# On balanced realization and finite-dimensional approximation for infinite-dimensional nonlinear systems 

Kenji Fujimoto and Sayaka Ono


#### Abstract

In this paper, we propose a finite-dimensional approximation for a nonlinear infinite-dimensional system via balanced realization. The proposed method is accomplished by balanced realization and singular value analysis for nonlinear systems. This approach is expected to derive effective approximate models preserving particular input-output behavior. Necessary and sufficient conditions characterizing balanced realization for infinite-dimensional systems are derived. Furthermore, the effectiveness of the proposed method is shown by a numerical simulation.


## I. Introduction

Various model order reduction methods have been proposed [1], balanced truncation method is often used since it conserves input-output behavior. Furthermore, for continuous time systems, the stability of the approximated model is preserved. For nonlinear systems, Scherpen formulated a basic framework for balanced realization [2]. Then a precise solution to this problem and the corresponding balanced truncation method were derived [3], [4].

Glover et al. [5] proposed balanced realization and balanced truncation for infinite-dimensional linear systems. However, there is no result for infinite-dimensional nonlinear systems so far. Therefore we discuss this problem and its finite-dimensional approximation. Conventional finite-dimensional approximation methods, such as mode decomposition, Taylor series expansion and finite element method are accomplished by approximating the whole state equations. On the other hand, balanced truncation pays attention to the input-output behavior of systems and tries to approximate them with respect to input-output relation. In this paper, balanced realization for infinite-dimensional nonlinear systems is formulated and characterized by a pair of Hamilton-Jacobi equations (HJEs). An approximate solution to those equations is proposed based on Galerkin method. Direct application of Galerkin method to HJEs on infinite dimensional signal spaces requires computation of infinite number of integrals. An approximation algorithm with finite number of integral computation is proposed, which works out by applying Galerkin method in two different steps: approximation to the state equations and that to HJEs. As a result, a finite-dimensional approximated system is derived by applying balanced truncation.

[^0]Section II refers to balanced realization and model order reduction for finite-dimensional systems. Section III generalizes them for infinite-dimensional systems. A finitedimensional approximation method is proposed in Section IV. In Section V, the effectiveness of the proposed method is demonstrated by a numerical simulation.
Notation In this paper, $\|x\|:=\left(x^{\mathrm{T}} x\right)^{1 / 2}$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$. The symbol $\langle x, y\rangle:=x^{\mathrm{T}} y$ denotes the inner product for $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$. Let us define the inner product on $L_{2}$ as $\langle x, y\rangle_{L_{2}}:=\int_{a}^{b} x(t)^{\mathrm{T}} y(t) \mathrm{d} t$ and the norm on $L_{2}$ as $\|x\|_{L_{2}}:=\sqrt{\langle x, x\rangle_{L_{2}}}$. Moreover, the class- $K$ and class$K L$ functions are defined as follows. A continuous function $\alpha:[0, \infty) \rightarrow[0, \infty)$ is called class- $K$ if $\alpha$ is monotonically increasing and satisfies $\alpha(0)=0$. A continuous function $\beta:[0, \infty) \times[0, \infty) \rightarrow[0, \infty)$ is called class- $K L$ if $\beta(r, s)$ is a class- $K$ function with respect to $r$ for $\forall s \in[0, \infty)$, if $\beta(r, s)$ is monotonically decreasing with respect to $s$ for $\forall r \in[0, \infty)$ and if $\lim _{s \rightarrow \infty} \beta(r, s)=0$.

## II. Preliminaries

This section refers to balanced realization and balanced truncation for finite-dimensional nonlinear systems [3], [4]. Consider an input-affine, time invariant, asymptotically stable nonlinear system

$$
\Sigma_{f}: \begin{cases}\dot{x} & =f(x)+g(x) u \quad x(0)=x^{0}  \tag{1}\\ y & =h(x)\end{cases}
$$

with $x(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, u(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{m}, y(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{r}$. The next assumption is adopted in what follows.

Assumption 1: Hankel singular values of the Jacobian linearization of $\Sigma_{f}$ at $x=0$ are nonzero and distinct.

For this system, the controllabirity and obserbability functions $L_{c}$ and $L_{o}$ are defined as follows.

Definition 1:

$$
\begin{align*}
L_{c}\left(x^{0}\right) & :=\min _{\substack{u \in L_{2}(-\infty, 0) \\
x(-\infty)=0, x(0)=x^{0}}} \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{0}\|u(t)\|^{2} \mathrm{~d} t  \tag{2}\\
L_{o}\left(x^{0}\right) & :=\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{\infty}\|y(t)\|^{2} \mathrm{~d} t, \quad x(0)=x^{0} \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

By Definition 1, if $\dot{x}=f(x)$ is asymptotically stable, the existence and the positive definiteness of $L_{c}$ is equivalent to reachability of $\Sigma_{f}$ with respect to $L_{2}$ input signals, and the existence and the positive definiteness of $L_{o}$ is equivalent to zero-state observability of $\Sigma_{f}$. The functions $L_{c}$ and $L_{o}$ are the solutions of Hamilton-Jacobi equations

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{\partial L_{c}(x)}{\partial x} f(x)+\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial L_{c}(x)}{\partial x} g(x) g(x)^{\mathrm{T}} \frac{\partial L_{c}(x)^{\mathrm{T}}}{\partial x}=0  \tag{4}\\
& \frac{\partial L_{o}(x)}{\partial x} f(x)+\frac{1}{2} h(x)^{\mathrm{T}} h(x)=0 \tag{5}
\end{align*}
$$

where the origin of $\dot{x}=-f(x)-g(x) g(x)^{\mathrm{T}}\left(\partial L_{c}(x) / \partial x\right)^{\mathrm{T}}$ is asymptotically stable. Related to $L_{c}$ and $L_{o}$, the following theorem is characterized by the equation of singular value analysis for the corresponding nonlinear Hankel operators.

