

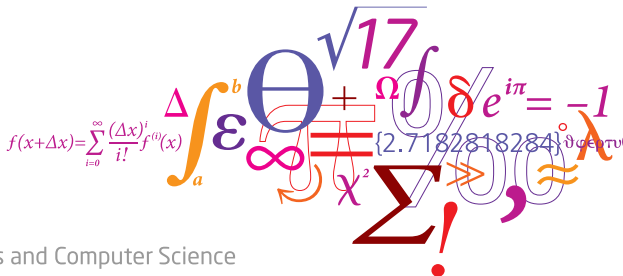
Stochastic Adaptive Control (02421)

Lecture 1

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Section for Dynamical Systems, DTU Compute



DTU Compute

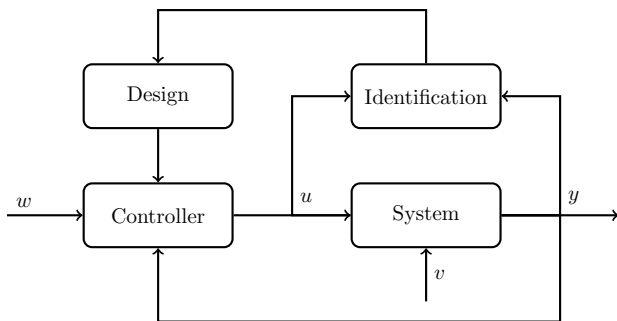
Department of Applied Mathematics and Computer Science

Course details

- Time: Tuesday 08:00 - 12:00
(2 hours lecture, 2 hours exercises)
- 5 ECTS points
- Evaluation: 2 individual reports
- Software: MATLAB (free choice)

Course plan

- Stochastic process and systems
- Filter and control design
(state space and transfer function models)
- System identification
- Adaptive control



Teachers and teaching assistant

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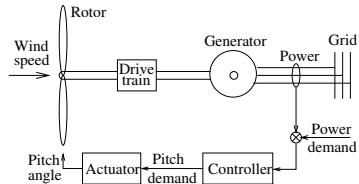
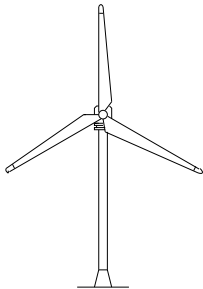


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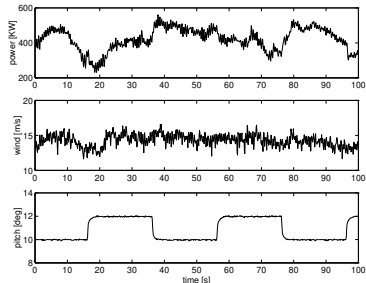


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- Most of you are MSc students.
- A few BSc students, guest students, and single-course students.
- Most of you are from electrical or mathematical engineering (incl. autonomous systems).
- A few of you are from chemical engineering.
- A few from sustainable energy.



Stochastic/uncertain weather conditions



- 1 System theory
- 2 Stochastics
- 3 State estimation - Kalman filter 1
- 4 State estimation - Kalman filter 2
- 5 Optimal control 1 - internal models
- 6 External models
- 7 External prediction + external optimal control 1
- 8 Optimal control 2 - external models
- 9 System identification 1
- 10 System identification 2
- 11 System identification 3 + model validation
- 12 Adaptive control 1
- 13 Adaptive control 2

Each lecture will contain 2 parts and a break.

Part 1:

- Outline of the day + practical information
- Resumé of previous lecture: e.g., an example of a difficult topic
- Topics of the day

Part 2:

- Continue the topics of the day
- Questions

Terminology

In the course, we will use the following terminology and notations.

- $x : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^{n_x}$ is the state vector of dimension n_x .
- $u : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^{n_u}$ is the input vector of dimension n_u .
- $y : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^{n_y}$ is the output vector of dimension n_y .
- $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x}$ is the initial state vector of dimension n_x .
- $p \in \mathbb{R}^{n_p}$ is a parameter vector of dimension n_p .
- q^{-1} is the unit delay operator

Sometimes u is split into controllable and non-controllable inputs.

