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ADAPTIVE DYNAMICAL FEEDBACK REGULATION STRATEGIES FOR LINEARIZABLE UNCERTAIN SYSTEMS

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Abstract In this paper we address the design of adaptive dynamical feedback strategies of the continuous, and discontinuous, types for the output stabilization of nonlinear systems. The class of systems considered corresponds to nonlinear controlled systems exhibiting linear parametric uncertainty. Dynamical feedback controllers, ideally achieving output stabilization via exact linearization, are obtained by means of repeated output differentiation and, either, pole placement, or, sliding mode control techniques. The adaptive versions of the dynamical stabilizing controllers are then obtainable through standard, direct, overparamemzed adaptive control strategies available for linearizable systems. Illustrative examples are provided which deal with the regulation of electromechanical systems.

Keywords Exact Linearization, Adaptive Control, Variable Structure Systems, Electromechanical Systems.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Asymptotic output stabilization of parametrically uncertain nonlinear systems constitutes an important problem in control systems design. Contributions, from the differential geometric viewpoint, were given by Isidori and Sastry [1], Kanellakopoulos et al [2],[3], Taylor et al [4], Campion and Bastin[5], Teel et al [6] and many others. For enlightening details, and general results, the reader is referred to the books by Sastry and Bodson [7], and Narendra and Annaswamy [8]. Ongoing developments in this area are contained in the collection of lectures edited by Kokotovic [9]. For other contributions to the area, the reader is referred to the reprint book edited by Narendra et al [10].

In this article, using the results of [1], an adaptive asymptotic output stabilization scheme is proposed for dynamical pole placement, and sliding-mode-based, exactly linearizing controllers, obtained via repeated output differentiation. The schemes are restricted to the class of nonlinear systems with vector fields which exhibit linear parameteric dependence. Availability of the dynamical controller state variables and overparametrization [5] are the key issues that allow an extension of direct adaptive control techniques, available for statically input-output linearizable systems, to the case of dynamically controlled systems. Two design examples are presented. The first one involves the control a DC motor by means of adaptive dynamical pole placement. The second example deals with the stabilization of a magnetic suspension system via adaptive dynamical variable structure control strategies.

In Section 2 of this paper, the adaptive dynamical pole placement stabilization scheme is presented along with the DC motor control design example. Section 3 presents the adaptive dynamical variable structure control stabilization problem including applications to a magnetic suspension system. In both examples, computer simulations are provided to assess the performance of the proposed controllers. Concluding remarks, and proposals for further research, are collected in Section 4.

2. ADAPTIVE OUTPUT STABILIZATION OF LINEARIZABLE NONLINEAR SYSTEMS VIA DYNAMICAL POLE PLACEMENT.

2.1 Input-Output Linearization by Dynamical Pole Placement Techniques

Consider the following n-dimensional state space realization of a single-input single-output nonlinear system:
\[ \dot{x} = f(x, \theta) + g(x, \theta)u \]
\[ y = h(x, \theta) \]  

(2.1)

where \( f : \mathbb{R}^{n+p} \to \mathbb{R}^n \) and \( g : \mathbb{R}^{n+p} \to \mathbb{R}^n \) are, for fixed \( \theta \) in \( \mathbb{R}^p \), \( C^\infty \) vector fields globally defined on \( \mathbb{R}^n \), and \( h : \mathbb{R}^{n+p} \to \mathbb{R} \) is a \( C^\infty \) function. It is assumed that the system has strong relative degree \( r < n \) (Isidori [11]). The parameter vector \( \theta \) is assumed to be constant and \( f, g \) and \( h \) are linear functions of \( \theta \).

The \( i \)-th time derivative of the output function may be written, in terms of the state vector \( x \) and the control input \( u \), as:

\[ y^{(i)} = b_i(x, \theta) \quad \text{for} \quad i < r \quad \text{; with} \quad b_0(x, \theta) = h(x, \theta) \]

(2.2)

\[ y^{(i)} = b_i(x, \theta, u, u^{(1)},...,u^{(i-1)}) + a(x, \theta)u^{(i-r)} \quad \text{for} \quad r \leq i \leq n \]

In particular, the \( n \)-th time derivative of \( y \) may be obtained as:

\[ y^{(n)} = b_n(x, \theta, u, u^{(1)},...,u^{(n-r-1)}) + a(x, \theta)u^{(n-r)} \]

(2.3)

We assume that the "observability" matrix, constituted by the (row vector) gradients, with respect to \( x \), of \( y^{(i)} \) (\( i=0,1,...,n-1 \)) is full rank \( n \), i.e.,

\[ \text{rank} \left( \frac{\partial (y^{(1)},...,y^{(n-1)})}{\partial x} \right) = \text{rank} \left( \frac{\partial (y^{(1)},...,y^{(n)})}{\partial x} \right) = n \]

(2.4)

This assumption implies that (2.1) can be described by an \( n \)-th order input-output scalar differential equation (see Conte et al [12], Diop [13]). The implicit function theorem allows one to locally solve for \( x \), from (2.2), in terms of \( u \) and its time derivatives, as well as in terms of the derivatives of \( y \). In other words, there exist a set of \( n \) independent functions \( \theta_i \), implicitly defined by (2.2), such that:

\[ x_i = \theta_i(y, y^{(1)},...,y^{(n-1)}, u, u^{(1)},...,u^{(n-r-1)}) \quad ; \quad i = 1,2,...,n \]

(2.5)

