



## Brief paper

Resilient adaptive and  $H_\infty$  controls of multi-agent systems under sensor and actuator faults<sup>☆</sup>

Ci Chen<sup>a,b,c</sup>, Frank L. Lewis<sup>c,d</sup>, Shengli Xie<sup>a,b,\*</sup>, Hamidreza Modares<sup>e</sup>, Zhi Liu<sup>a</sup>, Shan Zuo<sup>c</sup>, Ali Davoudi<sup>c</sup>

<sup>a</sup> School of Automation, Guangdong University of Technology, Guangzhou, 510006, China

<sup>b</sup> Guangdong Key Laboratory of IoT Information Technology, Guangzhou, 510006, China

<sup>c</sup> UTA Research Institute, The University of Texas at Arlington, Fort Worth, TX, 76118, USA

<sup>d</sup> Foreign Consulting Professor, Guangdong University of Technology, Guangzhou, 510006, China

<sup>e</sup> Department of Mechanical Engineering, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI, 48824, USA

## ARTICLE INFO

## Article history:

Received 17 February 2017

Received in revised form 5 August 2018

Accepted 28 November 2018

Available online xxxx

## Keywords:

Actuator faults

Adaptive control

$H_\infty$  control

Leader–follower tracking

Resilience

Sensor faults

## ABSTRACT

Resilience of multi-agent systems (MAS) reflects their capability to maintain normal operation, at a prescribed level in the presence of unintended faults. In this paper, we investigate resilient control of MAS under faults on sensors and actuators. We propose four resilient state feedback based leader–follower tracking protocols. For the case of sensor faults, we develop an adaptive compensation protocol and an  $H_\infty$  control protocol. For the case of simultaneous sensor and actuator faults, we further propose an enhanced adaptive compensation protocol and an enhanced  $H_\infty$  control protocol. We show the duality between the adaptive compensation protocols and the  $H_\infty$  control protocols. For adaptive compensation protocols, faults on sensors and actuators are rejected by using local adaptive sensor and actuator compensators, respectively. Moreover, by employing a static output–feedback design technique, we propose  $H_\infty$  control protocols that guarantee bounded  $L_2$  gains of certain errors in terms of the  $L_2$  norms of fault signals. This further allows us to prove resilience even if sensor faults are unbounded. Finally, simulation studies validate the effectiveness of the proposed protocols.

© 2018 Published by Elsevier Ltd.

## 1. Introduction

The last decade has witnessed significant development of cooperative control techniques for interconnected multi-agent systems (MAS) (see Olfati-Saber, Fax, and Murray (2007), Ren, Beard, and Atkins (2007), Ren and Cao (2010) and Lewis, Zhang, Hengster-Movric, and Das (2013) for surveys). Therein, a distributed controller is designed for each agent locally, based on information only about that agent and its neighbors. The benefits of such distributed architectures over standard centralized controllers include greater efficiency, flexibility, and scalability to larger networks. Hence,

distributed controllers have emerged in many engineering applications including power systems (Bidram, Lewis, & Davoudi, 2014; Robbins & Hadjicostis, 2013), robotic networks (Bullo, Cortes, & Martinez, 2009; Qu, 2009; Ren & Beard, 2008), and sensor networks (Cortés, Martinez, Karatas, & Bullo, 2004; Ogren, Fiorelli, & Leonard, 2004). Since the distributed information flow lacks a centralized feedback mechanism, the activity of each agent cannot be effectively monitored and verified. This makes distributed protocols particularly susceptible to adverse faults that are injected to the sensors and/or actuators of agent, and can propagate through the network. Therefore, it remains a challenge to provide resilience for the distributed control of MAS.

To address the resilient MAS problem, several attack detection and isolation approaches have been proposed in the literature (see Fawzi, Tabuada, and Diggavi (2014), LeBlanc, Zhang, Sundaram, and Koutsoukos (2012, 2013), Mo, Chabukswar, and Sinopoli (2014), Pasqualetti, Bicchi, and Bullo (2012), Pasqualetti, Dörfler, and Bullo (2013), Xu and Zhu (2015), Zeng and Chow (2014), Zhu and Başar (2015), Zhu and Martínez (2013) and Zeng, Zhang, and Chow (2015)). Despite good performances, these approaches usually make specific assumptions on the graph topology and/or the fraction of misbehaving agents.

<sup>☆</sup> This work was supported in part by the National Natural Science Foundation of China under Grant 61333013, Grant 61703113, Grant 61703112, Grant 61727810, and Grant 61633007, in part by the U.S. National Science Foundation under Grant 1839804, and in part by the Office of Naval Research (USA) under Grant N00014-17-1-2239 and Grant N00014-18-1-2221. The material in this paper was not presented at any conference. This paper was recommended for publication in revised form by Associate Editor Xiaobo Tan under the direction of Editor Miroslav Krstic.

\* Corresponding author at: School of Automation, Guangdong University of Technology, Guangzhou, 510006, China.

E-mail addresses: [gdutcc@gmail.com](mailto:gdutcc@gmail.com) (C. Chen), [lewis@uta.edu](mailto:lewis@uta.edu) (F.L. Lewis), [shlxie@gdut.edu.cn](mailto:shlxie@gdut.edu.cn) (S. Xie), [modaresh@msu.edu](mailto:modaresh@msu.edu) (H. Modares), [lz@gdut.edu.cn](mailto:lz@gdut.edu.cn) (Z. Liu), [shanzuo@uta.edu](mailto:shanzuo@uta.edu) (S. Zuo), [davoudi@uta.edu](mailto:davoudi@uta.edu) (A. Davoudi).

Such limiting assumptions are removed for a network of homogeneous systems in De La Torre, Yucelen, and Peterson (2014), where a local state emulator adaptively mitigates actuator faults. In addition, adaptive backstepping control approaches have been used to handle the actuator faults (Chen, Xie, Lewis, Xie, & Davoudi, 2018; Wang & Wen, 2011; Wang, Wen & Guo, 2016). Later, results are reported to achieve an infinite-actuator fault control (Wang, Wen & Lin, 2017), a finite-time control (Wang, Song, Krstic & Wen, 2016), event-triggered input control (Xing, Wen, Liu, Su, & Cai, 2017), multi-vehicle system (Liu, Ma, Lewis, & Wan, 2018) and input quantization control (Li & Yang, 2016; Wang, Wen, Lin & Wang, 2017). Assuming the disturbances and actuator faults unknown and bounded, a decentralized adaptive fault-tolerant control is given in Xie and Yang (2017). Note that majority of existing adaptive resilient protocols focus on actuator faults. In the presence of sensor faults, measured states will no longer be the same as actual states, rendering the above-mentioned adaptive controls impractical. Remedies are provided through adaptive stabilization control (Yucelen, Haddad, & Feron, 2016) and adaptive leaderless control (Arabi, Yucelen, & Haddad, 2016). They, however, restrict the sensor fault types to certain bounded faults and/or types with known structures. More importantly, simultaneous sensor and actuator faults are not addressed in a unified platform.

This paper aims to design resilient distributed protocols subject to both sensor and actuator faults. We design four resilient leader-follower tracking control protocols, which can be separated into two main categories — adaptive control and  $H_\infty$  control. The salient contributions of this paper are stated as follows.

- For the cases where there are only sensor faults, we design two resilient protocols, namely an adaptive compensation protocol and an  $H_\infty$  control protocol, that are in some sense dual to one another. In comparison to the adaptive control of Theorem 1, it is seen that Assumption 3 required in  $H_\infty$  control is weaker than Assumption 2.

- For simultaneous sensor and actuator faults, we also design an adaptive compensation protocol and an  $H_\infty$  control protocol. An additional actuator disturbance compensator must be added for the adaptive control protocol. On the other hand, for the  $H_\infty$  control protocol, the actuator fault is not adaptively compensated but modeled as a part of system disturbances.

- Even though the adversity of the sensor fault is physically different from that of the actuator fault, our results show that both faults can be handled within the same adaptive framework where the fault is rejected by a local compensator (see Theorems 1 and 3).

- Compared with our adaptive protocols,  $H_\infty$  protocols here (see Theorems 2 and 4) allow unbounded faults on sensors. Moreover, the use of the static output-feedback design technique in  $H_\infty$  control protocols allows us to bound the  $L_2$  gains of the control errors in terms of the  $L_2$  norms of the fault signals.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we provide notation and preliminaries, and define two types of fault control problems for the resilient design. In Section 3, we present two resilient solutions to the first problem based on adaptive compensation control and  $H_\infty$  control. In Section 4, we provide two additional protocols to the second problem, and extend the results in Section 3 to a more general case with simultaneous faults on both sensors and actuators. In Section 5, simulation studies validate the effectiveness of the proposed protocols. In Section 6, we conclude the results.

## 2. Preliminaries and problem formulation

In this section, we introduce notations and formulate the sensor and actuator fault problems for leader–follower tracking control.

