CONTROL OF MSU JUMPING ROBOT

By

Emad Alsaedi

A THESIS

Submitted to Michigan State University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Electrical Engineering – Master of Science

2014

ABSTRACT

CONTROL OF MSU JUMPING ROBOT

By

Emad Alsaedi

The idea of Miniature jumping robots is taking exactly from the animal living around us. A gecko lizard is a perfect example for a jumping balancing Robot, in an experiment, it was seen how gecko lizard can balance landing using the moment of the tail. Another example is a falling cat midair self-righting. These miniature jumping robot are becoming widely used in real life. One cannot expect how useful to use such robot at times where human presence is at danger. Like in the case of wars or natural disaster (as in earth quakes or nuclear like disaster as Fukushima leaks in Japan). The MSU jumper robot is unique in terms of weight and size; however, there is some control problem in the case of landing procedure, as well as selfrighting and maneuvering in midair. Designing a controller for MSU jumping robot is challenging, the controller has to response in half a second as the jumping period is close to 2 second, that short period made it almost impossible for the robot to resist uncertainties or unmolded dynamics, as well as changes in the mass of moment of inertia of the body due to change of body shape. We managed to add mini wings to the robot to prolong jumping period and the stabilize landing procedure, as well as to enable the robot to estimate the mass of moment of inertia for the body, and all of that for the controller at the tail to force the body to land on the desired edge. MSU jumper robot has swept greatly throughout robotics media and industry due to the tininess and light weight properties. A light weight that doesn't exceed 28 g and a maximum size of 6.5 cm is what made the robot special in its types of all jumping robots.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES	V
LIST OF FIGURES	vi
KEY TO SYMBOLS OR ABBREVIATIONS	viii
Chapter 1.Introductions	1
1.1.Background	1
1.2.Motivations	2
1.3.Objective	3
1.3.1.Estimation	3
1.3.2.Controller Design.	3
Chapter 2.Jumping procedure	5
2.1.Step 1	5
2.2.Step 2	5
2.3.Step 3	6
Chapter 3.Wings design	7
Chapter 4.Modeling	8
4.1.Robot Energies	9
4.1.1.Potential Energy	9
4.1.2.Kinetic Energy	9
4.2.Lagrange EOM for Robot	9
4.3.Dynamics equations	12
4.4.Transformation	12
Chapter 5.Linearization	13
Chapter 6.Estimation	16
6.1.Re-parameterization	16
6.2.Gradient Algorithm	17
6.2.1.Gradient without protection	17
6.3.2.Gradient with protection	
Chapter 7.Designing controller	
7.1.Designing controller by MRAC	20
7.2.Designing controller by APPC	22
7.3.Designing controller by PD	26
7.4.Designing slide mode controller	29

7.5.Designing ASMC	
Chapter 8.Conclusion	
8.1.Comparison of controllers	
8.1.1.Disturbance rejection test	
8.1.2.Uncertainties rejection test	
8.1.3.Summary	
8.2.Contribution to MSU jumper Robot.	41
8.3.Results of new schematic design	
8.4.Future work	41
BIBLIOGRAPHY	42

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1.	LIST OF PARAMETERS FOR DYNAMICS MODELING	.8

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1.1.	Prototype of the robot with the flexible wings (for interpretation of the references to color in this and all other figures, the reader is referred to th electronic version of this thesis).	e 2
Figure 1.3.1.	Schematic of landing and taking off desired position for the robot	4
Figure 2.1.	Tighten wings as robot getting ready for jump	5
Figure 2.2.	Robot in midair	5
Figure 2.3.	Robot getting down to land with 30 degree angle.	6
Figure 4.1.	The schematic of the robot in the air. Modeling of the system	8
Figure 5.1.	Steps response of linear and nonlinear system	15
Figure 6.2.1.1.	Estimation without projection.	17
Figure 6.2.1.2.	Tracking, without projection.	18
Figure 6.2.2.1.	Estimation with projection	19
Figures 6.2.2.2.	Tracking is not maintained	19
Figure 7.1.1.	$\frac{\pi}{6} = 0.5236 = 30$ Degree, Tracking of MRAC	21
Figure 7.1.2.	Tracking error	21
Figure 7.2.1.	Schematic diagram of desired pole placement.	23
Figure 7.2.2.	APPC controller using simulink blocks	23
Figure 7.2.3.	Control effort. Using APPC	24
Figure 7.2.4.	Output response	24
Figure 7.2.5.	Multi reference testing for the nonlinear system	25
Figure 7.2.6.	Control effort for multi references	25
Figure 7.3.1.	PD scheme desgin	26

