



Original article

## Adaptive Control with Time-Varying Disturbance Observation and Saturation Compensation under Phased Error Constraints

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### Abstract

This paper investigates the problem of ship course control in the presence of model uncertainties, external disturbances, and actuator saturation. A high-performance autopilot is developed based on a direct neural network adaptive dynamic surface control (DSC) framework integrated with deep reinforcement learning. To compensate for lumped uncertainties arising from unmodeled dynamics and disturbances, a radial basis function (RBF) neural network is employed to provide online approximation within the control design. Moreover, the actuator saturation constraint is explicitly incorporated into the controller, avoiding performance degradation commonly encountered in conventional DSC schemes. To alleviate the reliance on manual parameter tuning, the controller parameter adaptation is formulated as a continuous-action optimization problem and solved using a deep deterministic policy gradient (DDPG) algorithm. The DDPG agent learns an optimal tuning policy by maximizing a reward function that penalizes course tracking errors, excessive control variations, and energy consumption. Simulation results demonstrate that the proposed method achieves improved tracking accuracy, smoother control inputs, and enhanced robustness under complex operating conditions, thereby validating the effectiveness of the DDPG-based adaptive tuning strategy for autonomous ship navigation.

*Keywords: Ship Heading Control; Deep Deterministic Policy Gradient; Input Saturation; Dynamic Surface Control; Neural Network*



## 1. Introduction

Robust control of nonlinear systems under complex conditions such as unknown dynamics, time-varying disturbances, and actuator saturation is a current research hotspot in the field of control. Among traditional control methods, the Proportion Integration Differentiation (PID) controller (Zhao C, 2025) is widely used due to its simple structure, but its adaptability is insufficient in nonlinear time varying systems (Mccue L, 2016). Although sliding mode control (SMC) enhances anti-interference capability through switching terms (Liu S and Li P, 2019), high-frequency chattering can easily exacerbate actuator wear (ABY, 2018). To overcome model uncertainty, radial basis function neural networks (RBFNN) have been introduced into adaptive control frameworks. For example, Chen C et al. (2017) uses RBFNN to approximate the nonlinear hydrodynamics of ships, but it does not consider input saturation constraints. Li K and Li Y (2020) further combines dynamic surface control (DSC) to alleviate the "curse of dimensionality" problem, but the control update frequency is still relatively high, making it difficult to meet the requirements of resource-constrained scenarios.

In the field of disturbance compensation, the latest advances in adaptive disturbance observers (ADO) and extended state observers (ESO) have provided new ideas for time-varying disturbance estimation. Wang J et al. (2024) proposes a composite disturbance observer that integrates neural networks and linear filters to improve estimation robustness in noisy environments. Chen W H et al. (2016) further designs an observer driven by deep reinforcement learning to enhance the generalization ability of dynamic disturbances, but it does not coordinate optimization of control efficiency. Dynamic threshold strategies reduce control update frequency and have shown significant advantages in robots (Qiu J, 2016) and unmanned aerial vehicles (Chen Q, 2016). For example, Yang X et al. (2022) proposes an adaptive threshold, but its parameter adaptability in the transient-steady state stage still needs to be improved.

Regarding input saturation problems, hard saturation strategies (Madeira D D S, 2024) are prone to stability risks, while Ge Q et al. (2025) proposes a continuous differentiable saturation function based on the Gaussian error function, which effectively suppresses high-frequency chattering. Xia X et al. (2024) combines an auxiliary dynamic system to compensate for saturation errors online, but it does not solve the dynamic performance optimization under asymmetric constraints. Phased control strategies balance convergence speed and steady-state accuracy through time-varying parameter adjustment. Sun Z Y et al. (2024) verifies the

effectiveness of phased error constraints, but its theoretical framework in general nonlinear systems is not yet perfect.

Existing research faces three limitations: no systematic solution for suppressing coupled time-varying disturbances, input saturation, and Gaussian noise; an imperfect balance between control accuracy and computational efficiency; and fixed threshold strategies failing to meet the dual requirements of fast transient convergence and high steady-state precision in ship heading control.

Asymmetric input saturation, resulting from ship rudder physical limitations, hydrodynamic effects, and safety requirements, degrades performance when simplified to a symmetric model. To address this, this study sets the rudder angle saturation limit to  $[-10^\circ, 15^\circ]$  to align with maritime practice and enhance robust performance across all working conditions.

Aiming at the robust control problem of nonlinear systems under the coupled effects of time-varying disturbances, input saturation, and Gaussian noise, this paper proposes an adaptive control method integrating phased error constraints and asymmetric saturation compensation. By designing a time-varying disturbance observer to estimate disturbances online, combining the Gaussian error function to construct a continuous differentiable saturation model to handle asymmetric input constraints, and incorporating the noise upper bound into the sliding mode switching term design; innovatively using the phased error constraint strategy to dynamically adjust the error boundary; constructing a composite Lyapunov function at the theoretical level to prove that all signals of the closed-loop system are semi-globally uniformly ultimately bounded and the tracking error converges to a preset neighborhood.