### 2.1. Preliminaries

The symbol  $\otimes$  denotes the Kronecker product.  $[x_{ij}]$  is a matrix with  $x_{ij}$  an entry in the  $i$ th row and  $j$ th column.  $\text{diag}\{x_i\}$  is a diagonal matrix with a vector  $x_i$  on the main diagonal.  $X > 0$  denotes that a matrix  $X$  is positive-definite. For  $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{C}$  and  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , let  $\lambda_i$  denote an eigenvalue of  $X$ , and  $\text{Re}(\lambda_i)(X)$  denote the real part of  $\lambda_i$  with  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .  $\delta_{\min}(X)$  and  $\delta_{\max}(X)$  are minimum and maximum singular values of  $X$ , respectively.  $\|\cdot\|$  denotes the norm.

Consider a class of directed graphs described as  $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{A})$ , where  $\mathcal{V} = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_N\}$  denotes a set of nodes,  $\mathcal{E} \subset \mathcal{V} \times \mathcal{V}$  denotes a set of edges, and  $\mathcal{A} = [a_{ij}] \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$  denotes an adjacency matrix. The information flow in the graph  $\mathcal{G}$  is denoted by a weight  $a_{ij}$  and an edge  $(v_j, v_i)$  satisfying  $a_{ij} > 0$  if  $(v_j, v_i) \in \mathcal{E}$ , otherwise  $a_{ij} = 0$ . Here, we assume that no repeated edges or no self-loops are allowed in  $\mathcal{G}$ . Define  $\mathcal{N}_i = \{j | (v_j, v_i) \in \mathcal{E}\}$  as a set of neighbors of node  $i$ , and  $H = \text{diag}\{h_i\} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$  as an in-degree matrix with  $h_i = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} a_{ij}$ . Hence, the Laplacian matrix is given as  $L = H - \mathcal{A}$ . A direct path from node  $i$  to node  $j$  is captured by a sequence of successive edges satisfying  $\{(v_i, v_k), (v_k, v_l), \dots, (v_m, v_j)\}$ . A graph is said to have a spanning tree, if there exists a directed path from a node to every other node. If the leader node is a neighbor of node  $i$ , then an edge  $(v_0, v_i)$  exists with a positive weighting gain  $g_i$ . Considering  $N$  followers in the graph, one has a pinning matrix  $G = \text{diag}\{g_i\} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ . Throughout this paper, the following standard assumption of the graph topology in distributed control of MAS holds.

**Assumption 1.** The directed graph  $\mathcal{G}$  contains a spanning tree with the leader as its root.

### 2.2. Problem formulation

Consider a group of  $N$  agents with identical dynamics

$$\dot{x}_i = Ax_i + B\bar{u}_i, \quad y_i = \bar{x}_i, \quad (1)$$

where  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is the system state,  $\bar{u}_i \in \mathbb{R}^m$  is the system input, and  $y_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$  is the measured output for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ . For convenience, we omit the time argument  $t$  throughout the paper. If necessary, however, we explicitly write the time argument  $t$ .  $(A, B)$  is assumed to be stabilizable. Even though full state feedback is assumed throughout this paper, only the corrupted states, not the actual ones, are available for the resilient control design. The dynamics of the leader agent is given by

$$\dot{x}_0 = Ax_0, \quad (2)$$

where  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is the system state. The leader agent (2) can be considered as an exosystem or a command generator, which generates the desired target trajectory to be followed by all  $N$  agents (1). Note that the agents given in (1) and (2) are connected by a distributed communication graph, and the leader agent (2) can be observed by a small group of the agents (1).

In this paper, the system input  $\bar{u}_i$  and output  $y_i$  are under unknown actuator and sensor faults, respectively. We describe the sensor and actuator faults as

$$\bar{x}_i = x_i + \delta_i^s, \quad (3)$$

$$\bar{u}_i = u_i + \delta_i^a, \quad (4)$$

where  $\delta_i^s$  and  $\delta_i^a$  denote unknown faults caused in the sensor and actuator channels, respectively. That is, the actual values of  $x_i$  and  $\delta_i^s$  are unknown and one can only measure the corrupted state  $\bar{x}_i$ . Likewise, the uncorrupted control  $u_i$  cannot be applied to the system. Only the corrupted control  $\bar{u}_i$  enters the dynamics (1).

To highlight the problems caused by sensor and actuator faults (3), (4), consider a standard local protocol for the leader–follower tracking (Zhang, Lewis, & Das, 2011)

$$u_i = c_s K_s \left( \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} a_{ij} (\bar{x}_j - \bar{x}_i) + g_i (x_0 - \bar{x}_i) \right), \quad (5)$$

where  $c_s$  and  $K_s$  are design gains. Under faults (3), (4), applying  $u_i$  (5) to MAS (1) yields  $\dot{x} = (I_N \otimes A)x - c(L + G) \otimes BK_s(x - x_0) + (I_N \otimes B)W$ , where  $x = [x_1^T, x_2^T, \dots, x_N^T]^T$ ,  $x_0 = I_N \otimes x_0$ , and  $W = [w_1^T, w_2^T, \dots, w_N^T]^T$  with  $w_i = \delta_i^a + c_s K_s (\sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} a_{ij} (\delta_j^s - \delta_j^a) + g_i \delta_i^s)$ . It is shown in Yucelen et al. (2016) and Arabi et al. (2016) that under faults  $\delta_i^s$  and  $\delta_i^a$ , the leader–follower tracking is generally not attained, and  $x_i$  may even be unbounded. In this paper, we show how to achieve leader–follower tracking if  $\delta_i^s$  and  $\delta_i^a$  are not zero, or even unbounded.

To evaluate the protocol to be given in this paper, we give the following stability definition.

**Definition 1** (Definition 4.6, Khalil (2002)). The signal  $z(t)$  is said to be uniformly ultimately bounded (UUB) with the ultimate bound  $b$ , if given positive constants  $b$  and  $c$ , for every  $a \in (0, c)$ , there exists  $T(a, b)$ , independent of  $t_0$ , such that  $\|z(t_0)\| \leq a \Rightarrow \|z(t)\| \leq b, \forall t \geq t_0 + T$ .

Two types of fault control problems for the state synchronization of MAS are defined as follows.

**Problem 1.** Under the sensor fault (3), the leader–follower tracking problem is to design distributed control protocols  $u_i$  for all the agents (1) in  $\mathcal{G}$ , such that the error  $\mu_i = x_i - x_0$  is UUB.

**Problem 2.** Under the sensor fault (3) and actuator fault (4), the leader–follower tracking problem is to design distributed control protocols  $u_i$  for all the agents (1) in  $\mathcal{G}$ , such that the error  $\mu_i$  is UUB.

### 3. Control protocols to address sensor faults

In this section, we consider the leader–follower tracking problem under the sensor fault only (3) (see Problem 1). This means that the actuator fault (4) satisfies  $\delta_i^a = 0$  such that  $\bar{u}_i = u_i$  holds for all the agents (1). Two control methods, an adaptive compensation protocol and an  $H_\infty$  control protocol, are given to handle the sensor fault problem. It will be shown that fault model assumption required in  $H_\infty$  control (Assumption 3) is weaker than the one required in adaptive control (Assumption 2).

#### 3.1. Adaptive control design for sensor fault compensation

In this subsection, we propose an adaptive disturbance compensator to deal with sensor faults. This protocol is given as

$$u_i = -K\hat{x}_i, \quad (6)$$

$$\dot{\hat{x}}_i = F(\bar{x}_i - r_i) + (A - BK)\hat{x}_i - \hat{d}_i^s, \quad (7)$$

$$\dot{r}_i = Ar_i + cF_o \left( \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} a_{ij} (r_j - r_i) + g_i (x_0 - r_i) \right), \quad (8)$$

$$\dot{\hat{d}}_i^s = P_{s4}^T \hat{x}_i + P_{s2}^T (\bar{x}_i - r_i) - a_s \hat{d}_i^s, \quad (9)$$

where  $\bar{x}_i = \bar{x}_i - \hat{x}_i$ ;  $c$  and  $a_s$  are positive constants;  $r_i$  denotes a distributed leader observer; controller gain  $K$ , observer gains  $F, F_o$ , and compensator gains  $P_{s2}, P_{s4}$  are to be determined later; and  $\hat{d}_i^s = [d_{i1}^{sT}, d_{i2}^{sT}, \dots, d_{in}^{sT}]^T$  denotes a local sensor fault compensator to estimate  $d_i^s = [d_{i1}^{sT}, d_{i2}^{sT}, \dots, d_{in}^{sT}]^T$  with  $d_i^s = F\delta_i^s$ .

**Remark 1.** Here, we stress that it has been a difficult problem to handle sensor faults by using adaptive control techniques. Adaptive control works based on the assumption that the error variables in the closed-loop system should be accessible for the control design. However, when the sensor fault  $\delta_i^s$  is involved, the actual state  $x_i$  is corrupted as shown in (3). Only the corrupted  $\bar{x}_i$  can be measured. Hence, adaptive control cannot be applied in a straightforward manner. To address this issue, we propose the adaptive compensation protocol that contains two local adaptive laws (7) and (9). As seen in Theorem 1, this protocol solves Problem 1.

