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Brief paper

Extremum seeking for moderately unstable systems and for autonomous vehicle target tracking without position measurements $\stackrel{\ensuremath{\sc vehicle}}{\rightarrow}$

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Abstract

We remove the long standing restriction that plant dynamics in extremum seeking control must be stable and provide an extension that allows single integrators, double integrators, and moderately unstable single poles. An application of the result for single and double integrators is in control of autonomous vehicles. Extremum seeking is used for finding a source of a signal (chemical, electromagnetic, etc.) whose strength decays with the distance. This is achieved without the measurement of the position vector and using only the measurement of the scalar signal. © 2007 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

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1. Introduction

Recent advances in extremum seeking have been followed by several exciting applications in non-model based control and optimization (Banaszuk, Narayanan, & Zhang, 2003; Peterson & Stefanopoulou, 2004; Popovic, Jankovic, Manger, & Teel, 2003; Li, Rotea, Chiu, Mongeau, & Paek, 2005; Zhang, Dawson, Dixon, & Xian, 2004). However, extremum seeking has so far been developed only for plants that are open loop stable (Ariyur & Krstić, 2003), with poles that are sufficiently well damped. In this paper we introduce a new idea how to extend the applicability of extremum seeking to marginally stable systems and moderately unstable systems. While the later extension is of general interest, the former comes from an application.

Control of autonomous vehicles is an immensely active area. Typically autonomous agents are allowed information sharing and are supplied with at least their position measurements. In this paper we use extremum seeking to address a

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problem with complete autonomy—a vehicle, without any position or velocity information, tracks the source of a scalar valued "concentration"-type signal (for example, the concentration of a chemical agent, or the strength of an acoustic, or an electromagnetic signal). The concentration field is not known, however, it is assumed to be the strongest at the source and to decay away from it. Therefore, the non-model based extremum seeking method is appropriate to approach this problem.

The classical extremum seeking scheme is modified for the stated task by observing that the integrator, a key adaptation element, is already present in vehicle models where the primary forces or moments acting on the vehicle are those that provide thrust/propulsion, i.e., for vehicles that act primarily in the $m\vec{x} = F$ manner, where F is the motion-generating input and \ddot{x} is the acceleration vector. In this paper we present results for a point mass model in the plane. An extension to 3D for a fully actuated vehicle is trivial, except that one employs separate probing frequencies in the ES algorithm for the individual axes of motion. The extension to point mass models with extensive losses (due for example to drag) is straightforward by noting that the input-output relationship drops in relative degree, making the problem actually easier. Drift-inducing forces like gravity or buoyancy are automatically accommodated by extremum seeking which auto-tunes the input to compensate for such constant disturbances.

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An extension to underactuated or non-holonomic vehicles is not straightforward and is the subject of Zhang, Arnold, Ghods, Siranosian, and Krstic (2007) another follow-up research.

The stability results we prove are local. The techniques introduced by Tan, Nesic, and Mareels (2005) can be used to achieve semi-global versions of our results.

2. A Velocity-actuated point mass (single integrators)

In the plane, an autonomous vehicle is modeled as a point mass:

$$\dot{x} = v_x, \quad \dot{y} = v_y, \tag{1}$$

where [x, y] is the position of the point mass and v_x, v_y are the velocity inputs. Our method is extended later in the paper to the case where the inputs are forces; however, for clarity in introducing the new concept, we consider the simplest case of a velocity-actuated point mass first.

A block diagram of extremum seeking is shown in Fig. 1. The nonlinear map represents the distribution of the signal being tracked, whose strength will typically decay away from the origin, thus we assume that the nonlinear map J = f(x, y) has a local maximum and pursue local tracking of that maximum. For clarity we assume that the nonlinear map is quadratic and that its Hessian is diagonal, viz.,

$$J = f(x, y) = f^* - q_x (x - x^*)^2 - q_y (y - y^*)^2,$$
 (2)

where (x^*, y^*) is the *unknown* maximizer, $f^* = f(x^*, y^*)$ is the *unknown* maximum, and q_x , q_y are some *unknown* positive constants. General non-quadratic maps with non-diagonal Hessians are equally amenable to analysis, using the same technique as in Ariyur and Krstić (2003) and Krstić and Wang (2000). We show next that extremum seeking drives the autonomous vehicle to (x^*, y^*) without employing any knowledge of f(x, y) or the measurements of (x, y), only the measurement of the output J of the nonlinear map f(x, y). This corresponds to the problem of source localization in an unknown concentration field. The designer chooses the parameters α , ω , h, c_x , c_y in the block



Fig. 1. Extremum seeking for velocity-actuated point mass.

diagram (Fig. 1), whereas the extremum seeking automatically tunes v_x , v_y to lead the vehicle to the peak of f(x, y).

