In this case, we can view  $m_k = 0$  which is the smallest nonnegative integer for  $\beta^{m_k} \lambda < (K_2/K)$ . Now, for any  $\lambda > 0$ ,  $0 < \beta < 1$ , and let  $m_k$  be either the  $m_k$  determined by (A12) or  $m_k = 0$  by (A13); from (A11), there must exist an  $m' \leq m_k$  (or m' = 0 if  $m_k = 0$ ) such that

$$J(x^{k} + \beta^{m'}\lambda\hat{s}^{k}) \le J(x^{k}) - \frac{K_{2}}{2}\beta^{m'}\lambda||\hat{s}^{k}||_{2}. \tag{A14}$$

Note that  $0 < \gamma^k < (K_2/K)$  is sufficient for (A11) to hold explains why  $m^{'} \leq m_k$ . This shows that Step 8 of our algorithm will terminate for certain  $m^{'}$ . Since  $\beta^{m^{'}} \geq \beta^{m_k}$ , from (A12) and (A13),  $\beta^{m^{'}} \lambda \geq \min{\{\beta\lambda, \beta(K_2/K)\}}$ . Let  $\tau \equiv \frac{1}{2}K_2 \cdot \min{\{\beta\lambda, \beta(K_2/K)\}}$ , then  $\tau$  is finite and positive, and

$$J(x^{k} + \beta^{m'} \lambda \hat{s}^{k}) \le J(x^{k}) - \tau ||\hat{s}^{k}||_{2}^{2}.$$
 (A15)

Then, each iteration of our algorithm ensures a decrement of the objective function by at least the amount  $\tau \| \hat{s}^k \|_2^2$ . Since J(x) is bounded from below, we assume  $c \in \Re$  is a lower bound of J(x), then from (A15), we have

$$0 \le J(x^{k+1}) - c \le J(x^k) - c - \tau ||\hat{s}^k||_2^2, \quad \forall k.$$
 (A16)

Then, by (A16),  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\|\hat{s}^k\|_2^2\leq (J(x^0)-c/\tau)<\infty,$  and (A7) shows that  $\lim_{k\to\infty}\nabla J(x^k)=0.$ 

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# On the Possible Divergence of the Projection Algorithm

Erien Lefeber and Jan Willem Polderman

Abstract—It is shown by means of an example that the projection algorithm does not always converge.

#### I. INTRODUCTION

It is well known that parameter identification of linear systems depends very much on the excitation of the signals. Generally speaking, all identification algorithms require the signals to be sufficiently exciting. In applications such as adaptive control, however, excitation is often not possible. The question then arises how useful the standard identification schemes are. In this note we consider the case where the data can be modeled exactly by a linear time invariant discrete-time model. It is a fact, that for such systems recursive least squares always produce a convergent sequence of parameter estimates, although it is of course not guaranteed that the limit will be the true parameter [1].

For the projection algorithm a similar result or its negation is to the best of our knowledge not available in the literature. Properties that can be derived without any assumptions on the signals can be found in [1]. Nothing is said about convergence there (see also [2, Problem 12.14]). In [3], the algorithm is used for adaptive pole assignment. Since the adaptive algorithm could be analyzed without proving convergence of the parameter estimates, the possible convergence is not studied there either.

In this note we show by means of an example that the projection algorithm does not necessarily converge. This is in contrast with recursive least squares.

The construction of the counter example is as follows. Firstly we construct a sequence of real vectors that satisfies at least some of the properties of the projection algorithm and which does not converge. Secondly we show that the sequence could as well have been obtained by applying the projection algorithm to an appropriate input/output system. Hence, rather than fitting the estimates to the data, we fit the data to the estimates.