Theorem 1: [6], [3] Assume that $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ satisfy

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nabla L_{o}(\xi)=\lambda \nabla L_{c}(\xi) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then $\sigma=\sqrt{L_{o}(\xi) / L_{c}(\xi)}$ is Hankel singular value, and the solution $\xi$ to (6) is on the coordinate axes of balanced realization.

According to Theorem 1, we can obtain Hankel singular values by solving (6). Balanced realization of $\Sigma_{f}$ can be derived by transforming the solution curves of $\xi$ into the coordinate axes. Furthermore, the following theorem indicates nonlinear balanced realization.

Theorem 2: [3], [4] Under Assumption 1, there exists a coordinate transformation $x=\Phi(z)$ on a neighborhood $U$ of the origin satisfying

$$
L_{c}(\Phi(z))=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{z_{i}^{2}}{\sigma_{i}\left(z_{i}\right)}, L_{o}(\Phi(z))=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} z_{i}^{2} \sigma_{i}\left(z_{i}\right)
$$

Balanced truncation for nonlinear systems is implemented as follows. Suppose that $\Sigma_{f}$ is in a balanced realization $\Sigma_{b r}$ whose state is denoted $z$. Assume that the Hankel singular values satisfy $\sigma_{1} \geq \cdots \geq \sigma_{k} \gg \sigma_{k+1} \geq \cdots \geq \sigma_{n} \geq 0$ for a certain $k,(1 \leq k \leq n)$. This means that $z^{a}:=$ $\left(z_{1}, \cdots, z_{k}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{k}$ has much more influence on the inputoutput behavior of $\Sigma_{b r}$ than $z^{b}:=\left(z_{k+1}, \cdots, z_{n}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{n-k}$. According to the division $z=\left(z^{a}, z^{b}\right)$, let us divide $f(z)=$ $\left(f^{a}(z), f^{b}(z)\right)$ and $g(z)=\left(g^{a}(z)^{\mathrm{T}}, g^{b}(z)^{\mathrm{T}}\right)^{\mathrm{T}}$ correspondingly. Then, the nonlinear reduced model is obtained by substituting $z^{b} \equiv 0$ as follows.

$$
\Sigma_{b r}: \begin{cases}\dot{z^{a}} & =f^{a}\left(z^{a}, 0\right)+g^{a}\left(z^{a}, 0\right) u \quad z(0)=z^{0} \\ y & =h\left(z^{a}, 0\right)\end{cases}
$$

## III. BALANCED REALIZATION FOR INFINITE-DIMENSIONAL NONLINEAR SYSTEMS

It is shown in this section that $L_{c}$ and $L_{o}$ for infinitedimensional nonlinear systems are also characterized by HJEs. Consider an input-affine, time invariant, asymptotically stable nonlinear infinite-dimensional system

$$
\Sigma: \begin{cases}\frac{\mathrm{d} x(t)}{\mathrm{d} t} & =F(x(t))+\sum_{i=1}^{m} u_{i}(t) G_{i}(x(t))  \tag{7}\\ y(t) & =H(x(t))\end{cases}
$$

with $x(t)$ in Sobolev spaces $\mathcal{H}^{1}(\Omega)$ with $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^{n}, u(t)=$ $\left(u_{1}(t), \cdots, u_{m}(t)\right)^{\mathrm{T}} \in \mathbb{R}^{m}, y(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{r}, F, G_{i}: \mathcal{H}^{1}(\Omega) \rightarrow$ $L_{2}^{n}(i=1, \cdots, m)$ and $H: \mathcal{H}^{1}(\Omega) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{r}$. The origin $x=0$ is the equilibrium, that is, $F(0)=0$ and $H(0)=0$ without loss of generality. Let $\Sigma$ be asymptotically stable in the following sense.

Definition 2: The origin $x=0$ of $\Sigma$ is said to be asymptotically stable if there exists a class- $K L$ function $\beta$ satisfying $\|x(t)\|_{L_{2}} \leq \beta\left(\|x(0)\|_{L_{2}}, t\right)$.

The definition of $L_{c}$ and $L_{o}$ for infinite-dimensional systems are similar to (2) and (3), respectively.

$$
\begin{aligned}
L_{c}\left(x^{0}\right) & :=\min _{\substack{u \in L_{2}(-\infty, 0) \\
x(-\infty)=0, x(0)=x^{0}}} \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{0}\|u(t)\|^{2} \mathrm{~d} t \\
L_{o}\left(x^{0}\right) & :=\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{\infty}\|y(t)\|^{2} \mathrm{~d} t, \quad x(0)=x^{0}
\end{aligned}
$$

Next theorem characterizes $L_{c}$ and $L_{o}$ for infinitedimensional systems as natural generalization for the finitedimensional ones.

Theorem 3: Consider the system (7). Suppose that the origin of $\dot{x}=F(x)$ is asymptotically stable on a neighborhood $W$ of 0 . Then the following statements hold.
(i) Suppose that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\langle\nabla \check{L}_{o}(x), F(x)\right\rangle_{L_{2}}+\frac{1}{2} H(x)^{\mathrm{T}} H(x)=0, \quad \check{L}_{o}(0)=0 \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

has a smooth solution $\check{L}_{o}$ on $W_{o} \subset W$ satisfying $0 \leq$ $\check{L}_{o}(x) \leq \alpha_{o}\left(\|x\|_{L_{2}}\right)$ with a class- $K$ function $\alpha_{o}$. Then the observability function $L_{o}$ exists and coincides with the unique solution $\check{L}_{o}$ of (8) on $W_{o}$.
(ii) Suppose that