## 2. Problem Analysis

### 2.1. Mathematical Model of the Ship Heading Control System

Consider an  $n$ -th-order control system model with nonlinear uncertainties, unknown external disturbances, and time-varying disturbances:

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x}_i &= f_i(\bar{x}_i) + x_{i+1} + d_i(t) + \xi_i(t) \\ \dot{x}_n &= f_n(\bar{x}_n) + g_n(\bar{x}_n)u + d_n(t) + \xi_n(t) \\ y &= x_1\end{aligned}\quad (1)$$

where  $i = 1, \dots, n-1$  and  $x_i \in \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  are the  $i$ -th system state variables,  $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ ,  $\dot{x}_i$ ,

and  $\dot{x}_n$  are the derivatives of the system state variables,  $\bar{x}_i$  is the vector of the first  $i$  states, and  $\bar{x}_n$  is the vector of  $n$  states.  $f_i(\bar{x}_i)$  is an unknown nonlinear function.  $g_i(\bar{x}_i), i=1, \dots, n$  is a known control gain function, and  $g_{\max} \geq |g_i(\bar{x}_i)| \geq g_{\min} > 0$  ( $g_{\min}$  and  $g_{\max}$  are known positive constants).  $u$  is the control input;  $d_i(t)$  is the  $i$ -th time-varying bounded disturbance, and it satisfies  $\|d_i(t)\| \leq D$ , ( $D$  is a known positive constant).  $\xi_i(t) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_n^2)$  is the  $i$ -th Gaussian noise.  $u \in [u_{\min}, u_{\max}]$  represents the input saturation constraint. And  $y$  is the system output. The following assumptions are made for the above system:

**Assumption 1** The reference signal  $y_d(t)$  is smooth and bounded, and has continuous bounded derivatives up to the  $n$ -th order, i.e, there exists a positive constant  $B$  such that the set  $\{y_d(t), \dot{y}_d(t), \dots, y_d^{(n)}(t), |y_d(t)| \leq B, |\dot{y}_d(t)| \leq B, |y_d^{(n)}(t)| \leq B\}$  holds (Wu S and Li X, 2024).

**Assumption 2** The uncertainties  $f_i(x_i)$  and the time-varying disturbance observer  $d_i(t)$  have an upper bound, i.e, there exist unknown positive constants  $d_i(t)$  and  $\bar{d}$  such that  $|f_i(\bar{x}_i)| \leq \bar{f}$  and  $|d_i(t)| \leq \bar{d}$  hold (Wu S and Li X, 2024) (Liu G,2024).

**Assumption 3**  $f_i(x_i)$  is an unknown nonlinear smooth function, whose derivative is known, and there exists a constant  $L_f$  such that  $|f_i(x_1) - f_i(x_2)| \leq L_f \|x_1 - x_2\|$  holds; there exists a constant  $m_f$  such that  $m_f \leq f_i(x_i) \leq -m_f$  holds (without loss of generality, assume  $f_i(x_i)$  is bounded and its sign is known) (Liu G,2024).

**Assumption 4** The time-varying disturbance  $d_i(t)$  is continuously differentiable, and its derivative  $\dot{d}_i(t)$  is bounded, i.e, there exists a positive constant  $M$  such that  $\|\dot{d}_i(t)\| \leq M$  holds (Wu S and Li X, 2024) (Liu G,2024), which reflects the smoothness and finite energy of the actual disturbance. In practical applications, the original disturbance signal can be preprocessed through a low-pass filter to satisfy this assumption.

**Assumption 5** Observer stability condition: There exists a positive constant  $l_{i1}, l_{i2}, \sigma_{o,i}$  such that the

observer gain satisfies  $k_i > \frac{3}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \bar{g}_i^2$ ,  $l_{i1} > \frac{3}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \bar{l}_i^2$ ,  $\sigma_{di} > \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\sigma_i > \|\phi_i\|^2$ ,  $\sigma_{o,i} > \|\phi_i\|^2$ .

**Design Objective:** For the  $n$ -th-order control system (1) with unknown nonlinear functions, unknown external disturbances, and a time-varying disturbance observer, in the presence of input saturation, a direct adaptive neural network controller is designed using Backstepping adaptive technology, DSC technology, neural network technology, and a saturation auxiliary design system. This controller ensures that all signals in the closed-loop system are semi-globally uniformly ultimately bounded, and the tracking error  $Z_1 = x_1 - y_d$  can be made arbitrarily small. Meanwhile, a state observer for time-varying disturbances is designed to estimate the disturbances and improve control accuracy (Liu Jinhua, 2025) (Ning Jun, 2024).

## 2.2 Design of a Nonlinear Time-Varying Disturbance Observer

The nonlinear time-varying disturbance observer unifies nonlinear dynamic estimation and disturbance estimation in an extended state space by combining neural network approximation with dynamic compensation (Wu S and Li X, 2024), (Garone E, 2017) aiming to solve the state and disturbance estimation problem in system (1).

### Step 1: State Observer Design

First a model-based state observer is designed to estimate the system states that cannot be directly measured:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\hat{x}}_i &= \hat{W}_{o,i}^T \phi(\hat{x}_i) + g_i(\hat{x}_i) \hat{x}_{i+1} + \hat{d}_i(t) + l_{i,1}(y - \hat{y}) \\ \dot{\hat{x}}_n &= \hat{W}_{o,n}^T \phi(\hat{x}_n) + g_n(\hat{x}_n) u + \hat{d}_n(t) + l_{n,1}(y - \hat{y}) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where  $\hat{x}_i$  denotes the estimated value of the  $i$ -th state;  $l_{i,1}$  and  $l_{n,1}$  are the state observer gains;  $g_i(\hat{x}_i)$  is a known control gain function;  $u$  is the system control input vector;  $\hat{W}_{o,i}^T \phi(\hat{x}_i)$  is the approximation of the unknown nonlinear smooth function  $f_i(\bar{x}_i)$  by a radial basis function neural network;  $y$  is the measured value of the system actual output;  $\hat{y}$  is the estimated value of the system output;  $\hat{d}_i(t) = [\hat{d}_1(t), \hat{d}_2(t), \dots, \hat{d}_n(t)]^T$  is the estimated value of the  $i$ -th time-varying disturbance; and  $\dot{\hat{d}}_i(t) = [\dot{\hat{d}}_1(t), \dot{\hat{d}}_2(t), \dots, \dot{\hat{d}}_n(t)]^T$  is the derivative of the time-varying disturbance estimated value. This observer drives the state estimated value  $y - \hat{y}$  to approach the true state  $x$  by using

the system model and the output error  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ .

### Step 2: Disturbance Observer Design

Based on the obtained state estimate  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ , a disturbance observer is designed to online estimate the time-varying disturbance  $\mathbf{d}_i(t)$ . The dynamic design of the disturbance observer is as follows:

$$\dot{\hat{\mathbf{d}}}_i(t) = l_{i,2}(y - \hat{y}) - \sigma_i \hat{\mathbf{d}}_i(t) \quad (3)$$

In practice, the true state derivative  $\dot{\mathbf{x}}_i$  is unavailable and can be replaced using Equation (1) or obtained by designing a sliding mode differentiator or other methods. Here,  $\hat{\mathbf{d}}_i(t)$  denotes the estimated value of the  $i$ -th time-varying disturbance,  $l_{i,2}$  is the disturbance observer gain, and  $\sigma_i$  is the attenuation coefficient for disturbance estimation. This design uses the differential signal of the state estimation error as the driving force, and ensures that  $\hat{\mathbf{d}}_i(t)$  tracks the true disturbance  $\mathbf{d}_i(t)$  through the gain  $L_{d,i}$  and the attenuation dynamics  $-\sigma_i \hat{\mathbf{d}}_i(t)$ .

As described above, the composite observer consists core of the state observer (2) and the disturbance observer (3).

To analyze the stability of the state observer (2) and the disturbance observer (3), the state estimation error  $\mathbf{e}_{o,i} = \mathbf{x}_i - \hat{\mathbf{x}}_i$  and the disturbance estimation error  $\mathbf{e}_{d,i} = \mathbf{d}_i(t) - \hat{\mathbf{d}}_i(t)$  are defined.

## 2.3. Asymmetric Saturation and Compensation by an Auxiliary Dynamic System

### 2.3.1 Asymmetric Saturation Model

Asymmetric saturation control is designed for scenarios where the actuator input has different amplitude limits in positive and negative directions, aiming to avoid the stability problems caused by hard saturation (Tran T, 2015) (Du H, 2016). For the asymmetric saturation model, the saturation characteristic of the actuator input is defined as:

$$u_p = sat(u_s) = \begin{cases} u_{\max}, & u_s \geq u_{\max} \\ u_s, & u_{\min} < u_s < u_{\max} \\ u_{\min}, & u_s \leq u_{\min} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

where  $u_s$  is the original output command of the controller,  $u_p$  is the actual output control quantity of the actuator,  $u_{\max}$  is the positive saturation

limit,  $u_{\min}$  is the negative saturation limit, and  $u_{\max} \neq |u_{\min}|$ .

To avoid the control signal discontinuity and stability problems caused by hard saturation, a continuous and differentiable saturation approximation model is constructed using the Gaussian error function for smoothing (Su Wenxue, 2024) (Liu T, 2015):

$$u_t = sat_{smooth}(u) = \frac{u_{\max} + u_{\min}}{2} + \frac{u_{\max} - u_{\min}}{2} \cdot erf\left(\frac{u_s - u_c}{\sigma}\right) \quad (5)$$

where  $u_c$  is the saturation center,  $\sigma > 0$  is the smoothing factor that controls the steepness of the transition region. This smoothing model  $sat_{smooth}(u)$  is used to characterize the saturation characteristic in theoretical analysis, while the controller is designed based on the original command  $u$ .

### 2.3.2 Auxiliary Dynamic System Compensation

To counteract the adverse effects of saturation nonlinearity on system stability, the following auxiliary dynamic system is introduced to generate the compensation signal:

$$\dot{\xi} = -k_\xi \xi + \Delta u \quad (6)$$

where  $\xi$  is the state variable of the auxiliary system;  $k_\xi > 0$  is the damping coefficient that ensures the stability of the auxiliary system;  $\Delta u = u_s - u_m$  is the control input difference caused by saturation. The output  $\xi$  of this auxiliary system will be integrated into the subsequent backstepping control design. Specifically, we will modify the definition of the tracking error or the virtual control law and introduce  $\xi$  as a compensation term.

Introducing auxiliary dynamic system compensation for saturation error  $\Delta u_a = u_t - u_s$ :

$$\dot{e}_c = -k_d e_c - |e_c \Delta u_a| + \gamma \Delta u_a \quad (7)$$

where  $k_d > 0$  is the damping coefficient,  $e_c$  is the state variable of the compensator,  $\dot{e}_c$  is the derivative of the state variable of the compensator, and  $\gamma > 0$  is the coupling gain that ensures the boundedness of  $e_c$  and suppresses the saturation effect.

