

Optimal control of discrete-time hybrid automata under safety and liveness constraints

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Abstract—In this contribution we address an optimal control problem for a class of discrete-time hybrid automata under safety and liveness constraints. The solution is based on a hierarchical decomposition of the problem, where the low-level controller enforces safety and liveness constraints while the high-level controller exploits the remaining degrees of freedom for performance optimisation. Lower-level control is based on a discrete abstraction of the continuous dynamics. The action of low-level control can be interpreted as restricting invariants in the hybrid automaton representing the plant model.

I. INTRODUCTION

Hybrid automata are dynamic systems that consist of both continuous dynamics (modelled by a set of differential or difference equations) and a switching scheme (modelled by invariants and guards). Hybrid automata (and other modelling paradigms for hybrid systems) have been widely investigated because of their importance in many application areas. Often, the control objective for such systems is to minimise a cost function while respecting safety and liveness constraints. There are a number of abstraction-based control synthesis approaches that address safety and liveness issues while largely ignoring performance optimisation aspects. On the other hand, optimal control approaches to hybrid problems are often not able to handle “hard” safety constraints. It is therefore natural to combine both approaches to provide a method for synthesising a closed loop control strategy which minimises a given cost function under certain safety and liveness constraints.

In a previous paper, [1], the authors merged a supervisory control problem (addressing safety and liveness constraints) with an optimal control problem (addressing cost minimisation) for a hybrid automaton where only a *finite* number of switches is allowed. In this contribution an *infinite* number of switches is allowed and all dynamics may be non-Hurwitz. Furthermore in contrast to [1], both the supervisory control problem and the optimal control problem are solved within the framework of *discrete-time* hybrid automata. This allows a much more coherent way of treating both control synthesis aspects.

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This contribution is organised as follows: in Section 2, we recall some basic facts on hybrid automata, introduce the plant model and formalise the specifications. In Section 3, the safety and liveness requirements are addressed using ℓ -complete abstraction of the continuous plant dynamics. In Section 4, the remaining degrees of freedom are used to minimise a quadratic cost function. In Section 5, a numerical example is provided.

Finally, a remark regarding terminology. As time, i.e. the domain of signals, is discrete throughout this paper, the words “continuous” and “discrete” will always refer to the range of signals: continuous signals live in dense subsets of some Euclidean space, whereas discrete signals live in discrete, and for the purpose of this paper, finite sets; continuous (respectively discrete) systems are characterised by continuous (respectively discrete) signals.

II. PLANT MODEL AND SPECIFICATIONS

In this section we first define the class of Hybrid Automata (*HA*) on which we focus attention. Then we formally describe the safety specifications and the optimal control problem.

A. Hybrid Automata

A discrete-time hybrid automaton *HA* consists of a “classic” automaton extended with a continuous state $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ that evolves in discrete time with arbitrary dynamics [2], [3]. The hybrid automaton considered here is a structure $HA = (L, act, inv, E)$ defined as follows, (see, e.g. [4]).

- $L = \{1, \dots, \alpha\}$ is a finite set of locations.
- $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a continuous state space.
- $act : L \rightarrow \{X \rightarrow X\}$ is a function that associates to each location $i \in L$ a discrete time difference equation of the form

$$x(k+1) = f_i(x(k)). \quad (1)$$

- $inv : L \rightarrow 2^X$ is a function that associates to each location $i \in L$ an invariant $inv_i \subseteq X$.
- $E \subset L \times 2^X \times L$ is the set of edges. An edge $e_{i,j} = (i, g_{i,j}, j) \in E$ is an arc between locations i and j with associated guard region $g_{i,j}$.

We denote by hybrid state the pair (i, x) where the index i identifies the discrete location $i \in L$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the continuous state.

Starting from initial state $\xi_0 = (i, x_0) \in L \times X$, $x_0 \in \text{inv}_i$, the continuous state x may evolve according to the corresponding discrete-time transition function f_i , i.e., $x(k+1) = f_i(x(k))$, until it is about to leave the invariant inv_i , i.e. $f_i(x(k)) \notin \text{inv}_i$, $k \in \mathbb{N}$. This enforces a switch to another location j satisfying the guard constraint $x(k+1) = f_i(x(k)) \in g_{i,j}$, and the future evolution of the continuous state is now determined by the transition function f_j . If several potential “follow-up” locations satisfy the constraint, this degree of freedom can be exploited by an appropriate discrete control scheme. Thus, the sequence $l(k)$ of discrete locations can be interpreted as a constrained control input. Note that the hybrid automaton may also switch to a “new” location j before being forced to leave its “old” location i , if the corresponding guard constraint is satisfied.

