Optimal Control and Dynamical Systems

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UBC MLRG

Introduction

Control theory is the study and practice of manipulating dynamical systems.

- Inseparable from data science sensor measurements (data)
- Characteristics of this data is different from a statistical learning setting.

Example - PID temperature controller



• A Proportional-Integral-Derivative controller is a feedback control mechanism.

Figure 1: https://bit.ly/2Zk2JKE

Example - PID temperature controller



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- A Proportional-Integral-Derivative controller is a feedback control mechanism.
- A temperature controller takes measurements from a temperature sensor.
- Its output is connected to a control element such as a heater or a fan.



Figure 2: https://bit.ly/3iYLkyI



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 - Cheap, simple, reliable.
 - May not be sufficient.
 - Example: stop signs at traffic intersections.



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 - Cheap, simple, reliable.
 - May not be sufficient.
 - Example: stop signs at traffic intersections.
- Active control requires input energy.
 - Further categorized based on whether sensors are used.



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 - Example: traffic lights.



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 - Example: traffic lights.
- Sensor-based control uses sensor measurements to inform the control law.



- Disturbance feedforward control measures external disturbances to the system, then feeds this into an open-loop control law.
 - Example: Preemptive road closure near a stadium before a concert.



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 - Example: Sensors in the roadbed.



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 - Example: Preemptive road closure near a stadium before a concert.
- Closed-loop control measures the system directly, then feeds the sensor measurements back.
 - Example: Sensors in the roadbed.
 - This will be our main focus.

We will follow Chapter 8 in Brunton and Kutz [2019],

- Closed-loop feedback control (Section 8.1)
- Stability and eigenvalues (Section 8.2)
- Controllability (Section 8.3)
- Reachability (Section 8.3)
- Optimal full-state control: LQR (Section 8.4)





• $\mathbf{y}(t)$ sensor measurements



- **y**(*t*) sensor measurements
- $\mathbf{u}(t)$ actuation signal



• w_d disturbances to the system



- **w**_d disturbances to the system
- w_n measurement noise



- **w**_d disturbances to the system
- **w**_n measurement noise
- w_r reference trajectory



Together, this forms a dynamical system given by

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} := rac{d}{dt} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w}_d), \qquad \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w}_n),$$

and the goal is to construct a control law

 $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{k}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{w}_r)$ such that the cost J is minimized.

Example: Inverted pendulum



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- Stabilize an unstable system.
- Compensate for external disturbances.
- Correct for unmodeled dynamics.

Stability and eigenvalues

Our nonlinear dynamical system is given by

1

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Near a fixed point (\bar{x}, \bar{u}) where $f(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) = 0$, we can use a Taylor expansion to obtain the following linearization

 $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}, \qquad \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{C}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{D}\mathbf{u},$

where $\mathbf{A} = \nabla \mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{x}}(\bar{x}, \bar{u})$, $\mathbf{B} = \nabla \mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{u}}(\bar{x}, \bar{u})$, $\mathbf{C} = \nabla \mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{x}}(\bar{x}, \bar{u})$, and $\mathbf{D} = \nabla \mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{u}}(\bar{x}, \bar{u})$.

Linear system

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Now suppose

- In the absence of control: $\boldsymbol{u}=\boldsymbol{0}$
- and with measurements of the full state: $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}$,

our dynamical system becomes

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x},$$

and the solution $\mathbf{x}(t)$ is given by

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = e^{\mathbf{A}t}\mathbf{x}(0).$$

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where the matrix exponential is given by the infinite power series

$$e^{\mathbf{A}t} = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{A}t + \frac{1}{2!}\mathbf{A}^2t^2 + \frac{1}{3!}\mathbf{A}^2t^3 + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\frac{1}{k!}\mathbf{A}^kt^k$$

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- When **A** is diagonalizable, e^{At} can be computed by leveraging **A**'s eigendecomposition:
 - $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{Q}^{-1} \implies e^{\mathbf{A}t} = \mathbf{Q} e^{\mathbf{\Lambda} t} \mathbf{Q}^{-1}$
- When A is not diagonalizable, write Λ in Jordan form and compute the matrix exponential with simple extensions.

If we write the states as $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{z}$, then

$$\begin{split} \dot{z} &= Q^{-1} \dot{x} \\ &= Q^{-1} A x \\ &= Q^{-1} A Q z \\ &= \Lambda z. \end{split}$$

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Our dynamical system simplifies from $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$ to $\dot{\mathbf{z}} = \mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{z}$, with solution

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Our dynamical system simplifies from $\dot{x} = Ax$ to $\dot{z} = \Lambda z$, with solution

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{Q} \underbrace{e^{\Lambda t} \underbrace{\mathbf{Q}^{-1} \mathbf{x}(0)}_{\mathbf{z}(t)}}_{\mathbf{z}(t)}.$$

The eigenvalues in $\pmb{\Lambda}$ also tell us about the stability of the system.

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The eigenvalues in $\pmb{\Lambda}$ also tell us about the stability of the system.