Combined with backstepping and asymmetric saturation compensation, the control input is designed (Su Wenxue, 2024) (Jiao Jianfang, 2025):

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}_w + \mathbf{u}_e \quad (8)$$

where  $\mathbf{v}$  is the total control input; the equivalent control term  $\mathbf{u}_e$ , designed based on the nominal model, such as sliding mode equivalent control;

Switching Control Term  $\mathbf{u}_w$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u}_w &= -K \cdot \text{sat}\left(\frac{\mathbf{s}(t)}{\phi}\right) \\ &= -K \cdot \text{sign}(\mathbf{s}(t)) \cdot \tanh\left(\frac{|\mathbf{s}(t)|}{\phi}\right) \end{aligned} \quad (9)$$

where  $K > 0$  is the compensation gain;  $s_i(t) = \lambda_s e_s(t) + \dot{e}_s(t)$  is the sliding mode surface variable,  $\mathbf{s}(t) = [s_1(t), s_2(t), \dots, s_i(t), \dots, s_n(t)]^T$ ;  $\lambda_s > 0$  is the convergence rate parameter;  $e_s(t)$  is the basic tracking error,  $\dot{e}_s(t)$  is the derivative of the tracking error;  $\phi > 0$  is the smoothing parameter that controls the slope of the transition region of the saturation function;  $\text{sat}(\cdot)$  is the smoothed saturation function, defined here as a hyperbolic tangent form;  $\text{sign}(\cdot)$  is the sign function;  $\tanh(\cdot)$  is the hyperbolic tangent smoothing function to avoid high-frequency switching.

#### 2.4. Phase-by-Phase Error Constraints

Phase-by-phase error constraints adjust dynamic performance through time-varying parameters to adapt to the requirements of different control phases (Chen H, 2021). The error bounds are designed as follows:

$$E_{mi}(t) = \begin{cases} E_i, & t < T_3 \\ E_m, & T_3 \leq t < T_4 \\ E_f, & t \geq T_4 \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

where  $E_{mi}(t)$  is the time-varying error bound;  $E_i$  is the initial phase boundary value;  $E_m$  is the transition phase boundary value;  $E_f$  is the steady-state phase boundary value;  $T_3$  and  $T_4$  are the phase switching time thresholds.

### 3. Controller Design and Stability Analysis

#### 3.1. Controller Design

The tracking error is:

$$z_i = \begin{cases} \hat{x}_i - y_d, & i = 1 \\ \hat{x}_i - a_{i-1}, & i = 2, 3, \dots, n \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

where  $z_i$  is the  $i$ -th layer tracking error;  $a_{i-1}$  is the  $i$ -th virtual control law. When  $i=1$ ,  $z_1 = \hat{x}_1 - y_d$  is the basic tracking error; when  $i \geq 2$ ,  $z_i = \hat{x}_i - a_{i-1}$  is the backstepping recursive error.

The sliding mode surface with error function (Du H, 2016) (Liu G, 2024) is:

$$s_i(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i z_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} a_i \cdot \text{erf}\left(\frac{z_i}{a_i}\right) \quad (12)$$

where  $s_i(t) \in \{s_1(t), s_2(t), \dots, s_n(t)\}$  is the composite sliding mode surface;  $\lambda_i > 0$  is the convergence rate parameter of the  $i$ -th sliding mode surface, ensuring dynamic convergence speed;

$\text{erf}\left(\frac{z_i}{a_i}\right) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{\frac{z_i}{a_i}} e^{-t^2} dt$  is used to smooth the control law,  $e$  is the natural constant, and  $b_i > 0$  is the smoothing parameter of the  $i$ -th Gaussian error function.

The sliding mode surface constraint is

$$|z_i| \leq E_{mi}(t), |s_i(t)| \leq \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i E_{mi}(t).$$

For the  $n$ -th order system (1), combined with the neural network technology mentioned in Reference (Wu S and Li X, 2024), a design procedure for direct adaptive neural network control considering system input saturation is proposed.

**Step 1:** Consider system (1) when  $n=1$ , define the first error surface  $z_1 = x_1 - y_d(t)$ , where  $\dot{y}_d(t)$  is the derivative of the reference signal, and select the intermediate stabilizing function  $\alpha_1$  as the virtual control law for the first subsystem. Differentiating  $z_1$  yields

$$\dot{z}_1 = f_1(x_1) + x_2 + \xi_1(t) + d_1(t) - \dot{y}_d \quad (13)$$

The virtual control law  $\alpha_1$  is selected as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_1 &= \frac{1}{g_1(\hat{x}_1)} [-k_1 z_1 + \dot{y}_d - \hat{d}_1(t) \\ &\quad - \hat{W}_1^T \phi_1(\hat{x}_1) - l_{11} e_{o,1}] \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

where  $k_1 > 0$  is the error feedback gain parameter, the weight update law is:

$$\dot{W}_1 = \gamma_1(S_1(x_1)z_1 - \sigma_1 W_1) \quad (15)$$

where  $W_1$  is the neural network weight vector,  $\dot{W}_1$  is the derivative of the neural network weight vector;  $\gamma_1$  is the adaptive learning rate;  $S_1(x_1)$  is the RBF basis function vector;  $\sigma_1 > 0$  is the  $\sigma$ -correction coefficient.

[Note] The introduction of the correction term  $\sigma_1 \hat{\theta}_1$  for  $\sigma_1$  is to improve the robustness of the neural network approximation error. Without this correction term, the neural network weight estimate  $\hat{\theta}_1$  may drift to very large values, transforming it into a high-gain control algorithm (Wu S and Li X, 2024).

