EE363 Prof. S. Boyd

EE363 homework 6 solutions

- 1. Constant norm and constant speed systems. The linear dynamical system $\dot{x} = Ax$ is called constant norm if for every trajectory x, ||x(t)|| is constant, i.e., doesn't depend on t. The system is called constant speed if for every trajectory x, $||\dot{x}(t)||$ is constant, i.e., doesn't depend on t.
 - (a) Find the (general) conditions on A under which the system is constant norm.
 - (b) Find the (general) conditions on A under which the system is constant speed.
 - (c) Is every constant norm system a constant speed system?
 - (d) Is every constant speed system a constant norm system?

Solution.

The system is constant norm if and only if

$$0 = \frac{d}{dt} ||x(t)||^2$$
$$= 2x(t)^T \dot{x}(t)$$
$$= 2x(t)^T Ax(t)$$
$$= x(t)^T (A + A^T)x(t)$$

for all x(t), which occurs if and only $A + A^T = 0$, which is the same as $A^T = -A$, *i.e.*, A is skew-symmetric. There are many other ways to see this. For example, the norm of the state will be constant provided the velocity vector is always orthogonal to the position vector, *i.e.*, $\dot{x}(t)^T x(t) = 0$. This also leads us to $A + A^T = 0$.

Another approach uses the state transition matrix e^{tA} . The system is constant norm provided e^{tA} is orthogonal for all $t \geq 0$. From here, you'd have to argue that A must be skew-symmetric.

The system is constant speed if and only if

$$0 = \frac{d}{dt} ||\dot{x}(t)||^{2}$$

$$= \frac{d}{dt} ||Ax(t)||^{2}$$

$$= 2(Ax(t))^{T} A \dot{x}(t)$$

$$= 2x(t)^{T} A^{T} A^{2} x(t)$$

$$= x(t)^{T} A^{T} (A + A^{T}) A x(t)$$

for all x(t), which occurs if and only $A^T(A + A^T)A = 0$. In other words, the matrix A^TA^2 is skew-symmetric.

We see that if a system is constant norm, then it must be constant speed, since $A+A^T=0$ implies that $A^T(A+A^T)A=0$.

But the converse is false, as the simple system

$$\dot{x} = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{array} \right] x,$$

which is a double integrator, shows. This system has trajectories of the form

$$x(t) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1(0) + tx_2(0) \\ x_2(0) \end{bmatrix}.$$

It doesn't have constant norm, but it does have constant speed, since $\dot{x} = (x_2(0), 0)$.

2. An iterative method for solving the ARE. We consider the LQR problem with linear system $\dot{x} = Ax + Bu$, and state and input weight matrices Q and R, with $Q = Q^T > 0$ and $R = R^T > 0$. (The positive definiteness assumption on Q is made for convenience only; implies that (Q, A) is observable.) The optimal input has the form u(t) = Kx(t), where $K = -R^{-1}B^TP$, where P is the unique positive definite solution of the ARE

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

(a) Show that the ARE is equivalent to the two equations

$$(A + BK)^T P + P(A + BK) + (Q + K^T RK) = 0, K = -R^{-1}B^T P.$$

The first equation is a Lyapunov equation (in P).

(b) Let K_0 be any matrix for which $A + BK_0$ is stable. Let P_0 the solution of the Lyapunov equation above, with $K = K_0$. From P_0 , we define $K_1 = -R^{-1}B^TP_0$. Now repeat, *i.e.*, let P_1 be solution of the Lyapunov equation above with $K = K_1$, and so on. Show that $A + BK_i$ are all stable, and P_i are all positive definite. *Hint*. Use induction. To show that $A + BK_i$ is stable, show that

$$(A+BK_i)^T P_{i-1} + P_{i-1}(A+BK_i) + \left(Q + K_i^T R K_i + (K_i - K_{i-1})^T R (K_i - K_{i-1})\right) = 0,$$

and use a Lyapunov theorem.

- (c) Show that $P_{i+1} \leq P_i$. The sequence P_1, P_2, \ldots is nonincreasing and bounded below by 0, so it converges to some limit P. Show that this limit is the solution of ARE.
- (d) Run the algorithm on a numerical example. You can choose A stable, for example as A=randn(10); A=A-1.1*max(real(eig(A)))*eye(10);, and use $K_0=0$. Plot $||P_i-P||$, where P is the solution of the ARE. If you've got it right, a small number of steps (say, 10) should more than suffice.

