

# 1. Control Theory

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**Objective:**

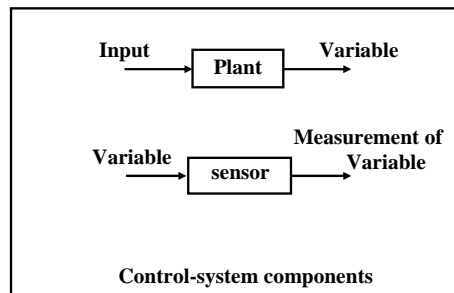
The course on control theory is concerned with the analysis and design of closed loop control systems.

**Analysis:**

Closed loop system is given  $\longrightarrow$  determine characteristics or behavior.

**Design:**

Desired system characteristics or behavior are specified  $\longrightarrow$  configure or synthesize closed loop system.

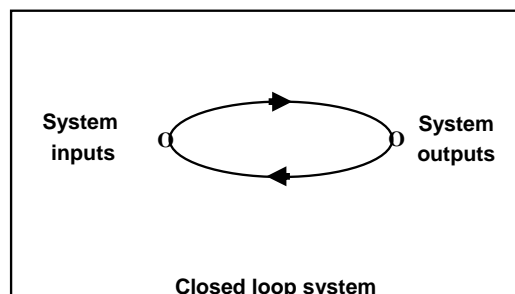


# 1. Introduction

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**Definition:**

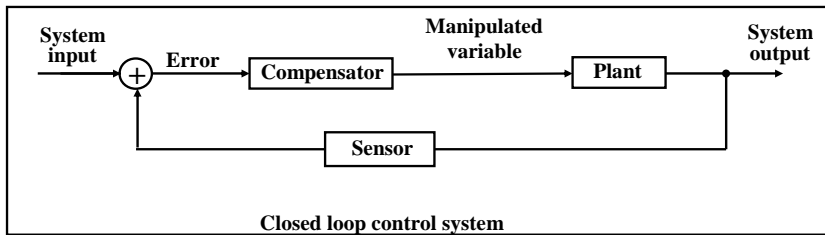
A closed-loop system is a system in which certain forces (we call these inputs) are determined, at least in part, by certain responses of the system (we call these outputs).



# 1.Introduction

**Definitions:**

- ❖ The system for measurement of a variable (or signal) is called a *sensor*.
- ❖ A *plant* of a control system is the part of the system to be controlled.
- ❖ The *compensator* (or controller or simply filter) provides satisfactory characteristics for the total system.



**Two types of control systems:**

- ❖ A *regulator* maintains a physical variable at some constant value in the presence of perturbances.
- ❖ A *servomechanism* describes a control system in which a physical variable is required to follow, or track some desired time function (originally applied in order to control a mechanical position or motion).

# 1.Introduction

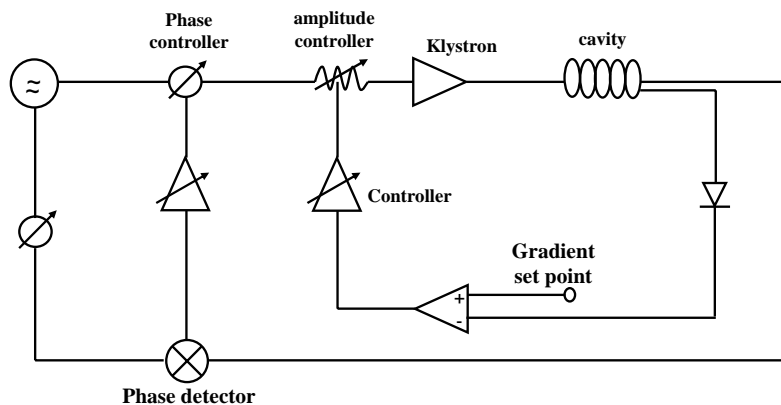
**Example 1: RF control system**

**Goal:**

Maintain stable gradient and phase.

**Solution:**

Feedback for gradient amplitude and phase.

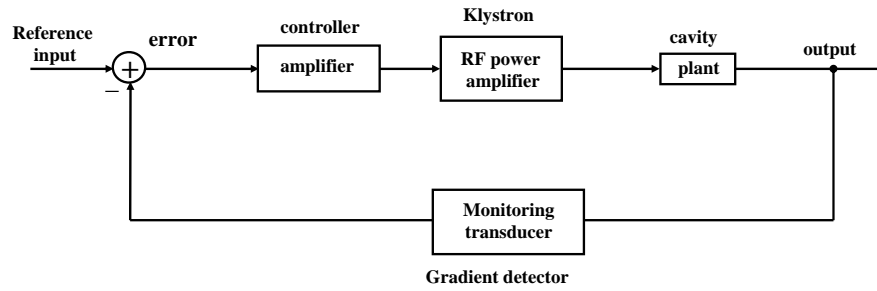


# 1.Introduction

**Model:**

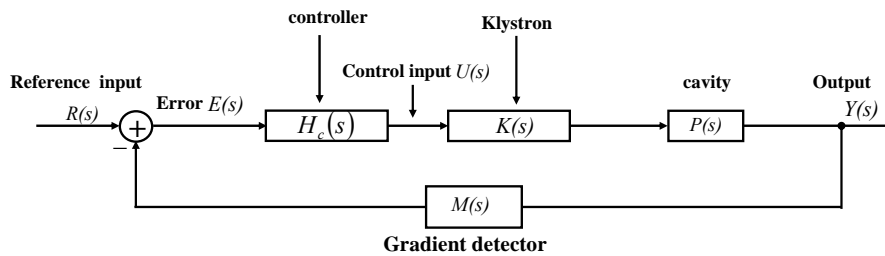
Mathematical description of input-output relation of components combined with block diagram.

*Amplitude loop (general form):*



# 1.Introduction

RF control model using “transfer functions”



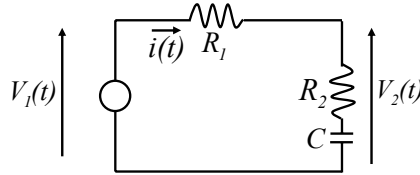
A transfer function of a **linear** system is defined as the ratio of the Laplace transform of the output and the Laplace transform of the input with I. C. 's = zero.

*Input-Output Relations*

Input	Output	Transfer Function
$U(s)$	$Y(s)$	$G(s) = P(s)K(s)$
$E(s)$	$Y(s)$	$L(s) = G(s)H_c(s)$
$R(s)$	$Y(s)$	$T(s) = (1 + L(s)M(s))^{-1}L(s)$

# 1.Introduction

Example2: Electrical circuit



Differential equations:

$$R_1 i(t) + R_2 i(t) + \frac{1}{C} \int_0^t i(\tau) d\tau = v_1(t)$$

$$R_2 i(t) + \frac{1}{C} \int_0^t i(\tau) d\tau = v_2(t)$$

Laplace Transform:

$$R_1 I(s) + R_2 I(s) + \frac{1}{s \cdot C} I(s) = V_1(s)$$

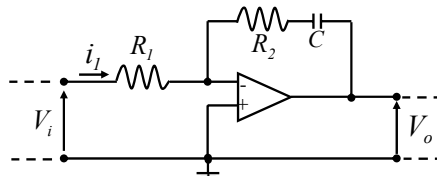
$$R_2 I(s) + \frac{1}{s \cdot C} I(s) = V_2(s)$$

Transfer function:

$$G(s) = \frac{V_2(s)}{V_1(s)} = \frac{R_2 \cdot C \cdot s + 1}{(R_1 + R_2)C \cdot s + 1}$$