**Assumption 2.** The sensor fault  $\delta_i^s$  in (3) is bounded, and its derivative  $\dot{\delta}_i^s$  is bounded.

It should be noted that Assumption 2 covers various types of faults in practice. It is a weak assumption compared to those in the existing literature (Arabi et al., 2016), where not only the fault is assumed bounded, but also its upper and lower bounds must be known.

Define a global observer gain matrix as

$$A_0 = I_N \otimes A - c(L + G) \otimes F_o. \quad (10)$$

Let the design matrices  $Q = Q^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ ,  $R = R^T \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ ,  $Q_o = Q_o^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , and  $R_o = R_o^T \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$  be positive-definite. Let  $\sigma_i = r_i - x_0$ . Design the controller gain  $K$  as

$$K = R^{-1}B^T P, \quad (11)$$

where  $P > 0$  is the unique solution of the control algebraic Riccati equation (ARE)

$$0 = A^T P + PA + Q - PBR^{-1}B^T P. \quad (12)$$

Let the observer gains  $F$  and  $F_o$  be designed as

$$F = F_o = P_o R_o^{-1}, \quad (13)$$

where  $P_o > 0$  is the unique solution of the observer ARE =  $AP_o + P_o A^T + Q_o - P_o R_o^{-1} P_o$ . Select

$$c \geq \frac{1}{2 \min_{i \in \mathcal{V}} \{ \text{Re}(\lambda_i(L + G)) \}}. \quad (14)$$

The following is our main result in this subsection.

**Theorem 1.** Suppose that the graph  $\mathcal{G}$  and the sensor fault  $\delta_i^s$  in (3) satisfy Assumptions 1 and 2, respectively. Let the controller design follow (11)–(14). Then, Problem 1 for the leader–follower tracking is solved by the adaptive protocol (6)–(9). Moreover,  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \sigma_i(t) = 0$  at the rate of exponential convergence, and  $(d_i^s - \hat{d}_i^s)$  is UUB.  $\square$

**Proof.** Considering  $N$  agents in the graph  $\mathcal{G}$ , we define the following variables to facilitate the analysis. Let  $\mu = [\mu_1^T, \mu_2^T, \dots, \mu_N^T]^T$ ,  $\eta = [\eta_1^T, \eta_2^T, \dots, \eta_N^T]^T$ ,  $\theta = [\mu^T, \eta^T]^T$ ,  $\sigma = [\sigma_1^T, \sigma_2^T, \dots, \sigma_N^T]^T$ ,  $r = [r_1^T, r_2^T, \dots, r_N^T]^T$ , and  $\rho = [\rho_1^T, \rho_2^T, \dots, \rho_N^T]^T$ , where  $\eta_i = \hat{x}_i$  and  $\rho_i = [\mu_i^T, \eta_i^T]^T$ . Hence,  $\dot{\mu} = (I_N \otimes A)\mu - (I_N \otimes BK)\eta$  and  $\dot{\eta} = (I_N \otimes (A - BK - F))\eta + (I_N \otimes F)\mu + (I_N \otimes F)\delta^s - (I_N \otimes F)\sigma - \hat{d}^s$ . We have

$$\dot{\theta} = A_s \theta - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ (I_N \otimes F)\sigma \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ d^s - \hat{d}^s \end{bmatrix}, \quad (15)$$

where  $A_s = [as_{ij}]$  with  $as_{11} = I_N \otimes A$ ,  $as_{12} = -I_N \otimes BK$ ,  $as_{21} = I_N \otimes F$ , and  $as_{22} = I_N \otimes (A - BK - F)$ . Therefore, from Zhang et al. (2011), if  $K$  satisfies (11) and  $F$  satisfies (13), then both  $A - BK$  and  $A - F$  are Hurwitz so that  $A_s$  is Hurwitz.

At this stage, we have finished the stability analysis for the first term at the right hand side of (15). Next, we focus on the stability analysis for  $(I_N \otimes F)\sigma$ . From (2), (8) and (10), one has  $\dot{\sigma} = A_0 \sigma$ .

Similar to the analysis for  $A_s$ , it is equivalent to the condition that  $A - c\lambda_i(L+G)F_0$  is Hurwitz. Since  $F_0$  satisfies (13) and  $c$  satisfies (14), it is shown that  $A_0$  is Hurwitz such that  $P_{A_0}A_0 + A_0^T P_{A_0} = -Q_{A_0}$ , where  $P_{A_0} > 0$  and  $Q_{A_0} > 0$ . Differentiating  $V_{A_0} = \sigma^T P_{A_0} \sigma$  with the respect to time  $t$  yields  $\dot{V}_{A_0} = -\sigma^T Q_{A_0} \sigma$ . Considering that  $Q_{A_0} > 0$ , we have  $\sigma^T Q_{A_0} \sigma \geq \delta_{\min}(Q_{A_0}) \sigma^T \sigma$ . Thus, one has  $\dot{V}_{A_0} \leq -\alpha V_{A_0}$ , where  $\alpha = \frac{\delta_{\min}(Q_{A_0})}{\delta_{\max}(P_{A_0})}$  and the solution must satisfy  $\|\sigma\|^2 \leq \frac{V_{A_0}(0)}{\delta_{\min}(P_{A_0})} e^{-\alpha t}$ , which implies that  $r_i - x_0$  exponentially decays to zero. In what follows, we will show overall system stability analysis of (15). Because of the previous analysis of  $A_s$ , given any matrix  $Q_s > 0$ , there exists  $P_s = [ps_{ij}] > 0$  with  $ps_{11} = P_{s1}$ ,  $ps_{12} = P_{s2}$ ,  $ps_{21} = P_{s3}$ , and  $ps_{22} = P_{s4}$ , such that  $P_s A_s^0 + A_s^{0T} P_s = -Q_s$ , where  $A_s^0 = [as_{ij}^0]$  with  $as_{11}^0 = A$ ,  $as_{12}^0 = -BK$ ,  $as_{21}^0 = F$ , and  $as_{22}^0 = A - BK - F$  is defined as a part of  $A_s$ . Define a Lyapunov function candidate as  $V = \sum_{i=1}^N \rho_i^T P_s \rho_i + \tilde{d}^s \tilde{d}^s$ , where  $\tilde{d}^s = d^s - \hat{d}^s$ . Differentiating  $V$  with the respect to time  $t$  yields

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{V} = & - \sum_{i=1}^N \rho_i^T Q_s \rho_i - 2 \sum_{i=1}^N \tilde{d}_i^s P_{s2}^T \delta_i^s + 2 \sum_{i=1}^N \tilde{d}_i^s P_{s2}^T \sigma_i \\ & - 2 \sum_{i=1}^N \rho_i^T P_s \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ F \sigma_i \end{bmatrix} + 2a_s \tilde{d}^s \hat{d}^s + 2\tilde{d}^s \dot{\hat{d}}^s, \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

where (9) and (15) are employed. Considering  $2a_s \tilde{d}^s \hat{d}^s \leq -a_s \tilde{d}^s \tilde{d}^s + a_s \tilde{d}^s \hat{d}^s$ ,  $-2\tilde{d}_i^s P_{s2}^T \delta_i^s \leq \frac{a_s}{4N} \tilde{d}_i^s \tilde{d}_i^s + \frac{4N}{a_s} (P_{s2}^T \delta_i^s)^T P_{s2}^T \delta_i^s$ , and  $2\tilde{d}^s \dot{\hat{d}}^s \leq \frac{1}{4} a_s \tilde{d}^s \tilde{d}^s + 4 \frac{1}{a_s} \dot{\hat{d}}^s \tilde{d}^s$ , one changes (16) as

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{V} \leq & - \sum_{i=1}^N \rho_i^T (Q_s - \|P_s\|^2 \|F\|^2 \|\sigma_i\|^2) \rho_i \\ & - \left( \frac{1}{2} a_s - \|P_{s2}\|^2 \|\sigma_i\|^2 \right) \tilde{d}^s \tilde{d}^s + b_0, \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

where  $b_0 = 2N + \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{4N}{a_s} \|P_{s2}^T \delta_i^s\|^2 + \frac{1}{a_s} \dot{\hat{d}}^s \tilde{d}^s + \frac{4}{a_s} \dot{\hat{d}}^s \tilde{d}^s$ .

