

SCE 594: Special Topics in Intelligent Automation & Robotics

Lecture 18: Lyapunov's Direct Method I



Outline

- Recap last lecture
- Case study: Pendulum
- Lyapunov stability analysis
- Positive definite functions



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Recap: State Space Model

- A nonlinear dynamic system can be represented by a set of nonlinear differential equations in the form

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

which is called the **state space model** of the dynamic system.

- We denote by the
 - State space $\mathcal{X} \ni x$
 - Control space $\mathcal{U} \ni u$
 - Output space $\mathcal{Y} \ni y$

Special case: Linear time-invariant systems

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= Ax + Bu \\ y &= Cx\end{aligned}$$



Recap: Control Objectives

- The control input is designed in general as a function of the output $u = \beta(y)$ to achieve:
 - Regulation/Stabilization $x(t) \rightarrow x_d$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$
 - Tracking $x(t) \rightarrow x_d(t), \dot{x}(t) \rightarrow \dot{x}_d(t)$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$
 - Interaction
- The design of the control system is based on **analyzing** the **stability** of the closed-loop system:

$$\dot{x} = f_{cl}(x)$$

where $f_{cl}(x) := f(x) + g(x) \cdot \beta(h(x))$



Recap: State Space Models – Mechanical Systems

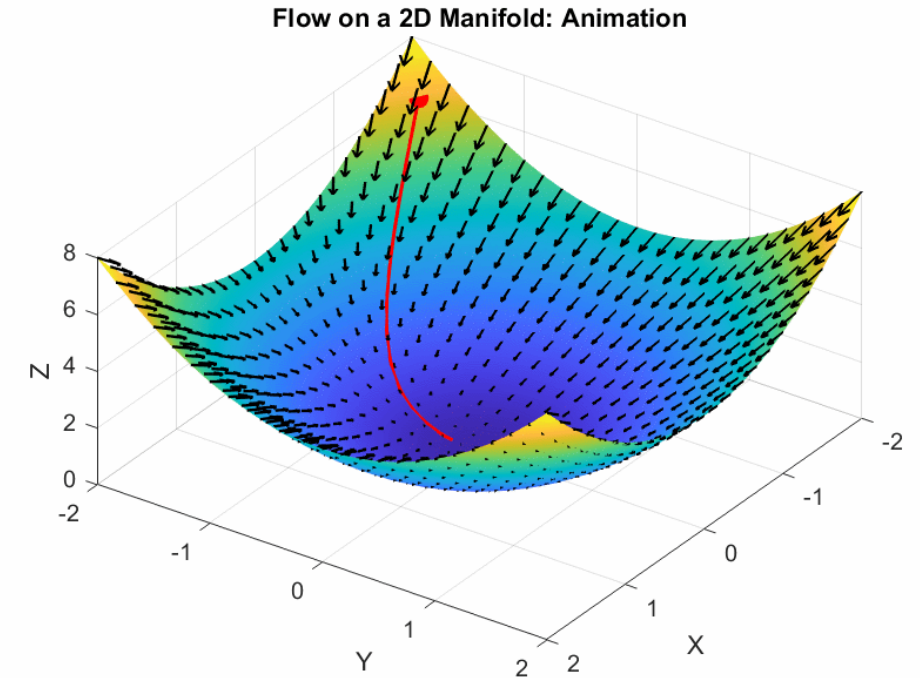
System	State x	State Space \mathcal{X}
Mass-Spring-Damper	$(\xi, \dot{\xi})$	$\mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \cong T\mathbb{R}$
Simple pendulum	$(\theta, \dot{\theta})$	$(-\pi, \pi] \times \mathbb{R} \cong TS$
n -link Manipulator	(q, \dot{q})	TQ
Satellite	(R, ω)	$SO(3) \times \mathbb{R}^3 \cong TSO(3)$
Multirotor Aerial Vehicle	(H, \mathcal{V})	$SE(3) \times \mathbb{R}^6 \cong TSE(3)$

For mechanical systems in general, $x = (q, \dot{q}) \in TQ$, where $q \in Q$ represents a configuration variable of the mechanical system and $\dot{q} \in T_q Q$ denotes a velocity-like variable.



Recap: Geometric Nature of $\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t))$

- Euclidean case $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^n$:
 - $x_t \in \mathbb{R}^n$
 - $\dot{x}_t \in \mathbb{R}^n$
 - $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$
- Non-Euclidean case:
 - $x_t \in \mathcal{X}$
 - $\dot{x}_t \in T_x \mathcal{X}$
 - $f: x_t \in \mathcal{X} \mapsto \dot{x}_t \in T_x \mathcal{X}$



The solution of the dynamical system $x(t)$ is given by the integral curves of σ_f .

Integral Curves

While $f(x)$ represents the velocity of a particle at every point, the integral curve represents the trajectory of a particle moving along this velocity field.



