(x) + \alpha(x) \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial x} [f^+(x) - f^-(x)]$$

On the sliding set $\{-1 < x_1 < 1, x_2 = 0\}$, this gives

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_1 \\ \dot{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \alpha \begin{bmatrix} -x_2 - 1 \\ x_1 - x_2 - 1 \end{bmatrix} + (1 - \alpha) \begin{bmatrix} -x_2 + 1 \\ x_1 - x_2 + 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$0 = x_1 - x_2 + 1 - 2\alpha$$

Eliminating α gives $\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = -x_1 \\ \dot{x}_2 = 0 \end{cases}$ Hence, any initial condition the sliding set will give exponential convergence to $x_1 = x_2 = 0$.



The dynamics along the sliding set in $\sigma(x) = 0$ can also be obtained by finding $u = u_{\text{eq}} \in [-1, 1]$ such that $\dot{\sigma}(x) = 0$. u_{eq} is called the **equivalent control**.



Sliding mode control

- Define an output $y = \sigma(x)$ such that the relative degree of the input-output relationship is 1 and the origin for the the system $\sigma(x) = 0$ is stable.

Pendulum: $\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = -\theta \cos(x_1) + bu \end{cases} \quad x_1 = \phi - \pi/2$
 $x_2 = 0$

$$\sigma = [a \ 1] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = ax_1 + x_2 \Rightarrow \dot{\sigma} = -\theta \cos(x_1) + ax_2 + bu$$

$$\sigma = x_2 + ax_1 \Rightarrow \dot{\sigma} = -\theta \cos(x_1) + ax_2 + bu$$



Sliding mode control

- Design a control input that makes the state starting in $\sigma(x) = 0$ to stay there for all t . ($\sigma(x) = 0$ invariant)

Pendulum: $\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = -\theta \cos(x_1) + bu \end{cases}$

$$\sigma = x_2 + ax_1 \Rightarrow \dot{\sigma} = -\theta \cos(x_1) + ax_2 + bu$$

$$\dot{\sigma} = 0 \quad \begin{aligned} \sigma(x_{\text{eq}}) &= 0 \\ \dot{\sigma}(x_{\text{eq}}) &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad u = \frac{1}{b} (-ax_2 + \theta \cos(x_1))$$

$$u_{\text{eq}}$$



Sliding mode control

- Use feedback linearization and design a control input that makes $\sigma(x) = 0$.

Pendulum: $\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = -\theta \cos(x_1) + bu \end{cases}$

$u = u_{equiv} + v$

$V = \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2$

$\dot{V} = \sigma \dot{\sigma} = \sigma [-\theta \cos(x_1) + a x_2 + b u_{equiv} + b v]$

Equivalent control: $u_{equiv} = \frac{1}{b} (-a x_2 + \theta \cos(x_1))$

Set $v = -K\sigma = -K\epsilon^2$

$\sigma = x_2 + a x_1 \Rightarrow \dot{\sigma} = -\theta \cos(x_1) + a x_2 + bu$



Sliding mode control

- Design a discontinuous control input v as part of the control $u = u_{equiv} + v$ that drives $\sigma(x)$ to zero in finite time.

$$v = -K \text{sign}(\sigma) \quad \text{sign}(\sigma) = \begin{cases} 1, & \sigma > 1 \\ -1, & \sigma < 1 \end{cases}$$

- Examine how $|\sigma(t)|$ changes over time

discontinuous feedback $v = -K \text{sign}(\sigma)$

Continuous feedback $v = -K\sigma$

$\frac{d}{dt} |\sigma| = \frac{d}{dt} \sqrt{\sigma^2} = \text{sign}(\sigma) \dot{\sigma} = -K$

$\frac{d}{dt} \sigma = -K \sigma \Rightarrow \sigma(t) = e^{-Kt} \sigma(0)$ exponential convergence

The solution is not extended after this time instant.