B. The Plant Model

In this paper we assume that the uncontrolled plant is modelled as a discrete-time hybrid automaton satisfying the following assumptions:

A1. (1) is linear, i.e.

$$x(k+1) = A_i x(k) \quad \forall i \in L, k \in \mathbb{N}_0.$$

A2. $\text{inv}_i = X \quad \forall i \in L$.

A3. $g_{i,j} = X \quad \forall (i, g_{i,j}, j) \in E$.

Hence, the uncontrolled plant is a switched linear system with no restrictions regarding the continuous evolution of the state (see A2) and the possibility to switch.

It will turn out in Section 3 that adding low-level control to the plant model will add nontrivial invariants to the plant automata. This may be interpreted as adding state space constraints that force the plant dynamics to respect safety and liveness constraints.

C. Safety Specification

To formalise *safety* specifications, the continuous plant state space X is partitioned via a function $q : X \rightarrow Y_d$, where Y_d is a finite set of symbols. To express both static and dynamic safety constraints, certain sequences of Y_d symbols are declared illegal or, in other words, the evolution of the hybrid automaton needs to be restricted such that only legal Y_d strings are generated. It is assumed that this set of strings can be realised by a finite automaton SP_Y .

The *liveness* requirement implies that $\forall i \in L, \forall k \in \mathbb{N}_0$, the following holds: $x(k) \in \text{inv}_i, f_i(x(k)) \notin \text{inv}_i \Rightarrow \exists e = (i, g_{i,j}, j), x(k) \in g_{i,j}$ and $x(k+1) = f_i(x(k)) \in \text{inv}_j$.

Note that the liveness condition guarantees the existence of an evolution $(i(k), x(k)), k \in \mathbb{N}_0$ from every initial hybrid state (i, x_0) .

D. Optimal Control Problem

Subject to plant model (Sec. 2.2), safety and liveness constraints (Sec. 2.3), we aim at minimising the cost function

$$J = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x(k)' Q_{i(k)} x(k), \quad (2)$$

where, for each $k \geq 0$ $i(k) \in L$, $Q_{i(k)}$ is a positive semidefinite real matrix.

This problem will now be approached using a high-level control hierarchy. Safety and liveness requirements are being taken care of by the low-level control. This is described in Section 3. The remaining degrees of freedom are used to minimise the cost function (2). This is described in Section 4.

III. THE LOW-LEVEL TASK

In a first step, the hybrid plant automaton is approximated by a finite state machine using the ℓ -complete approximation approach [5], [6]. Subsequently, Ramadge and Wonham’s supervisory control theory [7] is implemented to synthesise a least restrictive supervisor. Note that, in general, controller synthesis and approximation refinement are iterated until a nontrivial supervisor guaranteeing liveness and safety for the approximation can be computed. Attaching the resulting supervisor to the hybrid plant model amounts to introducing restricted invariants. The resulting hybrid automaton represents the plant under low-level control and can be guaranteed to respect both safety and liveness constraints.

A. Ordered set of discrete abstractions

The low-level control deals with a continuous system (1) with discrete external signals. $l : \mathbb{N}_0 \rightarrow L$ is the discrete control input and $y_d : \mathbb{N}_0 \rightarrow Y_d$ a discrete measurement signal. The set of output symbols, Y_d , is assumed to be finite: $Y_d = \{y_d^{(1)}, \dots, y_d^{(\beta)}\}$, and $q_y : X \rightarrow Y_d$ is the output map. Without loss of generality, the latter is supposed to be surjective (*onto*). The output map partitions the state space into a set of disjoint subsets $Y^{(i)} \subset X$, $i = 1, \dots, \beta$, i.e.

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{\beta} Y^{(i)} = X, \\ Y^{(i)} \cap Y^{(j)} = \emptyset \quad \forall i \neq j.$$

To implement supervisory control theory, the hybrid plant model is approximated by a purely discrete one. This is done using the method of ℓ -complete approximation [5], [8], which is described in the following paragraphs.

