OPTIMAL SINGULAR CONTROL THEORY WITH APPLICATION TO VEHICULAR BRAKING

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This is to certify that the

thesis entitled

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ABSTRACT

OPTIMAL SINGULAR CONTROL THEORY WITH APPLICATION TO VEHICULAR BRAKING

by Michael Bishop Scherba

General results from both the Maximum Principle and Green's Theorem are specialized to a class of singular control problems encountered in vehicular braking processes. These problems are in the class of nonlinear problems in which the control appears linearly. These are of the form

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

where the n dimensional vector $\mathbf{x}(\mathbf{t})$ is the state of the system at time t and the r dimensional vector u is the control vector. The object is to find a control vector which takes the system from some initial state \mathbf{x}_0 at time \mathbf{t}_0 to state $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{T}}$ at time T and minimize the functional

$$J[u] = \int_{t_0}^{T} f_0(t,x,u) dt$$

In the vehicular braking problems, the functional J[u] corresponds to stopping distance. This problem is shown to be equivalent to the time optimal problem for the class of functions encountered.

Necessary conditions along singular arcs are established using both the Maximum Principle and Green's Theorem. Algorithms for determining optimal trajectories along both singular and nonsingular arcs are developed using the concept of reachable and controllable sets.

The optimal control as a function of the state variables - the closed loop problem - is solved. Application to vehicular braking processes is shown by means of both rate and amplitude limited controls. The resulting systems are singular "pang-pang" and singular "bang-bang" systems.

The inability of a single mathematical performance index to encompass all the qualities desired in the vehicular braking system resulted in the development of suboptimal control systems. Favorable comparison with optimal control systems is shown by means of digital and analog techniques. Simulation including real hardware shows application of the theory. Several frequency domain criteria are included to provide insight regarding the effect of time delays in suboptimal vehicular braking systems.

OPTIMAL SINGULAR CONTROL THEORY WITH

APPLICATION TO VEHICULAR BRAKING

Вy

Michael Bishop Scherba

A THESIS

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER I	INTRODUCTION	1
CHAPTER II	SINGULAR CONTROL THEORY	7
2.1	Introduction	7
2.2	The Maximum Principle Approach	8
2.3.1	The Green's Theorem Approach	15
2.3.2	Determination of Reachable Region	22
2.4	The Second Variation Approach	27
CHAPTER III	TIME OPTIMAL SINGULAR CONTROL	34
3.1.1	Maximum Principle Approach	34
3.1.2	Closed Loop System Control	38
3.2.1	Green's Theorem Approach	41
3.2.2	Singular Pang-Pang Time Optimal Control	43
3.2.3	N-Dimensional Singular Control Problems	46
3.3	The Second Variational Approach	49
CHAPTER IV	OPTIMAL CONTROL OF THE VEHICULAR BRAKING PROCESS	53
4.1	Introduction	53
4.2	Development of the System Equation	56
4.3.1	Optimization of the One-Wheel Vehicular Braking Control Problem	58
4.3.2	Analytical Verification of the Optimal Control	63
4.3.3	Equivalence of Minimum Time and Minimum Stopping Distance Criteria	66
4.3.4	An Optimal Digital Control System	68
4.4.1	The One-Wheel Vehicular Braking Control Model with Rate and Amplitude Limited Control	73

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4.4.2	Solution of the Pang-Pang Singular Control Problem by the Green's Theorem Approach	76
CHAPTER V	SUBOPTIMAL VEHICULAR BRAKING CONTROL	79
5.1	Introduction	79
5.2	Block Diagram of Suboptimal Control System	81
5.3	Analog Computer Studies	84
5.4	Digital Computer Studies	94
CHAPTER VI	NONLINEAR PHENOMENON IN VEHICULAR BRAKING PROCESSES	118
6.1	Introduction	118
6.2	Time Delay Criteria by Describing Function Technique	118
6.3	Effect of Friction-Slip Nonlinearity	124
CHAPTER VII	CONCLUSION	131
APPENDIX I	Suboptimal One-Wheel Model Control System	134
APPENDIX II	Program used in Optimal Digital Control System Based on Green's Theorem Approa ch	136
APPENDIX III	Differential Forms	141
APPENDIX IV	Alternate Digital Program	148
BIBLIOGRAPHY		152

Page

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure		Page
2.1	Comparison of Trajectories	16
2.2	Determination of Optimal Trajectory	18
2.3	Permissible Domain of Operation	19
2.4	Optimal Trajectory Not Along an $\omega=0$ Arc	20
2.5a	First Special Control Variation	31
2.6a	Second Control Variation	31
3.1	Closed Loop System on Singular Arc	39
3.2	Portion of Closed Loop on Nonsingular Arc	40
3.3	Decision Element	41
4.1	Model of One-Wheel System	53
4.2	Force and Torque Diagram	53
4.3	Model of Friction-Slip Characteristic	55
4.4	Reachable and Controllable Regions	60
4.5	Optimal Trajectory	61
4.6	Optimal Control for Vehicular Braking System. Constraint on Control Signal	62
4.7	Optimal Control for Ve hicular Braking System. No Constraint on Control Signal	63
4.8	Optimal Control and State Vectors versus Time	65
4.9	Digital Optimal Control System Based on Green's Theorem Approach	69
4.10	Wave Forms of Digital Control System	70
4.11	Diagram for Small Signal Sinusoidal Analysis	71
4.12	Reachable Region for 3-Dimensional Problem	76
4.13	Optimal Trajectory for 3-Dimensional Problem	78

Figure		Page
5.1	Basic Suboptimal Control	80
5.2a	Basic Block Diagram	82
5.2Ъ	Suboptimal Control System with Time Delays	83
5.3	Velocity Response-Real Actuator X2 Ideal Wheel Velocity Transducer	86
5.4	Effect of Wheel Velocity Transducer	87
5.5a	Effect of Initial Delay in Actuator Xl Velocity Response	88
5.5b	Effect of Initial Delay in Actuator X1 Solenoid, Control Pressure, and Friction Response	89
5.6a	Effect of Initial Delay in Actuator X1 Initial Velocity Response	90
5.6b	Effect of Initial Delay in Actuator X1 Initial Response of Solenoid, Control Pressure, and Friction	91
5.7a	Response without Compensation	92
5.7Ъ	Response without Compensation	93
5.8	Program I-CSMP Listing of One-Wheel Model	98
5.9	Output of Program I	99
5.10	Histogram of Wheel Velocity	100
5.11	Histogram of Friction Coefficient	101
5.12	Histogram of Control Pressure	102
5.13	Histogram of Wheel Velocity	103
5.14	Histogram of Friction Coefficient	104
5.15	Histogram of Control Pressure	105
5.16	Velocity Response Suboptimal System Employing a Single Control Pressure Signal	106
5.17	Friction and Control Pressure	107

Figure		Page
5.18	Wheel Velocity Response Suboptimal System Employing a Single Control Pressure Signal	108
5.19	Wheel Velocity Response Suboptimal System Employing a Single Control Pressure Signal	109
5.20	Control Pressure Response Suboptimal System Employing a Single Control Pressure Signal	110
5.21	Friction Characteristic Suboptimal System Employing a Single Control Pressure Signal	111
5.22	Wheel Velocity Response-Unbalanced Friction Suboptimal System Employing a Single Control Pressure Signal	112
5.23	Friction Coefficient and Control Pressure Response Suboptimal System Employing a Single Control Pressure Signal	113
5.24	Wheel Velocity Response Reference Suboptimal Control System	114
5.25	Friction Coefficient Response Reference Suboptimal Control System	115
5.26	Control Pressure Response Reference Suboptimal Control System	116
5.27	Phase Plane Plot Reference Suboptimal Control System	117
6.1	S-plane Model of One-Wheel Vehicular Control System	119
6.2	Friction-Slip Curve Linearized about Operating Point	119
6.3	Simplified Incremental Block Diagram One-Wheel Vehicular Control System	120
6.4	Nonlinear System used to Develop Time Delay Criterion	121
6.5	Typical Nyquist Plot	122
6.6	Wheel Velocity Response	125

Figure		Page
6.7	Control Pressure Response	126
6.8	Friction Coefficient Response	127
6.9	Output Response of Asymmetrical Relay	128
6.10	Diagram used to Evaluate Variational Frequency and Amplitude of Variables	129
A2.1	3-Simplex with Orientation	145

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Writers have called attention to the fact that a gap exists between contemporary control theory and control practice [G7]. The gap can be attributed to the fact that theoreticians and designers do not study and solve the same problems in the same order and manner. In the present study - Optimal Control of a Vehicle During Braking - there appear many difficulties. Those of an essentially mathematical nature are of interest to the theoretician. These difficulties are not usually the same as those which concern the designer. The theoretician often finds interesting and worthy of study a simplified version of the designer's problem. On the other hand, the designer often will change the design to bypass a difficulty which he has insufficient time to analyze. This thesis is an attempt to decrease the communication gap due to the divergent interests of theoreticians and designers in the area of optimal vehicular braking.

Nonlinear systems in which the control appears linearly may be singular control problems [H3]. Chapter II presents a unification of singular control theory results found in the literature. The Maximum Principle approach to singular control problems due to Johnson and Gibson [J1], [J2] is presented and extended.

The Green's Theorem approach first presented by Miele [M2] and generalized by Haynes [H1] is quite useful in low order systems. In the first approximation model of the vehicular control system, this method

is applied. Studies by Snow [S3] concerning reachable and attainable sets supplement the development of the Green's Theorem approach. Geometric rules for determining optimal trajectories which contain both singular and non-singular arcs are developed and presented.

To establish necessary conditions for minimality of singular arcs, the second variation approach developed by Robbins [R1] and also by Kopp, Kelley, and Moyer [K2], [K3] is presented.

In Chapter III the general theory of singular control as presented in the previous sections is applied to low order time optimal control systems. This specialization is directed toward the vehicular braking control problem.

The first section employs the necessary conditions obtained from extensions of the Maximum Principle to derive the optimal control law. The mathematical model of the friction-slip characteristic used in the vehicular control system is of an exponential nature. This permits further specialization and simplification of the control law. The result of this approach is a closed loop system, in which the control is a function of state variables, operating as a second order system in the singular mode and as a fourth order system in the non-singular mode. The singular "bang-bang" cases concerned are designated Problem 3.1 and Problem 3.2.

Using the Green's Theorem approach, no additional information is obtained for these problems. The necessary conditions for singular arcs to exist are compared and tabulated. It is shown that the necessary conditions of the Maximum Principle approach imply the necessary condition

of the Green Theorem approach.

The previous problems dealt with bounded control variables. Problem 3.3 is the singular "pang-pang" time optimal control problem and models a vehicular braking control system when the control pressure is rate limited. It is shown that the control law for both the singular "bangbang" case and the singular "pang-pang" case are identical on the singular portion of the trajectory. The terminology singular "bang-bang" and singular "pang-pang" is defined in Chapter III.

The "pang-pang" problem increased the order of the system to three, since the control u became a state variable and u became the new control signal. The extension of Green's Theorem from two to three dimensions is the traditional Stoke's Theorem. The generalization to higher dimensions will be designated as the n-dimensional Green's Theorem. This generalization is considered and a procedure for applying Green's Theorem to n-dimensional problems is presented. The concluding section of Chapter III applies the second variation approach to Problem 3.1, the singular "bangbang" time optimal control problem.

The chapters to this point have stressed the theoretical aspects related to the problem of interest. Chapter IV is concerned with the application of the previous material to the vehicular braking control problem. As such, it is of interest to both the theoreticians and the designers. A mathematical model of the one-wheel vehicular braking control model is optimized using the Green's Theorem approach. Reachable and attainable sets are obtained and a realizable control algorithm determined.

A computer program to automate the procedure is discussed and included

in Appendix II. By eliminating the constraint on the control signal and using an impulse function in the control, a simple analytical solution is obtained. This provides a design tool for this particular problem and serves to check the digital computer solution.

Implementation of the optimal control based on the Green's Theorem approach shows the feasability of this method. However, the optimal control system model used shows that unavoidable time delays in the IBM 360-65 computer are responsible for the control signal oscillating or chattering about the theoretical value. By means of small signal analysis, relations between the variables are derived so that the magnitudes of the oscillations can be predicted. These are primarily of theoretical interest, since they would have negligible effect on a hardware system. They do indicate that time delays, such as encountered in various transducers, will affect the practical system.

In Chapter IV, the vehicular braking control problem was formulated as a time optimal control problem. By means of Green's Theorem, it is shown that minimizing time to stop the vehicle is equivalent to minimizing vehicle stopping distance. A criterion is also derived which shows the relationship necessary for equivalence.

The one-wheel vehicular braking control model with rate and amplitude limited control is solved by using the n-dimensional Green's Theorem development. The three dimensional trajectory is described.

The problems considered to this point, have been aimed at directly assisting in the development of a vehicular control system. Subject to well defined constraints, the optimal control problem has been solved by

both the Maximum Principle and the Green's Theorem approach. The designer, however, is faced with constraints which are not well defined. Diverse facts such as cost, reliability, variability, and noise sensitivity must be considered. The complexity forces the designer - at this stage - to optimize, in some undefined sense, a system which will be called the suboptimal vehicular braking control system. This is done in Chapter V. The basic supoptimal control system developed first is almost indistinguishable from the optimal control system. Since time delays, due to transducers are significant, the final suboptimal system developed takes these into account.

Studies using both the analog and the digital computer are conducted, using the optimal control system as a reference system. It is shown that it is possible to compensate for transducer time delays which are no more than approximately 20 milliseconds. Also, if the time delays are in this range, they may be treated linearly. Representative plots and their comparison with respect to the optimal control system are included.

In order to predict the effect of various system parameters more easily, it is necessary to develop models which reduce the complexity of the system. Several models are developed in Chapter VI, which are useful under various operating conditions. The first model, which is valid for a properly compensated system having time delays, establishes a criterion relating time delay to ripple frequency present in the system response.

Another model developed is appropriate for systems having physically realizable time delays but operating without compensation. This model considers the effects of two nonlinearities, the friction-slip characteristic

and the relay characteristic. The use of these models in predicting the effect of system parameters is demonstrated and comparison with computer studies is included.

In summary, this thesis presents a unification of singular control theory and specializes the general results to a class of problems encountered in vehicular braking processes.

It develops necessary conditions along singular and nonsingular trajectories, which are used to develop algorithms necessary to mechanize time optimal models based on both the Maximum Principle and Green's Theorem. The equivalence of minimum time and minimum stopping distance criteria is proved.

Parameter studies of suboptimal systems are made using both analog and digital technique. The suboptimal performance of simulators using real hardware is shown to compare favorably with the optimal control system.

Several frequency criteria are developed to permit evaluation of suboptimal control systems.

CHAPTER II SINGULAR CONTROL THEORY

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is a survey of some of the currently known mathematical techniques applicable to the study of systems described by nonlinear differential equations in which the control appears linearly, i.e.,

$$\dot{x}_{i}(t) = f_{i}(x,t) + \sum_{j=1}^{r} b_{j}(x,t)u \qquad i = 1,2,..., n$$
 (2.1)

It will be shown that when the control appears linearly, a class of solutions which are called singular may appear. In matrix notation, the above equation may be written as

$$\dot{x}(t) = f(x,t) + B(x,t)u$$
 (2.2)

In the above equation, t is the independent variable (t = time in the practical cases considered). The n dimensional vector x(t) is the state of the system at time t, and the r dimensional vector u is the control vector.

The problems of primary interest are those in which control vectors, i.e., a set of control functions $u_a(t)$, are to be found which will take the system from state x_o at time t_o to state x_T at time T.

By requiring that the control vectors optimize some performance criterion, we have an optimal control problem. This criterion is usually a functional which may depend on time, the state of the system, and the control vector. When expressed in integral form it appears as follows:

$$J[u] = \int_{t_0}^{T} f_0(t,x,u) dt$$
 (2.3)

In much of the study that follows the scalar f will be 1. This o is the classical time optimal control problem.

The control vector will be selected from a class of functions U depending on the problem. Bounds on the control and its derivative such as

$$|u_{a}| \leq 1$$
 $a = 1, 2, ..., r$

and

 $|\dot{u}| \leq 1$ are considered.

The system equations may always be written so that the magnitudes of the control components are normalized, i.e., $|u_{n}| \leq 1$.

For an optimal control problem, a trajectory is said to be <u>singular</u>, if along the trajectory, the necessary conditions for optimality such as provided by the Pontryagin Maximum Principle are <u>satisfied in a trivial</u> <u>manner</u>. Application of the usual necessary conditions here produces no useful information. A definition due to Hermes [H5] states that a control vector is totally singular when the Maximum Principle yields no information in time optimal problem for any components of the optimal control. If a trajectory is nonsingular, it is called normal. The trajectories considered in this study have subarcs which may be normal and other subarcs which may be singular.

2.2 The Maximum Principle Approach

In this section application of the Maximum Principle will show that the usual necessary conditions provide no information regarding the singular control. Hence, other necessary conditions will be developed to provide additional information regarding the control. The practical cases considered later will be time invariant with a single control variable. Consider,

Problem 2.1

$$\dot{x}_{i}(t) = f_{i}[x(t)] + b_{i}[x(t)]u(t)$$
 $i = 1, 2, ..., n$ (2.4)

or in vector notation

$$\dot{x}(t) = f[x(t)] + b[x(t)]u(t)$$
 (2.5)

where the state vector is the n dimensional vector x and u(t) is a sectionally continuous scalar control function.

Assume that u(t) is constrained in magnitude by the relation

$$|u(t)| \leq 1$$
 for all t $t \in [0,T]$ (2.6)

The problem is to drive the initial state x(0) = a to x(t) = bwhile minimizing the functional

$$J[u] = \int_{0}^{T} \{f_{0}[x(t)] + b_{0}[x(t)]u(t)\} dt \qquad (2.7)$$

•

which can be represented as

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_{0} = \mathbf{f}_{0}[\mathbf{x}(t)] + \mathbf{b}_{0}[\mathbf{x}(t)]\mathbf{u}(t) \qquad \mathbf{x}(0) = 0 \qquad (2.8)$$

The Hamiltonian is defined as

$$H(x,u,t,p) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} f_{i}[x(t)]p_{i}(t) + u(t) \sum_{i=0}^{n} b_{i}[x(t)]p_{i}(t) \quad (2.9)$$

The vector p is the costate or adjoint vector and is given by

$$\dot{\mathbf{p}}_{\mathbf{i}}(\mathbf{t}) = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{i}}(\mathbf{t})} \qquad \mathbf{i} = 1, 2, \dots, n \qquad (2.10)$$

or in vector form as

$$\dot{\mathbf{p}}(\mathbf{t}) = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}$$
(2.11)

From equation (2.9) and (2.10), we have

$$\dot{p}_{i}(t) = -\sum_{j=0}^{n} p_{j}(t) - \frac{f_{j}[x(t)]}{x_{i}(t)} - u(t) \sum_{j=0}^{n} p_{j}(t) - \frac{\partial b_{j}[x(t)]}{\partial x_{i}(t)}$$
(2.12)

The following theorem is one form of the Maximum Principle which gives necessary conditions for Problem 2.1 [A1].

Theorem 2.1

If $u^{*}(t)$ is an optimal control and if $x^{*}(t)$ is the corresponding optimal trajectory, then there exists a nonzero absolutely continuous vector valued function $p^{*}(t)$ and a constant $p_{o}^{*} \geq 0$ such that

i)
$$\dot{x}_{1}^{*}(t) = f_{i}[x^{*}(t)] + b_{i}[x^{*}(t)]u^{*}(t)$$
 (213)
 $\dot{p}_{i}^{*}(t) = -\sum_{j=1}^{u} p_{j}^{*}(t) \frac{\partial f_{j}[x^{*}(t)]}{\partial x_{i}^{*}(t)} - u^{*}(t)\sum_{j=1}^{u} p_{j}^{*}(t) \frac{\partial b_{j}[x^{*}(t)]}{\partial x_{j}(t)}$ (2.14)

*
$$x^{*}(0) = a$$
 $x^{*}(T) = b$ $i=1,2,\ldots,n$ (2.15)

ii) For t ε [0,T] and all u(t) satisfying the constraint $|u(t)| \le 1$, the following relation holds

$$u^{*}(t) \sum_{i=0}^{n} b_{i}[x^{*}(t)]p_{i}^{*}(t) \leq u(t) \sum_{i=0}^{n} b_{i}[x^{*}(t)]p_{i}^{*}(t)$$
 (2.16)

iii) If T is free

$$H(x^{\dagger}, u^{\dagger}, t, p^{\dagger}) = 0$$
 t ε [0,T] (2.17)

iv) If T is fixed

 $H(x^{*}, u^{*}, t, p^{*}) = C = a \text{ constant} \qquad t \in [0,T] \qquad (2.18)$ As long as the scalar $\sum_{i=0}^{n} b_i[x(t)]p_i(t)$ is not zero, minimizing i=0 equation (2.9) yields the well-defined control law,

$$u^{*}(t) = - \operatorname{sgn} \sum_{i=0}^{n} b_{i}[x(t)]p_{i}(t)$$
 (2.19)

when $|u| \leq 1$.

Since the signum function is not defined for argument equal to zero, the control u may be any admissible value. Admissible values are those which satisfy the constraint $|u| \le 1$. This presents no problem as long as the scalar function $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} b_i[x(t)]p_i(t)$ is not zero over finite time ini=0terval. This is the classic "bang-bang" case[L1]. If, however, the scalar $\sum_{t=0}^{\infty} b_i[x(t)]p_i(t)$ is zero over a finite interval then the problem t=0is singular and is no longer "bang-bang". This may be formalized by the following:

Definition 2.1 Optimal Singular Control

Problem 2.1 is singular if the optimal control $u^{*}(t)$, the resulting trajectory $x^{*}(t)$, and corresponding costate $p^{*}(t)$ have the following property:

There is at least one half-open interval (t_1, t_2) in [0,T] such that

$$\sum_{i=0}^{b} \mathbf{i} [\mathbf{x}^{*}(t)] \mathbf{p}_{i}^{*}(t) = 0 \quad \text{for all } t \in (t_{1}, t_{2}] \quad (2.20)$$
$$\mathbf{p}_{0}^{*}(t) = \mathbf{p}_{0}^{*} \ge 0$$

The control will be called an extremal control u(t) if it satisfies all the necessary conditions of Theorem 2.1 such that corresponding state $\hat{x}(t)$ and costate $\hat{p}(t)$ have the property that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} b_{i}(t) = 0 \quad \text{for all } t \in (t_{1}, t_{2}] \quad (2.21)$$

$$\hat{p}_{0}(t) = \hat{p}_{0} = 0$$

To avoid nonessential generalization, singular extremal controls in low order systems will be considered using the Maximum Principle. First form the Hamiltonian as given by (2.9) in vector notation

$$H = (f,p) + u (b,p) \qquad \text{for all } t \in (t_1,t_2) \qquad (2.23)$$

To simplify notation, the x(t) dependence of the variables will be omitted.

