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Pendulum Controller: 1kHz Compensator / 20kHz Simulation

# Analytical Derivation and Control of the Inverted Pendulum on a DC Motor

**Subtitle:** State-Space Linearization via Jacobian Method and LQR Implementation

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## Executive Summary & Configuration

This document provides a rigorous mathematical derivation of the Inverted Pendulum dynamics—specifically a pendulum mounted directly to a DC motor shaft—using **Lagrangian Mechanics**. The derivation accounts for both the mechanical inertia of the system and the electrical characteristics of the DC motor. It concludes with the linearization of the non-linear equations into a State-Space model ( $Ax + Bu$ ) and provides the Python implementation for LQR gain calculation to achieve upright stability.

These parameters form the basis of the numerical matrices below.

| Parameter      | Description                 | Value                        |
|----------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|
| $M_1$          | Pendulum Mass               | 0.2 kg                       |
| $L_1$          | Pendulum Length             | 0.3 m                        |
| $I_{tot}$      | Combined System Inertia     | 0.00600575 kg·m <sup>2</sup> |
| $b_1$          | Mechanical Friction         | 0.008 Nms/rad                |
| $k_t/k_b$      | Torque / Back-EMF Constants | 0.12                         |
| $R$            | Terminal Resistance         | 2.5 $\Omega$                 |
| $g$            | Gravitational Acceleration  | 9.81 m/s <sup>2</sup>        |
| $V_{deadzone}$ | Minimum Motor Voltage       | 0.4 V                        |

## II. Step 1: Lagrangian Mechanics

**Justification:** We use the Lagrangian approach because it naturally handles the energy of rotating bodies without needing to decompose every individual force vector.

### 1. Kinetic Energy ( $T$ ):

$$T = \frac{1}{2} I_{tot} \dot{\theta}^2$$

### 2. Potential Energy ( $V$ ):

Using the convention where 0 is down and  $\pi$  is up:

$$V = M_1 g \frac{L_1}{2} \cos(\theta)$$

### 3. The Lagrangian ( $L = T - V$ ):

$$L = \frac{1}{2} I_{tot} \dot{\theta}^2 - \frac{M_1 g L_1}{2} \cos(\theta)$$

### 4. The Equation of Motion:

Applying  $\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\theta}} \right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta} = \tau_{motor} - \text{friction}$ :

$$I_{tot} \ddot{\theta} - \frac{M_1 g L_1}{2} \sin(\theta) = \frac{k_t}{R} (V_{in} - k_b \dot{\theta}) - b_1 \dot{\theta}$$

## III. Step 2: Jacobian Linearization

**Justification:** LQR requires a linear system ( $\dot{x} = Ax + Bu$ ). Since  $\sin(\theta)$  is non-linear, we use a Taylor series expansion (Jacobian) around the unstable equilibrium point  $\theta = \pi$ .

### 1. Define the Nonlinear State Functions:

Let  $x_1 = \theta$  and  $x_2 = \dot{\theta}$ .

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

$$\dot{x}_2 = f_2(x, u) = \frac{M_1 g L_1}{2I_{tot}} \sin(x_1) - \frac{1}{I_{tot}} \left( b_1 + \frac{k_t k_b}{R} \right) x_2 + \frac{k_t}{RI_{tot}} V_{in}$$

### 2. Compute the Jacobians at $x_0 = [\pi, 0]^T$ :

- **For Matrix A:**

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ \frac{M_1 g L_1}{2I_{tot}} \cos(\pi) & -\frac{1}{I_{tot}} \left( b_1 + \frac{k_t k_b}{R} \right) \end{bmatrix}$$

Since  $\cos(\pi) = -1$  and we define the error as  $\Delta\theta = \theta - \pi$ , the sign flips to positive for the restoring force calculation.

- **For Matrix B:**

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial u} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial u} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{k_t}{RI_{tot}} \end{bmatrix}$$

### 3. Numerical Result:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 49.003 & -2.291 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 7.992 \end{bmatrix}$$

## IV. Step 3: LQR and the Riccati Equation

**Justification:** LQR finds the "optimal" balance between system performance and energy usage. It solves the Algebraic Riccati Equation (ARE) to minimize total cost.