Common abbreviations

- LTI: Linear time-invariant
- ODE: Ordinary differential equation
- exp/e: exponential function
- iff: if and only if

Systems Theory

- Dynamical systems
- Domains - time/frequency
- Linearization and discretization
- System properties

We describe dynamical systems in two ways:

Internal Models

- States of the system
- Differential equations



External Models

- Transfer functions
- Zeros and poles



We consider dynamical systems in the form

$$\dot{x}(t) = \frac{\partial x}{\partial t}(t) = f(x(t), u(t); p) = A(p)x(t) + B(p)u(t) \quad (1a)$$

$$x(t_0) = x_0, \quad (1b)$$

or

$$\begin{aligned} x(t) &= x_0 + \int_{t_0}^t f(x(\tau), u(\tau); p) \, d\tau \\ &= e^{A(p)(t-t_0)} x_0 + \int_{t_0}^t e^{A(p)(\tau-t_0)} B(p) u(\tau) \, d\tau. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Furthermore, we consider output equations in the form

$$y(t) = g(x(t), u(t); p) = C(p)x(t) + D(p)u(t) \quad (3)$$

Later, we will also consider stationary points, (x^*, u^*) , which are defined by

$$f(x^*, u^*; p) = 0. \quad (4)$$

Dynamical systems: ODE (External)

For external models, the general LTI N -th order inhomogeneous (1D) ODE is given by

$$\sum_{k=0}^N \alpha_k \frac{\partial^k y}{\partial t^k} = \sum_{l=0}^M \beta_l \frac{\partial^l u}{\partial t^l}, \quad (5)$$

where $\alpha_k, \beta_l \in \mathbb{R}$. The solution can be formulated as

$$y(t) = h(t) * u(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(s)u(t-s) ds, \quad (6)$$

where $h(t)$ is the impulse response. The Laplace transformed variables are given by

$$Y(s) = H(s)U(s), \quad U(s) = \mathcal{L}(u(t)), \quad (7)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} H(s) &= \mathcal{L}(h(t)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(s)e^{-st} ds \\ &= C(p) (sI - A(p))^{-1} B(p) + D(p). \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

Continuous-time time-domain

$$t$$

$$y(t) = h(t) * u(t)$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt}(t) = sY(s)$$

Discrete-time time-domain

$$t_k = kT_s$$

$$y_k = H_d(q^{-1})u_k$$

$$u_k = u(t_k) = u(kT_s)$$

$$u_{k-1} = q^{-1}u_k$$

where T_s is the sampling time

Continuous-time frequency-domain

$$s = a + iw$$

$$Y(s) = H(s)U(s)$$

$$H(s) = \frac{\sum_{l=0}^M \beta_l s^l}{\sum_{k=0}^N \alpha_k s^k}$$

Discrete-time frequency-domain

$$z = e^{T_s s}$$

$$Y(z) = H_z(z)U(z)$$

$$H_d(q^{-1}) = H_z(q)$$

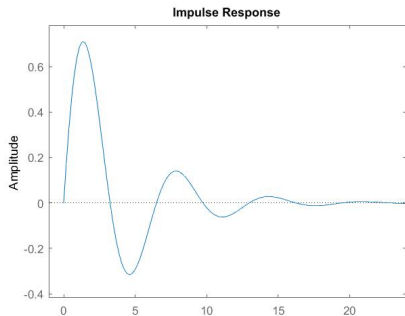


Figure: An impulse response

Consider $x_0 = 0$. Then the response from u to y is given by

$$h(t) = \begin{cases} C^T e^{At} B + D\delta(0), & t \geq 0 \\ 0, & t < 0 \end{cases}$$

Causal system:

No reaction before an impact.