Denote the behaviour of the hybrid plant model by \mathcal{B}_{plant} , i.e. $\mathcal{B}_{plant} \subseteq (L \times Y_d)^{\mathbb{N}_0}$ is the set of all pairs of (discrete valued) input/output signals $w = (l, y_d)$ that (1) admits. In general, a time-invariant system with behaviour \mathcal{B} is called ℓ -complete if

$$w \in \mathcal{B} \Leftrightarrow \sigma^k w|_{[0,\ell]} \triangleq w|_{[k,k+\ell]} \in \mathcal{B}|_{[0,\ell]} \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}_0,$$

where σ is the unit shift operator and $w|_{[0,\ell]}$ denotes the restriction of the signal w to the domain $[0, \ell]$ [9]. For ℓ -complete systems we can decide whether a signal belongs to the system behaviour by looking at intervals of length ℓ . Clearly, an ℓ -complete system can be represented by a difference equation in its external variables with lag ℓ . The hybrid plant model (1) is, except for trivial cases, not ℓ -complete. For such systems, the notion of *strongest ℓ -complete approximation* has been introduced in [8]: a time-invariant dynamical system with behaviour \mathcal{B}_ℓ is called strongest ℓ -complete approximation for \mathcal{B}_{plant} if

- (i) $\mathcal{B}_\ell \supseteq \mathcal{B}_{plant}$,
- (ii) \mathcal{B}_ℓ is ℓ -complete,
- (iii) $\mathcal{B}_\ell \subseteq \tilde{\mathcal{B}}_\ell$ for any other ℓ -complete $\tilde{\mathcal{B}}_\ell \supseteq \mathcal{B}_{plant}$,

i.e. if it is the “smallest” ℓ -complete behaviour containing \mathcal{B}_{plant} . Obviously, $\mathcal{B}_\ell \supseteq \mathcal{B}_{\ell+1} \forall \ell \in \mathbb{N}$, hence the proposed approximation procedure may generate an ordered set of abstractions. Clearly, $w \in \mathcal{B}_\ell \Leftrightarrow w|_{[0,\ell]} \in \mathcal{B}_{plant}|_{[0,\ell]}$. For $w|_{[0,\ell]} = (l_0, \dots, l_\ell, y_d^{(i_0)}, \dots, y_d^{(i_\ell)})$ this is equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned} & f_{l_{\ell-1}}(\dots f_{l_1}(f_{l_0}(q_y^{-1}(y_d^{(i_0)})) \cap (q_y^{-1}(y_d^{(i_1)}))) \\ & \dots (q_y^{-1}(y_d^{(i_{\ell-1})})) \cap q_y^{-1}(y_d^{(i_\ell)})) \triangleq X(w|_{[0,\ell]}) \neq \emptyset, \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

where $l_i \in L$. Note that for a given string $w|_{[0,\ell]}$, $X(w|_{[0,\ell]})$ represents the set of possible values for the continuous state variable $x(\ell)$ if the system has responded to the input string $l(0) = l_0, \dots, l(\ell-1) = l_{\ell-1}$ with the output $y_d(0) = y_d^{i_0}, \dots, y_d(\ell) = y_d^{i_\ell}$ and that (3) does not depend on $l(\ell)$. For linear and affine systems evolving on discrete time \mathbb{N}_0 , (3) can be checked *exactly*.

As both input and output signal evolve on finite sets L and Y_d , \mathcal{B}_ℓ can be realised by a (nondeterministic) finite automaton. In [5], [8], a particularly intuitive realisation is suggested, where the approximation state variable stores information on past values of l and y_d . More precisely, the automaton state set can be defined as

$$X_d := \bigcup_{j=0}^{\ell-1} X_{dj}, \quad \ell \geq 1,$$

where $X_{d_0} = Y_d$ and X_{dj} is the set of all strings such that $\exists l_j \in L : (l_0, \dots, l_j, y_d^{(i_0)}, \dots, y_d^{(i_j)}) \in \mathcal{B}|_{[0,j]}$.

The temporal evolution of the automaton can be illustrated as follows:

From initial state $x_d(0) \in X_{d_0}$, it evolves through states

$$x_d(j) \in X_{dj}, \quad 1 \leq j \leq \ell - 1$$

while

$$x_d(j) \in X_{d\ell-1}, \quad j \geq \ell - 1.$$

Hence, until time $\ell - 1$, the approximation automaton state is a complete record of the system’s past and present, while from then onwards, it contains only information on the “recent” past and present.

As the states $x_d^{(i)} \in X_d$ of the approximation realisation are strings of input and output symbols, we can associate $x_d^{(i)}$ with a set of continuous states, $X(x_d^{(i)})$, in completely the same way as in (3).

Note that we can associate $y_d^{(i)}$ as the unique output for each discrete state $x_d^{(i)} \in X_d$. The resulting (non-deterministic) Moore-automaton $M_\ell = (X_d, L, Y_d, \delta, \mu, X_{d_0})$ with state set X_d , input set L , output set Y_d , transition function $\delta : X_d \times L \rightarrow 2^{X_d}$, output function $\mu : X_d \rightarrow Y_d$, and initial state set X_{d_0} is then a realisation of \mathcal{B}_ℓ . Note that the state of M_ℓ is instantly deducible from observed variables.

