

# Robotics II

January 11, 2018

## Exercise 1

The RP planar robot in Fig. 1, with coordinates  $\mathbf{q} = (q_1, q_2)$  and parameters  $m_2$ ,  $d_{c2}$ ,  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  defined therein, should execute a task defined by a time-varying trajectory  $y_d(t) \in \mathbb{R}$  for the height of its end-effector.

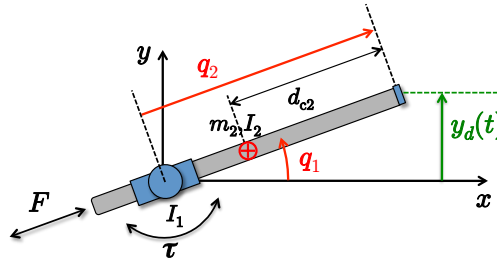


Figure 1: A RP planar robot with the relevant parameters and variables.

Assuming as input command the joint velocity  $\dot{\mathbf{q}} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ , determine the explicit expressions of the kinematic control laws that execute the task in nominal conditions, recover exponentially from any task error, and

- minimize  $\frac{1}{2} \|\dot{\mathbf{q}}\|^2$ : which is the theoretical pitfall of this solution?
- minimize the weighted norm  $\frac{1}{2} \dot{\mathbf{q}}^T \mathbf{W} \dot{\mathbf{q}}$ , with constant  $\mathbf{W} = \text{diag}\{w_1, w_2\} > 0$ ; what happens for very large ratios  $w_1/w_2$  (in the limit  $\rightarrow \infty$ ); and for  $w_2/w_1 \rightarrow \infty$ ?
- minimize the kinetic energy  $T = \frac{1}{2} \dot{\mathbf{q}}^T \mathbf{M}(\mathbf{q}) \dot{\mathbf{q}}$ , being  $\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{q}) > 0$  the robot inertia matrix.

## Exercise 2

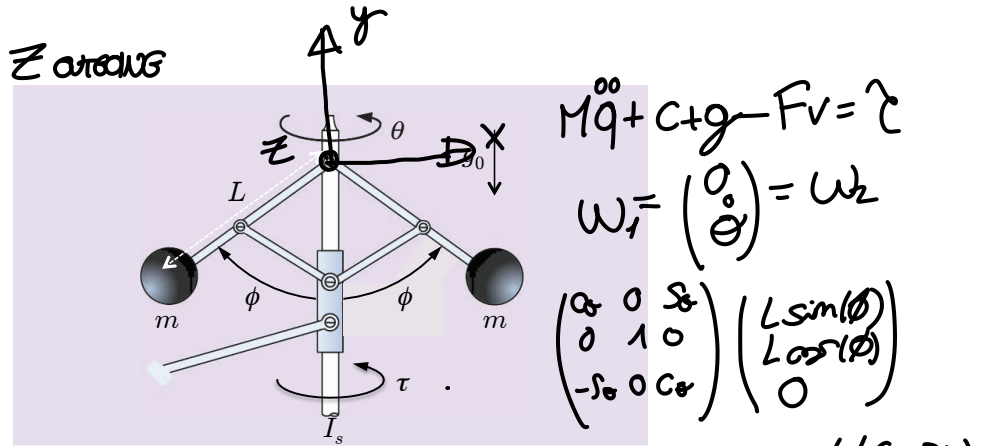


Figure 2: The Boulton-Watt governor and a scheme with definition of parameters and variables.

Figure 2 shows a picture and a simplified scheme of the famous Boulton-Watt centrifugal governor, a system invented to regulate the rotational speed of a steam engine by a mechanical leverage (feedback) opening a valve that provides steam under pressure to the engine. We consider here only the so-called *open-loop* dynamic behavior of the system, under the action of an external torque  $\tau \in \mathbb{R}$  applied to the main rotating shaft.