Figure 7.3.2.	output response, reaching 30 degree in 0.5 sec	27
Figure 7.3.3.	Control effort to reach a 30 degree reference	
Figure 7.3.4.	Multi intial conditions testing	28
Figure 7.3.5.	Control effort for multi initial conditions	
Figure 7.4.1.	Signum nonlinearity function, replaced by approximation function	31
Figure 7.4.2.	Scheme of SMC	32
Figure 7.4.3.	Control effort SMC	32
Figure 7.4.4.	output response, reaching 30 degree in 0.5 sec	33
Figure 7.4.5.	Tracking of desired response	33
Figure 7.4.6.	Tracking response for multi initial condition	34
Figure 7.4.7.	Error for multi initial conditions. (pi, $\frac{\text{pi}}{2}$, $\frac{\text{pi}}{3}$, $\frac{\text{pi}}{5}$, $\frac{\text{pi}}{6}$, $\frac{\text{pi}}{8}$, $\frac{\text{pi}}{10}$)	35
Figure 7.4.8.	Control effort bounded.	35
Figure 8.1.1.1.	APPC versus PID 0.1 noise power	36
Figure 8.1.1.2.	APPC versus PID noise power 1	
Figure 8.1.1.3.	SMC versus PD, for noise power 0.0001	37
Figure 8.1.1.4.	SMC versus PID noise power 0.001	38
Figure 8.1.1.5.	SMC versus PID noise power 0.1	38
Figure 8.1.2.1.	SMC,PD, response	
Figure 8.1.2.2.	SMC response alone.	
Figure 8.4.1.	Left to right, Weigeltosaurus, Icarosaurus, and Draco	41

KEY TO SYMBOLS OR ABBREVIATIONS

- MSU Michigan State University
- MRAC model reference adaptive control
- APPC Adaptive Pole placement control
- DOF Degree of Freedom
- PD Proportional Derivative
- EOM equation of motions
- PE persistently excited
- ASMC adaptive sliding mode controller

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1. Background:

The idea of Miniature jumping robots is taking exactly from the animal living around us. For example the gecko lizard [1] is a perfect example for a jumping balancing Robot, in an experiment done by a group of Berkeley researchers where they capture how gecko lizard can balance landing using the moment of the tail[2]. Another example is a falling cat midair self-righting [3]. These miniature jumping robot are becoming widely used in real life. One cannot expect how useful to use such robot at times where human presence is at danger. Like in the case of wars or natural diseases (as in earth quakes or nuclear like disaster). SandFlea[4] is a robot designed and developed by Boston dynamics. The robot has a weight of 11 pounds and a dimensions size of 13' L, 18' width and 6' height. As seen, in the reference, the robot lack a light weight property as it is going to jump, and a light weight property reduce the impact to surface, which may prevent a wear in the body parts with time usage or with frequent usage.

The modified MSU jumping robot is a new version of the MSU jumping robot, where in the MSU jumping robot the landing procedure was a critical matter to the body parts of the robot. as well as the length of jump, in designing a controller for MSU jumping robot, the controller has to response in half a second as the jumping period is close to 1 second, that short period made almost impossible for the robot to resist changes in the mass of moment of inertia of the body due to change of body shape by holding and releasing wings, and that's why the MSU jumping robot is only designed when the mass of moment of inertia is fixed, which is only designed for ideal cases, and that isn't the case in outside real life. There has to be lots of factors that changes the mass of moment of inertia for the body.

In this research we managed to add mini wings to the robot, it stay closed tight while jumping and it opens wide after 0.6 seconds in midair to prolong jumping period and the stabilize landing procedure, as well as to enable the robot to estimate the mass of moment of inertia for the body as the body shape is changing while wings start to open, and all of that for the controller at the tail to force the body to land on the desired edge. A minimization of landing impact problem was solved in [5] and found 30 degree landing angle for the body.



Figure 1.1.1. Prototype of the robot with the flexible wings (for interpretation of the references to color in this and all other figures, the reader is referred to the electronic version of this thesis)

1.2. Motivation:

MSU jumper robot has swept greatly throughout robotics media and industry due to the tininess and light weight properties. A light weight that doesn't exceed 28 g and a maximum size of 6.5 cm is what made the robot special in its types of all jumping robots. Meanwhile, the MSU jumper robot still faces some challenges in the field of control in midair as in none ideal environment there are few uncertainties the robot encounter, such as rain and wind. Like for example, when the wind speed is not constant, or in the case of rain drops that act as drag force. The controller needs to respond within short period to correct the orientation of the robot.

