

NOTES FOR LECTURES SB & SA: CONTROLLABILITY AND FEEDBACK

Controllability : DISCRETE-TIME SYSTEMS

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$$\vec{\Delta x}[\epsilon] = A \vec{\Delta x}[\epsilon] + B \vec{\Delta u}[\epsilon], \text{ with } \Delta x[0] \in$$

$$\vec{\Delta x}[1] = A \vec{\Delta x}[0] + B \vec{\Delta u}[0]$$

$$\vec{\Delta x}[2] = A \vec{\Delta x}[1] + B \vec{\Delta u}[1] = A^2 \vec{\Delta x}[0] + AB \Delta u[0] + B \Delta u[1]$$

$$\vec{\Delta x}[t] = A^t \vec{\Delta x}[0] + \sum_{i=1}^t A^{t-i} B \vec{\Delta u}[i-1]$$

$$\vec{A} \times [\epsilon] = A^t \vec{A} \epsilon_{[0]} + \underbrace{\left[\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c} A^{t-1} & B & A^{t-2} & & AB & B \\ \hline & & & \cdots & & \end{array} \right]}_{mt} \left[\begin{array}{c} \Delta \vec{u}[0] \\ \Delta \vec{u}[1] \\ \Delta \vec{u}[2] \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \Delta \vec{u}[t-1] \end{array} \right]$$

— Goal: given some IC $\tilde{x}[0]$, to drive the system (via a sequence of inputs) to anything you like.

$\Rightarrow \Delta x[t]$ can be any vector (say \vec{g})

$\Rightarrow \vec{\Delta x}[\ell] - A^k \Delta \vec{x}[\sigma]$ can be any vector $(\vec{z} + A^k \Delta \vec{x}[\sigma])$

$$\Rightarrow R_t \triangleq \left[\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c} & \cdots & & \cdots & \\ \hline A^{t-1} & B; & A^t & B; & \\ \hline \end{array} \right]_{mt}^m$$

↓

$\Delta u[0]$

$\Delta u[1]$

$\Delta u[2]$

⋮

$\Delta u[t-1]$

↑ this must be capable of taking on any value in \mathbb{R}^n

↓

SYSTEM (A, B) CALLED
CONTROLLABLE
IF THIS IS FULL RANK ($= n$)

\Rightarrow (result from linear algebra):

must be full rank.
(n independent columns)

Q: Just choose t s.t. $mt \geq n$, then there are at least n columns.

Won't it be full rank?

THE CONTROLLABILITY MATRIX

A: not necessarily. Example:

$$\rightarrow A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^T B = B \Rightarrow \ell(2) = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} B \\ B \\ B \\ \vdots \\ B \end{bmatrix}}_{2t} \rightarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{rank} = 1 < 2. \quad = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow A\vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \ell(2) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \underline{\text{rank } 1}$$

- Consider B, AB, A^2B, \dots , in sequence

— when does this sequence start running out of linearly indep. vectors?

- Then: For some $m \leq n$, $\overset{\text{size of the } \square \text{ matrix } A}{A^m B}$ will not add any more lin. indep. vectors to

$$[B, AB, A^2B, \dots, A^{m-1}B]$$

→ moreover, for all $p > m$, $A^p B$ will not have any indep. vectors, either.

- Consequence of the minimal polynomial theorem: related to the Cayley-Hamilton theorem.

— for some $k \leq n$, $A^n + \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} c_i A^i = 0 \Leftrightarrow$ i.e., $A^k = - (c_{k-1} A^{k-1} + c_{k-2} A^{k-2} + \dots + c_0 I)$

— note $k=n$ if $\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j \forall i \neq j$

→ $m \leq k \leq n$

— Proof: $A^k B = - (\underbrace{c_{n-1} A^{k-1} B + c_{n-2} A^{k-2} B + \dots + c_0 B}_{\text{linear combination of all previous columns}})$

→ $\boxed{\text{Consequence of the minimal polynomial theorem}}$

Example: use the above A & \vec{b} in discrete time system:

$$\rightarrow \vec{x}[t+1] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \vec{x}[t] + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} u[t]$$