# 1.Introduction

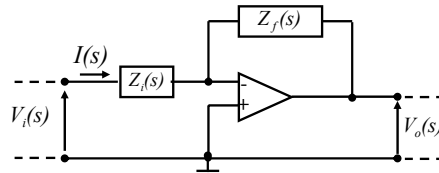
Example 3: Circuit with operational amplifier



$$V_i(s) = R_1 I_i(s) \quad \text{and} \quad V_o(s) = -\left(R_2 + \frac{1}{s \cdot C}\right) I_i(s)$$

$$G(s) = \frac{V_o(s)}{V_i(s)} = -\frac{R_2 \cdot C \cdot s + 1}{R_1 \cdot C \cdot s}$$

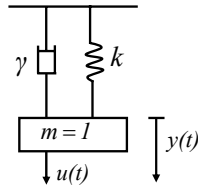
It is convenient to derive a transfer function for a circuit with a single operational amplifier that contains input and feedback impedance:



$$V_i(s) = Z_i(s) I(s) \quad \text{and} \quad V_o(s) = -Z_f(s) I(s) \quad \longrightarrow \quad G(s) = \frac{V_o(s)}{V_i(s)} = -\frac{Z_f(s)}{Z_i(s)}$$

## Model of Dynamic System

We will study the following dynamic system:



**Parameters:**

$k$  : spring constant  
 $\gamma$  : damping constant  
 $u(t)$  : force

**Quantity of interest:**

$y(t)$  : displacement from equilibrium

**Differential equation:** Newton's third law ( $m = 1$ )

$$\ddot{y}(t) = \sum F_{ext} = -k y(t) - \gamma \dot{y}(t) + u(t)$$

$$\ddot{y}(t) + \gamma \dot{y}(t) + k y(t) = u(t)$$

$$y(0) = y_0, \dot{y}(0) = \dot{y}_0$$

-Equation is linear (i.e. no  $\dot{y}^2$  like terms).

-Ordinary (as opposed to partial e.g.  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\partial}{\partial t} f(x,t) = 0$ )

-All coefficients constant:  $k(t) = \kappa, \gamma(t) = \gamma$  for all  $t$



## Model of Dynamic System

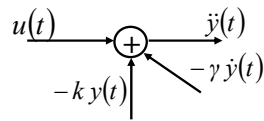
Stop calculating, let's paint!!!

Picture to visualize differential equation

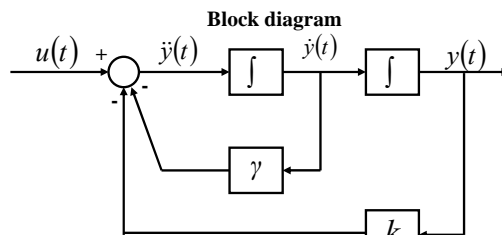
1. Express highest order term (put it to one side)

$$\ddot{y}(t) = -k y(t) - \gamma \dot{y}(t) + u(t)$$

2. Put adder in front



3. Synthesize all other terms using integrators!



## 2.1 Linear Ordinary Differential Equation (LODE)

**General form of LODE:**

$$y^{(n)}(t) + a_{n-1}y^{(n-1)}(t) + \dots + a_1\dot{y}(t) + a_0y(t) = b_m u^{(m)}(t) + \dots + b_1\dot{u}(t) + b_0u(t)$$

$m, n$  Positive integers,  $m \leq n$ ; coefficients  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1}, b_0, \dots, b_m$  real numbers.

**Mathematical solution: hopefully you know it**

Solution of LODE:  $y(t) = y_h(t) + y_p(t)$ ,

Sum of homogeneous solution  $y_h(t)$  (natural response) solving

$$y^{(n)}(t) + a_{n-1}y^{(n-1)}(t) + \dots + a_1\dot{y}(t) + a_0y(t) = 0$$

And particular solution  $y_p(t)$ .

**How to get natural response  $y_h(t)$ ? Characteristic polynomial**

$$\chi(\lambda) = \lambda^n + a_{n-1}\lambda^{n-1} + a_1\lambda + a_0 = 0$$

$$(\lambda - \lambda_1)^r \cdot (\lambda - \lambda_{r+1}) \cdot \dots \cdot (\lambda - \lambda_n) = 0$$

$$y_h(t) = (c_1 + c_2 t + \dots + c_r t^{r-1})e^{\lambda_1 t} + c_{r+1}e^{\lambda_{r+1} t} + \dots + c_n e^{\lambda_n t}$$

Determination of  $y_p(t)$  relatively simple, if input  $u(t)$  yields only a finite number of independent derivatives. E.g.:  $u(t) \cong e^{\beta t}, \beta, t^r$ .



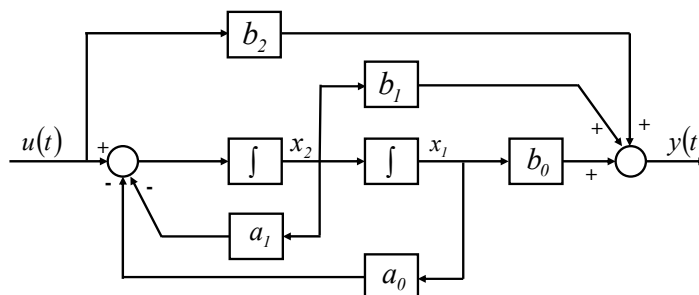
## 2.1 Linear Ordinary Differential Equation (LODE)

Most important for control system/feedback design:

$$y^{(n)}(t) + a_{n-1}y^{(n-1)}(t) + \dots + a_1\dot{y}(t) + a_0y(t) = b_m u^{(m)}(t) + \dots + b_1\dot{u}(t) + b_0u(t)$$

In general: given any linear time invariant system described by LODE can be realized/simulated/easily visualized in a block diagram ( $n = 2, m = 2$ )

**Control-canonical form**



Very useful to visualize *interaction* between variables!

What are  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  ????

More explanation later, for now: please simply accept it!



## 2.2 State Space Equation

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Any system which can be presented by LODE can be represented in *State space form* (matrix differential equation).

What do we have to do ???

Let's go back to our first example (Newton's law):

$$\ddot{y}(t) + \gamma \dot{y}(t) + k y(t) = u(t)$$

**1. STEP:** Deduce set off first order differential equation in variables

$x_1(t)$  (so-called states of system)

$x_1(t) \cong$  Position :  $y(t)$

$x_2(t) \cong$  Velocity :  $\dot{y}(t)$  :

$$\dot{x}_1(t) = \dot{y}(t) = x_2(t)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}_2(t) = \ddot{y}(t) &= -k y(t) - \gamma \dot{y}(t) + u(t) \\ &= -k x_1(t) - \gamma x_2(t) + u(t) \end{aligned}$$

**One LODE of order  $n$  transformed into  $n$  LODEs of order 1**



## 2.2 State Space Equation

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**2. STEP:**

Put everything together in a matrix differential equation:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_1(t) \\ \dot{x}_2(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & I \\ -k & -\gamma \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ I \end{bmatrix} u(t)$$

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

State equation

$$y(t) = \begin{bmatrix} I & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$y(t) = C x(t) + D u(t)$$

Measurement equation

**Definition:**

The **system state**  $x$  of a system at any time  $t_0$  is the “amount of information” that, together with all inputs for  $t \geq t_0$ , uniquely determines the behaviour of the system for all  $t \geq t_0$ .



## 2.2 State Space Equation

The linear time-invariant (LTI) analog system is described via  
**Standard form of the State Space Equation**

$$\dot{x}(t) = A x(t) + B u(t) \quad \text{State equation}$$

$$y(t) = C x(t) + D u(t) \quad \text{State equation}$$

Where  $\dot{x}(t)$  is the time derivative of the vector  $x(t) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ \vdots \\ x_n(t) \end{bmatrix}$ . And starting conditions  $x(t_0)$

System completely described by state space matrices  $A, B, C, D$  ( in the most cases  $D=0$  ).