To recover the framework of supervisory control theory [7] as closely as possible, we finally convert M_ℓ into an equivalent automaton without outputs, $G_\ell = (\tilde{X}_d, \Sigma, \tilde{\delta}, \tilde{X}_{d_0})$, where $\Sigma = L \cup Y_d$, L represents the set of controllable events and Y_d the set of uncontrollable events.

Technically, this procedure is carried out according to the following scheme (for an illustration, see Fig.1):

- Each state $x_d^{(j)} \in X_d$ is split into two states: $\hat{x}_d^{(j)}$ and $\tilde{x}_d^{(j)}$. Thus, the new state set is formed as $\tilde{X}_d = X_d \cup \hat{X}_d$. The set of initial states remains the same, $\tilde{X}_{d_0} = X_{d_0}$.
- The new transition function $\tilde{\delta}$ is defined as a union of two transition functions with nonintersecting domains:

$$\tilde{\delta}(\tilde{x}_d^{(i)}, \sigma^{(j)}) = \begin{cases} \delta(\sim \tilde{x}_d^{(i)}, \sigma^{(j)}), & \tilde{x}_d^{(i)} \in \hat{X}_d, \sigma^{(j)} \in L, \\ \sim \tilde{x}_d^{(i)}, & \tilde{x}_d^{(i)} \in X_d, \\ \sigma^{(j)} = \mu(\tilde{x}_d^{(i)}) \in Y_d, & \\ \emptyset, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

where \sim denotes an operation of taking the complementary state, i.e. $\sim \hat{x}_d^{(i)} \triangleq \tilde{x}_d^{(i)}$ and vice versa. Note that the first event always belongs to the set Y_d , the following evolution consists of sequences where events from L and Y_d alternate.

B. Specification and supervisor design

Safety requirements can often be formalised as a set of acceptable pairs of input/output signals. In many applications we have independent specifications for both inputs and outputs, which can be realised by finite automata $SP_L = (S_L, L, \delta_L, S_{L0})$ and $SP_Y = (S_Y, Y_d, \delta_Y, S_{Y0})$. These automata can be characterised according to their *current-state observability*:

Definition 1: [10] A finite state machine $A = (Q, \Sigma, \phi)$ is said to be *current-state observable* if there exists a nonnegative integer K such that for every $i \geq K$, for any initial state $q(0)$, and for any sequence of events $\sigma(0) \dots \sigma(i-1)$ the state $q(i)$ can be uniquely determined. The parameter K is referred to as the *index of observability*.

Deterministic finite automata are basically current-state observable. If there are indistinguishable states, they can be merged without changing the behaviour. Thus, we can use the current-state observability indices K_L and K_Y to characterise the specification automata SP_L and SP_Y .

The next step is to design an overall specification modelled by a finite automaton $SP = SP_L \parallel SP_Y$.

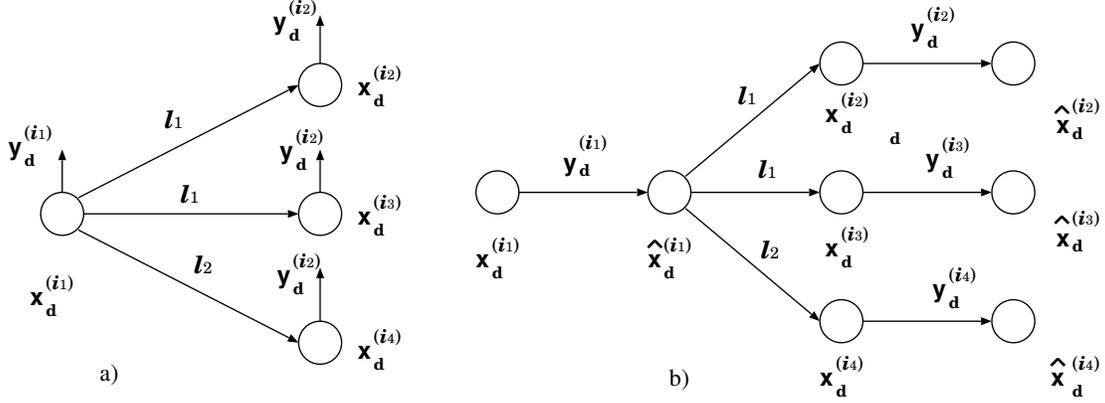


Fig. 1. Moore-automaton a) and an equivalent automaton without outputs b). Note that $y_d^{(ij)} = \mu(x_d^{(ij)}) \in Y_d$ is the output symbol associated with the discrete state

Given an approximating automaton G_l and a specification automaton SP , supervisory control theory checks, whether there exists a nonblocking supervisor and, if the answer is affirmative, provides a least restrictive supervisor SUP via "trimming" of the product of G_l and SP . Hence the state set of the supervisor, X_{SUP} , is a subset of $\tilde{X} \times S$.