To avoid the problem of "computational explosion",  $\alpha_1$  is passed through a first-order filter  $\omega_1$  with a time constant  $\tau_1$  (Wu S and Li X, 2024), i.e.,

$$\tau_1 \dot{\omega}_1 + \omega_1 = \alpha_1, \quad \omega_1(0) = \alpha_1(0) \quad (16)$$

where  $\tau_1$  is the filter time constant;  $\omega_1$  is the filtered virtual control signal, and  $\dot{\omega}_1$  is the derivative of the filtered virtual control signal.

Define the second error surface  $z_2 = x_2 - \omega_1$ .

**Step  $i$ :** Consider system (1) when  $1 < i < n$ , similarly, consider  $\dot{z}_i$ , differentiating  $z_i$  yields

$$\dot{z}_i = f_i(\bar{x}_i) + x_{i+1} + \xi_i(t) + d_i(t) - \dot{\omega}_{i-1} \quad (17)$$

The virtual control law  $\alpha_{n-1}$  is selected as follows:

$$\alpha_i = \frac{1}{g_i(\hat{x}_i)} [-k_i z_i - \hat{W}_i^T \phi(\hat{x}_i) - \hat{d}_i(t) - \dot{\alpha}_{i-1} - g_{i-1} z_{i-1} - l_{il} e_{o,1}] \quad (18)$$

where  $k_i > 0$  is the  $i$ -th error feedback gain parameter.

Let  $\alpha_i$  pass through a first-order filter  $\omega_i$  with a time constant  $\tau_i$ , i.e.,

$$\tau_i \dot{\omega}_i + \omega_i = \alpha_i, \quad \omega_i(0) = \alpha_i(0) \quad (19)$$

**Step  $n$ :** Define the  $n$ -th error surface  $z_{i+1} = x_{i+1} - \omega_i$  (Wu S and Li X, 2024). Considering  $\dot{z}_n$ , differentiating  $z_n$  yields:

$$\dot{z}_n = f_n(\bar{x}_n) + g_n(\bar{x}_n)u + \xi_n(t) + d_n(t) - \dot{\omega}_{n-1} \quad (20)$$

Gaussian noise compensation, the variance  $\sigma_n^2$  of the noise term  $\xi_i(t)$  adjusts the noise intensity through the standard deviation. Assuming bounded noise satisfies  $|\xi_i(t)| \leq \bar{\xi}_i$ , and incorporates it into the disturbance term in the Lyapunov function analysis.

Input saturation is smoothed using a Gaussian error function (Chen H, 2021):

$$u_t = u_c + f \cdot \text{erf}\left(\sqrt{\pi} \cdot \frac{u_s - u_c}{f}\right) \quad (21)$$

The saturation error  $\Delta u_a = u_t - u_s$  is compensated by an auxiliary system.

To conveniently consider the effect of system input saturation  $u = \text{sat}(v)$ , the auxiliary design system is selected as follows:

$$\dot{y}_e = -\frac{\left(\sum_{i=1}^n |z_i(u_t - v)| + \eta(u_t - v)^2\right)}{y_e} - k_e y_e + \Delta u_a \quad (22)$$

The equivalent control term  $u_e$  is as follows (Chen H, 2021):

$$u_e = \frac{1}{g_n(\hat{x}_n)} [(-k_n z_n - \hat{W}_n^T \phi(\hat{x}_n) - \hat{d}_n + \dot{\alpha}_{n-1} - g_{n-1} z_{n-1} - l_{nl} e_{o,1})] \quad (23)$$

where  $g_n(\hat{x}_n)$  is the known control gain estimate;  $k_n$  is a positive definite control gain ( $k_n > 0$ );  $g_{n-1} z_{n-1}$  is a stability compensation term used to cancel the influence of the error dynamics from the previous step.

The switching control term  $u_w$  adopts a saturation function to reduce high-frequency chattering (Chen H, 2021), as follows:

$$u_w = -\frac{1}{g_n(x_n)} \hat{\rho}_n \cdot \text{sat}\left(\frac{z_n}{\phi}\right) \quad (24)$$

The total control rate is:

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}_e + \mathbf{u}_w \quad (25)$$

### 3.2. Nonlinear Time-Varying Disturbance Observer Design

Based on the nonlinear system model (1) in Section 2.1, the corresponding nonlinear time-varying disturbance observer is designed as follows

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\hat{\mathbf{x}}}_i = \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{o,i}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i) + \mathbf{g}_i(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i) \hat{\mathbf{x}}_{i+1} + \hat{\mathbf{d}}_i(t) + l_{i1}(x_i - \hat{x}_i) \\ \dot{\hat{\mathbf{x}}}_n = \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{o,n}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_n) + \mathbf{g}_n(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_n) u + \hat{\mathbf{d}}_n(t) + l_{n1}(x_n - \hat{x}_n) \\ \dot{\hat{\mathbf{d}}}_i(t) = l_{i2}(x_i - \hat{x}_i) - \sigma_{di} \hat{\mathbf{d}}_i(t) \\ \dot{\hat{\mathbf{d}}}_n(t) = l_{n2}(x_n - \hat{x}_n) - \sigma_{dn} \hat{\mathbf{d}}_n(t) \end{cases} \quad (26)$$

where  $\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i$  denotes the vector  $[\hat{x}_1, \hat{x}_2, \dots, \hat{x}_i]^T$ ;  $\sigma_{di}$  and  $\sigma_{dn}$  are the disturbance estimation attenuation parameters.