To finish the remaining analysis, we define  $\beta_1 = \|P_s\|^2 \|F\|^2 \frac{V_{A_0}(0)}{\delta_{\min}(P_{A_0})}$  and  $\beta_2 = \|P_{s2}\|^2 \frac{V_{A_0}(0)}{\delta_{\min}(P_{A_0})}$ . Note that  $\beta_1$ ,  $\beta_2$ , and  $b_0$  are all bounded. Let a constant  $\bar{b}_0$  be the upper bound of  $b_0$  and a constant  $\vartheta$  satisfy  $0 < \vartheta < \delta_{\min}(Q_s)$ . With above definitions, (17) yields

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{V} \leq & - \sum_{i=1}^N \rho_i^T (\delta_{\min}(Q_s) - \beta_1 e^{-\alpha t}) \rho_i \\ & - \left( \frac{1}{2} a_s - \beta_2 e^{-\alpha t} \right) \tilde{d}^s \tilde{d}^s + \bar{b}_0. \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

In addition, there exists  $T_1 > 0$  such that for all  $t \geq T_1$ , one has  $q_1 \equiv \delta_{\min}(Q_s) - \beta_1 \leq \delta_{\min}(Q_s) - \beta_1 e^{-\alpha t}$ . Similarly, there exists  $T_2 > 0$  such that for all  $t \geq T_2$ , one has  $q_2 \equiv \frac{1}{2} a_s - \beta_2 \leq \frac{1}{2} a_s - \beta_2 e^{-\alpha t}$ . Thus, (18) is changed to  $\dot{V}(t) \leq -q_1 \rho^T \rho - q_2 \tilde{d}^s \tilde{d}^s + \bar{b}_0$ ,  $t \geq t_1$ , where  $t_1 = \max\{T_1, T_2\}$ . Now, integrate  $\dot{V}(t)$  with time to yield

$$V(t) \leq (V(t_1) - \frac{\bar{b}_0}{a_0}) e^{-a_0 t} + \frac{\bar{b}_0}{a_0}, \quad t \geq t_1, \quad (19)$$

where  $a_0 = \min\{\frac{q_1}{\delta_{\max}(P_s)}, q_2\}$ . Note that  $a_0$  is a positive constant. From (19), it reveals that all the signals in  $V(t)$  including  $\mu$  are UUB. Moreover, from (19), we have  $\|\mu(t)\|^2 \leq 2(V(t_1) - \frac{\bar{b}_0}{a_0}) e^{-a_0 t} + 2\frac{\bar{b}_0}{a_0}$  for  $t \geq t_1$ , which implies that  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \|\mu(t)\|^2 \leq 2\frac{\bar{b}_0}{a_0}$ . Hence, the proof is completed. ■

Note that the matrix  $A_s$  in (15) is fully decoupled, and its design gains are locally determined by each agent. This is different from the corresponding matrix  $A_\theta$  in Section 5.C of Zhang et al. (2011), whose protocol is designed based on the distributed information.

The proposed decoupled matrix  $A_s$  helps construct the adaptive control mechanism and compensate the sensor fault. Compared to Zhang et al. (2011), extra terms  $(I_N \otimes F)\sigma$  and  $d^s - \hat{d}^s$  are generated as shown in (15).

### 3.2. $H_\infty$ Control Design for Sensor Fault Compensation

In the previous subsection, the leader–follower tracking was achieved under Assumption 2, where both sensor fault  $\delta_i^s$  in (3) and its derivative  $\dot{\delta}_i^s$  are assumed bounded. In general, the sensor faults may be added based on the agents' states, and thus the boundedness of sensor faults cannot be ensured. As a result, the protocol in the previous subsection may not work in some applications. To remove the bounded Assumption 2 on sensor faults, an  $H_\infty$  control scheme is designed in this subsection.

Before the control design, we give the following definition and lemma about static output–feedback control design. More details can be found in Gadewadikar, Lewis, and Abu-Khalaf (2006).

**Definition 2.** Define a linear time-invariant system as  $\dot{x} = \bar{A}x + \bar{B}u + \bar{D}d$ ,  $y = \bar{C}x$ , where  $u, y$ , and  $d$  denote the system input, output, and disturbance, respectively. Define a performance output  $w$  as  $\|w\|^2 = x^T \bar{Q}x + u^T \bar{R}u$  for  $\bar{Q} \geq 0$  and  $\bar{R} > 0$ . The system  $L_2$  gain is said to be bounded or attenuated by  $\gamma$  if the  $L_2$  norms of  $w$  and  $d$  satisfy:  $\frac{\int_0^\infty \|w\|^2 dt}{\int_0^\infty \|d\|^2 dt} = \frac{\int_0^\infty (x^T \bar{Q}x + u^T \bar{R}u) dt}{\int_0^\infty (d^T \bar{D} d) dt} \leq \gamma^2$ .

**Lemma 1** (Gadewadikar et al., 2006). Assume that  $(\bar{A}, \sqrt{\bar{Q}})$  is detectable with  $\bar{Q} \geq 0$ . Then, the system considered in Definition 2 is output–feedback stabilizable with  $L_2$  gain bounded by  $\gamma$ , if and only if (1) there exist matrices  $\bar{K}, M$ , and  $\bar{P}$  such that

$$\bar{K} \bar{C} = \bar{R}^{-1} (\bar{B}^T \bar{P} + M), \quad (20)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{P} \bar{A} + \bar{A}^T \bar{P} + \bar{Q} + \gamma^{-2} \bar{P} \bar{D} \bar{D}^T \bar{P} + M^T \bar{R}^{-1} M \\ = \bar{P} \bar{B} \bar{R}^{-1} \bar{B}^T \bar{P}, \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

and (2)  $(\bar{A}, \bar{B})$  is stabilizable and  $(\bar{A}, \bar{C})$  is detectable. □

A key quantity in rejecting sensor faults is the error

$$e_i = \bar{x}_i - \hat{x}_i - \hat{\delta}_i^s, \quad (22)$$

where  $\hat{x}_i$  is an estimate of the uncorrupted state  $x_i$ , and  $\hat{\delta}_i^s$  is an estimate of the sensor fault  $\delta_i^s$ . Note that  $e_i$  can be measured. Propose now an  $H_\infty$  control protocol to reject sensor faults as

$$u_i = cK \hat{e}_i, \quad (23)$$

$$\hat{e}_i = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} a_{ij} (\hat{x}_j - \hat{x}_i) + g_i (x_0 - \hat{x}_i), \quad (24)$$

$$\dot{\hat{x}}_i = A \hat{x}_i + cBK \hat{e}_i + w_i, \quad (25)$$

$$w_i = (F_1 + F_2) e_i, \quad (26)$$

$$\dot{\hat{\delta}}_i^s = -F_1 e_i, \quad (27)$$

where the controller gain  $K$  and observer gains  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  are determined later. Let the estimation error for the sensor fault be  $\tilde{\delta}_i^s = \delta_i^s - \hat{\delta}_i^s$ .

**Assumption 3.** The derivative  $\dot{\delta}_i^s$  of the sensor fault in (3) is bounded.

Define a global controller gain matrix as

$$A_c = I_N \otimes A - c(L + G) \otimes BK. \quad (28)$$

The following is our main result in this subsection.

**Theorem 2.** Suppose that the graph  $\mathcal{G}$  satisfies [Assumption 1](#), the sensor fault satisfies [Assumption 3](#), and  $A$  is nonsingular. Let  $K$  and  $c$  be designed as (11) and (14). Suppose  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  are chosen such that  $\bar{K} = [F_2^T, -F_1^T]^T$  follows (20) and (21) in [Lemma 1](#). Then, [Problem 1](#) for the leader–follower tracking under the sensor fault (3) is solved by the  $H_\infty$  control protocol (23)–(27). Moreover, the  $L_2$  gains of the errors  $e_i$  and  $\tilde{\delta}_i^s$  are bounded in terms of the  $L_2$  norms of disturbances  $d_i = [\delta_i^{sT}, \delta_i^{sT}]^T$ .  $\square$