The functioning of the resulting supervisor is very simple. At time t_k it "receives" a measurement symbol which triggers a state transition. In its new state $x_{sup}^{(j)}$, it enables a subset $\Gamma(x_{sup}^{(j)}) \subseteq L$ and waits for the next feedback from the plant. As shown in [8], the supervisor will enforce the specifications not only for the approximation, but also for the underlying hybrid plant model (1).

In the following, we will be interested in the special case of *quasi-static* specifications. To explain this notion, let $p_{app} : X_{SUP} \rightarrow \tilde{X}$ denote the projection of $X_{SUP} \subseteq \tilde{X} \times S$ onto its first component. If p_{app} is injective, the specification automaton is called quasi-static with respect to the approximation automaton G_l .

Proposition 1: SP is quasi-static with respect to G_ℓ if

$$\ell \geq \max(K_L, K_Y - 1).$$

C. Closed loop model

For the case of quasi-static specifications, each supervisor state $p_{app}(x_{sup}^{(i)})$ corresponds exactly to a state $\hat{x}_d^{(i)} = p_{app}(x_{sup}^{(i)})$ of the approximating automaton, which, in turn, can be associated with a set $X(\hat{x}_d^{(i)}) = X(p_{app}(x_{sup}^{(i)}))$. Note that on the underlying, physical level the state $x_d^{(i)} \in X_d$ and its complement $\hat{x}_d^{(i)} \in \hat{X}_d$ are equivalent in sense that $X(x_d^{(i)}) \triangleq X(\hat{x}_d^{(i)})$.

For $k \geq \ell$, attaching the discrete supervisor to the plant model (1) is therefore equivalent to restricting the invariants

for each location $l_j \in L$ according to

$$inv_{l_j} = \bigcup_{\substack{l_j \in \Gamma(\hat{x}_s^{(i)}) \\ i, p_{app}(x_{sup}^{(i)}) \in \hat{X}_{d_{\ell-1}}}} X(p_{app}(x_{sup}^{(i)})). \quad (4)$$

Note that for the initial time segment, i.e. $k \leq \ell$, (4) is more restrictive than the discrete supervisor computed in Sec.III-B.

The union of all invariants inv_{l_j} , $j = 1, \dots, \alpha$ forms the refined state set that contains only safe points, i.e. points for which exists at least one sequence of control symbols such that the resulting behaviour satisfies the specification.

The resulting hybrid automaton represents the plant model (1) under low-level control (for $k \geq \ell$). As control system has been based on an ℓ -complete approximation of (1), it is guaranteed that the resulting hybrid automaton satisfies safety and liveness requirements. The remaining degrees of freedom in choosing $l(k)$ can be used in a high-level controller addressing performance issues.

IV. THE HIGH-LEVEL TASK

The high-level task requires the solution of an optimal control problem of the form (2).

In previous works the authors proposed a technique to solve this problem in the particular cases where

- (a) $inv_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ and a finite number of allowed switches N [1];
- (b) $inv_i \equiv \mathbb{R}^n$, $\forall i$ and an infinite number of switches allowed [11].

In both cases the method consisted in using dynamic programming approach over an infinite time horizon. The solution is a partition \mathcal{C} of the state space for each location, that we named as *switching tables*. When the system evolves in a given location $i \in L$, then the controller considers the corresponding table and imposes one switch to location j , iff the value of x enters a partition mapped by j . In case (a) we had one table per location i and per number of missing

switches m , that we called C_m^i . In case (b) we proved that the switching tables converge to the same one when m grows. More precisely we proved that there exists a sufficiently big value of N such that $\forall m > N, C_m^i = C_{N+1}^i$. We called this table by C_∞^i . Furthermore in paper [12] we proved that if the automaton is completely connected then $C_\infty^i = C_\infty^j = C_\infty$, $i \neq j$.

Here we investigate the possibility of extending the previous results. In particular we merge (a) and (b), i.e., we consider a constrained problem $inv_i \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ as in case (a), where we additionally allow the number of switches N to grow indefinitely, as in (b). To this aim we introduce some new definitions and propose some new results. For simplicity we will only deal with completely connected automata.