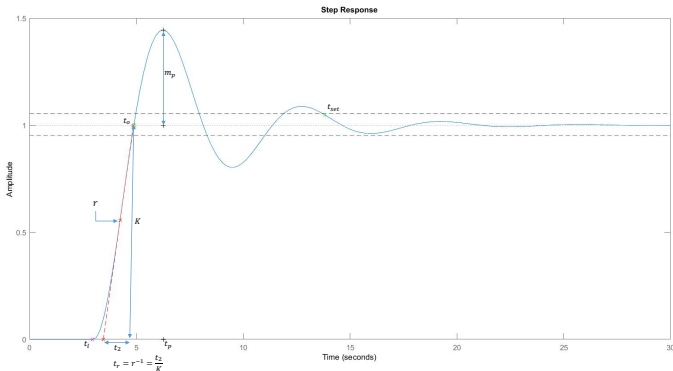


Figure: Step response

t_r is the rise time, r is the reaction rate, t_{set} is the settling time, t_p is the peak time, t_o is the growth time, t_l is the reaction time m_p is the overswing.

We will now briefly return to the general ODE system given by (1) with output equation given by (3). Usually, we linearize in a stationary point (or steady state); i.e. a point (x^*, u^*) that satisfies

$$f(x^*, u^*; p) = 0. \quad (9)$$

Doing a Taylor expansion (truncated after first-order) on (1a) and (3) in (x^*, u^*) yields

$$\dot{x} = f(x^*, u^*; p) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x^*, u^*; p)(x - x^*) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x^*, u^*; p)(u - u^*) \quad (10a)$$

$$y = g(x^*, u^*; p) + \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}(x^*, u^*; p)(x - x^*) + \frac{\partial g}{\partial u}(x^*, u^*; p)(u - u^*). \quad (10b)$$

Linearization

Often, we will re-define the dynamical variables according to deviations from the stationary point; i.e. according to

$$\tilde{x} = x - x^* \quad (11a)$$

$$\tilde{u} = u - u^* \quad (11b)$$

$$\tilde{y} = y - g(x^*, u^*; p), \quad (11c)$$

and define the system matrices

$$A(p, x^*, u^*) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x^*, u^*; p), \quad B(p, x^*, u^*) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x^*, u^*; p) \quad (12a)$$

$$C(p, x^*, u^*) = \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}(x^*, u^*; p), \quad D(p, x^*, u^*) = \frac{\partial g}{\partial u}(x^*, u^*; p). \quad (12b)$$

This leads to the linear time invariant (LTI) system given by

$$\dot{\tilde{x}} = A(p, x^*, u^*)\tilde{x} + B(p, x^*, u^*)\tilde{u} \quad (13a)$$

$$\tilde{y} = C(p, x^*, u^*)\tilde{x} + D(p, x^*, u^*)\tilde{u}, \quad (13b)$$

Discretization: Sampling of Continuous Systems

A major focus in this course is on discrete-time linear systems.

Discrete sampling at fixed intervals:

$$x_k = x(t_0 + T_s k) \quad \text{and} \quad y_k = y(t_0 + T_s k) \quad (14)$$

Zero-order Hold: ZOH is the assumption/choice of input being constant between samples.

$$u(t_c) = u_k, \quad \text{for } kT_s \leq t_c < (k+1)T_s \quad (15)$$

Shannon's Sampling Theorem: if the highest frequency of the system is w_0 , then a sampling frequency of at least the double is needed for reconstruction:

$$w_s \geq 2w_0, \quad w_s = \frac{2\pi}{T_s} \quad (16)$$

Choosing based on desired samples per rise time:

$$T_s = t_r / N_r, \quad N_r \in [2; 4] \quad (17)$$

Discretization: Internal Model

In state-space models, we consider discretization of the continuous-time solutions:

$$x(t) = e^{A(p)(t-t_0)}x_0 + \int_{t_0}^t e^{A(p)(t-s)}B(p)u(s) ds, \quad (18a)$$

$$y(t) = C(p)x(t) + D(p)u(t). \quad (18b)$$

Using a sampling period T_s , the discrete-time system is given by

$$x_{k+1} = A_d(p, T_s)x_k + B_d(p, T_s)u_k \quad A_d(p, T_s) = e^{A(p)T_s} \quad (19a)$$

$$y_k = C(p)x_k + D(p)u_k \quad B_d(p, T_s) = \int_0^{T_s} e^{A(p)s}B(p) ds \quad (19b)$$