### Declaration of variables

Variable	Dimension	Name
$X(t)$	$n \times 1$	state vector
$A$	$n \times n$	system matrix
$B$	$n \times r$	input matrix
$u(t)$	$r \times 1$	input vector
$y(t)$	$p \times 1$	output vector
$C$	$p \times n$	output matrix
$D$	$p \times r$	matrix representing direct coupling between input and output



## 2.2 State Space Equation

Why all this work with state space equation? Why bother with?

BECAUSE: Given any system of the LODE form

$$y^{(n)}(t) + a_{n-1} y^{(n-1)}(t) + \dots + a_1 \dot{y}(t) + a_0 y(t) = b_m u^{(m)}(t) + \dots + b_1 \dot{u}(t) + b_0 u(t)$$

Can be represented as

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

$$y(t) = C x(t) + D u(t)$$

with e.g. **Control-Canonical Form** (case  $n = 3, m = 3$ ):

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ -a_0 & -a_1 & -a_2 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, C = [b_0 \ b_1 \ b_2], D = b_3$$

or **Observer-Canonical Form**:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -a_0 \\ 1 & 0 & -a_1 \\ 0 & 1 & -a_2 \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix}, C = [0 \ 0 \ 1], D = b_3$$

Notation is very compact, But: not unique!!!

Computers love state space equation! (Trust us!)

Modern control (1960-now) uses state space equation.

General (vector) block diagram for easy visualization.

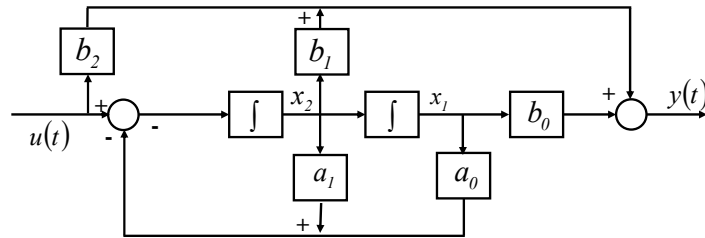




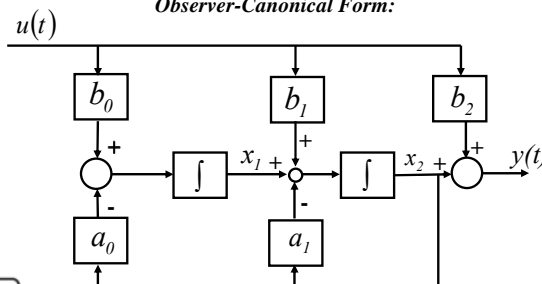
## 2.2 State Space Equation

Block diagrams:

Control-canonical Form:



Observer-Canonical Form:



## 2.2 State Space Equation

Now: Solution of State Space Equation in the time domain. Out of the hat...et voila:

$$x(t) = \Phi(t)x(0) + \int_0^t \Phi(t-\tau)B u(\tau) d\tau$$

**Natural Response + Particular Solution**

$$\begin{aligned} y(t) &= Cx(t) + Du(t) \\ &= C\Phi(t)x(0) + C\int_0^t \Phi(t-\tau)B u(\tau) d\tau + Du(t) \end{aligned}$$

With the state transition matrix

$$\Phi(t) = I + At + \frac{A^2}{2!}t^2 + \frac{A^3}{3!}t^3 + \dots = e^{At}$$

Exponential series in the matrix A (time evolution operator) properties of  $\Phi(t)$  (state transition matrix).

1.  $\frac{d\Phi(t)}{dt} = A\Phi(t)$
2.  $\Phi(0) = I$
3.  $\Phi(t_1+t_2) = \Phi(t_1)\Phi(t_2)$
4.  $\Phi^{-1}(t) = \Phi(-t)$

**Example:**

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow A^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \Phi(t) = I + At = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & t \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = e^{At}$$

Matrix A is a nilpotent matrix.



## 2.3 Examples

Example:

It is given the following differential equation:

$$\frac{d^2}{dt^2} y(t) + 4 \frac{d}{dt} y(t) + 3 y(t) = 2 u(t)$$

-State equations of differential equation:

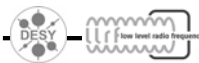
Let  $x_1(t) = y(t)$  and  $x_2(t) = \dot{y}(t)$ . It is:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}_1(t) &= \dot{y}(t) = x_2(t) \\ \dot{x}_2(t) + 4 x_2(t) + 3 x_1(t) &= 2 u(t) \\ \dot{x}_2(t) &= -3 x_1(t) - 4 x_2(t) + 2 u(t) \end{aligned}$$

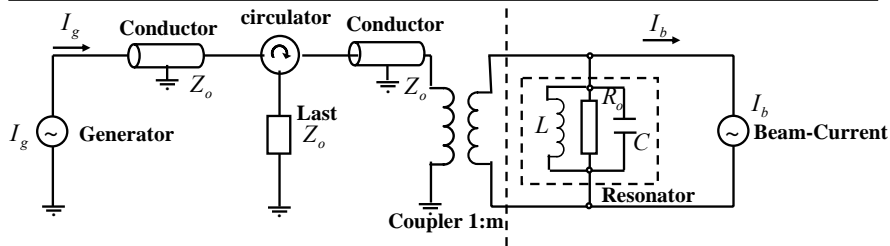
-Write the state equations in matrix form:

Define system state  $x(t) = \begin{bmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \end{bmatrix}$ . Then it follows:

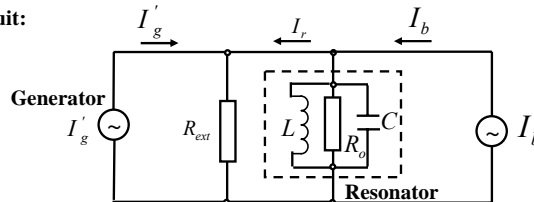
$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}(t) &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -3 & -4 \end{bmatrix} x(t) + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} u(t) \\ y(t) &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x(t) \end{aligned}$$



## 2.3 Cavity Model



Equivalent circuit:



$$C \cdot \ddot{U} + \frac{1}{R_L} \cdot \dot{U} + \frac{1}{L} \cdot U = \dot{i}'_g + \dot{i}_b$$

$$\omega_{1/2} = \frac{1}{2R_L C} = \frac{\omega_0}{2Q_L}$$

$$\ddot{U} + 2\omega_{1/2} \cdot \dot{U} + \omega_0^2 \cdot U = 2R_L \omega_{1/2} \cdot \left( \frac{2}{m} \dot{i}'_g + \dot{i}_b \right)$$



## 2.3 Cavity Model

Only envelope of **rf** (real and imaginary part) is of interest:

$$\begin{aligned} U(t) &= (U_r(t) + i U_i(t)) \cdot \exp(i \omega_{HF} t) \\ I_g(t) &= (I_{gr}(t) + i I_{gi}(t)) \cdot \exp(i \omega_{HF} t) \\ I_b(t) &= (I_{b\omega r}(t) + i I_{b\omega i}(t)) \cdot \exp(i \omega_{HF} t) = 2(I_{b0r}(t) + i I_{b0i}(t)) \cdot \exp(i \omega_{HF} t) \end{aligned}$$

Neglect small terms in derivatives for U and I

$$\begin{aligned} \ddot{U}_r + i \ddot{U}_i &\ll \omega_{HF}^2 (U_r(t) + i U_i(t)) \\ 2\omega_{1/2} (\dot{U}_r + i \dot{U}_i) &\ll \omega_{HF}^2 (U_r(t) + i U_i(t)) \\ \int_{t_1}^{t_2} (\dot{U}_r + i \dot{U}_i) dt &\ll \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \omega_{HF} (U_r(t) + i U_i(t)) dt \end{aligned}$$

Envelope equations for real and imaginary component.

