

# Stabilization of Nonlinear Systems via State Feedback

## Part I: Relative Degree, Normal Forms, Zero Dynamics

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We consider the class of single-input single-output nonlinear systems that can be modeled by equations of the form

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= f(x) + g(x)u \\ y &= h(x)\end{aligned}\tag{1}$$

in which  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and in which  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  are smooth maps and  $h : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a smooth function.

If the coordinates in which the state space description is provided are appropriately transformed, the equations describing the system can be brought to a form in which the design of feedback laws is facilitated.

In the case of a linear system, a change of coordinates consists in replacing the original state vector  $x$  with a new vector  $\tilde{x}$  related to  $x$  by means of linear transformation  $\tilde{x} = Tx$  in which  $T$  is a nonsingular matrix.

If the system is nonlinear, it is more appropriate to allow also for **nonlinear** changes of coordinates. A nonlinear change of coordinates is a transformation  $\tilde{x} = \Phi(x)$  in which  $\Phi(\cdot)$  is a map  $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ . Such a map qualifies for a change of coordinates if:

- (i)  $\Phi(\cdot)$  is invertible, i.e. there exists a map  $\Phi^{-1} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\Phi^{-1}(\Phi(x)) = x$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\Phi(\Phi^{-1}(\tilde{x})) = \tilde{x}$  for all  $\tilde{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- (ii)  $\Phi(\cdot)$  and  $\Phi^{-1}(\cdot)$  are both smooth mappings, i.e. have continuous partial derivatives of any order.

A transformation of this type is called a **global diffeomorphism**. A transformation defined only in a **neighborhood** of a given point is called a **local diffeomorphism**.

The nonlinear system (1) is said to have relative degree  $r$  at a point  $x^\circ$  if:<sup>1</sup>

(i)  $L_g L_f^k h(x) = 0$  for all  $x$  in a neighborhood of  $x^\circ$  and all  $k < r - 1$

(ii)  $L_g L_f^{r-1} h(x^\circ) \neq 0$ .

Note that the concept thus introduced is a **local concept**, namely  $r$  may depend on the specific point  $x^\circ$  where the functions  $L_g L_f^k h(x)$  are evaluated. The value of  $r$  may be different at different points of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and there may be points where a relative degree cannot be defined. This occurs when the first function of the sequence

$$L_g h(x), L_g L_f h(x), \dots, L_g L_f^k h(x), \dots$$

which is not identically zero (in a neighborhood of  $x^\circ$ ) is zero exactly at the point  $x = x^\circ$ . However, since  $f(x), g(x), h(x)$  are smooth, the set of points where a relative degree can be defined is an open and dense subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

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<sup>1</sup>Let  $\lambda$  be real-valued function and  $f$  a vector field, both defined on a subset  $U$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The function  $L_f \lambda$  is the real-valued function defined as

$$L_f \lambda(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial x_i} f_i(x) := \frac{\partial \lambda}{\partial x} f(x).$$

This function is sometimes called the **derivative of  $\lambda$  along  $f$** . If  $g$  is another vector field, the notation  $L_g L_f \lambda(x)$  stands for the derivative of the real-valued function  $L_f \lambda$  along  $g$  and the notation  $L_f^k \lambda(x)$  stands for the derivative of the real-valued function  $L_f^{k-1} \lambda$  along  $f$ .

Assume the system at time  $t = 0$  is in the state  $x(0) = x^\circ$  and let's calculate the value of the output  $y(t)$  and of its derivatives with respect to time  $y^{(k)}(t)$ , for  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ , at  $t = 0$ . We obtain

$$y(0) = h(x(0)) = h(x^\circ)$$

and

$$y^{(1)}(t) = \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} [f(x(t)) + g(x(t))u(t)] = L_f h(x(t)) + L_g h(x(t))u(t) .$$