Definition 2 (Forbidden region): A forbidden region for the HA is a set $X_f \subset X : X_f = X \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^s inv_i$, where s is the number of locations. ■

Thus X_f is a region forbidden to *all* dynamics of the HA .

Definition 3 (Augmented HA and OP): An *augmented automaton* $\overline{HA} = (\overline{L}, \overline{act}, \overline{inv}, \overline{E})$ of $HA = (L, act, inv, E)$ and the corresponding optimal control problem \overline{OP} of OP , are related as follows:

- (i) \overline{HA} includes a new dynamics $A_{\alpha+1}$ and \overline{OP} includes a corresponding weight matrix $Q_{\alpha+1} = q\overline{Q}_{\alpha+1}$ (with $rank(\overline{Q}_{\alpha+1}) \neq 0$, and $q > 0$). such that $\forall x_0 \in X$ the cost value

$$J(x_0) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} x(k)' Q_{\alpha+1} x(k)$$

s.t. $x(k+1) = A_{\alpha+1} x(k)$

is finite¹.

- (ii) A new invariant $inv_{\alpha+1} = \mathbb{R}^n$ is associated to the new dynamics.
- (iii) The edges $e_{i,\alpha+1} \in \overline{E}$ and $e_{\alpha+1,i} \in \overline{E}$ are defined $\forall i \in \overline{L}$.

Thus the augmented automaton \overline{HA} is the same as HA except for an extra location ($\alpha+1$) completely connected to all the locations in the HA . Its invariant set coincides with $inv_{\alpha+1} = \mathbb{R}^n$ and its dynamics is $A_{\alpha+1}$. The corresponding \overline{OP} weights location ($\alpha+1$) with matrix $Q_{\alpha+1} \geq 0$.

Now we implement the switching table procedure [1] to the augmented problem $\overline{OP}(\overline{HA})$ with a finite number of switches N . If we increase N recursively, as described in [11], we obtain the following results, whose proofs are briefly sketched, being simple extensions of known results.

Proposition 2: All tables converge when N grows, i.e., $\forall i \in \overline{L}$

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \overline{C}_N^i = \overline{C}_\infty^i$$

¹Note that a structural property that certainly ensures this condition is that the matrix $A_{\alpha+1}$ is Hurwitz stable, i.e., all its eigenvalues are inside the unit circle. Nevertheless this condition is not strictly necessary.

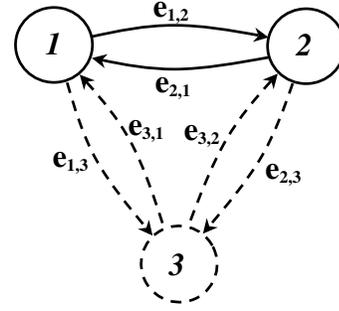


Fig. 2. Graph of the automaton HA (continuous) and \overline{HA} (continuous and dashed) described in the example.

Moreover if the \overline{HA} is completely connected then

$$\overline{C}_\infty^i = \overline{C}_\infty, \forall i \in \overline{L},$$

i.e., all tables converge to the same one. ■

Proposition 3: Assume that there exists an exponentially stabilising switching law for problem $OP(HA)$. Then there also exists a sufficiently large value of $q > 0$ in the $\overline{OP}(\overline{HA})$, such that the tables \overline{C}_∞^i , solution of $\overline{OP}(\overline{HA})$, $i = 1, \dots, \alpha+1$, contain the color of $A_{\alpha+1}$ at most in X_f . ■

Note that Proposition 2 is formally proved in [11] in absence of state space constraints. It can be trivially extended to this case, provided that the invariants calculated in Section III guarantee the liveness of the HA . Proposition 3 allows one to consider the solution of $\overline{OP}(\overline{HA})$ equivalent to the solution of $OP(HA)$. This follows from the fact that the dynamics $A_{\alpha+1}$ does not influence at all any solution of the augmented problem. Therefore it can be removed from the augmented automaton. These results are formally proved in [12], in absence of state space constraints. As before this result can be trivially extended if the liveness of the automaton is guaranteed. In fact, by definition, it holds that, for any initial couple $(i, x_0) \notin X_f$ of the HA , the hybrid trajectory, solution of $OP(HA)$, $(i(k), x(k))$, never enters X_f .