The analysis that follows employs the averaging method. Let

$$e = \frac{h}{s+h}[J] - f^*, \tag{3}$$

then the signal after the washout filter can be expressed as $(s/(s+h))[J] = J - (h/(s+h))[J] = J - f^* - e$. Now, let us introduce the new coordinates

$$\tilde{x} = x - x^* - \alpha \sin(\omega t), \tag{4}$$

$$\tilde{y} = y - y^* + \alpha \cos(\omega t). \tag{5}$$

Then, in the time scale $\tau = \omega t$, we define:

So we summarize the system in Fig. 1 as

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\tilde{x}}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = +\frac{1}{\omega}c_x\Delta\sin\tau,\tag{7}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\tilde{y}}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = -\frac{1}{\omega}c_{y}\Delta\cos\tau,\tag{8}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}e}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = +\frac{h}{\omega}\Delta.\tag{9}$$

System (7)–(9) is in the form to which the averaging method is applicable, provided $1/\omega$ is small, i.e., provided ω is large (relative to the other parameters in the extremum seeking scheme and relative to the parameters in the nonlinear map). The average model of (7)–(9) is

$$\frac{d\tilde{x}_{avg}}{d\tau} = -\frac{1}{\omega} \alpha c_x q_x \tilde{x}_{avg}, \tag{10}$$
$$\frac{d\tilde{y}_{avg}}{d\tau} = -\frac{1}{\omega} \alpha c_y q_y \tilde{y}_{avg},$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}e_{\mathrm{avg}}}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = -\frac{1}{\omega}h\left[q_x\tilde{x}_{\mathrm{avg}}^2 + q_y\tilde{y}_{\mathrm{avg}}^2 + e_{\mathrm{avg}} + \frac{\alpha^2}{2}(q_x + q_y)\right].$$
(12)

Then the equilibrium of the average model (10)–(12) is

$$\tilde{x}_{avg}^{e} = 0, \quad \tilde{y}_{avg}^{e} = 0, \quad e_{avg}^{e} = -\frac{\alpha^{2}}{2}(q_{x} + q_{y}).$$
 (13)

The Jacobian of (10)–(12) at $(\tilde{x}_{avg}^e, \tilde{y}_{avg}^e, e_{avg}^e)$ is

$$J_{\text{avg}} = \frac{1}{\omega} \begin{bmatrix} -\alpha c_x q_x & 0 & 0\\ 0 & -\alpha c_y q_y & 0\\ 0 & 0 & -h \end{bmatrix}.$$
 (14)

Given the knowledge that the extremum is a maximum, it follows that q_x , q_y are known to be positive, though their actual values are unknown. Therefore, if we choose $\alpha > 0$, $c_x > 0$, $c_y > 0$ and h > 0, the Jacobian (14) is Hurwitz and the equilibrium (10)–(13) of the average system (12) is locally exponentially stable. Then according to the averaging theorem (Khalil, 2001), we have the following result.

Theorem 1. There exists $\bar{\omega}$ such that for all $1/\omega \in (0, 1/\bar{\omega})$ the system in Fig. 1 with the nonlinear map of the form

(2) has a unique exponentially stable periodic solution $(\tilde{x}^{2\pi/\omega}, \tilde{y}^{2\pi/\omega}, e^{2\pi/\omega})$ of period $2\pi/\omega$ and this solution satisfies

$$\left\| \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{x}^{2\pi/\omega} \\ \tilde{y}^{2\pi/\omega} \\ e^{2\pi/\omega} + \frac{\alpha^2}{2}(q_x + q_y) \end{bmatrix} \right\| \leqslant O(1/\omega), \quad \forall \tau \ge 0.$$
(15)