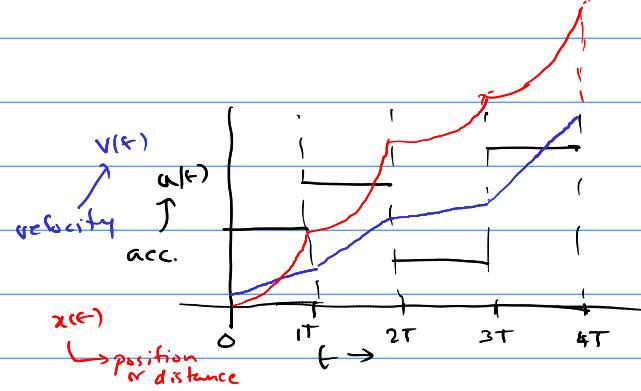
→ NOT CONTROLLABLE

→ Insight: the 2nd eqn. is: $x_2[t+1] = 2x_2[t] \leftarrow$ no way $u[t]$ can influence this

→ Another example:



- pedal changes acceleration - but only every T seconds:



$$a(t) = \frac{dv(t)}{dt} \Rightarrow \int_0^t a(z) dz :$$

$$\rightarrow a(z) = a(t) \quad tT < z < (t+1)T$$

└ discrete

$$v(tT + T) - v(tT) = \int_{tT}^{(t+1)T} a(z) dz = T a(t)$$

↑
discrete

$$\Rightarrow v(tT + T) = v(tT) + T a(t)$$

$$- \text{also } v(tT + z) = v(tT) + z a(t) \quad 0 \leq z \leq T$$

$$\rightarrow \text{position } x(t) = \int_0^t v(z) dz$$

$$x(tT + T) - x(tT) = \int_{tT}^{(t+1)T} v(z) dz = \int_{tT}^{(t+1)T} v(tT) dz + a(t) \int_0^T z dz$$

$$= T v(tT) + \frac{a(t) T^2}{2}$$

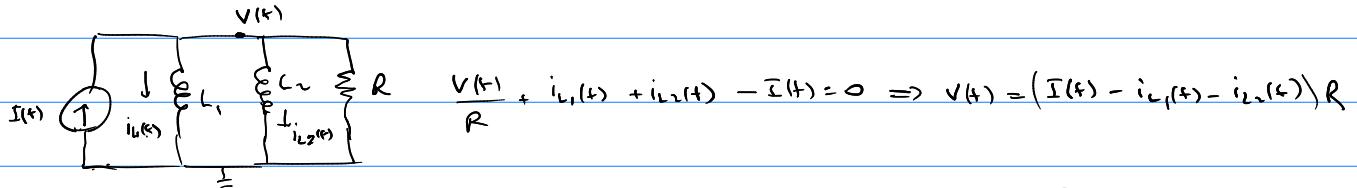
$$\begin{bmatrix} x((t+1)T) \\ v((t+1)T) \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & T \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}}_A \begin{bmatrix} x(tT) \\ v(tT) \end{bmatrix} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} T^2 \\ T \end{bmatrix}}_B a(t)$$

$$\text{Controllability: } \left[\vec{b}, A\vec{b} \right] = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{T}{2} & \frac{3}{2}T^2 \\ T & T \end{bmatrix} = T \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{3}{2} \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\det = T \left(T_2 - \frac{3}{2}T \right) = -T^2 \neq 0 \quad \forall T \neq 0$$

Hence controllable: you can devise $a(t)$ to achieve any position/velocity for $t \geq 2$

— RL ckt example



$$\left. \left(L_1 \frac{di_{L1}}{dt} = \frac{V(t)}{L_1} = \frac{(\bar{I}(t) - i_{L1}(t) - i_{L2}(t))R}{L_1} \right) \right]$$

$$\left. \left(L_2 \frac{di_{L2}}{dt} = \frac{V(t)}{L_2} = \frac{(\bar{I}(t) - i_{L1}(t) - i_{L2}(t))R}{L_2} \right) \right]$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} i_{L1} \\ i_{L2} \end{bmatrix} = R \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{L_1} & -\frac{1}{L_1} \\ -\frac{1}{L_2} & -\frac{1}{L_2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_{L1} \\ i_{L2} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{L_1} \\ \frac{1}{L_2} \end{bmatrix} \bar{I}(t)$$