In Problem 2.1 consider the free terminal-time case and then minimize H with respect to u, to find

$$\frac{\partial H}{\partial u} = 0 = \sum_{i=0}^{n} b_i p_i = (b,p) \qquad (2.24)$$

Here the control u is assumed to be in the interior of its allowed region U so that $\frac{\partial H}{\partial u}$ exists. If u is on the boundary of U, it would then fall into the "bang-bang" category. Transitions from the boundary of U to the interior of U will be considered later.

Problem 2.1 concerns the scalar control case. If u is a vector control (dimension ≥ 2) in the interior of its allowed region, then an extremal arc would be singular if the matrix H_{uu} with typical element $\frac{\partial H}{\partial u_i \partial u_j}$ is singular everywhere on the arc. This means that its determinant is identically zero on the arc, assuming the existence of the necessary partial derivatives. Since H = 0 along the arc, another condition obtained from the Hamiltonian is

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} f_{i} p = 0 \qquad \text{for all } t \in (t_{1}, t_{2}) \qquad (2.25)$$

Additional necessary conditions may be obtained by differentiating (2.24) and (2.25)

$$\frac{d}{dt} \sum_{i=0}^{n} b_{i} p_{i} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \left(b_{i} \frac{dp_{i}}{dt} + \frac{dp_{i}}{dt} p_{i} \right) = 0 \qquad (2.26)$$

$$\frac{\mathbf{d}}{\mathbf{dt}} \sum_{\mathbf{i}=0}^{\mathbf{n}} \mathbf{f} \mathbf{p} = \sum_{\mathbf{i}=0}^{\mathbf{n}} \left(\mathbf{f} \frac{\mathbf{d}\mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{i}}}{\mathbf{dt}} + \frac{\mathbf{d}\mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{i}}}{\mathbf{dt}} \mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{i}} \right) = 0$$
(2.27)

Using equation (2.10) and substituting equation (2.25), and (2.26)

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} \left(-b_{i} \frac{\partial H}{\partial x_{i}} + \frac{dp_{i}}{dt} p_{i} \right) = 0$$
(2.28)

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} \left(-f_{i} \frac{\partial H}{\partial x_{i}} + \frac{df_{i}}{dt} p_{i} \right) = 0$$
(2.29)

Using equation (2.22)

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{i}} = \sum_{j=0}^{n} \mathbf{p}_{j} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{j}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{i}} + \mathbf{u} \sum_{j=0}^{n} \mathbf{p}_{j} \frac{\partial \mathbf{b}_{j}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{i}} \qquad i=0,1,2,\ldots,n \qquad (2.30)$$

Substituting the above in (2.28) and (2.29) and making use of (2.4)

$$0 = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \left[-b_{i} \sum_{j=0}^{n} \left(p_{j} \frac{\partial f_{j}}{\partial x_{i}} \right) + u p_{j} \frac{\partial b_{j}}{\partial x_{i}} + p_{i} \sum_{j=0}^{n} \frac{\partial b_{i}}{\partial x_{j}} (f_{i} + b_{j} u) \right]$$
(2.31)

$$0 = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \left[-f_{i} \sum_{j=0}^{n} p_{j} \frac{\partial f_{j}}{\partial x_{i}} + up_{j} \frac{\partial b_{j}}{\partial x_{i}} + p_{i} \sum_{j=0}^{n} \frac{\partial f_{i}}{\partial x_{j}} (f_{j} + b_{j}u) \right] (2.32)$$

By interchanging the summation indices in and j in one of the u terms of (2.31), the coefficient of the u term is readily seen to be zero. Hence,

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n} \left(f_{j} p_{i} \frac{\partial b_{i}}{\partial x_{j}} - b_{i} p_{j} \frac{\partial f_{j}}{\partial x_{i}} \right) = 0$$
(2.33)

or interchanging indices in the second term, we obtain the necessary condition,

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n} p_{i} \left(f_{j} \frac{\partial b_{i}}{\partial x_{j}} - b_{j} \frac{\partial f_{i}}{\partial x_{j}} \right) = 0$$
(2.34)

The interchange of indices in equations (2.31) and (2.33) is permissible since, the indices of summation are dummy indices. In a similar manner, we obtain from equation (2.32)

$$\mathbf{u}\sum_{\mathbf{i}=0}^{n}\sum_{\mathbf{j}=0}^{n}\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{i}}(\mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{i}}\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{i}}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{j}}} - \mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{j}}\frac{\partial \mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{i}}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{j}}}) = 0$$
(2.35)

Equation (2.35) implies equation (2.34) or u = 0

Hence, at this stage, using the Maximum Principle Approach, we have the necessary condition for an extremal singular control.

NC1
$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} b_{i} p_{i} = 0$$
 (2.36)

NC2
$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} f_{i}p_{i} = 0$$
 (2.37)

NC3
$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{n} p_{i} \left(b_{j} \frac{\partial f_{i}}{\partial x_{j}} - f_{j} \frac{\partial b_{i}}{\partial x_{j}} \right) = 0 \qquad (2.38)$$

The differentiation above can be continued resulting in additional necessary conditions. In matrix form these necessary conditions may be represented as

$$\begin{bmatrix} b_{0} & b_{1} & b_{2} & \dots & b_{n} \\ f_{0} & f_{1} & f_{2} & \dots & f_{n} \\ a_{10} & a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ & & & & & \\ a_{n-1,0} & & & a_{n-1,n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p_{0} \\ p_{1} \\ p_{2} \\ \dots \\ p_{n} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \dots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
(2.39)

For example,

$$\mathbf{a_{11}} = \sum_{j=0}^{n} (\mathbf{b_{j}} \frac{\partial f_{i}}{\partial x_{j}} - f_{j} \frac{\partial \mathbf{b_{i}}}{\partial x_{j}})$$
(2.40)

and higher order terms are obtained from the additional differentiation. In the application these will be obtained when necessary.

2.3.1 The Green's Theorem Approach

The problem to be considered in this section is essentially the same as previously treated in Section 2.2. The Green's Theorem technique discussed in [M2], [H5], [H3] is a powerful tool in resolving the singular control problem, especially when the dimension of the state space is of low order. By this method, it is possible to obtain global conditions for optimality. Consider a system with control appearing linearly, e.g., Problem 2.2

$$\dot{x}_{i}(t) = f_{i}[x(t)] = b_{i}[x(t)]u(t)$$
 $i = 1, 2, ..., n$ (2.41)

u(t) is a scalar control function constrained in magnitude by the relation

$$0 \le u(t) \le 1$$
 for all t t ε [0,T] (2.42)
Drive the initial state x(0)=a to x(T)=b, while minimizing the functional

$$J[u] = \int_0^T f_0[x(t)]dt \qquad (2.43)$$

The two dimensional problem will be considered before considering extensions of Green's Theorem to higher dimensions. The basis of the development is the transformation of line integrals into surface integrals. Assume that the integral in (2.43) may be written as

$$J[u] = \int_{a}^{b} [P(x_1, x_2) dx_2 + Q(x_1, x_2) dx_1]$$
(2.44)

This requires that dt can be expressed in terms of dx_1 and dx_2 .

Consider that the class of arcs being investigated is contained in a region bounded by the closed curve $\varepsilon(x_1,x_2) = 0$. The initial point $(x_1(0),x_2(0))$ and the final point $(x_1(T), x_2(T))$ are on the boundary of this domain. Figure 2.1 shows two possible paths, C and D. Note that paths may have corners indicating a discontinuity in the derivative dx/dt.





By comparing the value of the integral (2.44) along all admissible paths, the extremal arc which will be a global minimum (or maximum) can be determined. This is done as follows:

Designate path C by ICF and path D by IDF. Here I and F represent initial and final points on the arc or trajectory. Then subtract the integrals associated with these paths,

$$\Delta \mathbf{J} = \int_{\mathbf{ICF}} (\mathbf{P} d\mathbf{x}_2 + \mathbf{Q} d\mathbf{x}_1) - \int_{\mathbf{IDF}} (\mathbf{P} d\mathbf{x}_2 + \mathbf{Q} d\mathbf{x}_1)$$
(2.45)

This is equivalent to the closed contour integral

$$\Delta J = \oint_{ICFDI} (Pdx_2 + Qdx_1)$$
(2.46)

Green's Theorem is applicable if the functions P and Q and their partial derivatives are continuous in the region α bounded by the two admissible paths. Assuming that these conditions are met, Green's Theorem is used to transform the line integral into a surface integral. Hence,

$$\oint_{\text{ICFDI}} (Pdx_2 + Qdx_1) = \int_{\alpha} \int \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x_2} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial x_1} \right) dx_1 dx_2$$
(2.47)

The integration along the trajectories proceeds counterclockwise. A negative sign would be associated with the right hand side of the equation if the integration along the trajectories was clockwise.

The fundamental function, as defined by Miele [M2], is

$$\omega(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1}$$
(2.48)

A study of this function in the admissible domain provides the necessary information to evaluate the relative merits of all possible trajectories between I and F. In general, the function $\omega(x_1, x_2)$ will change sign in the admissible domain. However, first consider the case where ω is constant over the entire domain. If ω is positive over the entire domain, then $J_{ICF} > J_{IDF}$. In fact, J_{IGF} is greater than any other admissible trajectory, hence is the maximum arc. Similarly $J_{IDF} < J_{ICF}$ if ω is negative over the entire domain. If ω is zero over the entire domain, then the integrals are independent of path, and $J_{IDF} = J_{ICF}$.

Now, considering the general case where ω may change sign within

the admissible domain. It is possible to have several subdomains in which ω is positive and several in which ω is negative. In order to find the trajectory from I to F, corresponding to the maximum or minimum value J, proceed as follows referring to Figure 2.2:





Determination of Optimal Trajectory

Starting at I, compare IAB versus IB. Since the domain encircled has $\omega > 0$, and going CCW, $\int_{IAB} > \int_{IB}$. Compare AB vs. ACB. The domain encircled has $\omega > 0$, hence $\int_{AB} < \int_{ACB}$. Likewise $\int_{IAD} \geq \int_{IQD}$

similarly,

$$\int_{DE} \left| \int_{DGE} \right|_{DGEH} \int_{DGEH} \int_{HK} \left| \int_{HJK} \right|_{HJK}$$

Therefore is the maximum integral and IADHMF is the corresponding IADHMF trajectory.

This procedure may be summarized as follows: To determine the trajectory which makes the integral given by equation (2.44) a maximum, start at the initial point I and proceed so that the subdomains $\omega > 0$ are on the left and subdomains where $\omega < 0$ arc on the right. This means the trajectories will be either on the boundary of the domain or on the arc $\omega = 0$. The procedure for minimizing the integral is just the opposite. Hence, the minimizing trajectory is IDAMHF. The singular arcs are those where $\omega = 0$. The nonsingular arcs are those where $\varepsilon(x_1, x_2) = 0$.

When comparing trajectories using the above procedure, it is assumed that the admissible control functions are able to generate the trajectories, including the singular arc $\omega = 0$. When constructing the domain and its boundary $\varepsilon(x_1, x_2) = 0$, it may not be obvious that the singular arc $\omega = 0$ is not admissible in certain cases.



Figure 2.3

Permissible Domain of Operation

The domain of operation is constructed by determining the intersection of two sets, S_1 and S_2 . The set S_1 is the set of points attainable by admissible controls starting from the central point x_0 . S_2 is the set attainable by admissible controls starting from the final point x_f with time reversed, or equivalently, the set of points from which it is possible to derive x_f using admissible controls. In this domain are found all admissible trajectories.

If, arbitrarily, a trajectory $\omega = 0$ is drawn, it is not obvious that this trajectory can be generated by an admissible control u(t). If it can, then it is a possible candidate for a singular arc. For example, consider the domain shown in Figure 2.4. This domain is associated with the system

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_1 = \mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2 \mathbf{u}$$
 (2.49)

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_2 = \mathbf{x}_2 + \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{u}$$
 (2.50)

$$|\mathbf{u}| \stackrel{<}{=} 1 \tag{2.51}$$



Figure 2.4

Optimal Trajectory Not Along an $\omega = 0$ Arc

The fundamental function $\omega(x_1, x_2)$ associated with various performance criteria can have the form shown. An example is given in [H2]. As is evident from this system, the permissible trajectories emanating from any point in or on the boundary of the domain are confined to angles between -45° and +45°. Hence, when point A is reached, the trajectory continues downward instead of going along $\omega = 0$. If the slope of the line $\omega = 0$ is 1, we have the interesting case where the trajectory is now along $\omega = 0$ and the problem is singular and still "bang-bang". This is because u = +1 along $\omega = 0$.

2.3.2 Determination of Reachable Regions

The Green Theorem Approach necessitates determining regions over which control is possible. Two regions are of interest. The first is the set of states that can be reached, given a class of functions U and initial state $x(t_0) = x_0$. The total set will be called the Reachable set. Related to this set is the set of states that can be reached at time T by use of admissible controls. This set was called the T-Reachable set by Snow [S3]. It should be noted that both the Reachable set and the T-Reachable set are independent of any performance criteria.

The second region of interest is the set of states for which there is an admissible control in U that drives the state to a given final state. This set of states will be called the Controllable Set. Related to this set is the set of states for which there is an admissible control U that drives the state to a given final state in time T. This set is defined as T-Controllable by Snow. The name controllable is related to the concept of controllability, which states that a system is controllable if, given any two states, there is a control which will drive the system from one state to the other in finite time.

In the application of the Green's Theorem Approach, only the character of the Reachable Region and the Controllable Region need be known. The intersection of the Reachable Set and the Controllable Set contain all trajectories from the initial point to the final point.

A method of obtaining the Reachable Set was developed by Snow [S3]. His method is based on the solution of three Hamilton-Jacobi partial

differential equations. The equations are solved by the method of characteristics. The Reachable region is the region bounded by the surfaces $S(x,t) = S(x_0,t_0)$ where S(x,t) represents the solutions of the Hamilton-Jacobi equations.

The method used here will be based on several theorems developed by Hermes and Haynes [H3]. The theorems are directly applicable to Problem 3.2 which will be considered later.

The system to be considered is two dimensional with the control function appearing linearly.

$$\mathbf{\dot{x}}_{1} = \mathbf{f}_{1}(\mathbf{x}_{1}, \mathbf{x}_{2}) + \mathbf{b}_{1}(\mathbf{x}_{1}, \mathbf{x}_{2})\mathbf{u}$$
 $\mathbf{x}_{1}(0) = \mathbf{x}_{10}$ (2.52)

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_{2} = \mathbf{f}_{2}(\mathbf{x}_{1},\mathbf{x}_{2}) + \mathbf{b}_{2}(\mathbf{x}_{1},\mathbf{x}_{2})\mathbf{u}$$
 $\mathbf{x}_{2}(0) = \mathbf{x}_{20}$ (2.53)

The control functional u is a scalar and is in the set of admissible control functions, U.

$$U = \{u; |u(t)| - 1, t \in [0,\infty]\}$$
(2.54)

In the development, the solution of equations (2.52) and (2.53) when a constant control u(t) = α , $-1 \stackrel{<}{=} \alpha \stackrel{<}{=} 1$, is applied is designated as ϕ^{α} .

It is assumed that f_1 , f_2 , b_1 , and b_2 are once continously differentiable in an open, simply connected set $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$. The initial point \mathbf{x}_0 and the final point \mathbf{x}_f are always considered to be in D.

The Reachable Set (set of points which can be attained from x_0) is defined as

$$\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x}_0) \equiv \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^2 : \mathbf{x} = \phi^{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{x}_0), \mathbf{u} \in \mathbf{U}\}$$
(2.55)
The Controllable Set, (set of points from which x can be attained in a f finite time), is defined as

$$\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x}_{f}) \equiv \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{2} : \mathbf{x} = \phi^{\mathbf{u}} (-\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{x}_{f}), \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{U}\}$$
(2.56)

The relationship between the T-Controllable Region for a given system and the T-Reachable Region for the system with time reversed is developed by Snow [S3], who shows that if the system is described by n first order equations, the T-Reachable Region for the forward time equation is precisely the same as the $(T-t_0)$ Controllable Region for the reversed time system. This is not true in general for a system described by a single nth-order differential equation.

If a solution to the Optimal Control problem exists the trajectory connecting x_0 to x_f must lie in $R(x_0) \bigcap R(x_f)$.

The following lemmas due to Hermes and Haynes [H3] are the basis for the theorem giving sufficient conditions so that the trajectories ϕ^1 (*, \mathbf{x}_0), $\phi^{-1}(\cdot, \mathbf{x}^0)$, $\phi^1(\cdot, \mathbf{x}_f)$, and ϕ^{-1} (*, \mathbf{x}_f) determine and bound $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x}_0) \bigcap \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x}_f)$.

The following definitions are used in the theorems and lemmas.

 $\Delta(\mathbf{y}) \equiv -\mathbf{b}_2 \ (\mathbf{y}) \ \mathbf{f}_1 \ (\mathbf{y}) + \mathbf{b}_1 \ (\mathbf{y}) \ \mathbf{f}_2 \ (\mathbf{y}) \qquad \mathbf{y} \in \mathbf{D}$ (2.57)

 $\theta(\alpha, y)$ is the angle traced out by the ray ε (σ , y) as σ varies continuously from -1 to α .

The vector ε is defined as,

$$\varepsilon(\sigma, \mathbf{y}) \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{f}_1(\mathbf{y}) + \mathbf{b}_1(\mathbf{y}) \alpha \\ \mathbf{f}_2(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{b}_2(\mathbf{y}) \alpha \end{bmatrix}$$
(2.58)

The possible directions which solution trajectories can assume at a point y in the two-dimensional space are given by the vector $\varepsilon(\sigma, y)$.

Lemma 2.1

If Δ (y) \neq 0, the set { ε (α ,y) : $|\alpha| \leq |$ } of possible directions is bounded by $\varepsilon(-1,y)$ and $\varepsilon(1,y)$ with $0 < |\theta(1,y)| < \Pi$.

This lemma implies that the set of possible trajectory directions at X_0 are confined to an angle of less than or equal to π .

The next lemma shows that if the angle $\theta(1,\phi^1(t,x_0))$ is observed as t increases from zero, the condition $\Delta(\phi^1(t,x_0)) \neq 0$ will not change.

Similarly $\Delta(\phi^{-1}(t,x_0) \neq 0$ implies that the sign of $\phi(1,\phi^{-1}(t,x_0))$ will not change. As expected, all trajectories are confined to a region bounded by $\phi^1(\cdot,x_0)$ and $\phi^{-1}(\cdot,x_0)$.

Lemma 2.2

Let $\gamma(\sigma)$, $\sigma_0 \leq \sigma \leq \sigma_f$, be a continuous curve in D along which $\Delta(\gamma(\sigma)) \neq 0$; then signum $\theta(1, \gamma(\sigma))$ is invariant along the curve. Thus all possible trajectories are bounded by $\phi^1(\cdot, x_0)$ and $\phi^{-1}(\cdot, x_0)$ and are contained in an angle less than or equal to π .

Similar statements can be made about x_f.

In order to insure the existence of solutions to (2.52), (2.53), and (2.54) joining x_0 to x_f , the following conditions are imposed. <u>Condition 2.1</u> Either $\Gamma(x_0)$ or $\Gamma(x_f)$ properly separates D, where

$$\Gamma(\mathbf{x}_{0}) \equiv \{\phi^{1}(\mathbf{t},\mathbf{x}_{0}): \mathbf{t} \in T(1,\mathbf{x}_{0})\} \bigcup \{\phi^{-1}(\mathbf{t},\mathbf{x}_{0}): \mathbf{t} \in T(-1,\mathbf{x}_{0}), \mathbf{t} > 0\}$$

$$\Gamma(\mathbf{x}_{f}) \equiv \{\phi^{-1}(-\mathbf{t},\mathbf{x}_{f}): \mathbf{t} \in T(1,\mathbf{x}_{f})\} \bigcup \{\phi^{-1}(-\mathbf{t},\mathbf{x}_{f}): \mathbf{t} \in T(-1,\mathbf{x}_{f}), \mathbf{t} > 0\}$$

and there exist t_1 , t_2 , t_3 , $t_4 > 0$ such that

i)
$$\phi^{1}(t_{1},x_{0}) = \phi^{-1}(-t_{2},x_{f})$$

ii) $\phi^{-1}(t_{1},x_{0}) = \phi^{1}(-t_{4},x_{f})$
iii) The trajectory arcs $\phi^{1}(t,x_{0}), 0 \leq t \leq t_{1};$
 $\phi^{-1}(t,x_{0}), 0 \leq t \leq t_{3}; \phi^{1}(-t,x_{f}), 0 \leq t \leq t_{4};$
 $\phi^{-1}(-t,x_{f}), 0 \leq t \leq t_{2}, \text{ all lie in D}$
iv) $\Delta(x) \neq 0$ in the set $\Gamma(x_{0})$ or $\Gamma(x_{f})$ which properly
separates D

Theorem 2.1 If a problem satisfies Condition 2.1 and $\Delta(y) \neq 0$ for

$$\mathbf{y} \in \mathbf{S}$$
, then $\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x}_0) \bigcap \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x}_f)$

Summarizing, Theorem 2.1, provides a rigorous basis for the determination of the region containing all the admissible trajectories. It also shows that this region is bounded by trajectories resulting from application of "bang-bang" control signals.

2.4 The Second Variation Approach

This section will present equations for minimality of singular arcs over a finite time interval. Special control variations are used to obtain a second variation test for singular arcs. The approach is based on the work of Kopp, Kelly, and Moyer [K2], [K3].