Since $x - x^* = \tilde{x} + \alpha \sin(\omega t) = (\tilde{x} - \tilde{x}^{2\pi/\omega}) + (\tilde{x}^{2\pi/\omega} - 0) + \alpha \sin \tau$, the theorem implies that the first term converges to zero, the second term is $O(1/\omega)$, and the third term is $O(\alpha)$. Thus $\limsup_{\tau \to \infty} |x - x^*| = O(\alpha + 1/\omega)$. Similarly, we can obtain $\limsup_{\tau \to \infty} |y - y^*| = O(\alpha + 1/\omega)$. Hence, we get

$$\lim_{\tau \to \infty} \sup |f - f^*| = O(\alpha^2 + (1/\omega)^2),$$
(16)

which characterizes the asymptotic performance of the extremum seeking loop in Fig. 1. Since we choose α as small and ω as large, the tracking error is very small.

Extremum seeking can be used for tracking of slowly varying trajectories, i.e., for tracking moving signal sources. When the trajectories are periodic our stability proof extends with very minor modifications which we do not present here in the interest of space. For example, consider a target motion is in the shape of the number eight (8):

$$x^* = a_m \sin(\omega_m t), \tag{17}$$

$$y^* = a_m \cos(2\omega_m t + \phi_m), \qquad (18)$$

where $\omega_m \ll \omega$. If ω and ω_m are commensurate, i.e., if there exist natural numbers N and N_m such that $\omega/\omega_m = N/N_m$, then our proof extends, with averaging applied over a period of $2\pi N$ in the τ -time scale to account for the presence of an additional periodic terms on the right-hand sides of (7) and (8). If, however, ω and ω_m are incommensurate (for example, $\omega = 4\pi\omega_m$ or $\omega = 3\sqrt{23}\omega_m$), the technique of general averaging for "almost periodic" systems (Khalil, 2001, Section 10.6) leads to the same stability conclusions.

We first illustrate the simulation results of seeking a stationary target. The point mass model (1) and the quadratic map (2) are used in the simulation. We set the parameters of the target as $(x^*, y^*) = (-1, -1)$, $f^* = 1$, $q_x = 1$ and $q_y = 0.5$. The parameters of the extremum seeking loop are chosen as $\omega = 30, \alpha = 0.08, c_x = c_y = 10$ and h = 1. The starting position of the autonomous vehicle is (x(0), y(0)) = (1, 1). As shown in Fig. 4(b), the autonomous vehicle starts at (1, 1) by probing around to climb the gradient of the unknown map, eventually circling very closely around the maximizer (-1, -1), the output of the unknown signal J is shown in Fig. 4(a), while the control inputs are shown in Fig. 4 (c) and (d). Note that the simulation results given in Fig. 4 are not for parameter values that are tuned to exhibit the best possible results. On the contrary, they illustrate the performance one would achieve for particularly poorly chosen parameter of the extremum seeking scheme. The point of showing the "worst case" performance is because the map being optimized is unknown, therefore it makes sense to ask a question about the performance with poorly chosen parameters.

For the slow time varying target (17)–(18), the simulation results are shown in Fig. 5, where we let $a_m = 1$, $\omega_m = 0.1$,



Fig. 2. Extremum seeking for force-actuated point mass.

 $\phi_m = 3$, $f^* = 1$, $q_x = 1$, $q_y = 0.5$, and $\omega = 30$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $c_x = c_y = 15$, h = 1. The starting position of the autonomous vehicle is still (x(0), y(0)) = (1, 1). The autonomous vehicle catches up with the target and then follows it quite closely in its number eight motion.

3. A force-actuated point mass (double integrators)

In this section we present a modified scheme for force actuated point mass models, which instead of single integrators include double integrators. Both the vehicle model and the modified ES scheme are shown in Fig. 2. One can observe the double integrators in the vehicle model and the presence of phase lead compensators of the form $G(s)=k_c(s-z_0)/(s-p_0)$ whose role is to recover some of the phase in the feedback loop lost due to the addition of the second integrator. Four new states are introduced due to the PD compensators w_x , w_y and the additional integrators v_x , v_y . Again, we introduce the new coordinates $\tilde{v}_x = v_x - \alpha \omega \cos(\omega t)$, $\tilde{v}_y = v_y - \alpha \omega \sin(\omega t)$. Then, in the time scale $\tau = \omega t$, we summarize the system in Fig. 2 as