In general, one locally obtains a representation of (2.1) in the form:

\[ y^{(n)} = c(y, y^{(1)},...,y^{(n-1)}, \theta, u, u^{(1)},...,u^{(n-r)}) \]

(2.6)
**Definition 2.1** (Fliess [14]) Let the output $y$ be identically zero for an indefinite amount of time. The zero dynamics, associated with (2.1), is defined as:

$$c(0,\theta, u^{(1)}, \ldots, u^{(n-\tau)}) = 0$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.7)

We assume that (2.7) is locally asymptotically stable to a constant operating point, $u = U$. In such a case we say (2.1) is locally minimum phase around the equilibrium point of interest. ■

**Proposition 2.2** Let $u^{[i]}$ denote the following set \{u, u^{(1)}, \ldots, u^{(6)}\} of control input derivatives. Then, the dynamical feedback controller:

$$u^{(n-\tau)} = - \frac{b_n(x, \theta, u^{[n-\tau-1]}) + \sum_{i=0}^{\tau-1} \alpha_i b_i(x, \theta) + \sum_{j=\tau}^{n-1} \alpha_j b_j(x, \theta, u^{[j-\tau-1]}) + a(x, \theta) u^{(j-\tau)}}{a(x, \theta)} \quad ; \alpha_n = 1$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.8)

drives the output of system (2.1) to satisfy a closed loop linearized dynamics of the form:

$$y^{(n)} + \alpha_{n-1} y^{(n-1)} + \ldots + \alpha_1 y^{(1)} + \alpha_0 y = 0$$  \hspace{1cm} (2.9)

**Proof**: Immediate upon direct substitution of (2.8) on (2.3) and use of the definitions in (2.2). ■

Provided that the system is minimum phase, then the scalar time-varying differential equation (2.8) defines a dynamical feedback controller which can accomplish exponential output stabilization to zero, in a manner entirely prescribed by the set of chosen design coefficients \{\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_{n-1}\}. Typically, one chooses the $\alpha$'s to obtain an asymptotically stable dynamics for (2.9). The set of input derivatives $u^{[n-\tau-1]}$, in (2.8), naturally qualifies as a state vector, for the dynamical controller, which is available for measurement. If the quantity $a(x, \theta)$ is bounded away from zero then no impasse points need be considered for the dynamical system representing the linearizing controller (see Fliess and Hasler [15]). This assumption is equivalent to the strong relative degree assumption [1].

### 2.2 An Adaptive Regulation Scheme for Dynamically Linearizable Systems.

The effectiveness of the dynamical feedback controller (2.8) is highly dependent upon perfect knowledge of the involved system parameters 8. It is clear that exact cancellation of nonlinearities would not be generally possible if the dynamical controller (2.8) was computed using estimated...
values of such parameters, which are known to be in error with respect to their true values. In this section we assume that the components of $\mathbf{8}$ are constant, but otherwise unknown, and present an adaptive approach to dynamical feedback linearization. We denote the estimated values of the parameter vector as $\hat{\mathbf{8}}$.

Remark 2.3. It may be verified that the linearity of $f$, $g$ and $h$ with respect to $\mathbf{8}$ implies that the quantities $b_i$ ($i=0,1,\ldots,n-1$) and $a$ in (2.2) are multilinear functions of the components $\theta_i$ of $\mathbf{8}$. Hence, if one defines a large dimensional vector $\mathbf{Q}$ containing, as individual components, all possible ordered homogeneous multinomial expressions in the $\theta_i$'s, of degree smaller or equal than $n$, then $b_i$ ($i=0,1,\ldots,n-1$) and $a$ are indeed linear functions of $Q$. This observation and the involved process, known as "overparametrization" [5], allows us to extend recently proposed adaptive control techniques [1], developed for statically linearizable systems, to systems linearizable by dynamical feedback (see Fliess [16], and also Sira-Ramirez [17]).

Define:

$$u^{(n-r)} = \frac{-\sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \alpha_i b_i(x,\theta) + \sum_{j=r}^{n-1} \alpha_j [b_j(x,\theta)u^{(j-1)} + a(x,\theta)u^{(j-r)}]}{a(x,\theta)}$$

(2.10)

Then, if a dynamical controller of the form (2.10), based on parameter estimates, is used to regulate the evolution of $y^{(n)}$, the expression (2.3) is found to be, after some manipulations:

$$y^{(n)} + \alpha_{n-1}y^{(n-1)} + \ldots + \alpha_1 y^{(1)} + \alpha_0 y =$$

$$b_n(x,\theta)u^{[n-r-1]} - b_n(x,\theta,u^{[n-r-1]}) + \sum_{i=0}^{r-1} \alpha_i [b_i(x,\theta) - b_i(x,\hat{\theta})] + \sum_{j=r}^{n-1} \alpha_i [b_i(x,\theta)u^{(j-1)} + a(x,\theta)u^{(j-r)}]$$

$$+ \sum_{j=r}^{n-1} \alpha_j [b_j(x,\theta,u^{[j-r-1]}) - b_j(x,\theta,u^{[j-r-1]}) + [a(x,\theta) - a(x,\hat{\theta})]u^{(j-r)}]$$

$$- [a(x,\theta) - a(x,\hat{\theta})]u^{(n-r-1)}$$

(2.11)

By virtue of Remark 2.3 one may conclude that expression (2.11) can be written as a linear function of the parameter estimation error $\Theta - \hat{\Theta} \equiv \phi$

$$y^{(n)} + \alpha_{n-1}y^{(n-1)} + \ldots + \alpha_1 y^{(1)} + \alpha_0 y =$$

$$(\Theta - \hat{\Theta})^T W(x,\theta,u^{[n-r-1]}) = \phi^T W(x,\theta,u^{[n-r-1]})$$

(2.12)
where $W$ is the nonlinear state-dependent regressor vector, depending also on the vector of parameter estimates, $\hat{\theta}$, and the measurable "state" of the dynamical controller, represented here by $u$ and the derivatives of $u$ up to order $n-r-1$, i.e., by $u^{[n-r-1]}$. By slightly abusing notation we shall write $W$ as a function of $\hat{\theta}$ rather than as a function of $\theta$.

