Principles of Robot Autonomy I

State space dynamics – definitions and modeling

Agenda

- State space dynamics
	- Definitions
	- Modeling (kinematic and dynamic models)
	- Special case: LTI systems and linearization
- Readings
	- B. Siciliano, L. Sciavicco, L. Villani, G. Oriolo. Robotics: Modelling, Planning, and Control. Springer, 2008 (chapter 11)
	- Chapter 1 in PoRA lecture notes

State space models

- We can control a robot through the *inputs* to the system (e.g., motor torques, rotor thrusts, etc.)
- The *state* of a robot is a collection of variables (e.g., position, velocity) that change over time in response to the inputs
- A state space model

$$
\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t), u(t))
$$

is a mathematical description of how the state x evolves over time (i.e., \dot{x} or $\left. \mathrm{d} x \mathrm{/}_{d t} \right)$ in response to the inputs u

Example: double-integrator

- Suppose we can control the force pushing on a cart
- Newton's second law tells us that

• Let
$$
x = (s, v)
$$
 with $v = \dot{s}$, and $u = {F/m \over k}$. Then we can write
\n
$$
\dot{x} = {v \choose u} = \underbrace{[0 \over 0 \over 0]}{1 \over 0!}x + \underbrace{[0 \over 1]}{1 \over 0!}u
$$

 $f(x,u)$

Kinematic models

- Kinematic models are mathematical models that describe the motion of a system without consideration of forces
- Kinematic models typically result from *geometric constraints* on the motion of a system, before considering any forces
- For example, the "unicycle" with *generalized coordinates* $q = (x, y, \theta)$ should not slip sideways, i.e.,

$$
\left(\frac{\dot{x}}{\dot{y}}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{\sin \theta}{-\cos \theta}\right) = 0
$$
\n
$$
\underbrace{\left[\sin \theta \quad -\cos \theta \quad 0\right]}_{G(q)} \dot{q} = 0
$$
\nThis relation induces a kinematic model, as we will see shortly\n
$$
\sum_{\beta/30/2024}
$$

Holonomic and nonholonomic constraints

• More broadly, constraints on degrees of freedom come in various forms:

$$
h(q) = 0 \qquad \qquad g(q, \dot{q}) = 0 \qquad \qquad \frac{G(q)\dot{q} = 0}{}
$$

holonomic nonholonomic semi−holonomic / Pfaffian

Pfaffian constraints are a special, yet common case of nonholonomic constraints

• If
$$
G(q)
$$
 has k rows (constraints) and d columns (DOFs), then
\n
$$
\dot{q} = \sum_{j=1}^{d-k} u_j b_j(q) = [b_1(q) \quad b_2(q) \quad \cdots \quad b_{d-k}(q)]u = B(q)u
$$
\nwhere $\{b_j(q)\}_{j=1}^{d-k}$ is a basis for admissible velocities, i.e., the null space of $G(q)$.

Back to unicycle example

• The "unicycle" with DOFs $q = (x, y, \theta)$ should not slip sideways, i.e.,

• Physically, $u_1 = v$ is the forward velocity of the wheel, and $u_2 = \omega$ is its rotational steering velocity

Unicycle and differential drive models

$$
\begin{pmatrix}\n\dot{x} \\
\dot{y} \\
\dot{\theta}\n\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}\n\cos\theta \\
\sin\theta \\
0\n\end{pmatrix} v + \begin{pmatrix}\n0 \\
0 \\
1\n\end{pmatrix} \omega\n\begin{pmatrix}\n\dot{x} \\
\dot{y} \\
\dot{\theta}\n\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}\n\frac{r}{2}(\omega_l + \omega_r)\cos\theta \\
\frac{r}{2}(\omega_l + \omega_r)\sin\theta \\
\frac{r}{2}(\omega_r - \omega_l)\n\end{pmatrix}
$$
\n
$$
(x, y)
$$
\n
$$
(x, y)
$$
\n
$$
|v| \le v_{\text{max}}
$$
\n
$$
|\omega| \le \omega_{\text{max}}
$$
\n
$$
\omega_l | \le \omega_{\text{max}}
$$
\n
$$
\omega_r | \le \omega_{\text{max}}
$$
\n
$$
\omega_r | \le \omega_{\text{max}}
$$

We can alternate between these kinematic models via the one-to-one input mappings:

$$
v = \frac{r}{2}(\omega_r + \omega_l) \quad \omega = \frac{r}{L}(\omega_r - \omega_l)
$$

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References:

- J.-P. Laumond. *Robot motion planning and control*. 1998.
- S. LaValle. *Planning algorithms.* 2006.