MSU jumping robot faces another challenge, which as the landing edge. The robot parts are not made of steel to resist impact to the ground, while the robot is made from light weight material that allows it to jump up high for same power giving by compressing the springs, and releasing it. Therefore, it's desired to limit the landing on one side which will minimize the impact and prevent wear out of robot parts.

1.3. Objective

1.3.1. Estimation

Which is carried out for the Mass of moment of inertia for the body (Ib) while the robot is in midair, and feeding it back to the system. that's is done By tow methods.

- a) By dealing with variation of Ib online and compensating for that by a method such as direct MRAC and ASMC, which will deal with changes of Ib online.
- b) By online estimating and feeding the estimate to a controller scheme.

1.3.2. Controller design

A controller that will respond in a part of a second. The controller job is to force the body angle to follow a reference of 30 degree. The controller needs to stable any initial condition from 0-18 degree.



Figure 1.3.1. Schematic of landing and taking off desired position for the robot.

Chapter 2. Jumping procedure

2.1. Step 1: The wings tighten together as much as it can (depending on the surface of landing).

Then the spring takes off to release the body to the air. Then happen step 2



Figure 2.1. Tighten wings as robot getting ready for jump

2.2. Step 2: when the robot reach maxmaim point in mid air. Wings open up allowing parachoputing for robot and delaying the landing, allowing maximum jumping period which leads to maxumim jumping length.



Figure 2.2. Robot in midair

2.3. Step 3: the robot gets ready to land with a 30 degree body angle, with the wings wide spread to make.



Figure 2.3. Robot getting down to land with 30 degree angle.

Chapter 3. Wings design:

The wings spreading and tightening is controlled by the spring at the bottom of the robot. The wings are tighten by the springs during compression, and then released to flat wings after 0.8 second in mid. Wings material should be made with a light material, and firm enough to resist wearing out during the process of spreading and tightening. A perfect material for the wings should be of light weight and flexible, a bat wings is excellent prototype.

Chapter 4: Modeling [5].



Figure 4.1 The schematic of the robot in the air. Modeling of the system

parameter	
mb	Body mass
mt	Tail mass
lb	Length of link BC
lt	Length of link AC
θb	Body angle with horizontal line.
θt	Tale angle with horizontal line
Ib	Body moment of inertia ;
It	Tail moment of inertia
Table 4.1 I	IST OF PARAMETERS FOR DYNAMICS MODELING

4.1 Robot Energies.

We use the energy to calculate the equation of motion for the robot.

4.1.1 Potential Energy

Potential energy is zero since robot is going back to same level after jump.

4.1.2 Kinetic Energy

$$\Psi = \frac{1}{2} [I_t \theta_t^2 + I_b \theta_b^2 + \frac{m_t m_b}{m_t + m_b} (l_t^2 \theta_t^2 + l_b^2 \theta_b^2 - 2l_t l_b \theta_t \theta_b \cos \theta_m)]$$

4.2. Lagrange EOM for Robot

It's used to calculate the equation of motions. The Potential energy of robot found to be zero as the robot is returning to the same level after jump. For example, if we take level zero to be robot at rest, and after robot landing to be level 2, then v = 0 - 0 = 0, that just interprets the robot is releasing all the giving power to a kinetic energy, and that leads us to the calculation of the kinetic energy

Since we want a one state to be controller, we can take the difference of the tail and the body as:

Defining $\theta_m = \theta_b - \theta_t$ actuator's rotation angle

Dynamics equation for the system as

$$M \overset{\bullet}{\theta_t} - L\cos\theta_m \overset{\bullet}{\theta_b} + L\sin\theta_m \overset{\bullet}{\theta_b}^2 = \tau \quad (1)$$
$$N \overset{\bullet}{\theta_b} - L\cos\theta_m \overset{\bullet}{\theta_t} - L\sin\theta_m \overset{\bullet}{\theta_t}^2 = -\tau \quad (2)$$

since we are concerned about the body angle θ_b we will use only one input τ , therefore our system is under actuated, we need only a dynamic equation in terms of θ_b , since that our controlled angle.