Consider the system of differential equations and boundary conditions

$$\dot{x}_{i} = f_{i}(x_{i}, \dots, x_{n}, u_{i}, \dots, u_{r}, t) \qquad i = 1, 2, \dots, n \qquad (2.59)$$

$$x_{i}(t_{0}) = x_{i0} \qquad i = 1, \dots, n \qquad (2.60)$$

$$x_{i}(T) = x_{if} \qquad i = 1, \dots, m(m \le n) \qquad (2.61)$$

The cost functional to be minimized will be formulated in the Mayer form of the calculus of variation, i.e., minimize

$$J(\mathbf{x}_{m+1}(T), \dots, \mathbf{x}_{n}(T), T)$$
 (2.62)

Although the minimization is also subject to constraints on the controls, i.e., $|u| \leq 1$, these constraints will present no difficulty since the control corresponding to a singular arc is usually interior to the boundary of U.

Therefore, in the development that follows, u will be considered to be in the interior of the class of admissible controls U.

The Hamiltonian is defined as

$$H = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i f_i$$
(2.63)

Introduce the auxiliary vector p_i(t). This turns out to be the adjoint or costate vector and is defined by the following differential equations and boundary conditions,

$$\dot{\mathbf{p}}_{\mathbf{i}} = -\sum_{\mathbf{j}=\mathbf{i}}^{\mathbf{n}} \mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{i}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{\mathbf{j}}}{\partial \mathbf{i}} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{i}}}$$
 $\mathbf{i} = 1, \dots, \mathbf{n}$ (2.64)

$$\mathbf{p}_{i}(\mathbf{T}) = \frac{\partial \mathbf{J}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{if}} \qquad i = m+1,...,n \qquad (2.65)$$

Necessary conditions for P to be a minimum are that the Hamiltonian be a minimum for all admissible controls,

$$H(u_1^{*} + \Delta u_1, \dots, u_r^{*} + \Delta u_r) \geq H(u_1^{*}, \dots, u_r^{*})$$
(2.66)

Asterix denotes the optimal controls.

Singular subarcs occur when the matrix H_{uu} , with typical element $\frac{\partial H}{\partial u}$, is singular over a finite interval of time.

Emphasis will be on the case in which a single variable appears linearly in the system equation as in the vehicle braking problem.

The total variation in the cost functional J[u] due to a variation in the vector u is

$$\Delta J = \sum_{i=m+1}^{n} \frac{\partial J}{\partial x_{if}} \Delta x_{if} + \frac{l_2}{2} \sum_{i=m+1}^{n} \sum_{j=m+1}^{n} \frac{\partial^2 J(x_f + \partial \Delta x_f)}{\partial x_{if} \partial x_{jf}} \Delta x_{if} \Delta x_{jb}$$
(2.67)

where $0 \leq \theta \leq 1$.

Consider the case where the end points are fixed. Then, due to a change Δu away from the optimal u^* ,

$$\Delta \dot{x}_{i} = f_{i}(x^{*} + \Delta x, u^{*} + \Delta u, t) - f_{i}(x^{*}, u^{*}, t) \qquad i=1,...,n \qquad (2.68)$$

$$\Delta x_{i}(t_{0}) = 0 \qquad i=1,...,n \qquad (2.69)$$

Consider the equation

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i} \Delta \dot{x}_{i} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i} [f_{i} (x + \Delta x, u + \Delta u, t) - f_{i} (x, u, t)]$$
(2.71)

Using the Hamiltonian in equation (2.71),

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i} \Delta \dot{x}_{i} = H(x^{+} \Delta x, u^{+} \Delta u, t) - H(x^{+}, u^{+}, t)$$
(2.72)

Now consider

$$\frac{d}{dt} \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i \Delta x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i \Delta \dot{x}_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i \Delta x_i$$
(2.73)

Multiplying through by dt and integrating,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i} \Delta x_{i} \begin{vmatrix} t_{f} \\ t_{0} \end{vmatrix} = \int_{t_{0}}^{t_{f}} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i} \Delta \dot{x}_{i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i} \Delta x_{i} \right] dt \qquad (2.74)$$

Due to the boundary conditions

$$\sum_{i=n+1}^{n} \frac{\partial_{J}}{\partial x_{if}} = \int_{t_{0}}^{t_{f}} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i} [f_{i}(x^{*}+\Delta x, u^{*}+\Delta u, t) - f_{i}(x^{*}, u^{*}, t)] - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial H}{\partial x_{i}} (x^{*}, u^{*}, t) \Delta x_{i} \right\} dt \qquad (2.75)$$

Using Taylor's expansion, and substituting the Hamiltonian,

$$\sum_{i=m+1}^{n} \frac{\partial J}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{if}} \Delta \mathbf{x}_{if} = \int_{t_0}^{t_f} [H(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{u}^* + \Delta \mathbf{u}, t) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{x}_i}(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{u}^* + \Delta \mathbf{u}, t) \Delta \mathbf{x}_i]$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial \mathbf{x}_i \partial \mathbf{x}_j} (\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{x}^*, + \theta \Delta \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}^* + \Delta \mathbf{u}, t) \Delta \mathbf{x}_i \Delta \mathbf{x}_j$$

$$- H(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{u}^*, t) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{x}_i}(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{u}^*, t) \Delta \mathbf{x}_i] dt \qquad (2.76)$$

Substituting (2.76) into (2.67) the total variation due to a variation in control vector u is as follows:

$$\Delta J = \int_{t_0}^{t_f} \left[H(x^*, u^* + \Delta u, t) - H(x^*, u^*, t) \right] dt$$

$$+ \int_{t_0}^{t_f} \left[\frac{\partial H}{\partial x_i}(p, x^*, u^* + u, t) - \frac{\partial H}{\partial x_i}(p, x^*, u^*, t) \right] \Delta x_i dt$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} \int \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(p, x^* + \theta \Delta x, u^* + \Delta u, t) \Delta x_i \Delta x_j dt$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial^2 J(x_f + \theta \Delta x, t)}{\partial x_i \partial x_j dt} \Delta x_i \int_{t_0}^{t_f} \Delta x_i \int_{t_0}^{t$$

At this point, assume that the control U appears linearly in the system equation (2.59). The control will then also appear linearly in the Hamiltonian. When the first integral of (2.77) is expanded using the Taylor expansion, the $\frac{\partial^2 H}{\partial u^2}$ term will vanish because the Hamiltonian is linear in u.

Hence, minimality cannot be established. Therefore, to obtain additional necessary conditions, further inspection of the second order terms is required. The classical derivation of the Legendre necessary condition was obtained by employing a special derivation in conjunction with the second variation [G1]. The second variation for the present case is obtained from Kelley. Letting $\Delta u = K\delta x$, the second variation is

$$\Delta J_{2} = K^{2} \int_{t_{0}}^{t_{f}} \frac{\partial^{2} H}{\partial x_{1} \partial u} (x^{*}, u^{*}, t) \, \delta x_{1} \delta u \, dt + \frac{K^{2}}{2} \int_{t_{0}}^{t_{f}} \frac{n}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{\partial H}{\partial x_{1} \partial x_{j}} (x^{*}, u^{*}, t) \, \Delta x_{1} \, \Delta x_{j} \, dt + \frac{K^{2}}{2} \int_{J=1}^{n} \frac{n}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial J(x^{*}, t)}{\partial x_{if} \, \partial x_{if}} \, \delta x_{if} \, \delta x_{i$$

The first and second control variations used by Kelly, Kopp, and Moyer are shown in Figure 2.5.



Figure 2.5

a) First special control variation b) Second control variation

The first special control variation is designated as $\phi_0'(t,\tau)$. The time t=0 is the center of an interval 2τ , and may occur at any interior point of the singular subarc. The parameter τ will approach zero in the limit.

In minimizing J_2 , the constraint equations are

$$\delta \mathbf{x}_{i} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{\partial f_{j}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{t})}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{j}} \quad \delta \mathbf{x}_{j} + \frac{\partial f_{j}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{t})}{\partial \mathbf{u}} \quad \delta \mathbf{u}$$
(2.79)

Letting

$$\mathbf{A}_{1,1} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{j}}{\partial \mathbf{u}} = \frac{\partial^{2} \mathbf{H}}{\partial \mathbf{p} \partial \mathbf{u}}$$
(2.82)

$$A_{i,2} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{\partial f_{i}}{\partial x_{j}} A_{j,1} = A_{i,1}$$
(2.83)

or

$$\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{i},2} = \sum_{\mathbf{j=1}}^{n} \frac{\partial^{2} \mathbf{H}}{\partial \mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{i}} \partial \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{j}}} \mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{j},1} - \mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{i},1}$$
(2.84)

the necessary condition obtained by Kelly, Kopp, and Moyer for the singular arc to be minimizing is

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{dt} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial^{2}H}{\partial u \partial x_{i}} A_{i,2} \right] + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial^{2}H}{\partial u \partial x_{i}} A_{i,2} - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{\partial^{2}H}{\partial x_{i} \partial x_{j}} A_{i,1} A_{j,1} \leq 0$$
(2.85)

An equivalent and more compact form is due to Robbins [R1]

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial u} \left(\frac{d^2}{dt^2} \frac{\partial H}{\partial u} \right) \leq 0$$
 (2.86)

The equality part of the sign in the conditions (2.85) and (2.86) means that the conditions are met marginally and the nature of the extremal is still undetermined. Hence, it is necessary to proceed to the second special variation, and so on. Using the Robbins form, the second special variation leads to

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial u} \left(\frac{d^4}{dt}, \frac{\partial H}{\partial u} \right) \ge 0$$
(2.87)

The general form of the necessary condition is

$$(-1)^{k} \frac{\partial}{\partial u} \left(\frac{d^{2}k}{dt^{2}k} \frac{\partial H}{\partial u} \right) \ge 0$$
 (2.88)

where k is a positive integer.

CHAPTER III TIME OPTIMAL SINGULAR CONTROL

3.1 Maximum Principle Approach

The problem to be considered is a time optimal problem where it is desired to drive x_0 to 0 in minimum time. Consider the system equations of Problem 3.1.

Singular Bang-Bang Time Optimal Control Problem

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_{1}(t) = f_{1}[\mathbf{x}_{1}(t), \mathbf{x}_{2}(t)] + b_{1}u \qquad \mathbf{x}_{1}(0) = \mathbf{x}_{10}$$
 (3.1)

$$\dot{x}_{2}(t) = f_{2}[x_{1}(t), x_{2}(T)] + b_{2}u \qquad x_{2}(0) = x_{20}$$
 (3.2)

 b_1 and b_2 are constant and u is a scalar

This is the Mayer form H[6], if we minimize $x_0(T)$ where

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_0(t) = 1$$
 $\mathbf{x}_0(0) = 0$ (3.3)

The control will be constrained to

$$0 \leq u \leq 1 \tag{3.4}$$

Again dropping the arguments for notational convenience, the Hamiltonian is

$$\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{p}_0 + \mathbf{p}_1 \mathbf{f}_1 + \mathbf{p}_1 \mathbf{b}_1 \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{p}_2 \mathbf{f}_2 + \mathbf{p}_2 \mathbf{b}_2 \mathbf{u}$$
(3.5)

The costate equations are

. .

$$\mathbf{p}_0 = 0 \tag{3.6}$$

$$-\dot{\mathbf{p}}_1 = \mathbf{p}_1 \frac{1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} + \mathbf{p}_2 \frac{2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1}$$
(3.7)

$$\dot{\mathbf{p}}_2 = \mathbf{p}_2 \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} + \mathbf{p}_2 \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2}$$
 (3.8)

Minimizing H with respect to u yields

$$\frac{\partial H}{\partial u} = p_1 b_1 + p_2 b_2 = 0$$
 (NC1) (3.9)

Again, since we are interested in singular arcs, u is assumed to be in the interior of its allowed region and $\partial H/\partial u$ is assumed to exist. Since H = 0, and P₀ = 1, (This is permissible since P₀ functions only as a scale factor).

$$1 + p_1 f_1 + p_2 f_2 = 0$$
 (NC2) (3.10)

Differentiating (3.9)

$$\dot{\mathbf{p}}_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \dot{\mathbf{p}}_2 \mathbf{b}_2 = 0$$
 (NC3) (3.11)

$$\mathbf{b}_{1}(\mathbf{p}_{1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{1}} + \mathbf{p}_{2} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{2}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{1}}) + \mathbf{b}_{2}(\mathbf{p}_{1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{2}} + \mathbf{p}_{2} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{2}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{2}}) = 0$$
(3.12)

Differentiating (3.10)

$$\mathbf{p}_{1}\left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{1}} \dot{\mathbf{x}}_{1} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{2}} \dot{\mathbf{x}}_{2}\right) + \mathbf{f}_{1}\dot{\mathbf{p}}_{1} + \mathbf{p}_{2}\left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{2}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{1}} \dot{\mathbf{x}}_{1} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{2}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{2}} \dot{\mathbf{x}}_{2}\right) + \mathbf{f}_{2}\dot{\mathbf{p}}_{2} = 0$$
(3.13)

Replacing x and p,

$$\mathbf{p}_{1}\left[\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{1}}\left(\mathbf{f}_{1}+\mathbf{b}_{1}\mathbf{u}\right)+\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{2}}\left(\mathbf{f}_{2}+\mathbf{b}_{2}\mathbf{u}\right)\right]-\mathbf{f}_{1}\left(\mathbf{p}_{1}\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{1}}+\mathbf{p}_{2}\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{2}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{1}}\right)+\\\mathbf{p}_{2}\left[\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{1}}\left(\mathbf{f}_{1}+\mathbf{b}_{1}\mathbf{u}\right)+\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{2}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{2}}\left(\mathbf{f}_{2}+\mathbf{b}_{2}\mathbf{u}\right)\right]-\mathbf{f}_{2}\left(\mathbf{p}_{1}\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{1}}+\mathbf{p}_{2}\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{2}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{2}}\right)=0$$
(3.14)

From (3.11) the coefficient of u is zero while the remaining

terms cancel out. Hence (3.11) is the third necessary condition.

$$\mathbf{p}_1(\mathbf{b}_1 \ \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} + \mathbf{b}_2 \ \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2}) + \mathbf{p}_2 \ (\mathbf{b}_1 \ \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} + \mathbf{b}_2 \ \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2}) = 0 \quad (NC4) \ (3.15)$$

This necessary condition appears as row 3 of equation(2.39), i.e.,

$$\mathbf{p}_1 \mathbf{a}_{11} + \mathbf{p}_2 \mathbf{a}_{12} = \mathbf{0}$$
 (a₁₀ = 0) (3.16)

where

.

$$\mathbf{a}_{11} = \mathbf{b}_1 \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} + \mathbf{b}_2 \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2}$$
(3.17)

$$\mathbf{a}_{12} = \mathbf{b}_1 \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} + \mathbf{b}_2 \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2}$$
(3.18)

Differentiation of this equation will yield additional information.

$$\mathbf{p}_{1} \dot{\mathbf{a}}_{11} + \dot{\mathbf{p}}_{111} + \mathbf{p}_{212} \dot{\mathbf{a}}_{212} = 0$$
(3.19)

$$\dot{\mathbf{a}}_{11} = \mathbf{b}_1 \left(\frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1^2} \, \dot{\mathbf{x}}_1 + \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1 \partial \mathbf{x}_2} \, \dot{\mathbf{x}}_2 + \mathbf{b}_2 \left(\frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2 \partial \mathbf{x}_1} \, \dot{\mathbf{x}}_1 + \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2^2} \, \dot{\mathbf{x}}_2 \right)$$
(3.20)

$$\dot{\mathbf{a}}_{11} = (\mathbf{b}_1 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1^2} + \mathbf{b}_2 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2 \partial \mathbf{x}_1})(\mathbf{f}_1 + \mathbf{b}_1 \mathbf{u}) + (\mathbf{b}_1 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1 \partial \mathbf{x}_2} + \mathbf{b}_2 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1^2})(\mathbf{f}_2 + \mathbf{b}_2 \mathbf{u})$$
(3.21)

$$\dot{\mathbf{a}}_{12} = (\mathbf{b}_1 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1^2} + \mathbf{b}_2 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2 \partial \mathbf{x}_1})(\mathbf{f}_1 + \mathbf{b}_1 \mathbf{u}) + (\mathbf{b}_1 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1 \partial \mathbf{x}_1} + \mathbf{b}_2 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2^2})(\mathbf{f}_2 + \mathbf{b}_2 \mathbf{u})$$
(3.22)

Substituting in (3.19) the following result is obtained,

$$\sum_{i=0}^{2} \sum_{j=0}^{2} \sum_{k=0}^{2} (-b_{j}p_{i}\frac{\partial f_{k}}{\partial x_{j}}\frac{\partial f_{i}}{\partial x_{k}} + b_{j}f_{k}\frac{\partial^{2}f_{i}}{x_{k}\partial x_{j}} + ub_{j}b_{k}\frac{\partial^{2}f_{i}}{x_{k}\partial x_{j}}) = 0$$
(3.23)

In the general case the upper summation limit would be n.

It is possible to solve this equation for the control u. To be more specific consider the determination of the singular arc for, Problem 2.2. Singular Bang Bang Time Optimel Control

$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_1 = \mathbf{f}_1$	$x_1(0) = x_{10}$	(3.24)

$$\dot{x}_2 = f_2 + b_2 u$$
 $x_2(0) = x_{20}$ $b_2 = constant$ (3.25)
 $\dot{x}_0 = 1$ $x_3(0) = 0$ (3.26)

Since $b_1 = 0$, NC1 implies $p_2 = 0$ on the singular. NC3 implies $\dot{p}_2 = 0$

NC2 implies
$$p_1 f_1 = -1$$

NC4 implies $p_1 \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} = 0$
This implies that $p_1 = 0$ or $\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} = 0$

The condition $p_1 = 0$ would contradict NC2 which requires that H = 0on the optimal trajectory. Hence NC4 implies that $\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} = 0$. Substituting necessary conditions in (3.19) rather than the more formidable (3.23),

$$\mathbf{f}_1 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2 \partial \mathbf{x}_1} + (\mathbf{f}_2 + \mathbf{b}_2 \mathbf{u}) \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2^2} = 0$$
(3.27)

on the singular arc. The optimal control is synthesized as

$$\mathbf{u} = -\frac{\mathbf{f}_1 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2 \partial \mathbf{x}_1} + \mathbf{f}_2 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2}}{\mathbf{b}_2 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2^2}}$$
(3.28)

For a practical case to be considered later, it will be convenient to consider

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} = -\frac{\mathbf{x}_2}{\mathbf{x}_1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2}$$
(3.29)

and

$$\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} = -\frac{\mathbf{x}_2}{\mathbf{x}_1} \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2}$$
(3.30)

This modified version of Problem 3.2 shall be designated as Problem 3.2M.

Differentiating with respect to x_2 and taking advantage of the necessary condition $\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} = 0$ on the singular arc, $\frac{\partial^2 f_1^{\partial x_2}}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} = -\frac{x_2}{x_1} \frac{\partial^2 f_1}{\partial x_2^2}$ (3.31) Substituting this in (3.28) gives the optimal control function for this case as

$$\mathbf{u} = \left(\frac{\mathbf{x}_2}{\mathbf{x}_1} \mathbf{f}_1 - \mathbf{f}_2\right) / \mathbf{b}_2$$
(3.32)

This control function can be shown to be a constant. Differentiate (3.32) with respect to time.

$$\mathbf{b}_{2} \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{d\mathbf{t}} = \frac{\mathbf{x}_{2}}{\mathbf{x}_{1}} \left[\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{1}} \mathbf{f}_{1} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{2}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{2}} (\mathbf{f}_{2} + \mathbf{b}_{2}\mathbf{u}) \right] + \frac{\mathbf{f}_{1}}{\mathbf{x}_{1}^{2}} \left[\mathbf{x}_{1} (\mathbf{f}_{2} + \mathbf{b}_{2}\mathbf{u}) - \mathbf{x}_{2}\mathbf{f}_{1} \right] - \left[\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{2}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{1}} \mathbf{f}_{1} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{2}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{2}} (\mathbf{f}_{2} + \mathbf{b}_{2}\mathbf{u}) \right]$$
(3.33)

From (3.29) and the necessary condition $\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} = 0$, and assuming x, $\neq 0$,

$$b_{2} \frac{du}{dt} = \frac{f_{1}}{x_{1}^{2}} (x_{1} \cdot \frac{x_{2}}{x_{1}} f_{1} - x_{2} f_{1}) - (\frac{\partial f_{2}}{\partial x_{1}} f_{1} + \frac{\partial f_{2}}{\partial x_{2}} \cdot \frac{x_{2}}{x_{1}} f_{1})$$
(3.34)

Finally using (3.30)

$$\frac{du}{dt} = 0 \qquad b_2 \neq 0 \tag{3.35}$$

Therefore the singular control for this problem is a constant.

3.1.2 Closed Loop System Control

The problem of determining the optimal control as a function of the state of the system is called the <u>closed loop</u> problem. On the singular arc, (3.32) provides this information for the modified problem 3.2M. Equation (3.28) would be required for Problem 3.2. A block diagram for Problem 3.2M will be shown. As (3.28) indicates, three additional function generators would be required to implement Problem 3.2.





Closed Loop System On Singular Arc

When operating on a nonsingular arc, the control as given by (2.19) and applied to Problem 3.2M is,

$$u^{(t)} = - \operatorname{sgn} b_2 p_2(t)$$
 (3.36)

The costate equations for Problem 3.1M are

.

$$\dot{\mathbf{p}} = \mathbf{0}$$
 (3.37)

$$-\dot{\mathbf{p}}_{1} = \mathbf{p}_{1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{1}} + \mathbf{p}_{2} \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}_{2}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{1}}$$
(3.38)

$$-\dot{\mathbf{p}}_{2} = \mathbf{p}_{1} \frac{\partial f_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{2}} + \mathbf{p}_{2} \frac{\partial f_{2}^{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{2}}$$
(3.39)

The costate equations require four function generators for Problem 3.1. In Problem 3.1M,

since,

$$\dot{\mathbf{p}}_1 = \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2} \left(\mathbf{p}_1 \; \frac{\mathbf{x}_2}{\mathbf{x}_1} \right) + \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2} \left(\mathbf{p}_2 \; \frac{\mathbf{x}_2}{\mathbf{x}_1} \right)$$
(3.40)

$$-\dot{\mathbf{p}}_{2} = \mathbf{p}_{1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{2}} + \mathbf{p}_{2} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{2}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{2}}$$
(3.41)

The block diagram which applies for Problem 3.1M when operating on the nonsingular arc is then given by Figure 3.2.