Solution:

(a) Substituting $K = -R^{-1}B^TP$ into

$$(A + BK)^T P + P(A + BK) + (Q + K^T RK) = 0$$

gives us

$$(A - BR^{-1}B^{T}P)^{T}P + P(A - BR^{-1}B^{T}P) + (Q + PBR^{-1}B^{T}P) = 0,$$

which simplifies to the ARE

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

(b) Subtracting $(A + BK_i)^T P_{i-1} + P_{i-1}(A + BK_i) + (Q + K_i^T RK_i)$ from both sides of the Lyapunov equation for P_{i-1} ,

$$(A + BK_{i-1})^T P_{i-1} + P_{i-1}(A + BK_{i-1}) + Q + K_{i-1}^T RK_{i-1} = 0$$

we get

$$(A + BK_i)^T P_{i-1} + P_{i-1}(A + BK_i) + (Q + K_i^T RK_i) = (K_i - K_{i-1})^T B^T P_{i-1} + P_{i-1} B(K_i - K_{i-1}) + K_i^T RK_i - K_{i-1}^T RK_{i-1}.$$

Since $K_i = -R^{-1}B^T P_{i-1}$, we have $B^T P_{i-1} = -RK_i$. Substituting this into the above equation gives

$$(A+BK_i)^T P_{i-1} + P_{i-1}(A+BK_i) + \left(Q + K_i^T R K_i + (K_i - K_{i-1})^T R (K_i - K_{i-1})\right) = 0.$$

Now suppose that P_{i-1} is positive definite. Since $A + BK_i$ satisfies the above Lyapunov equation, and $Q + K_i^T RK_i + (K_i - K_{i-1})^T R(K_i - K_{i-1}) > 0$, $A + BK_i$ must be stable. If $A + BK_i$ is stable, the solution to the Lyapunov equation

$$(A + BK_i)^T P_i + P_i (A + BK_i) + Q + K_i^T RK_i = 0,$$

is positive definite, since $Q + K_i^T R K_i > 0$. Thus we have shown that if $P_{i-1} > 0$, then $A + B K_i$ is stable, and $P_i > 0$. Since $A + B K_0$ is stable, P_0 must be positive definite. So by induction, $A + B K_i$ are all stable, and P_i are all positive definite.

(c) Subtracting the Lyapunov equation

$$(A + BK_i)^T P_i + P_i (A + BK_i) + (Q + K_i^T RK_i) = 0$$

from

$$(A+BK_i)^T P_{i-1} + P_{i-1}(A+BK_i) + \left(Q + K_i^T R K_i + (K_i - K_{i-1})^T R (K_i - K_{i-1})\right) = 0$$

we get

$$(A + BK_i)^T (P_{i-1} - P_i) + (P_{i-1} - P_i)(A + BK_i) + (K_i - K_{i-1})^T R(K_i - K_{i-1}) = 0.$$

Since $A + BK_i$ is stable and $(K_i - K_{i-1})^T R(K_i - K_{i-1}) \ge 0$, we conclude that $P_{i-1} \ge P_i$.

To show that this converges to the solution of the ARE, note that $K_i = -R^{-1}B^T P_{i-1}$, and so the control gains converge to $K = -R^{-1}B^T P$, where P is the limit of the sequence P_1, P_2, \ldots We know that P must satisfy the equation

$$(A + BK)^T P + P(A + BK) + (Q + K^T RK) = 0.$$

Substituting $K = -R^{-1}B^TP$ we get

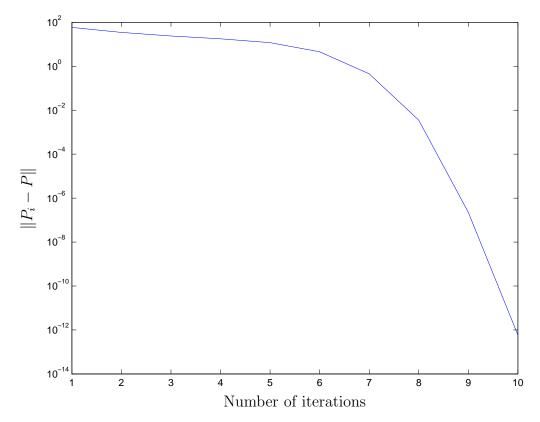
$$A^T P + PA - PBR^{-1}B^T P = 0,$$

which shows that P solves the ARE.