In order to find an appropriate adaptation law, the developments given in [1], or in [7] can be followed very closely in a rather straightforward fashion. We summarize the developments in [1] as follows.

Let $L(s)$ be defined as the characteristic polynomial of the linear differential equation (2.9) and let $L^{-1}(s)$ stand for the linear time-invariant operator:

$$L^{-1}(s) = \frac{1}{s^n + \alpha_{n-1}s^{n-1} + \ldots + \alpha_1 s + \alpha_0}$$  (2.13)

The output variable $y$ may then be written as the convolution of the linear operator (2.13) with the nonlinear time-varying function obtained in the right hand side of (2.12). One has:

$$y = L^{-1}(s) \ast \left[ \phi^T W(x, \hat{\theta}, u^{[n-r-1]}) \right]$$  (2.14)

where the "$\ast$" denotes the convolution operation in the hybrid notation of (2.14).

Let $e_1$ denote the augmented output error, defined as:

$$e_1 = y + \hat{\theta}^T L^{-1}(s) \ast \left[ W(x, \hat{\theta}, u^{[n-r-1]}) \right] \cdot L^{-1}(s) \ast \left[ \hat{\theta}^T W(x, \hat{\theta}, u^{[n-r-1]}) \right]$$  (2.15)

Notice that $e_1$ can be calculated from measurable signals. It is now easy to see, using (2.14) and the commutativity between the operator $L^{-1}(s)$ and the (constant) value of the actual parameter, that:

$$e_1 = \phi^T \left( L^{-1}(s) \ast \left[ W(x, \hat{\theta}, u^{[n-r-1]}) \right] \right) = \phi^T \xi$$  (2.16)

Where $\xi$ is the vector of filtered regressor components. From the fact that $e_1$ is a linear error equation [7] in $\phi$, several update laws may be proposed. One such possibility is represented by the following gradient type of update law (see [7, p. 57]):

6
\[
\hat{\Theta} = -g e_1 W(x, \hat{\Theta}, u_{n+1})
\]  
(2.17a)

where \(g\) is a positive constant called the adaptation gain.

A second possibility is represented by the normalized gradient update law (see [1] and [7, pp.58]):
\[
\phi = - \frac{e_1 \xi}{1 + \xi^T \xi}
\]  
(2.17b)

The parameter estimation error \(\phi\) can converge to zero, provided persistence of excitation conditions are satisfied during the stabilization transient (see [1], [7, ch. 2] and [8, ch. 6]). In such a case the output signal \(y\) is asymptotically stable.

2.3 A DC Motor Example

2.3.1 Non-Adaptive Dynamical Linearizing: Control for angular velocity regulation in a DC Motor

Consider a field controlled DC-motor model (see Rugh [18, pp. 98]) given by:

\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{x}_1 &= -\frac{R}{L_a} x_1 - \frac{K}{L_a} x_2 u + \frac{V_a}{L_a} \\
\dot{x}_2 &= -\frac{B}{J} x_2 + \frac{K}{J} x_1 u \\
y &= x_2 - \Omega
\end{align*}
\]  
(2.18)

where \(x_1\) is the armature circuit current, \(x_2\) is the angular velocity of the rotating axis. The armature circuit voltage, \(V_a\), is assumed to be constant and while the field winding input voltage, \(u\), acts as a control variable. The quantity \(\Omega\) represents a desired constant angular velocity.

System (2.18) is of the form:

\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{x} &= \Theta_1 f_1(x) + \Theta_2 f_2(x) + \Theta_3 f_3(x) + \Theta_4 g_1(x) + \Theta_5 g_2(x) u \\
y &= h(x)
\end{align*}
\]  
(2.19)

with:

\[
\begin{align*}
f_1(x) &= \begin{bmatrix} -x_1 \\
0 \end{bmatrix},
f_2(x) &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\
-x_2 \end{bmatrix},
f_3(x) &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\
0 \end{bmatrix},
g_1(x) &= \begin{bmatrix} -x_2 \\
0 \end{bmatrix},
g_2(x) &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\
x_1 \end{bmatrix}
\end{align*}
\]

and:

- \(\Theta_1\) 
- \(\Theta_2\) 
- \(\Theta_3\) 
- \(\Theta_4\) 
- \(\Theta_5\)
\[ \theta_1 = \frac{R_a}{L_a}, \theta_2 = \frac{B}{J}, \theta_3 = \frac{V_a}{L_a}, \theta_4 = \frac{K}{L_a}, \theta_5 = \frac{K}{J} \]

It is easy to verify that for the given system (2.18), the rank of the following 2 by 2 matrix:

\[ \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial y^{(1)}}{\partial x} \\ 0 & 1 \theta_5 u & -\theta_2 \end{bmatrix} \]

is everywhere equal to 2, except when \( u = 0 \). Angular velocity stabilization tasks which require polarity reversals in the field winding input voltage \( u \) have to be treated separately by different techniques.