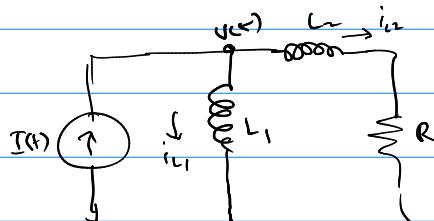
$$\begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{L_1} & \frac{1}{L_1} \\ \frac{1}{L_2} & \frac{1}{L_2} \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \text{rank} \Rightarrow \text{not controllable}$$

$$\vec{A}\vec{b} = \vec{b}$$

→ "Physical" reason: same voltage determines both currents, can't make both indep. of each other:

$$-\frac{d}{dt} [L_1 i_1 - L_2 i_2] = 0 \Rightarrow L_1 i_1 = L_2 i_2 + \text{constant!}$$

→ from above



FEEDBACK

→ CONTROLLABILITY IS NOT OF MUCH USE WITHOUT STABILITY

→ Suppose you have a controllable, but dynamically unstable, system.

→ Can you really control it, in a practical sense?

→ No: the slightest error (e.g., in the input, or IC), will totally trash your control strategy.

→ Example: $\frac{dx}{dt} = x + u(t)$.

→ System is controllable; but it is ^{dynamically} UNSTABLE (eigenvalue = 1 > 0)

→ say we want to move $x(t)$ to 1 at $t = 10$ (from 0 at 0)

$$x(10) = \int_0^{10} e^{(10-t)} u(t) dt = e^{10} \int_0^{10} e^{-t} u(t) dt \quad \text{don't need to go through this.}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{try } u(t) \equiv \text{constant} = b$$

$$\Rightarrow x(10) = b e^{10} \int_0^{10} e^{-t} dt = b e^{10} \left[-e^{-t} \right]_0^{10} = b e^{10} [1 - e^{-10}] = b \left[e^{10} - 1 \right] \approx 2.2 \times 10^4$$

$$\Rightarrow (\text{since } x(10) \text{ is } 1) \quad b = \frac{1}{e^{10} - 1} \approx 4.5 \times 10^{-5}$$

→ Suppose your initial condition is not exactly 0, but $= 10^{-3}$

→ what is the error is $x(10)$?

→ it is $10^{-3} e^{10} \approx 22 \leftarrow \text{totally wipes out desired value of } 1$.

→ Now suppose you have $\dot{x} = -x + u(t)$

$$x(10) = e^{-10} \int_0^{10} e^{+t} = (\text{for fixed } u(t) = b) \quad b[e^{-10} - 1] \approx -b$$

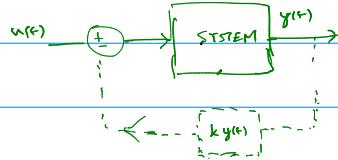
$$\rightarrow \text{now if } x(0) = 10^{-3}, \quad \Delta x(10) = 10^{-3} e^{-10} \approx 0 \leftarrow \text{very accurate}$$

→ I.e., an unstable system, even if controllable, is effectively not so in the presence of even tiny errors.

→ For a system to be practically controllable (and useful), IT MUST BE STABLE.

→ CAN ONE SOMEHOW MAKE AN UNSTABLE SYSTEM STABLE?

→ Yes: via feedback

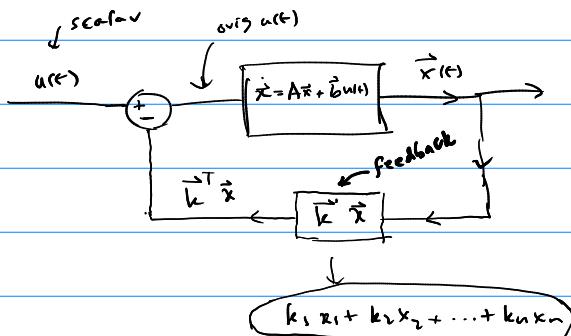


→ what is feedback?

