

Nonlinear systems and linearization

- 1 State-space models and equilibrium points
- 2 Linearization
- 3 Example

15 Linearization

We have been learning about linear systems and controls for a while. In practice, many systems are nonlinear. Nonetheless, there are ways to use linear control techniques to handle nonlinear systems. This section shows one of such approaches.

15.1 State-space Representation of General Nonlinear Systems

Recall from Section 2.9, that a magnetically suspended ball can be modeled as

$$m\ddot{y} = mg - \frac{cu^2}{y^2} \quad (97)$$

Define the states: $x_1 = y, x_2 = \dot{y}$. We can have the state-space model:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}_1 &= f_1(x_1, x_2, u) = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 &= f_2(x_1, x_2, u) = g - \frac{cu^2}{mx_1^2} = 10 - \left(\frac{u}{3.87x_1}\right)^2 \\ y &= h(x_1, x_2, u) = x_1 \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, for the pendulum model of

$$I\ddot{\theta}(t) = T_c - mgl\sin(\theta(t)), \quad I = ml^2$$

we can model in the state space with $u = T_c$, $x_1(t) = \theta(t)$, and $x_2(t) = \dot{\theta}(t)$:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}_1 &= x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 &= -\frac{g}{l}\sin(x_1) + \frac{1}{ml^2}u \\ y &= x_1 \end{aligned}$$

Both the above state-space models can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}(t) &= f(x(t), u(t)) \\ y(t) &= h(x(t), u(t)) \end{aligned}$$

where $f(x, u)$ and $h(x, u)$ are some nonlinear functions of the state vector x and input vector u . Let us call this general nonlinear system \mathcal{N} .

15.2 Equilibrium Point and Linearization around an Equilibrium Point

Focus first on the state equation. Notice that if there exists some $\bar{x} \in \mathbf{R}^n, \bar{u} \in \mathbf{R}^m$ such that

$$f(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) = 0_n$$

then $\dot{\bar{x}} = 0$, namely, if we initialize the system with

$$\begin{aligned} x(0) &= \bar{x} \\ u(t) &= \bar{u}, \quad \forall t \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

then the state will not move, such that

$$x(t) = \bar{x} \quad \forall t \geq 0, \quad y(t) = \bar{y} \quad \forall t \geq 0$$

where

$$\bar{y} := h(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) \in \mathbf{R}^q$$

Such a pair of $\bar{x} \in \mathbf{R}^n, \bar{u} \in \mathbf{R}^m$ defines an *equilibrium point* of the nonlinear system, and the corresponding $\bar{y} := h(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) \in \mathbf{R}^q$ is the equilibrium output.

The remaining notes will explain that the behavior of a nonlinear system near an equilibrium point can be approximated by a linear system.

Behavior near an equilibrium point: Express the system dynamics in some new variables

$$\begin{aligned} \eta(t) &:= x(t) - \bar{x} \\ v(t) &:= u(t) - \bar{u} \\ w(t) &:= y(t) - \bar{y} \end{aligned}$$

which represent the offset from the equilibrium point. The word “near” can now be quantitatively explained as “ (η, v) being small”.

The dynamics of the states can now be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\eta}(t) &= \dot{x}(t) \\ &= f(\bar{x} + \eta(t), \bar{u} + v(t)) \end{aligned}$$

If $(\eta(t), v(t))$ are small, then the right hand side of the above equation is approximately (via first-order Taylor expansion):

$$f(\bar{x} + \eta(t), \bar{u} + v(t)) \approx f(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) + \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_{\substack{x = \bar{x} \\ u = \bar{u}}} \eta(t) + \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial u} \right|_{\substack{x = \bar{x} \\ u = \bar{u}}} v(t) \quad (98)$$

We can make the result a bit more compact by noticing that

$$f(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) = 0_n$$

and introducing

$$\left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right|_{\substack{x = \bar{x} \\ u = \bar{u}}} := A \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}, \quad \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial u} \right|_{\substack{x = \bar{x} \\ u = \bar{u}}} := B \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times m}$$

This gives us the message that, while the deviations from equilibrium, namely, $(u(t) - \bar{u}, x(t) - \bar{x})$, both remain small, the deviations from equilibrium are approximately governed by the *linear* ODE

$$\dot{\eta}(t) = A\eta(t) + Bv(t)$$

The same can be done for the output equation

$$y(t) = h(\bar{x} + \eta(t), \bar{u} + v(t))$$

and we have

$$h(\bar{x} + \eta(t), \bar{u} + v(t)) \approx h(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) + \left. \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \right|_{\substack{x = \bar{x} \\ u = \bar{u}}} \eta(t) + \left. \frac{\partial h}{\partial u} \right|_{\substack{x = \bar{x} \\ u = \bar{u}}} v(t) \quad (99)$$