These discrete-time system matrices, can be computed using the matrix exponential:

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_d(p, T_s) & B_d(p, T_s) \\ 0 & I \end{bmatrix} = \exp \left(\begin{bmatrix} A(p) & B(p) \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} T_s \right). \quad (20)$$

Discretization: External Model

For the external model, we consider the frequency domain:

$$y(s) = H(s)u(s), \quad H(s) = \frac{b_0 s^n + b_1 s^{n-1} + \dots + b_n}{s^n + a_1 s^{n-1} + \dots + a_n} \quad (21)$$

The discretization is then done with a Z-transform as:

$$H_z(z) = (1 - z^{-1}) \mathcal{Z} \left(\frac{H(s)}{s} \right), \quad z \in \mathbb{C} \quad (22)$$

providing a new transfer function

$$y(z) = H_z(z)u(z) = \frac{\bar{b}_0 z^n + \bar{b}_1 z^{n-1} + \dots + \bar{b}_n}{z^n + \bar{a}_1 z^{n-1} + \dots + \bar{a}_n} u(z) \quad (23)$$

for the time-domain we can utilize $H_d(q^{-1}) = H_z(q)$

$$y_t = H_d(q^{-1})u_t = \frac{\bar{b}_0 + \bar{b}_1 q^{-1} + \dots + \bar{b}_n q^{-n}}{1 + \bar{a}_1 q^{-1} + \dots + \bar{a}_n q^{-n}} u_t \quad (24)$$

also given as a difference model:

$$y_t + \bar{a}_1 y_{t-1} + \dots + \bar{a}_n y_{t-n} = \bar{b}_0 u_t + \bar{b}_1 u_{t-1} + \dots + \bar{b}_m u_{t-n} \quad (25)$$

Consider the factor terms of transfer functions:

$$H(s) = \frac{B(s)}{A(s)} = \frac{b_0 s^n + b_1 s^{n-1} + \dots + b_n}{s^n + a_1 s^{n-1} + \dots + a_n} = K_0 \frac{\prod_i (s - z_i)}{\prod_i (s - p_i)} \quad (26)$$

$$H_d(q^{-1}) = \frac{B_d(q^{-1})}{A_d(q^{-1})} = \frac{b_0 + b_1 q^{-1} + \dots + b_{n_b} q^{-n_b}}{1 + a_1 q^{-1} + \dots + a_{n_a} q^{-n_a}} = K_{d,0} \frac{\prod_i (q - z_{d,i})}{\prod_i (q - p_{d,i})}$$

Transfer functions has following properties

$$\text{Zeros: } H(z_i) = 0 \quad (27)$$

$$\text{Poles: } |H(p_i)| = \infty \quad (28)$$

$$\text{DC-gain: } H(s=0), H_z(z=1) = H_d(q^{-1}=1) \quad (29)$$

The Poles of the external models are the Eigenvalues of the internal model.

$$\mathcal{C}(A) = A(s) \quad (30)$$

Poles are related to the stability of LTI systems. An LTI system is unstable if

$$\mathbf{Continuous:} \quad 0 < \operatorname{Re}(p_c) \quad (31a)$$

$$\mathbf{Discrete:} \quad 1 < |p_d| \quad (31b)$$

The relation between the poles of discrete (p_d) and continuous (p_c) systems is

$$p_d = e^{p_c T_s} \quad (32)$$

The number of zeros m and poles n of a system:

$$\text{Continuous: } m \leq n \quad (33)$$

$$\text{Discrete: } \begin{cases} m = n - 1 & (\text{for } D = 0) \\ m = n & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (34)$$

with the additional zeros being from sampling with ZOH.