Handwritten notes and equations:

$$T_{1H} = \frac{1}{2} m_1 \|\dot{x}\|^2 = T_{2H} = \frac{1}{2} m_2 \|\dot{x}\|^2$$

$$T_S = \frac{1}{2} I_S \dot{\theta}^2 \rightarrow \text{FOR THE SHAFT}$$

OTHER WAY OF SEEING IT

$$T_{1H} = T_{\text{ROTATION AROUND } y} + T_{\text{ROTATION AROUND } z}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} m (L \sin(\phi) \dot{\theta})^2 \quad \frac{1}{2} m (L \dot{\phi})^2$$

$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{r} \cdot \boldsymbol{\omega}$

Assume that:

- the main shaft has an inertia  $I_s$  around its rotation axis
- the two balls have identical mass  $m$  that is concentrated at the end of a link of length  $L$
- the links and all other linkages have negligible masses
- a viscous friction torque with coefficient  $f_v > 0$  is acting on the main shaft
- all other frictional effects are negligible.

Derive the complete dynamic model of this system using a Lagrangian formalism. Assuming knowledge of the geometric parameter  $L$ , provide a linear parametrization of the dynamics in terms of its dynamic coefficients. Find the value of the constant torque  $\tau_\Omega$  to be applied for sustaining a steady-state rotation at a given angular speed  $\Omega > 0$ . Finally, design a nonlinear feedback for  $\tau$  so as to achieve partial feedback linearization of the system, i.e., exact linearization by feedback of only part of the closed-loop dynamics, in this case of one of the two coordinates.

### Exercise 3

Consider the design of impedance control laws and force control laws for the 1-dof example, shown in Fig. 3, namely a single mass  $m$  that moves on a frictionless horizontal plane under the action of a commanded force  $f \in \mathbb{R}$  and of a contact force  $f_c \in \mathbb{R}$ .

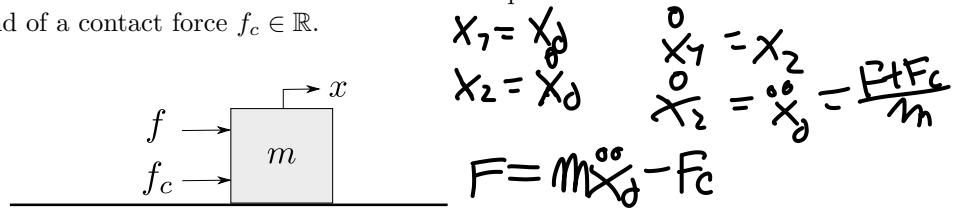


Figure 3: A mass  $m$  subject to a commanded force  $f$  and a contact force  $f_c$ .

In particular:

- The impedance controllers should work with a generic time-varying, smooth position reference  $x_d(t)$ , either with or without the use of a load cell that can measure the contact force  $f_c$ . Illustrate the properties of the obtained closed-loop systems.
- What happens when  $x_d(t)$  degenerates to a constant? What happens during free motion, when  $f_c = 0$ ?
- For  $m = 5$  [kg], design the control parameters of the impedance law so that the dynamics of the position error  $e = x_d - x$  in the closed-loop system is characterized by a pair of asymptotically stable complex poles with natural frequency  $\omega_n = 10$  [rad/s] and critical damping ratio  $\zeta = 0.7071$ .
- On the other hand, the force controllers should be able to regulate the (measured) contact force  $f_c$  to a constant value  $f_d$ , using any combination of desired force feedforward and force error feedback. Illustrate the properties of the obtained closed-loop systems.
- What happens during free motion, when  $f_c = 0$  and a constant contact force  $f_d$  is desired?

[150 minutes; open books]

# Solution

January 11, 2018

## Exercise 1

The problem deals with kinematic redundancy since the RP robot has  $n = 2$  joints and the required task is scalar  $m = 1$ . The task output function and its Jacobian are

$$y(\mathbf{q}) = q_2 \sin q_1, \quad \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{q}) = \frac{\partial y(\mathbf{q})}{\partial \mathbf{q}} = \begin{pmatrix} q_2 \cos q_1 & \sin q_1 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (1)$$

The  $1 \times 2$  task Jacobian loses rank (vanishes) iff  $q_1 = \{0, \pi\}$  and  $q_2 = 0$  simultaneously.