First, we solve the
$$\theta_t$$
 and θ_b from Eqs.(1) and (2)

$$\overset{\bullet}{\theta_t} = \frac{SL\theta_t^2 \cos \theta_m - SN\theta_b^2 + R\tau}{T} (3)$$

$$\overset{\bullet}{\theta_b} = \frac{SM \, \theta_t^2 - SL \, \theta_b^2 \cos \theta_m - Q\tau}{T} (4)$$

$$M = I_{t} + \frac{m_{t}m_{b}I_{t}^{2}}{m_{t} + m_{b}} \qquad \qquad N = I_{b} + \frac{m_{t}m_{b}I_{t}^{2}}{m_{t} + m_{b}}$$

$R = N - I \cos \theta$	$L = \frac{m_t m_b I_t I_b}{m_b I_t I_b}$
	$m_t + m_h$

$$Q = M - L\cos\theta_m \qquad \qquad S = L\sin\theta_m$$

 $T = MN - L^2 \cos^2 \theta_m$

,

From (3), (4) and $\theta_m = \theta_b - \theta_t$, we have:

$$\hat{\theta}_m = \frac{SQ\,\theta_t^2 - SR\,\theta_b^2}{T} - \frac{Q+R}{T}\,\tau(5)$$

Second, we utilize the conservation of angular momentum to eliminate both $\dot{\theta}_t$ and $\dot{\theta}_b$ in Eq. (5) by expressing them as function of $\dot{\theta}_m$

Angular momentum of the system:

$$H_0 = (M - L\cos\theta_m)\dot{\theta}_t + (N - L\cos\theta_m)\dot{\theta}_b$$

By assumption of zero angular momentum $H_0 = 0$

We can solve for θ_i and θ_b as follows:

$$\dot{\theta}_t = \frac{-R \dot{\theta}_m}{Q+R} (6)$$

$$\dot{\theta}_{b} = \frac{Q \dot{\theta}_{m}}{Q + R} (7)$$

Finally, plugging Eqs. (6) And (7) into (5), we can obtain:

$$\ddot{\theta}_{m} = \frac{QRS}{T(Q+R)} \dot{\theta}_{m}^{2} - \frac{Q+R}{T}u \qquad (8)$$

Solving for θ_b can result in the system output. $\theta_b = \int_0^t \frac{Q}{Q+R} \dot{\theta}_m dt + \theta_b(0)$

• $\theta_b(0)$ is the initial body angle.so, we can obtain the time to reach the desired angle θ_b^*

4.3. Dynamics equations

$$\ddot{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}_{m} = \frac{QRS}{T(Q+R)} \dot{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}_{m}^{2} - \frac{Q+R}{T} u$$
$$\boldsymbol{\Theta}_{b} = \int_{0}^{t} \frac{Q}{Q+R} \dot{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}_{m} dt + \boldsymbol{\Theta}_{b}(0)$$

4.4. Transformation

The transformation is carried out in order to facilitate the controller scheme, and it's transformed to the controller form realization.

Defining parameters as:

$$x_{1} = \theta_{m} \qquad x_{2} = \theta_{m} \qquad x_{3} = \theta_{b} \qquad y = x_{3}$$

$$\dot{x}_{1} = x_{2}, \quad \dot{x}_{2} = \frac{QRS}{T(Q+R)} x_{2}^{2} - \frac{Q+R}{T} u , \quad \dot{x}_{3} = \frac{Q}{Q+R} x_{3}$$

Chapter 5. Linearization

Linearizing the system around a desired operating points The challenge of such highly coupled nonlinear system is by linearizing the system around a useful operating points, by forcing all the system dynamics to zeros, we get $x^2 = 0$ u = 0.

So, x1 is free to choose, and x3 should be chosen to the constant we want the system to follow Our desired operating point chosen arbitrary for x1 = 1 $x3 = \frac{\pi}{6}$,

So operating point is $[x1 = 1 \quad x2 = 0 \quad x3 = \frac{\pi}{6} \quad u = 0]$

Before linearization: matrices A,B,C

$$f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & x^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{QRS}{T(Q+R)} & x^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{Q}{Q+R} & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad u = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -\frac{Q}{Q+R} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad , \qquad C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

After linearizing around desired operating points. The Jacobian would be:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f1}{\partial x1} & \frac{\partial f1}{\partial x2} & \frac{\partial f1}{\partial x3} \\ \frac{\partial f2}{\partial x1} & \frac{\partial f2}{\partial x2} & \frac{\partial f2}{\partial x3} \\ \frac{\partial f3}{\partial x1} & \frac{\partial f3}{\partial x2} & \frac{\partial f3}{\partial x3} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \end{bmatrix}$$

2. Taking nothing to be unknown.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1223}{2272} & 0 \end{bmatrix} , B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{-175661}{16} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Taking Ib to be unknown. $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $a = \frac{M-L}{M+N-2L}$