Recap: Equilibrium Points

- Given $\sigma_f \in \Gamma(T\mathcal{X})$, a point $x_* \in \mathcal{X}$ in the state space is called an *equilibrium point for σ_f* if and only if

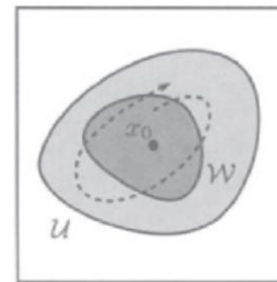
$$f(x_*) = 0$$

- Intuitively, an equilibrium point is a state x_* at which the system state remains for all time, once it reaches it.

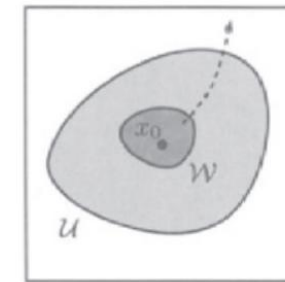


Recap: Stability of Equilibrium Points

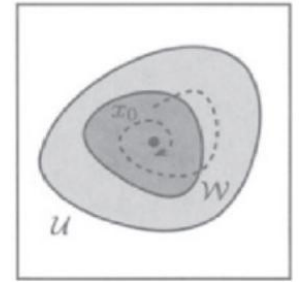
- An equilibrium point x_* of σ_f is said to be:
 - Stable If integral curves of σ_f stay “close” to x_*
 - Unstable If it is not stable
 - Locally asymptotically stable If it is stable and integral curves of σ_f converge to x_* only within a region $U \subset \mathcal{X}$
 - Globally asymptotically stable If it is stable and integral curves of σ_f converge to x_* for all $x \in \mathcal{X}$



Stable x_0



Unstable x_0



Locally asym. stable x_0



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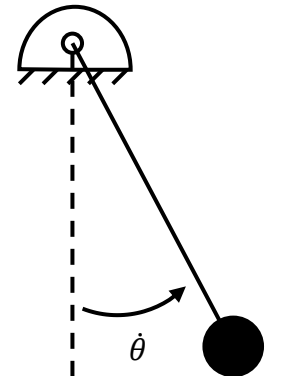


Equilibrium points of pendulum

- Consider the state-space model of the pendulum given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} \dot{x}_1 \\ \dot{x}_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_2 \\ -\frac{b}{mL^2}x_2 - \frac{g}{L}\sin x_1 \end{pmatrix} =: f(x)$$

where $x_1 = \theta, x_2 = \dot{\theta}$.



Equilibrium points of pendulum

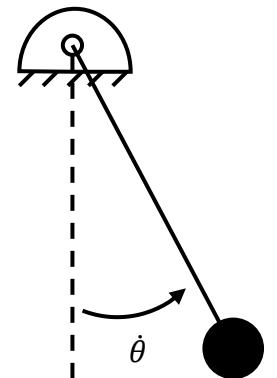
- Consider the state-space model of the pendulum given by

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where $x_1 = \theta$, $x_2 = \dot{\theta}$.

- To find the equilibrium points x_* , we set $f(x) = 0$:

$$x_2 = 0 \quad , \quad -\frac{b}{mL^2}x_2 - \frac{g}{L}\sin x_1 = 0,$$



Equilibrium points of pendulum

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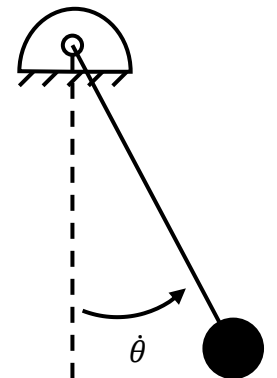
where $x_1 = \theta, x_2 = \dot{\theta}$.

- To find the equilibrium points x_* , we set $f(x) = 0$, which simplifies to

$$x_2 = 0, \quad \sin x_1 = 0$$

- Solving for $x_1 \in \mathbb{R}$, we get:

$$\sin x_1 = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x_1 = k\pi, \quad k \in \mathbb{Z}$$