Define the observation error  $e_{o,i} = x_i - \hat{x}_i$  and the disturbance estimation error  $e_{d,i} = d_i(t) - \hat{d}_i(t)$ , the error dynamics can be obtained as:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{e}_{o,i} = e_{d,i} - l_{i1} e_{o,i} + [f_i(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i) - \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{o,i}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i)] \\ \quad + [\mathbf{g}_i(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i) x_{i+1} - \mathbf{g}_i(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i) \hat{x}_{i+1}] + \xi \\ \dot{e}_{o,n} = e_{d,n} - l_{n1} e_{o,n} + [f_n(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_n) - \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{o,n}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_n)] \\ \quad + [\mathbf{g}_n(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_n) - \mathbf{g}_n(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_n)] u + \xi_n \end{cases} \quad (27)$$

$$\begin{cases} \dot{e}_{d,i} = \dot{d}_i - l_{i2} e_{o,i} + \sigma_{di} \hat{d}_i \\ \dot{e}_{d,n} = \dot{d}_n - l_{n2} e_{o,n} + \sigma_{dn} \hat{d}_n \end{cases} \quad (28)$$

where  $x_{i+1}$  is the actual state,  $\hat{x}_{i+1}$  is the estimated state;  $\xi_i$  and  $\xi_n$  are modeling errors or noise;  $\dot{d}_i$  and  $\dot{d}_n$  are the derivatives of the actual disturbance.

$$\dot{\hat{\mathbf{W}}}_{o,i} = \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{o,i} [\boldsymbol{\phi}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i) \mathbf{e}_{o,i} - \sigma_{o,i} \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{o,i}], i = 1, \dots, n \quad (29)$$

where  $\dot{\hat{\mathbf{W}}}_i$  is the time derivative of the  $i$ -th weight estimation vector;  $\boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{o,i}$  is a positive definite matrix, which is the observer neural network learning rate matrix;  $\sigma_{o,i}$  is the  $\sigma$ -correction coefficient.

### 3.3. Stability Analysis

For the time-varying disturbance observer, construct a Lyapunov function including the observer error.

$$\begin{aligned} V &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n z_i^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \eta_i^2 \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{e}_{o,i}^T \mathbf{P} \mathbf{e}_{o,i} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{e}_{d,i}^T \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{e}_{d,i} \\ &+ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \tilde{\mathbf{W}}_i^T \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_i^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{W}}_i + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \tilde{\mathbf{W}}_{o,i}^T \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{o,i}^{-1} \tilde{\mathbf{W}}_{o,i} \end{aligned} \quad (30)$$

where  $\tilde{\mathbf{W}}_i = \mathbf{W}_i - \mathbf{W}_i^*$  is the controller neural network weight error;  $\tilde{\mathbf{W}}_{o,i} = \mathbf{W}_{o,i} - \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{o,i}$  is the observer neural network weight error;  $\eta_i$  is the robust term parameter.

Differentiating  $V$  yields:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{V} &= \sum_{i=1}^n z_i \dot{z}_i + \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{e}_{o,i}^T \mathbf{P} \dot{\mathbf{e}}_{o,i} + \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{e}_{d,i}^T \mathbf{Q} \dot{\mathbf{e}}_{d,i} \\ &- \sum_{i=1}^n \tilde{\mathbf{W}}_i^T \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_i^{-1} \dot{\tilde{\mathbf{W}}}_i - \sum_{i=1}^n \tilde{\mathbf{W}}_{o,i}^T \boldsymbol{\Gamma}_{o,i}^{-1} \dot{\tilde{\mathbf{W}}}_{o,i} + \sum_{i=1}^n \eta_i \dot{\eta}_i \end{aligned} \quad (31)$$

Expand term by term: Dynamic analysis of tracking error:

Step 1:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{z}_1 &= -k_1 z_1 + (\tilde{\mathbf{W}}_{o,1} - \tilde{\mathbf{W}}_1)^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\hat{x}_1) \\ &+ \mathbf{g}_1(\hat{x}_1) z_2 - \eta_1 \text{sat}\left(\frac{z_1}{\varepsilon_1}\right) + \varepsilon_1 + \Delta \mathbf{g}_1 \end{aligned} \quad (32)$$

where  $\Delta \mathbf{g}_1 = \mathbf{g}_1(x_1) x_2 - \mathbf{g}_1(\hat{x}_1) \hat{x}_2$  is the control gain error;  $\varepsilon_1 = \mathbf{W}_1^{*T} \boldsymbol{\phi}(x_1) - \hat{\mathbf{W}}_{o,1}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\hat{x}_1) = \mathbf{W}_1^{*T} (\boldsymbol{\phi}(x_1) - \boldsymbol{\phi}(\hat{x}_1)) + \tilde{\mathbf{W}}_{o,1}^T \boldsymbol{\phi}(\hat{x}_1)$  is the neural network approximation error.

