Controllable kinematic reductions for mechanical systems: concepts, computational tools, and examples

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Abstract

This paper introduces the novel notion of kinematic reductions for mechanical systems and studies their controllability properties. We focus on the class of simple mechanical control systems with constraints and model them as affine connection control systems. For these systems, a kinematic reduction is a driftless control system whose controlled trajectories are also solutions to the full dynamic model under appropriate controls. We present a comprehensive treatment of local controllability properties of mechanical systems and their kinematic reductions. Remarkably, a number of interesting reduction and controllability conditions can be characterized in terms of a certain vector-valued quadratic form. We conclude with a catalog of example systems and their kinematic reductions.

1. Introduction

The setting of affine connection control systems can be used to model a large class of mechanical systems from a Lagrangian point of view. It provides a particularly convenient viewpoint for systems with no external forces other than the applied control forces (e.g., no potential or dissipation forces). These are difficult control systems since they have unstabiliizable linearizations, and cannot generally be put into a form where backstepping methods may be applied. What’s more, many of the systems are not known to be unstabilizable linearizations, and so fail Brockett’s necessary condition for the existence of continuous stabilizing feedback. What’s more, many of the systems are not known to be flat, and cannot generally be put into a form where backstepping methods may be applied. Indeed, existing control methodologies will generally not apply to the class of mechanical systems we consider in this paper. Thus one must set about understanding these systems in their own right.

1.1. Kinematic reductions and hybrid models of motion control systems. An objective of this paper is to characterize mechanical control systems in terms of equivalent lower-dimensional kinematic (or driftless) systems. The interest in low-complexity representations of mechanical control systems can be related to numerous previous efforts, including work on hybrid models for motion control systems [Brockett 1983], motion description languages [Maunikonda, Krishnaprasad, and Hendler 1998], oscillatory motion primitives [Bullo, Leonard, and Lewis 2000], consistent control abstractions [Pappas, Lafferriere, and Sastry 2000], hierarchical steering algorithms [McIsaac and Ostrowski 2001], and maneuver automata [Frazzoli, Daleh, and Feron 2002].

In Section 3, we introduce the notion of kinematic reduction as a model reduction technique adapted to mechanical control systems. This novel concept extends and unifies our previous results in [Bullo and Lynch 2001, Lewis 1999]. A kinematic model for a mechanical system is one such that every controlled trajectory for the kinematic model can be implemented as a trajectory of the full second-order system under some appropriate control input.

The key advantage of a low-complexity system representation is the subsequent simplification of various control problems including planning, stabilization, and optimal control. In general, a reduced-order representation of the system dynamics will be useful in any hierarchical control scheme. For example, when considering planning problems, motion along a kinematic reduction can be regarded as a motion primitive to be used in higher-level motion scripts. Given a rich family of motion primitives, planning can then be performed via a variety of analytical or numerical methods; e.g., see [Bettis 1998, LaValle and Kuffner 2001, Manocha and Cann 1994] on inverse kinematics, nonlinear programming, and randomized algorithms.

1.2. Local controllability and computational tools. An important obvious property to require of kinematic reductions is controllability. We therefore proceed to characterize locally controllable kinematic reductions and relate them to the current understanding on the matter of local controllability for mechanical control systems.

Initial accessibility results and some weak local controllability results for affine connection control systems were provided by Lewis and Murray [1997]. This work also introduces a fundamental distinction between controllability and configuration controllability. Recently, progress has been made on the local controllability problem for such systems by Hirschorn and Lewis [2001], which provides first-order conditions for local controllability in terms of a vector-valued quadratic form.

Building on this body of knowledge, it is straightforward to define and characterize controllability for kinematic reductions. A mechanical system is locally kinematically controllable if it admits a kinematic reduction which is a locally controllable driftless system. A locally kinematically controllable system is therefore small-time locally configuration controllable.

One interesting outcome of our conditions for kinematic controllability is that they have a strong connection to the vector-valued quadratic form condition for local controllability in [Hirschorn and Lewis 2001]. Indeed, it appears that many (but not all) systems satisfying the sufficient condition of Hirschorn and Lewis [2001] are also locally kinematically controllable.

Physical examples of such systems include the planar rigid body with a single, variable-direction thruster [Bullo, Leonard, and Lewis 2000], the spatial version of the same system [Bullo, Leonard, and Lewis 2000], a three-link planar manipulator with various actuator configurations [Bullo and Lynch 2001], a hopping robot while in flight phase [Li,
Montgomery, and Raibert 1989], and the snakeboard [Lewis, Ostrowski, Murray, and Bur-
dick 1994]. We present all these systems and summarize their properties in a detailed
catalog.

1.3. Organization. The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents a modeling
framework for simple mechanical control systems with constraints. Section 3 introduces
and characterizes the notion of a kinematic reduction. Section 4 presents controllability
definitions and tests; Section 4.5 describes a set of inferences, counterexamples, and special
results for low-dimensional systems. Finally, Section 5 presents a catalog of mechanical
control systems.