### II. THE PROJECTION ALGORITHM

For the sake of completeness, we briefly describe the projection algorithm. Let the system be described by

$$y(k+1) = \bar{\theta}^T \phi(k) \quad \bar{\theta} \in \mathbb{R}^n. \tag{1}$$

The projection algorithm is defined as follows: Suppose that the estimate of  $\bar{\theta}$  at time k is  $\theta_k$ , define  $G_{k+1}:=\{\theta\in\mathbb{R}^n\mid y(k+1)=\theta^T\phi(k)\}$ . Define  $\theta_{k+1}$  as the orthogonal projection of  $\theta_k$  on  $G_{k+1}$ . The recursion is given by

$$\theta_{k+1} = \theta_k + \frac{\phi(k)}{\|\dot{\phi}(k)\|^2} (y(k+1) - \theta_k^T \phi(k)). \tag{2}$$

Notice that  $G_{k+1}$  contains the true parameter  $\bar{\theta}$ . Regardless of the input sequence, the following two properties hold.

Property 2.1: 1) For all  $k: \|\bar{\theta} - \theta_{k+1}\| \le \|\bar{\theta} - \theta_k\|$ .

 $2) \lim_{k\to\infty} (\theta_{k+1} - \theta_k) = 0.$ 

It is obvious that from Property 2.1 we cannot conclude that  $\theta_k$  is a fundamental sequence, and in fact we will see that it need not be.

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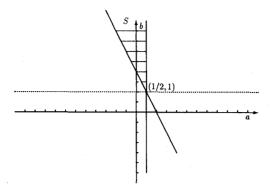


Fig. 1. The set S.

#### III. A COUNTEREXAMPLE

The idea of the counterexample is that we will first construct a sequence  $(a_k, b_k) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  with the properties that:

- 1)  $(a_{k+1}, b_{k+1})$  is obtained from  $(a_k, b_k)$  by orthogonally projecting the latter onto a line passing through a fixed point.
- 2) The sequence does not converge.

Notice that this sequence is constructed in a similar way as the sequence of estimates in the projection algorithm. Subsequently we will show that the particular sequence is equal to the sequence of estimates produced by applying the projection algorithm to a particular first-order system. That will establish the claim that the algorithm does not necessarily produce a convergent sequence of estimates. The key idea is that we fit the data to the estimates rather than the estimates to the data.

## A. Construction of the Sequence

The sequence  $\{a_k, b_k\}$  will be defined inductively

$$(a_0, b_0) := (1/2, 4).$$
 (3)

Suppose now that  $(a_k, b_k)$  has been constructed. Let  $L_k$  be the line passing through (1/2,1) and  $(a_k,b_k)$ . Define  $(a_{k+1},b_{k+1})$  as the orthogonal projection on a line  $L_{k+1}$  yet to be defined.  $L_{k+1}$  will be a line passing through (1/2,1) with the property that the distance between  $(a_k, b_k)$  and its orthogonal projection on  $L_{k+1}$  is exactly 1/(k+1). There are two possibilities for  $L_{k+1}$ , one which requires a clockwise rotation of  $L_k$  to obtain  $L_{k+1}$  and one for which this rotation would be counter clockwise. This freedom of choice will now be used as follows. Define the region  $S := \{(a,b) \mid -1 < a\}$  $-2a < b - 2 \land b > 1$ }. See Fig. 1. Determine the two possibilities for  $(a_{k+1}, b_{k+1})$ . When both points are in S, rotate  $L_k$  in the same direction as  $L_{k-1}$  was rotated to obtain  $L_k$ , to get  $L_{k+1}$ , otherwise rotate  $L_k$  in the opposite direction.  $L_1$  of course requires a counter clockwise rotation of  $L_0$ . Notice that now every  $(a_k, b_k) \in S$ . Of course, the recursion could in principle be written in formulas; we feel, however, that this would not add much to our understanding.

*Lemma 3.1:* i) The sequence  $\{(a_k,b_k)\}$  is well-defined. ii) The sequence  $\{(a_k,b_k)\}$  does not converge.

Proof.

i) Define  $r_k:=\sqrt{(1/2-a_k)^2+(1-b_k)^2}$  and  $\delta_{k+1}:=\sqrt{(a_{k+1}-a_k)^2+(b_{k+1}-b_k)^2}$ . From the construction it follows that

$$r_{k+1}^2 + \delta_{k+1}^2 = r_k^2. (4)$$

Since  $\delta_{k+1} = 1/(k+1)$  it follows that

$$r_{k+1}^2 = r_k^2 - 1/(k+1)^2. (5)$$

If we disregard for a moment the restriction imposed by S, we conclude that  $(a_{k+1}, b_{k+1})$  can be constructed from  $(a_k, b_k)$  provided  $r_k^2 - 1/(k+1)^2 > 0$ . Now, from (5) it follows that

$$r_{k+1}^2 = r_0^2 - \sum_{j=0}^k 1/(j+1)^2$$
 (6)

hence we should have  $r_0^2 > \pi^2/6$ , since in our case  $r_0^2 = 9$ , this condition is satisfied.