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{U}_r(t) + \omega_{1/2} \cdot U_r + \Delta\omega \cdot U_i &= \omega_{HF} \left(\frac{r}{Q}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{m} I_{gr} + I_{b0r}\right) \\ \dot{U}_i(t) + \omega_{1/2} \cdot U_i - \Delta\omega \cdot U_r &= \omega_{HF} \left(\frac{r}{Q}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{m} I_{gi} + I_{b0i}\right) \end{aligned}$$



## 2.3 Cavity Model

**Matrix equations:**

$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{U}_r(t) \\ \dot{U}_i(t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\omega_{1/2} & -\Delta\omega \\ \Delta\omega & -\omega_{1/2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} U_r(t) \\ U_i(t) \end{bmatrix} + \omega_{HF} \left(\frac{r}{Q}\right) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{m} I_{gr}(t) + I_{b0r}(t) \\ \frac{1}{m} I_{gi}(t) + I_{b0i}(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

**With system Matrices:**

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \begin{bmatrix} -\omega_{1/2} & -\Delta\omega \\ \Delta\omega & -\omega_{1/2} \end{bmatrix} & B &= \omega_{HF} \left(\frac{r}{Q}\right) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \vec{x}(t) &= \begin{bmatrix} U_r(t) \\ U_i(t) \end{bmatrix} & \vec{u}(t) &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{m} I_{gr}(t) + I_{b0r}(t) \\ \frac{1}{m} I_{gi}(t) + I_{b0i}(t) \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

**General Form:**

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



## 2.3 Cavity Model

**Solution:**

$$\vec{x}(t) = \Phi(t) \cdot \vec{x}(0) + \int_0^t \Phi(t-t') \cdot B \cdot \vec{u}(t') dt'$$

$$\Phi(t) = e^{-\omega/2 t} \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\Delta\omega t) & -\sin(\Delta\omega t) \\ \sin(\Delta\omega t) & \cos(\Delta\omega t) \end{bmatrix}$$

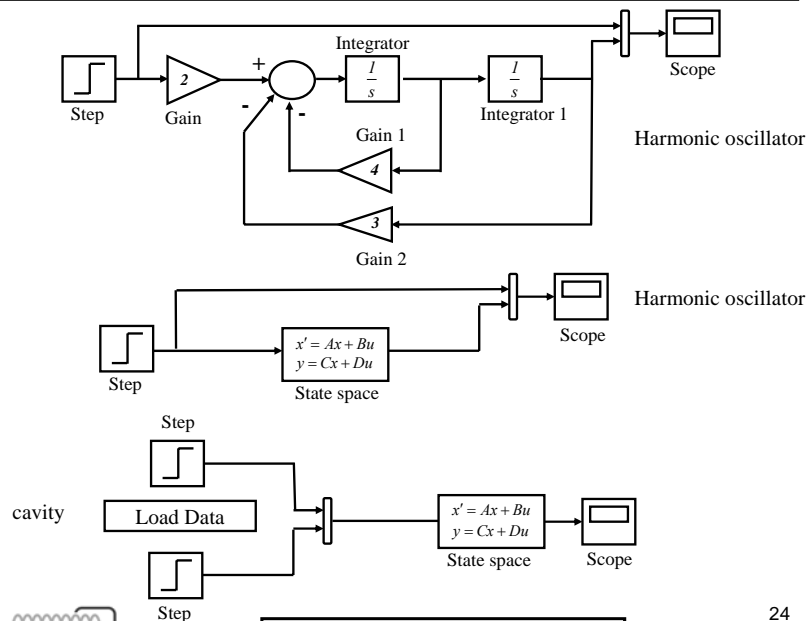
**Special Case:**

$$\vec{u}(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{m} I_{gr}(t) + I_{b0r}(t) \\ \frac{1}{m} I_{gi}(t) + I_{b0i}(t) \end{bmatrix} =: \begin{bmatrix} I_r \\ I_i \end{bmatrix}$$

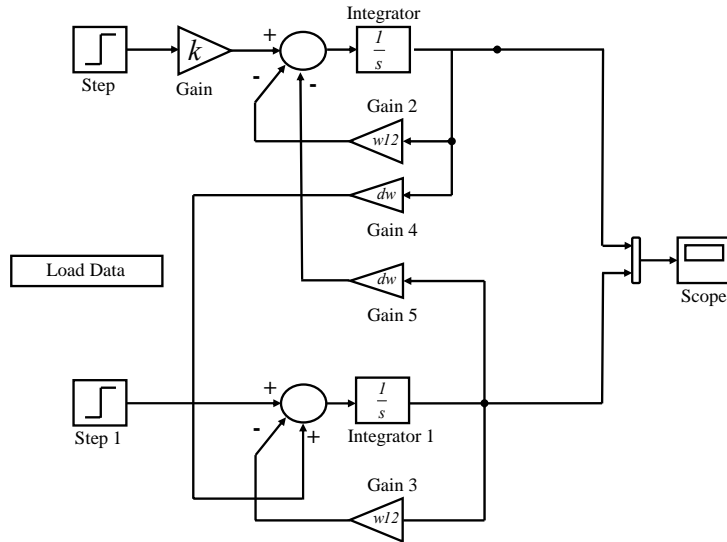
$$\begin{bmatrix} U_r(t) \\ U_i(t) \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\omega_{HF} \left( \frac{r}{Q} \right)}{\omega_{i/2}^2 + \Delta\omega^2} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \omega_{i/2} & -\Delta\omega \\ \Delta\omega & \omega_{i/2} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \left\{ I - \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\Delta\omega t) & -\sin(\Delta\omega t) \\ \sin(\Delta\omega t) & \cos(\Delta\omega t) \end{bmatrix} e^{-\omega/2 t} \right\} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} I_r \\ I_i \end{bmatrix}$$



## 2.3 Cavity Model



## 2.3 Cavity Model

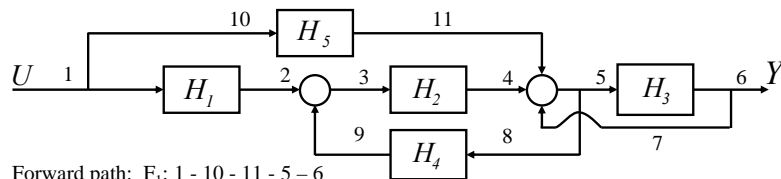


## 2.4 Masons Rule

Mason's Rule is a simple formula for reducing block diagrams. Works on continuous and discrete. In its most general form it is messy, but **For special case when all path touch**

$$H(s) = \frac{\sum(\text{forward path gains})}{1 - \sum(\text{loop path gains})}$$

Two path are said to touch if they have a component in common, e.g. an adder.