Figure 3.2

Portion of Closed Loop System on Nonsingular Arc

The complete closed loop system which functions on the complete trajectory requires a decision element to switch u to either the singular control u or the nonsingular control u .



The decision element must operate according to the logic demanded by the necessary conditions. If the system is on a nonsingular arc, then it shold transfer to the singular arc.

$$u = u_g \text{ if } p_2 = 0 \quad \dot{p}_2 = 0 \tag{3.42}$$

$$u = u_{ns}$$
 otherwise (3.43)

3.2.1 Green's Theorem Approach

Determination of singular and nonsingular arcs associated with the time optimal problem is considered. The system constraints are:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_1 = \mathbf{f}_1(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) + \mathbf{b}_1 \mathbf{u}$$
 (3.44)

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_2 = \mathbf{f}_2(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) + \mathbf{b}_2 \mathbf{u}$$
 (3.45)

$$0 \leq u(t) \leq 1 \qquad 0 \leq t \leq T \qquad (3.46)$$

Since the functional to be minimized is,

$$J[u] = \int_0^T dt \qquad (3.47)$$

it will be necessary to put this in the form of equation (2.44).

Since the procedure basically eliminates u(t) from the equations, it is only necessary to find a vector orthogonal to the column vector $b = [b_1 \ b_2]^T$. In this case, we may use $[-b_2 \ b_1]^T$ as the orthogonal column vector. Multiplying through by $[-b_2 \ b_1]$ and solving for dt, equation (3.47) becomes

$$J[u] = \int_{x_{10}, x_{20}}^{x_1, x_2} \frac{b_1 dx_2 - b_2 dx_1}{b_1 f_2 - b_2 f_1}$$
(3.48)

The fundamental function $\omega(x_1, x_2)$ is

$$\omega(\mathbf{x}_1,\mathbf{x}_2) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2} \left(-\frac{\mathbf{b}_2}{\mathbf{b}_1\mathbf{f}_2 - \mathbf{b}_2\mathbf{f}_1}\right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} \left(\frac{\mathbf{b}_1}{\mathbf{b}_1\mathbf{f}_2 - \mathbf{b}_2\mathbf{f}_1}\right)$$
(3.49)

$$\omega(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = \frac{\mathbf{b}_2(\mathbf{b}_1 \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2} - \mathbf{b}_2 \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2}) + \mathbf{b}_1(\mathbf{b}_1 \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} - \mathbf{b}_2 \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1})}{(\mathbf{b}_1 \mathbf{f}_2 - \mathbf{b}_2 \mathbf{f}_1)^2}$$
(3.50)

Since $\omega(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = 0$ is of primary interest, we obtain the condition on the singular arc as,

$$b_1 b_2 \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} - b_2^2 \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} + b_1^2 \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} - b_1 b_2 \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} = 0$$
(3.51)
$$(b_2 f_2 - b_2 f_1) \neq 0$$

In Problem 3.2, $b_1 = 0$, therefore a necessary condition for singular arc is

$$\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} = 0 \tag{3.52}$$

This same result was also obtained by the Maximum Principle Approach. The necessary conditions involving the costate variables will not appear, since they are not present in the Green Theorem approach. A comparison of the necessary conditions for Problem 3.1 using both approaches is shown as follows:

Maximum Principle Approach

- NC1 $p_1b_1 + p_2b_2 = 0$
- NC2 $1 + p_1 f_1 + p_2 f_2 = 0$

NC3
$$\dot{p}_1 b_1 + \dot{p}_2 b_2 = 0$$

NC4
$$p_1(b_1 \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} + b_2 \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2}) + p_2(b_1 \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} + b_2 \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2}) = 0$$

Necessary condition for singular arcs for Problem 3.1 Green's Theorem Approach

NC1
$$b_1b_2 \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} - b_2^2 \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} + b_1^2 \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} - b_1b_2 \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} = 0$$

It is evident that NCl of the Green's Theorem Approach is obtainable by eliminating the costate variables from NCl and NC4 for the Maximum Principle Approach. Hence the necessary conditions of the Maximum Principle Approach imply the necessary condition of the Green Theorem Approach.

3.2.2 Problem 3.3 Singular Pang-Pang Time Optimal Control

The previous problems involved controls that were bounded. In the next case the control signal will be rate limited in addition to being magnitude limited. Consider the following system equations,

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_1(\mathbf{t}) = \mathbf{f}_1(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2)$$
 (3.53)

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_{2}(t) = \mathbf{f}_{2}(\mathbf{x}_{1},\mathbf{x}_{2}) + \mathbf{g}_{2}\mathbf{u}, \qquad 0 \le |\mathbf{u}| \le 1$$
 (3.54)

$$\dot{x}_{3}(t) = \dot{u} = v$$
 $|\dot{u}| \le 1$ (3.55)

By letting $u = x_3$, the order of the state equations has been increased to three. Also x_3 may now be a bounded state variable. These complications are compensated for by having a control signal which is only magnitude limited. In a practical case to be considered later there is only rate limiting. This will be designated in Problem 3.3M and will be considered using both the Maximum Principle Approach and the Green Theorem Approach.

Since the general expression is long, the necessary conditions for singular control will be obtained by going to the basic equations directly. The process will be as before; to repeatedly differentiate until no further information is obtainable.

For the time optimal program we again introduce

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_0 = 1$$
 $\mathbf{x}_0(0) = 0$ (3.56)

The Hamiltonian is, again letting $p_0 = 1$,

$$H = 1 + p_1 f_1 + p_2 f_2 + p_2 g_2 x_3 + p_3 v$$
 (3.57)

For the nonsingular trajectories, $v = -sgn p_3$ minimizes H. For the singular case, we obtain the first necessary condition

$$p_3 = 0$$
 (NC1) (3.58)

If we write the costate equations,

$$\dot{\mathbf{p}}_0 = \mathbf{0} \qquad \mathbf{p}_0 = \mathbf{1}$$
 (3.59)

$$-\dot{\mathbf{p}}_{1} = \mathbf{p}_{1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{1}} + \mathbf{p}_{2} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{2}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{1}}$$
(3.60)

$$-\dot{\mathbf{p}}_{2} = \mathbf{p}_{1} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}_{2} + \mathbf{p}_{2} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{2}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}_{2}$$
(3.61)

$$\dot{\mathbf{p}}_{3} = \mathbf{p}_{2}\mathbf{g}_{2}$$
 (3.62)

Necessary condition, $p_3 = 0$ on the singular arc, implies $\dot{p}_3 = 0$, or equivalently,

$$p_2 = 0, \quad g_2 \neq 0 \quad (NC2) \quad (3.63)$$

This in turn implies, $\dot{p}_2 = 0$. Therefore, from equation (3.61),

$$\mathbf{p}_{1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{2}} = 0 \qquad (NC3) \qquad (3.64)$$

Using equation (3.57), $p_2 = 0$ and $p_3 = 0$, we have on the singular arc,

$$H = 1 + p_{1 1} f_{1}$$
(3.65)

Since H = 0 on the optimal trajectory,

$$\mathbf{p}_1 = -\frac{1}{f_1}$$
 (NC4) (3.66)

Assuming p # 0, necessary condition 3 becomes

$$\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} = 0 \qquad (NC3) \qquad (3.67)$$

This was expected since the projection of the singular arc in the $x_1 - x_2$ plane for this problem should be the same as Problem 3.2.

The value of the control function u on the singular arc is to be determined next.

Differentiating equation (3.65), with respect to time,

$$\mathbf{p}_{1} \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{1}} \dot{\mathbf{x}}_{1} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{2}} \right) + \dot{\mathbf{p}}_{1} \dot{\mathbf{f}}_{1} = 0$$
(3.68)

Substituting for \dot{x}_1 , and \dot{x}_2 and \dot{p}_1 ,

$$\mathbf{p}_{1} \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \mathbf{f}_{1} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \mathbf{f}_{2} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \mathbf{g}_{2} \mathbf{u} \right) - \left(\mathbf{f}_{1} \mathbf{p}_{1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{f}_{1} \mathbf{p}_{2} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_{2}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \right) = 0$$
(3.69)

Using equation (3.71) and (3.63), 0=0.

Thus, no new information was obtained by that approach. Differentiate equation (3.67) with respect to time.

$$\frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1 \partial \mathbf{x}_2} \dot{\mathbf{x}}_1 + \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2^2} \dot{\mathbf{x}}_2 = 0$$
(3.70)

Substituting for $\dot{\mathbf{x}}_1$ and $\dot{\mathbf{x}}_2$, $\frac{\partial^2 f_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1 \partial \mathbf{x}_2} f_1 + \frac{\partial^2 f_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2^2} (f_2 + g_2 u) = 0 \qquad (3.71)$

This equation may be solved for u,

$$\mathbf{u} = - \frac{\frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1 \partial \mathbf{x}_2} \mathbf{f}_1 + \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2^2} \mathbf{f}_2}{\mathbf{g}_2 \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{f}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2^2}}$$
(3.72)

The control signal u (t) for both the singular "bang-bang" case and the singular "pang-pang" control are identical on the singular arc. Assume that $u(t) = x_3(t)$ is in the interior of its allowed region, U. Hence, there is no magnitude limiting of u(t). Equivalently, the state vari= able x_3 is not bounded.

3.2.3 N-Dimensional Singular Control Problems

In the case of Problems where the dimension of the state space is greater than two, the Green's Theorem Approach must be extended. The extension of Green's Theorem from two to three dimensions is the traditional Stoke's Theorem. The generalization to higher dimensions is designated as both the generalized Green's Theorem [H1] and the generalized Stoke's Theorem. The developments are via exterior calculus and differential forms. A brief treatment of differential forms is given in Appendix III.

Consider the differential constraint equation,

$$\dot{x}_{i}(t) = f_{i}(x) + \sum_{j=1}^{r} b_{ij}(x)u_{j}(t)$$
 $i = 1, 2, ..., n$ (3.73)
 $j \leq n-1$

or,

$$\dot{x}(t) = f(x) + B(x)u(t)$$
 (3.74)

In order to transform equation (3.73) into the proper form for application of Green's Theorem, it is necessary to eliminate the $u_j(t)$. Since $j \leq n-1$, an n-dimensional vector, $\Psi(x)$, orthogonal to the columns of B can be found. Hence the inner product

$$(\Psi(x), \dot{x}(t)) = (\Psi(x), f(x))$$
 (3.75)

since

$$(\Psi(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{x})) = 0$$
 (3.76)

Equation (3.75) permits the determination of dt in the functional J[u], where

$$J[u] = \int_{t_0}^{t_f} f_0 dt \qquad (3.77)$$

Hence,

$$J[u] = \int_{x_0}^{x_f} f_0 \frac{(\Psi(x), dx)}{(\Psi(x), f(x))}$$
(3.78)

In the notation and nomenclature forms, equation (3.77) may be written as

$$\mathbf{J}[\mathbf{u}] = \int_{\Gamma} \pi \tag{3.79}$$

where, π is the pfaffian or one-form

$$\pi = f_0 \quad \frac{(\Psi(\mathbf{x}) \cdot d\mathbf{x})}{(\Psi(\mathbf{x}), f(\mathbf{x}))} = \sum_{i}^{n} \alpha \ (\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}_i \qquad (3.80)$$

The generalized Green's Theorem is (see Appendix III)

$$\int_{\mathbf{s}} d\pi = \int_{\Gamma} \pi$$
(3.81)

As in the two dimensional form of Green's Theorem, Γ is a curve from x_0 and x and s is a surface containing the points x_0 and x_1 . The term f d π is called the exterior derivative of π and is the differential two-form defined as,

$$d\pi = \sum_{i,j=1}^{n} \frac{\partial \alpha i}{\partial x j} dx_{j} \wedge dx$$
(3.82)

The exterior multiplication sign Λ is often omitted. An alternate useful form may be obtained by using the rules from differential form theory.

$$dx_{i} \wedge dx_{j} = -dx_{j} \wedge dx_{i}$$
(3.83)

and

$$dx_{i} \wedge dx_{i} = 0 \tag{3.84}$$

then

$$d\pi = \omega_{ij} dx_{i} dx_{j} \qquad i=1,...,n-1 \qquad j=(i+1),...,n \qquad (3.85)$$

where

$$\omega_{ij} = \frac{\partial \alpha_{i}}{\partial x_{i}} - \frac{\partial \alpha_{j}}{\partial x_{i}}$$
(3.86)

In a 3-dimensional case, the exterior derivative given by (3.80) would be written as

$$d\pi = \omega_{12} dx_1 dx_2 + \omega_{13} dx_1 dx_3 + \omega_{23} dx_2 dx_3$$
(3.87)

and

$$\omega_{12} = \frac{\partial \alpha_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2} - \frac{\partial \alpha_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1}$$
(3.88)

$$\omega_{13} = \frac{\partial \alpha_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_3} - \frac{\partial \alpha_3}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1}$$
(3.89)

$$\omega_{23} = \frac{\partial \alpha_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_3} - \frac{\partial \alpha_3}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2}$$
(3.90)

These will be useful in the 3-dimensional case to be considered later.

The procedure for applying Green's Theorem to n-dimensional may be summarized as follows:

- Convert the functional to be minimized to the line integral form by equation (3.79).
- 2) Use equation (3.86) and $\omega_{ij} = 0$ to determine singular hypersurfaces. There are no more than (n-1) independent hypersurfaces. The intersection of hypersurfaces, if it exists, is a singular arc.
- 3) Compare trajectories by using the generalized Green's Theorem as given by equation (3.81). The possibilities of singular arcs must be investigated.

3.3 The Second Variation Approach

The necessary condition of Kelly, Kopp, and Moyer will be applied in **Problem 3.1, the singular "bang-bang" time** optimal control problem.

Using equations (2.82), (2.83) and (2.84)

$$\mathbf{A}_{1,1} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{r}_1}{\partial \mu} = \mathbf{b}_1 \tag{3.91}$$

$$\mathbf{A}_{2,1} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}_2}{\partial \mathbf{u}} = \mathbf{b}_2 \tag{3.92}$$

$$A_{1,2} = \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} A_{1,1} + \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} A_{2,1} - A_{1,1}$$
(3.93)

$$\mathbf{A}_{2,2} = \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} \mathbf{A}_{1,1} + \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2} \mathbf{A}_{2,1} - \mathbf{A}_{2,1}$$
(3.94)

Simplifying equations (3.92) and (3.93)

$$A_{1,2} = b_{1} \frac{\partial f_{1}}{\partial x_{1}} + b_{2} \frac{\partial f_{2}}{\partial x_{2}}$$

$$A_{2,2} = b_{1} \frac{\partial f_{2}}{\partial x_{1}} = b_{2} \frac{\partial f_{2}}{\partial x}$$
(3.95)
(3.96)

The necessary condition for minimality is, using equation (2.85)

$$\frac{\partial^{2} H}{\partial x_{1}^{2}} A_{1}, \frac{\partial^{2} H}{\partial x_{1} \partial x_{2}} (A_{1}, A_{1}, 2 + A_{2}, A_{1}, 1) + \frac{\partial^{2} H}{\partial x_{2}^{2}} A_{2}, \frac{\partial^{2} H}{\partial x_{2}} A_{2}, \frac{\partial$$

Substituting equations (3.95) and (3.96)

$$\mathbf{b}_{1}^{2} \frac{\partial^{2} \mathbf{H}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{1}^{2}} + 2\mathbf{b}_{1}^{2} \mathbf{b}_{2}^{2} \frac{\partial^{2} \mathbf{H}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{2}} + \mathbf{b}_{2}^{2} \frac{\partial^{2} \mathbf{H}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{2}^{2}} \ge 0$$
(3.98)

The Hamiltonian for Problem 3.1 was

$$\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{1} + \mathbf{p}_{1}\mathbf{f}_{1} + \mathbf{p}_{1}\mathbf{b}_{1}\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{p}_{2}\mathbf{f}_{2} + \mathbf{p}_{2}\mathbf{b}_{2}\mathbf{u}$$
(3.99)

Substituting partial derivatives of H into equation (3.98)

$$\mathbf{b}_{1}^{2}(\mathbf{p}_{1}\frac{\partial^{2}\mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial\mathbf{x}_{1}^{2}} + \mathbf{p}_{2}\frac{\partial^{2}\mathbf{f}_{2}}{\partial\mathbf{x}_{1}^{2}}) + 2\mathbf{b}_{1}\mathbf{b}_{2}(\mathbf{p}_{1}\frac{\partial^{2}\mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial\mathbf{x}_{1}\partial\mathbf{x}_{2}} + \mathbf{p}_{2}\frac{\partial^{2}\mathbf{f}_{2}}{\partial\mathbf{x}_{1}\partial\mathbf{x}_{2}}) + \mathbf{b}_{2}^{2}(\mathbf{p}_{1}\frac{\partial^{2}\mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial\mathbf{x}_{2}^{2}} + \mathbf{p}_{2}\frac{\partial^{2}\mathbf{f}_{2}}{\partial\mathbf{x}_{2}^{2}}) \geq 0$$

$$(3.100)$$

This is one form of the necessary condition for minimality along the singular arc. Using the alternate form,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial u} \left(\frac{d^2}{dt^2} \frac{\partial H}{\partial u} \right) \leq 0$$
 (3.101)

since

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial \mathbf{u}} = \mathbf{p}_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \mathbf{p}_2 \mathbf{b}_2 \tag{3.102}$$

The first necessary condition is obtained from equation (3.102) and

$$p_1b_1 + p_2b_2 = 0$$
 (3.103)

and

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2} \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial u}\right) = b_1 \frac{d^2 p_1}{dt^2} + b_2 \frac{d^2 p_2}{dt^2}$$
(3.104)

then substituting expressions for \dot{p}_1 and \dot{p}_2 ,

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2}\left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial u}\right) = -b_1 \frac{d}{dt}\left(p_1 \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} + p_2 \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1}\right) - b_2 \frac{d}{dt}\left(p_1 \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} + p_2 \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2}\right)$$
(3.105)

we obtain

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial u} \frac{d^2}{dt^2} (\frac{\partial H}{\partial u}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial u} - b_1 p_1 \left[\frac{\partial^2 f_1}{\partial x_1^2} (f_1 + b_1 u) + \frac{\partial^2 f_1}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} (f_2 + b_2 u) \right] -$$

$$b_{1}p_{2}\left[\frac{\partial^{2}f_{2}}{\partial x_{1}^{2}}\left(f_{1}+b_{1}u\right)+\frac{\partial^{2}f_{2}}{\partial x_{1}\partial x^{2}}\left(f_{2}+b_{2}u\right)\right] - \\b_{2}p_{1}\left[\frac{\partial^{2}f_{1}}{\partial x_{1}\partial x_{2}}\left(f_{1}+b_{1}u\right)+\frac{\partial^{2}f_{1}}{\partial x_{2}^{2}}\left(p_{2}+b_{2}u\right)\right] - \\b_{2}p_{2}\left[\frac{\partial^{2}f_{2}}{\partial x_{1}\partial x_{2}}\left(f_{1}+b_{1}u\right)+\frac{\partial^{2}f_{2}}{\partial x_{2}^{2}}\left(f_{2}+b_{2}u\right)\right]$$
(3.106)

After taking the partial derivative with respect to u, and using equation (3.101), equation (3.100) is obtained. Although the form $\frac{\partial}{\partial u}(\frac{d^2}{dt^2}, \frac{\partial H}{\partial u})$ is quite compact it nevertheless involves quite a few manipulations. If as indicated previously, the equality applies, it is then necessary to proceed further using equation (2.25).

Using the somewhat simpler Problem 3.2, the necessary condition for minimality along the singular arc is obtained by substituting $b_1 = 0$ in

equation (3.99) and (3.103), then

$$p_2 = 0$$
 NC1 (3.107)

$$\mathbf{p}_{1} \frac{\partial^{2} \mathbf{f}_{1}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{2}^{2}} \quad \mathbf{0} \qquad \mathbf{NC2} \qquad (3.108)$$

Using H = 0, equation (26) gives

$$\mathbf{p}_{1} = -\frac{1}{f_{1}}$$
 NC3 (3.109)

Hence, NC2 can be written as

$$\frac{1}{f_1} \quad \frac{\partial^2 f_1}{\partial x_2^2} \leq 0 \qquad \text{NC2'} \qquad (3.110)$$

CHAPTER 1V OPTIMAL CONTROL OF THE VEHICULAR BRAKING PROCESS

4.1 Introduction

The vehicular braking process to be considered first will consist of a single wheel carrying a body on a flat horizontal surface.

Figure 4.1 and 4.2 show the model used and the pertinent parameters.





Model of One-Wheel System





Figure 4.2

Force and Torque Diagrams

The symbols in the figures are defined as follows:

F b	braking force developed at the tire-surface interface
Fe	external force on the vehicle
F r	reaction force between the body and axle
8	acceleration due to gravity
J	Polar mass moment of inertia of the wheel and associated
	rotating members
М	mass of the vehicle
N	normal force at the tire-surface interface
R	rolling radius of the wheel
т _b	torque exerted on the wheel by the brake
T _r	rolling resistance and bearing friction torque
v	vehicle velocity
μ	coefficient of friction
n,	slip
ė	angular velocity of wheel

As the vehicle moves with velocity v, the wheel runs under slip as it transmits driving, braking, or cornering forces to the surface. Slip is defined as the ratio of effective slip velocity in a specified direction to the forward ground speed of the vehicle. Since braking will be the main concern, slip during braking is defined as

$$\eta = \frac{\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{R}\theta}{\mathbf{v}} \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \le \eta \le 1 \tag{4.1}$$

The so-called "panic stop" usually results in a slip of 1.0, corresponding to zero wheel velocity. The braking force F_b developed at the tire surface interface is due to the friction coefficient μ and is

54

defined as

$$\mathbf{F}_{\mathbf{h}} = \mu \mathbf{N} \tag{4.2}$$

where N is the normal force at the tire-surface interface.