→ Take some of the state and add/subtract it from the input.

→ Uses: less sensitive to errors/variations/noise

→ SYSTEM w scalar input:



$$\frac{d\vec{x}}{dt} = A\vec{x} + \vec{b}(u(t) - k^T \vec{x}(t)) \Rightarrow \frac{d\vec{x}}{dt} = (\underbrace{A - \vec{b}k^T}_{\text{those determine stability}})\vec{x} + \vec{b}u(t)$$

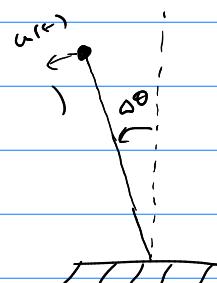
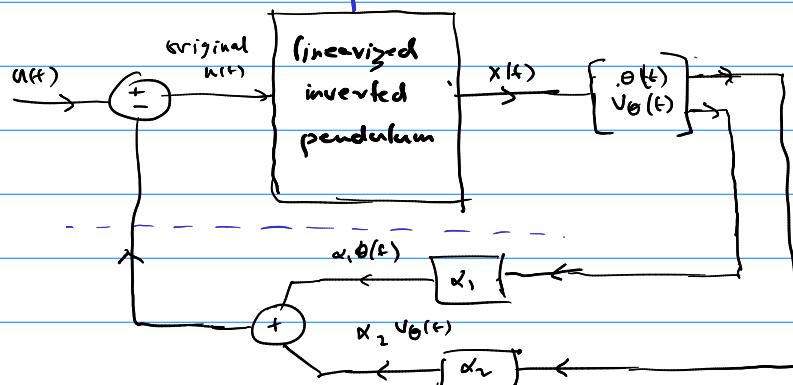
- how do the eigenvalues of this relate to those of A?

↳ no general analytical formula exists

— FEEDBACK CAN STABILIZE UNSTABLE SYSTEMS

— EXAMPLE: inverted pendulum

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} \theta(t) \\ v_\theta(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ g/m & -k/m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \theta(t) \\ v_\theta(t) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1/m \end{bmatrix} u(t)$$



SYSTEM w/ feedback

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} \theta(t) \\ v_b(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ g/l - k/m & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \theta(t) \\ v_b(t) \end{bmatrix} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1/m \end{bmatrix} (u(t) - \alpha_1 \theta(t) - \alpha_2 v_b(t))}_{\text{due to feedback}} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1/m \end{bmatrix} u(t) - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1/m \end{bmatrix} [\alpha_1 \alpha_2] \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ v_b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} \theta(t) \\ v_b(t) \end{bmatrix} = \left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ g/l - k/m & 0 \end{bmatrix} - \boxed{\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1/m \end{bmatrix} [\alpha_1 \alpha_2]} \right) \begin{bmatrix} \theta(t) \\ v_b(t) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1/m \end{bmatrix} u(t)$$

new A for system w/ feedback

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ g/l - \alpha_1/m & -k/m - \alpha_2/m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \frac{mg - \alpha_1}{ml} & \frac{-kl - \alpha_2}{ml} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} \theta(t) \\ v_b(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \frac{mg - \alpha_1}{ml} & \frac{-kl - \alpha_2}{ml} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \theta(t) \\ v_b(t) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1/m \end{bmatrix} u(t)$$

↳ inverted pendulum w/ feedback

$$\rightarrow \text{STABILITY: determined by the eigenvalues of } \boxed{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \frac{mg - \alpha_1}{ml} & \frac{-kl - \alpha_2}{ml} \end{bmatrix}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \det(A - \lambda I) = 0 \Rightarrow \det \begin{pmatrix} -\lambda & 1 \\ \frac{mg - \alpha_1}{ml} & \frac{-kl - \alpha_2 - ml\lambda}{ml} \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\lambda(kl + \alpha_2 + ml\lambda) - (mg - \alpha_1)}{ml} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow ml\lambda^2 + (kl + \alpha_2)\lambda - (mg - \alpha_1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda_{1,2} = \frac{-(\alpha_2 + kl) \pm \sqrt{(\alpha_2 + kl)^2 + 4ml(mg - \alpha_1)}}{+ 2ml}$$

$$= \frac{-(kl + \alpha_2)}{2ml} \pm \frac{1}{2ml} \sqrt{(kl + \alpha_2)^2 + 4ml(mg - \alpha_1)}$$