Forward path:  $F_1: 1 - 10 - 11 - 5 - 6$   
 $F_2: 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5 - 6$

Loop path:  $I_1: 3 - 4 - 5 - 8 - 9$   
 $I_2: 5 - 6 - 7$

Check: all path touch (contain adder between 4 and 5)

$$G(f_1) = H_5 H_3$$

$$G(f_2) = H_1 H_2 H_3$$

$$G(I_1) = H_2 H_4$$

$$G(I_2) = H_3$$

=> By Mason's rule:  $H = \frac{G(f_1) + G(f_2)}{1 - G(I_1) - G(I_2)} = \frac{H_5 H_3 + H_1 H_2 H_3}{1 - H_2 H_4 - H_3} = \frac{H_3 (H_5 + H_1 H_2)}{1 - H_2 H_4 - H_3}$

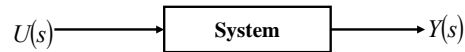


## 2.5 Transfer Function G (s)

Continuous-time state space model

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{x}(t) &= A x(t) + B u(t) && \text{State equation} \\ y(t) &= C x(t) + D u(t) && \text{Measurement equation} \end{aligned}$$

Transfer function describes input-output relation of system.



$$s X(s) - x(0) = A X(s) + B U(s)$$

$$\begin{aligned} X(s) &= (sI - A)^{-1} x(0) + (sI - A)^{-1} B U(s) \\ &= \varphi(s) x(0) + \varphi(s) B U(s) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} Y(s) &= C X(s) + D U(s) \\ &= C[(sI - A)^{-1} x(0) + (sI - A)^{-1} B U(s)] + D U(s) \\ &= C \varphi(s) x(0) + C \varphi(s) B U(s) + D U(s) \end{aligned}$$

Transfer function  $G(s)$  (pxr) (case:  $x(0)=0$ ):

$$G(s) = C(sI - A)^{-1} B + D = C \varphi(s) B + D$$



## 2.5 Transfer Function

Transfer function of TESLA cavity including 8/9-pi mode

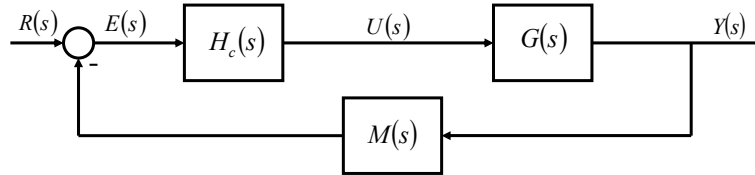
$$H_{cont}(s) \approx H_{cav}(s) = H_{\pi}(s) + H_{\frac{8}{9}\pi}(s)$$

$$\pi - \text{mode} \quad H_{\pi}(s) = \frac{(\omega_{1/2})_{\pi}}{\Delta\omega_{\pi}^2 + (s + (\omega_{1/2})_{\pi})^2} \begin{pmatrix} s + (\omega_{1/2})_{\pi} & -\Delta\omega_{\pi} \\ -\Delta\omega_{\pi} & s + (\omega_{1/2})_{\pi} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\frac{8}{9}\pi - \text{mode} \quad H_{\frac{8}{9}\pi}(s) = -\frac{(\omega_{1/2})_{\frac{8}{9}\pi}}{\Delta\omega_{\frac{8}{9}\pi}^2 + (s + (\omega_{1/2})_{\frac{8}{9}\pi})^2} \begin{pmatrix} s + (\omega_{1/2})_{\frac{8}{9}\pi} & -\Delta\omega_{\frac{8}{9}\pi} \\ \Delta\omega_{\frac{8}{9}\pi} & s + (\omega_{1/2})_{\frac{8}{9}\pi} \end{pmatrix}$$



## 2.5 Transfer Function of a Closed Loop System



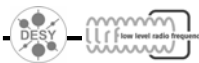
We can deduce for the output of the system.

$$\begin{aligned} Y(s) &= G(s) U(s) = G(s) H_c(s) E(s) \\ &= G(s) H_c(s) [R(s) - M(s) Y(s)] \\ &= L(s) R(s) - L(s) M(s) Y(s) \end{aligned}$$

With  $L(s)$  the transfer function of the open loop system (controller plus plant).

$$\begin{aligned} (I + L(s) M(s)) Y(s) &= L(s) R(s) \\ Y(s) &= (I + L(s) M(s))^{-1} L(s) R(s) \\ &= T(s) R(s) \end{aligned}$$

$T(s)$  is called : Reference Transfer Function



## 2.5 Sensitivity

The ratio of change in Transferfunction  $T(s)$  by the parameter  $b$  can be defined as:

System characteristics change with system parameter variations

$$S = \frac{\Delta T(s)}{T(s)} \frac{b}{\Delta b}$$

The sensitivity function is defined as:

$$S_b^T = \lim_{\Delta b \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta T(s)}{\Delta b} \frac{b}{T(s)} = \frac{\partial T(s)}{\partial b} \frac{b}{T(s)}$$

Or in General sensitivity function of a characteristics  $W$  with respect to the parameter  $b$ :

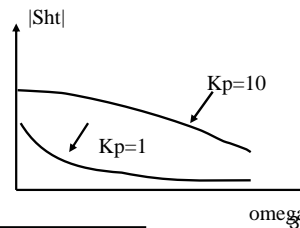
$$S_b^W = \frac{\partial W}{\partial b} \frac{b}{W}$$

Example: plant with propotional feedback given by  $G_c(s) = K_p$       $G_p(s) = \frac{K}{s+0.1}$

Plant transfer function  $T(s)$ :  $T(s) = \frac{K_p G_p(s)}{1 + K_p G_p(s) H_k}$

$$S_H^T(j\omega) = \frac{-K_p G_p(j\omega) H_k}{1 + K_p G_p(j\omega) H_k} = \frac{-0.25 K_p}{0.1 + 0.25 K_p + j\omega}$$

Increase of  $H$  results in decrease of  $T$   
 -> system can't be insensitive to both  $H, T$



## 2.5 Disturbance Rejection

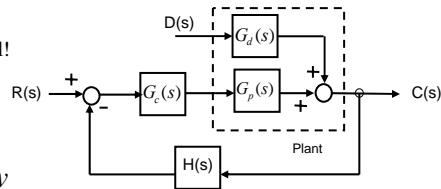
Disturbances are system influences we do not control and want to minimize its impact on the system.

$$C(s) = \frac{G_c(s) \cdot G_p(s)}{1 + G_c(s) \cdot G_p(s) \cdot H(s)} R(s) + \frac{G_d(s)}{1 + G_c(s) \cdot G_p(s) \cdot H(s)} D(s)$$

$$= T(s) \cdot R(s) + T_d(s) \cdot D(s)$$

To Reject disturbances, make  $T \cdot d(s) \cdot D(s)$  small!

- Using frequency response approach to investigate disturbance rejection
- In general  $T_d(j\omega)$  can't be small for all  $\omega$
- Design  $T_d(j\omega)$  small for significant portion of system bandwidth



- Reduce the Gain  $G_d(j\omega)$  between dist. Input and output
- Increase the loop gain  $G_c G_p(j\omega)$  without increasing the gain  $G_d(j\omega)$ . Usually accomplished by the compensator choice  $G_c(j\omega)$
- Reduce the disturbance magnitude  $d(t)$ . Should always be attempted if reasonable
- Use feed forward compensation, if disturbance can be measured.



## 2.6 Stability

**Now we have learnt so far:**

The impulse response tells us everything about the system response to any arbitrary input signal  $u(t)$ .

**what we have not learnt:**

If we know the transfer function  $G(s)$ , how can we deduce the systems behavior? What can we say e.g. about the system stability?

Definition:

A linear time invariant system is called to be **BIBO** stable (Bounded-input-bounded-output) For all bounded inputs  $|u(t)| \leq M_1$  (for all t) exists a boundary for the output signal  $M_2$ , So that  $|y(t)| \leq M_2$ . (for all t) with  $M_1$  and  $M_2$ , positive real numbers.

**Input never exceeds  $M_1$  and output never exceeds  $M_2$ , then we have BIBO stability!**

Note: it has to be valid for ALL bounded input signals!





## 2.6 Stability

---

*Example:*  $Y(s) = G(s) U(s)$ , integrator  $G(s) = \frac{1}{s}$

*1. Case*

$$u(t) = \delta(t), \quad U(s) = 1$$

$$|y(t)| = |L^{-1}[Y(s)]| = \left| L^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{s}\right] \right| = 1$$

The bounded input signal causes a bounded output signal.