The minimization of the squared norm of  $\dot{\mathbf{q}}$  is achieved by the use of the pseudoinverse of the task Jacobian. Out of singularities,  $\mathbf{J}^\# = \mathbf{J}^T(\mathbf{J}\mathbf{J}^T)^{-1}$  and the kinematic control law takes the expression

$$\dot{\mathbf{q}} = \mathbf{J}^\#(\mathbf{q}) (\dot{y}_d + k(y_d - y(\mathbf{q}))) = \frac{1}{s_1^2 + q_2^2 c_1^2} \begin{pmatrix} q_2 c_1 \\ s_1 \end{pmatrix} (\dot{y}_d + k(y_d - q_2 \sin q_1)), \quad (2)$$

where  $k > 0$  is a control gain that guarantees exponential recovery from transient errors, i.e.,  $\dot{e}(t) = -ke(t)$ , with  $e = y_d - q_2 \sin q_1 \neq 0$ , during task execution. The pitfall of (2) is that the norm  $\|\dot{\mathbf{q}}\|$  involves mixed angular (the revolute joint velocity  $\dot{q}_1$ ) and linear (the prismatic joint velocity  $\dot{q}_2$ ) quantities, so its straight minimization is ill-defined conceptually. In fact, the denominator in (2) contains the sum of a non-dimensional term ( $s_1^2$ ) and of a term with (squared) length units. Stated differently, changing the representing units (e.g., from 1 m to 100 cm) will change the ‘optimal’ solution.

The minimization of the weighted norm  $\frac{1}{2} \dot{\mathbf{q}}^T \mathbf{W} \dot{\mathbf{q}}$ , leading to weighted pseudoinversion of the task Jacobian, may solve this theoretical issue. In particular, the units of the (positive) elements in the diagonal of  $\mathbf{W}$  can be used to make terms non-dimensional (e.g., by choosing  $w_1$  in (squared) length units). Out of singularities,  $\mathbf{J}_\mathbf{W}^\# = \mathbf{W}^{-1} \mathbf{J}^T (\mathbf{J} \mathbf{W}^{-1} \mathbf{J}^T)^{-1}$  and the kinematic control law takes the expression

$$\dot{\mathbf{q}} = \mathbf{J}_\mathbf{W}^\#(\mathbf{q}) (\dot{y}_d + k(y_d - y(\mathbf{q}))) = \frac{1}{\frac{q_2^2 c_1^2}{w_1} + \frac{s_1^2}{w_2}} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{q_2 c_1}{w_1} \\ \frac{s_1}{w_2} \end{pmatrix} (\dot{y}_d + k(y_d - q_2 \sin q_1)), \quad (3)$$

with  $k > 0$  as before. Indeed, different values of the weights  $w_1$  and  $w_2$  will lead to different joint velocity solutions. It is easy to verify that is the relative ratio between  $w_1$  and  $w_2$  that really matters. For very large ratios  $w_1/w_2$ , the cost of moving the (revolute) joint 1 will be dominant and therefore the solution (3) will tend to minimize its motion while performing the task. In the limit, when  $w_1 \rightarrow \infty$ , it follows from (3) that  $\dot{q}_1 \rightarrow 0$ , while  $\dot{q}_2 \propto 1/s_1$ : therefore, executing the task will become more and more problematic as the second link gets closer to the horizontal. Similarly, for  $w_2/w_1 \rightarrow \infty$  the second (prismatic) joint will be very expensive to move, while  $\dot{q}_1 \propto 1/q_2 c_1$ : the control effort will increase dramatically when the second link is close to being vertical ( $c_1 \simeq 0$ ) and/or fully retracted ( $q_2 \simeq 0$ ).

For the third objective, we need first to derive the inertia matrix of the RP robot. From the expression of the kinetic energy  $T = T_1 + T_2$ , with

$$T_1 = \frac{1}{2} I_1 \dot{q}_1^2, \quad T_2 = \frac{1}{2} m_2 \left\| \frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} (q_2 - d_{c2}) \cos q_1 \\ (q_2 - d_{c2}) \sin q_1 \end{pmatrix} \right\|^2 + \frac{1}{2} I_2 \dot{q}_1^2 = \frac{1}{2} (I_2 + m_2 (q_2 - d_{c2})^2) \dot{q}_1^2 + \frac{1}{2} m_2 \dot{q}_2^2,$$

we obtain a diagonal inertia matrix as  $[kgm^2]$

$$\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{q}) = \begin{pmatrix} I_1 + I_2 + m_2(q_2 - d_{c2})^2 & 0 \\ 0 & m_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} m_{11}(q_2) & 0 \\ 0 & m_{22} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (4)$$