(d) The following code implements this method.

```
randn('state',0);
n = 10; m = 3;
A = randn(n); B = randn(n,m);
A = A-1.1*max(real(eig(A)))*eye(n);
R = randn(m); R = R'*R;
Q = randn(n); Q = Q'*Q;
KO = zeros(m,n);
Pare = are(A,B*inv(R)*B',Q);
nsteps = 10; K = K0; J = zeros(nsteps, 1);
for i = 1:10
    P = lyap((A+B*K)',Q+K'*R*K);
    K = -inv(R)*(B'*P);
    J(i) = norm(P-Pare);
end
semilogy(J); xlabel('n'); ylabel('J');
print('-depsc','kleinman_rock.eps');
```

The following figure plots $||P_i - P||$ (notice the quadratic convergence).



3. A Lyapunov condition for attraction. A set $C \subseteq \mathbf{R}^n$ is said to be attractive or an attractor for $\dot{x} = f(x)$, if every trajectory eventually ends up in (and stays in) C. More precisely, for any trajectory x, there is a time T (which can depend on the trajectory) such that $x(t) \in C$ for $t \geq T$.

Note the subtle difference between an invariant set and an attractor. If a trajectory enters an invariant set, it will stay in the set thereafter. For an attractor set, *every* trajectory eventually enters (and then stays).

Establish the following Lyapunov attractor theorem: Suppose there is a function V: $\mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$, and constants a > 0 and b such that for all z,

$$V(z) \ge b \Longrightarrow \dot{V}(z) \le -a.$$

Then the set $C = \{z \mid V(z) \leq b\}$ is an attractor.

Solution: We start by showing that the sublevel set $V(z) \leq b$ is invariant. Consider the boundary i.e. $\mathcal{C} = \{z | V(z) = b\}$, for every $z \in \mathcal{C}$ we have $\dot{V}(z) < -a$ where a is a positive constant. So V(z) is decreasing on the boundary, hence for every x(t) on the boundary $x(t + \delta t)$ will be inside \mathcal{C} , allowing us to conclude that \mathcal{C} is an invariant set.

Now we need to show that all trajectories will eventually wind up in C, we recall that for all z, $\dot{V}(z) < -a$ giving

$$V(x(t)) = V(x(0)) + \int_{\tau=0}^{t} \dot{V}(x(\tau))d\tau < V(x(0)) + \int_{\tau=0}^{t} -ad\tau = V(x(0)) - at.$$

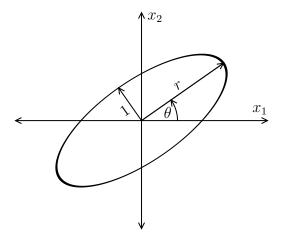
V(x(0)) is a constant for all trajectories and a>0, so we can always find a T such that V(x(0))-aT< b hence V(x(T))< b and therefore $x(T)\in \mathcal{C}$, and the set \mathcal{C} is indeed an attractor.

4. Finding an invariant ellipsoid for a linear system. Consider the linear system

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} \dot{x}_1 \\ \dot{x}_2 \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{cc} -1 & 4 \\ 0 & -1 \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{array}\right]$$

Recall that an ellipsoid \mathcal{E} is said to be invariant for this system if all trajectories that start in \mathcal{E} stay in \mathcal{E} , i.e., $x(0) \in \mathcal{E}$ implies that $x(t) \in \mathcal{E}$ for all $t \geq 0$.

You will find an invariant ellipsoid for this system. We will describe the ellipsoid by the length $r \geq 1$ of its major semi-axis (the length of the minor semi-axis is set to one) and the angle θ of the major semi-axis with respect to the x_1 -axis, as shown in the figure below.



- (a) First present a general description of how you will go about finding r and θ , briefly justifying each step.
- (b) Carry out the individual steps in your description from part (a) to find specific values of r and θ .

Solution:

- (a) The solution to this problem relies on two facts:
 - The ellipsoid \mathcal{E} shown in the figure can be expressed as

$$\mathcal{E} = \{ z \mid z^T P z \le 1 \}$$

for some P > 0.

• The set $\{z \mid z^T P z \leq 1\}$ is invariant for the linear system $\dot{x} = Ax$ if and only if $A^T P + PA \leq 0$.

In fact, we can express P explicitly in terms of r and θ :

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1/r^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

The easiest thing to do is to first find some P > 0 such that $A^T P + PA \leq 0$, and then normalize P so that the largest eigenvalue of P is one, and then solve for r and θ .