*2. Case*

$$u(t) = 1, \quad U(s) = \frac{1}{s}$$

$$|y(t)| = |L^{-1}[Y(s)]| = \left| L^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{s^2}\right] \right| = t$$

**BIBO-stability has to be shown/proved for any input. Is is not sufficient to show its validity for a single input signal!**



## 2.6 Stability

---

Condition for BIBO stability:

We start from the input-output relation

$$Y(s) = G(s) U(s)$$

By means of the convolution theorem we get

$$|y(t)| = \left| \int_0^t g(\tau) u(t - \tau) d\tau \right| \leq \int_0^t |g(\tau)| |u(t - \tau)| d\tau \leq M_1 \int_0^t |g(\tau)| d\tau \leq M_2$$

Therefore it follows immediately:

If the impulse response is absolutely integrable

$$\int_0^{\infty} |g(t)| dt < \infty$$

Then the system is BIBO-stable.



## 2.7 Poles and Zeros

---

Can stability be determined if we know the TF of a system?

$$G(s) = C \Phi(s) B + D = C \frac{[sI - A]^{adj}}{\chi(s)} B + D$$

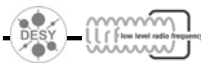
Coefficients of Transfer function  $G(s)$  are rational functions in the complex variables

$$g_{ij}(s) = \alpha \cdot \frac{\prod_{k=1}^m (s - z_k)}{\prod_{l=1}^n (s - p_l)} = \frac{N_{ij}(s)}{D_{ij}(s)}$$

$Z_k$  Zeros.  $P_l$  Poles,  $\alpha$  real constant, and it is  $m \leq n$  (we assume common factors have already been canceled!)

What do we know about the zeros and the poles?

Since numerator  $N(s)$  and denominator  $D(s)$  are polynomials with real coefficients, Poles and zeros must be real numbers or must arise as complex conjugated pairs!



## 2.7 Poles and Zeros

---

### Stability directly from state-space

$$\text{Recall : } H(s) = C(sI - A)^{-1} B + D$$

Assuming  $D=0$  ( $D$  could change zeros but not poles)

$$H(s) = \frac{C \text{adj}(sI - A) B}{\det(sI - A)} = \frac{b(s)}{a(s)}$$

Assuming there are no common factors between the poly  $C \text{adj}(sI - A) B$  and  $\det(sI - A)$  i.e. no pole-zero cancellations (usually true, system called “minimal”) then we can identify

$$\text{and} \quad b(s) = C \text{adj}(sI - A) B$$

$$a(s) = \det(sI - A)$$

i.e. poles are root of  $\det(sI - A)$

Let  $\lambda_i$  be the  $i^{\text{th}}$  eigenvalue of  $A$

if  $\text{Re}\{\lambda_i\} \leq 0$  for all  $i \Rightarrow$  System stable

So with computer, with eigenvalue solver, can determine system stability directly from coupling matrix  $A$ .



## 2.8 Stability Criteria

A system is BIBO stable if, for every bounded input, the output remains bounded with increasing time.

For a LTI system, this definition requires that all poles of the closed-loop transfer-function (all roots of the system characteristic equation) lie in the left half of the complex plane.

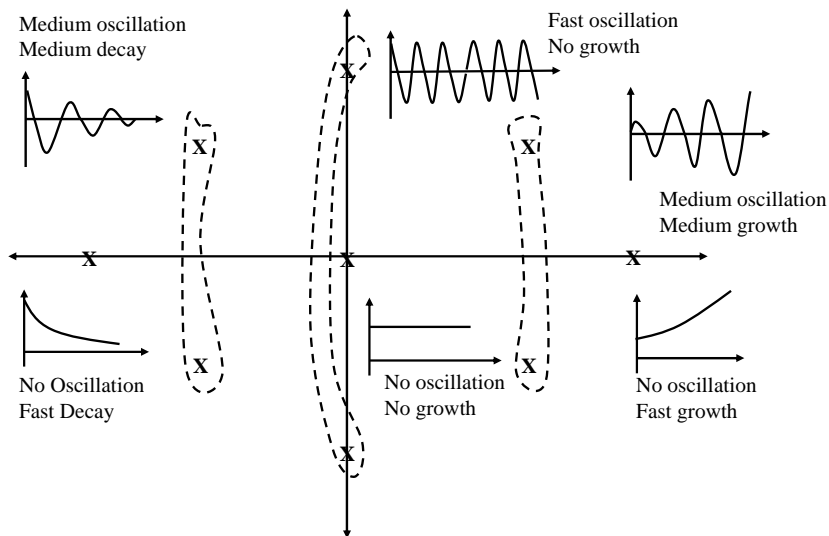
Several methods are available for stability analysis:

1. Routh Hurwitz criterion
2. Calculation of exact locations of roots
  - a. Root locus technique
  - b. Nyquist criterion
  - c. Bode plot
3. Simulation (only general procedures for nonlinear systems)

While the first criterion proves whether a feedback system is stable or unstable, the second method also provides information about the settling time (damping term).

## 2.8 Poles and Zeros

**Pole locations tell us about impulse response i.e. also stability:**



## 2.8 Poles and Zeroes

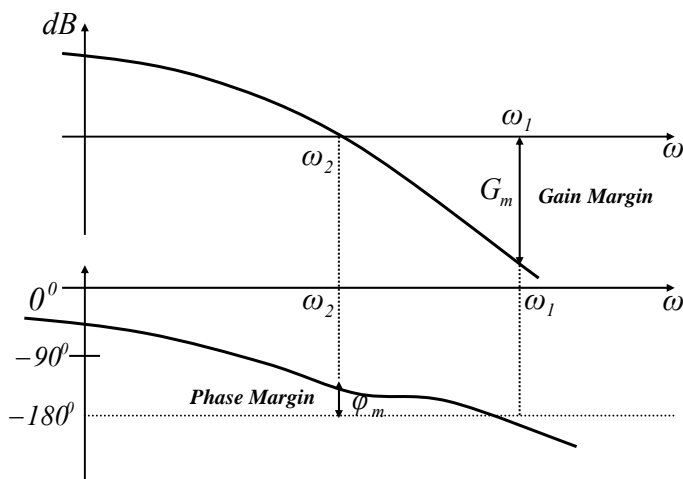
Furthermore: Keep in mind the following picture and facts!

- Complex pole pair: Oscillation with growth or decay.
- Real pole: exponential growth or decay.
- Poles are the Eigenvalues of the matrix A.
- Position of zeros goes into the size of  $C_j \dots$

In general a complex root must have a corresponding conjugate root (  $N(s)$ ,  $D(s)$  ) polynomials with real coefficients.



## 2.8 Bode Diagram

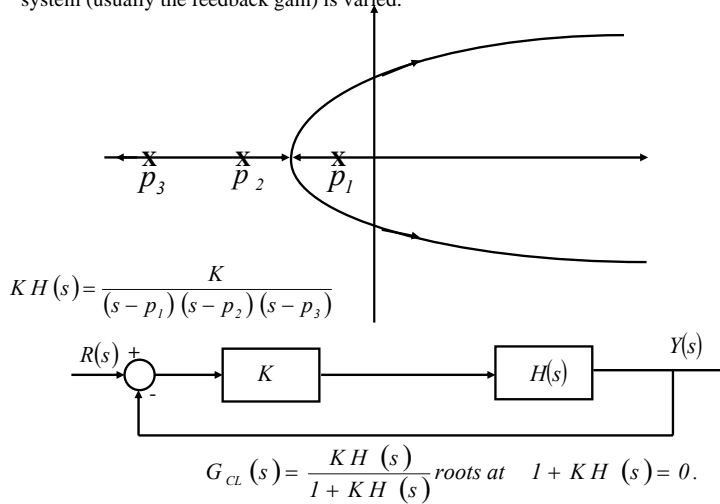


The closed loop is stable if the phase of the unity crossover frequency of the OPEN LOOP Is larger than  $-180$  degrees.



## 2.8 Root Locus Analysis

Definition: A root locus of a system is a plot of the roots of the system characteristic Equation (the poles of the closed-loop transfer function) while some parameter of the system (usually the feedback gain) is varied.