A constant equilibrium point, parametrized in terms of the desired angular velocity \( \Omega \), for this system is given by:

\[
x_1(\Omega) = \frac{\theta_3}{2\theta_1} \left( 1 + \sqrt{1 - \frac{4\theta_1 \theta_2 \theta_4 \Omega^2}{\theta_3 \theta_5}} \right)
\]

\[
x_2(\Omega) = \Omega
\]

\[
u(\Omega) = \frac{2\theta_1 \theta_2 \Omega}{\theta_3 \theta_5 \left( 1 + \sqrt{1 - \frac{4\theta_1 \theta_2 \theta_4 \Omega^2}{\theta_3 \theta_5}} \right)}
\]

An input-output representation of system (2.18) readily follows by elimination of the state vector \( x \) from the expressions of \( y \) and \( dy/dt \):

\[
y^{(2)} - \theta_2 \left( y + \Omega \right) + \left( \theta_2 + \theta_1 \right) \left[ y^{(1)} + \theta_2 \left( y + \Omega \right) \right] + \theta_4 \theta_5 \left( y + \Omega \right) u^2
- \theta_3 \theta_5 u - \frac{u^{(1)}}{u} \left[ y^{(1)} + \theta_2 \left( y + \Omega \right) \right] = 0
\]

The zero dynamics associated to system (2.18) is obtained from (2.21) by letting \( y = y^{(1)} = y^{(2)} = 0 \), as:

\[
u^{(1)} = u \left( \frac{\theta_4 \theta_5 u^2 - \theta_3 \theta_5 u + \theta_1}{\theta_2 \theta \Omega} \right)
\]

The three constant equilibrium points for the zero dynamics are: \( u = 0 \), (which was discarded as a singularity), and:
Under the condition that \( \theta_5 \theta_3^2 > 4 \theta_1 \theta_2 \theta_4 \Omega^2 \) (i.e., \( V_a^2 - 4 R_a \Omega^2 > 0 \)), one finds quite straightforwardly, by plotting \( u^{(1)} \) vs \( u \), from (2.22), that the larger solution in (2.23) is unstable while the solution with smaller \( u \) is asymptotically stable. The system is thus locally minimum phase.

Let \( \omega_n > 0 \) and \( \zeta > 0 \). Imposing on the output \( y \) of (2.18) the following linear asymptotically stable dynamics:

\[
y^{(2)} + 2 \zeta \omega_n y^{(1)} + \omega_n^2 y = 0
\]

one readily obtains, using the result of proposition 2.2 above, the following stabilizing dynamical feedback controller:

\[
\dot{u} = -\frac{1}{\theta_5 x_1} \left[ \left( 2 \zeta \omega_n \theta_2 - \omega_n^2 - \theta_2^2 \right) x_2 - \theta_3 \theta_5 u + \left( \theta_2 + \theta_1 - 2 \zeta \omega_n \right) \theta_5 x_1 u + \theta_4 \theta_5 x_2 u^2 + \omega_n^2 \Omega \right]
\]

(2.25)

This dynamical controller achieves asymptotic output stabilization around the stable equilibrium point (see [17] for the non-adaptive tracking version of this controller).

2.3.2 Adaptive Dynamical Linearizing Control for angular velocity regulation in a DC Motor

Due to lack of parameter knowledge, instead of the exactly linearizing controller (2.25), one uses a dynamical controller, based on the estimates of the parameters, their products, and powers, as:

\[
\dot{u} = -\frac{1}{\theta_3 x_1} \left[ \left( 2 \zeta \omega_n \theta_2 - \omega_n^2 - \theta_2^2 \right) x_2 - \theta_3 \theta_5 u + \left( \theta_2 + \theta_1 - 2 \zeta \omega_n \right) \theta_5 x_1 u + \theta_4 \theta_5 x_2 u^2 + \omega_n^2 \Omega \right]
\]

(2.26)

or, equivalently, in terms of the components of an overparametrization vector \( \hat{\Theta} \) defined as:

\[
\hat{\Theta} = (\hat{\Theta}_1, \hat{\Theta}_2, \ldots, \hat{\Theta}_{20}) =
(\hat{\Theta}_1, \hat{\Theta}_2, \ldots, \hat{\Theta}_5, \hat{\Theta}_1 \hat{\Theta}_2, \ldots, \hat{\Theta}_1 \hat{\Theta}_5, \hat{\Theta}_2, \hat{\Theta}_3, \ldots, \hat{\Theta}_5)
\]
\[
\dot{\hat{\Theta}} = \frac{\left(2\zeta n \hat{\Theta}_2 - \omega_n^2 - \hat{\Theta}_{11}\right)x_2 - \hat{\Theta}_{17}u + \left(\hat{\Theta}_{14} + \hat{\Theta}_{10} - 2\zeta n \hat{\Theta}_3\right)x_1u + \hat{\Theta}_{19}x_2u^2 + \omega_n^2\Omega}{\hat{\Theta}_3x_1}
\]  

(2.27)

Let \(\hat{\Theta}_i\) denote the parameter estimation error \(\Theta_i - \hat{\Theta}_i\) \((i=1, \ldots, 20)\), then, using the results of the previous section we obtain the following expression for the closed loop behavior of the output variable:

\[
y^{(2)} + 2\zeta n y^{(1)} + \omega_n^2 y = \left[\phi_1 \quad \cdots \quad \phi_{20}\right] \begin{bmatrix} w_1(x, \hat{\Theta}, u) \\
\vdots \\
w_{20}(x, \hat{\Theta}, u) \end{bmatrix} 
\]  

(2.28)

The elements constituting the parameter estimation error update law are summarized below.