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left\langle\nabla \check{L}_{c}(x), F(x)\right\rangle_{L_{2}}+\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m}\left\langle\nabla \check{L}_{c}(x), G_{i}(x)\right\rangle_{L_{2}}^{2}=0 \\
& \check{L}_{c}(0)=0 \tag{9}
\end{align*}
$$

has a smooth solution $\check{L}_{c}$ on a neighborhood $W_{c} \subset W$ such that the origin of

$$
\begin{equation*}
\dot{x}=-F(x)-\sum_{i=1}^{m} G_{i}(x)\left\langle\nabla \check{L}_{c}(x), G_{i}(x)\right\rangle_{L_{2}} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

is asymptotically stable on $W_{c}$ and $\check{L}_{c}$ satisfies $0 \leq \check{L}_{c}(x) \leq$ $\alpha_{c}\left(\|x\|_{L_{2}}\right)$ with a class- $K$ function $\alpha_{c}$. Then the controllability function $L_{c}$ exists on $W_{c}$ and coincides with the solution of (9) on $W_{c}$ such that the origin of the system (10) is asymptotically stable.

Proof. See Appendix.
Theorem 3 proves the sufficiency of the Hamilton-Jacobi equations (8) and (9) for the existence of $L_{c}$ and $L_{o}$. The following theorem proves the necessity.

Theorem 4: Consider the system (7). Suppose that the origin of $\dot{x}=F(x)$ is asymptotically stable on a neighborhood $W$ of 0 . Then the following statements hold.
(i) Suppose that the observability function $L_{o}$ exists on $W_{o} \subset W$ and is smooth. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\langle\nabla \check{L}_{o}(x), F(x)\right\rangle_{L_{2}}+\frac{1}{2} H(x)^{\mathrm{T}} H(x)=0, \quad \check{L}_{o}(0)=0 \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

has a solution $\check{L}_{o}=L_{o}$ on $W_{o}$.
(ii) Suppose that a controllability function $L_{c}$ exists on $W_{c} \subset W$ and is smooth. Then

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left\langle\nabla \check{L}_{c}(x), F(x)\right\rangle_{L_{2}}+\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m}\left\langle\nabla \check{L}_{c}(x), G_{i}(x)\right\rangle_{L_{2}}^{2}=0 \\
& \check{L}_{c}(0)=0 \tag{12}
\end{align*}
$$

has a solution $\check{L}_{c}=L_{c}$ such that the origin of (10) is asymptotically stable on $W_{c}$.

Proof. See Appendix.

## IV. Approximate solutions to Hamilton-Jacobi EQUATIONS FOR INFINITE-DIMENSIONAL SYSTEMS

This section proposes an approximate solution to (8) and (9) based on Galerkin method. Approximate solutions to (4) and (5) have been already proposed by many authors, see e.g. [7] and [8]. The method based on [8] is adopted here. An approximate solution given by Galerkin method comes closer and closer to the exact one as the approximate accuracy becomes higher and higher [9], [10].

## A. Galerkin method

Let $X$ be a real Hilbert space and $X^{\prime}$ be the dual space of $X$. Let $a: X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous bilinear operator. Consider a problem to find $x \in X$ satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
a(x, y)=f(y), \forall y \in X \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

for $f \in X^{\prime}$. If the operator $a$ satisfies a certain condition, the problem (13) has the unique solution [10]. Suppose that $a$ satisfies this condition. Then try to find an approximate solution $x \in X$ on a finite-dimensional subspace $X_{h}:=$ $\operatorname{span}\left\{x_{1}, \cdots, x_{N}\right\} \subset X$. That is, consider the problem $a\left(x_{h}, y_{h}\right)=f\left(y_{h}\right), \quad \forall y_{h} \in X_{h}$ instead of (13) and find an approximate solution $x_{h}$ in $X_{h}$. Here the subscript $h$ indicates the approximate accuracy where $N \rightarrow \infty$ as $h \rightarrow 0$.

## B. Proposed algorithm

Utilizing Galerkin method to solve (8) and (9), approximate solutions to $L_{c}$ and $L_{o}$ can be found. These solutions converge to the exact ones as $h \rightarrow 0$. However, direct application of Galerkin method to (8) and (9) requires one to compute infinite number of integrals. Therefore we cannot calculate the approximate solution in practice. Here, let us derive finite-dimensional HJEs first by applying Galerkin method to (7). Then obtain approximate solutions to $L_{c}$ and $L_{o}$ by solving the approximated HJEs by applying Galerkin method once again. Since it is easier to solve (8) than to solve (9), we discuss how to solve (8) in detail below.

Consider an input-affine system

$$
\Sigma: \begin{cases}\frac{\partial x(s, t)}{\partial t} & =F(x(\cdot, t), s)+\sum_{i=1}^{m} u_{i}(t) G_{i}(x(t))  \tag{14}\\ y(t) & =H(x(\cdot, t))\end{cases}
$$

with $x(\cdot, t) \in \mathcal{H}^{1}(\Omega), u(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{m}, y(t) \in \mathbb{R}^{r}$. The origin is an equilibrium. The variable $s \in \mathbb{R}$ is the spatial axis. The symbols $F, G_{i}$ and $H$ are operators including calculation such as integrals with respect to $s$. Suppose that $\Sigma$ is asymptotically stable. Let $x(s, t)$ be described by a series expansion as $x(s, t)=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\left\langle x(s, t), \phi_{j}(s)\right\rangle_{L_{2}}, \phi_{j}(s)=$ $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \xi_{j}(t) \phi_{j}(s)$ with a set of complete orthogonal functions $\left\{\phi_{j}\right\},(j=1,2, \cdots)$ in the spatial space. Approximation of $x$ is represented in a subspace spanned by $\left\{\phi_{j}\right\},(j=$ $1, \cdots, N_{s}$ ) as follows.