Sliding mode control

- Choose K such that $u = \hat{u}_{eq} + v$ drives $\sigma(x)$ to zero in finite time. \hat{u}_{eq} is designed by using some estimate $\hat{\theta} \Rightarrow u_{eq} = -\frac{a}{b} x_2 + \frac{\hat{\theta}}{b} \cos(x_1)$

$v = -K \text{sign}(\sigma)$

$\text{sign}(\sigma) = \begin{cases} 1, & \sigma > 1 \\ -1, & \sigma < 1 \end{cases}$

By choosing K sufficiently large robustness to uncertainty

$\dot{\sigma} = -\theta \cos(x_1) + a x_2 + K \hat{u}_{eq} + v$

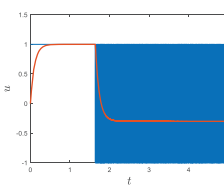
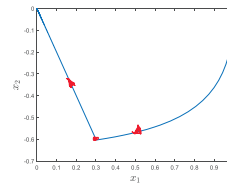
$\dot{\sigma} = -(\theta - \hat{\theta}) \cos(x_1) - b K \text{sign}(\sigma)$

$V = \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 \Rightarrow \dot{V} = \sigma \dot{\sigma} = -b K |\sigma| + \sigma (\theta - \hat{\theta}) \cos(x_1)$

$\dot{V} \leq -b K |\sigma| + |\theta - \hat{\theta}| |\sigma| \leq -b K |\sigma| + \bar{\theta} |\sigma|$ for $K > \frac{\bar{\theta}}{b}$



Example



- Chattering \rightarrow wear on mechanical devices

Robustness to uncertainty comes with the expense of high-frequency input signal. If it's smoothed there are steady state errors next slide

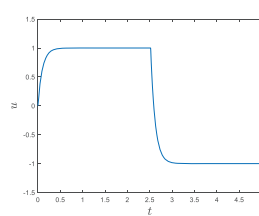
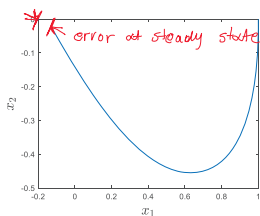
Pendulum: $\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = -0.3 \cos(x_1) - u \end{cases}$

Sliding mode controller: $\begin{cases} u = \text{sign}(x_2 + 2x_1) \end{cases}$ (no equivalent controller added)

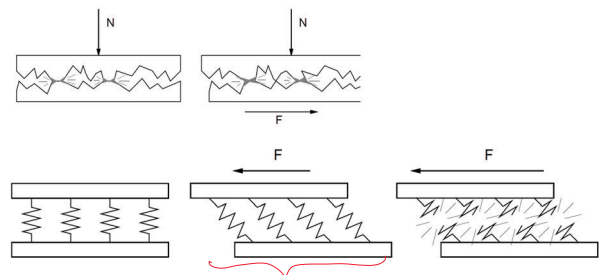


Example

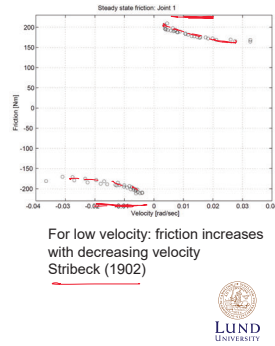
- Continuous control $u = \tanh(x_2 + 2x_1)$



Friction



Lubrication regimes



Hysteresis and friction

-

Classical friction models $m\ddot{x} + \underline{F_{ct}} = F_e(t)$



- See PhD-thesis by Henrik Olsson
<https://lucris.lub.lu.se/ws/portalfiles/portal/4768278/8840259.pdf>

Friction models with extended state

contact between bristles

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Friction and control

-

Friction and control

- Friction compensation

- Lubrication
- Dither
- Integral action
- Non-model based control
- **Model-based friction compensation**
- Adaptive friction compensation

- To be useful for control the model should be:

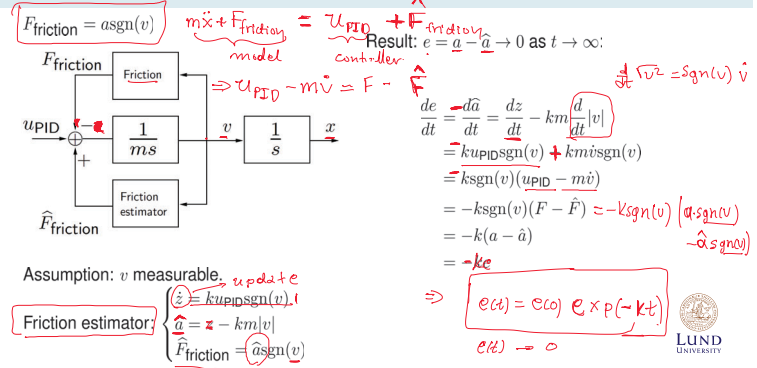
- sufficiently accurate,
- suitable for simulation,
- simple, few parameters to determine.
- physical interpretations, insight

- Simple models should be preferred.