Investigators in the area of tire friction [K13] [N6], have found that the friction characteristic depends on factors such as vehicle velocity, normal load, tire tread pattern, tire inflation pressure, tire temperature, and surface composition. The friction-slip model used in this study is shown in figure 4.3



Figure 4.3

Model of Friction-Slip Characteristic

The selection of this model is based on investigations [F6], [K14], which show that regardless of surface composition, the friction coefficient μ , usually has a peak value and this peak value occurs when the slip is in a range about the 0.15 point. The optimal control for the one wheel model will use minimum time as the optimum criterion. As will be shown in section 4.3.3 this control will also minimize stopping distance. Optimal control theory will show that the control should bring the state of the system to the peak of friction-slip curve and then keep it there. It should be noted that due to the low value of slip, the wheel velocity will be an appreciable fraction of the vehicle velocity. This will also benefit more complex models such as two wheel and four wheel models which are concerned with lateral stability. When one tire of the vehicle is subjected to a different friction characteristic than the opposite tire, a torque tending to rotate or spin the vehicle is developed. When the wheels of the vehicle are rotating, the tendency to spin is reduced and the vehicle has more lateral stability. This problem will be considered in more detail later.

4.2 Development of the System Equations

The differential constraint equations for the optimal control problem are obtained by referring to Figure 4.2.

The normal force N is obtained from the summation of the vertical forces.

$$N = Mg \tag{4.3}$$

The horizontal forces are summed, obtaining,

$$\mathbf{F}_{\mathbf{b}} + \mathbf{F}_{\mathbf{e}} = -\mathbf{M} \frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{v}}{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{t}} \tag{4.4}$$

The external force F_e is neglible with respect to the braking force. Then using the relation (4.2), equation (4.4) becomes dv

$$M \frac{dv}{dt} = -\mu Mg$$
(4.5)

56

$$\dot{\mathbf{v}} = -\mu \mathbf{g} \tag{4.6}$$

Now considering the torques associated with the wheel,

$$\mathbf{F}_{\mathbf{b}}\mathbf{R} - \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{b}} - \mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{r}} = \mathbf{J} \frac{\mathrm{d}\theta}{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{t}}$$
(4.7)

Here the rolling resistance and bearing friction torque are assumed negligible with respect to the brake torque. To make the units of wheel velocity the same as the units of vehicle velocity

equation (4.7) is written as

$$R \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{2}{(\mu MgR - RKP_b)/J} \qquad (4.8)$$

In the above equation F_b is replaced by μ Mg and brake torque is assumed to be linearly related to brake pressure P_b , i.e.,

$$\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{h}} = \mathbf{K}\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{h}} \tag{4.9}$$

Typical values for an equivalent one wheel model are

$$R = 1.1 \text{ ft.}$$

$$Mg = 5000 \text{ lbs.}$$

$$J = 5.0 \text{ ft-lbs/sec.}^{2}$$

$$K = 6.0 \text{ ft-lbs/p.s.i.}$$
Letting $x_{1} = v$ (4.10)
 $x_{2} = R\Theta$ (4.11)

Here the first state vector corresponds to vehicle velocities and the second state vector corresponds to wheel velocity. The differential constraint equation then becomes

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_1 = -32\mu$$
 (4.12)

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_2 = 1210\mu - 1.32P_b$$
 (4.13)

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_2 = 1210\mu - 1584u$$
 (4.14)

The friction coefficient μ is a function of x_1 and x_2 which will be designated state variables.

$$\mu = \mu(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) \tag{4.15}$$

As indicated previously, the friction-slip characteristic has the general shape as shown in Figure 4.3.

This shape will be generated by

$$\mu(\mathbf{x}_{1},\mathbf{x}_{2}) = \mu_{0} \left[e^{-\mathbf{a}(1-\mathbf{x}_{2}/\mathbf{x}_{1})} - e^{-\mathbf{b}(1-\mathbf{x}_{2}/\mathbf{x}_{1})} \right]$$
(4.16)

Recall that the slip is given by

$$n = 1 - x_2 / x_1 \tag{4.17}$$

The factor μ_0 will take into account the surface-tire interface. For example, $\mu_0 = 1$ will correspond an interface having the highest friction coefficient such as concrete, while a low friction surface such as ice may have a value of $\mu_0 = .06$. This function will have a peak of approximately 0.947 μ_0 at a slip of 0.2 when a = 0.225 and b = 23.5. These are values that are used in most of the later computations.

4.3.1 Optimization of the One-Wheel Vehicular Braking Control Model

The problem to be considered is the time optimal regular problem, i.e., take the vehicle from an initial state to the origin in minimum time, subject to the constraints

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_1 = -32 \,\mu \,(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) \qquad \mathbf{x}_1(0) = 60.$$
 (4.18)

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_2 = 1210_{\mu} (\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) - 1584u \qquad \mathbf{x}_2(0) = 60.$$
 (4.19)

$$0 \le u \le 1 \tag{4.20}$$

The function $\mu(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2)$ is given by equation (4.15) with $\mu_0 + 1$, a = .225, and b = 23.5. This problem when stated in real physical terms is: Find the control pressure P(t), constrained to be between zero and 1200 psi, which will stop a given vehicle initially travelling at 60 ft/sec (approximately 40 MPH) in minimum time. It should be noted that there is no limitation on pressure rate in this case. This problem will be labeled Problem 4.1 and will be called the singular "bang-bang" control problem.

This problem fits the format of Problem 3.2, where

$$f_1 = -32\mu \ (x_1, x_2) \tag{4.21}$$

$$f_2 = 1210 \mu (x_1, x_2)$$
 (4.22)

$$\mu = e^{-a(1-x_2/x_1)} e^{-b(1-x_2/x_1)}$$
(4.23)

Any of the methods in Chapter III provide the necessary condition for a singular arc

$$\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2} = 0 \tag{4.24}$$

or,

$$\omega = \frac{a}{x_1} e^{-a(1-x_2/x_1)} - \frac{b}{x_1} e^{-b(1-x_2/x_1)} = 0$$
(4.25)

Solution of this equation gives an equation relating x_1 and x_2 on the singular arc. For the values of the constants used, a linear relation exists,

$$\mathbf{x}_{2} = \mathbf{k}\mathbf{x}_{1}$$
 k is approximately 0.8 (4.26)

This problem is most readily solved using the Green Theorem Approach. The regions which are reachable and controllable are found and their intersection provides the region containing all permissible trajectories from the initial point x_0 to the final point x_f . In order to find the
region containing all the trajectories, Theorem 2.1 is used. If the conditions of Theorem 2.1 are satisfied then the region containing all trajectories from x_{f} to x_{f} are bounded by the four trajectories obtained by solving (4.19) and (4.18) as follows:

- a) starting at x_0 , use u=1 and obtain ϕ .
- b) starting at x_0 , use u=0⁺ and obtain ϕ_0^{0+} .
- c) starting x_f , integrate backwards (reverse time) use u=1, obtain ϕ_f^{1} .

d) starting at x_f , integrate backwards use u>0, obtain ϕ_f^{0+} .

To satisfy the conditions of Theorem 2.1, it was necessary to use u>0 in (b) since u=0 leads to $\dot{x}_1=0$ and $\dot{x}_2=0$ and the Δ condition of Theorem 2.1 is not satisfied. Also it is convenient in this study to use $0 \le u \le 1$ instead of $|u| \le |1$. Theorem 2.1 is applicable in either case, since it is only necessary to change (4.19) to

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_2 = 1210 \ \mu(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) - 752 - 752u \qquad |u| \le 1 \qquad (4.27)$$

The results appear in Figure 4.4



Reachable and Controllable Regions

The singular arc, $\omega=0$, obtained from the necessary condition is also shown in Figure 4.1. We are now ready to apply the Green Theorem Approach. In this problem, ω is positive in the region above the curve $\omega=0$, which is a straight line in this case.

The global optimal trajectory is obtained as follows:

- a) Start at x, keeping the region $\omega < 0$ on the right, proceed to the point where the trajectory intersects the $\omega=0$ line.
- b) Now proceed along the $\omega=0$ line until x_f is reached.

Note that along the $\omega=0$, the region $\omega>0$ is on the right and the region $\omega<0$ is on the left. Also, if the final point x_f was not on the curve $\omega=0$ the procedure would be the same except that a boundary of the region containing the admissible trajectories would be reached before x_f is reached. Traversing the boundary keeping $\omega>0$ on the right or $\omega<0$ on the left would then ultimately terminate the trajectory at x_f . Figure 4.5 shows a case where $x_f=(a,0)$. The optimal trajectory is $x_o-a-b-x_f$.



Figure 4.5

Optimal Trajectory

Having found the optimal trajectory, it is now possible to describe the Optimal Control. The boundaries establish the "bang-bang" values of u while the value of control on the singular arc is determined from (3.3.) and (3.34). The approximate value of u=.735. Figure 4.6 shows the Optimum Control function as a function of time.





A program P2 was written to automate the above procedures. This program does the following:

- 1) scans the ω region of all permissible trajectories
- 2) finds the proper boundary
- 3) finds the singular arc
- 4) finds the optimal control on all parts of the trajectory including the singular arc

The listing of P2 and a typical output is shown in Appendix II.

4.3.2 Analytical Verification of the Optimal Control

In the previous section, the Green's Theorem Approach showed that the optimal control is piecewise constant. As shown in Figure 4.3, maximim control of u=1 is applied for time t_1 ; then, reduced control is applied until the state vectors both reach zero. Recall that the two state vectors correspond to vehicle velocity and wheel velocity.

In this case, a very simple solution is possible if the constraint on u(t) is removed. The optimal control will consist of an impulse at t=0 and then a value of less than 1.0 for the remaining time. See Figure 4.7



Figure 4.7

Optimal Control for Vehicular Braking System No Constraint on Control Signal

The impulse of Figure 4.7 drives the system to the peak of the friction curve in zero time while the pulse of Figure 4.6 drives the system to the peak of the μ -curve in minimum time t_1 . As will be shown t_1 is much less than t_f , the time to drive the system to zero. Hence, the impulse method leads to negligible error.

From (4.23), the maximum value of the friction coefficient μ is

0.947, corresponding to $x_2/x_1=0.8$.

From (4.18), if an impulse is applied at t=0, no change in x_1 takes place.

Applying an impulse of strength δ and using $x_2=0.8x_1$, (4.18) becomes,

$$\int_{60}^{48} dx_2 = -1584 \int_{0}^{0+} \delta dt$$
 (4.28)

The strength of the impulse is

$$\delta = .00757$$
 (4.29)

If it is assumed that the area of the pulse of Figure 4.3 is equal to the strength of the impulse, then time t_1 would be equal to .00757 seconds. This also assumes that u is limited to 1.0. Although this is not accurate, it is sufficient to show that t_1 is much less than t_f .

From (4.18) and using $\mu = 0.947$,

$$\int_{60}^{0} dx_1 = -32 \times .947 \int_{0}^{t} dt$$
 (4.30)

Solving for t_f,

$$t_{f} = 1.98 \text{ seconds} \tag{4.31}$$

Corresponding to this minimum stopping time, the minimum stopping distance is 60 feet.

The optimal control signal during this interval may be found by eliminating μ from (4.19) and (4.18).

Integrating the resulting equation,

$$\int_{48}^{0} dx_{2} = -37.81 \int_{60}^{0} dx_{1} - 1584 \int_{0}^{1.98} u_{2} dt \qquad (4.32)$$

Solving,

$$u_2 = 0.735$$
 (4.33)

The impulse solution will differ only from the actual solution because of t_1 . By assuming $\mu = t/t_1$ during interval t_1 , equation (4.19) may be solved to yield,

```
t_1 = .0123 \text{ seconds} (4.34)
```

This agrees with the digital computer solution shown in Appendix II. The results of the analytical approach are summarized in Figure 4.8



Figure 4.8

Optimal Control and State Vectors vs Time

4.3.3 <u>Equivalence of Minimum Time and Minimum</u> Stopping Distance Criteria

In this section it will be shown that minimizing the time to go from x_0 to x_f is equivalent to minimizing the vehicle stopping distance.

It has been shown that the intersection of the reachable region $R(x_0)$ and the controllable region $R(x_f)$ contains the set of all possible trajectories from x_0 to x_f . Also, the construction of this set is independent of the performance criteria imposed by the functional J[u].

Using the Green Theorem Approach, it has been shown that the optimal trajectory is contained in the boundary of this set unless singular arcs exist. Then the optimal trajectory will contain portions of the boundary and portions of the singular arc. Hence, the solution is no longer "bang-bang". Two criteria will be equivalent if the singular arcs generated by these criteria are the same.

Consider

$$J_{1}[u] = \int_{t_{0}}^{t_{f}} dt \qquad (4.35)$$

$$J_{2}[u] = \int_{t_{0}}^{t_{f}} x_{1}dt \qquad (4.36)$$

Since x_1 corresponds to vehicle velocity in problem(4.1), $J_2[u]$ is the stopping distance while $J_1[u]$ corresponds to the time required to stop. To show that these criteria are equivalent, it will be shown that the critical function, $\omega = 0$, which determines the singular arc is the same for both criteria.

From equation (4.18), determine dt and substitute in

$$J_{1}[u] = \int_{x_{0}}^{x} f \frac{dx_{1}}{-32\mu(x_{1},x_{2})}$$
(4.37)

$$J_{2}[u] = \int_{x_{0}}^{x} f \frac{x \, dx}{-32_{\mu}(x_{1}, x_{2})}$$
(4.38)

Since, the general form for the cost function is

$$\mathbf{J} = \int \mathbf{P} d\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{Q} d\mathbf{x}_2 = \iint \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{Q}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} - \frac{\partial \mathbf{P}}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2}\right) d\mathbf{x}_1 d\mathbf{x}_2$$
(4.39)

and

$$P_1 = -\frac{1}{32_{\mu}(x_1, x_2)} \qquad \qquad Q_1 = 0 \qquad (4.40)$$

$$P_2 = -\frac{x}{32_{\mu}(x_1, x_2)} \qquad Q_2 = 0 \qquad (4.41)$$

Solving for the partial derivatives

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{P}_1}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2} = \frac{\partial_{\mu}(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2)}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2} \frac{1}{32_{\mu}^2}$$
(4.42)

$$\frac{\partial P_2}{\partial x_2} = \frac{x_1 \partial_{\mu}(x_1, x_2)}{\partial x_2} \frac{1}{32_{\mu}^2}$$
(4.43)

We are interested in the condition $\omega = 0$, where

$$\omega = \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2}\right) \tag{4.44}$$

If $x_1 \neq 0$ and $\mu \neq 0$, then referring back to equation (4.16)

$$\omega_1 = \omega_2 = \frac{\partial \mu(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2)}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2}$$
(4.45)

Typically, as indicated in Figure 4.1, the x $\neq 0$ and $\mu \neq 0$ conditions are satisfied except at the origin. The origin presents no problem since $\mu(0,0) = 0$.

Therefore minimizing stopping time is equivalent to minimizing stopping distance in Problem 4.1.

Any criteria which results in $P = \frac{f(x_1)}{\mu(x_1,x_2)}$ would be equivalent since the partial derivative is taken with respect to x.

4.3.4 An Optimal Digital Control System

In principle, the implementation of the optimal control is straight forward. Based on the Green's Theorem Approach the steps are as follows:

- 1) Apply maximum permissible control.
- 2) Continually solve for ω . The condition $\omega=0$ indicates that the singular arc has been reached.
- Reduce the control signal u(t) in order to hold the condition, ω=0.

Due to time delays, the desired control u(t) is not obtained in zero time. As a result the control oscillates about the predicted value of 0.735.

The program shown in Appendix II shows this variation in u(t). The state vectors corresponding to vehicle and wheel velocity are essentially ideal in the digital computer system.



The Digital Optimal Control System in block form appears in Figure 4.9



Digital Optimal Control System Based on Green's Theorem Approach The significant blocks are the blocks which determine the control signal u(t). If ω is positive the digital integration increases u unless u is at its limiting value of 1.0. When ω is zero, u would remain constant except for the fact that time delays cause ω to overshoot. In the digital solution, u changes by 0.01 per integration time interval of 0.000002. The results of this simulation can be summarized by Figure 4.10. The velocity signals which are the state variables x_1 and x_2 are close to the ideal values. There is a ripple frequency of approximately 300cps. This is a function of the digital integration gain. The peak wheel velocity ripple is approximately 0.020. The ω signal has a peak value of approximately 0.012, while the peak value of the ω signal is 0.25.



(a) Control Signal (b) Singular Function (c) Wheel and Vehicle Velocity

A sinusoidal analysis based on small signal follows. Consider simplified diagram,



Figure 4.11

Diagram for Small Signal Sinusoidal Analysis

The velocities x_1 and x_2 tend toward zero slowly when measured on the ripple frequency time scale. Hence, at a given point (x_1, x_2) the following equations may be considered to apply.

$$\mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{x}_{10} \tag{4.46}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_2 = \mathbf{x}_{20} + \mathbf{x} \Delta \sin \omega t \tag{4.47}$$

also,

$$\mathbf{x}_{20} = 0.8\mathbf{x}_{10} \tag{4.48}$$

Since ω is given by 4.25, and letting $k = \Delta x_2 / x_{10}$

$$\omega = \frac{1}{x_{10}} \left(a \varepsilon^{-a(1-.8-k \sin \omega t)}_{-b \varepsilon} - b(1-.8-k \sin \omega t) \right)$$
(4.49)

Assuming that k<<.2, and using $\varepsilon^{x} \simeq 1 + x$,

$$\omega = \frac{1}{\mathbf{x}_{10}} \left(a \varepsilon^{-.2a} (1 + ak \sin \omega t) - b \varepsilon^{-.2b} (1 + bk \sin \omega t) \right)$$
(4.50)

Since ac = bc

$$\omega = (ak-bk) \sin \omega t/x_{10}$$
(4.51)

$$\omega = -5.25 \text{ k sin } \omega t/x_{10}$$
 (4.52)

$$\omega = -5.25 \ \Delta x_2 \ \sin \ \omega t / x_{10}^2 \tag{4.53}$$

Using (4.19), a relation between Δx_2 and Δu can be found. The μ term has a constant term which cancels the steady state term of u. The sinusoidal variation in μ is small relative to the cosinusoidal variation of x_2 . Therefore,

$$\mathbf{u} \simeq \mathbf{u}_0 + \Delta \mathbf{u} \cos \omega \mathbf{t}$$
 (4.54)

and

$$2\pi f \Delta x_2 \cos 2\pi f t = -1584 \Delta u \cos 2\pi f t$$
 (4.55)

This yields the relationship,

$$2\pi f x_{10}^2 / 5.25 = 1584 \Delta u$$
 (4.56)

or

$$\omega = 1320 \ \Delta u / x_{10}^{2} f$$
 (4.57)

The use of the above equation in conjunction with Figure 4.11, permits determination of the small signal variations in the system.

This problem is an extension of Problem 4.1 and fits the format of Problem 3.3. It will be designated Problem 4.2.

The differential constraint equations are

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_1 = -32\mu(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2)$$
 $\mathbf{x}_1(0) = 60$ (4.58)

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_2 = 1210\mu(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) - 1584\mathbf{x}_3$$
 $\mathbf{x}_2(0) = 60$ (4.59)

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}}_3 = \mathbf{v}$$
 $\mathbf{x}_3 (0) = 0$ (4.60)

$$|\mathbf{v}| \leq 1 \tag{4.61}$$

$$\mathbf{x}_3 \ge \mathbf{0} \tag{4.62}$$

The function $\mu(x_1, x_2)$ is given in Problem 4.1. The control u(t) of Problem 4.1 has been made a state variable with a constraint.

It is desired to minimize the time necessary to drive the state from x_0 to x_f . The row vector x_f is $[0 \ 0 \ x_{3f}$ is not specified.

This problem when stated in real physical terms is: Find the control pressure as a function of time which will stop a given vehicle initially traveling at 60 ft./sec. in minimum time. The pressure is rate limited to 12000 psi/sec.

In the physical problem under consideration the pressure would normally be amplitude limited (e.g. $0 \le P(t) \le 1200$ psi). This would result in a singular problem which has a bounded state variable (x_3) . In this problem the upper and lower bounds are not penetrated by the optimal control and hence the additional complication due to bounded state variables is not encountered. The approach necessary when bounded state variables occur will not be considered at this time.

The development of section 3.2.3 will be applied to Problem 4.2 of section 4.4.4. As may be seen from equations (4.58) to (4.60), the state vector is 3-dimensional while the control in 1-dimensional. Hence

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{\mathbf{x}}_1 \\ \dot{\mathbf{x}}_2 \\ \dot{\mathbf{x}}_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{f}_1 \\ \mathbf{f}_2 \\ \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}$$
(4.63)

also

$$J[u] = \int_{t_0}^{t} dt$$
(4.64)

Since there are two independent vectors orthogonal to b = $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T$, dt may be expressed as

 $dt = dx_1/f_1 = dx_1/-32\mu$ (4.65)

or

$$dt = dx_2/f_2 = dx_2/(1210\mu - 1584x_3)$$
(4.66)

Applying equations (3.80) and (3.88) - (3.90) to (4.65)

$$a_1 = -1/32\mu \tag{4.67}$$

$$\omega_{12} = \partial (-1/32\mu)/\partial x_2 \qquad (4.68)$$

$$\omega_{12} = 0 \text{ implies a singular surface exists and is given by}$$

$$\partial \mu (x_1, x_2)/\partial x_2 = 0 \qquad (4.69)$$

This surface will contain part of the optimal trajectory as shown in Figure 4.13. It corresponds to the arc B-C. Its projections in the x_1-x_2 plane is D-O and is the same as in Problem 4.1. Applying (3.80) and (3.88) - (3.90) to (4.66),

$$a_2 = \frac{1}{1210\mu - 1584x_3} \tag{4.70}$$

Now

$$\omega_{12} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} \left(\frac{1}{1210\mu - 1584x_3} \right)$$
(4.71)

$$\omega_{13} = 0$$
 (4.72)

$$\omega_{23} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_3} \left(\frac{1}{1210\mu - 1584x_3} \right)$$
(4.73)

Only $\omega_{12} = 0$ implies a singular surface.

$$\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} = -\frac{\mathbf{x}_2}{\mathbf{x}_1} \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \mathbf{x}_2}$$
(4.74)

If $x_1 \neq 0$, this produces the same singular condition given by (4.69).