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = \mathbf{Q}e^{\mathbf{\Lambda}t}\mathbf{Q}^{-1}\mathbf{x}(0).$$

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- Using Euler's formula: $e^{\lambda t} = e^{at}(\cos(bt) + i\sin(bt))$.

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- Therefore, if all the eigenvalues λ_k have negative real part, i.e. a < 0, then the system is stable and x = 0 as t → ∞.
- If for any λ_k we have a > 0, then the system will diverge in this direction, which is very likely for a random initial condition.

Example: Stability of the inverted pendulum





From physics, we have $\ddot{\theta} = -\frac{g}{L}\sin(\theta) + u$.



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$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \theta \\ \dot{\theta} \end{bmatrix} \implies \frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ -\frac{g}{L}\sin(x_1) + u \end{bmatrix}.$$



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Taking the Jacobian of $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u})$ yields

$$\frac{\mathbf{d}\mathbf{f}}{\mathbf{d}\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1\\ -\frac{g}{L}\cos(x_1) & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \frac{\mathbf{d}\mathbf{f}}{\mathbf{d}\mathbf{u}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0\\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$



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Linearizing at the pendulum up ($x_1 = \pi, x_2 = 0$) fixed point,

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{1} \\ \frac{\mathbf{g}}{L} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} u$$

and down $(x_1 = 0, x_2 = 0)$ fixed point,

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• Pendulum up ("inverted"): $\lambda = \pm \sqrt{g/L}$, positive real part \implies instability.



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- Pendulum up ("inverted"): $\lambda = \pm \sqrt{g/L}$, positive real part \implies instability.
- Pendulum down: $\lambda = 0 \pm i \sqrt{g/L}$, stable.
- Good news: if we use closed-loop feedback control $\mathbf{u} = -\mathbf{K}\mathbf{x}$, we may be able to stabilize it!

Linear system

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}, \qquad \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}$$

where $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^{q}$, $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$, and $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times q}$.

Controllability:

• When can we use feedback control to manipulate the system into what we want?

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- When can we use feedback control to manipulate the system into what we want?
- If we can control the system, how do we design the control law $u=-\mathsf{K} x$ to drive the system to the desired behaviour?

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Controllability:

- When can we use feedback control to manipulate the system into what we want?
- If we can control the system, how do we design the control law ${\bf u}=-{\bf K}{\bf x}$ to drive the system to the desired behaviour?

With feedback control, we can write the dynamical system as

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}\mathbf{K})\mathbf{x}$$

and hopefully we can use ${\bf K}$ such that we can place the eigenvalues wherever we want.

The controllability of a linear system in the form $\dot{x} = (A - BK)x$ is determined entirely by the column space of the controllability matrix:

Controllability matrix

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} B & AB & A^2B & \dots & A^{n-1}B \end{bmatrix}$$

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 - It's possible to choose K such that the eigenvalues of (A BK) can be wherever we want.
- Reachability of \mathbb{R}^n :
 - It's possible to steer the system to any arbitrary state x(t) = ξ ∈ ℝⁿ in finite time with some actuation signal u(t).

Controllability - Example I

Consider the following system:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u$$

Is this system controllable?

Consider the following system:

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Is this system controllable?

No. The eigenvalues are real and greater than 0, the states x_1 and x_2 are completely decoupled but u only affects x_2 .

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We can also check the controllability matrix, which is in this case

$$\mathcal{C} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

(

and the two columns are linearly dependent.

What about allowing two knobs? Consider the following system:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Yes. Both states can be independently controlled by u_1 and u_2 .

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$$\mathcal{C} = egin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

which spans all of \mathbb{R}^2 .

Controllability - Example III

What about when the states are coupled? Consider the following system:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}$$

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Maybe not obvious, but **Yes.** Even though we only have a single actuation, we can actually control x_1 through controlling x_2 since the states are coupled.

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In this case, the controllability matrix is

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which again spans all of \mathbb{R}^2 .

The Popov-Belevitch-Hautus test

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The system $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}$ is controllable if and only if the column rank of $\begin{bmatrix} (\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) & \mathbf{B} \end{bmatrix}$ is equal to *n* for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.

• If λ is not an eigenvalue of **A**, then rank $(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) = n$ is guaranteed,.

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 - To make up for this rank deficiency, columns of B must have components in the eigenvector direction corresponding to λ.

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 - To make up for this rank deficiency, columns of B must have components in the eigenvector direction corresponding to λ.
- If A has n distinct eigenvalues, then B only needs to account for one direction per eigenvalue.
 - Take **B** to be the sum of all *n* linearly-independent eigenvectors, and we only need a single actuation to control ths system!
The PBH test for controllability

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- If λ is not an eigenvalue of **A**, then rank $(\mathbf{A} \lambda \mathbf{I}) = n$ is guaranteed,.
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- If λ is an eigenvalue of **A**, then $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A} \lambda \mathbf{I})$ is the span of the eigenvector.
 - To make up for this rank deficiency, columns of B must have components in the eigenvector direction corresponding to λ.
- If A has n distinct eigenvalues, then B only needs to account for one direction per eigenvalue.
 - Take **B** to be the sum of all *n* linearly-independent eigenvectors, and we only need a single actuation to control ths system!
 - Or just take a random vector...