$$
\begin{equation*}
x(s, t)=\sum_{j=1}^{N_{s}} \xi_{j}(t) \phi_{j}(s) \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

The inner product calculation is carried out by substituting (15) for the state equation in (14) as

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left\langle\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{N_{s}} \xi_{j}(t) \phi_{j}(s)\right)-F(x(\cdot, t), s)\right. \\
& \left.\quad-G(x(\cdot, t), s) u(t), \phi_{i}(s)\right\rangle_{L_{2}}=0, i=1, \cdots, N_{s} \tag{16}
\end{align*}
$$

A finite-dimensional approximate state equation is derived by solving (16). Also an approximate solution to the output equation in (14) is calculated on the same subspace. As a consequence, a finite-dimensional approximate state space equation is derived as follows.

$$
\Sigma_{\xi}: \begin{cases}\dot{\xi} & =f(\xi)+g(\xi) u  \tag{17}\\ y & =h(\xi)\end{cases}
$$

Next, let $L_{o}$ be described by a series expansion with a set of complete orthogonal functions $\left\{\psi_{j}\right\},(j=1,2, \cdots)$ with respect to $\xi, L_{o}(\xi)=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} q_{j} \psi_{j}(\xi), q_{j} \in \mathbb{R}(j=$ $1,2, \cdots)$. Then solve (8) related to $L_{o}$ by Galerkin method. On a subspace $X_{N_{\xi}}$ spanned by $\left\{\psi_{j}\right\},\left(j=1, \cdots, N_{\xi}\right)$, the approximation to $L_{o}$ is described as follows.

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{o}(\xi)=\sum_{j=1}^{N_{\xi}} q_{j} \psi_{j}(\xi) \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Substitute (17) and (18) for (8) and calculate

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\langle\left\langle\nabla \sum_{j=1}^{N_{\xi}} q_{j} \psi_{j}(\xi), f(\xi)\right\rangle+\frac{1}{2} h(\xi)^{\mathrm{T}} h(\xi), \psi_{i}(\xi)\right\rangle=0 \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

to find $q_{j}\left(j=1, \cdots, N_{\xi}\right)$ where $i=1, \cdots, N_{\xi}$. Then an approximate solution to $L_{o}$ is obtained. Since this solution depends on the choice of $\left\{\phi_{i}\right\}$ and $\left\{\psi_{i}\right\}$, it is important to choose them to preserve the feature of the original system. For example, the eigenfunctions of the system were chosen in the numerical example described in Section V. Here the convergence of the approximate solution to the exact one is an important issue. The convergence of Galerkin solutions is proven stated in the beginning of Section IV. Here let $N_{s} \rightarrow \infty$ first, next let $N_{\xi} \rightarrow \infty$, then the approximate solution to $L_{o}$ will converge to the exact one because of (19). The detailed treatment on the convergence of the approximate solutions of finite-dimensional Hamilton-Jacobi equations based on Galerkin method is discussed in [11].
Equation (9) can also be solved by the above method. For $\Sigma_{\xi}$, the function $L_{c}$ is described by $L_{c}=\sum_{i=1}^{N_{\xi}} p_{j} \psi_{j}(\xi)$ on $X_{N_{\xi}}$ where $p_{j} \in \mathbb{R}\left(j=1, . ., N_{\xi}\right)$. However, this is a quadratic equation with respect to the variable $p_{j}$ as

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left\langle\left\langle\nabla \sum_{j=1}^{N_{\xi}} p_{j} \psi_{j}(\xi), f(\xi)\right\rangle+\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m}\left\langle\nabla \sum_{j=1}^{N_{\xi}} p_{j} \psi_{j}(\xi)\right.\right. \\
& \left.\left.g_{i}(\xi)^{\mathrm{T}}\right\rangle^{2}, \psi_{k}(\xi)\right\rangle=0, \quad k=1, \cdots, N_{\xi} \tag{20}
\end{align*}
$$

This equation is solved by the asymptotic approximation [12] to solve (4) the Hamilton-Jacobi equation in the finite dimensional case. This method is to solve a linear recurrence equation (21) with respect to $p_{k j}$ instead of the quadratic equation (20).

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left\langle\left\langle\nabla \sum_{j=1}^{N_{\xi}} p_{k j} \psi_{j}(\xi), f(\xi)\right\rangle+\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m}\left\langle\nabla \sum_{j=1}^{N_{\xi}} p_{k j} \psi_{j}(\xi),\right.\right. \\
& \left.\left.g_{i}(\xi)^{\mathrm{T}}\right\rangle\left\langle\nabla \sum_{j=1}^{N_{\xi}} p_{(k-1) j} \psi_{j}(\xi), g_{i}(\xi)^{\mathrm{T}}\right\rangle, \psi_{k}(\xi)\right\rangle=0, \tag{21}
\end{align*}
$$

$k=1, \cdots, N_{\xi}$. It is proven in [12] that if (5) is solved by asymptotic approximation, then the solution converges
to the exact one. Therefore, similarly to the $L_{o}$ case, let $N_{s} \rightarrow \infty$, then let $N_{\xi} \rightarrow \infty$, and employ another iteration for the asymptotic approximation, then the approximation to $L_{c}$ will converge to the exact one.

It is expected that the accuracy of the solutions of (6) can be improved by improving that of the approximate solutions to $L_{c}$ and $L_{o}$ obtained by the above procedure since (6) is characterized by the gradients of $L_{c}$ and $L_{o}$. Therefore, the accuracy of balanced realization and Hankel singular values are also improved. The computational algorithm is summarized as follows.