Parameter estimation error update law

\[
\dot{\hat{\Theta}}_i = -\hat{\Theta}_i = -e_i \frac{\xi_i}{1 + \xi_i} \quad ; \quad i = 1, \ldots, 20
\]

Regressor vector components

\[
w_2(x, \hat{\Theta}, u) = -2\zeta n x_2
\]

\[
w_5(x, \hat{\Theta}, u) = \left(2\zeta n \hat{\Theta}_2 - \omega_n^2 - \hat{\Theta}_{11}\right)x_2 - \hat{\Theta}_{17}u + \left(\hat{\Theta}_{14} + \hat{\Theta}_{10} - 2\zeta n \hat{\Theta}_3\right)x_1u + \hat{\Theta}_{19}x_2u^2 + \omega_n^2\Omega
\]

\[
w_{10}(x, \hat{\Theta}, u) = -x_1u, \quad w_{11}(x, \hat{\Theta}, u) = x_2, \quad w_{14}(x, \hat{\Theta}, u) = -x_1u, \quad w_{17}(x, \hat{\Theta}, u) = u, \quad w_{19}(x, \hat{\Theta}, u) = -2x_2u^2
\]

where those regressor vector entries not listed above have value equal to zero.

Augmented output stabilization error

\[
e_1 = \sum_{i=4}^{i=10} \phi_i \xi_i
\]

Filtered regressor components (with zero initial conditions):

\[
\xi_i = -2\zeta n \xi_i - \omega_n^2 \xi_i + w_i(x, \hat{\Theta}, u^{n-r-1}) \quad ; \quad i = 2, 5, 10, 11, 14, 17, 19
\]
Parameter estimation error update law

\[ \phi_i = -e_i \frac{\xi_i}{1 + \xi_i^2} \quad ; \quad i = 2, 5, \ldots, 19 \]

2.3.3 Simulation Results

Computer simulations were run to assess the performance of the adaptive dynamical controller for a DC motor with the following nominal values for the system parameters:

\[
\begin{align*}
R_a &= 7 \text{ Ohm}, \\
L_a &= 120 \text{ mH}, \\
K &= 1.41 \times 10^{-2} \text{ N-m/A}, \\
B &= 6.04 \times 10^{-6} \text{ N-m-s/rad}, \\
J &= 1.06 \times 10^{-6} \text{ N-m-s}^2/\text{rad}, \\
V_a &= 5 \text{ V}
\end{align*}
\]

The dynamically controlled state variable trajectories \( x_1(t) \) and \( x_2(t) \) are depicted, respectively, in Figures 1 and 2, while the adaptive control input trajectory \( u(t) \) is shown in Figure 3. The state components slowly converge to \( x_1 = 0.661 \text{ A}, \) and \( x_2 = 202.3 \text{ rad/s} \). These values are within 4\% of their ideal equilibrium values given by: \( x_1 = 0.702 \text{ A}, \) \( x_2 = \Omega = 200 \text{ rad/s} \). In figure 4, the value of the estimated parameter \( \hat{\theta}_2 = \hat{\theta}_2 \) is shown to slowly converge to a constant value of 5.555 which does not coincide with its nominal value of 5.698. The rest of the parameters have small variations and they are not shown here. The dynamical controller parameters were set as: \( \zeta = 0.7, \omega_n = 30 \).

3. ADAPTIVE OUTPUT STABILIZATION OF LINEARIZABLE NONLINEAR SYSTEMS VIA DYNAMICAL SLIDING MODE CONTROL.

3.1 Linearization by Discontinuous Dynamical Feedback Control.

In this section we present an adaptive dynamical variable structure linearization scheme for asymptotic output stabilization problems in systems described by (2.1). In spite of the fact that sliding mode control is, per se, a control technique devised to efficiently deal with parametric and external uncertainty, the class of systems where the switching surface does not depend on system parameters may be very limited indeed. Some of the advantages of dynamical sliding mode control for nonlinear systems lies in the possibility of chattering-free control inputs and state responses (for more details, and an application example, from the chemical process control area, the reader is referred to Sira-Ramirez [19]). However, dynamical sliding modes are naturally created on suitable input-dependent sliding surfaces which crucially depend upon system parameters. These in turn may
be completely unknown making the sliding surface definition somewhat contradictory. In this section we shall address such a class of problems from an adaptive control viewpoint.