The minimization of the kinetic energy  $T$  is then a special case of a weighted pseudoinversion of the task Jacobian, with one weight being configuration dependent. Thus, out of singularities, the inertia-weighted kinematic control law takes the expression

$$\dot{\mathbf{q}} = \mathbf{J}_M^\#(\mathbf{q}) (\dot{y}_d + k(y_d - y(\mathbf{q}))) = \frac{1}{\frac{q_2^2 c_1^2}{m_{11}(q_2)} + \frac{s_1^2}{m_{22}}} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{q_2 c_1}{m_{11}(q_2)} \\ \frac{s_1}{m_{22}} \end{pmatrix} (\dot{y}_d + k(y_d - q_2 \sin q_1)). \quad (5)$$

$kgm^2 \leftarrow$

Note that the two addends in the first denominator have both consistent units of  $[kg^{-1}]$ .

## Exercise 2

Let  $\mathbf{q} = (\theta, \phi)$ . Following a Lagrangian approach, under the given assumptions, we compute the kinetic energy  $T = T_s + 2T_m$  for the main shaft and the two equal balls. We have

$$T_s = \frac{1}{2} I_s \dot{\theta}^2, \quad T_m = \frac{1}{2} mL^2 (\dot{\phi}^2 + \dot{\theta}^2 \sin^2 \phi),$$

and thus the diagonal inertia matrix

$$\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{q}) = \begin{pmatrix} I_s + 2mL^2 \sin^2 \phi & 0 \\ 0 & 2mL^2 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (6)$$

Using the Christoffel symbols, the Coriolis and centrifugal terms are easily computed from (6) as

$$\mathbf{c}(\mathbf{q}, \dot{\mathbf{q}}) = \begin{pmatrix} 4mL^2 \sin \phi \cos \phi \dot{\theta} \dot{\phi} \\ -2mL^2 \sin \phi \cos \phi \dot{\theta}^2 \end{pmatrix} = mL^2 \sin(2\phi) \begin{pmatrix} 2 \dot{\theta} \dot{\phi} \\ -\dot{\theta}^2 \end{pmatrix} \quad (7)$$

For the potential energy due to gravity,  $U = U_s + 2U_m$ , we have (up to a constant)

$$U_s = 0, \quad U_m = -mg_0 L \cos \phi,$$

and thus

$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{q}) = \left( \frac{\partial U(\mathbf{q})}{\partial \mathbf{q}} \right)^T = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 2mg_0 L \sin \phi \end{pmatrix}. \quad (8)$$

Including also viscous friction on the main shaft, the dynamic equations are

$$\begin{aligned} (I_s + 2mL^2 \sin^2 \phi) \ddot{\theta} + 4mL^2 \sin \phi \cos \phi \dot{\theta} \dot{\phi} + f_v \dot{\theta} &= \tau \\ 2mL^2 \ddot{\phi} - 2mL^2 \sin \phi \cos \phi \dot{\theta}^2 + 2mg_0 L \sin \phi &= 0. \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

Assuming knowledge of the geometric parameter  $L$ , equation (9) can be expressed in the linearly parametrized form

$$\begin{pmatrix} \ddot{\theta} & 2L^2 \sin^2 \phi \ddot{\theta} + 2L^2 \sin(2\phi) \dot{\theta} \dot{\phi} & \dot{\theta} \\ 0 & 2L^2 \ddot{\phi} - L^2 \sin(2\phi) \dot{\theta}^2 + 2g_0 L \sin \phi & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_s \\ m \\ f_v \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{Y}(\mathbf{q}, \dot{\mathbf{q}}, \ddot{\mathbf{q}}) \boldsymbol{\pi} = \begin{pmatrix} \tau \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad (10)$$

with the vector  $\pi \in \mathbb{R}^3$  of dynamic coefficients.

In a steady-state equilibrium with constant angular velocity  $\dot{\theta} = \Omega > 0$ , we have  $\ddot{\theta} = 0$  and  $\ddot{\phi} = \dot{\phi} = 0$ . This yields from (9)

$$\tau_\Omega = f_v \Omega, \quad L \sin \phi \cos \phi \Omega^2 + g_0 \sin \phi = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \cos \phi_e = \frac{g_0}{L \Omega^2}. \quad (11)$$

The input torque  $\tau_\Omega$  has to compensate just for the energy loss due to friction, in order to keep a uniform motion via constant angular velocity. Moreover, the equilibrium angle  $\phi_e$  results from the balance of the gravity force and the centrifugal force. Its value increases (in the range  $(0, \pi/2)$ ) together with  $\Omega$ .