As a byproduct we obtain that  $\lim_{k\to\infty} r_k^2 = 9 - \pi^2/6$ . It should be clear that from this we can also conclude that the requirement that  $(a_k,b_k)\in S$  does not impose a restriction on the existence of the sequence.

ii) From the fact that  $r_k \to \sqrt{9-\pi^2/6}$  and since  $\delta_{k+1} = 1/(k+1)$ , it follows that  $\angle(L_k, L_{k+1})$  is O(1/k+1). Therefore the sequence of lines  $\{L_k\}$  does not converge and hence nor does  $\{(a_k, b_k)\}$ .

Lemma 3.2: Consider the i/o system

$$y(k+1) = (1/2)y(k) + y(k), \quad y(0) = 1.$$

There exists an input sequence  $\{u(k)\}$ , such that the projection algorithm, initialized in  $(a_0,b_0)$  generates  $\{(a_k,b_k)\}$  as the sequence of estimates.

*Proof:* This is now easy. All we have to do is make sure that at time k+1,  $G_{k+1}=L_{k+1}$ , or equivalently,  $(a_{k+1},b_{k+1})\in G_{k+1}$  and  $y(k)\neq 0$ . Otherwise stated u(k) has to be such that

$$1/2y(k) + u(k) = a_{k+1}y(k) + b_{k+1}u(k).$$
 (7)

Hence we should take

$$u(k) = \frac{a_{k+1} - 1/2}{1 - b_{k+1}} y(k). \tag{8}$$

Since  $(a_{k+1}, b_{k+1}) \in S$ , this can indeed be done.

To complete the proof we have to check that for all k the output y(k) will be nonzero. From (8) it follows that

$$y(k+1) = \left(1/2 + \frac{a_{k+1} - 1/2}{1 - b_{k+1}}\right) y(k). \tag{9}$$

Since y(0) = 1, and since  $(a_{k+1}, b_{k+1}) \in S$ , it follows from (9) that  $y(k) \neq 0$ .

Notice that since  $(a_k, b_k) \in S$ , we actually have that the sequences u and y are bounded.  $\square$ 

We have now proved the following theorem.

Theorem 3.3: There exists a system of the form (1), a bounded input sequence u and an initialization of the projection algorithm, such that the resulting sequence of estimates does not converge.

## IV. CONCLUSION

By means of an example, we have shown that the sequence of estimates generated by the projection algorithm does not necessarily converge. Of course, the sequence of inputs needed for the example is fairly artificial. In applications such as adaptive control, however, it is most desirable to derive as many properties of the identification part as possible without having to rely on the specific nature of the input. For the input will depend in a highly nonlinear fashion on the estimates. Our construction shows that convergence is not automatically among the properties that can be derived without additional assumptions on the input sequence.

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# A Comment on the Method of the Closest Unstable Equilibrium Point in Nonlinear Stability Analysis

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Abstract—A counterexample is presented to a theorem which has been proposed as a theoretical basis for the method of the closest unstable equilibrium point to estimate asymptotic stability regions in nonlinear systems. An additional condition is formulated under which the theorem is valid. Its implications on the applicability of the method are discussed.