Equilibrium points of pendulum

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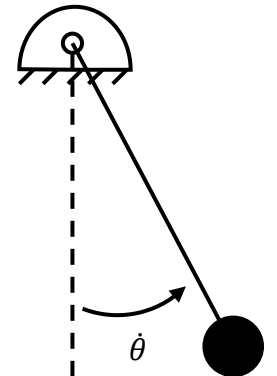
- However, recall that $x_1 = \theta \in (-\pi, \pi] \cong \mathbb{S}^1$, thus the system has only two equilibrium points

$$x_* = (0, 0)$$

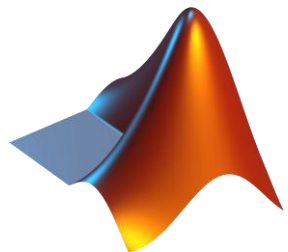
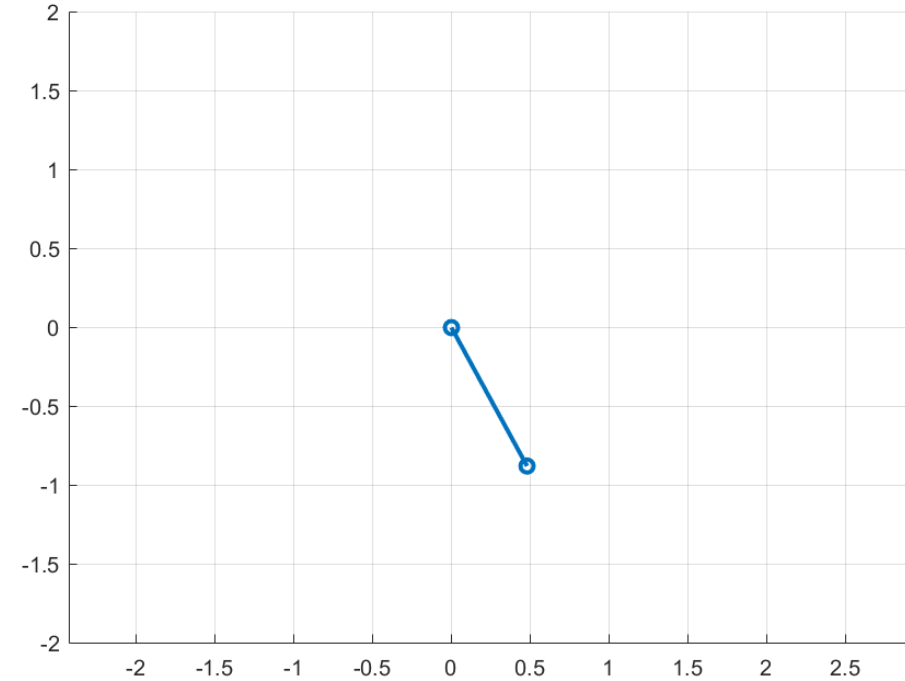
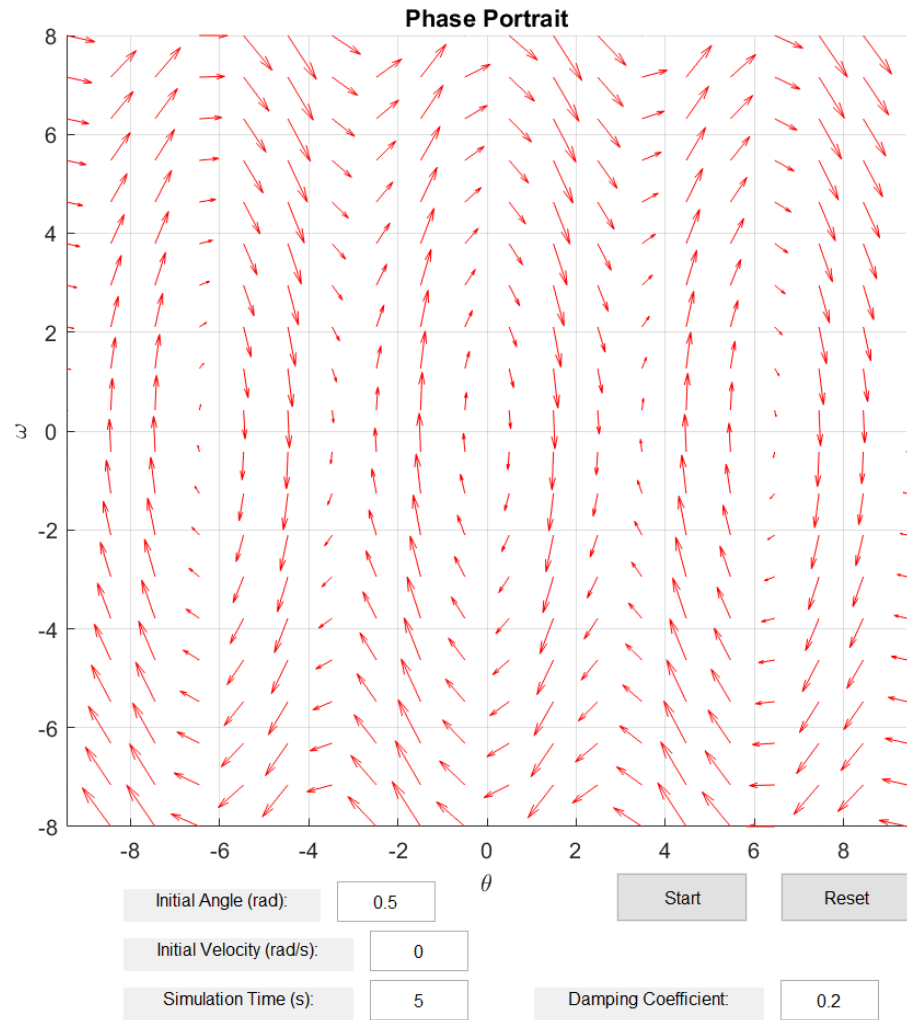
Downward position