### 1. Penalty Selection (The Q Matrix):

We prioritize position error over velocity:

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} 1010 & 0 \\ 0 & 15.7 \end{bmatrix}, \quad R = [0.1]$$

### 2. The Riccati Equation:

$$A^T P + PA - PBR^{-1}B^T P + Q = 0$$

Solving for  $P$  gives the energy surface of the system. The optimal gains are  $K = R^{-1}B^T P$ .

### 3. Theoretical vs. Manual Gains:

The Python solver yields  $k_1 \approx -106$  and  $k_2 \approx -13$ . However, your project uses  $k_1 = -220.0$  and  $k_2 = -26.0$ . This doubling of "stiffness" is a deliberate engineering choice to compensate for high hardware friction.

## IV. Step 3: LQR Cost Weighting and Bryson's Rule

The LQR algorithm minimizes the cost function  $J$ , which balances the importance of state accuracy against the cost of control effort (voltage):

$$J = \int_0^\infty (x^T Q x + u^T R u) dt$$

### 1. Expanding the $Q$ Matrix

For your 2-state pendulum system, the  $Q$  matrix is a  $2 \times 2$  diagonal matrix. Each diagonal element represents the "penalty" for an error in that specific state:

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} q_{11} & 0 \\ 0 & q_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

- $q_{11}$ : Penalty for **Angular Error** ( $\theta - \pi$ ). A higher value makes the pendulum stiffer and more vertical.
- $q_{22}$ : Penalty for **Angular Velocity** ( $\dot{\theta}$ ). A higher value adds more electronic damping to prevent oscillation.

### 2. Bryson's Rule for Initial Tuning

Bryson's Rule suggests that the weights should be the inverse of the square of the maximum acceptable error for that state:

$$q_{ii} = \frac{1}{\text{max acceptable value of } (x_i^2)}$$

$$R = \frac{1}{\text{max acceptable value of } (u^2)}$$

### 3. Numerical Transition: Ideal vs. Implementation

By comparing the "Ideal" weights (theoretical) to the weights required to reach your "Implementation" gains, we can see how Bryson's Rule was pushed to handle real-world friction.

| Weight   | Parameter        | Ideal Selection | Implementation Selection | Physical Meaning                              |
|----------|------------------|-----------------|--------------------------|---|
| $q_{11}$ | Position Penalty | 1010            | 4575                     | We tolerate almost <b>zero</b> angular error. |
| $q_{22}$ | Velocity Penalty | 15.7            | 64                       | High damping to kill jitter.                  |
| $R$      | Control Cost     | 0.1             | 0.1                      | Voltage is "cheap"; use as much as needed.    |

## V. Step 4: Integral Justification ( $k_i = -75.0$ )

**Justification:** Why did you add  $k_i$ ? Because LQR alone is mathematically "blind" to constant disturbances.

- **The 176° Settling Point:** Without  $k_i$ , gravity creates a constant torque. To counteract it, the LQR controller needs a non-zero error to produce voltage. This results in the pendulum settling slightly below the top (e.g., at 176°). This is the **steady-state error**.
- **The Integrator's Job:**  $k_i$  sums the error over time. As long as the pendulum is even 0.001 rad away from  $\pi$ , the sum grows. Eventually, it provides enough voltage to overcome the 0.4V **deadzone** and push the pendulum to exactly 180.000°.
- **Settling without Integrator:** Without the integrator, the system settles at the point where  $k_1 \times \text{Error} = \text{Gravity Torque}$ . With your mass, that offset is several degrees.

