Last week

Argument principle

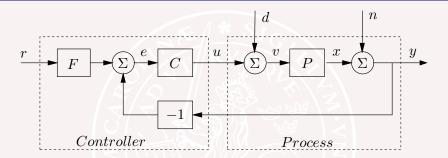
 General Nyquist criterion: *P*^{UNSTABLE} - *P*^{UNSTABLE} = CW encirclements of -1

 Bode's relations between gain and phase

Lecture 3

- Design Tradeoffs
- Sensitivity Conservation Law
- Linearization around trajectory
 Example: Stabilization of inverted pendulum

Architecture with Two Degrees of Freedom



Ingredients:

- Controller: feedback C, feedforward F
- Load disturbance d : Drives the system from desired state
- Process: transfer function P
- Measurement noise n : Corrupts information about x
- Process variable x should follow reference r

Typical Requirements

A controller should

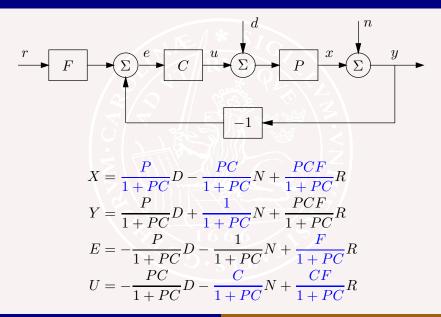
- A: Reduce effects of load disturbances
- B: Not inject too much measurement noise into the system
- C: Make the closed loop insensitive to variations in the process
- D: Make output follow command signals well

Systems with two degrees of freedom (2DOF)

- Design feedback C for A, B and C
- Then design feed-forward F to handle D

Systems with error feedback (F = 1) do not allow this separation of responses to command signal and disturbances.

The Gangs of Four and Seven



Observations

 A system based on error feedback is characterized by *four* transfer functions (The Gang of Four GoF)

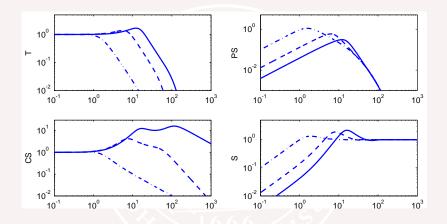
$$\frac{PC}{1+PC} \qquad \frac{P}{1+PC} \qquad \frac{C}{1+PC} \qquad \frac{1}{1+PC}$$

The system with a controller having two degrees of freedom is characterized by *seven* transfer function (The Gang of Seven GoS)

$$\frac{PCF}{1+PC} = \frac{CF}{1+PC} = \frac{F}{1+PC}$$

- To fully understand a system it is necessary to look at all transfer functions
- It may be strongly misleading to only show properties of a few systems for example the response of the output to command signals, a common omission in literature.

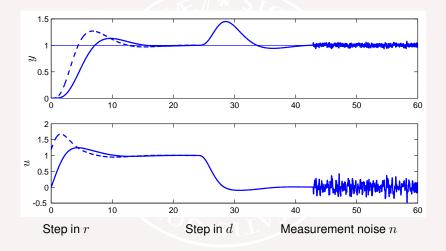
Gain Curves of the Gang of Four



Gain curves of the Gang of Four for a heat conduction process with I (dash-dotted), PI (dashed) and PID (full) controllers.

One plot gives a good overview of performance and robustness!

One Way to Show All Responses



Robustness, small process variations

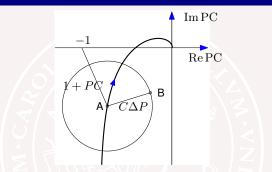
Effect of small process changes on T = PC/(1 + PC)

$$\frac{dT}{dP} = \frac{C}{(1+PC)^2} = \frac{ST}{P}, \qquad \frac{dT}{T} = S\frac{dP}{P}$$

Robustness: Small relative impact of relative process variations when S is small

How much can the process be changed without making the closed loop unstable?

Robustness against large process variations



Closed loop stability with $P(s) + \Delta(s)$ is guaranteed if nominal loop is stable and

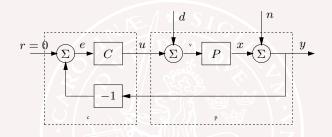
$$|C\Delta P| < |1 + PC| \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \qquad \left|\frac{\Delta P}{P}\right| < \left|\frac{1 + PC}{PC}\right| = \frac{1}{|T|}$$

Robustness: Large variations permitted when T is small Note S + T = 1.

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Effect of Feedback on Disturbances



Output without control: $Y_{ol} = N + PD$

Output with feedback control: $Y_{cl} = \frac{1}{1+PC}(N+PD) = SY_{ol}$

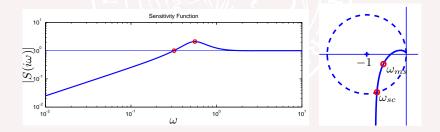
The sensitivity function S = 1/(1 + PC) tells how feedback influences the effect of disturbances: Disturbances with frequencies such that $|S(i\omega)| < 1$ are reduced by feedback, disturbances with frequencies such that $|S(i\omega)| > 1$ are amplified by feedback.