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\tilde{x}}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega}\tilde{v}_x, \quad \frac{\mathrm{d}\tilde{y}}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega}\tilde{v}_y, \tag{19}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}e}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{h}{\omega}\Delta,\tag{20}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\tilde{v}_x}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega}w_x, \quad \frac{\mathrm{d}\tilde{v}_y}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega}w_y, \tag{21}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}w_x}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega} \left[p_x w_x - c_x k_x z_x \Delta \sin \tau + c_x k_x \omega \Delta \cos \tau + c_x k_x \frac{\mathrm{d}A}{\mathrm{d}t} \sin \tau \right], \qquad (22)$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}w_y}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega} \left[p_y w_y + c_y k_y z_y \Delta \cos \tau + c_y k_y \omega \Delta \sin \tau - c_y k_y \frac{\mathrm{d}A}{\mathrm{d}t} \cos \tau \right], \tag{23}$$

where Δ is defined in (6), and $d\Delta/dt = -2q_x(\tilde{x} + \alpha \sin(\omega t))(\tilde{v}_x + \alpha \omega \cos(\omega t)) - 2q_y(\tilde{y} - \alpha \cos(\omega t))(\tilde{v}_y + \alpha \omega \sin(\omega t)) - h\Delta$.

The average model of (19)-(23) is

$$\frac{d\tilde{x}_{avg}}{d\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega}\tilde{v}_{x\,avg}, \quad \frac{d\tilde{y}_{avg}}{d\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega}\tilde{v}_{y\,avg}, \quad (24)$$

$$\frac{de_{avg}}{d\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega}(-h)\left[q_x\tilde{x}_{avg}^2 + q_y\tilde{y}_{avg}^2 + e_{avg} + \frac{\alpha^2}{2}(q_x + q_y)\right], \quad (25)$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\tilde{v_{x\,\mathrm{avg}}}}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega}w_{x_{\mathrm{avg}}}, \quad \frac{\mathrm{d}\tilde{v_{y\,\mathrm{avg}}}}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega}w_{y_{\mathrm{avg}}}, \tag{26}$$

$$\mathrm{d} w_{x_{\mathrm{av}}}$$

$$d\tau = \frac{1}{\omega} [p_x w_{x_{avg}} + \alpha c_x k_x q_x (z_x + h) \tilde{x}_{avg} - \alpha c_x k_x q_x \tilde{v}_{x avg}], \quad (27)$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}w_{y_{\mathrm{avg}}}}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega} [p_y w_{y_{\mathrm{avg}}} + \alpha c_y k_y q_y (z_y + h) \tilde{y}_{\mathrm{avg}} - \alpha c_y k_y q_y \tilde{v}_{y_{\mathrm{avg}}}], \quad (28)$$

and its equilibrium is

$$\tilde{x}_{avg}^{e} = \tilde{y}_{avg}^{e} = \tilde{v}_{x\,avg}^{e} = \tilde{v}_{y\,avg}^{e} = w_{x_{avg}}^{e} = w_{y_{avg}}^{e} = 0,$$
(29)

$$e_{\rm avg}^e = -\frac{\alpha^2}{2}(q_x + q_y).$$
 (30)

The Jacobian of (28) at the equilibrium $(\tilde{x}_{avg}^e, \tilde{v}_{x}_{avg}^e, w_{x_{avg}}^e, \tilde{y}_{avg}^e, \tilde{v}_{xvg}^e, \tilde{y}_{avg}^e)$ is

$$J_{\text{avg}} = \frac{1}{\omega} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -a_3 & -a_2 & -a_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -b_3 & -b_2 & -b_1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & -h \end{bmatrix},$$
(31)

where $a_1 = -p_x$, $a_2 = \alpha c_x k_x q_x$, $a_3 = -\alpha c_x k_x q_x (z_x + h)$, $b_1 = -p_y$, $b_2 = \alpha c_y k_y q_y$, $b_3 = -\alpha c_y k_y q_y (z_y + h)$. Therefore the characteristic function of J_{avg} is

$$D(\lambda) = (\lambda + h)(\lambda^3 + a_1\lambda^2 + a_2\lambda + a_3)(\lambda^3 + b_1\lambda^2 + b_2\lambda + b_3)$$