2. Modeling mechanical control systems via affine connections

In this section we review some ideas on modeling of mechanical control systems. We
consider the class of simple mechanical control systems with constraints. We model them
as affine connection systems, and study their representations in various local bases of vector
fields. In this way, we recover the controlled geodesic, Poincaré and Euler-Lagrange
equations. We refer the reader to the more detailed presentations in [Bullo and Zeitoun 2002,
Lewis 2000].

2.1. Simple mechanical control systems with constraints. A simple mechanical
control system with constraints is a quintuple \( (Q, G, V, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{F}) \) comprised of the
following objects:

1. an \( n \)-dimensional configuration manifold \( Q \),
2. a Riemannian metric \( G \) on \( Q \) describing the kinetic energy,
3. a function \( V \) on \( Q \) describing the potential energy,
4. a distribution \( \mathcal{D} \) of feasible velocities describing the linear velocity constraints, and
5. a collection of \( m \) covector fields \( \mathcal{F} = \{F^1, \ldots, F^m\} \), linearly independent at each
   point in \( Q \), defining the control forces.

Given the metric \( G \) and the distribution \( \mathcal{D} \), we define the following objects. We let \( P : TQ \to TQ \)
be the orthogonal projection onto the distribution \( \mathcal{D} \) with respect to the metric \( G \). We let \( \nabla \) be the
covariant derivative of the vector fields in the basis \( \mathcal{F} \) according to

\[
\nabla_X Y = \nabla_X Y - (\nabla_X P) (Y),
\]

for any vector fields \( X \) and \( Y \). When the vector field \( Y \) takes value in \( \mathcal{D} \), we have

\[
\nabla_X Y = P(\nabla_X Y),
\]

as shown in [Lewis 1998].

Given the Riemannian metric \( G \), we let \( G : TQ \to TQ \) and \( G^{-1} : T^*Q \to T^*Q \) denote
the musical isomorphisms associated with \( G \). For \( a \in \{1, \ldots, m\} \), we define the input
vector fields \( Y_a = P(G^{-1}(F^a)) \), the family of input vector fields \( Y = \{Y_1, \ldots, Y_m\} \), and
the input distribution \( \mathcal{F} \) with \( \mathcal{F}_q = \text{span}_R \{Y_1(q), \ldots, Y_m(q)\} \). Let \( Z = f \) be the Lie
derivative of a scalar function \( f \) with respect to the vector field \( X \). The gradient of
the function \( V \) is the vector field grad \( V \) defined implicitly by

\[
G(\nabla V, X) = Z \cdot V.
\]

A controlled trajectory for the mechanical control system with constraints
\( (Q, G, V, \mathcal{D}, \mathcal{F}) \) is a pair \( (\gamma, u) \) with \( \gamma : [0, T] \to Q \) and \( u = (u_1, \ldots, u_m) : [0, T] \to \mathbb{R}^m \)
satisfying the controlled geodesic equations

\[
\nabla_{\gamma(t)} \dot{\gamma}(t) = -P(\nabla V(\gamma(t))) + \sum_{a=1}^m Y_a(\gamma(t))u_a(t).
\]

Here we assume that \( \dot{\gamma} \) is a function \( (\gamma(0)) \in \mathcal{D}(\gamma(0) \) and comment that this implies that \( \gamma(t) \in \mathcal{D} \) \( \gamma(0) \) for all \( t \in [0, T] \). Furthermore, we assume the input functions \( u = (u_1, \ldots, u_m) : [0, T] \to \mathbb{R}^m \)
to be Lebesgue measurable functions, and we write \( u \in \mathcal{U}_{\text{adm}} \).

2.2. Coordinate representations. On an open subset \( U \subset Q \) let \( \mathcal{X} = \{X_1, \ldots, X_n\} \) be
a basis of vector fields. We write the covariant derivative of the vector fields in the basis \( \mathcal{X} \) as

\[
\nabla_{X_i} X_j = \partial_{ij}^X X_k,
\]

where the \( n^3 \) functions \( \{\partial_{ij}^X\} \) \( i, j, k \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \) are called the generalized Christoffel
symbols with respect to \( \mathcal{X} \). Given vector fields \( Y \) and \( Z \) on \( U \), we can write \( Y = \sum_i X_i \)
and \( Z = \sum_{j=1}^m X_j \). Accordingly, the covariant derivative of the vector field \( Z \) with respect to
the vector field \( Y \) is

\[
\nabla_Y Z = \left( \left( \mathcal{Z}_X \mathcal{Z}^k \right) Y + \left( \mathcal{Z}_Y \mathcal{Z}^k \right) Z \right) X_k.
\]

It is instructive to write the controlled Euler-Lagrange equations with respect to
the basis \( \mathcal{X} \). Let the velocity curve \( \dot{\gamma} : I \to TU \) have components \( (v^1, \ldots, v^n) \) with respect to
\( \mathcal{X} \), i.e.,

\[
\dot{\gamma}(t) = v^j(t)X_j(\gamma(t)).
\]

The pair \( (\gamma, u) \) is a controlled trajectory for the controlled geodesic equations (2.1) if and
only if it solves the controlled Poincaré equations

\[
v^i + \partial_{ij}^X (\gamma) v^j v^i = -P(\nabla V)^i(\gamma) + \sum_{a=1}^m Y_a(\gamma)u_a.
\]

2.1 Remark: If the distribution \( \mathcal{D} \) has rank \( p < n \), it is useful to construct a local
basis for \( TQ \) by selecting the first \( p \) vector fields to generate \( \mathcal{D} \), and the remaining \( n-p \) to
generate \( \mathcal{D}^\perp \). In this case, one can see that \( v^i(t) = 0 \) for all time \( t \) and all \( k \in \{p+1, \ldots, n\} \).