$$x_* = (\pi, 0)$$

Upward position



MATLAB Code

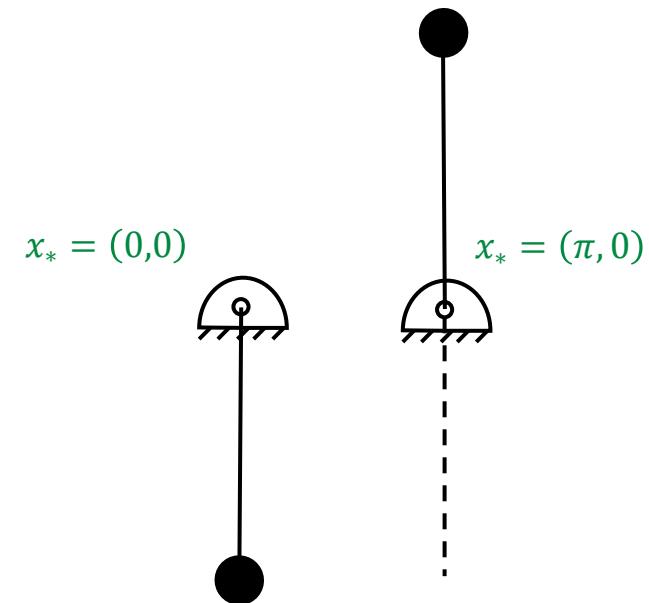


Equilibrium points of pendulum

- In summary, the state space model

$$\begin{pmatrix} \dot{x}_1 \\ \dot{x}_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_2 \\ -\frac{b}{mL^2}x_2 - \frac{g}{L}\sin x_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

has an asymptotically stable equilibrium at $x_* = (0,0)$ and an unstable equilibrium at $x_* = (\pi, 0)$.



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- Positive definite functions



Lyapunov stability

- The most useful and general approach for studying the stability of nonlinear dynamical systems is the theory introduced in the late 19th century by the Russian mathematician Lyapunov.
- His work introduced two methods:
 - **Indirect Method**: studies nonlinear local stability around an equilibrium point x_* from stability properties of its **linear approximation**.
 - **Direct Method**: not restricted to local motion. Stability of nonlinear system is studied by proposing a scalar “**energy-like**” function $V: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ for the system and examining its time variation



Aleksandr Mikhailovich Lyapunov (1857-1918) was a Russian mathematician, mechanic and physicist.
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Aleksandr_Lyapunov



Lyapunov's indirect method

Read Only
Supplementary HW

- Consider the nonlinear system $\dot{x} = f(x)$ with equilibrium point x_* . The linearization of this system around the equilibrium point x_* is given by:

$$\dot{z} = A z$$

where $z := x - x_* \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $A := J_f(x_*)$ is the Jacobian of $f(x)$ evaluated at the equilibrium points.

$$J_f(x) = \begin{pmatrix} df_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ df_n(x) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1}(x) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n}(x) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1}(x) & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_n}(x) \end{pmatrix}$$