Since the sufficient and necessary condition for a third order polynomial to have positive roots is $a_1, a_2, a_3 > 0$ and $a_1a_2 - a_3 > 0$. Then, J_{avg} will be Hurwitz if and only if the following inequalities hold:

$$-p_x > 0, \tag{32}$$

$$\alpha c_x k_x q_x > 0, \tag{33}$$

$$-\alpha c_x k_x q_x (z_x + h) > 0, \tag{34}$$

$$-\alpha c_x k_x p_x q_x + \alpha c_x k_x q_x (z_x + h) > 0, \qquad (35)$$

(36)

(40)

$$-p_{y} > 0,$$

h > 0.

$$\alpha c_y k_y q_y > 0, \tag{37}$$

$$-\alpha c_y k_y q_y (z_y x + h) > 0, \tag{38}$$

$$-\alpha c_y k_y p_y q_y + \alpha c_y k_y q_y (z_y x + h) > 0,$$
(39)

One possible design to satisfy those inequalities (32)–(40) of the *x* loop is α , *h*, *c_x*, *c_y*, *k_x*, *k_y*, > 0 and *z_x*, *z_y* < –*h*, *p_x* < *z_x* + *h*, *p_y* < *z_y* + *h*.

Theorem 2. Consider the system in Fig. 2, where the nonlinear map has the form of (2). There exists $\bar{\omega}$ such that for all $1/\omega \in (0, 1/\bar{\omega})$ the system has a unique exponentially stable periodic solution $(\tilde{x}^{2\pi/\omega}, \tilde{y}^{2\pi/\omega}, e^{2\pi/\omega})$ of period $2\pi/\omega$ and this solution satisfies

$$\begin{bmatrix} \tilde{x}^{2\pi/\omega} \\ \tilde{y}^{2\pi/\omega} \\ \tilde{v}_{x}^{2\pi/\omega} \\ \tilde{v}_{y}^{2\pi/\omega} \\ e^{2\pi/\omega} + \frac{\alpha^{2}}{2}(q_{x} + q_{y}) \\ w_{x}^{2\pi/\omega} \\ w_{y}^{2\pi/\omega} \end{bmatrix} \leqslant O(1/\omega), \quad \forall \tau \ge 0.$$
(41)

Hence $\lim \sup_{\tau \to \infty} |f - f^*| = O(\alpha^2 + (1/\omega)^2).$

Simulation results for a slowly time varying target (17)–(18) are shown in Fig. 6 for $a_m = 1$, $\omega_m = 0.1$, $\phi_m = 3$, $f^* = 1$, $q_x = 1$, $q_y = 0.5$, and $\omega = 30$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $c_x = c_y = 20$, h = 1. The parameters of the PD compensator are chosen to satisfy the inequalities (40), where $k_c = 2$, $z_0 = -2$, $p_0 = -5$. The start position of the autonomous vehicle is (x(0), y(0)) = (1, 1). As expected, tracking with a vehicle that has a double integrator in its input–output relation is harder than with a vehicle with a single integrator, but the use of a phase lead compensator helps achieve comparable performance.

4. A plant with moderately unstable poles

In this section we present an example of an MIMO plant with slightly unstable poles that can be stabilized, in the absence of its output measurements, with extremum seeking. This example is unrelated to the autonomous vehicle problem studied in the rest of the paper. Consider the two-input-two–output system

$$\dot{x} = \varepsilon_x x + v_x, \quad \dot{y} = \varepsilon_y y + v_y, \tag{42}$$

where ε_x , $\varepsilon_y > 0$ are constant and v_x , v_y are the inputs. The ES scheme in Fig. 3 employs phase lead compensators for achieving robustness against the destabilizing effect of ε_x , $\varepsilon_y > 0$.



Fig. 3. Extremum seeking with unstable poles.

If ε_x , ε_y are very small, the robustness of the extremum seeking loop itself will be able to compensate their effect without resorting to the phase lead. This simple extension of the singleintegrator result is given without a proof.