The net result is that two equivalent forms are available to evaluate J[u].

$$J[u] = \int_{x_0}^{x_f} \frac{dx_1}{-32\mu(x_1,x_2)}$$
(4.75)

and

$$J[u] = \int_{x_0}^{x_f} \frac{dx_2}{1210\mu(x_1, x_2) - 1584x_3}$$
(4.76)

4.4.2 <u>Solution of the Pang-Pang Singular Control Problem</u> by the Green Theorem Approach

Normally problems of the type formulated in the previous section result in the bang-bang behavior of u(t). This is referred to pang-pang operation with respect to u(t).

Several modifications with respect to the procedure used in Problem 4.2 will be necessary. First, no theorem is available for the general case which determined the reachable region in terms of special trajectories. For example, in a 3-dimensional problem with a 2-dimensional control, the reachable region would intuitively appear as shown in Figure 4.12.



Figure 4.12

Reachable Region for 3-dimensional Problem

In the case under consideration only one control signal is available. This reduces the reachable region to a surface. Hence, two dimensional theory as given by Theorem 2.1 may be applied. In Figure 4.5, x_0 -A-B-D- x_0 shows part of the reachable region. The curve x_0 -A is part of the trajectory due to the application of v(t)=1. The curve x_0 -D is in the x_1-x_2 plane and is due to the constraint which requires that $x_3\geq 0$. This curve cannot be generated by any control v(t) but can be approached as close as desired by using a sufficiently small v(t).

The trajectory of the pang-pang problem is shown in Figure 4.13. The trajectory starts at x_0 , which lies in the x_1-x_2 plane. The surface $\omega=0$ is a plane shown passing through points C, O, and D. Physically the system acts as follows:

The pressure is increased at its maximum permissible rate until point A is reached. Then, the pressure is decreased at its maximum permissible rate until the singular surface is reached. The trajectory then continues from point B to the final point C. Along this trajectory, which is singular, the pressure is maintained at a constant value. The value of pressure required is determined by the singular control law.





Optimal Trajectory for 3-Dimensional Problem

CHAPTER V SUBOPTIMAL VEHICULAR BRAKING CONTROL

5.1 Introduction

Theory indicates that the optimal control drives the state vector to the peak of the friction-slip curve as fast as possible and then holds it there. From a practical point of view the Maximum Principle is not feasible. Figures 3.1 and 3.2 show the block diagram necessary to mechanize the Maximum Principle solution. Since the initial costate vector must be determined on-line, subject to various initial conditions on the state vector, a rather complex and fast system would be needed to satisfy this requirement. This in itself would present a formidable optimal control problem. The approach using Green's Theorem is more feasible from a practical point of view. Figure 4.6 shows the block diagram using this approach. The difficulties associated with this method are due to the block which computes the ω function which determines the singular condition. Again this component must operate with fast response on-line. As indicated in section 4.3.4, the digital solution using the IBM 360-65 produced the wave forms shown in Figure 4.10. The results with respect to optimal stopping time were essentially optimal. The velocity waveforms were also essentially optimal. A slight ripple frequency appeared on the wheel velocity output. This ripple had a peak amplitude of 0.020 fps while the vehicle and wheel velocities were as high as 60fps. The control waveform deviated considerably from the ideal waveform. The ideal control signal appears in Figure 4.8. It should be noted that the digital solution oscillated at 300cps about the ideal value of 0.735. Hence from a practical point of view, this approach can be mechanized. However, in the interest of simplicity

and economy the following suboptimal control was designed. The basic idea is illustrated in Figure 5.1.



Figure 5.1

The basic premise is that the peak point on the friction-slip curve occurs at essentially the same relative slip regardless of vehicle velocity. Reference to Figure 4.3 shows that this point corresponds to a relative slip of 0.15, i.e., $1 - x_2/x_1 = 0.15$. This implies that x_2 which corresponds to wheel velocity is 85 percent of the vehicle velocity x_1 at the peak point. In addition, it is to be noted that the friction coefficient decreases slowly as the relative slip increases. At a slip of 1.0, the friction coefficient is typically 0.8 of its maximum value. This is the value achieved in the so-called "panic" stop. Therefore, based on this curve the stopping distance can be reduced to 0.8 of the "panic" value. Minimizing stopping distance is however only one factor in making a safe stop. A factor that is equally important is maintaining lateral stability. Due to small variations such as road surface unbalance,

Basic Suboptimal Control

brake torque, and wind gusts, yawing may and usually does occur. These effects may be minimized if the slip is kept small. The net result implies that operation should be close to the peak of the friction-slip curve. The most effective operation will be shown to occur at slip values slightly greater than 0.15.

5.2 Block Diagram of Suboptimal Control System

The real system must contain transducers which are not ideal. The principal characteristic can be approximated by a time delay. For example, the wheel signal transducer generates an alternating voltage with frequency being proportional to wheel velocity. The electronic processing generates a voltage proportional to wheel velocity. This processing results in a delayed wheel velocity signal. Similar delays are encountered from the other transducers that must be used in the system. Hence, a realistic model of the vehicular braking control system appears as shown in Figure 5.2b.

This system was programmed on both analog and digital computers. The analog computer studies permitted interconnecting real components with simulated components. The diagram shown in Figure 5.2a shows the four basic elements, the road characteristics, vehicle dynamics, electronic control module, and the braking pressure actuator. All four elements were simulated on both analog and digital computers. In the analog setup, the simulated electronic pressure actuator could be readily replaced by real components. This feature permitted evaluation of various module and actuator designs.



Figure 5.2a

Basic Block Diagram



Figure 5.2b

Suboptimal Control System With Time Delays

5.3 Analog Computer Studies

The analog equivalent of the system shown in Figure 5.2 was studied extensively. In these studies, real components such as pressure actuators and electronic control modules would be compared with their simulated models. The primary object was to determine factors which adversely affected performance. The optimal control system was used as the reference system. Figure 5.3 shows response characteristics of a suboptimal system in which all components are simulated except the actuator which is designated X2. As may be observed from the wheel velocity trace, this response is, from a practical stand point, essentially optimal. This is a very low friction case, having a panic coefficient of nominally 0.09. The percentage error due to potentiometer settings is greater at the lower values of friction. To remove this source of error, stopping distances are compared with the skid control on and off. The panic stopping distance, for an initial vehicle velocity of 60 fps, assuming that the vehicle is a point mass, is given by the following equation,

Panic Stopping Distance =
$$56/\mu$$
 (5.1)

In this case, the nominal value of 0.09 would predict a value of 622 feet instead of 583 feet. This implies that μ is actually 0.096 instead of 0.09. The significant fact is the reduced value of 507 feet. It should be noted that an ideal wheel velocity transducer is used. The erratic operation that occurred was due to vacuum pressure going below the design minimum. In summary, this test shows nearly optimal response even with a real actuator in the system.

Figure 5.4 shows the effect on the same system by using a transducer

that can be approximated by a time delay of 0.020 seconds. Stopping distance is increased slightly, although considerably better than 186 feet, the value corresponding to the panic value of $\mu = 0.3$.

Actuator X1 has an initial pressure rise characteristic which has adverse effects. This causes the wheel velocity to initially drop to lower than desired values. This can cause lock-up under some road friction conditions. Figures 5.5a and 5.5b show these characteristics. The initial part of this response is magnified in Figures 5.6a and 5.6b. This actuator was one which had been considered satisfactory for systems which did not employ anti-skid controls. An interesting nonlinear phenomenon occurs in this set of traces. The operating point is unstable. The right wheel velocity approaches the vehicle velocity or free wheels, while the left wheel velocity goes to the lock-up condition. This condition will be considered in Chapter VI.

Figures 5.7a and 5.7b show a typical response characteristic of the system without compensation. As may be noted the wheels alternately free wheel and lock-up. These conditions are also clearly seen on the friction curve. The panic value in this case is 0.8. Since the stopping distance is the same whether the control is on or off, the average coefficient of friction is 0.8. Also, it is to be noted that the pulsing frequency is considerably lower. In this case, it is approximately 3 cps. With compensation, pulsing frequencies as high as 20 cps have been encountered.

-200 PSI Contractore and and and a second s 11 60 FPS 16 CPS VACUUM BELOW MINIMUM N WHEEL VELOCITY 0 FPS ⊨ 1 SECOND MU=.09 STOPPING DISTANCE 507 FEET CONTROL ON 583 FEET CONTROL OFF

-





Velocity Response-Real Actuator X2 Ideal Wheel Velocity Transducer

ACTUATOR PRESSURE



Figure 5.4

Effect of Wheel Velocity Transducer





Effect of Initial Delay in Actuator X1

Velocity Response





Effect of Initial Delay in Actuator Xl Solenoid, Control Pressure, and Friction Response



Figure 5.6a



Effect of Initial Delay in Actuator X1





Initial Response

Effect of Initial Delay in Actuator Xl

Solenoid, Control Pressure, and Friction



Figure 5.7a

Response Without Compensation

Stopping Distance Control On 72 Feet Control Off 72 Feet





Response Without Compensation

5.4 Digital Computer Studies

The Continuous Systems Modeling Program (CSMP) on the IBM 360-365 was used to supplement the studies made on the analog computer. The listing of the simple one-wheel model is shown in Figure 5.8. This is designated PROGRAM I. Listings of other models are shown in Appendix IV.

Sample outputs and histograms of PROGRAM I are shown in Figures 5.9 to 5.15. The model described by PROGRAM I is almost ideal with respect to transducers. There is no delay in the pressure transducer and a negligible delay (1 millisecond) in the wheel velocity transducer. No compensation is used.

In Figure 5.10, the first portion of the wheel velocity of suboptimal vehicular control system is shown. In this suboptimal system, the wheel velocity has a peak ripple velocity of approximately 7 feet per second, whereas, the optimal control would have no ripple. More significant is the friction coefficient, shown in Figure 5.11. After it passes the peak value of 1.0, it varies from between 0.9 and 1.0. Hence, the average value is approximately 0.95 for suboptimal system and just under 1.0 for the optimal system. It should be noted that this is not a realistic suboptimal control system, since the transducers are essentially ideal.

Figures 5.13 and 5.14 show similar results when the friction coefficient is 0.3. The supoptimal μ averages 92 percent of the optimal value of 0.3. The low μ case is, with respect to ripple magnitudes, more nearly optimal than the high μ case. Stopping distances show that

the suboptimal system requires 59 feet at a μ of 1.0 and 202 feet at a μ of 0.3. This compares with 56 feet and 186 feet for the optimal control system. These values are for an initial velocity of 60 feet per second or approximately 40 miles per hour.

Of interest is the ripple frequency, since this may be used as a measure of optimality. The suboptimal system with essentially zero delay has a ripple frequency of approximately 11 cps at $\mu = 1.0$ and 18 cps when $\mu = 0.3$. When transducers, which have time delays are used, these frequencies go down. To compensate for the delays, compensation networks are employed. In the suboptimal control system, the effectiveness of the compensation can be judged by the ripple frequency generated. The higher ripple frequencies imply that the system is more nearly optimal. A criterion, based on ripple frequency, for estimating time delays associated with transducers is established in Chapter VI.

The last two figures in this set, Figures 5.12 and 5.15 show the control pressure for the μ = 1 and μ = 0.3 cases. As generated on the digital computer, the rise and fall rates are 15000 and 45000 psi/second for this case.

In the digital studies, use was also made of the CSMP plotting features. Typical plots are shown in Figures 5.16 to 5.23.

The effect of having unbalanced time delays was studied. Figure 5.16 and 5.17 show the effect of having 20 milliseconds delay in one of the wheel velocity transducers and no delay in the other. Vehicle velocity and pressure transducers also had no delay. The reference velocity in
the suboptimal control system was set for 0.5 of the vehicle velocity and the system used the average of the wheel velocity signals to establish the error signal. These results show that, by using proper compensation, this amount of delay may be tolerated. The principal disadvantage is that the wheels lock up at a vehicle velocity of approximately 5 feet per second. In other respects, the supoptimal control operates as desired. This is clearly shown in Figure 5.17. The control pressure quickly brings μ to its maximum value. Then, due to the slip reference setting of 0.5, keeps μ at a relatively high value for almost the entire stopping period. Earlier lockup is very clearly shown in this figure. The value of μ is seen to drop to the panic value of 0.8 while the control pressure rises rapidly to its maximum of 1200 psi. The stopping distance for this suboptimal system is 60.21 feet as compared to 56 feet for the optimal control system. The listing of this program, P 252, is shown in Appendix IV.

The next set, Figures 5.18 to 5.21, show the effects of having 20 milliseconds delay in both wheel velocity signals. There are no other changes from the previous system. The ripple frequency variation is now quite prominent. The relatively high frequency of 12 cps indicates satisfactory operation at this value of μ . The stopping distance has increased slightly to 60.76 feet.

The effect of subjecting one side of the vehicle to a peak μ 0.95 and the other side to a peak μ of 1.0 is shown in Figures 5.22 and 5.23. All other components of the system are as in Program 252. The side of the vehicle which is subjected to a μ 0.95 and has a 20 millisecond

delay in the transducer locks up early as seen by the WV2D trace in Figure 5.22. Stopping distance was 63.4 feet as compared to the optimal value of 57.2 feet. This is a two wheel model which used the average of the two wheel velocity signal to produce a one-dimensional control signal. This example points out the disadvantage of the one dimensional control versus the two dimensional control system. Figure 5.23 clearly indicates the changes in the μ characteristic and control pressure that occur after early lock-up.

The final figures of this section show the response of the system which is designated as the reference suboptimal control system. As may be noted from Figures 5.24 and 5.25, the wheel velocity response and the friction coefficient response are almost undistinguishable from those determined from the theoretical optimal control system. In Figure 5.23, trajectory O-A-B is nonsingular, while B-C is the singular trajectory. The control pressure response, in Figure 5.26, does not peak as expected in the optimal response. The variation in the flat portion of the control pressure is due to the anticipatory nature of the compensation network. Stopping distance for this system is 57.75 feet.

These figures are representative of the digital studies which show that the suboptimal control system considered performs satisfactorily and compares favorably with the reference optimal control system which, it should be noted, does not contain time delays.

*******CONTINUOUS SYSTEM MODELING PROGRAM****

*****PROBLEM INPUT STATEMENTS*****

Figure 5.8

PROGRAM I

```
TITLE
          ASKC
PARAM
          B=1.,C=1.,D=1.
FUNCT
          MUET1 = (-.15, -1.), (0., 0.0), (.075, .6), (.15, 1.), (.57)
METHOD
          RKSFX
          MU1=B+AFGEN(MUET1.ETA1)
          VVDOT = -16. \neq (MU1+D)
          VV = INTGRL(60.0, VVDOT)
          VVD=DELAY(5,.015,VV)
          WV1D0T=1210.*MU1-0.79*T1
          SDIST=INTGRL(0.0,VV)
          WV1=INTGRL(60.0,WV1DOT)
          WV1D=DELAY(5..001.WV11)
          ETA 1A = VVD - WV1D
          T1=1.66*P11
          ETA1=1.0-WV11/VV
          WV11 = LIMIT(0..60.0.WV1)
          ETA1R=0.5+VVD
          Y1 = DERIV(0.0, ETA1A)
          ERRIN1 = ETA1A - ETA1R
          ERROT1 = INSW(ERRIN1, 1.0, -3.0)
          E1=15000.*ERROT1
          P1 = INTGRL(0.0, X1)
          X1 = E1 + X11
PROCED
          X11=DU1(P1,E1)
          IF(E1)1.1.2
        1 IF(P1)3.4.4
        3 \times 11=0.0
          GO TO 7
        4 \times 11 = 1.0
          GO TO 7
        2 IF(P1-1200.)5,5,6
        5 X11=1.0
          GO TO 7
        6 X11=0.0
        7 CONTINUE
ENDPRO
          P11=DELAY(15,.0,P1)
TIMER
          FINTIM=4., DELT=.0004,
                                                      PRDEL=.C2
FINISH
          VV = 1.0
LABEL
          ANSKC#JGG#SCHERBA
PRINT
          ETA1R, ETA1A, MU1, ERRIN1, ERROT1, P11,
                                                      VV,P1,SDI
PRTPLT
          ETAIR, ETAIA, MUI, ERRINI, ERROTI, P11,
                                                      VV,P1,SDI
END
PARÁM
          B=0.3.C=0.3.D=.3
RESET LABEL
LABEL
           ANSKC (MU=.3)
END
STOP
```

CSMP Listing of One-Wheel Model

ASK	ა								RKSFX	N	ITEGRA	
TIME	N	0.0	ETAIR = Erroti= Sdist =	0.0 -3.0000E 0.0	00	ETAIA PII WVID	H H H	000		H H H	0 • 0 • • • 0 • • • 0	
TIME	11	2.0000E-02	ETAIR = Erroti= Sdist =	2.9961E 1.0000E 1.1967E	01 00 00	ETAIA Pii WVID	11 11 11	1.5459E 00 2.7600E 02 5.8375E 01		H N N	1.89 5.96 1.50	
TIME	11	4.0000E-02	ETAIR = Erroti= Sdist =	2.9782E 1.0000E 2.3857E	01 00 CC	ETAIA PI1 WVID	W H W	3.9497E 00 5.7599E 02 5.5615E 01			5.07 5.92 1.50	
TIME	"	6.0000E-02	ETAIR = ERROTI= SDIST =	2.9552E 1.0000E 3.5651E	00 00 00	E T A I A P I I W V I D	LQ 19 81	6.7228E 00 8.7597E 02 5.2381E 01	MUI VV XI	18 H H	7.91 5.86 1.50	
TIME	11	8.0000E-02	ETAIR = ERROTI= SDIST =	2.9277E 1.0000E 4.7330E	00 00 00	ETAIA PI1 hvid	11 H H	1.0470E 01 1.1760E 03 4.8084E 01	MUI VV XI	N 11 N	9.93 5.80 1.50	
TIME	H	1.0000 E-01	ETAIR = ERROTI= SDIST =	2.8961F 1.0000E 5.8882E	01 00 CC	E T A I A P I I H V I D	98 54 99	1.7594E 01 1.2030E 03 4.0328E 01		H H H	9.63 5.74	
TIME	11	1.2000E-01	ETAIR = ERROTI= SDIST =	2.8646E 1.0000E 7.0309E	01 20 00	ETAIA P11 WV1D	11 H H	2.5575E 01 1.2030E 03 3.1716E 01		11 11 11	9.28 5.68 0.0	
TIME	81	1.4000E-01	ETAIR = ERROTI= SDIST =	2.8335E -3.0000E 8.1612E	01 00 0C	ETAIA PI1 WV1D	11 H H	3.0110E 01 6.1796E 02 2.6561E 01		88 89 H	9.11 5.62 -4.50	
			Figure	5.9 Ot	utput of]	PROGRAM 1					7	





Figure 5.11 Histogram of Friction Coefficient







Figure 5.14 Histogram of Friction Coefficient





Velocity Response Suboptimal System Employing a Single Control Pressure Signal



Friction and Control Pressure Response Suboptimal System Employing a Single Control Pressure Signal



Figure 5.18

Wheel Velocity Response Suboptimal System Employing a Single Control Pressure Signal





Wheel Velocity Response Suboptimal System Employing a Single Control Pressure Signal



Control Pressure Response Suboptimal System Employing a Single Control Pressure Signal





Friction Characteristic Suboptimal System Employing a Single Control Pressure Signal

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Figure 5.22

Wheel Velocity Response - Unbalanced Friction Suboptimal System Employing a Single Control Pressure Signal



Friction Coefficient and Control Pressure Response Suboptimal System Employing a Single Control Pressure Signal





Wheel Velocity Response Reference Suboptimal Control System



Friction Coefficient Response Reference Suboptimal Control System



Control Pressure Response Reference Suboptimal Control System



Phase Plane Plot Reference Suboptimal Control System

CHAPTER VI NONLINEAR PHENOMENON IN VEHICULAR BRAKING PROCESSES 6.1 Introduction

As the complexity of systems increases, it becomes more difficult to predict the effects of the various system parameters. Also, in the vehicular system considered, the wheel velocities are tightly coupled. This results in the generation of frequencies vastly different than those obtained in the loosely coupled case. The presence of nonlinearities is responsible for the generation of additional frequencies. In this chapter, attempts to improve the intuitive feeling for some aspects of the system will be made.

6.2 Time Delay Criteria by Describing Function Technique

The suboptimal control system generates prominent variations in wheel velocity, friction coefficient, and control pressure. These would not be present in the optimal control system. These ripple frequencies are primarily due to the time delay constraints present in the suboptimal control system with minimal time delays. It will be shown that the ripple frequencies may be used as a measure indicating the degree of optimality achieved. Describing function techniques will be used to develop criteria.

The one-wheel model using s-plane representations is shown in Figure 6.1. The friction-slip curve, shown in Figure 6.2, will be linearized about a typical operating point. The gain characteristic will normally be negative; but, as evident from the friction characteristic, may be positive. This gain term will be defined as,

$$\mathbf{k}_{\mu} = \Delta \mu / \Delta \eta \tag{6.1}$$





S-plane Model of One-wheel Vehicular Control System



Figure 6.2

Friction-slip Curve Linearized about Operating Point

Since the vehicle velocity VV changes with respect to the wheel velocity very slowly, it will be assumed constant. The effect of a changing vehicle velocity will be discussed later. On an incremental basis, the circuit may be represented as shown in Figure The notation is the same as previously defined in Chapter IV.





Simplified Incremental Block Diagram One-wheel Vehicular Control System The block involving the μ characteristic has a transfer function given by

T. F. =
$$\frac{1}{s - k_1}$$
 (6.2)

where,

$$\mathbf{k}_{1} = \mathbf{k}_{\mu} \mathbf{g}^{2} \mathbf{R}^{2} \mathbf{I}_{VV}$$
(6.3)

For application of the Describing Function Technique, the final form shown in Figure 6.4 is desirable.





Nonlinear System used to Develop Time Delay Criterion

where,

$$K = K_{p} R / I$$

 T_2 is the time constant associated with the lead network.