Finally, by applying the nonlinear feedback law

$$\tau = (I_s + 2mL^2 \sin^2 \phi) a + 4mL^2 \sin \phi \cos \phi \dot{\theta} \dot{\phi} + f_v \dot{\theta} \quad (12)$$

where  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  is the new control input (an acceleration), system (9) is transformed into

$$\begin{aligned} \ddot{\theta} &= a \\ \ddot{\phi} - \sin \phi \cos \phi \dot{\theta}^2 + \frac{g_0}{L} \sin \phi &= 0. \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

The dynamics of  $\theta$  is now exactly linear (a double integrator), while partial control of the motion of  $\phi$  can be achieved only through the centrifugal term in the second equation, being  $\dot{\theta}^2 = \left(\int a dt\right)^2$ .

### Exercise 3

The dynamic equation of the system in Fig. 3 is

$$m\ddot{x} = f + f_c. \quad (14)$$

*Impedance control.* The so-called inverse dynamics control law becomes in this simple case

$$f = ma - f_c, \quad (15)$$

and transforms system (14) into the double integrator

$$\ddot{x} = a. \quad (16)$$

The auxiliary input  $a$  has to be designed so that the controlled mass  $m$ , under the action of the contact force  $f_c$ , matches the behavior of an impedance model characterized by a desired (apparent) mass  $m_d > 0$ , desired damping  $k_d > 0$ , and desired stiffness  $k_p > 0$ , all acting with respect to a smooth motion reference  $x_d(t)$ , or

$$m_d (\ddot{x} - \ddot{x}_d) + k_d (\dot{x} - \dot{x}_d) + k_p (x - x_d) = f_c. \quad (17)$$

Equating  $\ddot{x}$  in (16) and in the reference behavior (17), solving for  $a$  and substituting in (15) yields the control force

$$f = \frac{m}{m_d} (\ddot{x}_d + k_d (\dot{x}_d - \dot{x}) + k_p (x_d - x)) + \left(\frac{m}{m_d} - 1\right) f_c. \quad (18)$$

The feedback law (18) requires in general a measure of the contact force  $f_c$ .

In the reference model (17), the position error  $e = x_d - x$  does not converge to zero if there is a contact force  $f_c$ . Otherwise,  $e$  will asymptotically go to zero —indeed exponentially, in view of the linearity of the system dynamics. In particular, for  $k_d^2 < 4k_p m_d$ , the obtained second-order linear system (17) is characterized by a pair of asymptotically stable complex poles with natural frequency and damping ratio given by

$$\omega_n = \sqrt{\frac{k_p}{m_d}}, \quad \zeta = \frac{k_d}{2\sqrt{k_p m_d}}. \quad (19)$$

Reducing the desired mass  $m_d$ , for given values of stiffness and damping, will increase both the natural frequency  $\omega_n$  and the damping ratio  $\zeta$ , and thus improve transients. On the other hand, for a given mass  $m_d$ , an increase of the stiffness  $k_p$  should be accompanied by an increase of the damping  $k_d$  in order to prevent more oscillatory transients. If the desired mass equals the natural (original) mass, i.e.,  $m_d = m$ , a measure of the contact force  $f_c$  is no longer needed in the impedance controller (18).

Wishing to achieve  $\omega_n = 10$  and  $\zeta = 0.7071 = 1/\sqrt{2}$ , equations (19) provide

$$k_p = 100 m_d, \quad k_d = 10\sqrt{2} m_d, \quad \text{for any } m_d > 0. \quad (20)$$

Being  $m = 5$  [kg], if we take in particular  $m_d = m = 5$ , we obtain as gains

$$k_p = 500, \quad k_d = 50\sqrt{2} = 70.71, \quad (21)$$

and a measure of  $f_c$  will not be needed.