Step i:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{z}_i &= \dot{\hat{x}}_i - \dot{\alpha}_{i-1} \\ &= -k_i z_i + (\tilde{\mathbf{W}}_{o,i} - \tilde{\mathbf{W}}_i)^T \boldsymbol{\phi}_i(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i) + \mathbf{g}_i(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i) z_{i+1} \\ &- \mathbf{g}_{i-1}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_{i-1}) z_{i-1} - \eta_i \text{sat}\left(\frac{z_i}{\varepsilon_i}\right) + \varepsilon_i + \Delta \mathbf{g}_i \end{aligned} \quad (33)$$

Step n:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{z}_n &= \dot{\hat{x}}_n - \dot{\alpha}_{n-1} \\ &= -k_n z_n + (\tilde{\mathbf{W}}_{o,n}^T - \tilde{\mathbf{W}}_n^T)^T \boldsymbol{\phi}_n(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_n) - \eta_n \text{sat}\left(\frac{z_n}{\varepsilon_n}\right) \\ &- \mathbf{g}_{n-1}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_{n-1}) z_{n-1} - \rho_n \tanh\left(\frac{S_n}{\delta_n}\right) + \varepsilon_n + \Delta \mathbf{g}_n \end{aligned} \quad (34)$$

Observation Error Dynamic Analysis

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{e}_{o,i} &= \dot{x}_i - \dot{\hat{x}}_i \\ &= [f_i(\bar{x}_i) + g_i(\bar{x}_i)x_{i+1} + d_i(t) + \xi_i] \\ &\quad - [\hat{W}_{o,i}^T \phi(\bar{x}_i) + g_i(\bar{x}_i)\hat{x}_{i+1} + \hat{d}_i(t) + l_{i1}e_{o,i}] \quad (35) \\ &= -\tilde{W}_{o,i}^T \phi(\bar{x}_i) + \varepsilon_{o,i} + \Delta f_i \\ &\quad + \Delta g_{o,i} + e_{d,i} - l_{i1}e_{o,i} + \xi_i \end{aligned}$$

where  $\varepsilon_{o,i} = f_i(\bar{x}_i) - W_{o,i}^{*T} \phi(\bar{x}_i)$  is the observer neural network approximation error;  $\Delta f_i = W_{o,i}^{*T} [\phi(\hat{x}_i) - \phi(\bar{x}_i)]$  is the basis function error;  $\Delta g_{o,i} = g_i(\bar{x}_i)x_{i+1} - g_i(\hat{x}_i)\hat{x}_{i+1}$  is the observer control gain error.

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{V} \leq & -\sum_{i=1}^n [k_i - \frac{3}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \bar{g}_i^2] z_i^2 \\ & -\sum_{i=1}^n [l_{i1} - \frac{3}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \bar{l}_i^2] e_{o,i}^2 \\ & -\sum_{i=1}^n [\sigma_{di} - \frac{1}{2}] e_{d,i}^2 \\ & -\sum_{i=1}^n [\frac{\sigma_i}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \|\phi\|^2] \|\tilde{W}_i\|^2 \\ & -\sum_{i=1}^n [\frac{\sigma_{o,i}}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \|\phi\|^2] \|\tilde{W}_{o,i}\|^2 \\ & -\sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_{\eta,i} \eta_i^2 + \Delta \end{aligned} \quad (36)$$

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$$\begin{aligned} \Delta = & \sum_{i=1}^n [\frac{1}{2} \bar{\varepsilon}_i^2 + \frac{1}{2} \bar{\varepsilon}_{o,i}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \bar{h}_i^2(t) + \frac{1}{2} \bar{\xi}_i^2 + \frac{\sigma_i}{2} \|\mathbf{W}_i^*\|^2 \\ & + \frac{\sigma_{o,i}}{2} \|\mathbf{W}_{o,i}^*\|^2] \end{aligned}$$

is the sum of all bounded terms.

The final boundedness conclusion  $\dot{V} \leq -cV + \Delta$ , obtained by the comparison lemma, gives:

$$V(t) \leq V(0)e^{-ct} + \frac{\Delta}{c}(1 - e^{-ct}).$$

Therefore, all signals

are semi-globally uniformly ultimately bounded, and the tracking error, observation error, and estimation error converge to a compact set. Thus, it is proven that the system is stable under the combined action of the controller and observer, and can effectively improve the system's ability to estimate and compensate for disturbances, enhancing the control accuracy of the system under time-varying disturbances.

#### 4. Simulation Verification

A simulation study is conducted using a specific

c training vessel as the application example. The vessel has a length  $L$  of 126.0 m, a beam  $B$  of 20.8 m, and a full-load draft  $d$  of 8.0 m (Wu S and Li X, 2024). The parameters  $K=0.478$ ,  $T=216$ ,  $a_1=1$ ,  $a_2=30$  of the ship's nonlinear motion mathematical model are calculated.

In the simulation, the initial conditions are selected as follows: the initial state of  $x_1$  is  $20^\circ$ , the initial state of  $x_2$  is zero, and the controller gains  $k_1=0.15$ ,  $k_2=120$ ,  $\tau=0.5$ ,  $\gamma=0.01$ ,  $\sigma=200$  as well as the observer gain matrix  $L=[2,1,5]^T$  are selected.

Computer simulation studies are carried out using MATLAB, and the results are as follows:

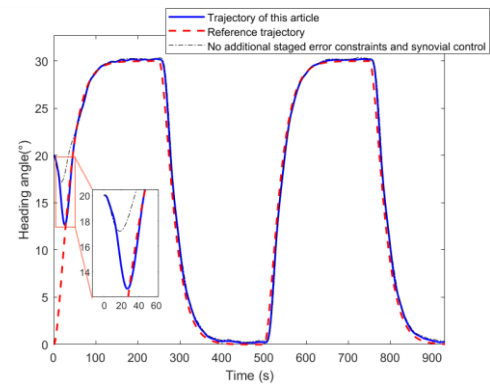


Fig. 1 Heading Tracking Comparison

Figure 1 is a course tracking comparison diagram. In the figure, the blue solid line represents the trajectory tracking situation of this paper, the black dashed line represents the tracking situation of the ship without the asymmetric saturation and sliding mode control, and the red dashed line represents the reference trajectory tracking situation. According to the image, the course of the red solid line can approach the actual situation of the ship faster than the blue dashed line and the black dashed line.