2.2 Remark: Assume a Lie group \( G \) acts on the manifold \( Q \) and assume the metric
\( G \), and the distribution \( \mathcal{D} \) are invariant. Then the constrained connection \( \nabla \) is invariant,
and, selecting invariant vector fields \( \{X_1, \ldots, X_n\} \), the generalized Christoffel symbols are
invariant functions.
Let \((q^1, \ldots, q^n)\) be a coordinate system for the open subset \(U \subset Q\). The curve \(\gamma: I \to U\) has therefore components \((\gamma^1, \ldots, \gamma^n)\). The coordinate system on \(U\) induces the natural coordinate basis \(\frac{\partial}{\partial q^k}\) for the tangent bundle \(TU\). With respect to this basis, we write the velocity curve \(\dot{\gamma}: I \to TU\) as

\[
\dot{\gamma}(t) = \dot{\gamma}^i(t) \frac{\partial}{\partial q^i}(\gamma).
\]

In the coordinate system \((q^1, \ldots, q^n)\), we write \(\gamma = (\gamma^1, \ldots, \gamma^n)\), \(\dot{\gamma} = (\dot{\gamma}^1, \ldots, \dot{\gamma}^m)\), and the equations of motion read

\[
\dot{\gamma}^j + \Gamma^j_{ij} \dot{\gamma}^i = - (P \operatorname{grad} V)^b (\gamma) + \sum_{a=1}^m V^b_a u_a. \tag{2.4}
\]

Here, the Christoffel symbols \(\Gamma^j_{ij}\) and the terms in the right-hand side are computed with respect to the natural coordinate basis. We refer to these equations as the \textit{controlled Euler-Lagrange equations}.

3. Kinematic reductions for mechanical control systems

In this section we relate (i) controlled trajectories for the (second-order) controlled geodesic equation (2.1) to (ii) controlled trajectories for driftless control systems on \(Q\). The purpose is to establish relationships between the given mechanical control system and an appropriate low-complexity kinematic representation.

3.1 Remark: For the remainder of the paper, we restrict our attention to mechanical control systems subject to no potential energy, i.e., we set \(V = 0\).

Let us start by establishing some nomenclature. We refer to second-order differential equations on \(Q\) as \textit{kinematic models} of mechanical systems. In kinematic models the control inputs are accelerations. In contrast to this, we refer to first-order differential equations on \(Q\) as \textit{dynamic models} of mechanical systems. In dynamic models the control inputs are velocity variables. Let \(V = \{V_1, \ldots, V_l\}\) be a family of vector fields linearly independent at each \(q \in Q\). For curves \(\gamma: [0, T] \to Q\) and \(w: [0, T] \to \mathbb{R}^l\), consider the differential equation

\[
\dot{\gamma}(t) = \sum_{b=1}^l V_b(\gamma(t))w_b(t). \tag{3.1}
\]

We shall assume that the control inputs to kinematic systems are absolutely continuous, and we write \(w \in \mathcal{W}^{ac}_m\). We shall refer to the system as the kinematic model (or kinematic system) induced by \(V\).

Next, we establish relationships between controlled trajectories of kinematic and dynamic systems.

3.1. Kinematic reductions and decoupling vector fields. The kinematic model induced by \(V = \{V_1, \ldots, V_l\}\) is said to be a \textit{kinematic reduction} of the second-order system (2.1) if, for any control input \(w \in \mathcal{W}^{ac}_m\) and corresponding controlled trajectory \((\gamma, w)\) for equation (3.1), there exists a control input \(u \in \mathcal{W}^m\) such that \((\gamma, u)\) is a controlled trajectory for the second-order system (2.1). In other words, for any curve \(\gamma: I \to Q\) solving the equation (3.1) with \(w \in \mathcal{W}^{ac}_m\), there exists a control \(u \in \mathcal{W}^m\), such that \((\gamma, u)\) is a controlled trajectory for the second-order system (2.1). Roughly speaking, the curve \(\gamma: I \to Q\) solving (3.1) can be lifted to a solution to the second-order system (2.1).

The \textit{rank} of a kinematic reduction is the rank of the distribution generated by the vector fields \(V\). Rank-one kinematic reductions are particularly interesting. We shall call a vector field \(V\) \textit{decoupling} if the rank-one kinematic system induced by \(V = \{V\}\) is a kinematic reduction. Hence, the second-order control system (2.1) can be steered along any time-scaled integral curve of a decoupling vector field. For a dynamic control system with a rank-one input distribution, there are at most \(m\) rank-one kinematic reductions linearly independent at each \(q \in Q\).