At time  $t = 0$ ,

$$y^{(1)}(0) = L_f h(x^\circ) + L_g h(x^\circ)u(0) ,$$

from which it is seen that, if  $r = 1$ , the value  $y^{(1)}(0)$  is an affine function of  $u(0)$ . Otherwise, suppose  $r$  is larger than 1. If  $|t|$  is small,  $x(t)$  remains in a neighborhood of  $x^\circ$  and hence  $L_g h(x(t)) = 0$  for all such  $t$ . As a consequence

$$y^{(1)}(t) = L_f h(x(t)) .$$

This yields

$$y^{(2)}(t) = L_f h \frac{dx}{dt} = L_f h[f(x(t)) + g(x(t))u(t)] = L_f^2 h(x(t)) + L_g L_f h(x(t))u(t) .$$

At time  $t = 0$ ,

$$y^{(2)}(0) = L_f^2 h(x^\circ) + L_g L_f h(x^\circ)u(0) ,$$

from which it is seen that, if  $r = 2$ , the value  $y^{(2)}(0)$  is an affine function of  $u(0)$ .

Otherwise, if  $r$  larger than 2, for all  $t$  near  $t = 0$  we have  $L_g L_f h(x(t)) = 0$  and

$$y^{(2)}(t) = L_f^2 h(x(t)) .$$

Continuing in this way, we get

$$\begin{aligned} y^{(k)}(t) &= L_f^k h(x(t)) \quad \text{for all } k < r \text{ and all } t \text{ near } t = 0 \\ y^{(r)}(0) &= L_f^r h(x^\circ) + L_g L_f^{r-1} h(x^\circ) u(0) . \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the integer  $r$  is exactly equal to the number of times one has to differentiate the output  $y(t)$  at time  $t = 0$  in order to have the value  $u(0)$  of the input explicitly appearing.

The calculations above suggest that the functions  $h(x)$ ,  $L_f h(x)$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $L_f^{r-1} h(x)$  must have a special importance. As a matter of fact, such functions can be used in order to define, at least partially, a local coordinates transformation around  $x^\circ$ .

**Proposition.** Suppose the system has relative degree  $r$  at  $x^\circ$ . Then  $r \leq n$ . If  $r$  is strictly less than  $n$ , it is always possible to find  $n - r$  more functions  $\psi_1(x), \dots, \psi_{n-r}(x)$  such that the mapping

$$\Phi(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ \psi_{n-r}(x) \\ h(x) \\ L_f h(x) \\ \vdots \\ L_f^{r-1} h(x) \end{pmatrix}$$

has a jacobian matrix which is nonsingular at  $x^\circ$  and therefore qualifies as a local coordinates transformation in a neighborhood of  $x^\circ$ . The value at  $x^\circ$  of these additional functions can be fixed arbitrarily. Moreover, it is always possible to choose  $\psi_1(x), \dots, \psi_{n-r}(x)$  in such a way that

$$L_g \psi_i(x) = 0 \quad \text{for all } 1 \leq i \leq n - r \text{ and all } x \text{ around } x^\circ.$$

The description of the system in the new coordinates is found very easily. Set

$$z = \begin{pmatrix} z_1 \\ z_2 \\ \dots \\ z_{n-r} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \psi_1(x) \\ \psi_2(x) \\ \dots \\ \psi_{n-r}(x) \end{pmatrix}, \quad \xi = \begin{pmatrix} \xi_1 \\ \xi_2 \\ \dots \\ \xi_r \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} h(x) \\ L_f h(x) \\ \dots \\ L_f^{r-1} h(x) \end{pmatrix}$$

and

$$\tilde{x} = \text{col}(z_1, \dots, z_{n-r}, \xi_1, \dots, \xi_r) := \Phi(x).$$

Bearing in mind the previous calculations, it is seen that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\xi_1}{dt} &= \frac{\partial h}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} = L_f h(x(t)) = \xi_2(t) \\ &\dots \\ \frac{d\xi_{r-1}}{dt} &= \frac{\partial(L_f^{r-2} h)}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{dt} = L_f^{r-1} h(x(t)) = \xi_r(t). \end{aligned}$$