**Proposition 3.1.** Let $\mu$ be a strictly positive scalar quantity. Then, the following dynamical discontinuous feedback controller:

$$a(x,\theta)u^{(n-r)} = -b_n(x,\theta,u^{[n-r-1],}) - \sum_{i=1}^{r-1} \alpha_i b_i(x,\theta) - \sum_{j=r}^{n-1} \alpha_j \left[ b_j(x,\theta,u^{[j-r-1],}) + a(x,\theta)u^{(j-\nu)} \right]$$

$$-\mu \operatorname{sgn}\left( \sum_{i=1}^{r} \alpha_i b_{i-1}(x,\theta) + \sum_{j=r+1}^{n} \alpha_j \left[ b_{j-1}(x,\theta,u^{[j-r-2],}) + a(x,\theta)u^{(j-\nu-1)} \right] \right); \alpha_n = 1$$

(3.1)

drives the output of system (2.1) to satisfy, in finite time, a linearized dynamics of the form:

$$y^{(n-1)} + \alpha_{n-1}y^{(n-2)} + \ldots + \alpha_1 y = 0$$

(3.2)

**Proof:** Define the quantity: $s = y^{(n-1)} + \alpha_{n-1}y^{(n-2)} + \ldots + \alpha_1 y$, and let $s(0)$ stand for the value of $s$ at time $t = 0$. One easily verifies that $ds/dt = -\mu \operatorname{sgn}(s)$. Hence the condition $s = 0$ is reached in finite time $T$, given by $T = \mu^{-1} |s(0)|$, and the condition $s = 0$ is indefinitely sustained in a sliding mode fashion (Utkin [20]).

Provided that the system is minimum phase, the scalar time-varying differential equation (3.2) defines a dynamical discontinuous feedback controller which can accomplish exponential output stabilization to zero. As before, one typically chooses the gains $\alpha_i$ ($i=1,2,\ldots,n-1$), to obtain an asymptotically stable dynamics for (3.2).

### 3.2 An Adaptive Regulation Scheme for Linearizable Systems using Dynamical Sliding-Mode Control.

Consider the time derivative of the quantity $s$, defined in the proof of proposition 3.1.:

$$\dot{s} = \sum_{i=1}^{r-1} \alpha_i b_{i-1}(x,\theta) + \sum_{j=r}^{n} \alpha_j \left[ b_{j-1}(x,\theta,u^{[j-r-1],}) + a(x,\theta)u^{(j-\nu)} \right]$$

(3.3)

Lei: $\hat{s}$, the estimate of the sliding surface coordinate function, be defined as:
Define also :

\[
\hat{s} = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \alpha_i b_i(x, \hat{\theta}) + \sum_{j=r+1}^{n} \alpha_j b_j(x, \hat{\theta}, u^{[j-r-2]}) + a(x, \hat{\theta})u^{(j-r-1)}
\]

(3.4)

Then, if a dynamical controller of the form (3.5), based on parameter estimates, is used to regulate the evolution of \(ds/dt\), the expression (3.3) is found to be, after some manipulations :

\[
a(x, \hat{\theta})u^{(n-r)} = -b_n(x, \hat{\theta}, u^{[n-r-1]}) - \sum_{i=1}^{r} \alpha_i b_i(x, \hat{\theta}) - \sum_{j=r}^{n-1} \alpha_j b_j(x, \hat{\theta}, u^{[j-r-1]}) + a(x, \hat{\theta})u^{(j-r)}
\]

\[-\mu \text{ sgn} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{r} \alpha_i b_i(x, \hat{\theta}) + \sum_{j=r+1}^{n} \alpha_j b_j(x, \hat{\theta}, u^{[j-r-2]}) + a(x, \hat{\theta})u^{(j-r-1)} \right\}\]

(3.5)

By virtue of Remark 2.3 one may conclude that expression (3.6) can be written as a linear function of the parameter estimation error \(8 - \hat{8} := \phi\)

\[
\hat{s} = -\mu \text{ sgn} \hat{s} + (8 - \hat{8})^T W(x, \hat{\theta}, u^{[n-r-1]}) = -\mu \text{ sgn} \hat{s} + \phi^T W(x, \hat{\theta}, u^{[n-r-1]})
\]

(3.7)

where \(W\) is the nonlinear state-dependent regressor vector depending also on the vector of parameter estimates, \(\hat{8}\), and the "state" of the dynamical controller, represented here by \(u\) and the derivatives of \(u\) up to order \(n-r-1\), i.e., by \(u^{[n-r-1]}\). By slightly abusing notation we shall write \(W\) as a function of \(\hat{\Theta}\) rather than as a function of \(\hat{\theta}\).

It is easy to see that the switching surface coordinate estimation error \(s - \hat{s}\) is given by :
\begin{equation}
    s - \hat{s} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \left[ b_{i-1}(x, \theta) - b_{i-1}(x, \hat{\theta}) \right] + \\
    \sum_{j=r+1}^{n} \alpha_j \left[ b_{j-1}(x, \theta, u^{[j-r-2]}) - b_{j-1}(x, \hat{\theta}, u^{[j-r-2]}) \right] \left[ a(x, \theta) - a(x, \hat{\theta}) \right] u^{[j-r-1]} \right]
    \tag{3.8}
\end{equation}

where \( W_s(x, u^{[n-r-1]}) \) is a switching surface regressor vector which \textit{does} not depend on the parameter estimates.