Before proceeding, we define the symmetric product of two vector fields \(X, Y\) as the vector field

\[
\langle X, Y \rangle = \nabla_X Y + \nabla_Y X.
\]

The following theorem characterizes kinematic reductions in terms of the affine connection and the input distribution of the given dynamic model. A simplified version of this result is proved in [Bullo and Lynch 2001].

3.2 Theorem: A kinematic model induced by \(\{V_1, \ldots, V_l\}\) is a kinematic reduction of the second-order system (2.1) if and only if the distribution generated by the vector fields \(\{V_1, \ldots, V_l\}\) is a constant rank subbundle of the input distribution \(\mathcal{W}\).

3.2. Mechanical systems fully reducible to kinematic systems. We are here interested in characterizing when is a mechanical system \textit{kinematic}? That is, we are interested in when the largest possible kinematic reduction will be attained. By Theorem 3.2, any kinematic reduction must be contained in \(\mathcal{W}\), so one can do no better than have \(\mathcal{W}\) itself as a kinematic reduction. Formally, we say that the dynamic model (2.1) is \textit{fully reducible to the kinematic system induced by \(V\)} if \(V\) is a kinematic reduction of (2.1) and if, for any control input \(u \in \mathcal{W}^m\), initial condition \(\gamma(0) \in \mathcal{W}\), and corresponding controlled trajectory \((\gamma, u)\) for equation (2.1), there exists a control input \(w \in \mathcal{W}^{ac}_m\) such that \((\gamma, w)\) is a controlled trajectory for the kinematic system (3.1) induced by \(V\). A dynamic system (2.1) is \textit{fully reducible to a kinematic system} if there is one such collection of vector fields \(V\).

Before proceeding, we introduce a useful notion. A distribution \(\mathcal{X}\) is said to be \textit{geodesically invariant} if it is closed under operation of symmetric product, i.e., if for all vector fields \(X, Y\) taking values in \(\mathcal{X}\), the vector field \((X \cdot Y)\) also takes values in \(\mathcal{X}\). The \textit{symmetric closure} of the distribution \(\mathcal{X}\) is the smallest geodesically invariant distribution containing \(\mathcal{X}\). The motivation for the term “geodesically invariant” is explained in [Lewis 1998].

The following theorem characterizes dynamic systems which are fully reducible to kinematic systems; it is proved in [Lewis 1999].

3.3 Theorem: A mechanical control system (2.1) is fully reducible to a kinematic system if and only if

(i) the kinematic system is induced by the input distribution \(\mathcal{W}\) and
3.3. Bases of decoupling vector fields for the input distribution. According to Theorem 3.3, testing if a mechanical system is fully reducible to a kinematic system is a straightforward test. For such a mechanical control system, any vector field taking values in the input distribution is decoupling. For mechanical control systems which are not fully reducible to a kinematic system, we continue our investigation into kinematic reductions, and in particular into rank-one reductions, i.e., decoupling vector fields. When is there a basis of decoupling vector fields for the input distribution?

The material in this section, and some of that in the next, relies on the notion of a (local) basis of decoupling vector fields, then extending to a basis of decoupling vector fields. For \( \mathbb{R} \)-vector spaces \( E \) and \( F \), let \( B : E \times E \to F \) be symmetric and bilinear. For \( \lambda \in F^* \) we denote by \( \lambda B : E \times E \to \mathbb{R} \) the map defined by \( \lambda B(m_1, m_2) = \lambda \cdot B(m_1, m_2) \). \( \lambda B \) is definite if there exists \( \lambda \in F^* \) so that \( \lambda B \) is positive-definite. \( \lambda B \) is indefinite if for each \( \lambda \in F^* \setminus \text{ann}(\text{image}(B)) \), \( \lambda B \) is neither positive nor negative semidefinite (ann(S) \( \subset F^* \) is the annihilator of \( F \subset F \)). The following result is proved by Hirschorn and Lewis [2002].

3.4 Proposition: For a symmetric bilinear map \( B : E \times E \to F \) and for \( \lambda \in F^* \setminus \text{ann}(\text{image}(B)) \), the following statements are equivalent:

(i) \( \lambda B \) is indefinite;
(ii) there exists a basis for \( E \) so that the diagonal entries for the matrix of \( \lambda B \) sum to zero;
(iii) there exists a basis for \( E \) so that all diagonal entries in the matrix for \( \lambda B \) are zero.

Now define \( B_{\lambda} : \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{Y} \to TQ/\mathcal{Y} \) as the \( TQ/\mathcal{Y} \)-valued symmetric, bilinear bundle mapping given by

\[
B_{\lambda}(q)(v_1, v_2) = \pi_{\mathcal{Y}}((X_1 : X_2)(q)),
\]

where \( \pi_{\mathcal{Y}} \) is the canonical projection onto \( TQ/\mathcal{Y} \), and where \( X_1 \) and \( X_2 \) are vector fields extending \( v_1 \) and \( v_2 \), respectively (one readily shows that \( B_{\lambda} \) is independent of these extensions). If \( V \) is a decoupling vector field, then \( B_{\lambda}(V, V) = 0 \). If \( V_1, \ldots, V_m \) are decoupling, and if we write the vector-valued bilinear form with respect to this basis, then its matrix representation has zeros along the diagonal. Vice-versa, assume we can find a basis such that all elements in the diagonal are zero, then that basis would be a basis of decoupling vector fields.