while for  $\xi_r$  we obtain

$$\frac{d\xi_r}{dt} = L_f^r h(x(t)) + L_g L_f^{r-1} h(x(t)) u(t).$$

On the right-hand side of this equation,  $x$  must be replaced by its expression as a function of  $\tilde{x}$ , which will be written as  $x = \Phi^{-1}(z, \xi)$ . Thus, setting

$$\begin{aligned} q(z, \xi) &= L_f^r h(\Phi^{-1}(z, \xi)) \\ b(z, \xi) &= L_g L_f^{r-1} h(\Phi^{-1}(z, \xi)) \end{aligned}$$

the equation in question can be rewritten as

$$\frac{d\xi_r}{dt} = q(z(t), \xi(t)) + b(z(t), \xi(t))u(t) .$$

Note that, by definition of relative degree, at the point  $\tilde{x}^\circ = \text{col}(z^\circ, \xi^\circ) = \Phi(x^\circ)$ , we have  $b(z^\circ, \xi^\circ) = L_g L_f^{r-1} h(x^\circ) \neq 0$ . Thus, **the coefficient  $b(z, \xi)$  is nonzero** for all  $(z, \xi)$  in a neighborhood of  $(z^\circ, \xi^\circ)$ .

As far as the other new coordinates are concerned, we cannot expect any special structure for the corresponding equations. However, if  $\psi_1(x), \dots, \psi_{n-r}(x)$  have been chosen in such a way that  $L_g \psi_i(x) = 0$ , then

$$\frac{dz_i}{dt} = \frac{\partial \psi_i}{\partial x} [f(x(t)) + g(x(t))u(t)] = L_f \psi_i(x(t)) + L_g \psi_i(x(t))u(t) = L_f \psi_i(x(t)).$$

Setting

$$f_0(z, \xi) = \begin{pmatrix} L_f \psi_1(\Phi^{-1}(z, \xi)) \\ \vdots \\ L_f \psi_{n-r}(\Phi^{-1}(z, \xi)) \end{pmatrix}$$

the latter can be rewritten as

$$\frac{dz}{dt} = f_0(z(t), \xi(t)) .$$



Thus, in summary, in the new (local) coordinates the system is described by equations of the form

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{z} &= f_0(z, \xi) \\ \dot{\xi}_1 &= \xi_2 \\ \dot{\xi}_2 &= \xi_3 \\ &\dots \\ \dot{\xi}_{r-1} &= \xi_r \\ \dot{\xi}_r &= q(z, \xi) + b(z, \xi)u .\end{aligned}\tag{2}$$

In addition to these equations one has to specify how the output of the system is related to the new state variables. Being  $y = h(x)$ , it is immediately seen that

$$y = \xi_1 .\tag{3}$$

The equations thus introduced are said to be in **strict** normal form. They are useful in understanding how certain control problems can be solved.

The equations in question can be given a compact expression if we use the three matrices  $\hat{A} \in \mathbb{R}^r \times \mathbb{R}^r$ ,  $\hat{B} \in \mathbb{R}^r \times \mathbb{R}$  and  $\hat{C} \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^r$  defined as

$$\hat{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdots & \cdot \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \hat{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \cdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \hat{C} = (1 \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad \cdots \quad 0).$$

With the aid of such matrices, the equations (2) and (3) can be re-written as

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{z} &= f_0(z, \xi) \\ \dot{\xi} &= \hat{A}\xi + \hat{B}[q(z, \xi) + b(z, \xi)u] \\ y &= \hat{C}\xi. \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

Assumptions are known under which a normal form exists [globally](#).

Consider again system (1), assume that  $f(0) = 0$  and  $h(0) = 0$ , suppose that the system has relative degree  $r$  at  $x^o = 0$  and consider its normal form (4), in which  $f_0(0,0) = 0$  and  $q(0,0) = 0$ .