## The computational algorithm

1) Apply Galerkin method to the state equation of the system (7).
2) Derive (8) and (9) from finite-dimensional approximation to the state equation, and solve them by Galerkin method. As a result, approximate solutions to $L_{c}$ and $L_{o}$ are obtained.
3) Solve (6) to find the Hankel singular values and the coordinate axes which yield a balanced realization. The detailed way of calculation is shown in [13].
4) Apply balanced truncation to obtain a reduced order finite-dimensional model.

## V. Numerical example

Consider the two-link flexible arm shown in Fig. 1, which rotates in a horizontal plane. See [14] for the detail. Link 1 is a rigid beam. Link 2 is an elastic one.


Fig. 1. Two link flexible arm Link 2 has a concentrated mass at the tip of the arm. Each Link $i$ is fixed to a vertical gear shaft driven by a DC Motor $i$. Let $\tau_{i}(t)$ be the torque generated by motor $i, \theta_{i}(t)$ be the rotational angle of Link $i, \mu_{i}$ and $k_{i}$ be the viscous damping and the elastic coefficient of Link $i$, respectively. The origin of the inertial coordinate frame $O$ $X Y$ is the rotation center of Motor 1. The origin of the coordinate frame $O_{i}-x_{i} y_{i}$ is fixed to the rotation axis of Motor $i$. Here $O=O_{1} . J_{1}$ is the inertial moment of Link 1, which includes the inertia moment of the rotor of Motor 1. $J_{2}$ is the inertial moment of the rotor of Motor $2 . L_{i}$ is the length of Link $i . I$ is the geometric moment of inertia. $E$ is the Young's modules. $\rho$ is the line density. $d$ is the coefficient of viscous damping generated from the elasticity of Link 2. $w(s, t)$ is the transverse displacement of Link 2 at a spatial point $s \in\left(0, L_{2}\right)$ at time $t$. Here the spatial variable $s$ is the distance from $O_{2}$ to an arbitrary point on the coordinate axis $x_{2}$. Since the flexible arm rotates in a horizontal plane, there is no influence of gravity. Therefore, there is neither displacement in vertical plane nor twist of the arm. The vector $s \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$ denotes the position of an arbitrary point of Link 2 in $X-Y$ coordinates. The vector $L \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$ denotes the position of the tip of the arm in $X-Y$ coordinates.


Fig. 2. Time responses of the displacement of the concentrated load

Then, the kinetic energy $T$, the potential energy $V$ and the external virtual work $\delta W$ generated by motors are

$$
\begin{align*}
T= & \frac{1}{2} J_{1} \dot{\theta}_{1}^{2}(t)+\frac{1}{2} J_{2}\left(\dot{\theta}_{1}(t)+\dot{\theta}_{2}(t)\right)^{2}+\frac{1}{2} m \dot{\boldsymbol{L}}^{\mathrm{T}} \dot{\boldsymbol{L}}, \\
& +\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{L_{2}} \dot{\boldsymbol{s}}^{\mathrm{T}} \dot{\boldsymbol{s}} \rho \mathrm{~d} s+\frac{1}{2} k_{1} \theta_{1}^{2}(t)+\frac{1}{2} k_{2} \theta_{2}^{2}(t)  \tag{22}\\
V= & \frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{L_{2}} E I\left(w^{\prime \prime}(s, t)\right)^{2} \mathrm{~d} s \\
\delta W= & \sum_{i=1}^{2} \tau_{i}(t) \delta \theta_{i}(t) .
\end{align*}
$$

By the Hamilton's variational principle, a partial differential equation (PDE) with respect to the elastic displacement, boundary conditions and equations of motion with respect to motors are obtained from (22). The PDE is an infinite-dimensional equation and is represented in the form of the first equation in (7) where the state $x(t)=\left(\theta_{1}(t), \theta_{2}(t), w(s, t), \dot{\theta}_{1}(t), \dot{\theta}_{2}(t), \dot{w}(s, t)\right)^{\mathrm{T}}$. Equations of motion with respect to motors are finite-dimensional. As proposed in Section IV-B, in order to solve HamiltonJacobi equations by Galerkin method, the PDE is approximated to finite-dimensional one first, then the state $x$ is described by a series of eigenfunctions $\phi_{1}(s)$ and $\phi_{2}(s)$ of the arm, $w(s, t)=\sum_{i=1}^{2} \xi_{i}(t) \phi_{i}(s)$. The eigenfunctions of the system are a set of complete orthogonal functions $\phi_{i}(s)=\frac{1}{C_{i}}\left(\cosh \frac{\gamma_{i} s}{L_{2}}-\cos \frac{\gamma_{i} s}{L_{2}}-\eta_{i}\left(\sinh \frac{\gamma_{i} s}{L_{2}}-\sin \frac{\gamma_{i} s}{L_{2}}\right)\right)$, where $\eta_{i}=\frac{\cosh \gamma_{i}+\cos \gamma_{i}}{\sinh \gamma_{i}+\sin \gamma_{i}}, i=1,2, \cdots, C_{i}$ is an arbitrary constant and $\gamma_{i}$ satisfies $1+\cosh \gamma \cos \gamma+\frac{m}{\rho L_{2}}(\sinh \gamma \cos \gamma-$ $\cosh \gamma \sin \gamma)=0$ with $0<\gamma_{1}<\gamma_{2}<\cdots$. This derives a finite-dimensional approximate equation with respect to the elastic displacement, from this equation and equations of motion with respect to the motors, a finite-dimensional state equation is derived, which is in the form of (17) with the 8 -dimensional state $\xi=\left(\theta_{1}, \theta_{2}, \xi_{1}, \xi_{2}, \dot{\theta}_{1}, \dot{\theta}_{2}, \dot{\xi}_{1}, \dot{\xi}_{2}\right)^{\mathrm{T}}$, the input torque to each link $u=\left(\tau_{1}, \tau_{2}\right)^{\mathrm{T}}$ and the output $y(t)=$ $w\left(L_{2}, t\right)$, which is the displacement of the concentrated mass at the tip of the arm. The following physical parameters are adopted in simulations. $L_{i}=1(\mathrm{~m}), J_{i}=1\left(\mathrm{kgm}^{2}\right), k_{i}=$ $1(\mathrm{~Pa}), \mu_{i}=0.1\left(\mathrm{~m}^{2} / \mathrm{s}\right), m=0.5(\mathrm{~kg}), \rho=2(\mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}), E=$ $10(\mathrm{~Pa}), I=1\left(\mathrm{~m}^{4}\right)$ and $d=1(\mathrm{~s})$.

