

EE C222/ME C237 - Spring'18 - Lecture 21 Notes¹

Murat Arcak

April 18 2018

¹ Licensed under a [Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International License](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/4.0/).

Feedback Linearization Continued

Recall "strict feedback systems" discussed in Lecture 13:

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x}_1 &= f_1(x_1) + g_1(x_1)x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 &= f_2(x_1, x_2) + g_2(x_1, x_2)x_3 \\ \dot{x}_3 &= f_3(x_1, x_2, x_3) + g_3(x_1, x_2, x_3)x_4 \\ &\vdots \\ \dot{x}_n &= f_n(x) + g_n(x)u.\end{aligned}\tag{1}$$

Such systems are feedback linearizable when $g_i(x_1, \dots, x_i) \neq 0$ near the origin, $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$, because the relative degree is n with the choice of output $y = h(x) = x_1$:

$$y^{(n)} = L_f^n h(x) + \underbrace{g_1(x_1)g_2(x_1, x_2) \cdots g_n(x)}_{L_g L_f^{n-1} h(x) \neq 0} u.$$

Feedback linearizability is lost when $g_i(0) = 0$ for some i ; however, backstepping may be applicable as the following example illustrates:

Example 1:

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x}_1 &= x_1^2 x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 &= u.\end{aligned}$$

Treat x_2 as virtual control and let $\alpha_1(x_1) = -x_1$ which stabilizes the x_1 -subsystem, as verified with Lyapunov function $V_1(x_1) = \frac{1}{2}x_1^2$.

Then $z_2 := x_2 - \alpha_1(x_1)$ satisfies $\dot{z}_2 = u - \dot{\alpha}_1$, and

$$u = \dot{\alpha}_1 - \frac{\partial V_1}{\partial x_1} x_1^2 - k_2 z_2 = -x_1^2 x_2 - x_1^3 - k_2(x_2 + x_1)$$

achieves global asymptotic stability:

$$V = \frac{1}{2}x_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}z_2^2 \Rightarrow \dot{V} = -x_1^4 - k_2 z_2^2.$$

In contrast the system is not feedback linearizable, because condition (C1) in the theorem for feedback linearizability (Lecture 20, p.4) fails.

To see this note that

$$f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1^2 x_2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad g(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{ad}_f g(x) = [f, g](x) = \begin{bmatrix} -x_1^2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

thus, with $n = 2$ and $x_0 = 0$,

$$[g(x_0) \quad \text{ad}_f g(x_0) \quad \dots \quad \text{ad}_f^{n-1} g(x_0)] = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

which is rank deficient.

Multi-Input Multi-Output Systems

Consider now a MIMO system with m inputs and m outputs:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x} &= f(x) + \sum_{i=1}^m g_i(x) u_i \\ y_i &= h_i(x), \quad i = 1, \dots, m. \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

Let r_i denote the number of times we need to differentiate y_i to hit at least one input. Then,

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1^{(r_1)} \\ \vdots \\ y_m^{(r_m)} \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} L_f^{r_1} h_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ L_f^{r_m} h_m(x) \end{bmatrix}}_{=: B(x)} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} L_{g_1} L_f^{r_1-1} h_1(x) & \dots & L_{g_m} L_f^{r_1-1} h_1(x) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ L_{g_1} L_f^{r_m-1} h_m(x) & \dots & L_{g_m} L_f^{r_m-1} h_m(x) \end{bmatrix}}_{=: A(x)} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_m \end{bmatrix}.$$

If $A(x)$ is nonsingular, then the feedback law

$$u = A(x)^{-1}(-B(x) + v)$$

input/output linearizes the system, creating m decoupled chains of integrators:

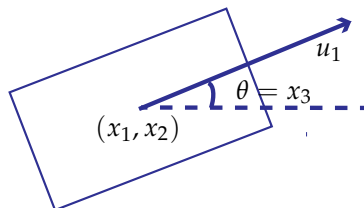
$$y_i^{(r_i)} = v_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, m.$$

We say that the system has *vector relative degree* $\{r_1, \dots, r_m\}$ if the matrix $A(x)$ defined above is nonsingular.

Example 2: The kinematic model of a unicycle, depicted below, is

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_1 \\ \dot{x}_2 \\ \dot{x}_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos x_3 \\ \sin x_3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} u_1 + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} u_2,$$

where u_1 is the speed and u_2 is the angular velocity.



Let $y_1 = x_1$ and $y_2 = x_2$, and note that

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{y}_1 \\ \dot{y}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \cos x_3 & 0 \\ \sin x_3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{=: A(x)} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Since $A(x)$ is singular, the system does not have a well-defined vector relative degree. \square

The notion of zero dynamics and the normal form can be extended to MIMO systems². If the system has vector relative degree $\{r_1, \dots, r_m\}$, then $r := r_1 + \dots + r_m \leq n$ and

² see, e.g., Sastry, Section 9.3

$$\zeta := [h_1(x) L_f h_1(x) \cdots L_f^{r_1-1} h_1(x) \cdots h_m(x) L_f h_m(x) \cdots L_f^{r_m-1} h_m(x)]^T$$

defines a partial set of coordinates. As in normal form discussed in Lecture 19, one can find $n - r$ additional functions $z_1(x), \dots, z_{n-r}(x)$ so that $x \mapsto (z, \zeta)$ is a complete coordinate transformation.