 \mathbf{T}_1 is the total time delay present in the system.

Study of this block diagram reveals several significant characteristics of the vehicular control system. First, if both time delays are neglected, the system stability depends on the sign of k_1 , which in turn depends on the friction-slip gain k_{μ} . Since the operating point is usually on the negative slope portion of the friction-slip curve, the system is inherently unstable. This instability, however, has no adverse affect on the optimality of the system. Some of the unusual phenomenon observed is however due to this characteristic.

The second characteristic of interest is the chattering of the wheel velocity as it is driven to zero. The chattering is readily explained by means of the Describing Function Technique. Designating the nonlinear element as $N(e, \omega)$ and the linear element as $G(\omega)$, the oscillatory of chattering condition is

$$G(\omega) = -1/N(e, \omega) \tag{6.4}$$

Here e is the amplitude of the input to the relay element. The input signal is assumed to be sinusoidal. A sketch of a typical Nyquist Plot appears as shown in Figure 6.5



Figure 6.5

Typical Nyquist Plot

For typical values of $T_1 = .010$ seconds and $T_2 = .05$, the critical point is reached when ω is approximately 142 radians per second and N = 2860. A computer study was conducted to establish the accuracy that could be expected. Using a symmetrical relay characteristic which switches between -5000 and +5000, the input was approximately 3. Since the fundamental component of the square wave is $4/\pi \cdot 5000$, the gain N of the relay element is 2120. This, with the loop gain of 1.32 gives a total gain of 2800. The frequency was 22 cps or 138 radians per second. These values are very close even though the generated waveforms in the system are square, triangular and finally, approximately sinusoidal at the input of the relay element.

A study of the Nyquist Plots shows that a simple criterion may be established to evaluate time delays in this system. By neglecting the effect of the gain factor k_1 , the angle criterion at the critical point - 1/N is satisfied by the following condition:

Angle of
$$\varepsilon$$
 (1+j ωT_2) = 0 (6.4)

This is equivalent to the condition,

$$\operatorname{Tan} \omega T_1 = \omega T_2, \qquad \omega T_1 \leq \pi/2 \qquad (6.5)$$

Solution of this transcendental equation gives the chatter frequency in terms of the two time constants. Observation of various solutions shows that ωT_1 is almost $\pi/2$ radians for all cases of interest. Thus, the simplified form below may be used,

$$T_1 = \frac{\pi}{2\omega} \text{ seconds}$$
(6.6)

Thus if $\omega = 142$ radians per second, the time delay in the system is approximately .011 seconds. This simplified criterion is quite useful in establishing the time delay in the system.

Concerning the effect of the neglected term k_1 , it is readily shown that at the frequency of chatter, this term is insignificant except at very low velocities where it tends to reduce the chatter frequency.

Due to the asymmetric character of the relay element, a Dual Input Describing Function Technique was also investigated. For suboptimal operation, due to the small variations which are essentially sinusoidal, no significant additional information was obtained by this method.

6.3 Effect of Friction-slip Nonlinearity

In the previous section, the Describing Function Technique was shown to be useful in establishing a criterion for estimating time delays of the suboptimal control system. If compensation is not used, the system performance is adversely affected. The criterion established in the previous section is no longer valid and it is necessary to include the effect of the friction-slip nonlinearity shown in Figure 6.2. For time delays which are in the realizable range - 10 milliseconds to 20 milliseconds operation will be on the positive slope portion of the friction-slip curve. On this portion of the curve, the gain factor k_1 is significant and to a first approximation the following criterion will establish the dominant frequency of the variation:

$$-j\omega T_1$$
Angle of ε /(k₁ + j ω) = - $\pi/2$ radians (6.7)

Referring to Figure 6.4, it is to be noted that the loss of the lead term due to the compensation network causes the system to make up this phase change by finding a suitable gain factor k_1 which reduces the phase of the $(s + k_1)$ term in the denominator of the transfer function.

Several cases where no compensation was used were investigated. The results of a system having no compensation and 10 ms delay is shown in Figures 6.6 to 6.9.

Detailed study of the waveforms in these figures indicates that the criterion given by (6.7) accurately predicts system performance. The block diagram shown in Figure 6.10 will be used to illustrate the procedure. Except for the time delays, the diagram is based on the program listing shown in Figure 5.8.



Figure 6.10

Diagram Used to Evaluate Variational Frequency and Amplitudes of Variables

The procedure is as follows for the system having 10 milliseconds delay.

Since operation is on the positive slope portion of the friction-

slip curve, k_1 is estimated as 40. The transcendental angle criterion (6.7) is then solved for ω . The result is approximately 60 radians per second, comparing favorably with the measured frequency of 9.75 cps.

The friction-slip coefficient response should lag the pressure response by 34.5 degrees. Detailed analysis of the response curves in Figure 6.7 and 6.8 shows this to be the case.

The pressure amplitude is found by finding the fundamental component of the asymmetrical relay output and dividing by ω . The peak to peak fundamental is $\frac{4}{\pi}$ · .78 · 60,000/60 or 995 psi. This is essentially the same as the measured value.

From the transfer function $1/(s + k_1)$ which relates pressure and wheel velocity, the wheel velocity amplitude is calculated as 13.8 fps peak to peak. This is higher than the measured value which is approximately 10 fps peak to peak.

The magnitude of the friction-slip coefficient variation is found from

$$1210\mu = WV \cdot k_1$$
 (6.8)

This results in a predicted value of 0.46, which is condiderably lower than the measured value of approximately 0.9.

Considering the large amplitudes, the results are not unsatisfactory. The Dual Input Describing Function Technique was not used here, but would probably improve the accuracy. The presence of other frequencies is clearly evident from the pressure response in Figure 6.7.











Control Pressure Response



Friction Coefficient Response



Figure 6.9

Output Response of Asymmetrical Relay

CHAPTER VII CONCLUSION

The development of the system equation for the vehicular braking control system shows that the control signal appears linearly. This implies, since the system is nonlinear, the possibility of singular controls. From the unified singular control theory presented, necessary conditions which the time optimal control must satisfy are developed. The class of functions encountered in the vehicular braking control system are such that the minimum stopping time problem is equivalent to the minimum stopping distance problem.

Based on the necessary conditions developed, the closed loop problem is solved and a block diagram showing the mechanization using the Maximum Principle approach is presented. Since the initial costate vector must be determined on-line, subject to various initial conditions on the state vector, any cost functional which takes into account factors such as, cost and simplicity would eliminate this method as a possible candidate.

A more practical approach is the mechanization developed by applying the Green Theorem approach. The critical component in this method is the ω function block which determined the singular condition. This method is quite possible in applications which are relatively slow. An algorithm for determining the optimal control is presented. For the vehicular braking control system, where significant changes occur in milliseconds, the method becomes costly.

At this stage of design, the gap between theory and practice is apparent.
The mathematical models which have been developed are not sufficiently sophisticated to include noise, variability, cost, reliability and other realistic factors. Inclusion of these factors would subject the models to further constraints and adversely affect the performance.

The mathematically expedient models function as reference models, indicating the ultimate that can be expected, and also giving clues as to how the optimal control should function. As a result, a system called the suboptimal vehicular braking control system was developed. This system is optimal in the sense that it heuristically considers cost and simplicity and is suboptimal since minimum stopping distance is slightly greater than the optimal control system subject to a simple cost criterion. The advantages gained far outweigh the effect of slightly greater stopping distances. In zero time delay case, the stopping distance for the suboptimal control system was 57.27 feet as against 57.2 feet for the optimal control system. For systems with time delays, it would be desirable to have optimal control models which include time delays. However, by employing proper compensation, the suboptimal control systems with realistic time delays compare favorably with optimal control systems having no time delays.

Whereas, most of the effort was devoted to one-wheel models, studies of two-wheel models indicate that coupling effects will introduce several new problems. This is especially true if the system is constrained to use one control signal to control two wheels under different friction conditions. Several criteria were developed to assist in the understanding of the nonlinear phenomena which take place. The criterion which evaluates time delays present in the system is particularly useful.

132

From the viewpoint of the builder of vehicular braking systems - in particular, the automobile manufacturer - cost is a heavily weighted factor in the performance functional. Elimination of a costly transducer is desirable. At the present time, the vehicle velocity transducer is in this category. This leads to a very significant vehicular braking control problem - the optimal control with inaccessible state variables.

Based on analog and digital studies already conducted, suboptimal control systems with inaccessible state variables compare favorably with the optimal control system having accessible state variables. Hence, the solution to the inaccessible state variable problem is of interest. With the addition of time delays, these significant problems are left for future development.

APPENDIX I

SUBOPTIMAL ONE-WHEEL MODEL CONTROL SYSTEM

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	****(CONTINUOUS	SYSTEM	MODELING	PROGRAM****
	***PROBLEM	INPUT STA	TEMENTS	**	an fir an inne ann an dealarair an an anna
TITLE FUNCT FUNCT METHOU PARAM	ASKC MUET1= MUET2= RKSFX A=1.,B: MU1=A*	(15,-1.) (15,-1.) =.95 AFGEN (MUET	,(0.,0.0 ,(0.,0.0),(.075,.),(.075,.	6),(.15,1.),(.57 6),(.15,1.),(.57
 .	MU2=B*/ VVDOT=- VV=INT(VVD=VV SDIST= WVI=IN HV1=00	AFGENTMUET -8.*(MU1+M GRL(60.0,V INTGRL(0.0,V TGRL(60.0,	2,ÈTÀ25 U2+A+B) VDOT) WV1DOT)		
	WV2DOT WV2=TN WV1=L WV10=D ETA1=1 WV22=L	= 1210 • + MU2 TGRL(60.0, IMIT(0.,60 ELAY(1,02 0-WV11/VV IMIT(0.,60	-0.79#T2 WV2DUT3 .0,WV1) 0,WV11)		
~	WV2D=D ETA2= T1=1.66 ETA1R= ETA1R= ETA1A=	ELAY(1,.02 1.0-WV22/V 6*P1 6*P2 0.5*VVD VVD-(WV1D+	0, WV22) V WV2D)*.5	5	
. .	FIEDER ERRIN1 ERRIN2 ERROT1 EI=150 PI=INT(P2=P1	=(ETA1A+.1 =(ETA2A+.1 =INSW(ERRI 00. *ERROT1 GRL[0.0,X]	14, 5*Y1)-E1 5*Y2)-E1 N1, 1.0,)	A1R A2R -3.0)	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
	X 1=X11 X11=10 YII1=A Y112=A Y11=N0 Y12=N0	*E1 R(Y111,Y11 ND(Y11,P1J ND(E1,Y12) T(E1) T(P1-1200.	2)		
TIMER FINISH PRTPL	FINTIM: VV=1.0 SIZE(4.,	=4.,DELT=. 6.),TIME,W	0002,DE(V10,VV	MIN=.0000	000001, PRDEL=.02
LABEL PARAM PRINT PRTPL END	WHEEL VE SIZE=0. ETAIR, SIZE(4.	LOCITY, VE ETAIA,MUI, ,6.),TIME,	HICLE VE Errini,E Pi,Mui	RROT1,	WV2D,VV,P1,SDI
SIUP					

TIME - SEC.	·				•	
0.0	ETAIR = ERROTI= SDIST =	3.0000E -3.0000E 0.0	01	ETAIA = WV2D = WV1D =	6.0000E 0.0 0.0	01
2.0000E-02	ETAIR =	2.9845E	01	ETALA = -	-3.1007E-	-01
	ERROTI=	1.0000E	00	WV2D =	6.0000E	01
	SDIST =	1.1969E	00	WV1D =	6.0000E	01
4.0000E-02	ETAIR =	2.9677E	01	ETAIA = -	4.4492E-	01
	ERROTI=	1.0000E	00	WV2D =	5.9801E	01
	SDIST =	2.3874E	00	WV1D =	5.9797E	01
6.0000E-02	ETA1R =	2.9462E	01	ETAIA =	1.1416E	00
	ERROTI=	1.0000E	00	WV2D =	5.7759E	01
	SDIST =	3.5703E	00	WV1D =	5.7807E	01
8.0000E-02	ETAIR =	2.9200E	01	ETAIA =	3.4402E	00
	ERROTI=	1.0000E	00	WV2D =	5.4877E	01
	SDIST =	4.7436E	00	WV1D =	5.5042E	01
1.0000E-01	ETAIR =	2.8895E	01	ETA1A =	6.2622E	00
	ERROTI=	1.0000E	00	WV2D =	5.1340E	01
	SUIST =	5.9056E	00	WV1D =	5.1716E	01
1.2000E-01	ETAIR =	2.8586E	01	ETA1A =	1.0605E	01
	ERROTI=	-3.0000E	00	WV2D =	4.6034E	01
	SDIST =	7.0551E	00	WV1D =	4.7100E	01
1.4000E-01	ETAIR =	2.8277E	01	ETALA =	1.4292E	01
	ERROTI=	-3.0000E	00	WV2D =	4.1052E	01
	SDIST =	8.1924E	00	WV1D =	4.3471E	01
I.6000E-01	ETAIR =	2.7977E	01	ETATA =	1.0123E	01
	ERROTI=	1.0000E	00	WV2D =	4.3872E	01
	SDIST =	9.3173E	00	WV1D =	4.7789E	01
1.8000E-01	ETAIR =	2.7668E	01	ETALA =	7.2314E	00
	Erroti=	1.0000E	00	WV2D =	4.7189E	01
	Sdist =	1.0430E	01	WV1D =	4.9021E	01
2.0000E-01	ETAIR =	2.7360E	01	ETALA =	1.0994E	01
	ERROTI=	-3.0000E	00	WV2D =	4.2632E	01
	SDIST =	1.1531E	01	WV1D =	4.4818E	01
2.2000E-01	ETAIR =	2.7051E	01	ETALA =	1.4730E	01
	Erruti=	-3.0000E	00	WV2D =	3.7541E	01
	Sdist =	1.2619E	01	WV1D =	4.1204E	01
2.4000E-01	ETAIR =	2.6751E	01	ETALA =	1.0613E	01
	ERROTI=	1.0000E	00	WV2D =	4.0238E	01
	SDIST =	1.3695E	01	WV1D =	4.5541E	01
2.6000E-01	ETAIR =	2.6444E	01	ETALA =	7.7312E	00
	ERROTI=	1.0000E	00	WV2D =	4.3437E	01
	SDIST =	1.4759E	01	WV1D =	4.6875E	01

Typical Output of Suboptimal One-Wheel Control System

APPENDIX II

PROGRAM USED IN OPTIMAL DIGITAL CONTROL SYSTEM

BASED ON GREEN'S THEOREM APPROACH

```
DIMENSION XY(10000), YY(10000), BUFFER(1000)
     CALL PLCTS(BUFFER(1), 4000)
     CALL PLOT (0.0,-12.0, 3)
     CALL PLCT(2.0,-11.5,2)
     EXTERNAL EVAL, OUT
     DIMENSION P(5), AUX(8,2), Y(2), DY(2)
     I = 1
     COMMON K, U, F1, W
     COMMON/AREA1/XY,YY,I
     U=.8
     KLOCP=1
   2 K=99
     N=2
     P(1)=0.
     P(3) = .000002
     P(2)=2.
     P(4) = 1.
     Y(1) = 60.
     Y(2) = 60
     DY(1) = 1.
     CY(2) = 0.0
     WRITE(25,20CO)
2000 FORMAT(6X, 'T'12X'VV'12X'WV'12X'U'12X'F1'12X'W'12X'IB
   7 CALL RKGS (P,Y,DY,N,IBIS,EVAL,OUT,AUX)
     IF(Y(1).LE.0.11190 ) GC TO 5
     KLOCP=KLOOP+1
     IF(KLCOP-15) 2,5,5
   5 CALL SCALE(YY, 5.0, 10000, 1, 10.0)
     CALL SCALE(XY, 5.0, 10000, 1, 10.0)
     CALL AXIS(0.0,0.0, 'Y', 1, 6.0, 90.0, YY(10001), YY(10002)
     CALL AXIS(0.0,0.0, 'X', -1, 6.0, 0.0, XY(10001), XY(10002)
     CALL LINE(XY, YY, 10000, 1,0,0)
     CALL PLCT (0.0,0.0,999)
     STOP
     END
```

SUBROUTINE EVAL (T,Y,DY) DIMENSION Y(2), DY(2), P(5) COMMON K, U, F1, W W= 225*EXP(225*(Y(2)/Y(1)-1))-23.5*EXP(23.5*(Y(2)/Y 4 F1=EXP(-.225)*EXP(.225*Y(2)/Y(1))-EXP(-23.5)*EXP(23.5: V=U DY(1)=-32.*F1 DY(2)=1210.*F1-1584.*V 11 RETURN END SUBROUTINE OUT (T,Y,DY, IBIS, N,P) DIMENSION Y(2), DY(2), P(5) DIMENSION XY(10000), YY(10000) COMMON K.U.FI.W COMMON/AREA1/XY,YY,I IF(NN.NE.1) GO TO 301 CALL FIND2 (U,W,F1,T,Y,IBIS,P) RETURN 301 CALL FIND1(U, W, F1, T, Y, CY, IBIS, N, P, NN, K) RETURN END SUBROUTINE FIND2(U, W, F1, T, Y, IBIS, P) DIMENSION Y(2),P(5) DIMENSION XY(10000), YY(10000) COMMON/AREA1/XY,YY,I $IF(T_{\bullet}GE_{\bullet}O_{\bullet}15608) P(5) = 1.0$ IF(W.GT.0.0) GO TG 1 1 IF(W.EQ.0.0) GO TO 3 GO TO 2 1 IF(U.GT.0.0) U=U-.01 GO TO 3 2 IF(U.LT.0.9999) U=U+.C1 3 K = K + 1IF(K-100) 4,5,5 5 WRITE (25,2001) T, Y, U, F1, W, IBIS XY(I)=Y(1). . . YY(I)=Y(2)I = I + 12001 FORMAT(6E13.5, I5, 'YES') 202 K=0**4 RETURN** END

```
SUBROUTINE FIND1(U, W, F1, T, Y, DY, IBIS, N, P, NN, K)
     DIMENSION Y(2), DY(2), P(5)
     DIMENSION XY(10000), YY(10000)
     COMMON/AREA1/XY,YY,I
     IF(U.GT.0.9999) GO TO 200
     IF(ABS(W).GT.0.03) U=U+.01
 200 IF((T.GT.C.00005).AND.(U.LT.0.9999)) P(5)=1.
     K = K + 1
   IF(K-100) 1,2,2
2 WRITE(25,2001) T,Y,L,F1,W,IBIS
     XY(I)=Y(1)
     YY(I)=Y(2)
                    . . .
     I = I + 1
     IF(ABS(W).GT.0.01) GO TO 202
     NN=1
2001 FORMAT(6E13.5,15)
 202 K=0
   1 RETURN
     END
```

3	-0.23275E 02	-0.20700E 02	-0.18544E 02	-0.16743E 02	-0.15217E 02	-0.13907E 02	-0.12771E 02	-0.11777E 02	-0.10904E 02	-0.10135E 02	-0.94482E 01	-0.88295E 01	-0.82696E 01	-0.77613E 01	-0.72977E 01	-0.68731E 01	-0.64825E 01	-0.61236E 01	-0.57917E 01	-0.54841E 01	-0.51982E 01	-0.49319E 01	-0.46843E 01	-0.44529E 01	-0.42356E 01	-0.40316E 01	
F1	-0.35763E-06	0.10849E 00	0.19919E 00	0.27486E 00	0.33893E 00	0.39383E 00	0.44138E 00	0.48294E 00	0.51935E 00	0.55140E 00	0.57999E 00	0.60570E 00	0.62893E 00	0.64998E 00	0.66914E 00	0.68666E 00	0.70275E 00	0.71751E 00	0.73113E 00	0.74373E 00	0.75542E 00	0.76628E 00	0.77635E 00	0.78575E 00	0.79455E 00	0.80279E 00	
D	0. 8100CE 00	0. 10000E 01	0.100C0E 01	0.100C0E 01	0.10000E 01	0.10000E 01	0.10000E 01	0.100C0E 01	0.10000E 01	0.100C0E 01	0.10000E 01	0.100COE 01	0.100C0E 01	0.10000E 01	0.10000E 01	0.100COE 01											
>3	0.60000E 02	0.55701E 02	0.55421E 02	0.55160E 02	0.58917E 02	0.58687E C2	0.58470E 02	0.58264E 02	0.58067E 02	0.57879E C2	0.57698E 02	0.57523E 02	0.57354E 02	0.57191E 02	0.57033E 02	0.56878E 02	0.56728E C2	0.56582E 02	0.56439E 02	0.563COE 02	0.56163E 02	0.56029E 02	0.55857E 02	0.55769E 02	0.55642E 02	0.55516E 02	
>>	0.60000E 02	0.59598E 02	0.59595E 02	0.59592E 02	0.59989E 02	0.59586E 02	0.55583E 02	0.55579E 02	0.59975E 02	0.59569E 02	0.59963E 02	0.55557F 02	0.55551E 02	0.55545E 02	0.55939F 02	0.59933E 02	0.55526F 02	0.59520E 02	0.59914F 02	0.55508E 02	0.59502E 02	0.59896E 02	0.55890E 02	0.55884E 02	0.55878E 02	0.59872E 02	
	0•0	0.20000E-03	0.39954E-03	0.59588E-03	0.79981E-03	0.99974E-03	0.11957E-02	0.13996E-02	0.15995E-02	0.17995E-02	0.19954E-02	0.21993E-02	0.23953E-02	0.25992E-02	0.27951E-02	0.29991E-02	0.31990E-02	0.33989E-02	0.35989E-02	0.37988E-02	0.39984E-02	0.41577E-02	0.43970E-02	0.45963E-02	0.47956E-02	0•49945E-02	