Theorem 3. Consider the system in Fig. 3 without the phase lead compensator, where the nonlinear map has the form of (2). There exist $\bar{\varepsilon}$, $\bar{\omega}$ such that for all ε_x , $\varepsilon_y \in (0, \bar{\varepsilon})$ and for all $1/\omega \in (0, 1/\bar{\omega})$ the system has a unique exponentially stable periodic solution ($\tilde{x}^{2\pi/\omega}$, $\tilde{y}^{2\pi/\omega}$, $e^{2\pi/\omega}$) of period $2\pi/\omega$ and this solution satisfies

$$\left\| \begin{bmatrix} \tilde{x}^{2\pi/\omega} - \tilde{x}^{e}_{\text{avg}} \\ \tilde{y}^{2\pi/\omega} - \tilde{y}^{e}_{\text{avg}} \\ e^{2\pi/\omega} - e^{e}_{\text{avg}} \end{bmatrix} \right\| \leqslant O(1/\omega), \quad \forall \tau \ge 0,$$
(43)

where

$$\tilde{x}_{avg}^e = \frac{\varepsilon_x x^*}{\alpha c_x q_x - \varepsilon_x}, \quad \tilde{y}_{avg}^e = \frac{\varepsilon_y y^*}{\alpha c_y q_y - \varepsilon_y}$$

and

$$= -\left[\frac{\alpha^2}{2}(q_x + q_y) + q_x \left(\frac{\varepsilon_x x^*}{\alpha c_x q_x - \varepsilon_x}\right)^2 + q_y \left(\frac{\varepsilon_y y^*}{\alpha c_y q_y - \varepsilon_y}\right)^2\right]$$

Moreover, $\limsup_{\tau \to \infty} |f - f^*| = O(\alpha^2 + (1/\omega)^2 + \varepsilon^2).$

If, however, ε_x and ε_y in (42) are not very small but of medium size, then the robustness of the extremum seeking loop itself cannot stabilize the system, so we include a phase lead compensator to make up the phase lag introduced by the unstable first order dynamics. Then, in the time scale $\tau = \omega t$, we summarize the system in Fig. 3 as

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\tilde{x}}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega} [w_x + \varepsilon_x (\tilde{x} + x^* + \alpha \sin \tau)], \qquad (44)$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega} [w_y + \varepsilon_y (\tilde{y} + y^* - \alpha \cos \tau)], \tag{45}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}e}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{h}{\omega}\Delta,\tag{46}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}w_x}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega} \left[p_x w_x - c_x k_x z_x \Delta \sin \tau + c_x k_x \omega \Delta \cos(\omega t) + c_x k_x \frac{\mathrm{d}\Delta}{\mathrm{d}t} \sin(\omega t) \right], \tag{47}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}w_{y}}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega} \left[p_{y}w_{y} + c_{y}k_{y}z_{y}\Delta\cos\tau + c_{y}k_{y}\omega\Delta\sin(\omega t) - c_{y}k_{y}\frac{\mathrm{d}\Delta}{\mathrm{d}t}\cos(\omega t) \right], \tag{48}$$



Fig. 4. Extremum seeking for velocity-actuated point mass, stationary case. (a) Output; (b) vehicle trajectory starts from (1,1); (c) control input of *x*-axis; (d) control input of *y*-axis.



Fig. 5. Extremum seeking for velocity-actuated point mass, slowly time-varying case. (a) Output; (b) vehicle trajectory starts from (1,1) and source trajectory starts from (0,0); (c) control input of *x*-axis; (d) control input of *y*-axis.



Fig. 6. Extremum seeking for force-actuated point mass, slowly time-varying case. (a) Output; (b) vehicle trajectory starts from (1,1) and source trajectory starts from (0,0); (c) control input of *x*-axis; (d) control input of *y*-axis.

where Δ is defined in (6). The average model of (44)–(48) is

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\tilde{x}_{\mathrm{avg}}}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega} [\varepsilon_x (\tilde{x}_{\mathrm{avg}} + x^*) + w_{x_{\mathrm{avg}}}],\tag{49}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y_{\mathrm{avg}}}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega} [\varepsilon_y(\tilde{y}_{\mathrm{avg}} + y^*) + w_{y_{\mathrm{avg}}}], \tag{50}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}e_{\mathrm{avg}}}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega}(-h) \left[q_x \tilde{x}_{\mathrm{avg}}^2 + q_y \tilde{y}_{\mathrm{avg}}^2 + e_{\mathrm{avg}} + \frac{\alpha^2}{2}(q_x + q_y) \right],\tag{51}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}w_{x_{\mathrm{avg}}}}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega} [(p_x - \alpha c_x k_x q_x) w_{x_{\mathrm{avg}}} + \alpha c_x k_x q_x (z_x - 2\varepsilon_x + h) \tilde{x}_{\mathrm{avg}} - \alpha c_x k_x q_x \varepsilon_x x^*]$$
(52)