**Proof.** Define  $d = [d_1^T, d_2^T, \dots, d_N^T]^T$ ,  $\hat{\zeta}_i = \hat{x}_i - x_0$ ,  $e = [e_1^T, e_2^T, \dots, e_N^T]^T$ ,  $\hat{\zeta} = [\hat{\zeta}_1^T, \hat{\zeta}_2^T, \dots, \hat{\zeta}_N^T]^T$ , and  $\tilde{\delta}^s = [\tilde{\delta}_1^{sT}, \tilde{\delta}_2^{sT}, \dots, \tilde{\delta}_N^{sT}]^T$ . From (1), (25), and (27), differentiating  $e_i$  in (22) with respect to time  $t$  yields  $\dot{e}_i = (A - F_2)e_i - A\tilde{\delta}_i^s + \delta_i^s$ . From (27), it is thus shown that

$$[\dot{e}_i, \tilde{\delta}_i^{sT}]^T = A_{F1}[e_i, \tilde{\delta}_i^s]^T + d_i. \quad (29)$$

where  $A_{F1} = [af_{ij}^1]$  with  $af_{11}^1 = A - F_2$ ,  $af_{12}^1 = -A$ ,  $af_{21}^1 = F_1$ , and  $af_{22}^1 = 0$  and  $d_i = [\delta_i^s, \delta_i^s]^T$ . In the following, we will show the stabilization of (29) can be achieved by appropriately designing  $F_1$  and  $F_2$ . To do this, we transform (29) to the following output-feedback control system

$$\dot{x}_T \triangleq \bar{A}x_T + \bar{B}u_T + \bar{D}d_i, \quad y_T \triangleq \bar{C}x_T, \quad (30)$$

where  $\bar{A} = [A, -A; 0, 0]$ ,  $\bar{B} = \bar{D} = [I_N, 0; 0, I_N]$ , and  $\bar{C} = [I_N, 0]$ . Moreover, define the controller  $u_T$  (30) as  $u_T = -\bar{K}y_T$ , where  $\bar{K} = [K_1^T, K_2^T]^T$ . Straightforward analysis shows that if we choose  $K_1 = F_2$  and  $K_2 = -F_1$ , then (30) is equivalent to (29). At this stage, we focus on finding appropriate design matrices for  $\bar{K}$  by using the static output-feedback control technique. From the structures of  $\bar{A}$  and  $\bar{B}$ , it is obtained that the pair  $(\bar{A}, \bar{B})$  is stabilizable. Note that the pair  $(\bar{A}, \bar{C})$  is detectable since  $A$  is nonsingular. Moreover, we select  $\bar{Q} = I_{2n}$  such that  $(\bar{A}, \sqrt{\bar{Q}})$  is detectable. From [Lemma 1](#), if one has matrices  $\bar{K}$ ,  $\bar{M}$  and  $\bar{P}$  satisfy (20) and (21), then the system described by (30) is guaranteed output-feedback stabilizable. As a result,  $A_{F1} = \bar{A} - \bar{B}\bar{K}\bar{C}$  is Hurwitz, and the  $L_2$  gain of (30) is bounded in terms of the  $L_2$  norm of  $d_i$ .

With  $A_{F1}$  Hurwitz, given any matrix  $Q_{F1} > 0$ , there exists a matrix  $P_{F1} > 0$  such that  $P_{F1}^T A_{F1} + A_{F1} P_{F1} = -Q_{F1}$ . In order to analyze (29), we choose  $V_{F1} = \theta_F^T (I_N \otimes P_{F1}) \theta_F$ , where  $\theta_F = [e^T, \tilde{\delta}^{sT}]^T$ . Taking the derivative of  $V_{F1}$  yields  $\dot{V}_{F1} = -\theta_F^T (I_N \otimes Q_{F1}) \theta_F + 2\theta_F^T (I_N \otimes P_{F1}) d \leq -\delta_{\min}(Q_{F1}) \|I_N \otimes \theta_F\|^2 + 2\|\theta_F\| \|I_N \otimes P_{F1}\| \|d\|$ , where the boundedness of  $\theta_F$  is obtained.

To finish the proof, we will show the leader–follower tracking under the proposed control. From (25), the derivative of  $\hat{\zeta}_i$  yields  $\dot{\hat{\zeta}} = (I_N \otimes (F_1 + F_2))e + A_c \hat{\zeta}$ . Selecting  $K$  and  $c$  as (11) and (14), one has that  $A_c$  in (28) is Hurwitz. This means that given any matrix  $Q_c > 0$ , there exists a matrix  $P_c > 0$  such that  $P_c^T A_c + A_c P_c = -Q_c$ . Let  $V_\zeta = \hat{\zeta}^T P_c \hat{\zeta}$ . Taking the derivative of  $V_\zeta$  with respect to time  $t$  yields  $\dot{V}_\zeta = -\hat{\zeta}^T Q_c \hat{\zeta} + 2\hat{\zeta}^T (I_N \otimes (F_1 + F_2))e$ , where  $e$  is bounded for any time because of the boundedness of  $\theta_F$ . This leads that  $\hat{\zeta}_i$  is bounded. Then, the proposed  $H_\infty$  control protocol ensures that all the agents converge to the neighborhood of the leader in the presence of sensor faults. This completes the proof.  $\blacksquare$

**Remark 2.** The design protocols of [Theorems 1](#) and [2](#) are in some sense dual. [Theorem 1](#) relies on a local design for the feedback gain  $K$ , and a global design for the observer gain  $F_0$  in  $A_0$  of (10). On the other hand, [Theorem 2](#) relies on a local design for the observer gains  $F_1$  and  $F_2$ , and a global design for the controller gain  $K$  in  $A_c$  of (28).

#### 4. Control protocols to address sensor and actuator faults

In this section, we consider a more general case, where both the sensor fault (3) and actuator fault (4) are involved. We propose two control methods, including an adaptive compensation control scheme and an  $H_\infty$  control scheme.

##### 4.1. Adaptive control design for sensor and actuator fault Compensation

In this subsection, we introduce an adaptive compensation scheme to handle sensor and actuator faults. To facilitate the analysis, we make the following assumption.

**Assumption 4.** The actuator fault  $\delta_i^a$  in (4) and its derivative  $\dot{\delta}_i^a$ , are bounded. Moreover, the sensor fault  $\delta_i^s$  in (3) and its derivative  $\dot{\delta}_i^s$ , are bounded.

The control scheme is given as follows

$$u_i = cK\hat{e}_i, \quad (31)$$

$$\dot{\hat{e}}_i = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} a_{ij}(\hat{x}_j - \hat{x}_i) + g_i(x_0 - \hat{x}_i), \quad (32)$$

$$\dot{\hat{x}}_i = A\hat{x}_i + cBK\hat{e}_i + w_i + \hat{d}_i^a, \quad (33)$$

$$w_i = (F_1 + F_2)e_i, \quad (34)$$

$$\dot{\delta}_i^s = -F_1 e_i, \quad (35)$$

$$\dot{\hat{d}}_i^a = P_{F21}^T e_i - P_{F23}^T \delta_i^s - a_a \hat{d}_i^a, \quad (36)$$

where  $\hat{x}_i$  denotes a distributed uncorrupted state observer;  $a_a$  is a positive constant; control gains  $K$ ,  $c$ , observer gains  $F_1$ ,  $F_2$ , and compensator gains  $P_{F21}$ ,  $P_{F23}$  are designed later; and  $\hat{d}_i^a$  denotes an actuator fault compensator to estimate  $d_i^a$  with  $d_i^a = B\delta_i^a$ .

**Theorem 3.** Suppose that the graph  $\mathcal{G}$  satisfies [Assumption 1](#), the sensor and actuator faults satisfy [Assumption 4](#), and  $A$  in (1) is nonsingular. Design  $K$  as (11),  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  as  $\bar{K} = [F_1^T, -F_2^T]^T$  satisfying [Lemma 1](#) with  $\bar{A}$ ,  $\bar{B}$ ,  $\bar{C}$  given in (30). Then, [Problem 2](#) for the leader–follower tracking under the sensor fault (3) and actuator fault (4) is solved by the adaptive protocol (31)–(36). Moreover,  $(d_i^a - \hat{d}_i^a)$  is UUB.  $\square$

**Proof.** Differentiating the error  $e_i$  (22) with the respect to time  $t$  yields  $\dot{e}_i = (A - F_2)e_i - A\tilde{\delta}_i - \hat{d}_i^a + B\delta_i^a + \dot{\delta}_i^s$ , where (3), (4), (33), and (35) are employed. Thus, it is shown that  $\begin{bmatrix} \dot{e}_i \\ \dot{\delta}_i^s \end{bmatrix} = A_{F1} \begin{bmatrix} e_i \\ \delta_i^s \end{bmatrix} +$

$$\begin{bmatrix} B\delta_i^a - \hat{d}_i^a \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + d_i, \text{ where } A_{F1} \text{ and } d_i \text{ are defined in (29).}$$

Similar to analyses in (30), we can design  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  to satisfy (20) and (21) such that  $A_{F1}$  is Hurwitz. Therefore, given any matrix  $Q_{F2} > 0$ , there exists  $P_{F2}^T = P_{F2} \equiv \begin{bmatrix} P_{F21} & P_{F22} \\ P_{F23} & P_{F24} \end{bmatrix} > 0$  such that the following constraint holds  $P_{F2} A_{F1} + A_{F1}^T P_{F2} = -Q_{F2}$ . Define  $V = \sum_{i=1}^N \varrho_i^T P_{F2} \varrho_i + \tilde{d}^a \tilde{d}^a$ , where  $\varrho_i = [e_i^T, \tilde{\delta}_i^{sT}]^T$  and  $\tilde{d}^a = d^a - \hat{d}^a$ . Differentiating  $V$  with the respect to time  $t$  yields

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{V} = & - \sum_{i=1}^N \varrho_i^T Q_{F2} \varrho_i + 2 \sum_{i=1}^N \delta_i^{sT} P_{F23} \tilde{d}_i^a + 2a_a \tilde{d}^a \tilde{d}^a \\ & + 2 \sum_{i=1}^N \varrho_i^T P_{F2} d_i + 2\tilde{d}^a \tilde{d}^a. \end{aligned} \quad (37)$$

The rest of the proof is similar to that of [Theorem 1](#). Thus, the leader–follower tracking is reached despite the sensor and actuator faults, and [Problem 2](#) is solved.  $\blacksquare$

##### 4.2. $H_\infty$ Control Design for Sensor and Actuator Fault Compensation

To remove the requirements on sensor and actuator faults in [Assumption 4](#), we propose an  $H_\infty$  control protocol in this subsection.