So, a general description is as follows:

• Find P > 0 such that $A^TP + PA \le 0$. There are several ways of doing this. One way is to solve the Lyapunov equation

$$A^T P + PA + Q = 0,$$

where Q > 0 can be arbitrarily chosen, e.g., Q = I.

- Normalize. We first diagonalize P, and then normalize P by dividing it by its larger eigenvalue.
- Extract r and θ . The square-root of the reciprocal of the smaller eigenvalue of the normalized P gives r. θ can be obtained by computing the angle between an eigenvector corresponding to the smaller eigenvalue of P and the x-axis.
- (b) First we will find P by solving $A^TP + PA + I = 0$. We get

$$P = \left[\begin{array}{cc} \frac{1}{2} & 1\\ 1 & \frac{9}{2} \end{array} \right]$$

The eigenvalues of P are $(5 + \sqrt{20})/2$ and $(5 - \sqrt{20})/2$. Therefore,

$$r = \left(\frac{5 + \sqrt{20}}{5 - \sqrt{20}}\right)^{1/2} \approx 4.24.$$

Next compute θ . First we find that

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 1\\ 1 & \frac{9}{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\ 2 - \sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{5 - \sqrt{20}}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\ 2 - \sqrt{5} \end{bmatrix}$$

Therefore θ is the angle between the x-axis and $(1, 2, -\sqrt{5})$, which is just

$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \left(2 - \sqrt{5} \right) \approx -0.23 \text{ radians.}$$

5. Global asymptotic stability for a system with small nonlinearity. We consider the system $\dot{x} = Ax + q(x)$, where $x(t) \in \mathbf{R}^n$ and $q : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^n$. We assume that q satisfies $||q(z)|| \le \alpha ||z||$ for all z, but otherwise is unknown. We assume that A is stable, *i.e.*, all its eigenvalues have negative real part.

Intuition suggests that for α small, the system is globally asymptotically stable. Show that this intuition is correct, by finding a positive number $\bar{\alpha}$ such that for $\alpha \leq \bar{\alpha}$, you can guarantee global asymptotic stability of the system. The number $\bar{\alpha}$ must be explicit, *i.e.*, it should be easily calculated using standard matrix operations (such as computing eigenvalues and singular values, solving Lyapunov or Riccati equations, etc.), and the problem data.

Solution: We first solve the Lyapunov equation $A^TP + PA + I = 0$ to get P. (We can do this because A is stable, so the Lyapunov operator is nonsingular.) We also know that P > 0. Let's use the quadratic Lyapunov function $V(z) = z^T P z$.

$$\dot{V}(z) = 2x^{T}P(Ax + q(x))
= x^{T}(A^{T}P + PA)x + 2x^{T}Pq(x)
\leq -x^{T}x + 2\alpha ||P|| ||x||^{2}
= -(1 - 2\alpha ||P||) ||x||^{2}.$$

If $1-2\alpha ||P|| > 0$, the system is globally asymptotically stable, since then we have

$$\dot{V}(z) \le -(1 - 2\alpha ||P||)||x||^2 \le -\frac{1 - 2\alpha ||P||}{\lambda_{\max}(P)}V(x).$$

Hence, we can take $\bar{\alpha} = 0.49/\|P\|$, since any $\alpha \leq \bar{\alpha}$ will satisfy $1 - 2\alpha \|P\| > 0$.

6. Stability analysis of system with intermitent failures. We consider the system $\dot{x} = A(t)x$, where $A(t) = A_{\text{nom}} \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$ when system is working (i.e., in nominal mode) and $A(t) = A_{\text{fail}} \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$ when system is not working (i.e., in failure mode). The nominal system is stable, i.e., $\dot{z} = A_{\text{nom}}z$ is stable.

We suppose that the system fails in various failure episodes, which are the intervals of time during which $A(t) = A_{\text{fail}}$. We assume that no failure episode can last longer than T_1 seconds. (A failure can, however, last shorter than T_1 seconds.) We also assume that once a failure has finished, no new failure occurs for at least T_2 seconds. In other words, T_2 gives the minimum time between two successive failure episodes, i.e., a minimum time between failures. (Again, it is possible that the time between two successive failures exceeds T_2 .) To simplify things, you can assume that the first failure does not occur until at least time T_2 , i.e., the system starts off at t = 0 in a working period, that is at least T_2 seconds long. We let $\alpha = T_1/(T_1 + T_2)$, which is an upper bound on the fraction of time the system can be in failure mode.