From Proposition 3.4 we immediately have the following result which summarizes the relationship between \( B_{\lambda} \) and the existence of a basis for the input distribution of decoupling vector fields.

3.5 Proposition: If the input distribution \( \mathcal{Y} \) for a simple mechanical system admits a (local) basis of decoupling vector fields, then \( B_{\lambda}(q) \) is indefinite for each \( q \in Q \). Furthermore, if \( \mathcal{Y} \) is codimension one, then \( \mathcal{Y} \) admits a (local) basis of decoupling vector fields if and only if \( B_{\lambda}(q) \) is indefinite for each \( q \in Q \).

4. Accessibility and controllability notions

Let \([X, Y]\) be the Lie bracket between the vector fields \( X \) and \( Y \). Given a collection of vector fields \( \{X_1, \ldots, X_l\} \), consider the associated distribution \( \mathcal{X} \) defined by \( \mathcal{X}_q = \text{span} \{X_1(q), \ldots, X_l(q)\} \). The distribution \( \mathcal{X} \) is said to be involutive if it is closed under operation of Lie bracket, i.e., if for all vector fields \( X \) and \( Y \) taking values in \( \mathcal{X} \), the vector field \([X, Y]\) also takes value in \( \mathcal{X} \). The involutive closure of the distribution \( \mathcal{X} \) is the smallest involutive distribution containing \( \mathcal{X} \), and is denoted \( \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{X}) \).

4.1. Controllable kinematic systems. We start by defining accessibility and controllability for general kinematic systems. Here we let \( Q \) be an analytic manifold and we let \( \mathcal{V} = \{V_1, \ldots, V_l\} \) be analytic vector fields giving rise to the driftless nonlinear control system (3.1). For \( q_0 \in Q \) we denote

\[
\mathcal{R}(q_0, t) = \{\gamma(t) \mid \gamma(0) = q_0\},
\]

and \( \mathcal{R}(q_0, t) = \bigcup_{t \in [0, t]} \mathcal{R}(q_0, t) \). We make the basic controllability definitions.

4.1 Definition: The system (3.1) is

(i) locally accessible from \( q_0 \) if there exists \( T > 0 \) so that \( \text{int}(\mathcal{R}(q_0, t)) \neq \emptyset \) for \( t \in (0, T] \),
(ii) small-time locally controllable (STLC) from \( q_0 \) if there exists \( T > 0 \) so that \( q_0 \in \text{int}(\mathcal{R}(q_0, t)) \) for \( t \in (0, T] \), and is
(iii) controllable if for every \( q_1, q_2 \in Q \) there is a controlled trajectory \( (\gamma, u) \) defined on \([0, T]\) for some \( T > 0 \) with the property that \( \gamma(0) = q_1 \) and \( \gamma(T) = q_2 \).

Let us state some well-known results concerning the various types of controllability of (3.1).

4.2 Theorem: The system (3.1) is STLC (and therefore accessible) from \( q_0 \) if and only if \( \mathcal{L}(\gamma)(T)_{\gamma(q)} = TqQ \). Furthermore, if \( Q \) is connected and if \( \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{Y})_{\gamma(q)} = TqQ \) for each \( q \in Q \), then (3.1) is controllable.

4.2 Kinematically controllable dynamical systems. A dynamical mechanical system (2.1) described by \((Q, Q, V, \mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y})\) is kinematically controllable if there exists a sequence of kinematic reductions \( V_i \) \( i \in \{1, \ldots, k\} \) such that \( \gamma(T_0) = q_1 \), \( \gamma(T_k) = q_2 \), and \( \gamma(T_i) = \gamma(T_{i+1}) \) for all \( i \in \{1, \ldots, k-1\} \). In other words, any \( q_2 \in Q \) is reachable from any \( q_1 \in Q \) by concatenating motions on \( Q \) corresponding to kinematic reductions of (2.1). The dynamic system (2.1) is locally kinematically controllable from \( q_0 \) if, for any neighborhood of \( q_0 \) on \( Q \), the set of reachable configurations by trajectories remaining in the neighborhood and following motions of its kinematic reductions contains \( q_0 \) in its interior.

By assembling the discussion from the preceding section, and surrounding Proposition 3.5, we arrive at the following conditions for local kinematic controllability.

4.3 Proposition: Consider a dynamic mechanical system (2.1).

(i) The system is locally kinematically controllable if and only if it possesses a collection of decoupling vector fields (i.e., rank-one kinematic reductions) whose involutive closure has maximal rank everywhere in \( Q \).
(ii) If the system is locally kinematically controllable then there is a subbundle \( \mathcal{Y} \) of \( \mathcal{Y} \) with the property that \( B_{\lambda}(q)|_{\mathcal{Y}} \) is indefinite and \( \mathcal{I}(\mathcal{Y})_{\gamma(q)} = TqQ \) for each \( q \in Q \).
(iii) If the input distribution $\mathcal{Y}$ is codimension one, $B_\mathcal{Y}(q)$ is indefinite and $\text{Lie}(\mathcal{Y})_q = T_0Q$ for each $q \in Q$, then the system is locally kinematically controllable.