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} 0\\b\\0 \end{bmatrix} \quad , \quad b = \frac{-M+N-2L}{MN-L^2}$$

$$C = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

We notice the transfer function is not minimum real. So after cancelling out the repetitive zeros in the denominator, we ended up with second order system as minim relation.

$$tf = C [(SI - A)^{-1}]B = \frac{-ab}{s^2}$$

In order to make use of the system above, we have to limit our analysis to the region close to the operating points (equilibrium), and that just a disadvantage designing a controller using a linearized system, however, the good news is, if we linearized the system around certain operating point, the linear might behave like the nonlinear system and withstand variation of several initial conditions chosen. And that is our goal in designing and choosing the right controller for this system, we need to find a controller that can behave the same for any given initial input from 0-180 degree.

To make sure our linearization is correct. Down is the step for both nonlinear and linearized system and came out to be exactly the same.



Figure 5.1. Steps response of linear and nonlinear system

Linear Transfer function

- without unknown: $C [(SI - A)^{-1}]B = \frac{1.63e5}{s^2}$

- With unknown

$$C \left[(SI - A)^{-1} \right] B = \frac{4.32151 \times 10^{24} - 1.307277 \times 10^{31} \text{Ib}}{(1.0603 \times 10^{-7} + \text{Ib})^2 (1.09427 \times 10^{32} + 1 \times 10^{37} \text{Ib}) s^2}$$

Chapter 6 Estimation

6.1. Re-parameterization

The moment of inertia for the body changes with the change of the shape, when the wings open up in the midair, it causes Ib to change, and thus the overall moment of inertia will change, so we use estimation algorithm to capture the value of K online. We may take the moment of inertia for the body (It) as constant since the shape don't change as well as it is relatively small in compared to the body moment of inertia.

We notice Ib appear nonlinearly, we have to use re-parameterization for Ib since sign of Ib is known.

$$C [(SI - A)^{-1}]B = \frac{-K}{s^2}$$

$$K = -\frac{4.3215 \times 10^{24} - 1.30727 \times 10^{31} \text{Ib}}{(1.06032 \times 10^{-7} + \text{Ib})^2 (1.09427 \times 10^{32} + 1.\text{e}37 \text{Ib})}$$

Treating K as the unknown parameter (θ)

For estimation to be true, K has always to keep the same sign with the changes of Ib. we found a valid set for Ib for estimation of parameter K to be estimated correctly, otherwise if the sign of K is not known, adaptive problem become very complicated.

Value of Ib for K to be correctly estimated.

Root of $K = 3.30574x10^{-7}$ Region of validity for $Ib > 3.30574x10^{-7}$

6.2. Gradient Algorithm.

Gradient algorithm is used to generate K on-line.

6.2.1.Gradient without protection.

$$\frac{y}{u} = \frac{-k}{s^2} \rightarrow \frac{ys^2}{s^2 + s + 1} = \frac{-k u}{s^2 + s + 1} \rightarrow \theta = [K] , \ \phi = [\frac{-u}{s^2 + s + 1}] \rightarrow$$
$$z = \theta^T \phi$$
$$\dot{K} = \Gamma \varepsilon \phi , \ \varepsilon = z - \hat{z} = z - \theta^{*T} \phi , \ \Gamma > 0 ,$$

Note: We only require ϕ to be rich of at least order 2 to guarantee convergence of the unknown parameter.



Figure 6.2.1.1. Estimation without projection.



Figure 6.2.1.2. Tracking, without projection

6.2.2. Gradient with protection

In estimation of a parameters online, we use projection to ensure the estimate lay within bounded desired values. Sometime the algorithm runs under certain conditions that make the estimate drift away or result in an unwanted, with the prior knowledge of the unknown parameters, and knowing the upper and lower bound, we can generate the desired estimate using those bounds and forcing the estimate to be within the bounds. We use projection to limit \hat{K} within bounds

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{K} &= \Gamma \varepsilon \phi & \text{if } 0 < Ib > 3.30574 \text{x} 10^{-7} \\ \dot{K} &= 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{bmatrix}$$

For simulation: Taking K = -1.63e5

Simulink model is included in appendix A



Figure 6.2.2.2. Tracking is not maintained

Noting that in estimation with projection is always a tradeoff between desired tracking and desired estimation; however in our purpose of estimation, we only wanted a true estimate of the unknown parameter.

Chapter 7. Designing controller

Since we want to control only the body pitch angle, we need at least one control input to control the motor. The body angle is moving through the angle of the tail, by maneuvering the tail in way which result in the desired angle for the body, this procedure seen exactly in the slow motion of a jumping gecko[2].