The m Continuous system zeros relates to a subset of the discrete zeros:

$$z_d = e^{z_c T_s} \quad (35)$$

Zero-Pole Cancellation,

$$z_i = p_i : H(s) = \frac{s - z_i}{(s - p_i)(s - p_1)} = \frac{1}{(s - p_1)} \quad (36)$$

Transforms - Similarity Transform and Diagonal Transform

For some reasons (computation), we might want to change the states of the internal model by

$$z_t = \Upsilon x_t \quad (37)$$

$$z_{t+1} = \Upsilon A \Upsilon^{-1} z_t + \Upsilon B u_t \quad (38)$$

$$y_t = C \Upsilon^{-1} z_t + D u_t \quad (39)$$

The external model is unchanged by the transformation:

$$H(q) = C \Upsilon^{-1} (qI - \Upsilon A \Upsilon^{-1})^{-1} \Upsilon B + D = C (qI - A)^{-1} B + D \quad (40)$$

A simple transformation is the **diagonal transform**:

$$A_{diag} = \Upsilon A \Upsilon^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} \quad (41)$$

with Υ being constructed by the right eigenvectors of A .

Consider the external system:

$$y_t + a_1 y_{t-1} + \dots + a_n y_{t-n} = b_0 u_t + b_1 u_{t-1} + \dots + b_n u_{t-n} \quad (42)$$

we then have the transfer function:

$$H(q) = \frac{B(q^{-1})}{A(q^{-1})} = \frac{b_0 + b_1 q^{-1} + \dots + b_n q^{-n}}{1 + a_1 q^{-1} + \dots + a_n q^{-n}} = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} h_i q^{-i} \quad (43)$$

Minimal representation: An internal model with minimum number of states.

Examples of forms with minimal representation is the 4 canonical forms

Controller canonical form:

$$A_c = \begin{bmatrix} -a_1 & \cdots & -a_{n-1} & -a_n \\ 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad B_c = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (44)$$

$$C_c = [b_1 - b_0 a_1, b_2 - b_0 a_2, \dots, b_n - b_0 a_n] \quad D_c = b_0 \quad (45)$$

Observer canonical form:

$$A_o = \begin{bmatrix} -a_1 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \\ -a_{n-1} & 0 & \cdots & 1 \\ -a_n & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad B_o = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 - b_0 a_1 \\ b_2 - b_0 a_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_n - b_0 a_n \end{bmatrix} \quad (46)$$

$$C_o = [1, 0, \dots, 0] \quad D_o = b_0 \quad (47)$$

Controllability canonical form:

$$A_{co} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cdots & 0 & -a_n \\ 1 & \cdots & 0 & -a_{n-1} \\ & \ddots & & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 1 & -a_1 \end{bmatrix} \quad B_{co} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (48)$$

$$C_{co} = (h_1, h_2, \dots, h_n) \quad D_{co} = h_0 \quad (49)$$

Observability canonical form:

$$A_{ob} = \begin{bmatrix} -a_1 & \cdots & -a_{n-1} & -a_n \\ 1 & \cdots & 0 & 0 \\ & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad B_{ob} = \begin{bmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \\ \vdots \\ h_n \end{bmatrix} \quad (50)$$

$$C_{ob} = (1, 0, \dots, 0) \quad D_{ob} = h_0 \quad (51)$$

relation between canonical forms:

$$A_c = A_o^T, \quad A_{co} = A_{ob}^T \quad (52)$$

$$B_c = C_o^T, \quad B_{co} = C_{ob}^T \quad (53)$$

$$B_o = C_c^T, \quad B_{ob} = C_{co}^T \quad (54)$$

$$D_c = D_o = D_{co} = D_{ob} = b_0 = h_0 \quad (55)$$

consider the more general external model:

$$y_t + a_1 y_{t-1} + \dots + a_{n_a} y_{t-n_a} = b_0 u_t + b_1 u_{t-1} + \dots + b_{n_b} u_{t-n_b} \quad (56)$$