Noticing $\bar{y} := h(\bar{x}, \bar{u})$ and letting

$$\left. \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \right|_{\substack{x = \bar{x} \\ u = \bar{u}}} := C \in \mathbf{R}^{q \times n}, \quad \left. \frac{\partial h}{\partial u} \right|_{\substack{x = \bar{x} \\ u = \bar{u}}} := D \in \mathbf{R}^{q \times m}$$

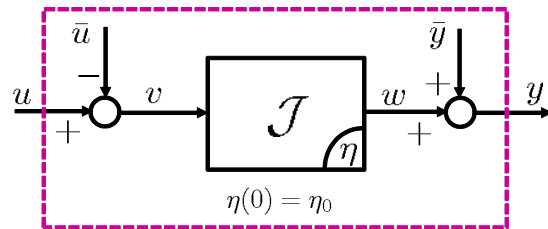
we get

$$y(t) - \bar{y} =: w(t) = C\eta(t) + Dv(t)$$

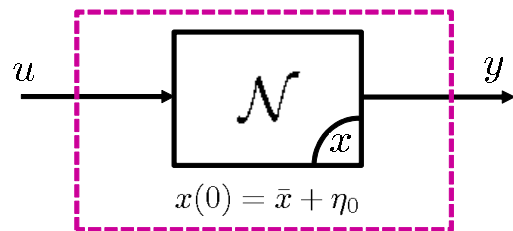
Summarizing the above, we have now derived a linear system \mathcal{J} :

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\eta}(t) &= A\eta(t) + Bv(t) \\ w(t) &= C\eta(t) + Dv(t) \end{aligned}$$

with A, B, C, D as defined above, to approximate the nonlinear system around the equilibrium \bar{x} . In block diagrams, this means that the shifted linear system (input u , state η , output y)



behaves “approximately” like the appropriately initialized nonlinear system

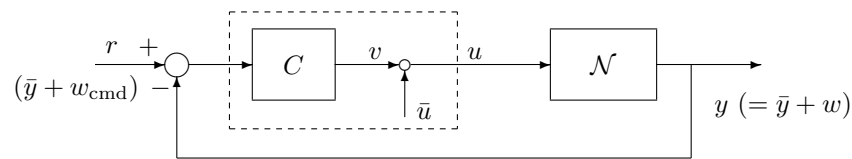


as long as the variables $(u(t) - \bar{u}, x(t) - \bar{x})$ remain small.

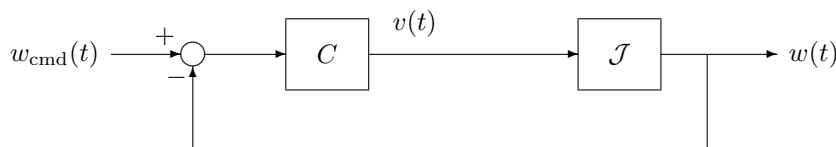
The linearized model above is called Jacobian linearization of the original nonlinear system.

With such results, we can control the nonlinear system as follows:

- 1, find the equilibrium input and output \bar{u} and \bar{y} that define the equilibrium state \bar{x} in the interested operation range of the system
- 2, decompose the reference signal as $y_{\text{desired}}(t) = \bar{y} + w_{\text{cmd}}(t)$ and the actual output as $y(t) = \bar{y} + w$. The control of the nonlinear system thus looks like



- 3, design the controller C as if we are to regulate the linearized system



4, implement the controller as shown in step 2

15.3 Multivariate Partial Derivative

We learn in this section some details about obtaining the A , B , C , D matrices. This is just a generalization of the single-variable differentiation.

Let f be a function of x_1 and x_2 . Pick a fixed vector $z = [z_1, z_2]^T$. For this two-variable function, the first-order Taylor expansion (around the point z) is

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &\approx f(z) + \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \right|_{x=z} (x_1 - z_1) + \left. \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \right|_{x=z} (x_2 - z_2) \quad \forall x \in \mathbf{R}^2 \text{ close to } z \\ &= f(z) + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix}_{x=z} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 - z_1 \\ x_2 - z_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= f(z) + \nabla f(x) \Big|_{x=z}^T (x - z) \end{aligned} \quad (100)$$