In regulation tasks (with  $x_d(t) = x_d = \text{constant}$ ), by choosing again  $m_d = m$ , the control law 18) collapses to just a PD action on the position error  $e$ ,

$$f = k_p (x_d - x) - k_d \dot{x}. \quad (22)$$

This scheme is also called *compliance control*, since the main design parameter left is the desired stiffness  $k_p$ . Also in this case, the system will converge to  $x = x_d$  if (and only if) there is no contact force. With  $f_c \neq 0$  but constant, the position  $x_e \neq x_d$  that satisfies

$$k_p (x_d - x_e) + f_c = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x_e = x_d + \frac{f_c}{k_p} \quad (23)$$

will be an asymptotically (exponentially) stable closed-loop equilibrium, as can be possibly checked with the Lyapunov candidate  $V = \frac{1}{2}m\dot{x}^2 + \frac{1}{2}k_p(x - x_e)^2 \geq 0$  (using in this case LaSalle theorem for the analysis).

*Force control.* If we desire to regulate explicitly the contact force to a desired constant value  $f_d$ , it is necessary to build a force error  $e_f = f_d - f_c$  into the control law. After using (15), define the auxiliary input  $a$  as

$$a = \frac{1}{m_d} (k_f (f_d - f_c) - k_d \dot{x}), \quad (24)$$

with force error gain  $k_f > 0$  and velocity damping coefficient  $k_d > 0$ . The associated control force is then

$$f = \frac{m}{m_d} (k_f (f_d - f_c) - k_d \dot{x}) - f_c. \quad (25)$$

A contact force measure is needed in this case, even if we choose  $m_d = m$ . The closed-loop system becomes

$$m_d \ddot{x} + k_d \dot{x} = k_f (f_d - f_c). \quad (26)$$

During free motion, i.e., as long as  $f_c = 0$ , the mass will eventually move at the constant speed  $\dot{x}_e = k_f f_d / k_d$ . Therefore, the gain  $k_d$  can be tuned so as to keep this speed low (say, during an approaching phase before contacting a hard environment).

An analysis of the general behavior of system (26) for  $f_c \neq 0$  is impossible without assigning a model that describes the source of the contact force  $f_c$ . Even if we can measure it, as assumed when designing (25), we do not know the evolution of this disturbance nor can impose a desired behavior to it. Should the force error  $e_f$  converge to zero at steady state, it follows from eq. (26) that also the mass velocity  $\dot{x}$  would go to zero. However, the position  $x_e$  reached at the equilibrium would depend on the actual history of the external contact force (see an example in Appendix).

Assume then that contact forces are generated by a compliant environment with stiffness  $k_c > 0$ , placed beyond the (undeformed) position  $x = x_c > 0$ . Then, the model for the reaction force of the environment is

$$f_e = \begin{cases} -k_c(x - x_c), & \text{for } x \geq x_c, \\ 0, & \text{else.} \end{cases} \quad (27)$$

During contact, the force applied to the mass is  $f_c = -f_e$ . Thus, from (26) and (27) it follows

$$m_d \ddot{x} + k_d \dot{x} = k_f (f_d - k_c(x - x_c)) \quad \Rightarrow \quad m_d \ddot{x} + k_d \dot{x} + k_f k_c x = k_f (f_d + k_c x_c). \quad (28)$$

The steady-state position reached by the second-order asymptotically stable system (28) in response to the (positive) step input  $k_f (f_d + k_c x_c)$  and the associated steady-state contact force will be

$$x_e = x_c + \frac{f_d}{k_c} \quad \Rightarrow \quad f_c = (-f_e = k_c(x_e - x_c)) = f_d. \quad (29)$$

A slight variant of the force control law (25) is obtained by replacing the cancelation of the actual contact force in (15) by a compensation/feedforward of the desired contact force, i.e.,  $f = m\ddot{a} - f_d$ . Using again (24), we obtain

$$f = \frac{m}{m_d} (k_f (f_d - f_c) - k_d \dot{x}) - f_d, \quad (30)$$

and, as a result, the closed-loop system

$$m_d \ddot{x} + k_d \dot{x} = \left(k_f - \frac{m_d}{m}\right) (f_d - f_c). \quad (31)$$

Using the contact force model (27) leads finally to

$$m_d \ddot{x} + k_d \dot{x} + \left(k_f - \frac{m_d}{m}\right) k_c x = \left(k_f - \frac{m_d}{m}\right) (f_d + k_c x_c). \quad (32)$$

It is immediate to see that the analysis of (32) can be completed as for (28), provided that the slightly more restrictive design condition  $k_f > m_d/m > 0$  is satisfied. Under this hypothesis, the steady-state conditions for the asymptotically stable system (32) are the same given in (29).