From kinematic to dynamic models

- A kinematic state space model should be interpreted only as a subsystem of a more general dynamical model
- Improvements to the previous kinematic models can be made by placing integrators in front of action variables
- For example, for the unicycle model, one can set the speed as the integration of an action a representing acceleration, that is

$$
\dot{x}=v\cos\theta,\quad \dot{y}=v\sin\theta,\quad \dot{\theta}=\omega,\quad \dot{v}=a
$$

states: (x, y, θ, v) inputs: (ω, a)

Linear time-invariant models

- In general, $\dot{x} = f(x, u)$ is nonlinear, which can make it difficult to analyze
- *Linear time-invariant (LTI)* models take the form

$$
\dot{x} = Ax + Bu
$$

with constant matrices A and B

- For $\dot{x} = \alpha x$ with $x(0) = x_0$, the solution is $x(t) = x_0 e^{\alpha t}$. If $\alpha < 0$, the system is *stable*, i.e., $x(t)$ converges to zero over time
- For $\dot{x} = Ax$ with $x(0) = x_0$, the solution is $x(t) = x_0 e^{At}$, where e^{At} is the *matrix exponential*
- Analogously to the scalar case, if $Real(\lambda) < 0$ for each eigenvalue λ of A, then the system is stable

Example: PD control for a double-integrator

• Let
$$
x = (s, v)
$$
 with $v = \dot{s}$, and $u = \frac{F}{m}$. Then
\n
$$
\dot{x} = \begin{pmatrix} v \\ u \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u
$$
\n
$$
A \qquad B \qquad C \text{hoose } u = -\kappa_p s - \kappa_d v. \text{ Then}
$$
\n
$$
\dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -\kappa_p & -\kappa_d \end{bmatrix} x
$$
\nwith eigenvalues $\lambda = -\frac{\kappa_d}{2} \pm \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\kappa_d^2 - 4\kappa_p}$. If $\kappa_p > 0$ and $\kappa_d > 0$, then
\nReal(λ) < 0 for each eigenvalue, so the cart converges to a stand-still at $s = 0$

• This is nice, can we use linear control tools if the system is non-linear?

Linearization

- *Linearization* approximates a $f(x)$ \uparrow nonlinear function f near \bar{x} by a line, i.e., linear function
- The "slope" of the line is the derivative of f at \bar{x} . The change in $f(\bar{x})$ near \bar{x} is the slope multiplied by the distance from \bar{x}
- The quality of the approximation can vary with the linearization point \bar{x} and distance from \bar{x}

Linearization of non-linear state-space models

• For the nonlinear system $\dot{x} = f(x, u)$, the linearization around (\bar{x}, \bar{u}) is

$$
\dot{x} \approx f(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) (x - \bar{x}) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) (u - \bar{u})
$$

 \overline{A} \boldsymbol{B} Since x and u can be vectors, we generalize derivatives to Jacobian matrices

• If (\bar{x}, \bar{u}) is an *equilibrium*, i.e., $f(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) = 0$, we can consider an LTI approximation of the system near (\bar{x}, \bar{u}) , with state $\Delta x = x - \bar{x}$ and input $\Delta u = u - \bar{u}$:

$$
\dot{\Delta x} = A\Delta x + B\Delta u
$$

• When (x, u) is near (\bar{x}, \bar{u}) , we can use tools from linear systems analysis and control on nonlinear systems -- more on this later with LQR control!

Example: Inverted pendulum

• The dynamics are described by $m\ell^2\ddot{\theta} = mg\ell\sin\theta + u.$ In state space form with $x = (\theta, \dot{\theta})$, they are

$$
\dot{x} = f(x, u) = \begin{pmatrix} x_2 \\ \frac{g}{\ell} \sin x_1 + \frac{1}{m\ell^2} u \end{pmatrix}
$$

• Since $(x, u) = 0$ is an equilibrium, the linearization here is $\dot{x} \approx$ $\dot{\theta}$ \overline{g} $\frac{g}{\ell}\theta+u$ = 0 1 $\sqrt{}$ \overline{g} $\begin{bmatrix} \ell & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $x +$ 0 $\frac{1}{2}$ $m\ell^2$ $\overline{\mathcal{U}}$

 $\boldsymbol{\mathcal{U}}$

 $mg \mid \bigwedge \theta$

 ℓ

Example: Inverted pendulum

• We try $\frac{1}{m}$ $\frac{1}{m\ell^2}u= \overline{g}$ $\left(\frac{g}{\ell} + \kappa_p \right) \theta - \kappa_d \dot{\theta}$ to stabilize the pendulum near the upright equilibrium:

• We will later discuss how we actually simulate this system on a computer

Next time

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