How do we move the poles by varying the constant gain K?

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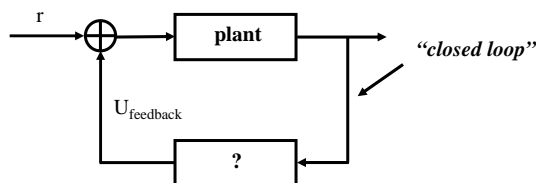
## 3. Feedback

**The idea:**

Suppose we have a system or “plant”



We want to improve some aspect of plant’s performance by observing the output and applying an appropriate “correction” signal. **This is feedback**



**Question: What should this be?**

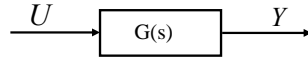


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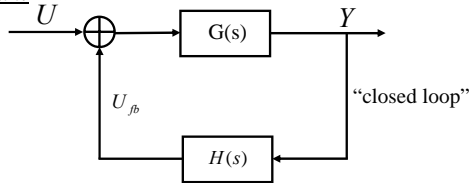
### 3.Feedback

Open loop gain:



$$G^{oL}(s) = G(s) = \left(\frac{u}{y}\right)^{-1}$$

Closed-loop gain:



$$G^{cL}(s) = \frac{G(s)}{1 + G(s)H(s)}$$

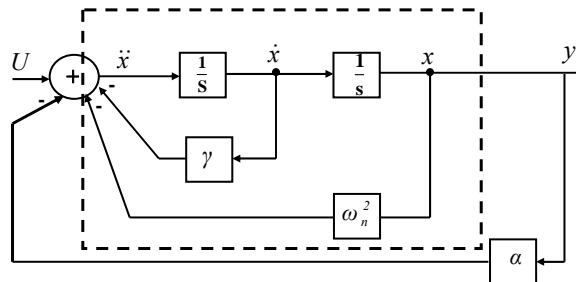
*Proof:*  $y = G(u - u_{fb})$   
 $= Gu - Gu_{fb} \quad \Rightarrow y + Gu_{fb} = Gu$   
 $= Gu - GHy \quad \Rightarrow \frac{y}{u} = \frac{G}{1 + GH}$



### 3.1 Feedback-Example 1

Consider S.H.O with feedback proportional to  $x$  i.e.:

Where  $\ddot{x} + \gamma \dot{x} + \omega_n^2 x = u + u_{fb}$   
 $u_{fb}(t) = -\alpha x(t)$

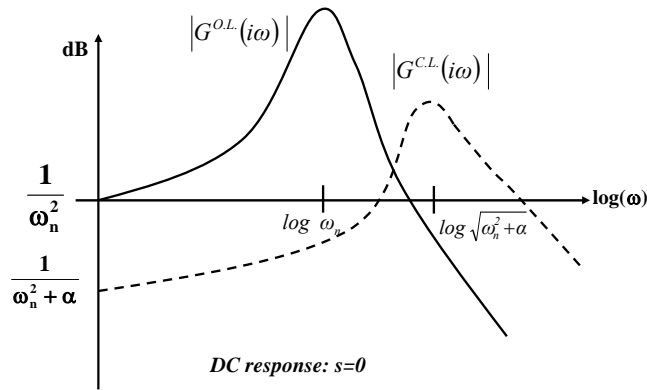


Then  $\ddot{x} + \gamma \dot{x} + \omega_n^2 x = u - \alpha x$   
 $\Rightarrow \ddot{x} + \gamma \dot{x} + (\omega_n^2 + \alpha) x = u$



### 3.1 Feedback-Example 1

Now the closed loop T.F. is:  $G^{C.L.}(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + \gamma s + (\omega_n^2 + \alpha)}$



So the effect of the proportional feedback in this case is **to increase the bandwidth of the system** (and reduce gain slightly, but this can easily be compensated by adding a constant gain in front...)

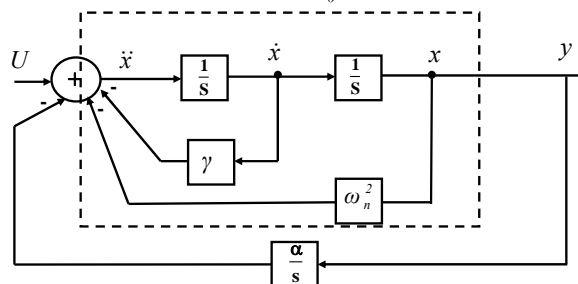


### 3.1 Feedback-Example 2

In S.H.O. suppose we use integral feedback:

$$u_{fb}(t) = -\alpha \int_0^t x(\tau) d\tau$$

i.e.  $\ddot{x} + \gamma \dot{x} + \omega_n^2 x = u - \alpha \int_0^t x(\tau) d\tau$



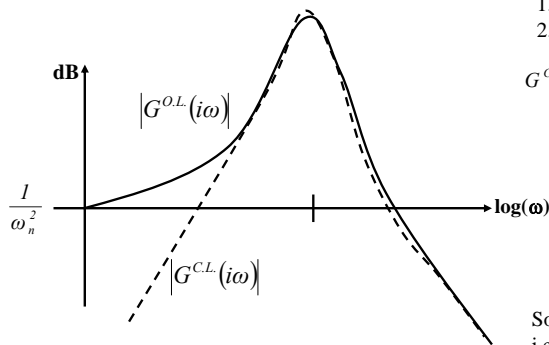
Differentiating once more yields:  $\ddot{x} + \gamma \dot{x} + \omega_n^2 x = \dot{u}$



### 3.1 Feedback-Example 2

$$G^{CL}(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 + \gamma s + \omega_n^2} \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{\alpha}{s}\right) \left(\frac{1}{s^2 + \gamma s + (\omega_n^2 + \alpha)}\right)}$$

$$= \frac{s}{s(s^2 + \gamma s + \omega_n^2) + \alpha}$$



Observe that

1.  $G^{CL}(0=0)$
2. For large  $s$  (and hence for large  $\omega$ )

$$G^{CL}(s) \approx \frac{1}{(s^2 + \gamma s + \omega_n^2)} \approx G^{OL}(s)$$

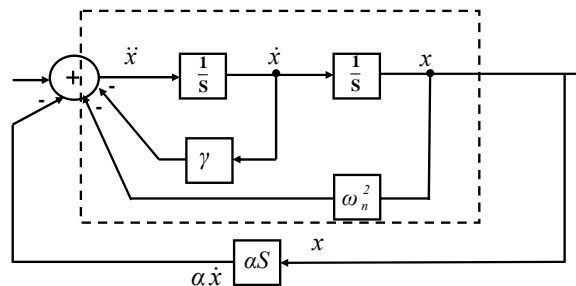
So integral feedback has killed DC gain  
i.e system rejects constant disturbances



### 3.1 Feedback-Example 3

Suppose S.H.O now apply differential feedback i.e.

$$u_b(t) = -\alpha \dot{x}(t)$$



Now have

$$\ddot{x} + (\gamma + \alpha) \dot{x} + \omega_n^2 x = u$$

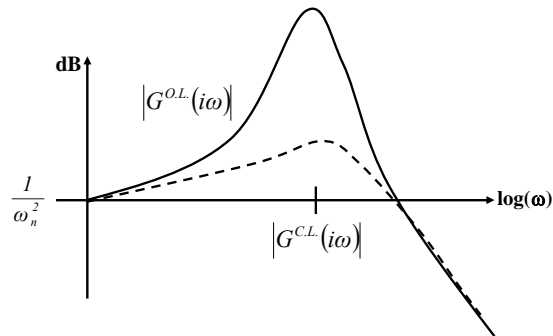
So effect off differential feedback is to increase damping





### 3.1 Feedback-Example 3

Now  $G^{CL}(s) = \frac{I}{s^2 + (\gamma + \alpha)s + \omega_n^2}$



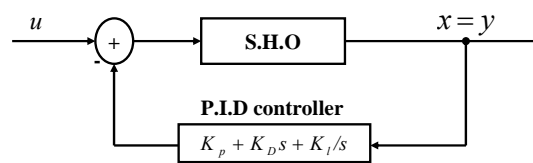
So the effect of differential feedback here is to “flatten the resonance” i.e. **damping is increased**.