Lyapunov's indirect method

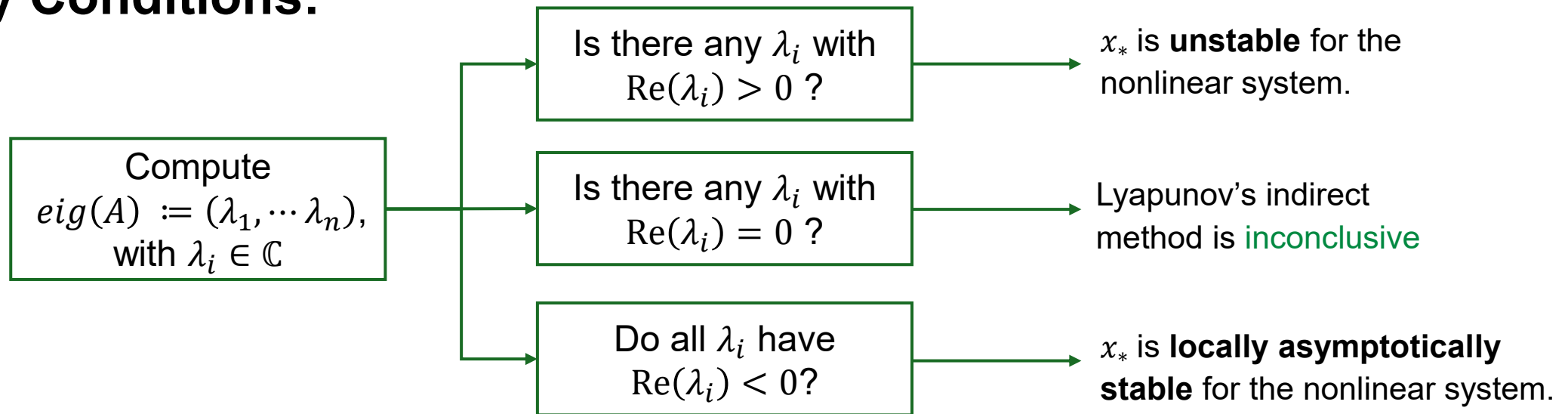
Read Only
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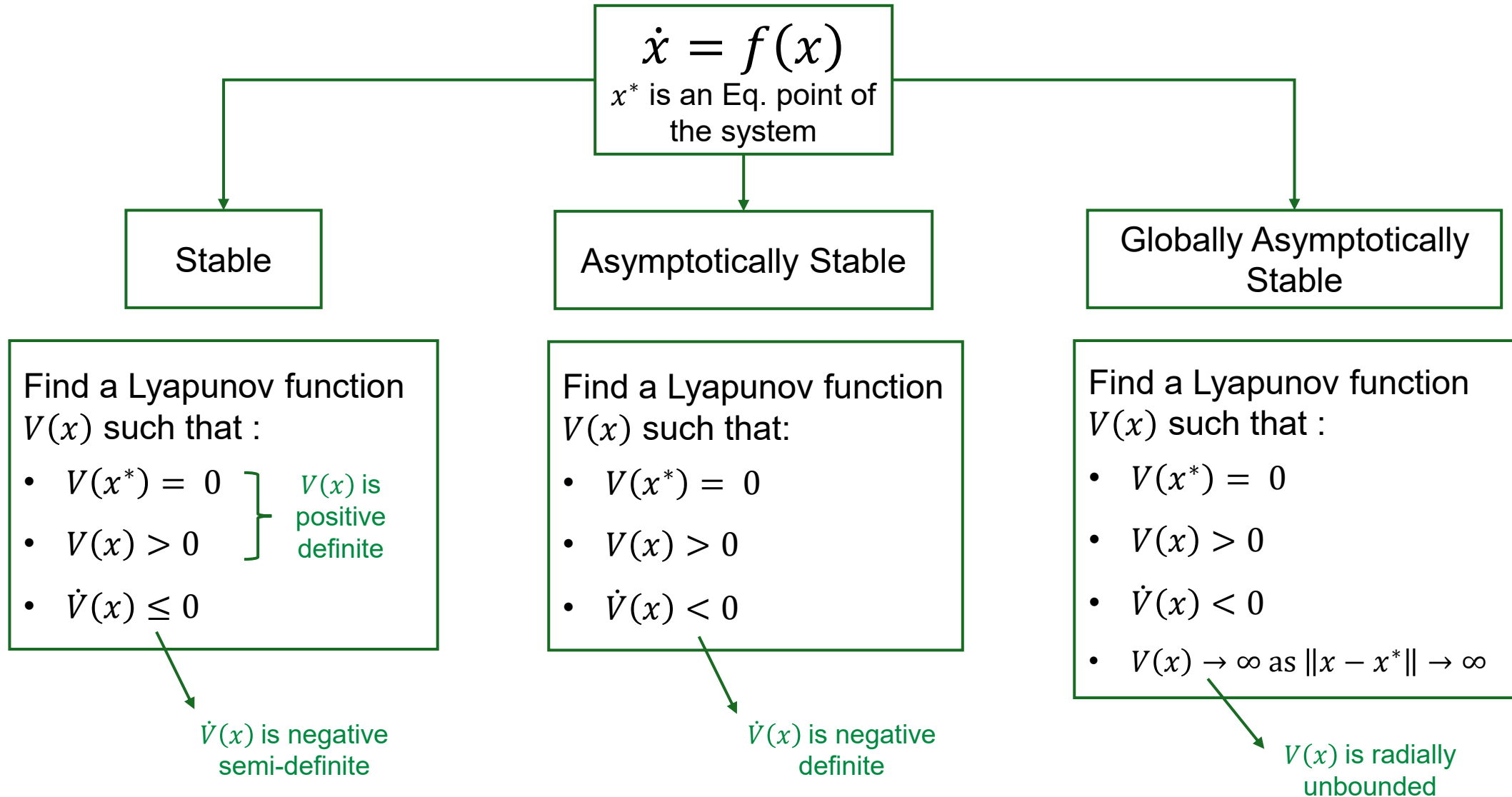
$$\dot{z} = A z$$

where $z := x - x_* \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $A := J_f(x_*)$ is the Jacobian of $f(x)$ evaluated at the equilibrium points.