Full-state feedback linearization amounts to finding m output functions h_1, \dots, h_m such that the system has vector relative degree $\{r_1, \dots, r_m\}$ with $r_1 + \dots + r_m = n$. Necessary and sufficient conditions for the existence of such functions, analogous to those in Lecture 20 for SISO systems, are available³.

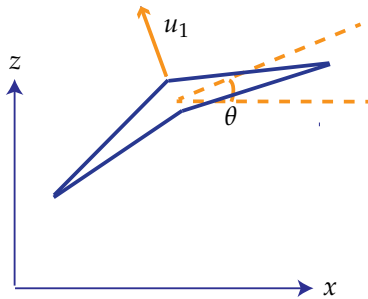
³ see, e.g., Sastry, Proposition 9.16

Example 3: Consider the following model of a *planar vertical take-off and landing* (PVTOL) aircraft⁴

⁴ Sastry, Section 10.4.2

$$\begin{aligned} \ddot{x} &= -\sin(\theta)u_1 + \mu \cos(\theta)u_2 \\ \ddot{z} &= \cos(\theta)u_1 + \mu \sin(\theta)u_2 - 1 \\ \ddot{\theta} &= u_2, \end{aligned}$$

where μ is a constant that accounts for the coupling between the rolling moment and translational acceleration, and -1 in the second equation is the gravitational acceleration, normalized to unity by appropriately scaling the variables.



If we take x and z as the two outputs we get

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{z} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} -\sin \theta & \mu \cos \theta \\ \cos \theta & \mu \sin \theta \end{bmatrix}}_{A(\theta)} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

where $A(\theta)$ is invertible when $\mu \neq 0$:

$$A^{-1}(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \\ \frac{1}{\mu} \cos \theta & \frac{1}{\mu} \sin \theta \end{bmatrix}.$$

Thus the systems has vector relative degree $\{2, 2\}$ when $\mu \neq 0$, and the input/output linearizing controller is

$$\begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \\ \frac{1}{\mu} \cos \theta & \frac{1}{\mu} \sin \theta \end{bmatrix} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix} \right).$$

The zero dynamics is obtained by substituting $u_2^* = \frac{1}{\mu} \sin \theta$, needed to maintain z at a constant value and \dot{z} at zero, in the dynamical equation for θ :

$$\ddot{\theta} = \frac{1}{\mu} \sin \theta.$$

The system is nonminimum phase for $\mu > 0$, since $\theta = 0$ is unstable.

Drift-Free Systems

Suppose $f(x) = 0$ for all x in (2). Such system are called *drift-free* and encompass linear systems of the form

$$\dot{x} = Bu, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad u \in \mathbb{R}^m.$$

Assuming the columns of the $n \times m$ matrix B are linearly independent, we can find $n - m$ row vectors $T_i, i = 1, \dots, n - m$, such that

$$T_i B = 0.$$

This means that $\phi_i(x) := T_i x$ satisfies

$$\frac{d}{dt} \phi_i(x(t)) = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \phi_i(x(t)) = \phi_i(x(0)) \quad (3)$$

regardless of the control inputs. Since there are $n - m$ such constraints, controllability is not possible in drift-free linear systems with fewer control inputs than the state dimension ($m < n$).

The Frobenius Theorem (Lecture 20) implies that constraints of the form (3), called *holonomic constraints*, also exist for nonlinear drift-free systems

$$\dot{x} = \sum_{i=1}^m g_i(x) u_i \quad (4)$$

when the distribution $\Delta = \text{span}\{g_1, \dots, g_m\}$ is nonsingular and involutive.

When Δ is non-involutive, however, controllability may be possible with $m < n$ – another essentially nonlinear phenomenon.

Indeed, *Chow's Theorem* states that (4) is controllable if the *involutive closure*⁵ of $\Delta = \text{span}\{g_1, \dots, g_m\}$ has dimension n . This condition means that the Lie brackets of g_1, \dots, g_m span new dimensions that are not already spanned by these basis vector fields. Drift-free systems satisfying Chow's Theorem are called *nonholonomic*.

⁵ the smallest involutive distribution that contains Δ

Example 4: Recall the unicycle model discussed in Example 2, where

$$g_1(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos x_3 \\ \sin x_3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad g_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{and} \quad [g_1, g_2](x) = \begin{bmatrix} -\sin x_3 \\ \cos x_3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$\Delta = \text{span}\{g_1, g_2\}$ is non-involutive, as $[g_1, g_2]$ generates a new direction. Taken together, g_1, g_2 , and $[g_1, g_2]$ span the entire three-dimensional space at each point x ; therefore, the system is controllable by Chow's Theorem. This conclusion sheds light on how parallel parking is possible despite lack of sideways actuation. \square

To present an interpretation of the Lie bracket $[g_1, g_2]$, we let $\Phi_t^{g_i}(x_0)$ denote the solution of the system $\dot{x} = g_i(x)$ at time t from initial condition x_0 . Then it can be shown that

$$\Phi_t^{-g_2}(\Phi_t^{-g_1}(\Phi_t^{g_2}(\Phi_t^{g_1}(x_0)))) = t^2 [g_1, g_2](x_0) + \mathcal{O}(t^3),$$

which suggests that motion in the direction of the Lie bracket $[g_1, g_2]$ can be generated by alternating actuation of the two inputs u_1 and u_2 with positive and negative signs, as one does in parallel parking.