The response of the approximated model is depicted in Fig. 2. For comparison, the figure depicts the responses of

4 different models for wave pulses $\tau_{1}(t)$ and $\tau_{2}(t)$ with the initial state $x(0)=0$. The solid line depicts the response of the 12-dimensional model obtained by mode decomposition, which is supposed to be close to that of the original model. The dotted line depicts that of the 6 -dimensional model by mode decomposition. The dashed-dotted line depicts that of the 6-dimensional model derived by applying the proposed method to the Jacobian linearized model of the original. The dashed line depicts that of the 6-dimensional model by the proposed method. Comparing three 6-dimensional models, the response of the model derived by the proposed method is the closest to that of the 12 -dimensional model, that is, the proposed method provides the best approximation. Therefore, it shows the effectiveness of the proposed method.

## VI. CONCLUSION

This paper has discussed balanced realization for infinitedimensional nonlinear systems. A relation between the energy functions and Hamilton-Jacobi equations is clarified. A finite-dimensional approximation method for infinitedimensional nonlinear systems and its computational algorithm were proposed based on them. Moreover, a numerical example exhibited the effectiveness of the proposed finitedimensional approximation method. There still exist many open problems: for example, when the approximate solutions obtained by the proposed method will converge to exact ones.

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## ApPENDIX

## Proof of theorem 3

Proof: Suppose that (8) has a solution $\check{L}_{o}$ on $W_{o}$ and that the origin of $\dot{x}=F(x)$ is asymptotically stable. Let the initial state $x(0)=x^{0} \in W_{o}$ and the input of the system (7) equal to 0 . Then the following equation is obtained.

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\dot{x}=F(x)  \tag{23}\\
y=H(x)
\end{array}\right.
$$

Consider the solution $x(t)$ of the system (23). Then the definition of the observability function $L_{o}$ (3) gives

$$
\begin{align*}
L_{o}\left(x^{0}\right) & =\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{\infty}\|y(t)\|^{2} \mathrm{~d} t \\
& =\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{\infty} H(x(t))^{\mathrm{T}} H(x(t)) \mathrm{d} t \\
& =-\int_{0}^{\infty}\left\langle\nabla \check{L}_{o}(x(t)), F(x(t))\right\rangle_{L_{2}} \mathrm{~d} t \\
& =-\int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} t} \check{L}_{o}(x(t)) \mathrm{d} t \\
& =-\lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} \check{L}_{o}(x(t))+\check{L}_{o}\left(x^{0}\right) \tag{24}
\end{align*}
$$

for $x^{0} \in W_{o}$. Since $\check{L}_{o}(x) \leq \alpha_{o}\left(\|x\|_{L_{2}}\right), \check{L}_{o}(x(t)) \leq \alpha_{o}$ 。 $\beta_{o}\left(\left\|x^{0}\right\|_{L_{2}}, t\right)$. On the other hand, since $\alpha_{o} \circ \beta_{o} \in$ class- $K L$, which is given by $\alpha_{o} \in$ class $-K$ and $\beta_{o} \in$ class $-K L$, and since $\check{L}_{o}(x) \geq 0, \lim _{t \rightarrow \infty} \check{L}_{o}(x(t))=0, \forall x^{0} \in W_{o}$. Then (24) implies $L_{o}\left(x^{0}\right)=\check{L}_{o}\left(x^{0}\right)$. Therefore, $L_{o}$ coincides with $\check{L}_{o}$. The uniqueness of $\check{L}_{o}$ is proven by reductio ad absurdum. If (8) has another solution $\tilde{L}_{o} \neq \check{L}_{o}$ then $\tilde{L}_{o}=L_{o}=\check{L}_{o}$ can be proven immediately, which contradicts $\tilde{L}_{o} \neq \check{L}_{o}$. Therefore, (8) has the unique solution $\check{L}_{o}$. This proves the part (i) of Theorem 3.

For the part (ii) of Theorem 3, suppose that (9) has a solution $\check{L}_{c}$ on $W_{c}$ and that the origin of (10) is asymptotically stable. As in the definition (2) of $L_{c}$, let $\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty}\|x(t)\|_{L_{2}}=0$ and an input $u$ accomplish $x(0)=$ $x^{0} \in W_{c}$. Differentiating the solution $\check{L}_{c}(x(t))$ of (9) with respect to time $t$ along $x(t)$ satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\mathrm{d} x(t)}{\mathrm{d} t}=F(x(t))+\sum_{i=1}^{m} u_{i}(t) G_{i}(x(t)) \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

then

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} t} & \check{L}_{c}(x(t)) \\
= & \mathrm{d} \check{L}_{c}(x(t))\left(F(x(t))+\sum_{i=1}^{m} u_{i}(t) G_{i}(x(t))\right) \\
= & \left\langle\nabla \check{L}_{c}(x(t)), F(x(t))\right\rangle_{L_{2}} \\
\quad & +\mathrm{d} \check{L}_{c}(x(t)) \sum_{i=1}^{m} u_{i}(t) G_{i}(x(t)) \\
= & -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m}\left\langle\nabla \check{L}_{c}(x(t)), G_{i}(x(t))\right\rangle_{L_{2}}^{2} \\
& +\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left\langle\nabla \check{L}_{c}(x(t)), G_{i}(x(t))\right\rangle_{L_{2}} u_{i}(t) \\
= & -\sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{2}\left(u_{i}(t)-\left\langle\nabla \check{L}_{c}(x(t)), G_{i}(x(t))\right\rangle_{L_{2}}\right)^{2} \\
& +\frac{1}{2}\|u(t)\|^{2} \\
\leq & \frac{1}{2}\|u(t)\|^{2} \tag{26}
\end{align*}
$$