### 4.3. Controllable dynamic systems

We consider again a dynamic mechanical system (2.1) derived from $(Q, G, V, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F})$. For $q_0 \in Q$ we denote

$$\mathcal{R}_Q(q_0, T) = \{ \gamma(T) \mid (\gamma, u) \text{ is a controlled trajectory of (2.1) defined on } [0, T] \text{ and satisfying } \gamma(0) = 0_{q_0} \}.$$  

Here $0_{q_0} \in T_{q_0}Q$ is the zero vector. We also define $\mathcal{R}_Q(q_0, t) = \bigcup_{t \in [0, T]} \mathcal{R}_Q(q_0, T)$. With these notions of reachable sets, we have the following definitions of controllability.

**4.4 Definition:** Consider a dynamic mechanical system (2.1) described by $(Q, G, V, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F})$ and let $q_0 \in Q$. Suppose that the controls for (2.1) are restricted to take their values in a compact set of $\mathbb{R}^m$ which contains $0$ in the interior of its convex hull. The system (2.1) is

(i) **locally accessible** from $q_0$ if there exists $T > 0$ so that $\text{int}(\mathcal{R}_Q(q_0, t)) \neq \emptyset$ for $t \in (0, T)$, and is

(ii) **small-time locally controllable** (STLC) from $q_0$ if there exists $T > 0$ so that $0_{q_0} \in \text{int}(\mathcal{R}_Q(q_0, t))$ for all $t \in (0, T]$.

To present the results in [Lewis and Murray 1997] we need some notation concerning iterated symmetric products in the vector fields $Y_1, \ldots, Y_m$. Such a symmetric product is **bad** if it contains an even number of each of the vector fields $Y_1, \ldots, Y_m$, and otherwise is **good**. Thus, for example, $(Y_a : Y_b) : (Y_c : Y_d)$ is bad for all $a, b, c, d \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$ and $(Y_a : Y_b) : (Y_c : Y_d)$ is good for any $a, b, c, d \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$. The **degree** of a symmetric product is the total number of input vector fields comprising the symmetric product. For example, our given bad symmetric product has degree 4 and the given good symmetric product has degree 3. If $P$ is a symmetric product in the vector fields $\{Y_1, \ldots, Y_m\}$ and if $\sigma \in S_m$ is an element of the permutation group on $\{1, \ldots, m\}$, $\sigma(P)$ denotes the symmetric product obtained by replacing each occurrence of $Y_{\sigma(a)}$ with $Y_{\sigma(a)}$.

We now state the main result concerning controllability in state space of dynamic mechanical systems.

**4.5 Theorem:** Consider an analytic dynamic mechanical system (2.1) described by $(Q, G, V, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F})$ and let $q_0 \in Q$. The dynamic mechanical system (2.1) is

(i) **locally configuration accessible** from $q_0$ if there exists $T > 0$ so that $\text{int}(\mathcal{R}_Q(q_0, t)) \neq \emptyset$ for all $t \in (0, T]$, and is

(ii) **small-time locally configuration controllable** (STLCC) from $q_0$ if there exists $T > 0$ so that $0_{q_0} \in \text{int}(\mathcal{R}_Q(q_0, t))$ for all $t \in (0, T]$ with the controls restricted to take their values in a compact subset of $\mathbb{R}^m$ that contains the origin in its convex hull.

The following results were proved by Lewis and Murray [1997].

**4.6 Theorem:** Consider an analytic dynamic mechanical system (2.1) described by $(Q, G, V, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F})$ and let $q_0 \in Q$. The dynamic mechanical system (2.1) is

(i) **STLCC** from $q_0$ if $\text{Sym}(\mathcal{Y})_{q_0} = T_{q_0}Q$ with $\text{Sym}(\mathcal{Y})_{q_0}$ being spanned by at most degree 2 symmetric products and

(ii) $B_\mathcal{Y}(q_0)$ is indefinite, and is

4.7 Definition: Consider a dynamic mechanical system (2.1) described by $(Q, G, V, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F})$ and let $q_0 \in Q$. The dynamic mechanical system (2.1) is

(i) **STLCC** from $q_0$ if $\text{Sym}(\mathcal{Y})_{q_0} = T_{q_0}Q$ and if for every bad symmetric product $P$ we have

$$\sum_{\sigma \in S_m} \sigma(P)(q_0) \in \text{span}_{\mathbb{R}} \{ P_1(q_0), \ldots, P_k(q_0) \},$$

where $P_1, \ldots, P_k$ are good symmetric products of degree less than $P$.

The condition stated for STLCC is derived from a result of Sussmann [1987]. Hirschorn and Lewis [2001] state the following low-order condition for controllability that is related to kinematic controllability.