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}w_{y_{\mathrm{avg}}}}{\mathrm{d}\tau} = \frac{1}{\omega} [(p_y - \alpha c_y k_y q_y) w_{y_{\mathrm{avg}}} + \alpha c_y k_y q_y (z_y - 2\varepsilon_y + h) \tilde{y}_{\mathrm{avg}} - \alpha c_y k_y q_y \varepsilon_y y^*]. (53)$$

Then the equilibrium of the average model (49)–(53) is

$$\tilde{x}_{\text{avg}}^{e} = \frac{p_{x}\varepsilon_{x}x^{*}}{\alpha c_{x}k_{x}q_{x}(z_{x}-\varepsilon_{x}+h)-p_{x}\varepsilon_{x}},$$
(54)

$$\tilde{y}_{\text{avg}}^{e} = \frac{p_y \varepsilon_y y}{\alpha c_y k_y q_y (z_y - \varepsilon_y + h) - p_y \varepsilon_y},$$
(55)

$$e_{\text{avg}}^{e} = -\frac{\alpha^{2}}{2}(q_{x}+q_{y}) - q_{x}\left(\frac{p_{x}\varepsilon_{x}x^{*}}{\alpha c_{x}k_{x}q_{x}(z_{x}-\varepsilon_{x}+h)-p_{x}\varepsilon_{x}}\right)^{2}$$
$$-q_{y}\left(\frac{p_{y}\varepsilon_{y}y^{*}}{\alpha c_{y}k_{y}q_{y}(z_{y}-\varepsilon_{y}+h)-p_{y}\varepsilon_{y}}\right)^{2},$$
(56)

$$w_{x_{\text{avg}}}^{e} = \frac{-\alpha c_{x} k_{x} q_{x} \varepsilon_{x} (z_{x} - \varepsilon_{x} + h) x^{*}}{\alpha c_{x} k_{x} q_{x} (z_{x} - \varepsilon_{x} + h) - p_{x} \varepsilon_{x}},$$
(57)

$$w_{y_{\text{avg}}}^{e} = \frac{-\alpha c_{y} k_{y} q_{y} \varepsilon_{y} (z_{y} - \varepsilon_{y} + h) y^{*}}{\alpha c_{y} k_{y} q_{y} (z_{y} - \varepsilon_{y} + h) - p_{y} \varepsilon_{y}}.$$
(58)

The Jacobian of (53) at $(\tilde{x}_{avg}^e, w_{xavg}^e, \tilde{y}_{avg}^e, w_{yavg}^e, e_{avg}^e)$ is

$$J_{\text{avg}} = \frac{1}{\omega} \begin{bmatrix} \varepsilon_x & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0\\ a_1 & a_2 & 0 & 0 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & \varepsilon_y & 1 & 0\\ 0 & 0 & b_1 & b_2 & 0\\ -2hq_x x_{\text{avg}}^e & 0 & -2hq_y y_{\text{avg}}^e & 0 & -h \end{bmatrix}, \quad (59)$$

where $a_1 = \alpha c_x k_x q_x (z_x - 2\varepsilon_x + h), a_2 = (p_x - \alpha c_x k_x q_x), b_1 =$ $\alpha c_y k_y q_y (z_y - 2\varepsilon_y + h)$ and $b_2 = (p_y - \alpha c_y k_y q_y)$. Therefore, J_{avg} will be Hurwitz if and only if the following inequalities hold:

$$\alpha c_x k_x q_x - \varepsilon_x - p_x > 0, \tag{60}$$

$$(\alpha c_x k_x q_x + p_x)\varepsilon_x - \alpha c_x k_x q_x (z_x + h) > 0, \tag{61}$$

$$\alpha c_y k_y q_y - \varepsilon_y - p_y > 0, \tag{62}$$

$$(\alpha c_y k_y q_y + p_y) \varepsilon_y - \alpha c_y k_y q_y (z_y + h) > 0,$$

$$h > 0.$$
(63)
(64)

h > 0.