On the other hand, since $\check{L}_{c}$ is positive definite and satisfies $0 \leq \check{L}_{c}(x) \leq \alpha_{c}\left(\|x\|_{L_{2}}\right)$, and $\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty}\|x(t)\|_{L_{2}}=0$, $\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty} \check{L}_{c}(x(t))=0$. Equation (26) implies

$$
\begin{aligned}
\check{L}_{c}\left(x^{0}\right)= & \int_{-\infty}^{0} \frac{\mathrm{~d}}{\mathrm{~d} t} \check{L}_{c}(x(t)) \mathrm{d} t \\
= & \int_{-\infty}^{0}\left(-\sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{2}\left(u_{i}(t)-\left\langle\nabla \check{L}_{c}(x(t)),\right.\right.\right. \\
& \left.\left.\left.G_{i}(x(t))\right\rangle_{L_{2}}\right)^{2}+\frac{1}{2}\|u(t)\|^{2}\right) \mathrm{d} t
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\leq \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{0}\|u(t)\|^{2} \mathrm{~d} t \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore, $\check{L}_{c}\left(x^{0}\right)$ is a lower bound of $\frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{0}\|u(t)\|^{2} \mathrm{~d} t$. Since the origin of (10) is asymptotically stable, it is clear that

$$
\begin{equation*}
u_{i}(t)=\left\langle\nabla \check{L}_{c}(x(t)), G_{i}(x(t))\right\rangle_{L_{2}}, \quad i=1, \cdots, m \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

render $\lim _{t \rightarrow-\infty}\|x(t)\|_{L_{2}}=0$ for an arbitrary $x^{0}$. These input signals give the minimum

$$
\check{L}_{c}\left(x^{0}\right)=\min _{\substack{u \in L_{2}(-\infty, 0) \\ x(-\infty)=0, x(0)=x^{0} \in W_{c}}} \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{0}\|u(t)\|^{2} \mathrm{~d} t
$$

Therefore we have $L_{c}\left(x^{0}\right)=\check{L}_{c}\left(x^{0}\right)$. This proves the part (ii) of Theorem 3 and completes the proof.

## Proof of Theorem 4

Proof: Suppose that there exists the smooth observability function $L_{o}$ for the system (7) on a neighborhood $W_{o}$ of 0 and that the origin of $\dot{x}=F(x)$ is asymptotically stable. Let $x(t)$ be the state of the system (23) and $x(0)=x^{0} \in W_{o}$. Since $x(t) \in W_{o}$, the definition of $L_{o}$ implies,

$$
\begin{aligned}
L_{o}(x(t)) & =\frac{1}{2} \int_{t}^{\infty}\|y(\tau)\|^{2} \mathrm{~d} \tau \\
& =\frac{1}{2} \int_{t}^{\infty} H(x(\tau))^{\mathrm{T}} H(x(\tau)) \mathrm{d} \tau
\end{aligned}
$$

where $u(\tau) \equiv 0, t \leq \tau<\infty$. Differentiating the above equation with respect to time $t$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} t} L_{o}(x(t))=-\frac{1}{2} H(x(t))^{\mathrm{T}} H(x(t)) \\
\therefore \quad & \left\langle\nabla L_{o}(x), F(x)\right\rangle_{L_{2}}+\frac{1}{2} H(x)^{\mathrm{T}} H(x)=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Here $L_{o}(0)=0$ holds obviously. Therefore $L_{o}$ is the solution of (11). As in a similar way to the proof to Theorem 3, $L_{o}$ coincides with the solution of (11). Therefore, the part (i) of Theorem 4 is proven.

For the part (ii) of Theorem 4, suppose that there exists the smooth controllability function $L_{c}$ of the system (7) on a neighborhood $W_{c}$ of 0 . The definition (2) of $L_{c}$ derives the following equation for a state $x^{t} \in W_{c}$ of the system (7).

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{c}\left(x^{t}\right)=\min _{\substack{u \in L_{2}(-\infty, t) \\ x(-\infty)=0, x(t)=x^{t}}} \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{t}\|u(t)\|^{2} \mathrm{~d} t \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $u^{\star}(t)$ denote the optimal input then

$$
u^{\star}(t)=\arg \min _{\substack{u \in L_{2}(-\infty, 0) \\ x(-\infty)=0, x(t)=x^{t}}} \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{t}\|u(t)\|^{2} \mathrm{~d} t
$$

Suppose that $x(t)$ is the state of the system (25). Differentiating (29) with respect to time $t$

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{1}{2}\left\|u^{\star}(t)\right\|^{2} \\
& =\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} t} L_{c}(x(t)) \\
& =\left\langle\nabla L_{c}(x(t)), F(x(t))+\sum_{i=1}^{m} G_{i}(x(t)) u_{i}^{\star}(t)\right\rangle_{L_{2}} . \tag{30}
\end{align*}
$$