**4.8 Theorem:** Consider an analytic dynamic mechanical system (2.1) described by $(Q, G, V, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F})$ and let $q_0 \in Q$. The dynamic mechanical system (2.1) is

(i) **STLCC** from $q_0$ if $\text{Sym}(\mathcal{Y})_{q_0} = T_{q_0}Q$ with $\text{Sym}(\mathcal{Y})_{q_0}$ being spanned by at most degree 2 symmetric products and

(ii) $B_\mathcal{Y}(q_0)$ is indefinite, and is

4.9 Theorem: Consider an analytic dynamic mechanical system (2.1) described by $(Q, G, V, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F})$ and let $q_0 \in Q$. The dynamic mechanical system (2.1) is

(i) **STLCC** from $q_0$ if $\text{Sym}(\mathcal{Y})_{q_0} = T_{q_0}Q$ with $\text{Sym}(\mathcal{Y})_{q_0}$ being spanned by at most degree 2 symmetric products and

(b) $B_\mathcal{Y}(q_0)$ is indefinite, and is

4.10 Corollary: If $m = 1$ and if dim$(Q) > 1$ then (2.1) is not STLCC from $q_0$. 

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4.5. Controllability inferences and counter-examples. In this subsection we summarize the relationships between the various controllability concepts described previously. In particular, Figure 1 illustrates the relationships between small-time locally controllable (STLC), small-time locally configuration controllable (STLCC), locally kinematically controllable (LKC), and fully reducible, locally kinematically controllable (FR-LKC) systems. All implications in figure are clear from the theoretical treatment. Without further as-
sumptions on the dimension of the configuration space \( n \) and on the dimension of the input distribution \( m \), no further implications can be added to Figure 1. To prove this statement, we present the following counter-examples.

(i) STLC does not imply LKC nor FR-LKC — Consider the example system:

\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{q}^1 &= u_1 \\
\dot{q}^2 &= u_2 \\
\dot{q}^3 &= \dot{q}^1 \dot{q}^2.
\end{align*}
\]

The input vector fields are \( Y_1 = \frac{\partial}{\partial q^1} \) and \( Y_2 = \frac{\partial}{\partial q^2} \). This system is STLC since \( \{Y_1 : Y_2\} = 2 \frac{\partial}{\partial q^1} \). It is not LKC since \( Y_1 \) and \( Y_2 \) are the only decoupling vector fields (note \( \{Y_1 : Y_1\} = 0 = \{Y_2 : Y_2\} \)) but their Lie bracket vanishes identically. Additionally, the system is not fully reducible since the input distribution is not geodesically invariant.

(ii) FR-LKC does not imply STLC — Consider the example system in Poincaré format:

\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{q}^1 &= v^3 \\
\dot{q}^2 &= \sin(q^3) v^2 + \cos(q^3) v^1 \\
\dot{q}^3 &= \sin(q^3) v^2 - \cos(q^3) v^1 \\
\dot{v}^1 &= u_1 \\
\dot{v}^2 &= u_2 \\
\dot{v}^3 &= v^1 v^2 \\
\dot{v}^4 &= 0.
\end{align*}
\]

The input vector fields are \( Y_1 = \frac{\partial}{\partial q^1} \) and \( Y_2 = \sin(q^3) \frac{\partial}{\partial q^2} + \cos(q^3) \frac{\partial}{\partial v^1} \). This system is not STLC, since \( \text{Sym} \{Y_1, Y_2\} = 0 \) for each \( q \in Q \). In particular, along any solution of this mechanical control system starting from rest, \( v^i(t) = 0 \) for all time \( t \). However, both input vector fields are decoupling and \( \text{Lie}(Y_1, Y_2) \) is full rank. Hence the system is fully reducible and locally kinematically controllable (FR-LKC), but not STLC.

(iii) LKC does not imply FR-LKC nor STLC — Consider the example system in

Poincaré format:

\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{q}^1 &= u_1 \\
\dot{q}^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^{4} X_i v_i, \\
\dot{q}^3 &= v^1 v^2 \\
\dot{q}^4 &= a(v^3)^2,
\end{align*}
\]

where \( X = \{X_1, \ldots, X_4\} \) is a basis for \( T\mathbb{R}^4 \). These equations are controlled Poincaré equations with respect to the basis \( X \). All generalized Christoffel symbols vanish except for \( \langle \dot{Y}^2 \rangle^i_j = 0 \), and \( \langle \dot{Y}^2 \rangle^i_i = n \). According to equation (2.2) the input vector fields \( X_1 \) and \( X_2 \) are decoupling. If the basis \( X \) is chosen so that \( \text{Lie}(X_1, X_2) \) is full rank, then the system is locally kinematically controllable. It is not fully reducible to a kinematic system, since \( \text{Sym} \{X_1, X_2\} \) is at least dimension 3. If \( a = 0 \), the system is not locally accessible. If \( a = 1 \), the system is locally accessible but not STLC.

