## Optimal Control and Dynamical Systems

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# Introduction 

## 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



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

## Example - MCAS

Boeing 737 Max
Maneuvering Characteristics Augmentation System


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

## Types of control



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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.


## Types of control



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- Example: traffic lights.


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- Open-loop control relies on a pre-programmed control sequence.
- Example: traffic lights.
- Sensor-based control uses sensor measurements to inform the control law.


## Types of control



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- 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.


## Outline

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)


## Closed-loop feedback control

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- $\mathbf{y}(t)$ sensor measurements


## Closed-loop feedback control



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


## Closed-loop feedback control



- $\mathbf{w}_{d}$ disturbances to the system


## Closed-loop feedback control



- $\mathbf{w}_{d}$ disturbances to the system
- $w_{n}$ measurement noise


## Closed-loop feedback control



- $\mathbf{w}_{d}$ disturbances to the system
- $\mathbf{w}_{n}$ measurement noise
- $w_{r}$ reference trajectory


## Closed-loop feedback control



Together, this forms a dynamical system given by

$$
\dot{\mathbf{x}}:=\frac{d}{d t} \mathbf{x}=\mathbf{f}\left(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w}_{d}\right), \quad \mathbf{y}=\mathbf{g}\left(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w}_{n}\right)
$$

and the goal is to construct a control law

$$
\mathbf{u}=\mathbf{k}\left(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{w}_{r}\right) \quad \text { such that the cost } J \text { is minimized. }
$$

## Example: Inverted pendulum



## Benefits of feedback control

Compared to open-loop control, closed-loop feedback makes it possible to

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


## Stability and eigenvalues

## Linearization of nonlinear dynamics

Our nonlinear dynamical system is given by

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## Linearization of nonlinear dynamics

For simplicity, let's ignore the external disturbances $\mathbf{w}$, which gives

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$$

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

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

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 $\mathbf{D}=\nabla \mathbf{g}_{\mathbf{u}}(\bar{x}, \bar{u})$.

## Unforced linear system - without control

Linear system

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Now suppose

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

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

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

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

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


## Unforced linear system - without control

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
\dot{\mathbf{z}} & =\mathbf{Q}^{-1} \dot{\mathbf{x}} \\
& =\mathbf{Q}^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \\
& =\mathbf{Q}^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{z} \\
& =\mathbf{\Lambda z} .
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\mathbf{x}(t)=\underbrace{\mathbf{Q} e^{\Lambda t} \underbrace{\mathbf{Q}^{-1} \mathbf{x}(0)}_{z(0)}}_{z(t)} .
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The eigenvalues in $\boldsymbol{\Lambda}$ also tell us about the stability of the system.

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## Unforced linear system - stability

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- In general, the eigenvalues may be complex numbers: $\lambda=a+i b$.
- Using Euler's formula: $e^{\lambda t}=e^{a t}(\cos (b t)+i \sin (b t))$.


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- Therefore, if all the eigenvalues $\lambda_{k}$ have negative real part, i.e. $a<0$, then the system is stable and $\mathbf{x}=0$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$.
- If for any $\lambda_{k}$ 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



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

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Writing the system as a first-order differential equation,

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\mathbf{x}=\left[\begin{array}{l}
x_{1} \\
x_{2}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{l}
\theta \\
\dot{\theta}
\end{array}\right] \Longrightarrow \frac{d}{d t}\left[\begin{array}{l}
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Taking the Jacobian of $\dot{\mathbf{x}}=\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u})$ yields

$$
\frac{\mathbf{d f}}{\mathbf{d} \mathbf{x}}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
0 & 1 \\
-\frac{g}{L} \cos \left(x_{1}\right) & 0
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Linearizing at the pendulum up ( $x_{1}=\pi, x_{2}=0$ ) fixed point,

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


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- Pendulum down: $\lambda=0 \pm i \sqrt{g / L}$, stable.
- Good news: if we use closed-loop feedback control $\mathbf{u}=-\mathrm{Kx}$, we may be able to stabilize it


## Controllability

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## Linear system

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

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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- If we can control the system, how do we design the control law $\mathbf{u}=-\mathbf{K x}$ to drive the system to the desired behaviour?