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The controllability Gramian

$$\mathbf{W}(t) = \int_0^t e^{\mathbf{A} au} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{B}^ au e^{\mathbf{A}^ au au} d au \in \mathbb{R}^{n imes n},$$

which is often evaluated at infinite time,

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- The eigendecomposition of **W** also tells us how much we can steer the system in the direction of the eigenvectors.

Reachability

Reachability: it's possible to steer the system to any arbitrary state $\mathbf{x}(t) = \xi \in \mathbb{R}^n$ in finite time with some actuation signal $\mathbf{u}(t)$.

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The Cayley-Hamilton theorem

Every square matrix A satisfies its own characteristic equation:

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More importantly, we can do this for any power greater than n:

$$\mathbf{A}^{k\geq n} = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \alpha_j \mathbf{A}^j.$$

The Cayley-Hamilton theorem allows us to express the infinite power series e^{At} as a finite sum:

$$e^{\mathbf{A}t} = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{A}t + \frac{1}{2!}\mathbf{A}^2t^2 + \frac{1}{3!}\mathbf{A}^2t^3 + \dots$$

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What does this have to do with reachability?

With control and zero initial condition $\mathbf{x}(0) = \mathbf{0}$, the solution to the system $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{B}\mathbf{u}$ is

$$\mathsf{x}(t) = \int_0^t e^{\mathsf{A}(t- au)} \mathsf{Bu}(au) d au.$$

So a state $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^n$ being reachable just means there exists $\mathbf{u}(t)$ such that

$$\xi = \int_0^t e^{\mathbf{A}(t- au)} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{u}(au) d au$$

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=
$$\int_0^t [\alpha_0(t-\tau)\mathbf{I} + \alpha_1(t-\tau)\mathbf{A} + \alpha_2(t-\tau)\mathbf{A}^2 + \dots + \alpha_{n-1}(t-\tau)\mathbf{A}^{n-1}]\mathbf{B} \mathbf{u}(\tau) d\tau$$

$$\begin{split} \xi &= \int_0^t e^{\mathbf{A}(t-\tau)} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{u}(\tau) d\tau \\ &= \int_0^t [\alpha_0(t-\tau) \mathbf{I} + \alpha_1(t-\tau) \mathbf{A} + \alpha_2(t-\tau) \mathbf{A}^2 + \dots + \alpha_{n-1}(t-\tau) \mathbf{A}^{n-1}] \mathbf{B} \mathbf{u}(\tau) d\tau \\ &= \mathbf{B} \int_0^t \alpha_0(t-\tau) \mathbf{u}(\tau) d\tau + \mathbf{A} \mathbf{B} \int_0^t \alpha_1(t-\tau) \mathbf{u}(\tau) d\tau + \dots + \mathbf{A}^{n-1} \mathbf{B} \int_0^t \alpha_{n-1}(t-\tau) \mathbf{u}(\tau) d\tau \end{split}$$

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- Therefore, the only way for all of \mathbb{R}^n to be reachable is when the columns of \mathcal{C} spans \mathbb{R}^n .
- If \mathcal{C} has rank n, then we can design $\mathbf{u}(t)$ to reach any state $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Optimal full-state control: LQR

Optimal control



• Recall that if the system $\dot{x} = Ax + Bu$ is controllable, then it's possible to arbitrarily manipulate the eigenvalues through a full-state feedback control law u = -Kx.

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- Recall that if the system $\dot{x} = Ax + Bu$ is controllable, then it's possible to arbitrarily manipulate the eigenvalues through a full-state feedback control law u = -Kx.
- If we choose \mathbf{u} to make the system arbitrarily stable, this can lead to
 - Expensive control expenditure $J(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u})$.
 - Over-react to noise and disturbances.

- Optimal control: choosing the best gain matrix ${\sf K}$ to stabilize the system with minimum effort.
- Seek balance between stability and aggressiveness of control.

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• $\mathbf{Q} \succeq \mathbf{0}$ - can achieve zero deviation.

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- We now have an optimization problem!!!!!

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Since J(t) is quadratic, there is an analytical solution given by

$$\mathbf{K}_r = \mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{X},$$

where X is the solution to an algebraic Riccati equation:

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- Very expensive for high-dimensional systems $O(n^3)$.
- Reduced-order models: use fewer states.
• Closed-loop feedback control.

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What we didn't cover:

- How to derive the Riccati equations for LQR. (End of Section 8.4 in [Brunton and Kutz, 2019])
- Full-state estimation and the Kalman filter. (Section 8.5 in [Brunton and Kutz, 2019])



Steven L. Brunton. Control Bootcamp.

https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PLMrJAkhIeNNR20Mz-VpzgfQs5zrYi085m, 2020.

Steven L. Brunton and J. Nathan Kutz. Data-Driven Science and Engineering: Machine Learning, Dynamical Systems, and Control. Cambridge University Press, 2019.