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### Appendix (extra material to Exercise 3)

Consider a scheme for the contact force generation modeled by

$$\dot{f}_c = \alpha(f_d - f_c), \quad \text{with } \alpha > 0, \quad (33)$$

and assume, e.g.,  $f_c(0) = f_{c0} > f_d$  (the initial contact force is larger than the one desired). Then

$$f_c(t) = f_d - (f_d - f_{c0}) \exp^{-\alpha t} \quad \text{and} \quad e_f(t) = f_d - f_c(t) = (f_d - f_{c0}) \exp^{-\alpha t} = e_{f0} \exp^{-\alpha t}. \quad (34)$$

Assuming  $x(0) = \dot{x}(0) = 0$  and discarding the special case  $\alpha = k_d/m_d$ , the solution of (26) can be found by Laplace techniques and is given by the following position trajectory

$$x(t) = \frac{k_f e_{f0}}{k_d \alpha} + \frac{k_f e_{f0}}{k_d - \alpha m_d} \left( \frac{m_d}{k_d} \exp^{-\frac{k_d}{m_d} t} - \frac{1}{\alpha} \exp^{-\alpha t} \right), \quad (35)$$

and associated velocity

$$\dot{x}(t) = \frac{k_f e_{f0}}{k_d - \alpha m_d} \left( \exp^{-\alpha t} - \exp^{-\frac{k_d}{m_d} t} \right). \quad (36)$$

It follows from (35) that, at steady state,

$$x_e = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} x(t) = \frac{k_f e_{f0}}{k_d \alpha}, \quad (37)$$

which shows an explicit dependence on the parameter  $\alpha$  of the contact force model (33). Figure 4 shows two possible evolutions of the applied force error term  $k_f(f_d - f_c)$  (in blue) and of the resulting mass position  $x$  (in green), for  $\alpha = 2$  and  $\alpha = 3$ , with the other parameters being  $f_d = 3$  [N],  $f_{c0} = 2$  [N] (and thus,  $e_f = f_d - f_{c0} = 1$  [N]),  $k_f = 1.4$ ,  $m_d = 1$  [kg], and  $k_d = 1$  [kg/s].

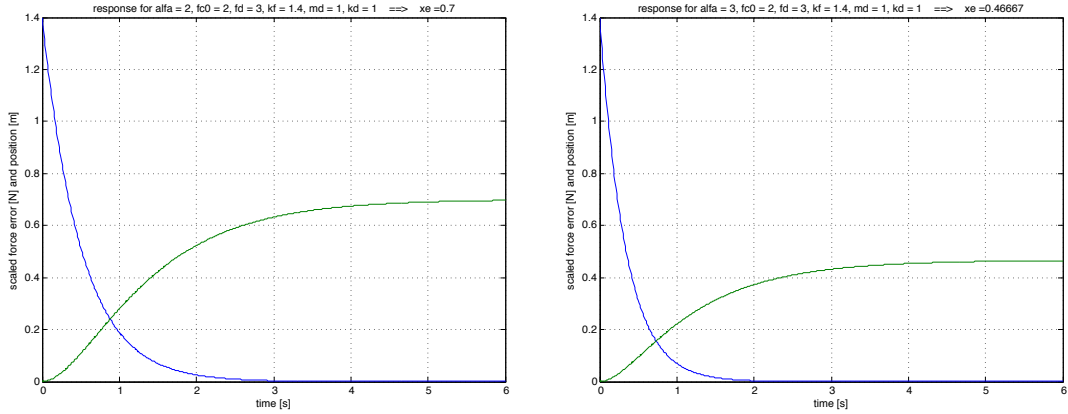


Figure 4: Simulation results of (26) of a controlled mass  $m_d$  subject to the contact force  $f_c$  in (34), for  $\alpha = 2$  [left] and  $\alpha = 3$  [right]. The plots are the position  $x$  (shown in green) and the force error term  $k_f(f_d - f_c) = k_f e_f$  (in blue). The reached position  $x_e$  is the one computed in (37).

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