The term

$$\nabla f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix}$$

is called the gradient of $f(x)$, which is a generalization of $df(x)/dx$ in single-variable calculus. It is a 2 by 1 column vector if $f(x)$ is a mapping from \mathbf{R}^2 and \mathbf{R} . For instance, if $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1 + 2x_2$, then

$$\nabla f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note: by convention, the gradient of a $\mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ mapping $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ is defined as a column vector:

$$\nabla f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

as it defines a direction in a vector space. A corresponding definition is the derivative

$$Df(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

which is a row vector and

$$\nabla f(x) = [Df(x)]^T$$

We can generalize the above result. For instance, if $f_1(x, u) = f_1(x_1, x_2, u_1, u_2)$ then the Taylor approximation around the point (\bar{x}, \bar{u}) is

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(x, u) &\approx f_1(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) + \left[\frac{\partial f_1(x, u)}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial f_1(x, u)}{\partial x_2} \right] \bigg|_{\substack{x = \bar{x} \\ u = \bar{u}}} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 - \bar{x}_1 \\ x_2 - \bar{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &\quad + \left[\frac{\partial f_1(x, u)}{\partial u_1}, \frac{\partial f_1(x, u)}{\partial u_2} \right] \bigg|_{\substack{x = \bar{x} \\ u = \bar{u}}} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 - \bar{u}_1 \\ u_2 - \bar{u}_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= f_1(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) + \nabla_x^T f_1(x, u) \bigg|_{\substack{x = \bar{x} \\ u = \bar{u}}} (x - \bar{x}) + \nabla_u^T f_1(x, u) \bigg|_{\substack{x = \bar{x} \\ u = \bar{u}}} (u - \bar{u}) \end{aligned}$$

If we have another similar function

$$\begin{aligned} f_2(x, u) &\approx f_2(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) + \left[\frac{\partial f_2(x, u)}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial f_2(x, u)}{\partial x_2} \right] \bigg|_{\substack{x = \bar{x} \\ u = \bar{u}}} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 - \bar{x}_1 \\ x_2 - \bar{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &\quad + \left[\frac{\partial f_2(x, u)}{\partial u_1}, \frac{\partial f_2(x, u)}{\partial u_2} \right] \bigg|_{\substack{x = \bar{x} \\ u = \bar{u}}} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 - \bar{u}_1 \\ u_2 - \bar{u}_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= f_2(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) + \nabla_x^T f_2(x, u) \bigg|_{\substack{x = \bar{x} \\ u = \bar{u}}} (x - \bar{x}) + \nabla_u^T f_2(x, u) \bigg|_{\substack{x = \bar{x} \\ u = \bar{u}}} (u - \bar{u}) \end{aligned}$$

Then for the $\mathbf{R}^2 \times \mathbf{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^2$ function

$$f(x, u) = \begin{bmatrix} f_1(x, u) \\ f_2(x, u) \end{bmatrix}$$

we have

$$\begin{aligned} f(x, u) &\approx \begin{bmatrix} f_1(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) \\ f_2(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) \end{bmatrix} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix}}_{\nabla_x^T f(x, u)} \bigg|_{\substack{x = \bar{x} \\ u = \bar{u}}} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 - \bar{x}_1 \\ x_2 - \bar{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial u_2} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial u_2} \end{bmatrix}}_{\nabla_u^T f(x, u)} \bigg|_{\substack{x = \bar{x} \\ u = \bar{u}}} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 - \bar{u}_1 \\ u_2 - \bar{u}_2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= f(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) + A(x - \bar{x}) + B(u - \bar{u}) \end{aligned}$$

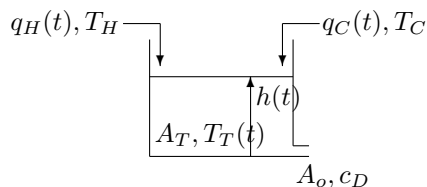
From here we learnt how to compute the derivative and gradient of a multi-input multi-output function:

$$D_x \begin{bmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \nabla_x \begin{bmatrix} f_1 \\ f_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix}$$

With the above results, we can writing down (98) and (99).

15.4 Example: Tank System

Consider the following water tank system:



There are hot and cold water supplies (at fixed temperatures T_C and T_H) going into the tank. We can control the hot and cold inflows q_C and q_H (in the unit of m^3/sec).