Designing controller by:

7.1.MRAC
7.2.APPC
7.3.PD
7.4.SMC
7.5.ASMC

7.1. Designing controller by MRAC:

For MRAC to work, the model reference has to be a monic of order one. And our reference constant is of order zero, so we needed to multiply the constant of order zero with a filter of order 1 in order to satisfy the scheme conditions.





Figure 7.1.2. Tracking error

7.2. Designing controller by APPC

Objective: $x_3 = \theta_b$ to follow a reference of 30 degree within desired SPEC.

- Desired controller SPEC:
 - a) Overshoot < 5%, $\zeta = 0.7$. $\rightarrow \theta = 45 \ degree$
 - b) Settling time $\leq 2 \text{ sec.}$

Using gradient algorithm to estimate unknown (K)

- Estimation of unknown (K)

Gradient algorithm is used to generate K on-line.

$$\frac{y}{u} = \frac{-k}{s^2} \quad \bigstar \quad \frac{ys^2}{s^2 + s + 1} = \frac{-k u}{s^2 + s + 1} \Rightarrow \theta = [K] \quad \phi = \left[\frac{-u}{s^2 + s + 1}\right] \quad \bigstar \quad z = \theta^T \phi$$

$$\dot{K} = \Gamma \varepsilon \phi$$
, $\varepsilon = z - \hat{z} = z - \theta^{*T} \phi$, $\Gamma > 0$

We use projection to limit \widehat{K} within bounds

Gradient with projection :

We use projection to limit within bounds

We can choose desired dominant poles to be -2 + 2j, -2 - 2j and the other two poles to be atleast 10 times far to the left as shown below:



Figure 7.2.1.Schematic diagram of desired pole placement.

Overall controller is:



Figure 7.2.2. APPC controller using simulink blocks.



Figure 7.2.3.Control effort. Using APPC



Figure 7.2.4. Output response



Multi reference testing for the nonlinear system. The output response is the same



7.3. Designing controller by PD

The main disadvantage of existence design procedures of PI or PID controllers are that the desired transient performances in the closed-loop system cannot be guaranteed in the presence of nonlinear plant parameter variations and unknown external disturbances [7].

PID don't deal with unmolded dynamics or time delay in feedback loop, so the effect of unmolded dynamics and time delay transient stability should be taken into account in order to take into account of controller parameters, this put the main restriction on the practical implementation of the controller design.

After we linearized the system into a linear form. We fed the error between the output (θ b) and a constant reference of 30 degree to a PID controller to improve the transient respond as well as to produce zero steady state error. We found that PID is a great controller for only an ideal environment. PID controller can't deal with Uncertainties and variation of parameters.



Figure 7.3.1. PD scheme desgin

Tuning using Simulink tuner. .

Kp = 0.9, Kd = 5



Figure 7.3.2. output response, reaching 30 degree in 0.5 sec



Figure 7.3.3. control effort to reach a 30 degree reference



Figure 7.3.4. Multi intial conditions testing



Figure 7.3.5. Control effort for multi initial conditions.

7.4. Designing slide mode controller

Sliding mode controller deal with uncertainty much better than any controller [8]. It can take all the variation in parameters, with right high feedback gain chosen; it can result in a very good output response. One trick here is sliding mode controller should always be designed for the minimal realization, as it get complicated with the error differentiation. Although we represented our system as third order, but in reality after zero pole cancelation, the system is just second order. The complexity of feedback can always be simplified using sliding mode controller, and that by breaking the system coupling into low reduced order components.

Two cases for Ib :

Ib is perfectly known as in the case of fixed Ib. then SMC is:

$$\ddot{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}_{m} = \frac{QRS}{T(Q+R)} \dot{\boldsymbol{\Theta}}_{m}^{2} - \frac{Q+R}{T} u$$
$$\hat{f} = \frac{QRS}{T(Q+R)}$$
$$\hat{g} = \frac{-Q+R}{T}$$