A non-minimal internal model can be constructed as:

$$\Phi_d = \begin{bmatrix} -a_1 & \dots & -a_{n_a-1} & -a_{n_a} & -b_1 & \dots & -b_{n_b-1} & -b_{n_b} \\ 1 & & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ & \ddots & & \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & & 1 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 1 & & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & & \vdots & \vdots & & \ddots & & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & 0 & 0 & & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \Gamma_d = \begin{bmatrix} -b_0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ \hline 1 \\ \hline 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (57)$$

$$\phi_d^T = (a_1, \dots, a_{n_a}, b_1, \dots, b_{n_b})$$

$$\Delta_d = b_0 \quad (58)$$

Definition:

A system is said to be controllable, if it is possible to move the system from an arbitrary state value to the origin in finite time.

Definition:

A system is said to be reachable, if it is possible to move the system from one arbitrary state value to another arbitrary state in finite time.

Reachable \Rightarrow Controllable, not the reverse

An n -state system is reachable if and only if the reachability matrix W_c has full rank ($k > n$).

$$W_c(k) = \begin{bmatrix} B & AB & A^2B & \dots & A^{k-1}B \end{bmatrix} \quad (59)$$

with the reachability Gramian given by $\Sigma_k^c = W_c(k)W_c(k)^T$

For discrete-time LTI systems, it is possible to give explicit results on how to construct a k -step input sequence

$$x_k = A^k x_0 + W_c(k) U_{k-1} \quad (60)$$

$$U_{k-1}^T = \begin{bmatrix} u_{k-1} & u_{k-2} & \cdots & u_0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (61)$$

which brings the system from any initial condition, x_0 , to a desired state, \hat{x} .

Though no unique sequence exist, the sequence minimizing the control usage is given by

$$U_{k-1}^* = W_c(k)^T (\Sigma_k^c)^{-1} [\hat{x} - A^k x_0]. \quad (62)$$

minimizing

$$\min_{u_{k-1}, \dots, u_0} \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} u_j^T u_j \quad (63a)$$

For a general continuous-time LTI system

$$\dot{x} = Ax + Bu, \quad (64)$$

the reachability question is related to properties of the continuous-time reachability Gramian, Σ^c . This matrix function satisfies the dynamical condition

$$\dot{\Sigma}^c = A\Sigma^c + \Sigma^c A^T + BB^T \quad (65a)$$

$$\Sigma^c(t_0) = 0. \quad (65b)$$

The LTI system (64) is said to be reachable if $W(t)$ is symmetric and positive semi-definite for any $t \geq t_0$.

For continuous-time, reachability is equivalent to controllability

Definition:

A system is said to be observable if, any initial state can be estimated using only the information from the following outputs and inputs.

Definition:

A system is said to be constructable if, for any possible evolution of state and control vectors, the current state can be estimated using only the information from outputs.

Observable \Rightarrow constructable, but the reverse is not true

An n -state system is reachable if and only if the observability matrix W_o has full rank ($k > n$).

$$W_o(k)^T = \begin{bmatrix} C^T & (CA)^T & (CA^2)^T & \dots & (CA^{k-1})^T \end{bmatrix} \quad (66)$$

with the observability Gramian given by $\Sigma_k^o = W_o(k)W_o(k)^T$

For a general continuous-time LTI system,

$$\dot{x} = Ax + Bu, \quad (67a)$$

$$y = Cx + Du, \quad (67b)$$

the observability question is related to properties of the continuous-time observability Gramian, Σ^o . This matrix function satisfies the dynamical condition

$$\dot{\Sigma}^o = A\Sigma^o + \Sigma^o A^T + C^T C \quad (68a)$$

$$\Sigma^o(t_0) = 0. \quad (68b)$$

The LTI system (67) is said to be observable if $\Sigma^o(t)$ is symmetric and positive semi-definite for any $t \geq t_0$.

For operations of systems, an important aspect is the system's stability near a stationary point x_s .