Now, apply the input $u=u^{\star}$ and steer the state from $x(t)=$ $x^{t}$ to $x(t+\varepsilon)=x^{t+\varepsilon}$. Moreover, consider a continuous
input $u$ and suppose that $u$ steers the state from $x(t)=x^{t}$ to $x(t+\varepsilon)=x^{t+\varepsilon}$. Define an input $\hat{u}$ as

$$
\hat{u}(\tau):= \begin{cases}u^{\star}(\tau) & (\tau<t) \\ u(\tau) & (t \leq \tau \leq t+\varepsilon)\end{cases}
$$

where $\varepsilon>0$ is a small constant. Next, consider the following cost function $J_{\varepsilon}$.

$$
\begin{align*}
J_{\varepsilon}(\hat{u}) & :=\frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{t+\varepsilon}\|\hat{u}(\tau)\|^{2} \mathrm{~d} \tau \\
& =\frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{t}\left\|u^{\star}(\tau)\right\|^{2} \mathrm{~d} \tau+\frac{1}{2} \int_{t}^{t+\varepsilon}\|u(\tau)\|^{2} \mathrm{~d} \tau \tag{31}
\end{align*}
$$

Since $u^{\star}$ is optimal, it minimizes $J_{\varepsilon}$.

$$
\begin{align*}
L_{c}\left(x^{t}\right) & =\min _{\substack{u \in L_{2}(-\infty, t) \\
x(-\infty)=0, x(t)=x^{t}}} \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{t}\|u(\tau)\|^{2} \mathrm{~d} \tau \\
& =\frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{t}\left\|u^{\star}(\tau)\right\|^{2} \mathrm{~d} \tau \tag{32}
\end{align*}
$$

The continuity of $u$ and the intermediate-value theorem implies the existence of a continuous function $a$ satisfying $0<a(\varepsilon)<1$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{2} \int_{t}^{t+\varepsilon}\|u(\tau)\|^{2} \mathrm{~d} \tau=\frac{1}{2} \varepsilon\|u(t+a(\varepsilon) \varepsilon)\|^{2} \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

Substituting (32) and (33) for (31) yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
J_{\varepsilon}(\hat{u})=L_{c}\left(x^{t}\right)+\frac{1}{2} \varepsilon\|u(t+a(\varepsilon) \varepsilon)\|^{2} \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, similarly to (32),

$$
\begin{equation*}
J_{\varepsilon}\left(u^{\star}\right)=L_{c}\left(x^{t+\varepsilon}\right) \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, it follows from the intermediate-value theorem and the continuity of $L_{c}$ with respect to $t$ that there exists a continuous function $b$ satisfying $0<b(\varepsilon)<1$ and

$$
\begin{align*}
& L_{c}(x(t+\varepsilon)) \\
& =L_{c}(x(t))+\left.\varepsilon \frac{\mathrm{d} L_{c}(x(\tau))}{\mathrm{d} \tau}\right|_{\tau=t+b(\varepsilon) \varepsilon} \\
& =L_{c}(x(t))+\varepsilon\left\langle\nabla L_{c}(x(t+b(\varepsilon) \varepsilon), F(x(t+b(\varepsilon) \varepsilon))\right. \\
& \quad+G(x(t+b(\varepsilon) \varepsilon)) u(t+b(\varepsilon) \varepsilon)\rangle_{L_{2}} \tag{36}
\end{align*}
$$

Since $u^{\star}$ is optimal, $J_{\varepsilon}(\hat{u}) \geq J_{\varepsilon}\left(u^{\star}\right)$. As a result, the following equation is obtained from (34), (35) and (36).

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} \varepsilon}\left(J_{\varepsilon}(\hat{u})-J_{\varepsilon}\left(u^{\star}\right)\right) \\
& =\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} \varepsilon}\left(L_{c}\left(x^{t}\right)+\frac{1}{2} \varepsilon\|u(t+a(\varepsilon) \varepsilon)\|^{2}-L_{c}\left(x^{t+\varepsilon}\right)\right) \\
& =\lim _{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0}\left(\frac{1}{2}\|u(t+a(\varepsilon) \varepsilon)\|^{2}-\left\langle\nabla L_{c}(x(t+b(\varepsilon) \varepsilon)\right.\right. \\
& \left.F(x(t+b(\varepsilon) \varepsilon))+G(x(t+b(\varepsilon) \varepsilon)) u(t+b(\varepsilon) \varepsilon)\rangle_{L_{2}}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{2}\|u(t)\|^{2}-\left\langle\nabla L_{c}(x(t), F(x(t))+G(x(t)) u(t)\rangle_{L_{2}}\right. \\
& =-\left\langle\nabla L_{c}(x(t)), F(x(t))\right\rangle_{L_{2}} \\
& -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m}\left\langle\nabla L_{c}(x(t)), G_{i}(x(t))\right\rangle_{L_{2}}^{2} \\
& +\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(u_{i}(t)-\left\langle\nabla L_{c}(x(t)), G_{i}(x(t))\right\rangle_{L_{2}}\right)^{2} \tag{37}
\end{align*}
$$

Since the optimal input $u=u^{\star}=\left(u_{1}^{\star}, \ldots, u_{m}^{\star}\right)$ minimizes the above equation,

$$
\begin{equation*}
u_{i}^{\star}=\left\langle\nabla L_{c}(x), G_{i}(x)\right\rangle_{L_{2}} \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

By substituting (38) for (30), (12) is obtained. $L_{c}$ fulfilling (12) is such that (10) is asymptotically stable, the uniqueness of the solution follows from the proof of theorem 3. These prove the part (ii) of Theorem 4 and completes the proof.


[^0]:    K. Fujimoto is with Department of Mechanical Science and Engineering, Graduate School of Engineering, Nagoya University, Furo-cho, Chikusa-ku, Nagoya, Japan k.fujimoto@ieee.org
    S. Ono is with Department of Mechanical Science and Engineering, Graduate School of Engineering, Nagoya University, Furo-cho, Chikusa-ku, Nagoya, Japan ono@haya.nuem.nagoya-u.ac.jp