Assessment of Disturbance Reduction

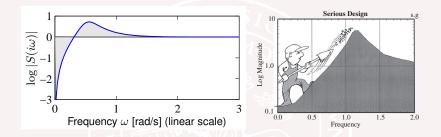
We have

$$Y_{cl} = SY_{ol}(t),$$
 $S(s) = \frac{1}{1 + P(s)C(s)}$

- $\bullet\,$ Feedback attenuates disturbances when $|S(i\omega)|<1$
- $\bullet\,$ Feedback amplifies disturbances when $|S(i\omega)|>1$
- The sensitivity crossover frequency ω_{sc} ($|S(i\omega_{sc})| = 1$) is an important parameter, (there may be many values)



The Water Bed Effect - Bode's Integral



If the closed loop is stable and P(s)C(s) has relative degree ≥ 2 :

$$\int_0^\infty \log |S(i\omega)| d\omega = \pi \sum_{p_k \in RHP} \operatorname{Re} p_k$$

The sensitivity can be decreased at one frequency at the cost of increasing it at another frequency. Feedback design is a trade-off!.

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Linearization around a trajectory

Let $(x_0(t), u_0(t))$ be a solution to $\dot{x} = f(x, u)$ and consider nearby solution $(x(t), u(t)) = (x_0(t) + \tilde{x}(t), u_0(t) + \tilde{u}(t))$:

Linearisation, continued

We hence have for small (\tilde{x}, \tilde{u}) , approximately

$$\dot{\tilde{x}}(t) = A(t)\tilde{x}(t) + B(t)\tilde{u}(t)$$

where (if dim x = 2, dim u = 1)

$$A(t) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0(t), u_0(t)) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix} \Big|_{(x_0(t), u_0(t))}$$
$$B(t) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x_0(t), u_0(t)) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{f_1}{u} \\ \frac{f_2}{u} \end{bmatrix} \Big|_{(x_0(t), u_0(t))}$$

Note that A(t) and B(t) are **time varying**! If we linearise around an equilibrium point $(x_0(t), u_0(t)) \equiv (x_0, u_0)$ they become time-invariant A and B.

Linearisation, continued

Linearisation of output equation

y(t) = h(x(t), u(t))

along the nominal outpout $y_0(t) = h(x_0(t), u_0(t))$ gives

 $\tilde{y}(t) = C(t)\tilde{x}(t) + D(t)\tilde{u}(t)$

where $\tilde{y}(t) = y(t) - y_0(t)$ och (om dim $y = \dim x = 2$, dim u = 1)

$$C(t) = \frac{\partial h}{\partial x}\Big|_{(x_0,u_0)} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix}\Big|_{(x_0(t),u_0(t))}$$
$$D(t) = \frac{\partial h}{\partial u}\Big|_{(x_0,u_0)} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial h_1}{\partial u_1} \\ \frac{\partial h_2}{\partial u_1} \end{bmatrix}\Big|_{(x_0(t),u_0(t))}$$

Example: Rocket

$$\dot{h}(t) = v(t)$$

$$\dot{u}(t)$$

$$\dot{h}(t) = u_0 > 0; \quad x_0(t) = \begin{bmatrix} h_0(t) \\ v_0(t) \\ m_0(t) \end{bmatrix}; \quad m_0(t) = m_0 - u_0 t.$$

Linearisation: $\dot{\tilde{x}}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{-v_e u_0}{m_0(t)^2} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \tilde{x}(t) + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{v_e}{m_0(t)} \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \tilde{u}(t)$

Linear time varying systems — Warning!

The eigenvalues $\lambda(t)$ of A(t) can **not** be used to determine stability:

$$A(t) = \begin{pmatrix} -1 + \alpha \cos^2 t & 1 - \alpha \sin t \cos t \\ -1 - \alpha \sin t \cos t & -1 + \alpha \sin^2 t \end{pmatrix}, \quad \alpha > 0$$

Eigenvalues are constant

$$\lambda(t) = \lambda = \frac{\alpha - 2 \pm \sqrt{\alpha^2 - 4}}{2}$$

with negativ real part for $0 < \alpha < 2$. However, solution to $\dot{x} = A(t)x$ is

$$x(t) = \begin{pmatrix} e^{(\alpha-1)t}\cos t & e^{-t}\sin t\\ -e^{(\alpha-1)t}\sin t & e^{-t}\cos t \end{pmatrix} x(0),$$

which is unlimited when $\alpha > 1$.

Example — Sticksaw

Why can we stabilize an inverted pendulum by just applying vertical oscillations (note, no feedback)?



Watch video www.youtube.com/watch?v=rwGAzyOnoU0

Stick saw

Dynamics for inverted pendulum with sinusoidal movement

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2\\ \dot{x}_2 = \ell^{-1} \left(g + a\omega^2 \sin \omega t\right) \sin x_1 \end{cases}$$

Periodic trajectory $x_0(t), u_0(t)$ with period $T = 2\pi/\omega$.

Linearisation along trajectory gives $\dot{\tilde{x}}(t) = A(t)\tilde{x}(t)$ where

$$A(t) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1\\ a\omega^2 \sin \omega t \cos x_1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Stability for pendulum on stick saw

There is no analytical solution to $\dot{x} = A(t)x$ (and we can not used the eigenvalues).

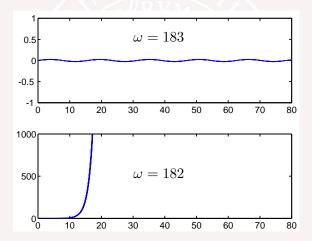
Analysis (see course in nonlinear systems) of $\dot{x} = A(t)x$ shows that the system is stable when ω is sufficiently large.

For the case $a = 1 {\rm cm}, \, \ell = 17 {\rm cm}, \, {\rm stability}$ when $\omega > 182$



Stick saw —Simulation

Simulation gives good aggreement with mathematical analysis based on linearisation



Today

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Thanks to Karl Johan Åström