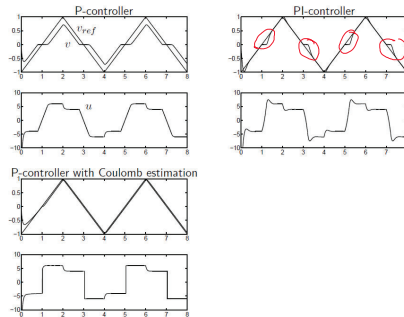
- If no stiction occurs the $v=0$ -models are not needed.



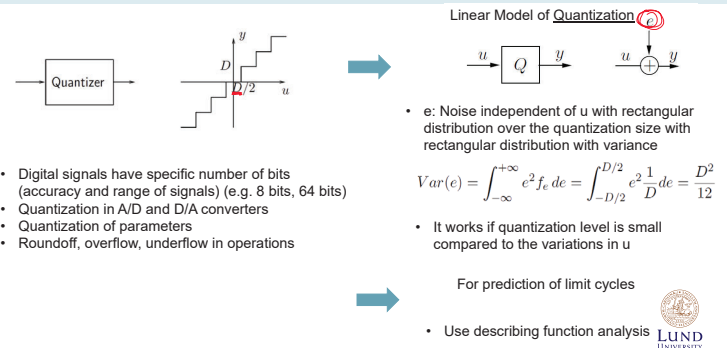
Adaptive friction compensation



Velocity Control – Results



Quantization



Sliding mode control

- Choose K such that $u = v$ drives $\sigma(x)$ to zero in finite time.

$$u = -K \operatorname{sign}(\sigma)$$

$$\operatorname{sign}(\sigma) = \begin{cases} 1, & \sigma > 1 \\ -1, & \sigma < 1 \end{cases}$$



Sliding mode control

- Choose K such that $u = v$ drives $\sigma(x)$ to zero in finite time.

$$u = -K \operatorname{sign}(\sigma)$$

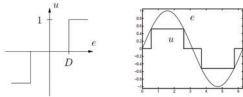
$$\operatorname{sign}(\sigma) = \begin{cases} 1, & \sigma > 1 \\ -1, & \sigma < 1 \end{cases}$$



Quantization: Describing function



- Recall the deadzone nonlinearity



$$Var(e) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^2 f_e de = \int_{-D/2}^{D/2} e^2 \frac{1}{D} de = \frac{D^2}{12}$$



FRNT05 Nonlinear Control Systems and Servo Systems

Lecture 14: Course summary

YIANNIS KARAYIANNIDIS, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR www.yiannis.info
AUTOMATIC CONTROL, FACULTY OF ENGINEERING. yiannis@control.lth.se



Outline

- Examples

Equilibrium points and Limit Cycles

- Find equilibrium points $\dot{x} = f(x)$ $f(x^*) = 0$
- Given a trajectory show that it is a limit cycle Let $x^*(t)$ a periodic trajectory independent of initial condition
- Classify equilibrium points $\dot{x}^*(t) = f(x^*(t))$
- Stability of limit cycle

$$J_f = \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right]_{x=x^*}$$

Now J_f is function of time
Stability can be checked by examining the eigenvalues of $J_f + J_f^T$

$J_f = \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right]_{x=x^*}$ check the eigenvalues and classify according the classification of equilibriums in linear systems

For limit cycle stability check to r, θ and then you can also change coordinates and linearize the system