### I. INTRODUCTION

The method of the closest unstable equilibrium point (c.u.e.p.) is a well-known direct method of the Lyapunov type for estimating regions of asymptotic stability (RAS) in nonlinear systems analysis. The method has been described, among others, by Chiang *et al.* [1], [2] and various applications, for example to the power system transient stability problem have been reported [3]–[5]. Its basic principle is the following: Consider an autonomous nonlinear dynamical system

$$\dot{x} = f(x) \tag{1}$$

where  $x \in R^n$  represents the state and  $f(\cdot)$  satisfies the sufficient conditions for the existence and the uniqueness of the solutions for given initial conditions. Suppose that a scalar function  $V(x) \in C^r$ ,  $r \geq 1$ , can be found such that along the solutions of (1)

$$\dot{V}(x) \le 0, \forall x \in R^n \\
= 0 \Leftrightarrow \dot{x} = 0.$$
(2)

By (2), V(x) is a Lyapunov function of (1) in  $R^n$ . Let  $\hat{x}_s$  be a locally asymptotically stable (l.a.s.) equilibrium state and let  $\Omega(\hat{x}_s) \subset R^n$  be its exact RAS. Suppose that on the stability boundary  $\partial\Omega(\hat{x}_s)$ , V(x) reaches an absolute minimum at  $x=\hat{x}_\epsilon$  and let

$$\min_{x \in \partial \Omega(\hat{x}_s)} V(x) = V(\hat{x}_\epsilon) = V_{\min}.$$
 (3)

Then it is well known that  $\hat{x}_{\epsilon}$  is an unstable equilibrium point of the system (1) [1]. Furthermore for any k in the interval

$$V(\hat{x}_s) < k \le V_{\min}$$

the set

$$S \triangleq \{x; V(x) < k\}$$

is the union of a number of connected, disjoint subsets

$$S = S_1 \cup S_2 \cup \cdots \cup S_r;$$

$$S_i \cap S_j = \emptyset$$
 for  $i \neq j$ 

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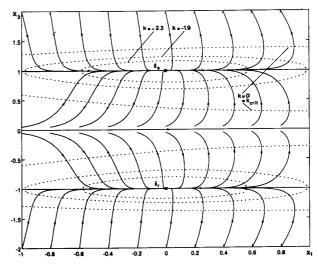


Fig. 1. Phase portrait of the system (5), (6) and level sets  $\partial S_1$  for varying level values k, for the numerical values  $a=2, b=1, \mu=0.8$ .

one of which, say  $S_1$  contains  $\hat{x}_s$ . This subset  $S_1$  is a RAS for  $\hat{x}_s$ 

$$S_1 \subseteq \Omega(\hat{x}_s)$$
.

The largest stability region  $S_1$  is obtained for  $k=V_{\min}$ . In [1] Chiang and Thorp have reported a theorem pertaining to the existence of the minimum  $V_{\min}$ , and a scheme for computing the corresponding stability region  $S_1$  based on it.

Theorem [1]: If system (1) has a Lyapunov function V(x) in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  which satisfies (2) and if  $\Omega(\hat{x}_s)$  is not dense in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $V_{\min}$  as defined by (3) exists and  $\hat{x}_e$  is an unstable equilibrium state.

The proof relies on the property that if for k=q the set  $\overline{S}_1$  is a closed and bounded neighborhood of  $\hat{x}_s$  which contains no other equilibria, and if for some p>q there are no equilibrium states in the set  $\overline{S}_1|_{k=p}-\overline{S}_1|_{k=q}$  then

$$\overline{S}_1|_{k=p}$$
 is also closed and bounded. (4)

In Section II a counterexample to this result and to the property (4) is presented. It is pointed out, however, that the theorem is valid under the additional assumption that all trajectories on the stability boundary  $\partial\Omega(\hat{x}_s)$  are bounded for  $t\geq 0$ . Section III discusses the implications of this proposition for the c.u.e.p. method.

# II. EXAMPLE

Consider an example of the form

$$\dot{x} = f(x) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} -\frac{\partial V(x)}{\partial x}$$
 (5)

where  $x \in \mathbb{R}^2$  and

$$V(x) \stackrel{\Delta}{=} e^{-x_1} - (2x_2^2 - x_2^4)v_1(x_1)$$
 (6)

with

$$v_1(x_1) = [e^{-x_1} + ae^{-\mu x_1^2} + b]$$

and a > 0, b > 0 and  $\mu > 0$ . Then

$$\dot{V}(x) = \left[\frac{\partial V(x)}{\partial x}\right]' \dot{x} = -\dot{x}' \dot{x} \tag{7}$$