V. NUMERICAL EXAMPLE

Consider the HA with two locations and corresponding dynamics

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.981 & 0.585 \\ -0.065 & 0.981 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.981 & 0.065 \\ -0.585 & 0.981 \end{bmatrix}$$

whose eigenvalues are, for both dynamics, $\lambda_{1,2} = 0.9808 \pm j0.1951$, of norm 1 (see Figure 4 for the corresponding trajectories at the limit cycle). The safety constraint in the state space is given by the forbidden state set

$$X_f = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 | H'x \leq h\}$$

where

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad h = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & -0.2 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}. \quad (5)$$

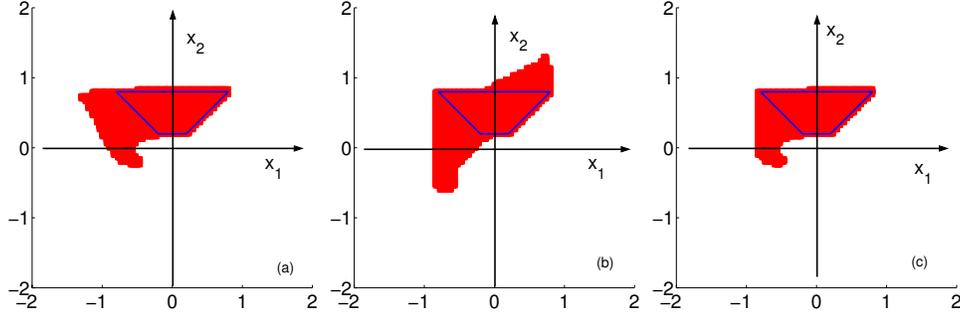


Fig. 3. Invariants (in white) of locations 1 (a) and 2 (b) and (c) the forbidden region $X_f = X \setminus (inv_1 \cup inv_2)$ defined in Def. 2. The interior of the blue trapezoid is the forbidden region X_d

X_d is the trapezoid depicted in Fig.3. Note that the set $X \setminus X_f$ can be blocking, i.e., some admissible initial points will violate the constraint, regardless of the switching strategy. Thus the previous setup is passed to the procedure described in Section III, in order to compute the invariants inv_1 and inv_2 that guarantee liveness (i.e., the resulting automaton is non blocking) and safety (i.e., the state never enters X_f). This leads to an extension of the forbidden region, as illustrated in Fig.3.

The graph of the hybrid automaton (HA) is depicted in Figure 2 (the part sketched with continuous lines).

Within the given constraints we want to solve an optimal control problem² OP of the form (2), where $Q_1 = Q_2 = I$. For this purpose we consider the augmented problem $\overline{OP}(\overline{HA})$, with the following data:

$$A_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.9808 & 0.1950 \\ -0.1950 & 0.9801 \end{bmatrix}, \quad Q_3 = qQ_1, \quad inv_3 \equiv X$$

where $q = 10^5$, and A_3 is stable. The graph of the augmented automaton is depicted in Fig.2 (continuous and dashed part).

Remark 1: Let us observe that, for sake of symmetry, the solution of $OP(HA)$ when $inv_i \equiv \mathbb{R}^2$, $i = 1, 2$, is to use dynamics A_2 when $x_1 x_2 > 0$ and dynamics A_1 when $x_1 x_2 < 0$. This result is very intuitive if we observe the trajectories of the given dynamics (Figure 4) and if we use the identity matrices as weight matrices in problem (2). Moreover it is simple to prove that for any initial state of the form $x_0 = [a \ 0]'$ or $x_0 = [0 \ a]'$, $J(a) = 5.5a^2$.

Note that the augmented problem $\overline{OP}(\overline{HA})$ satisfies the conditions given in Definition 3. The switching table procedure, applied to $\overline{OP}(\overline{HA})$ for a recursively increasing number of switches, converges after $N = 15$ switches. Moreover the tables C_∞^i , $i = 1, 2, 3$ are the same, because \overline{HA} is completely connected, as in Proposition 2.

This table is depicted in Figure 5, and it is clearly affected by numerical disturbances, due to the presence of a state space discretisation. However some important things should be remarked:

²Note that neither A_1 nor A_2 are Hurwitz, hence an infinite number of switches is necessary.