Note: Differentiators can never be built exactly, only approximately.



### 3.1 PID controller

- (1) The latter 3 examples of feedback can all be combined to form a P.I.D. controller (prop.-integral-diff).



$$u_{fb} = u_p + u_d + u_i$$

- (2) In example above S.H.O. was a very simple system and it was clear what physical interpretation of P. or I. or D. did. But for large complex systems not obvious

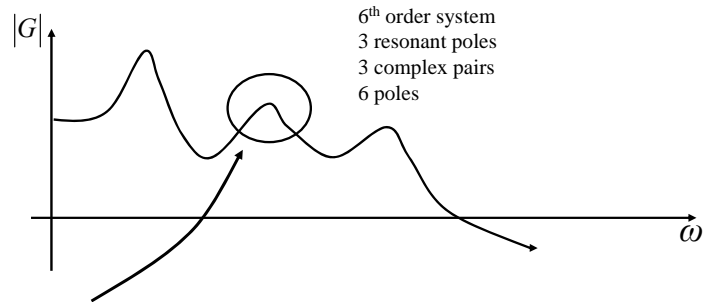
==> **Require arbitrary “tweaking”**

That’s what we’re trying to avoid



### 3.1 PID controller

For example, if you are so smart let's see you do this with your P.I.D. controller:



Damp this mode, but leave the other two modes undamped, just as they are.

This could turn out to be a tweaking nightmare that'll get you nowhere fast!

We'll see how this problem can be solved easily.



### 3.2 Full State Control

Suppose we have system

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x}(t) &= A x(t) + B u(t) \\ y(t) &= C x(t)\end{aligned}$$

Since the state vector  $x(t)$  contains all current information about the system the most general feedback makes use of **all** the state info.

$$\begin{aligned}u &= -k_1 x_1 - \dots - k_n x_n \\ &= -k x\end{aligned}$$

Where  $k = [k_1, \dots, k_n]$  (row matrix)

Where example: In S.H.O. examples

$$\text{Proportional fbk : } u_p = -k_p x = -[k_p \ 0]$$

$$\text{Differential fbk : } u_D = -k_D \dot{x} = -[0 \ k_D]$$



### 3.2 Full State Control

**Theorem:**

If there are no poles cancellations in

$$G_{O.L.}(s) = \frac{b(s)}{a(s)} = C(sI - A)^{-1}B$$

Then can move eigen values of  $A - BK$  anywhere we want using full state feedback.

**Proof:**

Given any system as L.O.D.E. or state space it can be written as:

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_1 \\ \dots \\ \dot{x}_n \end{bmatrix} &= \overbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & 1 \\ -a_0 & \dots & \dots & -a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}}^{A^{O.L.}} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \dots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} + \overbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \dots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}}^B u \\ y &= \begin{bmatrix} b_0 & \dots & \dots & b_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \dots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Where  $G^{O.L.} = C(sI - A)^{-1}B = \frac{b_{n-1}s^{n-1} + \dots + b_0}{s^n + a_{n-1}s^{n-1} + \dots + a_0}$



### 3.2 Full State Control

i.e. first row of  $A^{O.L.}$  Gives the coefficients of the denominator

$$a^{O.L.}(s) = \det(sI - A^{O.L.}) = s^n + a_{n-1}s^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$$

Now

$$A^{C.L.} = A^{O.L.} - BK$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & 1 \\ -a_0 & \dots & \dots & -a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \dots \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} k_0 & \dots & \dots & k_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ 0 & \dots & \dots & 1 \\ -(a_0 + k_0) & \dots & \dots & -(a_{n-1} + k_{n-1}) \end{bmatrix}$$

So closed loop denominator

$$\begin{aligned} a^{C.L.}(s) &= \det(sI - A^{C.L.}) \\ &= s^n + (a_0 + k_0)s^{n-1} + \dots + (a_{n-1} + k_{n-1}) \end{aligned}$$

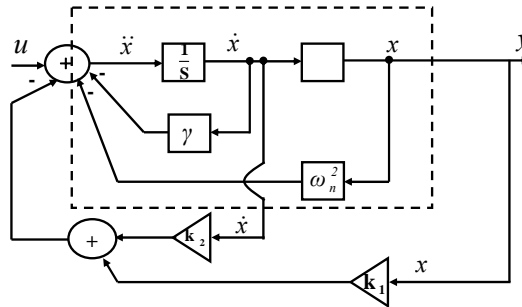
Using  $u = -Kx$  have direct control over every closed-loop denominator coefficient

$\implies$  can place root anywhere we want in s-plane.



### 3.2 Full State Control

Example: Detailed block diagram of S.H.O with full-scale feedback



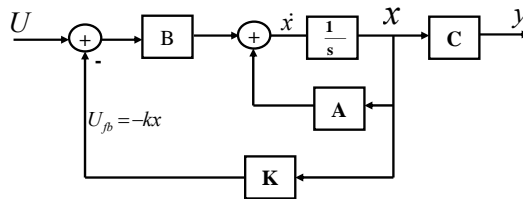
Of course this assumes we have access to the  $\dot{x}$  state, which we actually Don't in practice.

However, let's ignore that "minor" practical detail for now.  
(Kalman filter will show us how to get  $\dot{x}$  from  $x$ ).



### 3.2 Full State Control

With full state feedback have (assume D=0)



So

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= A x + B[u + u_{fb}] \\ &= A x + B u + B K u_{fb} \\ \dot{x} &= (A - B K) x + B u \\ u_{fb} &= -K x \\ y &= C x\end{aligned}$$

With full state feedback, get new closed loop matrix

$$A^{C.L.} = (A^{O.L.} - B K)$$

Now all stability info is now given by the eigen values of new A matrix



### 3.3 Controllability and Observability

The linear time-invariant system

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= Ax + Bu \\ y &= Cx\end{aligned}$$

Is said to be controllable if it is possible to find some input  $u(t)$  that will transfer the initial state  $x(0)$  to the origin of state-space,  $x(t_0)=0$ , with  $t_0$  finite

The solution of the state equation is:

$$x(t) = \varphi(t)x(0) + \int_0^t \varphi(t-\tau)Bu(\tau) d\tau$$

For the system to be controllable, a function  $u(t)$  must exist that satisfies the equation:

$$0 = \varphi(t_0)x(0) + \int_0^{t_0} \varphi(t_0-\tau)Bu(\tau) d\tau$$

With  $t_0$  finite. It can be shown that this condition is satisfied if the controllability matrix

$$C_M = [B \ AB \ A^2B \ \dots \ A^{n-1}B]$$

Has inverse. This is equivalent to the matrix  $C_M$  having full rank (rank  $n$  for an  $n$ -th order differential equation).



### 3.3 Controllability and Observability

**Observable:**

The linear time-invariant system is said to be observable if the initial conditions  $x(0)$  can be determined from the output function  $y(t)$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq t_1$  where  $t_1$  is finite. With

$$y(t) = Cx = C\varphi(t)x(0) + C \int_0^t \varphi(t-\tau)Bu(\tau) d\tau$$

The system is observable if this equation can be solved for  $x(0)$ . It can be shown that the system is observable if the matrix:

$$O_M = \begin{bmatrix} C \\ CA \\ \dots \\ CA^{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Has inverse. This is equivalent to the matrix  $O_M$  having full rank (rank  $n$  for an  $n$ -th order differential equation).