Let \( K \) be a known positive definite (diagonal) matrix of entires \( K_{ii} \). Consider the Lyapunov function given by :

\begin{equation}
    V(s, \phi) = \frac{1}{2} s^2 + \frac{1}{2} \phi^T K \phi
    \tag{3.9}
\end{equation}

The time derivative of such a Lyapunov function is obtained as:

\begin{equation}
    \dot{V}(s, \phi) = s \dot{s} + \phi^T K \dot{\phi} = - \mu s \text{sgn} \hat{s} + \phi^T \left[ s W_s(x, \hat{\Theta}, u^{[n-r-1]}) + K \phi \right]
\end{equation}

Choosing the variations of the parameter adaptation error according to the law:

\begin{equation}
    \dot{\phi} = - \dot{\Theta} = - s K^{-1} W_s(x, \hat{\Theta}, u^{[n-r-1]})
    \tag{3.10}
\end{equation}

one obtains:

\begin{equation}
    \dot{V}(s, \phi) = - \mu s \text{sgn} \hat{s} = \begin{cases} 
    - |\mu| s \quad \text{for} \quad \text{sgn} s = \text{sgn} \hat{s} \\
    |\mu| s \quad \text{for} \quad \text{sgn} s = -\text{sgn} \hat{s}
    \end{cases}
    \tag{3.11}
\end{equation}

It follows from (3.11) that the values of \( s \) will converge towards the manifold \( s = 0 \) as long as \( s \) and \( \hat{s} \) exhibit the same sign. However, in the region bounded by the manifolds \( s = 0 \) and \( \hat{s} = 0 \), both quantities have different signs and the trajectories of \( s \) are actually "repelled" from \( s = 0 \). It is easy to see from (3.7) that if \( \mu \) is large enough to overcome the supremum of the absolute value of \( \phi^T W_s \), then a sliding motion exists, for the trajectory of \( s \), on the switching manifold \( \hat{s} = 0 \). Hence, the values of \( s \) will not converge to zero, but, rather, they will be "trapped" on the estimated surface \( \hat{s} = 0 \) in a sliding motion and (3.2) will only be approximately satisfied.
Remark 3.2 It follows from (3.8) that, if the parameter estimation error $\phi$ converges to zero then the actual value of the surface coordinate function $s$ will indeed converge to zero, while sliding on $\hat{s} = 0$. However, convergence of the estimation error $\phi$ to zero is very much attached to the condition of *persistence of excitation* (see [7],[8]). This condition may not be fulfilled while the output is being driven to zero in a stable fashion.

We have thus proven the following result:

**Theorem 3.3** Let $\mu$ be such that:

$$\mu > \sup_{x} |\phi^T W(x, \hat{\Theta}, u^{[n-r-1]})|$$

Then, the adaptive dynamical discontinuous control law (3.4), (3.5), (3.10) renders a sliding mode trajectory on the switching manifold $\hat{s} = 0$ which asymptotically stabilizes the output of the system (2.1) to the equilibrium value of the approximately linear dynamics given by:

$$y^{(n-1)} + \alpha_{n-1}y^{(n-2)} + \ldots + \alpha_1y = \phi^T W_s(x, u^{[n-r-1]})$$

**Remark 3.4** Condition (3.12) cannot be verified *a priori* due to its dependence on the state of the system (2.1) and on the state of the dynamical controller (2.12). If a "modulated" gain $\mu$ is allowed for the discontinuous controller then one may choose $\mu = k |\phi^T W(x, \hat{\Theta}, u^{[n-r-1]})|$, with $k > 1$. This guarantees existence of a sliding regime on $\hat{s} = 0$.

### 3.2 A Magnetic Suspension System Example

**3.2.1 Non-Adaptive Dynamical Linearizing Sliding Mode Controller for a Magnetic Suspension System**

Consider the magnetic ball suspension system described by (see also Kuo [21]):

$$\begin{align*}
\dot{x}_1 &= x_2 \\
\dot{x}_2 &= g - \frac{c}{M} x_2 - \frac{g \cdot \theta_1}{x_1} u \\
y &= x_1 - x
\end{align*}$$

Where $x_1$ represents the position of the ball measured from the magnet. The state variable $x_2$ represents the ball downwards velocity and $u$ is the non-negative control variable (actually}
representing the square of the current flowing through the electromagnet coils. M is the mass of the ball and c is a constant. The ratio \( \frac{c}{M} \) is assumed to be unknown.

It is desired to regulate the position of the ball to a prescribed set-point value specified by the constant \( X \). It is assumed that the control variable \( u \) is naturally bounded in the closed interval \([0, U_{\text{max}}]\).

System (3.14) is exactly linearizable by static state feedback. A sliding mode controller design would entail large chattering of the input variable. However, a dynamical sliding mode controller can still be designed for (3.14) by considering the extended system model (see Nijmeijer and van der Schaft [22]) of (3.14).

\[
\begin{align*}
\dot{x}_1 &= x_2 \\
\dot{x}_2 &= g - \theta \frac{u}{x_1} \\
\dot{u} &= v \\
y &= x_1 - X
\end{align*}
\tag{3.15}
\]

Consider the following input-dependent sliding surface for (3.15):

\[
s = g - \theta \frac{u}{x_1} + 2\zeta \omega_n x_2 + \omega_n^2 (x_1 - X)
\tag{3.16}
\]

If \( s \) can be brought to zero in finite time, the ideal sliding dynamics is seen to satisfy:

\[
y^{(2)} + 2\zeta \omega_n y^{(1)} + \omega_n^2 y = 0
\tag{3.17}
\]

Using the results of proposition 3.1, one finds that the dynamical variable structure controller is represented by:

\[
u = \frac{x_1}{\theta_1} \left[ 2\zeta \omega_n (g - \theta \frac{u}{x_1}) + \omega_n^2 x_2 + \mu \text{sgn} s \right] + \frac{x_2 u}{x_1}
\tag{3.18}
\]