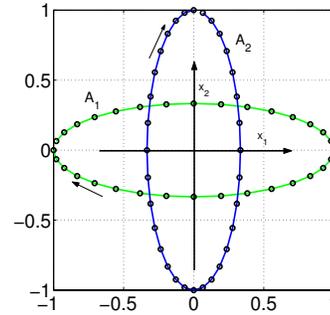


Fig. 4. Discrete time trajectories of dynamics A_1 and A_2 , with eigenvalues along the unitary circle

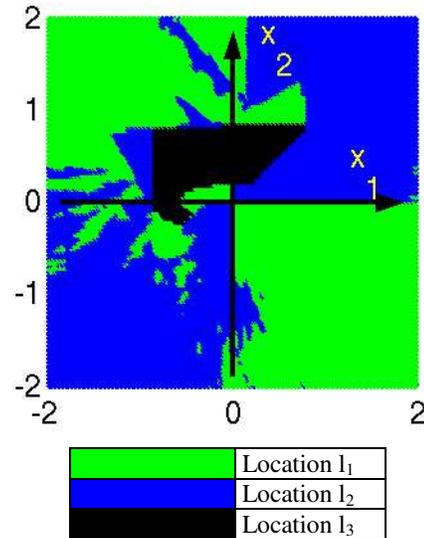


Fig. 5. Switching table of the problem $\overline{OP}(\overline{HA})$ defined in the example

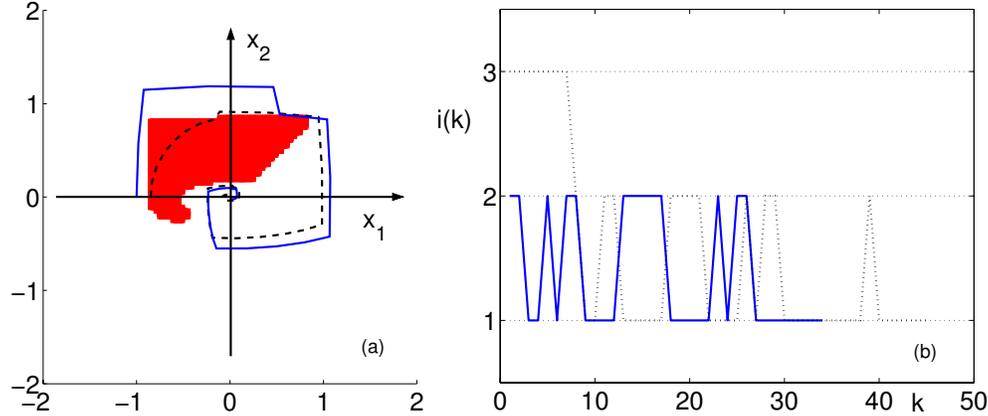


Fig. 6. Trajectories $x(k)$ (a) and $i(k)$ (b) of the optimal solution of $OP(HA)$ obtained by using the table in Figure 5 for an admissible initial point ($i_0 = 1, x_0 = [-1 \ 0]'$) (continuous) and a forbidden one ($i_0 = 1, x_0 = [-0.85 \ 0]'$) (dashed)

- (i) The color of the augmented dynamics exactly covers the region X_f ;
- (ii) By virtue of (i) and Proposition 3 the solution of $OP(HA)$ coincides with the solution of $\overline{OP(HA)}$;
- (iii) The solution of $OP(HA)$ is a perturbation, around the forbidden region, of the solution described in Remark 1.

From (i) and (ii) we deduce that there exists a finite optimal solution for any initial hybrid state $(i_0, x_0) \notin X_f$ of the HA , and that if $(i_0, x_0) \in X_f$ the optimal solution of HA uses dynamics A_3 for the minimum time required to leave X_f . From then on the optimal solution of HA is used. This can be viewed by the simulations depicted in Figure 6(a) for an admissible point (continuous line) and a forbidden point (dashed line). The optimal cost from the admissible point is $J = 15.7$, and for the other one is $J = 5.05 \cdot 10^5$. For completeness also the index trajectory $i(k)$ is reported in Figure 6(b).

From Figure 6(a) it can be seen that once the "obstacle" X_f is avoided, the systems steers towards the origin by following the solution provided in Remark 1.

The total computational time (Matlab, up to date laptop) for constructing the table in Figure 5 is about 40 hours. This time is extremely big, but a very dense space discretisation was considered (1.6×10^5 points). It is important, however, to point out that this computational effort is spent off-line. The on-line part of the procedure consists in measuring the hybrid state $(i(k), x(k))$ and comparing its value with the switching table to decide the optimal strategy.

VI. CONCLUSION

We addressed the problem of designing a feedback control law for a discrete time hybrid automaton HA . We showed that this law can be designed so that the system's behaviour satisfies two levels of specifications. The former (the *low level* specification) exposes liveness and safety conditions for the HA . We showed that the action of the low-level controller is to restrict the invariants of HA . The latter (the *high level* task), performs an optimisation

search. In particular, within the degree of freedom left by the low level task, for a given initial state it finds the evolution that minimises a given performance index. Although the procedure is theoretically successful, it may lack in numerical robustness. One perspective of interest for future developments is to provide structural conditions of the HA that guarantee the existence of admissible optimal control laws.

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