Intuition suggests that if the failures occur for only a small fraction of time, then the system should still be globally asymptotically stable, *i.e.*, if α is small enough, the system is globally asymptotically stable. The goal in this problem is to verify and quantify this statement.

Find a positive number $\bar{\alpha}$ such that for $\alpha \leq \bar{\alpha}$, you can guarantee global asymptotic stability of the system. The number $\bar{\alpha}$ must be explicit, *i.e.*, it should be easily calculated using standard matrix operations (such as computing eigenvalues and singular

values, solving Lyapunov or Riccati equations, etc.), starting from the problem data A_{nom} , A_{fail} , T_1 , T_2 , and α .

Remark: to save you some trouble, we should point out a common misperception. Many people assume that the 'worst' sequence of failure events is to have the system fail for the maximum possible time, i.e., T_1 , then work normally for the smallest possible time, i.e., T_2 , and then repeat this pattern. This assumption is false.

Solution: We solve the Lyapunov equation $A_{\text{nom}}^T P + P A_{\text{nom}} + I = 0$, to get P > 0. We'll use Lyapunov function $V(z) = z^T P z$.

During the working period, $\dot{V}(x) = -||x||^2$. Let $\delta_1 = \frac{1}{\lambda_{\max}(P)} > 0$, we have $\dot{V} \leq -\delta_1 V$. This means that if the system is working over the interval $[t_1, t_2]$, we have

$$V(x(t_2)) \le e^{-\delta_1(t_2-t_1)}V(x(t_1)).$$

Since $\delta_1 > 0$, this gives a guranteed decrease in V.

Also, during the failure period, $\dot{V}(x) = x^T (A_{\text{fail}}^T P + P A_{\text{fail}}) x$. Let $\delta_2 = \frac{\lambda_{\text{max}} (A_{\text{fail}}^T P + P A_{\text{fail}})}{\lambda_{\text{min}}(P)}$, we have $\dot{V} \leq \delta_2 V$. This means that if the system is in failure mode over the interval $[t_1, t_2]$, we have

$$V(x(t_2)) \le e^{\delta_2(t_2-t_1)}V(x(t_1)).$$

Since δ_2 can be positive, this allows for the possibility of V increasing over the period. But it gives a maximum possible increase in V.

Now let's put these together. At time t, we have

$$V(x(t)) \leq V(x(0))e^{-\delta_1 S_1}e^{\delta_2 S_2}$$

= $V(x(0))e^{-t(\delta_1 \frac{S_1}{t} - \delta_2 \frac{S_2}{t})},$

where S_1 is the total time the system has been working up to time t, and S_2 is the total time the system has failed up to time t.

Since $\frac{S_1}{t} \geq (1-\alpha)$, $\frac{S_2}{t} \leq \alpha$, and $\delta_1 > 0$, $\delta_2 \leq \max(0, \delta_2)$, we have $\delta_1 \frac{S_1}{t} - \delta_2 \frac{S_2}{t} \geq \delta_1 (1-\alpha) - \max(0, \delta_2)\alpha$. Hence

$$V(x(t)) \le V(x(0))e^{-t(\delta_1(1-\alpha) - \max(0,\delta_2)\alpha)}$$

We see that V (and hence x) converges to zero provided

$$\delta_1(1-\alpha) - \max(0, \delta_2)\alpha > 0,$$

i.e., provided $\alpha < \bar{\alpha}$, where

$$\bar{\alpha} = \frac{\delta_1}{\delta_1 + \max(0, \delta_2)}.$$

There were many incorrect proofs. Some of the incorrect proofs were based on the following idea. We look at the state whenever it enters a working mode (say). We can express the state as

$$x(t_{i+1}) = e^{A_{\text{fail}}a_i}e^{A_{\text{nom}}b_i}x(t_i),$$

where t_i is the *i*th time the system enters the nominal mode, and a_i and b_i are the times the system is failed and working, respectively, during the *i*th cycle. At this point, people made several errors. One was to state that if the magnitude of the eigenvalues of

$$e^{A_{\text{fail}}a_i}e^{A_{\text{nom}}b_i}$$

are less than one, the system is stable. This is false: it basically says that a time-varying system is stable if the "frozen" matrices A(t) are all stable, which is false.

It was also incorrect to argue that

$$\left\|e^{A_{\text{nom}}b_i}\right\|$$

was less then one. This might not be the case, depending on b_i .