The  $H_\infty$  control scheme to reject sensor and actuator faults is given as follows

$$u_i = cK\hat{e}_i, \quad (38)$$

$$\hat{e}_i = \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} a_{ij}(\hat{x}_j - \hat{x}_i) + g_i(x_0 - \hat{x}_i), \quad (39)$$

$$\dot{\hat{x}}_i = A\hat{x}_i + cBK\hat{e}_i + w_i, \quad (40)$$

$$w_i = (F_1 + F_2)e_i, \quad (41)$$

$$\dot{\delta}_i^s = -F_1 e_i, \quad (42)$$

where  $\hat{x}_i$  is an uncorrupted state observer.

**Assumption 5.** The derivative  $\dot{\delta}_i^s$  of the sensor fault in (3) is bounded. The actuator fault  $\delta_i^a$  in (4) is bounded.

**Theorem 4.** Suppose that the graph  $\mathcal{G}$  satisfies Assumption 1, the sensor and actuator faults satisfy Assumption 5, and  $A$  in (1) is nonsingular. Design  $K$  as (11) and (12), and  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  as  $\bar{K} = [F_2^T, -F_1^T]^T$  satisfying (20) and (21). Then, Problem 2 for the leader–follower tracking under the sensor fault (3) and actuator fault (4) is solved by an  $H_\infty$  control protocol (38)–(42). Moreover, the  $L_2$  gains of the errors  $e_i$  and  $\delta_i^s$  are bounded in terms of the  $L_2$  norms of disturbances  $d_i = [\delta_i^s, (B\delta_i^a)^T]^T$ .  $\square$

**Proof.** The stability of the overall system is decided by two decoupled subsystems, namely,  $[e^T, \delta_i^{sT}]^T = \begin{bmatrix} I_N \otimes (A - F_2) & -I_N \otimes A \\ I_N \otimes F_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e \\ \delta_i^s \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \dot{\delta}_i^s + (I_N \otimes B)\delta_i^a \\ \delta_i^s \end{bmatrix}$ , and  $\dot{\zeta} = (I_N \otimes (F_1 + F_2))e + A_c \zeta$ . The rest of the proof is similar to that of Theorem 2. Thus, the leader–follower tracking is reached in the presence of sensor and actuator faults by the  $H_\infty$  control protocol (38)–(42).  $\blacksquare$

**Remark 3.** The proposed control protocols in Theorems 3 and 4 address simultaneous sensor and actuator faults in a unified platform, which is a generalized case of the results in Theorems 1 and 2. Moreover, Theorems 1 and 3 mainly use the adaptive control technique to handle faults, while Theorems 2 and 4 use the  $H_\infty$  control technique. These two different control techniques require complementary assumptions on the system modeling, including the fault model and system dynamics. Specifically, in our adaptive control based protocols, the fault and its derivative are required to be bounded. The requirement of a bounded sensor fault is relaxed in our  $H_\infty$  control protocols at the expense of limiting the system dynamics  $A$  to be nonsingular. The complementarities between adaptive control and  $H_\infty$  control can be further found in their different control design philosophies. Adaptive controls concern online adaptive law design, while  $H_\infty$  controls concern off-line matrix design.

## 5. Simulation studies

In this section, we present simulations to demonstrate the resilience of the proposed protocols against faults on sensors and actuators. Note that a variety of phenomena in industrial systems can be described by a mass–spring system, such as the movement of deformable objects and vibration in mechanical devices (Lewis et al., 2013). Hence, we use a group of mass–spring systems as a test bed. Specifically, the simulated MAS has four followers and a leader subject to a directed graph,  $\mathcal{G}$ , given in Fig. 1. Each follower in the graph is a two-mass–spring system, modeled as (1), where  $A = [a_{ij}]$  with  $a_{12} = a_{34} = 1$ ,  $a_{21} = \frac{-(k_1+k_2)}{m_1}$ ,  $a_{23} = -a_{41} = -a_{43} = \frac{k_2}{m_1}$  and otherwise zeros and  $B = [0, \frac{1}{m_1}, 0, 0]^T$ . Here,  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  are masses,  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  are spring constants,  $u_i$  is the

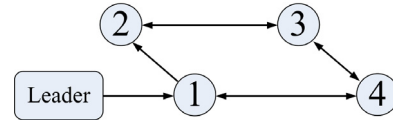


Fig. 1. Graph  $\mathcal{G}$  used for the leader–follower tracking.

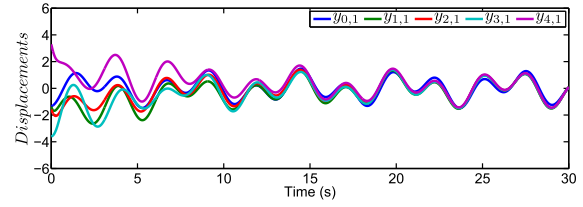


Fig. 2. Leader–follower tracking performance:  $y_{0,1}, y_{i,1}$ .

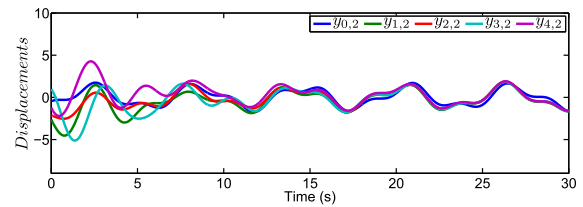


Fig. 3. Leader–follower tracking performance:  $y_{0,2}, y_{i,2}$ .

input applied on mass 1, and  $x_i = [y_{i,1}, \dot{y}_{i,1}, y_{i,2}, \dot{y}_{i,2}]^T$  with  $y_{i,1}$  and  $y_{i,2}$  being the displacements of the two masses and  $\dot{y}_{i,1}$  and  $\dot{y}_{i,2}$  being the velocities. The leader is unforced and has the same parameters as the follower does. For the simulation, we choose  $k_1 = 3N/m$ ,  $k_2 = 2N/m$ ,  $m_1 = 1.1$  kg, and  $m_2 = 0.9$  kg. The simulation objective to make displacements of the two masses,  $y_{i,1}$  and  $y_{i,2}$ , synchronize to that of the leader  $y_{0,1}$  and  $y_{0,2}$ , respectively, i.e.  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (y_{i,1} - y_{0,1}) = 0$  and  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (y_{i,2} - y_{0,2}) = 0$ .

In what follows, we implement the control protocols by following Theorems 3 and 4. The implementation of Theorems 1 and 2 is a simplified case of Theorems 3 and 4 and thus is omitted due to the limited space. Let us first verify Theorem 3. The sensor fault  $\delta_i^s$  in (3) and actuator fault  $\delta_i^a$  in (4) are considered as  $\delta_i^s = \delta_i^a = [0.5 \sin(t), 0.5 \sin(t), 0.5 \sin(t), 0.5 \sin(t)]^T$ . It is clear that  $\delta_i^s$ ,  $\dot{\delta}_i^s$ ,  $\delta_i^a$ , and  $\dot{\delta}_i^a$  are bounded. This satisfies the condition of the sensor and actuator faults required in Theorem 3. The controller gain in (11) is designed as  $K = [0.7885, 1.6537, -0.4718, 0.7075]$  by solving control ARE (12). Select the coupling gain  $c = 15$  to satisfy (14). Design  $Q_{F_2}$  as an identity matrix. The initial values of updating parameters  $\hat{x}(0)$ ,  $\hat{\delta}_i^s(0)$ , and  $\hat{a}^a(0)$  in (33), (35), and (36) are set to zero. The initial states of the leader and followers are randomly chosen. After applying the adaptive control protocol in Theorem 3, we plot agents' trajectories in Figs. 2 and 3. It is shown that the resilience is guaranteed in the sense that all the followers converge to the leader in the presence of unknown sensor and actuator faults.

Now, we are in a position to verify our result in Theorem 4, where the bounded sensor faults in the previous simulation are now relaxed to be unbounded. To this end, we consider the sensor fault in (3) and the actuator fault in (4) as  $\delta_i^s = [0.2t, 0, 0, 0]^T$  and  $\delta_i^a = [0.1 \sin(t), 0.1 \sin(t), 0.1 \sin(t), 0.1 \sin(t)]^T$ . The matrix  $A$  is nonsingular, which meets the design condition required in Theorem 4. The controller gains  $K$  and  $c$  in (23) are the same as the ones in the previous simulation. Moreover, the initial values of system states are randomly set, while updating parameters are initially set to be zero. The trajectories of all agents are presented in Figs. 4 and 5. It reveals that the resilient control of MAS with sensor

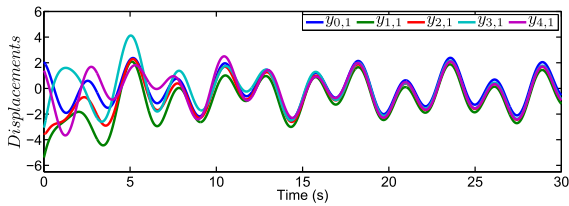


Fig. 4. Leader–follower tracking performance:  $y_{0,1}$ ,  $y_{1,1}$ .