(iv) STLCC does not imply STLC nor LKC nor FR-LKC — Consider the example system in Poincaré format:

\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{q}^1 &= u_1 \\
\dot{q}^2 &= \sum_{i=1}^{4} X_i v_i, \\
\dot{q}^3 &= v^1 v^2 \\
\dot{q}^4 &= 0.
\end{align*}
\]

As previously, these equations are controlled Poincaré equations. As previously, the input vector fields \( X_1 \) and \( X_2 \) are decoupling. We now suppose the basis \( \{X_1, \ldots, X_4\} \) is chosen so that \( \text{Lie}(X_1, X_2) \) is full rank. Note that the system is not LKC since the Lie closure of the input distribution is not full rank. Note that \( \text{Sym}(X_1, X_2) \) is full rank, and that \( \text{Sym}(X_1, X_2) = \text{span} \{X_1(q), X_2(q)\} \) for each \( q \in Q \); therefore the system is not fully reducible, nor STLC. It is STLCC, since \( \text{Lie}(\text{Sym}(X_1, X_2)) \) is full rank.

4.6. Analysis of low-dimensional systems. We here study how the dimensions of the configuration space \( n \) and of the input distribution \( m \) affect the modeling and controllability analysis in the previous sections. If \( n = m \), the system is STLC because one control input is available for each degree of freedom. Hence, we restrict our following analysis to the underactuated setting \( m < n \).

- Assume \( m = 1 \) and \( n \geq 2 \), and let \( Y \) be the single input vector field. If \( \text{Sym}(Y)_q = \text{span} \{Y(q)\} \) for each \( q \in Q \), then the system has one decoupling vector field, and since \( \text{Lie}(\text{Sym}(Y)) = \text{Sym}(Y) \), the system will not be locally accessible, nor locally configuration accessible. If \( \text{Sym}(Y) \) has rank 2, then the system is possibly accessible or configuration accessible, but never STLCC nor STLC. In terms of the quadratic form \( B_Y \), note that its domain and codomain have dimension 1. Accordingly, \( B_Y \) is either identically vanishing (fully reducible system) or sign definite (possibly accessible, but never STLCC).

- If \( m = 2, n = 3 \), then LKC implies either the system is fully reducible, or the system is STLC. To prove it, consider the input distribution: either it is geodesically invariant.
(rank $\text{Sym}(\mathcal{Y}) = 2$) or not (rank $\text{Sym}(\mathcal{Y}) = 3$). In the first case, the system is fully reducible to a kinematic system. In the second case, the dynamic system is locally accessible and, because of the good properties of decoupling vector fields, the system satisfies the bad symmetric product test and it is STLC. This statement does not hold anymore at $m = 2$ $n = 4$ as proved by example system (4.1). In terms of the quadratic form $B_{\mathcal{Y}}$, note that its domain has dimension 2 and its codomain has dimension 1. Accordingly, $B_{\mathcal{Y}}$ is either identically vanishing (fully reducible system), or indefinite (STLC system) or sign definite (accessible, but never STLC dynamic system).

5. A catalog of affine connection control systems

In this section we consider a number of instructive examples and present a detailed description of their kinematic reductions and of their controllability properties. The catalog is presented in tabular form on page 7. To read the table, the following key for citations is required:

2. [Bullo and Lynch 2001]
3. [Lewis 2000]
4. [Bullo and Zefran 2002]
5. [Bullo, Leonard, and Lewis 2000]
6. [Lewis 1999]
7. [Bullo and Lewis 2003]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>System</th>
<th>Picture</th>
<th>Reducibility &amp; Controllability</th>
<th>Ref</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>planar 2R robot single torque at joint: $(1,0), (0,1)$ $n = 2, m = 1$</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Planar 2R Robot" /></td>
<td>(1,0): no reductions, accessible</td>
<td>1, 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>roller racer single torque at joint $n = 4, m = 1$</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Roller Racer" /></td>
<td>no kinematic reductions, accessible, not STLC</td>
<td>3, 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>planar body with single force or torque $n = 3, m = 1$</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Planar Body" /></td>
<td>decoupling v.f., reducible, not accessible</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>planar body with singular generalized force $n = 3, m = 1$</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Planar Body" /></td>
<td>no kinematic reductions, accessible, not STLC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>planar body with two forces $n = 3, m = 2$</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Planar Body" /></td>
<td>two decoupling v.f., LKC, STLC</td>
<td>5, 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>robotic leg $n = 3, m = 2$</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Robotic Leg" /></td>
<td>two decoupling v.f., fully reducible and LKC</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>planar 3R robot, two torques: $(0,1,1), (1,0,1), (1,1,0)$ $n = 3, m = 2$</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Planar 3R Robot" /></td>
<td>(1,0,1) and (1,1,0): two decoupling v.f., LKC and STLC</td>
<td>1, 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rolling penny $n = 4, m = 2$</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Rolling Penny" /></td>
<td>fully reducible and LKC</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>snakeboard $n = 5, m = 2$</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="Snakeboard" /></td>
<td>two decoupling v.f., LKC, STLC</td>
<td>3, 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3D vehicle with 3 generalized forces $n = 6, m = 3$</td>
<td><img src="image" alt="3D Vehicle" /></td>
<td>three decoupling v.f., LKC, STLC</td>
<td>5, 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

References


— [1999] When is a mechanical control system kinematic?, in Proceedings of the 38th IEEE Conference on Decision and Control, pages 1162–1167, Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers, Phoenix, AZ.

— [2000] Simple mechanical control systems with constraints, Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers. Transactions on Automatic Control, 45(8), 1420–1436.