Consider the problem of finding all pairs consisting of an initial state  $x^o$  and of an input function  $u(\cdot)$ , for which the corresponding output  $y(t)$  of the system is identically zero for all  $t$  in a neighborhood of  $t = 0$ .

Recalling that in the normal form  $y(t) = \xi_1(t)$ , it is seen that if  $y(t) = 0$  for all  $t$ , then

$$\xi_1(t) = \xi_2(t) = \dots = \xi_r(t) = 0 ,$$

that is  $\xi(t) = 0$  for all  $t$ .

Thus, when the output of the system is identically zero, its state is constrained to evolve in such a way that also  $\xi(t)$  is identically zero.

In addition, the input  $u(t)$  must necessarily be the unique solution of the equation

$$0 = q(z(t), 0) + b(z(t), 0)u(t)$$

(recall that  $b(z(t), 0) \neq 0$  if  $z(t)$  is close to 0).

As far as the variable  $z(t)$  is concerned, it is seen that

$$\dot{z}(t) = f_0(z(t), 0) .$$

From this analysis we deduce the following facts. If the output  $y(t)$  is identically zero, then necessarily the initial state of the system must be such that  $\xi(0) = 0$ , whereas  $z(0) = z^\circ$  can be arbitrary. According to the value of  $z^\circ$ , the input must be

$$u(t) = -\frac{q(z(t), 0)}{b(z(t), 0)}$$

where  $z(t)$  denotes the solution of the differential equation

$$\dot{z} = f_0(z, 0) \quad z(0) = z^\circ. \quad (5)$$

The dynamics of (5) characterize the forced state behavior of the system when input and initial conditions are chosen in such a way as to constrain the output to remain identically zero. These dynamics, which are rather important in many of the subsequent developments, are called the **zero dynamics** of the system.

If the system is linear, the dynamics of (5) are linear dynamics

$$\dot{z} = F_0 z$$

and it can be shown that the eigenvalues of  $F_0$  are exactly the **zeros of the transfer function** of the system.

**Definition** Consider a system of the form (1), with  $f(0) = 0$  and  $h(0) = 0$ . Suppose the system has relative degree  $r$  and possesses a globally defined normal. The system is **globally minimum-phase** if the equilibrium  $z = 0$  of the zero dynamics

$$\dot{z} = f_0(z, 0) \quad (6)$$

is globally asymptotically stable. The system is **strongly minimum-phase** if system

$$\dot{z} = f_0(z, \xi), \quad (7)$$

viewed as a system with input  $\xi$  and state  $z$ , is input-to-state stable.

By definition – then – a system is strongly minimum-phase if there exist a class  $\mathcal{KL}$  function  $\beta(\cdot, \cdot)$  and a class  $\mathcal{K}$  function  $\gamma(\cdot)$  such that, for any  $z(0) \in \mathbb{R}^{n-r}$  and any piecewise-continuous bounded function  $\xi(\cdot) : [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^r$ , the response  $z(t)$  of (7) from the initial state  $z(0)$  at time  $t = 0$  satisfies,

$$\|z(t)\| \leq \beta(\|z(0)\|, t) + \gamma(\|\xi(\cdot)\|_{[0,t]}) \quad \text{for all } t \geq 0. \quad (8)$$

**Definition** A system is **strongly – and also locally exponentially – minimum-phase** if for any  $z_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{n-r}$  and any piecewise-continuous bounded function  $\xi_0(\cdot) : [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^r$ , an estimate of the form (8) holds, where  $\beta(\cdot, \cdot)$  and  $\gamma(\cdot)$  are a class  $\mathcal{KL}$  function and, respectively, a class  $\mathcal{K}$  function bounded as

$$\gamma(r) \leq \ell r \quad A e^{-\alpha t} \leq \beta(r, t) \leq A e^{-\alpha t} \quad \text{for } |r| \leq d.$$