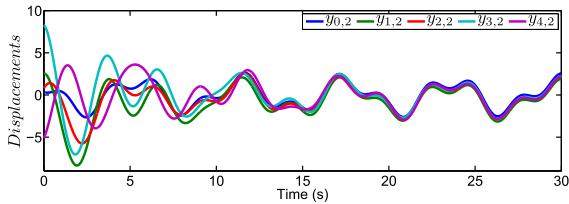


Fig. 5. Leader–follower tracking performance:  $y_{0,2}$ ,  $y_{1,2}$ .

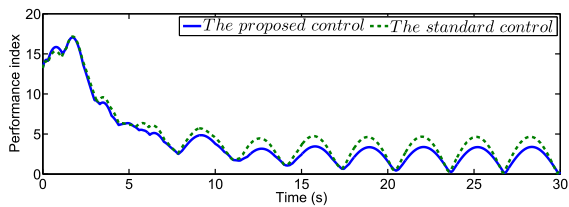


Fig. 6. Performance index.

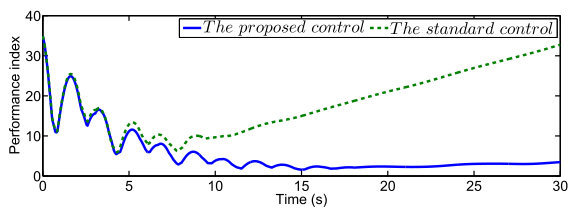


Fig. 7. Performance index.

and actuator faults is well achieved after applying the proposed  $H_\infty$  control protocol in Theorem 4.

In addition, a performance index is defined as  $Index = \sum_{i=1}^4 (|y_{i,1} - y_{0,1}| + |y_{i,2} - y_{0,2}|)$ , which denotes the sum of absolute displacement errors between the leader and followers. Here, we use the results in Figs. 2–5 and calculate the corresponding performance indexes in Figs. 6 and 7. Moreover, the standard control (5) from (Zhang et al., 2011) is applied to the mass–spring system, where the system parameters including the initial system states and faults are the same as those in the previous simulations. For the comparison, the performance indexes in presence of the standard control (5) are also plotted in Figs. 6 and 7. It is clear that the proposed methods provide better resiliency for the synchronization of two-mass–spring systems, when compared to the standard control (5).

## 6. Conclusion

This paper investigates the resilient design problem for MAS, and achieves the leader–follower tracking in the presence of sensor and actuator faults by using adaptive compensation controls and  $H_\infty$  controls. To achieve adaptive compensation control, we provide the resilience by employing a local sensor/actuator fault

compensator. Moreover,  $H_\infty$  controls are proposed by using static output-feedback design technique, which allows us to extend sensor faults to unbounded cases, and, thus, to further improve the resilience. Finally, the effectiveness of the proposed protocols has been validated by simulation studies. It is an important research topic to extend our results in the context of insecure inter-agent communications. Moreover, how to relax the assumption of the nonsingular system dynamics  $A$  is also a challenging task. We will consider such problems in the future.

## References

- Arabi, E., Yucelen, T., & Haddad, W. M. (2016). Mitigating the effects of sensor uncertainties in networked multiagent systems. In *American control conference* (pp. 5545–5550). IEEE.
- Bidram, A., Lewis, F. L., & Davoudi, A. (2014). Distributed control systems for small-scale power networks: Using multiagent cooperative control theory. *IEEE Control Systems*, 34(6), 56–77.
- Bullo, F., Cortes, J., & Martinez, S. (2009). *Distributed control of robotic networks: a mathematical approach to motion coordination algorithms*. Princeton University Press.
- Chen, C., Xie, K., Lewis, F. L., Xie, S., & Davoudi, A. (2018). Fully distributed resilience for adaptive exponential synchronization of heterogeneous multi-agent systems against actuator faults. *IEEE Transactions on Automatic Control*, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/TAC.2018.2881148>.
- Cortés, J., Martinez, S., Karatas, T., & Bullo, F. (2004). Coverage control for mobile sensing networks. *IEEE Transactions on Robotics and Automation*, 20(2), 245–255.
- De La Torre, G., Yucelen, T., & Peterson, J. D. (2014). Resilient networked multiagent systems: A distributed adaptive control approach. In *IEEE conference on decision and control* (pp. 5367–5372). IEEE.
- Fawzi, H., Tabuada, P., & Diggavi, S. (2014). Secure estimation and control for cyber-physical systems under adversarial attacks. *IEEE Transactions on Automatic Control*, 59(6), 1454–1467.
- Gadewadikar, J., Lewis, F. L., & Abu-Khalaf, M. (2006). Necessary and sufficient conditions for H-infinity static output-feedback control. *Journal of Guidance, Control and Dynamics*, 29(4), 915–920.
- Khalil, H. K. (2002). *Nonlinear systems*. Prentice-Hall.
- LeBlanc, H. J., Zhang, H., Sundaram, S., & Koutsoukos, X. (2012). Consensus of multi-agent networks in the presence of adversaries using only local information. In *Proceedings of the 1st international conference on high confidence networked systems* (pp. 1–10). ACM.
- LeBlanc, H. J., Zhang, H., Sundaram, S., & Koutsoukos, X. (2013). Resilient continuous-time consensus in fractional robust networks. In *2013 American control conference* (pp. 1237–1242). IEEE.
- Lewis, F. L., Zhang, H., Hengster-Movric, K., & Das, A. (2013). Cooperative control of multi-agent systems: optimal and adaptive design approaches. In *Springer science & business media*.
- Li, Y.-X., & Yang, G.-H. (2016). Adaptive asymptotic tracking control of uncertain nonlinear systems with input quantization and actuator faults. *Automatica*, 72, 177–185.
- Liu, H., Ma, T., Lewis, F. L., & Wan, Y. (2018). Robust formation control for multiple quadrotors with nonlinearities and disturbances. *IEEE Transactions on Cybernetics*, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/TCYB.2018.2875559>.
- Mo, Y., Chabukswar, R., & Sinopoli, B. (2014). Detecting integrity attacks on SCADA systems. *IEEE Transactions on Control Systems Technology*, 22(4), 1396–1407.
- Ogren, P., Fiorelli, E., & Leonard, N. E. (2004). Cooperative control of mobile sensor networks: Adaptive gradient climbing in a distributed environment. *IEEE Transactions on Automatic Control*, 49(8), 1292–1302.
- Olfati-Saber, R., Fax, J. A., & Murray, R. M. (2007). Consensus and cooperation in networked multi-agent systems. *Proceedings of the IEEE*, 95(1), 215–233.
- Pasqualetti, F., Bicchi, A., & Bullo, F. (2012). Consensus computation in unreliable networks: A system theoretic approach. *IEEE Transactions on Automatic Control*, 57(1), 90–104.
- Pasqualetti, F., Dörfler, F., & Bullo, F. (2013). Attack detection and identification in cyber-physical systems. *IEEE Transactions on Automatic Control*, 58(11), 2715–2729.
- Qu, Z. (2009). Cooperative control of dynamical systems: applications to autonomous vehicles. In *Springer science & business media*.
- Ren, W., & Beard, R. W. (2008). *Distributed consensus in multi-vehicle cooperative control*. Springer.
- Ren, W., Beard, R. W., & Atkins, E. M. (2007). Information consensus in multivehicle cooperative control. *IEEE Control Systems*, 27(2), 71–82.
- Ren, W., & Cao, Y. (2010). Distributed coordination of multi-agent networks: emergent problems, models, and issues. In *Springer science & business media*.
- Robbins, B. A., & Hadjicostis, C. N. (2013). A two-stage distributed architecture for voltage control in power distribution systems. *IEEE Transactions on Power Systems*, 28(2), 1470–1482.
- Wang, Y., Song, Y., Krstic, M., & Wen, C. (2016). Fault-tolerant finite time consensus for multiple uncertain nonlinear mechanical systems under single-way directed communication interactions and actuation failures. *Automatica*, 63, 374–383.
- Wang, W., & Wen, C. (2011). Adaptive compensation for infinite number of actuator failures or faults. *Automatica*, 47(10), 2197–2210.