Existence of limit cycles – Describing Function Analysis

Consider a form of the van der Pol equation:

$$\ddot{x} + \varepsilon(3x^2 - 1)\dot{x} + x = 0$$

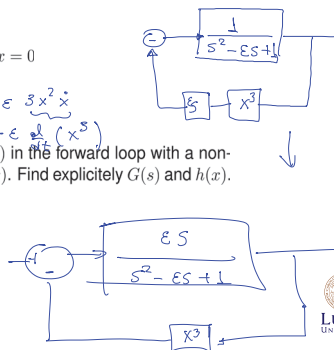
$$\Rightarrow \ddot{x} - \varepsilon \dot{x} + x = \varepsilon 3x^2 \dot{x}$$

$$\Rightarrow \ddot{x} - \varepsilon \dot{x} + x = -\varepsilon \frac{d}{dt}(x^3)$$

Express the system as a transfer function $G(s)$ in the forward loop with a nonlinear feedback through a static nonlinearity $h(x)$. Find explicitly $G(s)$ and $h(x)$.

The TF has two poles with positive real part.

$$\#OL_{unstable} = 2$$



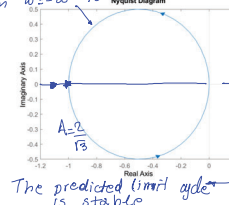
Existence of limit cycles – Describing Function Analysis

Consider a form of the van der Pol equation:

$$\ddot{x} + \varepsilon(3x^2 - 1)\dot{x} + x = 0$$

This is in fact the van der Pol oscillator that generates limit cycles. Use the describing function analysis to examine the existence of a limit cycle.

the circle is double from $\omega = -\infty$ to $\omega = +\infty$



$$N(A) = \frac{3A^2}{4} \rightarrow \frac{1}{N(A)} = -\frac{4}{3A^2} = -1 \Rightarrow A = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$$

If A increases $\frac{1}{N(A)}$ moves towards origin.
If $A = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$ disturbed to the left (decreased) then unstable (out of the circle) and returns back.
If $A = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$ disturbed to the right (increased) then stable (in the circle) and returns back (decreases).

The predicted limit cycle is stable



Lyapunov stability analysis

1. $V > 0$ p.d. $V(x)$ if $x=0$ for $x \in \mathcal{Q}$ $\mathcal{Q} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$
 $V(x) > 0$ if $x \neq 0$
 det. $[V < 0 \sim -V > 0$ p.d.]
 V radially unbounded.
 2. $\dot{V} > 0$ p.d. for $x \in \mathcal{Q}$ $\mathcal{Q} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$
 \Rightarrow asymptotic stability (local) \Rightarrow global.

If $\dot{V} \leq 0$ then stable equilibrium point.

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 $\dot{V} = 0$
 $\dot{x} = f(x)$ $\Rightarrow \boxed{x=0}$



Lyapunov stability analysis

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = \frac{1}{a}x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = -bx_1 - x_2(1 - a^2x_1^2 - x_2^2) \end{cases}$$

Here the actual region of attraction is $V < 1$ since $V=1$ is an invariant set (an unstable limit cycle)

Show that the origin and the ellipse $a^2x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1$ are invariant sets for $b=a$

Choose a Lyapunov function to show that the origin is a locally asymptotical stable equilibrium point.

Inspired by the first question we choose $V = a^2x_1^2 + x_2^2 > 0$ p.d.

What is the region of attraction?

A region of the form $\mathcal{Q}_1 = \{V < 1\}$ is an estimate of the R.A.

$\dot{V} = -x_2^2(1 - a^2x_1^2 - x_2^2)$
 If $x \in \mathcal{Q}_1 = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2, V < 1\}$ in the ellipse
 $\dot{V} = -x_2^2 \leq 0$ (Not negative definite)
 In \mathcal{Q}_1 $M = \{\text{origin}\}$ for $x \in \mathcal{Q}_1$
 (If $x \in \mathcal{Q}_1$ $x_2 = 0 \Rightarrow x_2 = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 = 0$)

LaSalle



Lyapunov stability analysis

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = \frac{1}{a}x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = -bx_1 - x_2(1 - a^2x_1^2 - x_2^2) \end{cases}$$