## VI. Final Control Law

$$\text{Output Voltage}(V) = \underbrace{k_1(\theta - \pi) + k_2(\dot{\theta})}_{\text{LQR Stability}} + \underbrace{k_i \int (\theta - \pi) dt}_{\text{Precision Integral}} + \text{Deadzone}$$

## Numerical Implementation (Python)

The LQR controller finds the optimal gain matrix  $K$  by minimizing a cost function that balances error ( $Q$ ) and control effort ( $R$ ). The core of this optimization is solving the **Algebraic Riccati Equation**:

$$A^T P + P A - P B R^{-1} B^T P + Q = 0$$

In the provided Python script, the line `solve_continuous_are(A, B, Q, R_lqr)` performs this calculation. It computes the unique positive-definite matrix  $P$ , which is then used to find the raw gains:

$$K_{raw} = R^{-1} B^T P$$

This script handles the mapping to the C-code implementation correctly. It takes the raw output  $K_{raw}$  and applies the negation logic ( $k = -K$ ) so that the final **Pendulum gains** ( $k_1$  for position and  $k_2$  for velocity) result in the negative values used in the compensator. This ensures that a positive angular error produces a negative corrective voltage to restore the pendulum to the upright position.

```
import numpy as np
from scipy.linalg import solve_continuous_are

def compute_lqr():
    # Parameters from Table
    M1, L1, I_tot = 0.2, 0.3, 0.00600575
    g, b1, kt, kb, R = 9.81, 0.008, 0.12, 0.12, 2.5

    # Jacobian Matrices
    A = np.array([[0, 1], [(M1*g*L1)/(2*I_tot), -(b1 + (kt*kb/R))/I_tot]])
    B = np.array([[0], [(kt/R)/I_tot]])

    # LQR Weights
    Q = np.diag([4575, 64])
    R_mat = np.array([[0.1]])

    # Solve Riccati
    P = solve_continuous_are(A, B, Q, R_mat)
    K = np.linalg.inv(R_mat) @ B.T @ P
    print(f"LQR Gains: k1={-K[0,0]:.4f}, k2={-K[0,1]:.4f}")

compute_lqr()
```

## 5.1 Final LQR Results

The table below summarizes the gains derived from the LQR optimization. The "Ideal" values represent standard mathematical weights, while the "Implementation" values reflect the high-stiffness tuning required to dominate hardware friction and stiction.

| State Variable    | Symbol | Ideal Gain     | Implementation | Logic                              |
|-------------------|--------|----------------|----------------|------------------------------------|
| Pendulum Position | $k_1$  | $\approx -106$ | $-220.0$       | <b>Negative</b> (Restoring Torque) |
| Pendulum Velocity | $k_2$  | $\approx -13$  | $-26.0$        | <b>Negative</b> (Damping Force)    |

## 5.2 Limitations and Future Work

### The Impact of Noise and Drift

It is important to observe that in a purely theoretical environment—**without sensor noise or mechanical disturbances—the LQR balance is mathematically perfect**. Under ideal conditions, the pendulum would remain vertical indefinitely with near-zero control effort once it reaches the equilibrium point.

However, the physical implementation reveals two primary challenges:

1. **Sensor Noise and Jitter:** The raw encoder data contains high-frequency noise. When we derive velocity ( $\dot{\theta}$ ) from these readings, the noise is amplified. This forces the motor to react to "phantom" movements, creating the micro-vibrations heard during operation.
2. **System Drift:** Despite a high  $k_1$  gain, the system may experience a slow "drift" over time. This is caused by thermal changes in the motor resistance, slight misalignments in the center-of-gravity, or internal encoder scaling errors.

### The Student Challenge

Because of these real-world constraints, even this high-stiffness derivation does not fully do justice to the complexity of a perfect, silent balance. **The student is encouraged to work on this further** by focusing on:

- **Noise Rejection:** Implementing a Kalman Filter to optimally estimate the state while ignoring sensor noise.
- **Drift Compensation:** Improving the  $z$ -pulse synchronization logic or adding an outer-loop to track and zero out long-term drift.
- **System Identification:** Refining the  $I_{tot}$  and  $b_1$  parameters through empirical testing to closer match the mathematical model to the physical hardware.

**Final Note:** The implementation of  $k_1 = -220.0$  and  $k_i = -75.0$  provides a robust "stiff" balance that holds the pendulum upright despite noise, but a truly "perfect" balance requires the student to explore advanced filtering and non-linear modeling.