The orifice outflow is related to its area A_o and the discharge coefficient c_D . Torricelli's law states that the speed of a fluid through a sharp-edged hole under the force of gravity is the same as the speed that a body would acquire in falling freely from a height h , i.e. $v_{out}(t) = \sqrt{2gh(t)}$, where g is the acceleration due to gravity. Hence the outflow is

$$q_{out}(t) = c_D A_o \sqrt{2gh(t)}$$

Suppose the water supplies are instantaneously mixed in the tank, and the temperature of water in tank is T_T after mixing. By using the conservation law we can state that

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{h}(t) &= \frac{1}{A_T} (q_C(t) + q_H(t) - c_D A_o \sqrt{2gh(t)}) \\ \dot{T}_T(t) &= \frac{1}{h(t)A_T} (q_C(t) [T_C - T_T(t)] + q_H(t) [T_H - T_T(t)]) \end{aligned}$$

Nonlinear System and Linearization Define state and input vectors as

$$x(t) := \begin{bmatrix} h(t) \\ T_T(t) \end{bmatrix}, \quad u(t) := \begin{bmatrix} q_C(t) \\ q_H(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

Then, with

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(x_1, x_2, u_1, u_2) &= \frac{1}{A_T} (u_1 + u_2 - c_D A_o \sqrt{2gx_1}) \\ f_2(x_1, x_2, u_1, u_2) &= \frac{1}{x_1 A_T} (u_1 [T_C - x_2] + u_2 [T_H - x_2]) \end{aligned}$$

the dynamic equations of the system are of the form

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}_1(t) &= f_1(x(t), u(t)) \\ \dot{x}_2(t) &= f_2(x(t), u(t)) \end{aligned}$$

Equilibrium Points Equilibrium points are characterized by $f(\bar{x}, \bar{u}) = 0$. In this case, with

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(x_1, x_2, u_1, u_2) &= \frac{1}{A_T} (u_1 + u_2 - c_D A_o \sqrt{2gx_1}) \\ f_2(x_1, x_2, u_1, u_2) &= \frac{1}{x_1 A_T} (u_1 [T_C - x_2] + u_2 [T_H - x_2]) \end{aligned}$$

Writing with barred-quantities, and setting to 0 gives (assuming $\bar{x}_1 \neq 0$)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ T_C - \bar{x}_2 & T_H - \bar{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \bar{u}_1 \\ \bar{u}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_D A_o \sqrt{2g\bar{x}_1} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The matrix on the left hand side of the equation is invertible if and only if $\Leftrightarrow T_C \neq T_H$. Thus for any choice of \bar{x} , there is a unique equilibrium input \bar{u} , given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} \bar{u}_1 \\ \bar{u}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{T_H - T_C} \begin{bmatrix} T_H - \bar{x}_2 & -1 \\ \bar{x}_2 - T_C & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_D A_o \sqrt{2g\bar{x}_1} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

which gives

$$\bar{u}_1 = \frac{c_D A_o \sqrt{2g\bar{x}_1} (T_H - \bar{x}_2)}{T_H - T_C}, \quad \bar{u}_2 = \frac{c_D A_o \sqrt{2g\bar{x}_1} (\bar{x}_2 - T_C)}{T_H - T_C}$$

Since u_1 and u_2 represent flow rates **into** the tank, physical considerations restrict them to be nonnegative real numbers. This implies that $\bar{x}_1 \geq 0$ and $T_C \leq \bar{T}_T \leq T_H$. Looking at the differential equation for T_T , we see that its rate of change is inversely related to h . Hence, the differential equation model is valid while $h(t) > 0$, so we further restrict $x_1 > 0$. Under those restrictions, the state \bar{x} is indeed an equilibrium point, and there is a unique equilibrium input given by the equations above.

Partial Derivatives

Obtain the “A” and “B” matrices, by first taking partial derivatives

$$D_x f(x, u) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{g c_D A_o}{A_T \sqrt{2g x_1}} & 0 \\ -\frac{u_1 [T_C - x_2] + u_2 [T_H - x_2]}{x_1^2 A_T} & \frac{-(u_1 + u_2)}{x_1 A_T} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$D_u f(x, u) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial u_2} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial u_2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{A_T} & \frac{1}{A_T} \\ \frac{T_C - x_2}{x_1 A_T} & \frac{T_H - x_2}{x_1 A_T} \end{bmatrix}$$

We can do some numerical examples by assuming

$$T_C = 10^\circ, T_H = 90^\circ, A_T = 3\text{m}^2, A_o = 0.05\text{m}, c_D = 0.7$$

We can compute, for instance, linearization at 4 different equilibrium points

$$(\bar{h} = 1\text{m}, \bar{T}_T = 25^\circ), (\bar{h} = 3\text{m}, \bar{T}_T = 25^\circ), (\bar{h} = 1\text{m}, \bar{T}_T = 75^\circ), (\bar{h} = 3\text{m}, \bar{T}_T = 75^\circ)$$

The results for $(\bar{h}, \bar{T}_T) = (1\text{m}, 25^\circ)$ are as follows

$$\bar{u}_1 = \bar{q}_C = 0.126, \quad \bar{u}_2 = \bar{q}_H = 0.029$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} -0.0258 & 0 \\ 0 & -0.517 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 0.333 & 0.333 \\ -5.00 & 21.67 \end{bmatrix}$$