Show that the origin and the ellipse $a^2x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1$ are invariant sets for $b=a$

origin
 For $x_1 = x_2 = 0$ we get $\dot{x}_1 = 0, \dot{x}_2 = 0$

ellipse

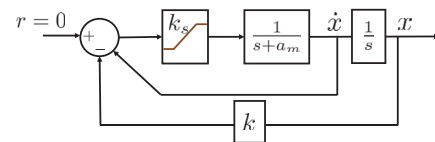
$$\begin{aligned} \dot{V} &= a^2x_1\dot{x}_1 + x_2\dot{x}_2 \\ &= 2ax_1x_2 - 2bx_1x_2 - x_2^2(a^2x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1) \\ &= x_2^2(a^2x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 1) \end{aligned}$$

For $\dot{V} = 0$ we get $\dot{x} = 0$ i.e. $\dot{V}(t) = \dot{V}(0) = 0 \forall t$
 invariant
 similar to what we did for equilibrium point (origin)



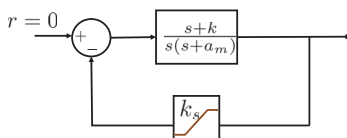
BIBO – Circle Criterion etc.

A motor is controlled using position and velocity feedback combined in a P-controller with gain k_s . A gain k is used as a weight for the position feedback. The input signal is saturated due to input torque limitations. In particular $u = -k_s(\dot{x} + kx)$ if $-1 < u < 1$, otherwise u is saturated to -1 or $+1$ depending on the sign of $\dot{x} + kx$. Use the circle criterion to study the asymptotic stability of the origin.



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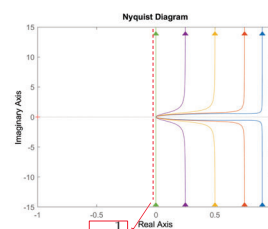
$$G(s) = \frac{s+k}{s(s+a_m)}$$

$$G(j\omega) = \frac{j\omega+k}{-\omega^2+j\omega a_m} \Rightarrow \text{Re}[G(j\omega)] = \frac{a_m-k}{\omega^2+a_m^2}$$



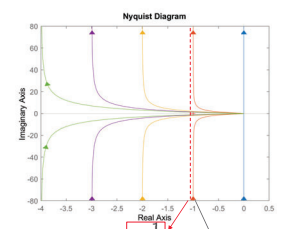
Circle Criterion

$$a_m > k \quad \text{Nyquist } G(s) = \frac{s+k}{s(s+a_m)} \quad k > a_m$$



You could check the conditions for strictly positive real functions and get the result without a Nyquist graph.

k_s arbitrarily large



$$k_s < \frac{a_m^2}{k-a_m}$$



Nonlinear Control Design

(b) V is not for $\alpha, b > 0$ positive constant

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = -x_1 + \theta x_1^2 x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = u \end{cases}, \theta \text{ positive constant}$$

$$\dot{V} = \alpha x_1 \dot{x}_1 + b x_2 \dot{x}_2 =$$

$$= -\alpha x_1^2 + \underbrace{\alpha \theta x_1^3 x_2}_{u = -\frac{\alpha}{b} \theta x_1^3 - k x_2} + b x_2 u$$

(a) Assume that x_1 is not measurable and thus cannot be used for control. Use the function $V = \frac{1}{2}(\alpha x_1^2 + b x_2^2)$ to show that linear feedback of x_2 can achieve local asymptotic stability of the origin.

$$\dot{V} = -\alpha x_1^2 - k b x_2^2$$

$$\dot{V} < 0$$

(b) Assume full state feedback can be used. Derive a controller that can achieve global asymptotic stability of the origin? Is the stability property exponential?

(c) α, b are free parameters

(d) Is your controller robust to uncertainty in the parameter θ ? $\frac{\alpha}{b} = \frac{\epsilon}{\theta}$ where ϵ is a positive constant

$$\min(b) \|\dot{x}\|^2 \leq \max(a, b) \|\dot{x}\|^2$$

$$\dot{V} \leq -\min(a, kb) \|\dot{x}\|^2$$

\Rightarrow exponential stability

Then $u = -\epsilon x_1^3 - k x_2$ independent of θ