TABLE A 2.1 SAMPLE OUTPUT OF FIRST PART OF OPTIMAL DIGITAL PROGRAM-NONSINGULAR TRAJECTORY

-0.10061E-02 -0.91559E-03 -0.83369E-03 -0.66608E-03 -0.67383E-03 -0.50998E-03 -0.55903E-03 -0.65792E-03 -0.92059E-03 -0.10114E-02 -0.73987E-03 -0.78946E-03 -0.83882E-03 -0.68104E-03 -0.34404E-03 0.14341E-03 0.73785E-03 0.89455E-03 0.10138E-02 0.79167E-03 0.39291E-03 -0.17202E-03 -0.64689E-03 -0.95654E-03 -0.80605E-02 -0.86105E-03 -0.73475E-03 -0.78434E-03 -0.60862E-03 -0.94002E-03 -0.23197E-01 -0.15503E-01 -0.31150E-0 3 00 00 00 00 8 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 8 00 00 8 8 8 8 8 00 0 8 8 8 8 8 00 00 0 8 8 L 0.94685E 0.94690E 0.94681E 0.94688E 0.94690E 0.94690E 0.94690E 0.94690E 0.94690E 0.94690E 0.94650E 0.94690E 0**.**94690E 00 80 01 00 00 00 8 00 80 00 00 00 00 8 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 8 00 00 00 00 00 10 10 10 01 10000E 0.100C0E 0.100C0E 0.100C0E 0.100C0E 0.800C0E 0.71999E 365676.0 0.67999E 0.67598E 71958E 0.79598E 87558E 0.87957E 87997E 87997E **799565** 0.7199¢E 0. 67996E 67995E 0.67995E 59995E 0.51995E 0.47954E 0.57954E 0.65954E 0.75953E 83553E 51993E 3E5665 85952E 0.81952E 0.71992E . . • • • • • . . . • C 2 02 02 02 02 C 2 02 23 02 02 02 02 02 02 02 02 02 02 02 C2 02 02 02 02 C2 C2 23 02 02 S 02 0.47457E 0 • 474 44E 0.47368E 0.47872E 0.47784E 0.47655E 0.47607E 0.47518E 0.47510E 0.47502E 0.47498E 0.47494E 0.47487E 0.47482E 0.47475E 0.47471E 0.47466E 0.47462F 0.47460E 0.47449E 0.47440E 0.47433E 0.47424F 0.47414E 0.474 C2E 0.47395E 0.47389E 0.47386E 0.47386E 0.47388E 0.47389E 0.47382E 0.47514E 2 02 02 02 02 02 02 02 02 C2 0.59377F 0.59371E 0.59365E 59359F 0.59347E 0.59341F 0.55334E 0.59328E 0.59322E 0.59316E 0.55310E 0.59304E 0.59298E 0.59292F 0.55286E 0.59279E 0.59273E 0.59267E 0.59261E 0.59249E 0.59243E 0.59237F 0.55231E 0.59225E 0.59218E 0.59212E 0.59206F 0.59200E 59194F 59389F 0.59383E 0. 59353E 0.59255F 8 • • 0.21936E-01 0.22334E-01 0.23331E-01 0.23530E-01 0.23729E-01 0.25125E-C1 0.20939E-01 0-21138E-01 0.21736E-01 0.22135E-01 0.22534E-U1 0.22733E-01 0.23132E-01 0.23929E-01 0.24128E-C1 0.24527E-01 0.25722E-01 .20740E-01 0.21338E-01 0.21537E-01 0.22932E-01 0.24327E-01 0.24726E-01 24925E-01 0.25324E-01 0.25523E-01 0.25922E-01 -26121E-01 •26320E-01 0.26520E-01 0.26719E-01 0.26918E-01 0.27118F-C1 FH 0 0 0 0

START OF SINGULAR TRAJECTORY

SAMPLE OUTPUT OF OPTIMAL DIGITAL PROGRAM AT

TABLE A 2.2

140

1

APPENDIX III

Differential Forms

A2.1 Introduction

Knowledge of differential forms is useful in the analysis and synthesis of engineering systems. A more complete treatment may be found in Flanders [F7].

The objects that occur under integral signs are called exterior differential forms. For example, the line integral, surface integral, and volume integral lead to the following differential forms in 3dimensional Euclidean space:

$\omega = A dx + B dy + C dz$	(one-form)	(A2.1)
$\alpha = P dydz + Q dzdx + R dxdy$	(two-form)	(A2.2)
$\lambda = H dxdydz$	(three-form)	(A2.3)

In the n-dimensional space, the quantities are called r-forms in n variables.

A2.2 Exterior Algebra

In the algebra of differential forms the operations of addition and multiplication obey the usual associative and distributive laws. Multiplication, however, is not commutative but anticommutative, i.e.,

$$dx_{i} \wedge dx_{j} = -dx_{i} \wedge dx_{i}$$
 (A2.4)

The exterior product is sometimes called the wedge product. Often the product symbol Λ is omitted. Hence,

$$dx_{i} dx_{j} = -dx_{j} dx_{i}$$
(A2.4)

This implies

$$dx_{i} \wedge dx_{i} = 0$$
(A2.5)

In the two-form given (A2.2), use of (A2.4) eliminates terms like dzdy.

The exterior product has the following properties:

(1)
$$(\omega + \zeta) \Lambda_{\eta} = (\omega \Lambda_{\eta}) + (\zeta \Lambda_{\eta})$$
 (A2.5)

(2)
$$(c\omega)\Lambda\zeta = c(\omega\Lambda\zeta)$$
 (A2.6)

(3) $\zeta \wedge \omega = (-1)^{rs} \omega \wedge \zeta$, (A2.7)

if ω has degree r and ζ has degree s

(4)
$$(\zeta \Lambda \omega) \Lambda \eta = \zeta \Lambda (\omega \Lambda \eta)$$
 (A2.8)

A2.3 The Exterior Derivative

The exterior derivative of a p-form ω is a (p+1)-form d ω obtained by applying an operator d to transform ω to d ω .

For example if ω is a three-form in four variables

$$\omega = \sum_{i < j < k} \omega_{ijk} dx_i \wedge dx_j \wedge dx_k$$
(A2.9)

or, omitting the product symbol

 $\omega = \omega_{123} \, dx_1 dx_2 dx_3 + \omega_{124} \, dx_1 dx_2 dx_4 + \omega_{234} \, dx_2 dx_3 dx_4 \quad (2.10)$ The exterior differential d ω is defined as

$$d\omega = \sum_{i < j < k} d\omega dx_i dx_j dx_k \qquad (2.11)$$

Where ω_{ijk} is a function of x_1, x_2, x_3 , and x_4 and is assumed to be differentiable.

This definition is readily generalized.

The exterior differential has the following properties:

- (1) $d(\omega + \eta) = d\omega + d\eta$ (A2.12)
- (2) $d(\omega \Lambda \eta) = d\omega \Lambda \eta + (-1)^{r} \omega \Lambda d\eta$, (A2.13)

if ω is an r-form and nis an s-form

(3)
$$d(d\omega) = 0$$
 (A2.14)

 $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ and $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ are assumed to be differentiable.

Property 3 is called the Poincare' lemma. It implies the equality of mixed second partial derivatives. The general case is proved by induction.

For simplicity only the O-form is 3 variables is considered,

$$\omega = f(x) \tag{A2.15}$$

Then there results the 1-form

$$d\omega = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} dy + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} dz \qquad (2.16)$$

Then

$$d(d_{\omega}) = d(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}) \wedge dx + d(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}) \wedge dy + d(\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}) \wedge dz$$
 (A2.17)

Carrying out the differentiation, and using the properties of exterior multiplication,

$$d(d\omega) = 0 \tag{A2.18}$$

In 3-space, the Poincare' lemma $d(d\omega) = 0$ interprets as

curl (grad f) = 0 (A2.19)

div (curl V) = 0(A2.20)

A2.4 Integration of Forms

The primary purpose of this section is to present the n-dimensional Green's Theorem, also called the n-dimensional Stoke's Theorem. What the classical theorems state for curves and surfaces, these theorems state for the higher-dimensional analogs called manifolds.

An n-dimensional manifold consists of a space M and a collection of local coordinates neighborhoods N_1, N_2, \ldots such that each point of M lies in at least one of the neighborhoods. Whereas, an n-dimensional manifold may not be a Euclidean space, it appears to be Euclidean to a short-sighted observer in the manifold.

The proof of the n-dimensional Green's Theorem is simplified if the concepts of chains and Euclidean simplices are introduced. This is done to eliminate the need to chop up manifolds into small pieces. Instead of working with manifolds where things are more difficult, Euclidean spaces may be used where things are relatively more simple.

Euclidean simplices are defined as follows:

- A 0-simplex is a single point (p_0) .
- A 1-simplex is a directed closed segment on a straight line. It is completely determined by its ordered pair of vertices (P_0, P_1) .
- A 2-simplex is a closed triangle with vertices taken in some definite order. It is determined by the ordered triple (P_0, P_1, P_2) .
- A 3-simplex is similarly the ordered quadruple (P_0, P_1, P_2, P_3) .

In general, an n-simplex is the closed convex hull (P_0, \ldots, P_n) of (n+1) independent points taken in a definite order. Independent points means that the n vectors (P_1-P_0) , (P_2-P_0) , \ldots (P_n-P_0) are linearly independent. The convexity condition implies that the n-simplex is the set of points.

$$P = t_{0}P_{0} + \dots + t_{n}P_{n} \qquad t_{i} \ge 0, \ \Sigma \ t_{i} = 1 \qquad (A2.21)$$

The boundary **3S** of a simplex S is a formal sum of one lower dimension with integer coefficients defined as follows:

$$P_0, P_1, \dots, P_n) = \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^i (P_0, \dots, P_{i-1}; P_{i+1}, \dots, P_n) (A2.22)$$

i.

For example, the 3-simplex is bounded by four faces, i.e.

$$\partial(P_0, P_1, P_2, P_3) = (P_1, P_2, P_3) - (P_0, P_2, P_3) + (P_0, P_1, P_2) - (P_0, P_1, P_2)$$
 (A2.23)

The terms having positive signs correspond to orientations which may be associated with an outward normal if the points are traversed in a counter clockwise direction. See Figure A2-1.



Figure A 2.1 3-Simplex with Orientation

An <u>n-chain</u> is a formal sum $C = \sum a^{i}S_{i}$ (A2.24) where a^{i} are constants and S_{i} are n-simplices. The boundary of the chain is defined as $\partial C = \sum a^{i} \partial S_{i}$ (A2.25) As a result, the boundary of each chain has zero boundary. $\partial(\partial C) = 0$ (A2.26) For example consider the boundary of the 2-simplexS where $S = (P_{U}, P_{1}, P_{2})$ (A2.27) Then

$$\partial S = \partial (P_0, P_1, P_2) = (P_1, P_2) - (P_0, P_2) + (P_0, P_1)$$
 (A2.28)

and

$$\partial(\partial S) = (P_2 - P_1) - (P_2 - P_0) + (P_1 - P_0)$$
 (A2.29)

Hence

$$\partial(\partial S) = 0 \tag{A2.30}$$

and

$$\partial(\partial C) = 0 \tag{A2.31}$$

It is convenient to have standard models of the simplices. The standard n-simplex is defined as

$$S^{-n} = (R_0, \dots, R_n)$$
 (A2.32)

The points R_0 , ..., R_n in n-dimensional space are taken as

 $R_0 = (0 \dots 0)$ $R_1 = (10 \dots 0)$ $R_2 = (010 \dots 0)$ \vdots $R_n = (00 \dots 01)$

Integration of a n-form defined on a domain N of E^{n} which includes S^{-n} is written as

$$\int_{s^{-n}} \omega = \int_{s^{-n}} A(x_1, \dots, x_n) dx_1 dx_2 \dots dx_n$$
(A2.33)

The right side is standard ordinary n-fold integration over the standard n-simplex.

Since we wish to integrate a n-form on a manifold M, it is necessary to relate the standard n-simplex to the n-simplex in M (denoted by σ^{n}). Hence

$$\int_{\sigma} \omega = \int_{s^{-n}} \phi^{\star} \omega \tag{A2.34}$$

where ϕ is a smooth mapping of the neighborhood N of s⁻ⁿ into M.

It can be shown that

$$\int_{\partial \sigma} \omega = \int_{\sigma} d\omega \qquad (A2.35)$$

Also since
$$C = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_{i} \sigma_{i}^{n}$$
,

$$\int_{\partial C} \omega = \int_{C} d\omega$$
(A2.36)

This is Stoke's Theorem in its most general form. Recall that C is a chain and ∂C is its boundary.

APPENDIX IV

ALTERNATE DIGITAL PROGRAM

****CONTINUOUS SYSTEM MODELING PROGRAM****

*****PROBLEM INPUT STATEMENTS*****

```
TITLE
          ASKC
FUNCT
          MUET 1= (-.15,-1.), (C.,0.0), (.C75,.6), (.15,1.), (.57
FUNCT
          MUET2=(-.15,-1.),(0.,0.0),(.075,.6),(.15,1.),(.57)
METHOD
          RKSFX
          A=1.,B=1.
PARAM
          MU1=A*AFGEN(MUET1,ETA1)
          MU2=B*AFGEN(MUET2.ETA2)
          VVDOT = -8 + (MU1 + MU2 + A + B)
          VV=INTGRL(60.0,VVDOT)
          VVD=VV
          SDIST=INTGRL (0.0,VV)
          WV1=INTGRL(60.0,WV1DOT)
          WV1COT=1210.+MU1-C.79+T1
          WV2DOT=1210.*MU2-0.79*T2
          WV2 = INTGRL(60.0, WV2DOT)
          WV11=LIMIT(0,60,0,WV1)
          WV1C=DELAY(1..010.wv11)
          ETA1=1.0-WV11/VV
          WV22=LIMIT(0.,60.0,WV2)
          WV2D=DELAY(1,.010,WV22)
           ETA2=1.0-WV22/VV
          T1=1.66*P1
          T_{2=1.66*P_{2}}
          P2=P1
          ETA1R= .15+VV
          ETA1A= VVC-(WV1D+WV2D)=.5
          Y1 = DERIV(0.0, ETA1A)
          ERRIN1 = (ETA | A + \cdot 15 + Y1) - ETA | R
          ERR IN2=(ETA2A+.15+Y2)-ETA2R
          ERROT1=INSW(ERRIN1, 1.0,-3.0)
          E1=15000.+ERROT1
          P1 = INTGRL(C.O.X1)
          X1=X11+E1
          X11=IOR(Y111,Y112)
          Y111=AND(Y11,P1)
          Y112=AND(E1, Y12)
          Y11=NOT(E1)
          Y12=NOT(P1-1200.)
TIMER
          FINT IM=4., DELT=. COC2, DEL MIN=.00000001, PRDEL=.02,0
FINISH
          VV = 1 \cdot 0
PRINT
          ETAIR, ETAIA, MUI, ERRINI, ERRCTI,
                                               WV2D,VV,P1,SDIST
PRTPLT SIZE(5.,6.)VV,WV1D
PARAM SIZE=0.
```

149 ****CONTINUOUS SYSTEM MODELING PROGRAM****

*****PROBLEM INPUT STATEMENTS*****

TITLE ASKC	
METHOD RKSFX	
PARAM B=1C=1D=2.	
FUNCT MUETI=(15,-1.), TO., O. 01, (.075,.6), (.15, 1.), (.	57
FUNCT MUET2=(15,-1.),(0.,0.0),(.075,.6),(.15,1.),(.	57
MU1=B*AFGEN(MUET1,ETA1)	
MU2=C+AFGEN(MUET2.ETA2)	
VVDOT=-8.*(MU1+MU2+D)	
VV = INTGRL(60.0.VVDOT)	
VVD=DELAY(5.OI5.VV)	
WV1D0T=1210.*MU1-0.79*T1	
WV2DOT=1210.+MU2-0.79+T2	
SDIST=INTGRL(0.0,VV)	
WV1=INTGRL(60.0,WV1DDT)	
WV2=INTGRL(60.,WV2DOT)	
ETA1A=VVD-WVID	
ETA2A=VVD-WV2D	
T1=1.66*P11	
$T_{2}=1.66 \pm P_{2}^{2}$	
ETA1=1.0-WV11/VV	
FTA2=1,0-WV22/VV	
WV11=1 INTTED60.0.WVT1	
$\forall V22=1$ INIT(0, 60, 0, $\forall V2$)	
WV2D=DFLAY(5015.WV221	
WV10=DELAY(5015.WV11)	
FTA1R=_R5#VVD	
FTA2R=_85#VVD	
Y1=DFRTV(0.0.WV1D)	
Y2=DERIV(0,0,WV2D)	
FRRIN1=FTAIR-WV1D-,10#V1	
FRR IN2=FTA2R-WV2D10=V2	
$FRR(T) = INSW(FRR(IN) - I_{C}) - I_{C} O)$	
$FRR \cap T^2 = INSW (FRR IN2 \cdot I_2 \cap I_3 \cap I$	
E1=15000. *FRROTI	
$E_{2=15000}$ + ERROT2	
$P_{2=1NTGRL}(0,0,F_2)$	
$P_{2} = I (I ($	
P11 = I I I I I (0.1200.01)	
	12.1
PRTPLT SI7F(46.).TIME.WV10.VV	
IAREL WHEEL VELOCITY VS TIME	
PARAN SI7Fan.	
PRTPLT_SI7F(5,.6,).TIME.P1	
DRTDI T ST7F15	
PRTPLT SIJE(56.).TIME.FRRINI	
PRTPLT SI7F(56.).TIME.WV2D	
PRINT FTAIR.MUL.FRRIN1_FRRNT1_WVID_VVD_VV_P1_SDIST	
END	

******CONTINUOUS SYSTEM MODELING PROGRAM******

.

PROBLEM INPUT STATEMENTS

```
TITLE
         BRAKING DYNAMICS
         MUET1=(-.15,-1.),(0.,0.0),(.075..6),(.15.1.).(.57..9).
FUNCT
METHOD
        RKSFX
                                      PARAM
         A1=1.,A2=.9,A3=.9,A4=1.
         MA=156.,A=4.,B=6.,IV=1326.,W=3.,IWR=1.375,W1=1250.,W2=
PARAM
         W3=1250..W4=1250.
PARAM
         MU1=A1+AFGEN(MUET1.FTA1)
         MU2=A2*AFGEN(MUET1,ETA2)
         MU3=A3+AFGEN(MUET1,ETA3)
         MU4=A4+AFGEN(MUET1.ETA4)
         UDOT=V*R-(1./MA)*(B1+B2+B3+B4)
         U = INTGRL(60..UDOT)
         VDDT = -U = R - (1./MA) = (L1 + L2 + L3 + L4)
         V=INTGRL(0..VDDT)
         RDOT = (1./IV) + (B + (L3 + L4) - A + (L1 + L2) + W + (B1 + B4 - B2 - B3))
         R = INTGRL(0.,RDOT)
         ALPH1 = (V + A + R) / U1
         ALPH2=(V+A*R)/U2
         ALPH3=(V-B*R)/U3
         ALPH4=(V-B*R)/U4
         U1=U-W*R
                    المعدد الدراسم المالية
         112=11+11=R
         U3=U+W*R
         U4=U-W*R
         SDIST=INTGRL(0.0.U)
         WV1D0T=B1/IWR-0.79*T1
         WV2DOT=B2/IWR-0.79+T2
         WV3D0T=B3/IWR-0.79+T3
         WV4D0T=B4/IWR-0.79+T4
                                    . ....
         WV1 = INTGRL(60..WV1DOT)
         WV2=INTGRL(60.,WV2DOT)
         WV3=INTGRL(60.,WV3DOT)
         WV4=INTGRL(60,,WV4DOT)
         WV11 = LIMIT(0.,60.,WV1)
         WV22=LIMIT(0.,60.,WV2)
         WV33=LIMIT(0.,60.,WV3)
         WV44=LIMIT(0.,60.,WV4)
         WV1D=DELAY(1,.020,WV11)
         WV2D=DELAY(1,.020,WV22)
         WV3D=DELAY(1,.020,WV33)
         WV4D=DELAY(1,.020,WV44)
         ETA1=1.-WV11/U1
         ETA2=1.-WV22/U2
                                    ETA3=1.-WV33/U3
         ETA4=1.-WV44/U4
         T1=1.66*P11
         T2=1.66*P22
```

```
T3=1.66*P33
         T4=1.66*P44
         B1=MU1+W1+COS(7.85+ALPH1)
                                            . . . . . . . . . . . . .
         B2=MU2*W2*COS(7.85*ALPH2)
         B3=MU3+W3+COS(7.85+ALPH3)
         B4=MU4*W4*COS(7.85*ALPH4)
         L1=MU1+W1+SIN(7.85+ALPH1)
         L2=MU2+W2+SIN(7.85+ALPH2)
         L3=MU3+W3+SIN(7.85+ALPH3)
         L4=MU4+W4+SIN(7.85+ALPH4)
         ETA1R=0.5+U
         ETA1A=U-.25*(WV1D+WV2D+WV3D+WV4D)
         Y1=DERIV(0.,ETA1A)
         ERRIN1=(ETA1A+.15+Y1)-ETA1R
         ERROTI=INSW(ERRIN1,1,-3,)
         E1=15000.+ERROT1
         P1 = INTGRL(0., X1)
         P2=P1
         P3=P1
         P4=P1
         X1=X11*E1
         X11=IOR(Y111,Y112)
         Y111=AND(Y11,P1)
         Y112=AND(E1,Y12)
         Y11=NOT(E1)
         Y12=N0T(P1-1200.)
         P11=DELAY(1,.020,P1)
         P22 = P11
                   P33=P11
         P44=P11
         HEAD=INTGRL(0.,R)
         YDOT=U*COS(HEAD)-V*SIN(HEAD)
         XDOT=U#SIN(HEAD)+V*COS(HEAD)
         Y=INTGRL(0.,YDOT)
                                    X=INTGRL(0.,XDOT)
         TIMER
                 FINTIM=4., DELT=.0002, DELMIN=.000000001, PRDEL
FINISH
          U=1.
        MU1, WV1, WV2, WV3, WV4, U, V, R, P1, Y, X, HEAD
PRINT
PRTPLT
        MU1, WV1, WV2, WV3, WV4, U, V, R, P1, MU2, MU3, MU4
END
         A1=1., A2=.7, A3=.7, A4=1.
PARAM
RESET LABEL
         70 PERCENT MU
LABEL
END
PARAM
         A=1., A2=.5, A3=.5, A4=1.
RESET LABEL
         50 PERCENT MU ON ONE SIDE
LABEL
END
STOP
```

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151
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