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With feedback control, we can write the dynamical system as

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

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

## Controllability matrix

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

## Controllability matrix

$$
\mathcal{C}=\left[\begin{array}{lllll}
\mathbf{B} & \mathbf{A B} & \mathbf{A}^{2} \mathbf{B} & \ldots & \mathbf{A}^{n-1} \mathbf{B}
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- It's possible to choose $\mathbf{K}$ such that the eigenvalues of ( $\mathbf{A}-\mathbf{B K}$ ) can be wherever we want.


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- Arbitrary eigenvalue placement:
- It's possible to choose $K$ such that the eigenvalues of $(\mathbf{A}-\mathbf{B K})$ can be wherever we want.
- Reachability of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ :
- 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 $\mathbf{u}(t)$.


## Controllability - Example I

Consider the following system:

$$
\dot{\mathbf{x}}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 2
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
x_{1} \\
x_{2}
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Is this system controllable?

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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

$$
\mathcal{C}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
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$$

and the two columns are linearly dependent.

## Controllability - Example II

What about allowing two knobs? Consider the following system:

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\end{array}\right]+\left[\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 1
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
u_{1} \\
u_{2}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Is this system controllable?
Yes. Both states can be independently controlled by $u_{1}$ and $u_{2}$.

## Controllability - Example II

What about allowing two knobs? Consider the following system:

$$
\dot{\mathbf{x}}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
1 & 0 \\
0 & 2
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
x_{1} \\
x_{2}
\end{array}\right]+\left[\begin{array}{ll}
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\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
u_{1} \\
u_{2}
\end{array}\right]
$$

Is this system controllable?
Yes. Both states can be independently controlled by $u_{1}$ and $u_{2}$.
The controllability matrix is

$$
\mathcal{C}=\left[\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 2
\end{array}\right]
$$

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

## Controllability - Example III

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

$$
\dot{\mathbf{x}}=\left[\begin{array}{ll}
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\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{l}
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0 \\
1
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$$

Is this system controllable?

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Is this system controllable?
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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which again spans all of $\mathbb{R}^{2}$.

## The PBH test for controllability

## The Popov-Belevitch-Hautus test

The system $\dot{\mathbf{x}}=\mathbf{A x}+\mathbf{B u}$ is controllable if and only if the column rank of $\left[\begin{array}{ll}\left(\begin{array}{ll}(\mathbf{I}) & \mathbf{B}\end{array}\right] \text { is } \mathrm{s}\end{array}\right.$ equal to $n$ for all $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$.

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- If $\mathbf{A}$ has $n$ distinct eigenvalues, then $\mathbf{B}$ 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!


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- 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...


## The Gramian - degrees of controllability

- The rank tests only give yes or no answers.
- But some states can be easier to control than others.


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## The controllability Gramian

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\mathbf{W}(t)=\int_{0}^{t} e^{\mathbf{A} \tau} \mathbf{B B}^{T} e^{\mathbf{A}^{T} \tau} d \tau \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n},
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- The controllability of a state is measured by $\mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{W} \mathbf{x}$, the larger the more controllable.
- The eigendecomposition of $\mathbf{W}$ also tells us how much we can steer the system in the direction of the eigenvectors.


## Reachability

## The Cayley-Hamilton theorem and 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 $\mathbf{A}$ satisfies its own characteristic equation:

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\operatorname{det}(\mathbf{A}-\lambda \mathbf{I})=\lambda^{n}+a_{n-1} \lambda^{n-1}+\cdots+a_{2} \lambda^{2}+a_{1} \lambda+a_{0}=0 \\
\Longrightarrow \mathbf{A}^{n}+a_{n-1} \mathbf{A}^{n-1}+\cdots+a_{2} \mathbf{A}^{2}+a_{1} \mathbf{A}+a_{0} \mathbf{I}=0 .
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\end{array}
$$

This allows us to express $\mathbf{A}^{n}$ as a linear combination of the lower-order powers:

$$
\mathbf{A}^{n}=-a_{n-1} \mathbf{A}^{n-1}-\cdots-a_{2} \mathbf{A}^{2}-a_{1} \mathbf{A}-a_{0} \mathbf{I} .
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$$