Defining error as

$$e = x3 - xd, \qquad xd = 30$$

Defining sliding surface as

$$s = e^{\cdot} + e = \dot{x}3 + x3 - xd$$

$$s = \left(\frac{Q}{Q+R}\right) x^2 + x^3 - xd$$
$$\dot{s} = \ddot{e} + \dot{e} = \dot{x}^3 + \dot{x}^3$$
$$\dot{Q} = L\sin(x1)x^2$$

$$\dot{R} = L \sin(x1) x2$$
 , $\dot{Q} = \dot{R} = x$

$$\ddot{x3} = \left[\frac{R \ x - Qx}{(Q+R)^2}\right] x2 + \left[\frac{Q}{Q+R}\right] \left[\frac{QRS}{T(Q+R)} x2^2 - \left[\frac{Q+R}{T}\right] u\right]$$
$$\dot{s} = \ddot{x3} + \dot{x3} = 0$$
$$\left[\frac{R \ x - Qx}{(Q+R)^2}\right] x2 + \left[\frac{Q}{Q+R}\right] \left[\frac{QRS}{T(Q+R)} x2^2 - \left[\frac{Q+R}{T}\right] u\right] + \left[\frac{Q}{Q+R}\right] x2 = 0$$

$$U = g(x)^{-1} - [f(x) + k \, sgn(s)]$$

$$u = \left[\frac{-T}{Q}\right] - \left(\left[\frac{R \ x - Qx}{(Q+R)^2}\right] x^2 + \left[\frac{Q}{Q+R}\right] \left[\frac{QRS}{T(Q+R)} x^2\right] + \left[\frac{Q}{Q+R}\right] x^2 + k1 \ sgn(s)\right)$$

Taking lyapunov function candidate as:

$$V = \frac{1}{2}s^{2}, k1 > 0 , v(0) = 0, v > 0$$
$$\dot{V} = \dot{s}s$$
$$\dot{V} = \left\{ \left[\frac{R x - Qx}{(Q+R)^{2}} \right] x2 + \left[\frac{Q}{Q+R} \right] \left[\frac{QRS}{T(Q+R)} x2^{2} - \left[\frac{Q+R}{T} \right] u \right] + \left[\frac{Q}{Q+R} \right] x2 \right\}.s$$

Plugging in u in \dot{v}

To eliminate the chattering in the controller, we choose a saturation function, that will behave as high slop from $-\Box$ to \Box and saturate with constant value anywhere outside the sett $[-\Box, \Box]$ with constant value of 1 *or* -1 *acording to* [8]



Figure 7.4.1. Signum nonlinearity function, replaced by approximation function. . Choosing ε small enough can result in more precise set.

The overall control law is:

$$u = \left[\frac{-T}{Q}\right] - \left(\left[\frac{R \ x - Qx}{(Q+R)^2}\right] x^2 + \left[\frac{Q}{Q+R}\right] \left[\frac{QRS}{T(Q+R)} x^{2^2}\right]\right) - k1 \text{ sat } \left(\frac{S}{\varepsilon}\right)$$

If we choose k1 large enough to overcome the nonlinearities in the controller. We found out the right gain is 1081.

For simulation

ε=0.001,

k1=1081.7



Figure 7.4.2 Scheme of SMC





Figure 7.4.4. output response, reaching 30 degree in 0.5 sec.



Figure 7.4.5. Ttracking of desired response

7.5. Designing ASMC

If Ib is totally not known. Then ,we use adaptive sliding mode controller.

Taking control input as

$$u = \left[\frac{-T}{Q}\right] - \left(\left[\frac{R \ x - Qx}{(Q+R)^2}\right] x^2 + \left[\frac{Q}{Q+R}\right] \left[\frac{QRS}{T(Q+R)} x^2\right]\right) - \hat{k}^2 \operatorname{sat}(\frac{S}{E})$$

the adaption law is :

$$\hat{\mathbf{k}}2 = \Gamma|s|, \Gamma > 0,$$

ASMC simulation :

$$\Gamma = 1.3e3$$
,
 $\epsilon = 0.001$,

Since we re tracking a reference

$$Ym = \frac{30}{s+30}$$

Simulation results below:



Figure 7.4.6. Tracking response for multi initial condition



Figure 7.4.7. Error for multi initial conditions. (pi, $\frac{\text{pi}}{2}$, $\frac{\text{pi}}{3}$, $\frac{\text{pi}}{5}$, $\frac{\text{pi}}{6}$, $\frac{\text{pi}}{8}$, $\frac{\text{pi}}{10}$)



Figure 7.4.8. Control effort bounded.

Chapter 8. Conclusion

8.1. Comparison of controllers.

After designing controller, one cannot really predict the behavior of the controller unless the controller is subject to several tests such as ability to reject disturbance, or become robust to uncertainties.



8.1.1 Disturbance rejection test

Figure 8.1.1.1. APPC versus PID 0.1 noise power



Figure 8.1.1.2 APPC versus PID noise power 1



Figure 8.1.1.3. SMC versus PD, for noise power 0.0001

1



Figure 8.1.1.4 SMC versus PID noise power 0.001



8.1.2 Uncertainties rejection test



Figure 8.1.2..2 SMC response alone.