- Stability Conditions:**



Lyapunov's direct method



Outline

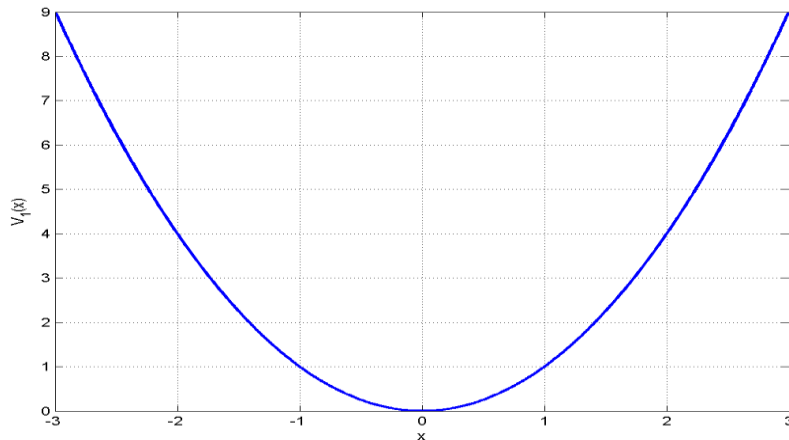
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- **Positive definite functions**



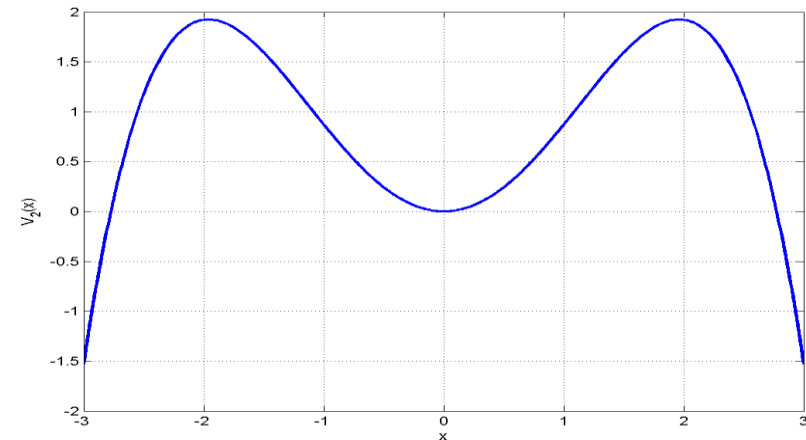
Positive Definite Functions

- A function $V(x)$ is said to be positive definite if
 - $V(0) = 0$
 - $V(x) > 0 \quad \forall x \neq 0$
- Examples $x \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$V_1(x) = x^2$$



$$V_2(x) = x^2 - 0.13x^4$$

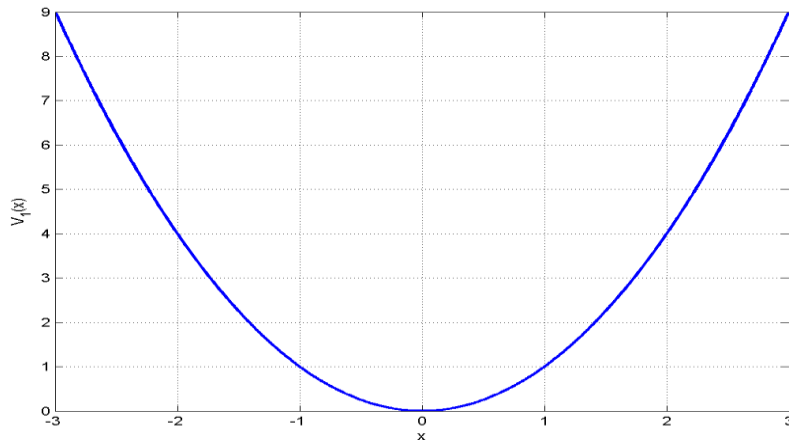


Positive Definite Functions

- Examples $x \in \mathbb{R}$:

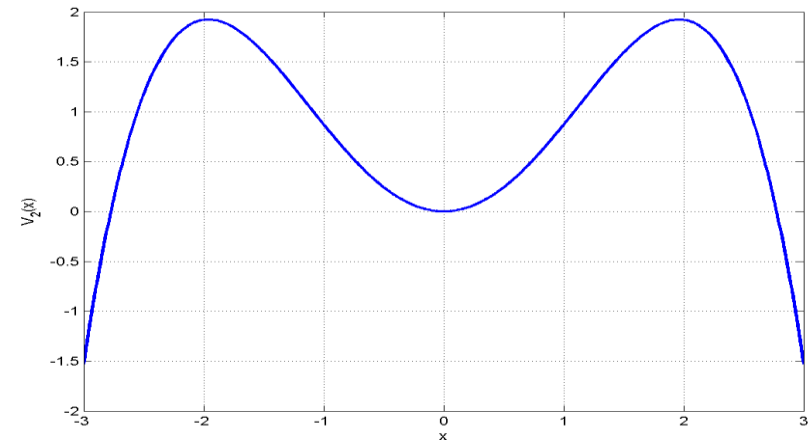
- $V_1(x) = x^2$
- $V_1(0) = 0$
- $V_1(x) > 0 \quad \forall x \neq 0$

- Therefore $V_1(x)$ is positive definite **globally**



- $V_2(x) = x^2 - 0.13 x^4$
- $V_2(0) = 0$
- $V_2(x) > 0$ (but not $\forall x \neq 0$)

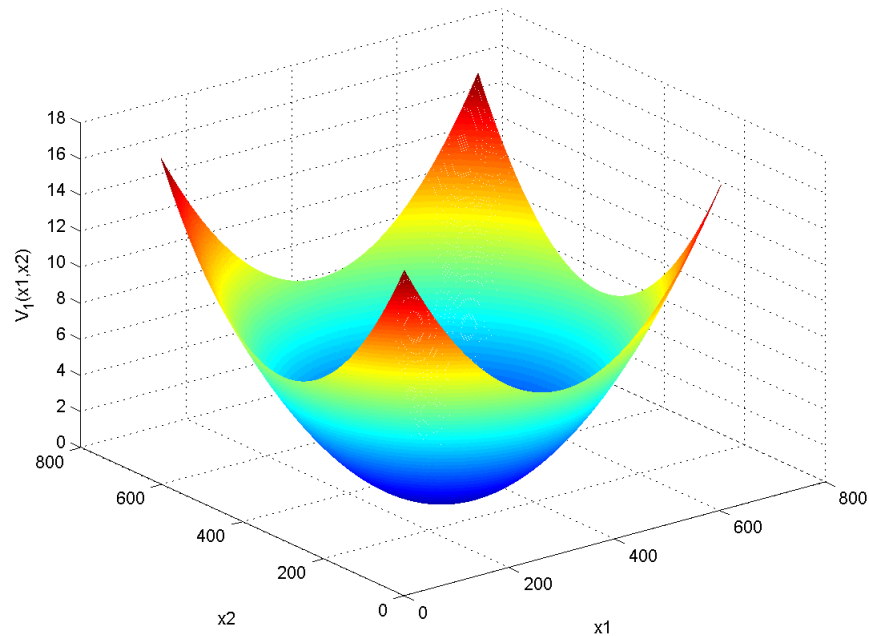
- Therefore $V_2(x)$ is positive definite only **locally** in the region $|x| < 2.77$.



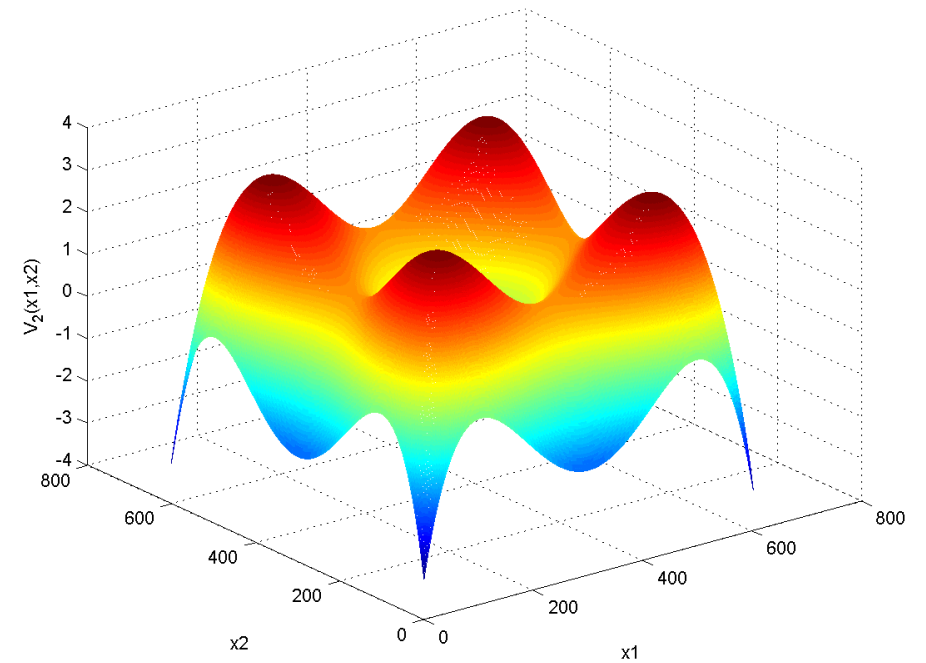
Positive Definite Functions

- Examples $x \in \mathbb{R}^2$:

- $V_1(x) = x_1^2 + x_2^2$



- $V_2(x) = x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 0.13(x_1^4 + x_2^4)$



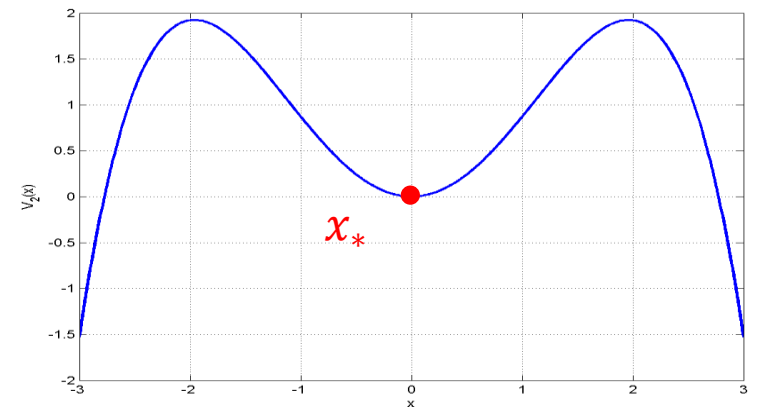
Positive Definite Functions (Formal Definition)

- A function $\psi: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is **locally positive definite** about $x_* \in \mathcal{X}$ if:
 - $\psi(x_*) = 0$
 - There exists a neighborhood $\mathcal{U} \subset \mathcal{X}$ that includes x_* (i.e., $x_* \in \mathcal{U}$) such that $\psi(x) > 0 \forall x \in \mathcal{U} \setminus \{x_*\}$.
- $\psi: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is locally positive **semi-definite** if $\psi(x) \geq 0 \forall x \in \mathcal{U} \setminus \{x_*\}$.
- $\psi: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is **globally** positive definite if $\psi(x) > 0 \forall x \in \mathcal{X} \setminus \{x_*\}$.
- $\psi: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is locally **negative** (semi-)definite if $-\psi(x)$ is locally positive (semi-)definite.



Local Minima and Critical Zeros

- In other words, x_* is a **strict local minimum** of $\psi(x)$, and the function increases in every direction away from x_* within \mathcal{U} .
- Recall the classic result of calculus:
 - If ψ is differentiable, and x_* is a local minimum, then the gradient must vanish there i.e., $J_\psi(x_*) = 0$.
- We call points $x_* \in \mathcal{X}$ a **critical zero** for the smooth function $\psi: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ if $\psi(x_*) = 0$ and $J_\psi(x_*) = 0$.



Positive Definite Matrices

- A real symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is called a **positive definite matrix** if we have that

$$x^T A x > 0, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}.$$

- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is called a positive **semi-definite** matrix if $x^T A x \geq 0$.
- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is called a **negative** definite matrix if $x^T A x < 0$.
- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is called a negative **semi-definite** matrix if $x^T A x \leq 0$.



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- Key property:
 - $A \succ 0$ is positive definite if and only if all its **eigenvalues** are positive.
 - $A \succcurlyeq 0$ is positive semi-definite if and only if all its **eigenvalues** are non-negative.
 - $A \prec 0$ is negative definite if and only if all its **eigenvalues** are negative.
 - $A \preccurlyeq 0$ is negative definite if and only if all its **eigenvalues** are non-positive.



Using Taylor Expansion for Positive Definiteness

- Suppose you have a smooth scalar function $V: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and you want to check whether it's positive definite around $x_* \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- You can expand $V(x)$ as a Taylor series of order 2:

$$V(x) = V(x_*) + J_V(x_*) (x - x_*) + \frac{1}{2} (x - x_*)^\top H_V(x_*) (x - x_*) + \dots$$

where $H_V(x_*) \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is called the **Hessian** matrix with the entry of the i th row and the j th column is $(H_V)_{ij} := \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.



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- However, since x_* is a **critical zero** of V , the function is locally approximated by

$$V(x) \approx \frac{1}{2} (x - x_*)^\top H_V(x_*) (x - x_*)$$



Using Taylor Expansion for Positive Definiteness

$$V(x) \approx \frac{1}{2} (x - x_*)^\top H_V(x_*) (x - x_*)$$

- Therefore, we have that $V(x)$ is a locally positive definite function if and only if the Hessian $H_V(x_*)$ is a positive definite matrix, which can be assessed from its eigenvalues.
- This result is a basic result from what is known as **Morse theory**.

Note: Positive definite Hessian gives a sufficient, not necessary, condition !