These conditions also ensure that the average equilibrium (54)–(58) is finite. If $q_x, q_y \ge q$ and $\varepsilon_x, \varepsilon_y \le \overline{\varepsilon}$, one possible design to satisfy the inequalities (60)–(64) is

(1) Choose $\alpha > 0$ to be small, h > 0.

(2) Choose
$$c_x > 0$$
, $k_x > 0$ such that $c_x k_x > \overline{\varepsilon}/2\alpha q$.

(3) Choose
$$p_x = -\alpha c_x k_x q$$
 and $z_x < -h$



Fig. 7. Extremum seeking for unstable poles, stationary case. (a) Output; (b) vehicle trajectory starts from (0,0); (c) control input of x-axis; (d) control input of y-axis.

- (4) Choose $c_v > 0$, $k_v > 0$ such that $c_v k_v > \overline{\varepsilon}/2\alpha q$.
- (5) Choose $p_y = -\alpha c_y k_y q$ and $z_y < -h$.

Theorem 4. Consider the system in Fig. 3, where the nonlinear map has the form of (2). If the conditions (64) are satisfied by design, then there exists $\bar{\omega}$ such that for all $1/\omega \in (0, 1/\bar{\omega})$ the system has a unique exponentially stable periodic solution $(\tilde{x}^{2\pi/\omega}, \tilde{y}^{2\pi/\omega}, e^{2\pi/\omega})$ of period $2\pi/\omega$ and this solution satisfies

$$\begin{bmatrix} \tilde{x}^{2\pi/\omega} - \tilde{x}^{e}_{\text{avg}} \\ \tilde{y}^{2\pi/\omega} - \tilde{y}^{e}_{\text{avg}} \\ e^{2\pi/\omega} - e^{e}_{\text{avg}} \\ w^{2\pi/\omega}_{x} - w^{e}_{x_{\text{avg}}} \\ w^{2\pi/\omega}_{y} - w^{e}_{x_{\text{avg}}} \end{bmatrix} \leqslant O(1/\omega), \quad \forall \tau \ge 0,$$
(65)

where $(\tilde{x}_{avg}^e, \tilde{y}_{avg}^e, e_{avg}^e, w_{x_{avg}}^e, w_{y_{avg}}^e)$ is the equilibrium of the average model (53).

Since

$$\begin{aligned} x - x^* &= \tilde{x} + \alpha \sin(\omega t) \\ &= (\tilde{x} - \tilde{x}^{2\pi/\omega}) \\ &+ \left(\tilde{x}^{2\pi/\omega} - \frac{p_x \varepsilon_x x^*}{\alpha c_x k_x q_x (z_x - \varepsilon_x + h) - p_x \varepsilon_x} \right) \\ &+ \frac{p_x \varepsilon_x x^*}{\alpha c_x k_x q_x (z_x - \varepsilon_x + h) - p_x \varepsilon_x} + \alpha \sin \tau, \end{aligned}$$

the theorem implies that the first term converges to zero, the second term is $O(1/\omega)$, the third term is $O(\bar{\epsilon})$ and the fourth term $O(\alpha)$, guaranteeing $\limsup_{\tau \to \infty} |x - x^*| = O(\alpha + 1/\omega + \bar{\epsilon})$. Similarly, we can obtain $\limsup_{\tau \to \infty} |y - y^*| = O(\alpha + 1/\omega + \bar{\epsilon})$. Thus, eventually we get $\limsup_{\tau \to \infty} |f - f^*| = O(\alpha^2 + (1/\omega)^2 + \bar{\epsilon}^2)$, so the residual error is proportional to the value of the unstable poles.

The robustness of the extremum seeking loop for slightly unstable poles is shown in Fig. 7 for $\varepsilon_x = \varepsilon_y = 0.05$, $\omega = 20$, $\alpha = 0.05$, $c_x = c_y = 10$, h = 1, $f^* = 1$, $q_x = 1$, $q_y = 0.5$, (x(0), y(0)) = (0, 0). For considerably larger unstable poles, $\varepsilon_x = \varepsilon_y = 0.5$, a phase lead compensator is required and its use results in comparable performance as for $\varepsilon_x = \varepsilon_y = 0.05$ without a compensator.

The application of extremum seeking can be pursued in much greater generality than in the present section, allowing additional stable and fast dynamics, combined with unstable poles. This is a topic of future research.

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