### 3.2 Adaptive Dynamical Sliding Mode Linearizing Control for Magnetic Suspension System

Due to lack of exact parameter knowledge, instead of the controller (3.18), one uses a dynamical variable structure controller, based on estimates of the parameter and the sliding surface coordinate function:
\[ \hat{\theta}_1 = \frac{x_1}{\theta_1} \left[ 2\zeta_0 \omega_n (g \cdot \hat{\theta}_1 \frac{u}{x_1}) + \omega_n^2 x_2 + \mu \text{sgn} \hat{s} \right] + \frac{x_2}{x_1} \]  

(3.19)

where:

\[ \hat{s} = g - \hat{\theta}_1 \frac{u}{x_1} + 2\zeta_0 \omega_n x_2 + \omega_n^2 (x_1 - x) \]

(3.20)

Let \( \Phi_1 \) denote the parameter estimation error, \( \theta_1 \cdot \hat{\theta}_1 \). Then, the evolution of the sliding surface coordinate function \( s \) obeys:

\[ s = -\mu \text{sgn} \hat{s} \left[ 2\zeta_0 \omega_n (g \cdot \hat{\theta}_1 \frac{u}{x_1}) + \omega_n^2 x_2 + \mu \text{sgn} \hat{s} \right] \]

(3.21)

A sliding motion is induced on the estimate of the switching surface \( \hat{s} \approx 0 \). Notice that, from (3.16) and (3.20) one obtains:

\[ s = \hat{s} - \Phi_1 \frac{x_3}{x_1} \]

(3.22)

Using the result in equation (3.10), we obtain a parameter estimation error update law of the form:

\[ \dot{\Phi}_1 = -\theta_1 = (s - \Phi_1 \frac{x_3}{x_1}) \left( 2\zeta_0 \omega_n g + \omega_n^2 x_2 \right) \]

(3.23)

Simulations were run to assess the performance of the adaptive dynamical sliding mode controller (3.19),(3.20),(3.23) on a magnetic ball suspension system with the following parameters:

\[ \theta_1 = \frac{c}{M} = 100 \text{ N-m/A}^2 , \quad g = 9.81 \text{ m/s}^2 \]

The state variable trajectories \( x_1(t), x_2(t) \) are shown in figure 5. The non-chattering control input trajectory is depicted in Figure 6. The state trajectories converge to the values \( x_1 = 0.605 \text{ m}, x_2 = 6.1 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m/s} \). These values are reasonably close to their ideal equilibrium values given by \( x_1 = 0.6 \text{ m} \) and \( x_2 = 0 \). In figure 7, the estimated parameter is shown. This parameter slowly converges to a constant value of 102.4 N-m/A^2 which does not coincide with the "true" value of 100 N-m/A^2.

Figure 8 and 9 show, respectively, the time evolution of the sliding surface coordinate function \( s \) and its estimated value. It is clearly seen that sliding motions take place on \( \hat{s} = 0 \), while the value of \( s \) slowly converges towards \( \hat{s} = 0 \) yielding a steady state error. The variable structure controller parameters and the constants for the adaptation laws were set as: \( \mu = 20, \zeta = 0.9, \omega_n = 7, K_{11} = K_{22} = 0.1 \).
4. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, adaptive dynamical continuous and discontinuous feedback compensators, which approximately accomplish asymptotic output stabilization, were examined for a class of parametric uncertain systems linearizable by dynamical feedback strategies. Adaptive dynamical feedback linearization may be accomplished by extending the available results for adaptive statically linearizable systems. This simply entitles the incorporation of the states of the dynamical controller as part of the adaptation mechanism. A controller design example was presented for the asymptotic stabilization of the shafts angular velocity in a nonlinear DC motor. The performance of the controller was evaluated through computer simulations which were encouraging.

An extension of the dynamical variable structure control techniques developed in [19], and in Sira-Ramirez [23], were presented for the adaptive case. The results show that whenever the input-dependent sliding surface exhibits an explicit dependance on the uncertain parameters, a sliding motion can only be generated on an estimate of the switching surface, which is known to be in error with respect to the exactly linearizing manifold. Thus, a small constant stabilization error, directly dependent on the steady state parameter estimation error, may be always present in the proposed adaptive scheme, if the condition of persistency of excitation is not verified during the transient. However, if persistency of excitation conditions are satisfied, these will, surely, induce more accurate results on the stabilization task. This condition, as it is well known, is more naturally verified in adaptive output tracking tasks. An illustrative example was presented dealing with the adaptive dynamical variable structure stabilization of a magnetic suspension system. The proposed adaptive control approach inherits, from the underlying dynamical sliding mode control scheme, the chattering-free trajectories for the inputs and the associated state and output responses.

REFERENCES


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Figure 1. Time response of armature current for adaptive dynamically controlled DC motor example.

Figure 2. Time response of angular velocity for adaptive dynamically controlled DC motor example.

Figure 3. Time response of field winding input current for adaptive dynamically controlled DC motor example.
Figure 4. Parameter estimate trajectory for adaptive dynamically controlled DC motor example.

Figure 5. Time response of state variables for adaptive dynamical sliding mode controlled magnetic suspension system example.

Figure 6. Time response of control input variable for adaptive dynamical sliding mode controlled magnetic suspension system example.
Figure 7. Parameter estimate trajectory for adaptive dynamical sliding mode controlled magnetic suspension system example.

Figure 8. Evolution of sliding surface coordinate function for adaptive dynamical sliding mode controller in the magnetic suspension system example.

Figure 9. Evolution of estimate values of sliding surface coordinate function for adaptive dynamical sliding mode controller in the magnetic suspension system example.