- want both eigenvalues to have -ve real parts

$$\rightarrow \left| \sqrt{(kl+\alpha_2)^2 + 4ml(mg-\alpha_1)} \right| \text{ real} \& < \underbrace{|-(kl+\alpha_2)|}_{\text{and this is negative}}$$

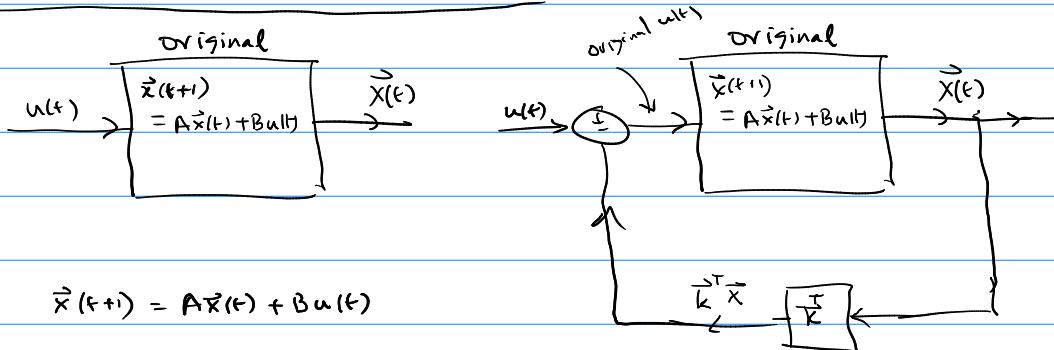
1. $\boxed{\alpha_2 > -kl}$ $\Rightarrow (kl + \alpha_2)$ positive $\Rightarrow \frac{-(kl + \alpha_2)}{2ml}$ is negative

2. $4ml(mg - \alpha_1)$ should be negative $\Rightarrow \boxed{\alpha_1 > mg}$

[inverted_pendulum_w_feedback_root_locus.m](#)

- plot root-locus wrt α_1 & α_2
- see transient time-domain simulations for various α_1 & α_2

\rightarrow Feedback for discrete-time systems: VERY SIMILAR



$$\vec{x}(t+1) = (A - B\vec{k}^T) \vec{x}(t) + B\vec{u}(t)$$

\rightarrow Stability: find the eigenvalues of $(A + B\vec{k}^T)$, choose \vec{k} to stabilize

as needed

ONLY DIFFERENCE: stability means $|\lambda| < 1$ (not $\operatorname{Re}\{\lambda\} < 0$)

for discrete

$$\rightarrow \text{Example: } \vec{x}[t+1] = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ a_1 & a_2 \end{bmatrix}}_A \vec{x}[t] + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u[t]$$

→ original eigenvalues: given by $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0 \Rightarrow -\lambda(a_2 - \lambda) - a_1 = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda^2 - a_2\lambda - a_1 = 0$
 roots of this

$$\rightarrow \text{feedback: } u \mapsto u - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} [k_1 \ k_2] \vec{x}$$

$$\Rightarrow A \mapsto A - \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ k_1 & k_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ a_1 - k_1 & a_2 - k_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{new eigenvalues: } \tilde{\lambda}^2 - (a_2 - k_2)\tilde{\lambda} - (a_1 - k_1) = 0$$

$$\tilde{\lambda}_{1,2} = \frac{(a_2 - k_2) \pm \sqrt{(a_2 - k_2)^2 + 4(a_1 - k_1)}}{2}$$

$$\tilde{\lambda}_1 + \tilde{\lambda}_2 = (a_2 - k_2) \Rightarrow k_2 = a_2 - \tilde{\lambda}_1 - \tilde{\lambda}_2$$

$$\tilde{\lambda}_1 - \tilde{\lambda}_2 = \sqrt{(\tilde{\lambda}_1 + \tilde{\lambda}_2)^2 + 4(a_1 - k_1)} \Rightarrow (\tilde{\lambda}_1 - \tilde{\lambda}_2)^2 = (\tilde{\lambda}_1 + \tilde{\lambda}_2)^2 + 4(a_1 - k_1)$$