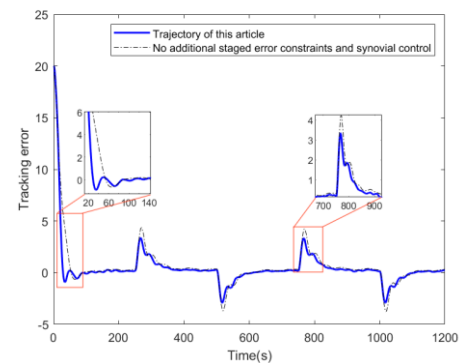
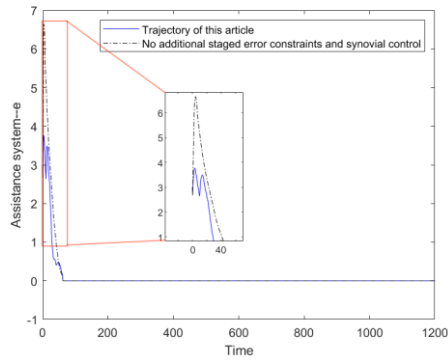


Fig. 2 Ship Tracking Error

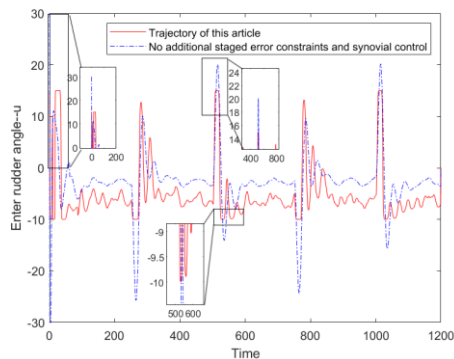
In Figure 2, the blue solid line represents the f

unction of this paper, and the black dashed line represents the tracking situation of the ship without sliding mode, asymmetric function unknown adaptation, and neural networks. By comparing the two curves, it can be concluded that the tracking error of the blue solid line shrinks faster and the error value is also smaller.



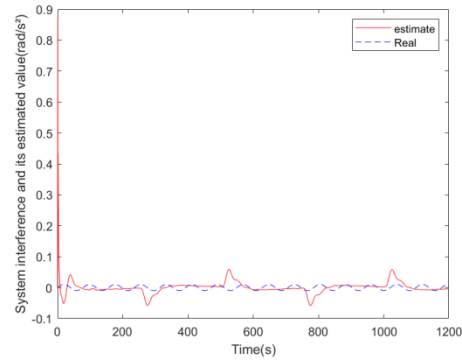
**Fig. 3 Comparison of Dynamic Changes in Auxiliary System State Variables**

In Figure 3, the blue solid line represents the function of this paper, and the black dashed line represents the tracking situation of the ship without sliding mode, asymmetric function unknown adaptation, and neural networks. By comparing the two curves, it can be concluded that the blue solid line has a smaller range of variation in the auxiliary system variables.



**Fig. 4 Dynamic Variation of Input Rudder Angle  $u$  with and without Asymmetric Saturation Control**

In Figure 4, the blue dashed line represents the dynamic variation of the input rudder angle  $u$  without the asymmetric saturation control function, and the red solid line represents the dynamic variation of the input rudder angle  $u$  with the asymmetric saturation control function. By comparing the two curves in the figure, it can be clearly seen that the interval of the asymmetric saturation control function is between  $15^\circ$  and  $-10$ .



**Fig. 5 Comparison of Time-Varying Observer Disturbances with Their Estimated and Actual Values**

In Figure 5, the red solid line represents the estimated value of the time-varying disturbance by the time-varying disturbance observer, and the blue dashed line represents the true value of the time-varying disturbance. By comparing the two curves, it can be concluded that the time-varying disturbance estimated by the time-varying disturbance observer has a large initial deviation, gradually becomes stable afterwards. Although there is still oscillation, the overall amplitude is small.

## 5. Conclusion

This study addresses the robust control problem of complex nonlinear systems under multiple constraints, including unknown dynamics, time-varying disturbances, and input saturation. A dynamic surface control technique is employed to suppress computational complexity, an improved radial basis function neural network is combined to achieve efficient approximation of unknown dynamics, and a phase-based error constraint strategy is designed to dynamically optimize the convergence speed and steady-state accuracy. For the asymmetric saturation issue, a compensation mechanism based on an auxiliary dynamic system is constructed, effectively balancing the actuator energy consumption and anti-high-frequency chattering performance. Simulation experiments using a ship course keeping control system verify the effectiveness of the proposed method. The asymmetric saturation compensation strategy effectively suppresses the high-frequency chattering of the actuator and maintains course stability in Gaussian noise environments. This study relies on the observability assumption of disturbance upper bounds and the persistent excitation condition for neural network parameter convergence, which does not fully consider the impact of communication delays and data packet loss, and is limited to the single-agent system scenario. Future research can combine distributionally robust optimization with transfer learning to design an adaptive control architecture that does not depend on prior disturbance information, integrate

time-delay compensation mechanisms and multi-agent coordination strategies, and develop methods for stable and convergent neural network parameters under low excitation conditions.

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