- Wang, C., Wen, C., & Guo, L. (2016). Decentralized output-feedback adaptive control for a class of interconnected nonlinear systems with unknown actuator failures. *Automatica*, 71, 187–196.
- Wang, C., Wen, C., & Lin, Y. (2017). Adaptive actuator failure compensation for a class of nonlinear systems with unknown control direction. *IEEE Transactions on Automatic Control*, 62(1), 385–392.
- Wang, C., Wen, C., Lin, Y., & Wang, W. (2017). Decentralized adaptive tracking control for a class of interconnected nonlinear systems with input quantization. *Automatica*, 81, 359–368.
- Xie, C. -H., & Yang, G. -H. (2017). Decentralized adaptive fault-tolerant control for large-scale systems with external disturbances and actuator faults. *Automatica*, 85, 83–90.
- Xing, L., Wen, C., Liu, Z., Su, H., & Cai, J. (2017). Adaptive compensation for actuator failures with event-triggered input. *Automatica*, 85, 129–136.
- Xu, Z., & Zhu, Q. (2015). A cyber-physical game framework for secure and resilient multi-agent autonomous systems. In *Decision and control (CDC), 2015 IEEE 54th annual conference on* (pp. 5156–5161). IEEE.
- Yucelen, T., Haddad, W. M., & Feron, E. M. (2016). Adaptive control architectures for mitigating sensor attacks in cyber-physical systems. In *American control conference* (pp. 1165–1170). IEEE.
- Zeng, W., & Chow, M. -Y. (2014). Resilient distributed control in the presence of misbehaving agents in networked control systems. *IEEE Transactions on Cybernetics*, 44(11), 2038–2049.
- Zeng, W., Zhang, Y., & Chow, M. -Y. (2015). Resilient distributed energy management subject to unexpected misbehaving generation units. *IEEE Transactions on Industrial Informatics*.
- Zhang, H., Lewis, F. L., & Das, A. (2011). Optimal design for synchronization of cooperative systems: state feedback, observer and output feedback. *IEEE Transactions on Automatic Control*, 56(8), 1948–1952.
- Zhu, Q., & Başar, T. (2015). Game-theoretic methods for robustness, security, and resilience of cyberphysical control systems: games-in-games principle for optimal cross-layer resilient control systems. *IEEE Control Systems*, 35(1), 46–65.
- Zhu, M., & Martínez, S. (2013). On distributed constrained formation control in operator–vehicle adversarial networks. *Automatica*, 49(12), 3571–3582.



**Ci Chen** received the B.S. degree and Ph.D. degree from the School of Automation, Guangdong University of Technology, Guangzhou, China, in 2011 and 2016, respectively. He was a research assistant in School of Electrical and Electronic Engineering, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore, from 2015 to 2016. From 2016 to the present, he has been with The University of Texas at Arlington and The University of Tennessee at Knoxville as a Research Associate. Currently, he is with the School of Automation, Guangdong University of Technology. His research interests include nonlinear system control and

resilient control.



**Frank L. Lewis** is Member, National Academy of Inventors, Fellow IEEE, Fellow IFAC, Fellow AAAS, Fellow U.K. Institute of Measurement & Control, PE Texas, U.K. Chartered Engineer, UTA Distinguished Scholar Professor, UTA Distinguished Teaching Professor, and Moncrief-O'Donnell Chair at the University of Texas at Arlington Research Institute, Qian Ren Thousand Talents Consulting Professor, Northeastern University, Shenyang, China.

He obtained the Bachelor's Degree in Physics/EE and the MSEE from Rice University, the MS in Aeronautical Engineering from Univ. W. Florida, and the Ph.D. from

Ga. Tech. He works in feedback control, intelligent systems, cooperative control systems, and nonlinear systems. He is author of 7 U.S. patents, numerous journal special issues, journal papers, and 20 books, including *Optimal Control*, *Aircraft Control*, *Optimal Estimation*, and *Robot Manipulator Control* which are used as university textbooks world-wide. He received the Fulbright Research Award, NSF Research Initiation Grant, ASEE Terman Award, Int. Neural Network Soc. Gabor Award, U.K. Inst Measurement & Control Honeywell Field Engineering Medal, IEEE Computational Intelligence Society Neural Networks Pioneer Award, AIAA Intelligent Systems Award. He received Outstanding Service Award from Dallas IEEE Section, was selected as Engineer of the year by Ft. Worth IEEE Section. He was listed in Ft. Worth Business Press Top 200 Leaders in Manufacturing. He received Texas Regents Outstanding Teaching Award 2013. He is Distinguished Visiting Professor at Nanjing University of Science & Technology and Project 111 Professor at Northeastern University in Shenyang, China. He is the founding Member of the Board of Governors of the Mediterranean Control Association.



Guangzhou, China.

**Shengli Xie** received the M.S. degree in mathematics from Central China Normal University, Wuhan, China, in 1992, and the Ph.D. degree in automatic control from the South China University of Technology, Guangzhou, China, in 1997. He was a vice dean with the School of Electronics and Information Engineering, South China University of Technology, China, from 2006 to 2010. Currently, he is the Director of both the Institute of Intelligent Information Processing, and Guangdong Key Laboratory of IoT Information Technology, and also a professor with the School of Automation, Guangdong University of Technology, Guangzhou, China.

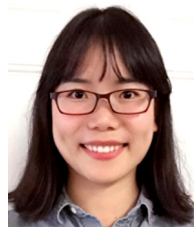


**Hamidreza Modares** received the B.S. degree from the University of Tehran, Tehran, Iran, in 2004, the M.S. degree from the Shahrood University of Technology, Shahrood, Iran, in 2006, and the Ph.D. degree from The University of Texas at Arlington, Arlington, TX, USA, in 2015. He was a Senior Lecturer with the Shahrood University of Technology, from 2006 to 2009 and a Faculty Research Associate with the University of Texas at Arlington, from 2015 to 2016.

He is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Mechanical Engineering at Michigan State University. Prior to joining Michigan State University, he was an Assistant professor in the Department of Electrical Engineering, Missouri University of Science and Technology. His current research interests include control and security of cyber-physical systems, machine learning in control, distributed control of multi-agent systems, and robotics. He is an Associate Editor of *IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks and Learning Systems*.



**Zhi Liu** received the B.S. degree from Huazhong University of Science and Technology, Wuhan, China, in 1997, the M.S. degree from Hunan University, Changsha, China, in 2000, and the Ph.D. degree from Tsinghua University, Beijing, China, in 2004, all in electrical engineering. He is currently a Professor in the School of Automation, Guangdong University of Technology, Guangzhou, China. His research interests include robot systems and technology, robotics and computational intelligence.



**Shan Zuo** received the B.S. degree in physical electronics, and the Ph.D. degree in automation engineering from the University of Electronic Science and Technology of China, Chengdu, China, in 2012 and 2018, respectively. She was a Visiting Scholar with The University of Texas at Arlington, USA, from 2014 to 2018. She is currently pursuing the Ph.D. degree in electrical engineering with the University of Texas at Arlington, USA. Her current research interests include cyber-physical systems, distributed control, reinforcement learning, and optimal control.



**Ali Davoudi** received his Ph.D. in Electrical and Computer Engineering from the University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign, IL, USA, in 2010. He is currently an Associate Professor in the Electrical Engineering Department, University of Texas, Arlington, TX, USA. He was with Solar Bridge Technologies, Champaign, IL; Texas Instruments Inc., Rochester, MN; and Royal Philips Electronics Rosemont, IL.

His research interests include various aspects of analysis and control of complex power electronics systems. Dr. Davoudi is an Associate Editor for the *IEEE Transactions on Power Electronics*, *IEEE Transactions on Transportation Electrification*, *IEEE Transactions on Energy Conversion*, and *IEEE Power Letters*. He has received 2014 Ralph H. Lee Prize Paper Award from *IEEE Transactions on Industry Applications*, Best Paper Award from 2015 *IEEE International Symposium on Resilient Control Systems*, 2014–2015 Best Paper Award from *IEEE Transactions on Energy Conversion*, 2016 Prize Paper Award from the *IEEE Power and Energy Society*, 2017 *IEEE Power Electronics Society Richard M. Bass Outstanding Young Power Electronics Engineer Award*, and 2017–2018 Best Paper Award from the *IEEE Transactions on Energy Conversion*.

His research interests include various aspects of analysis and control of complex power electronics systems. Dr. Davoudi is an Associate Editor for the *IEEE Transactions on Power Electronics*, *IEEE Transactions on Transportation Electrification*, *IEEE Transactions on Energy Conversion*, and *IEEE Power Letters*. He has received 2014 Ralph H. Lee Prize Paper Award from *IEEE Transactions on Industry Applications*, Best Paper Award from 2015 *IEEE International Symposium on Resilient Control Systems*, 2014–2015 Best Paper Award from *IEEE Transactions on Energy Conversion*, 2016 Prize Paper Award from the *IEEE Power and Energy Society*, 2017 *IEEE Power Electronics Society Richard M. Bass Outstanding Young Power Electronics Engineer Award*, and 2017–2018 Best Paper Award from the *IEEE Transactions on Energy Conversion*.