(using $a^2 - b^2 = (a+b)(a-b)$)

$$\Rightarrow k_1 = \frac{(\tilde{\lambda}_1 + \tilde{\lambda}_2)^2 - (\tilde{\lambda}_1 - \tilde{\lambda}_2)^2}{4} + a_1$$

i.e., $k_1 = \tilde{\lambda}_1 \tilde{\lambda}_2 + a_1$

$k_2 = a_2 - \tilde{\lambda}_1 - \tilde{\lambda}_2$

choose k_1 & k_2 to place the eigenvalues wherever you like!

→ Another discrete-time example

$$\rightarrow A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \text{Note: not controllable!}$$

$$\rightarrow A - \vec{b} k^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1-k_1 & 1-k_2 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

intuition: 2nd eqn is uncontrollable \Rightarrow cannot influence it by feedback

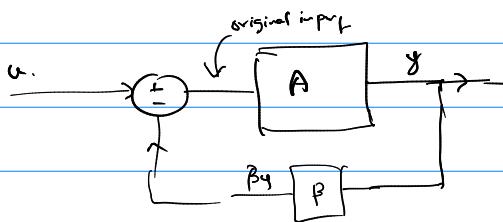
$$\rightarrow \text{eigenvalues: } (1-k_1 - \lambda)(2 - \lambda) =$$

$$\Rightarrow (\lambda_1 = 2), \lambda_2 = (1 - k_1)$$

does not depend on k_1 or $k_2 \Rightarrow$ can't change this eigenvalue

SIMPLER (BUT ILLUMINATING) VIEWS OF FEEDBACK AND ITS USES

— these are often used by circuit designers.



$$\text{Oris. xfer fn.: } y = Au$$

$$\text{Now } " \quad " \quad : A(u - \beta y) = y$$

$$\Rightarrow (1 + \beta A) y = Au$$

$$\Rightarrow y = \frac{A}{1 + \beta A} u$$

→ note: if $\beta A \gg 1$

$$\rightarrow \text{then } y \approx \frac{1}{\beta} u$$

→ this happens in op-amps: A is very large, but its value can be very "noisy": e.g.: $10^5 - 10^6$

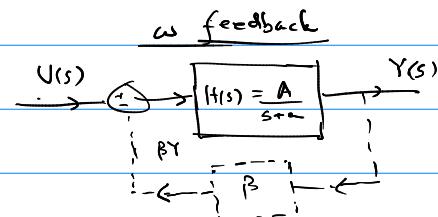
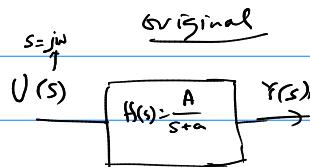
→ Suppose you want a gain of 10^3 , but reasonably precisely.

→ set $\beta = 10^3$ precisely (using a resistor/capacitor)

$$\rightarrow \text{then if } A = 10^5, \text{ gain} = \frac{10^5}{10^3 + 1} \approx 10^3$$

$$\text{if } A = 10^6, \text{ gain} = \frac{10^6}{10^3 + 1} \approx 10^3$$

→ Feedback in the phasor domain:



$$Y(s) = \frac{\frac{A}{s+a}}{1 + \frac{\beta A}{s+a}} U(s) = \frac{A}{s+a + \beta A} U(s)$$

→ now suppose the original pole a was ^{dynamically} unstable $\Rightarrow a < 0$

→ you can FIX it by adding βA

$$\text{and if } |\beta A| \gg |a|, \text{ then } H(s) \approx \frac{A}{s + \beta A}$$

$$\text{- at DC: } \frac{1}{\beta A}$$

$$\text{- at } s = j\omega_n, = \frac{1}{2} \text{ of DC gain}$$

THESE CAN BE
EASILY DERIVED
FROM THE STATE
SPACE FORM - e.g.,
BY REPRESENTING
 $\vec{U}(t), \vec{x}(t), \text{ etc. AS}$
PHASORS