Several definitions of stability exist; e.g. marginally stable systems and asymptotically stable systems.

- **Marginally stable:** x_s is said to be (marginally) stable if any solution trajectory $\{x(t), t \in [t_0, \infty]\}$ is bounded.
- **Asymptotically stable:** x_s is said to be asymptotically stable if any solution trajectory converges to x_s ($x(t) \rightarrow x_s$) as time progresses ($t \rightarrow \infty$).

A system which is not stable (i.e. not marginally stable) is said to be unstable.

Additionally we say a system is BIBO stable, if for any bounded input, the output is also bounded (Asymptotic \Rightarrow BIBO)

For LTI systems, the requirements of the different definitions of stability is given below, with a system being that type of stable if and only if all of the requirements is fulfilled

Continuous-time
Marginally stable:

- $\text{Re}\{eig(A)\} \leq 0$
- $\forall \text{Re}\{eig(A)_i\} = 0$, the AM=GM

Asymptotically stable:

- $\text{Re}\{eig(A)\} < 0$

Discrete-time

- $|eig(A)| \leq 1$
- $\forall |eig(A)_i| = 1$, the AM=GM

- $|eig(A)| < 1$

* AM = Algebraic multiplicity (# of identical eigenvalues)

** GM = geometric multiplicity (# of associated eigenvectors)

For general systems, the conditions for stability is more complex, but one method is Lyapunov's second method

A Lyapunov function $V(x)$ for a system is defined as

Continuous-time

$$\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t)), \quad f(0) = 0$$

Discrete-time

$$x_{t+1} = f(x_t), \quad f(0) = 0$$

Scalar function $V(x)$:

- | | |
|---|----------------------------------|
| • $V(0) = 0$ | • $V(0) = 0$ |
| • $V(x)$ is C^1 (differential) | • $V(x)$ is C^1 (differential) |
| • $\dot{V}(x(t)) = \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial x}\right)^T f(x(t)) \leq 0$ | • $V(x_{t+1}) - V(x_t) \leq 0$ |

A stationary point x_s is stable if a Lyapunov function exists in the neighbourhood of x_s . If the inequalities are satisfied strictly, x_s is asymptotically stable

Alternatively, if we only consider stability of a specific section of the system space around a stationary point x_s ,

$$\dot{x} = 0 = f(x_s, u_s) \text{ or } x_s = f(x_s, u_s), \quad (69)$$

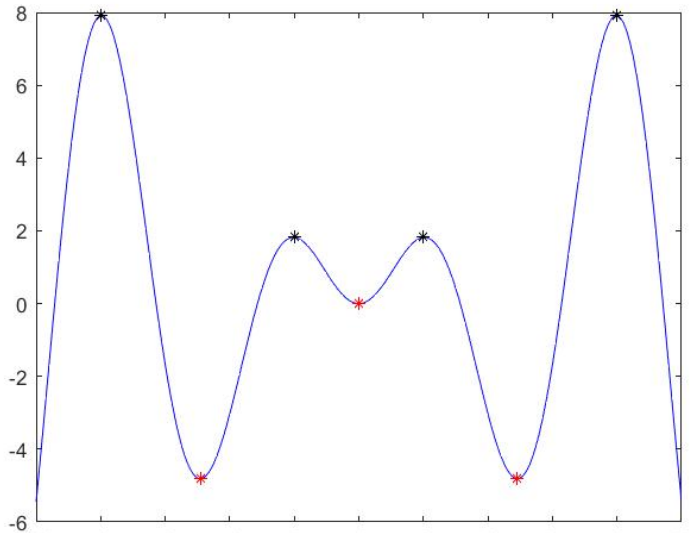
a linear approximation can be used if f is differentiable at the stationary point:

$$A = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x^*, u^*). \quad (70)$$

The system is locally stable (marginal or asymptotic) around the stationary point if the LTI requirements are fulfilled.

Example of stationary points

Consider a ball lying on the curve. Which points are stationary, and which are stable?



Questions?