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 and reachability

The Cayley-Hamilton theorem allows us to express the infinite power series $e^{\mathbf{A} t}$ as a finite sum:

$$
e^{\mathbf{A} t}=\mathbf{I}+\mathbf{A} t+\frac{1}{2!} \mathbf{A}^{2} t^{2}+\frac{1}{3!} \mathbf{A}^{2} t^{3}+\ldots
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& =\alpha_{0}(t) \mathbf{I}+\alpha_{1}(t) \mathbf{A}+\alpha_{2}(t) \mathbf{A}^{2}+\cdots+\alpha_{n-1}(t) \mathbf{A}^{n-1}
\end{aligned}
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\end{aligned}
$$

What does this have to do with reachability?
With control and zero initial condition $\mathbf{x}(0)=\mathbf{0}$, the solution to the system $\dot{\mathbf{x}}=\mathbf{A x}+\mathbf{B u}$ is

$$
\mathbf{x}(t)=\int_{0}^{t} e^{\mathbf{A}(t-\tau)} \mathbf{B u}(\tau) d \tau
$$

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

$$
\xi=\int_{0}^{t} e^{\mathbf{A}(t-\tau)} \mathbf{B u}(\tau) d \tau
$$

## The Cayley-Hamilton theorem and reachability

A state $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is reachable if there exists $\mathbf{u}(t)$ such that

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\xi & =\int_{0}^{t} e^{\mathbf{A}(t-\tau)} \mathbf{B u}(\tau) d \tau \\
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& =\mathbf{B} \int_{0}^{t} \alpha_{0}(t-\tau) \mathbf{u}(\tau) d \tau+\mathbf{A B} \int_{0}^{t} \alpha_{1}(t-\tau) \mathbf{u}(\tau) d \tau+\cdots+\mathbf{A}^{n-1} \mathbf{B} \int_{0}^{t} \alpha_{n-1}(t-\tau) \mathbf{u}(\tau) d \tau
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& =\left[\begin{array}{llll}
\mathbf{B} & \mathbf{A B} & \ldots & \mathbf{A}^{n-1} \mathbf{B}
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A state $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is reachable if there exists $\mathbf{u}(t)$ such that

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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 $\dot{\mathbf{x}}=\mathbf{A x}+\mathbf{B u}$ is controllable, then it's possible to arbitrarily manipulate the eigenvalues through a full-state feedback control law $\mathbf{u}=-\mathbf{K x}$.


## Optimal control



- Recall that if the system $\dot{\mathbf{x}}=\mathbf{A x}+\mathbf{B u}$ is controllable, then it's possible to arbitrarily manipulate the eigenvalues through a full-state feedback control law $\mathbf{u}=-\mathbf{K x}$.
- 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: LQR

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


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Consider the cost function

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J(t)=\int_{0}^{t} \underbrace{\mathbf{x}(\tau)^{T} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{x}(\tau)}_{\text {cost of deviations of } \mathrm{x}}+\underbrace{\mathbf{u}(\tau)^{T} \mathbf{R u}(\tau)}_{\text {cost of control }} d \tau
$$

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


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- $\mathbf{R} \succ 0$ - but control effort is always needed.
- Often diagonal, tuned to weigh the relative importance of the states/control knobs.
- We now have an optimization problem!!!!!


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- Linear control law $\mathbf{u}=-\mathbf{K}_{r} \mathbf{x}$
- Quadratic cost function J
- Regulates the state of the system to $\lim _{t \rightarrow \text { inf }} \mathbf{x}(t)=\mathbf{0}$.


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- Linear control law $\mathbf{u}=-\mathbf{K}_{r} \mathbf{x}$
- Quadratic cost function J
- Regulates the state of the system to $\lim _{t \rightarrow \text { inf }} \mathbf{x}(t)=\mathbf{0}$.


## Optimal control: LQR

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

$$
\mathbf{K}_{r}=\mathbf{R}^{-1} \mathbf{B}^{T} \mathbf{X}
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where $\mathbf{X}$ is the solution to an algebraic Riccati equation:

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\mathbf{A}^{T} \mathbf{X}+\mathbf{X A}-\mathbf{X B R}^{-1} \mathbf{B}^{T} \mathbf{X}+\mathbf{Q}=\mathbf{0}
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- Very expensive for high-dimensional systems - $O\left(n^{3}\right)$.
- Reduced-order models: use fewer states.


## Summary

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- Closed-loop feedback control.


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- Closed-loop feedback control.
- Stability and eigenvalues of a linear dynamical system.
- Controllability and Reachability.
- Optimal full-state control: LQR.

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])



## References i

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