8.1.3 Summary

Looking back at the different controllers, we found out that the PID isn't perfect for none deal environment, it might give great results for simulation, however in reality the case is different where is lots of variations in parameters and uncertainties, so we excluded PD.

Looking at APPC, which is in a way suitable for nonlinear system, however we found that the speed of adaption is much slower than the speed of the controller (PPC), in way that delay the settling time for the nonlinear system, another issue for APPC is that some intimal conditions can blow up the output response and that is discovered by trying different initial conditions, as the system has singularity at T=0, so we may take APPC, but not for a general case.

Looking at MRAC, choosing the right model reference is a great deal for a fast adaptation. But the same problem has accrued here with APPC, since we are looking for a reasonably fast response as the robot is in midair, we are looking for a part of a second. And using a model reference for MRAC has to be monic of order one, which delays the speed of adaption even more than APPC, so same case of MRAC for APPC.

Looking at sliding mode control, it's so far the best in terms of dealing with uncertainties, and unmolded dynamics. The speed of adaption is reasonably fast as the absolute value of the sliding surface is chosen somewhere close to 1 and with the value of the gain gama, that will ever boost it to a desired value, adding into account also the value of the feedback gain (k) may contribute to the overall process by canceling out nonlinearities and fasten up the output response.

We recommend adaptive sliding mode controller as the most efficient controller in dealing with varying system parameters and system uncertainties.

8.2. Contribution to MSU jumper Robot.

I have contributed to the MSU jumping robot project by designing an adaptive efficient controller which estimate online the mass of moment of inertia for body before landing, and feeding the estimate to a controller. Also, I have prolonged the jumping period, which lead to prolonging the length of jump with the same power provided to MSU jumping robot.

8.3. Results of new schematic design

Spreading out wings in midair maximize drag force. Just like a parachute. The robot dose glides and then parachute by spreading out wings.

- 1- Enabling wings maximizing the length of each jump for same given power.
- 2- Wings facilitate the landing process.

8.4. Future work

1- A three dimensional controller of a glider, as in the case of flying dragon



Figure 8.4.1. Left to right: Weigeltosaurus, Icarosaurus, and Draco.[9]

Design of the tail and the wings. More flexible to impact surface.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

[1]. Doyoung Chang; Donghun Son; TaeWon Seo; Woochul Nam; Dongsu Jeon; Jongwon Kim, "Kinematics-based gait planning of a quadruped gecko-like model," *Robotics and Biomimetics* (*ROBIO*), 2009 IEEE International Conference on, vol., no., pp.233,238, 19-23 Dec. 2009

[2]. Chang-Siu, E.; Libby, T.; Tomizuka, M.; Full, R.J., "A lizard-inspired active tail enables rapid maneuvers and dynamic stabilization in a terrestrial robot," *Intelligent Robots and Systems (IROS), 2011 IEEE/RSJ International Conference on*, vol., no., pp.1887,1894, 25-30 Sept. 2011.

[3].Xin-Sheng Ge; Qi-Zhi Zhang, "Optimal Control of Nonholonomic Motion Planning for a Free-Falling Cat," *Innovative Computing, Information and Control, 2006. ICICIC '06. First International Conference on*, vol.2, no., pp.599,602, Aug. 30 2006-Sept. 1 2006

[4]. http://www.bostondynamics.com/img/SandFlea%20Datasheet%20v1_0.pdf

[5]. Jianguo Zhao, Tianyu Zhao, Ning Xi, Fernando J. Cintr´on, Matt W. Mutka, and Li Xiao 'Controlling Aerial Maneuvering of a Miniature Jumping Robot Using Its Tail'

[7]. Valery D. Yurkevich (2011). PI/PID Control for Nonlinear Systems via Singular Perturbation Technique, Advances in PID Control, Dr. Valery D. Yurkevich (Ed.), ISBN: 978-953-307-267-8, InTech, Availablefrom:http://www.intechopen.com/books/advances-in-pid-control/pi-pid-control-for-nonlinear-systems-via-singularperturbation-technique.

[8]. Khalil, H.K. (2002). Nonlinear Systems, 3rd ed., Upper Saddle River, N.J. : Prentice Hall, ISBN0130673897.

[9]. Padian, K. 1985. The origins and aerodynamics of flight in extinct vertebrates. *Palaeontology* 28(3): 413-433.