

## Chapter 1

This chapter has information on the history of control, some examples of control systems, and introduces some vocabulary. We will not cover it in class, but please read it.

## Chapter 2 - Mathematical Models of Systems

This chapter begins by highlighting the mathematical equivalence between linear elements in mechanical, electrical, thermal, and fluid systems. See Table 2.1 and 2.2. Rather than memorize these tables, we'll highlight these analogous elements as they occur in our examples.

### Linear Approx. of Physical Systems (Sec. 2.3)

Every system is nonlinear. However, we can model most as linear within some (possibly unusable) range of system state.

Superposition is true for linear systems

If input  $x_1(t) \rightarrow$  response  $y_1(t)$  and  
input  $x_2(t) \rightarrow$  response  $y_2(t)$  then  
 $x_1(t) + x_2(t) \rightarrow y_1(t) + y_2(t)$

Homogeneity is also true for linear systems

If input  $x(t) \rightarrow$  response  $y(t)$  then  
input  $\beta x(t) \rightarrow$  response  $\beta y(t)$

## Linear Approx. of Physical Systems (cont.)

Q: Is  $y = mx + b$  linear?

Check superposition  $y_1 = mx_1 + b$  and  $y_2 = mx_2 + b$

$$y_1 + y_2 = (mx_1 + b) + (mx_2 + b) \quad \checkmark \text{ Superposition holds}$$

Check homogeneity  $\rightarrow y = mx + b$  does  $\beta y = m(\beta x) + b$ ? X Homogeneity does not hold

$y = mx + b$  is not linear (Despite being the equation for a line)

We can approximate this function by a linear version at an operating point  $(x_0, y_0)$

For small changes  $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta y$ , let  $x(t) = x_0 + \Delta x$  and  $y(t) = y_0 + \Delta y$

Sub into  $y = mx + b \rightarrow y_0 + \Delta y = m(x_0 + \Delta x) + b$

$$\cancel{y_0} + \Delta y = m\cancel{x_0} + m\Delta x + \cancel{b} \quad \leftarrow y_0 = mx_0 + b$$

$$\Delta y = m\Delta x \quad \leftarrow \text{This is linear}$$

A more-general approach uses Taylor Series expansion:

Let  $y(t) = g(x(t))$  ← response  $y(t)$  is a function of  $x(t)$ .  $g(\cdot)$  describes that function

Let's linearize about  $x_0$

$$y = g(x) = g(x_0) + \left. \frac{dg}{dx} \right|_{x=x_0} \left( \frac{x-x_0}{1!} \right) + \left. \frac{d^2g}{dx^2} \right|_{x=x_0} \left( \frac{(x-x_0)^2}{2!} \right) + \dots$$

If  $x - x_0$  is small,  $(x - x_0) \gg (x - x_0)^2 \gg (x - x_0)^3 \dots$  so we can ignore the higher order terms.

$\left. \frac{dg}{dx} \right|_{x=x_0}$  is the slope of  $g(x)$  at  $x = x_0$ , let  $m = \left. \frac{dg}{dx} \right|_{x=x_0}$

Q: What is  $g(x_0)$ ?  $\rightarrow y_0$

$$\text{So } y = y_0 + m(x - x_0) \rightarrow \underbrace{y - y_0}_{\Delta y} = m \underbrace{(x - x_0)}_{\Delta x}$$

## Linear Approx. of Physical Systems (cont.)

This same method can be applied to higher-order functions/systems.

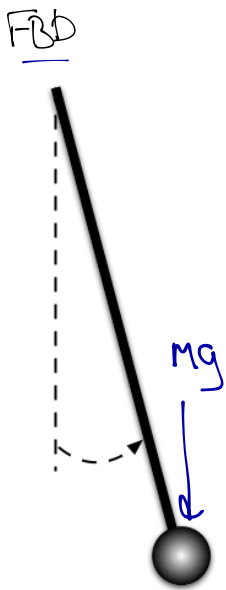
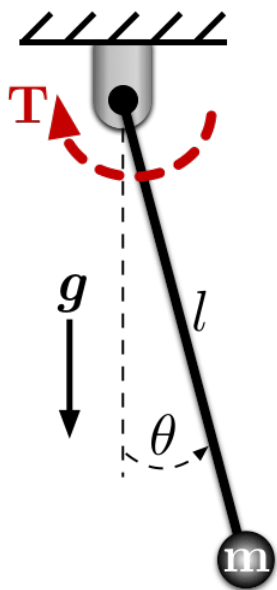
If  $y = g(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$

Linearize about  $(x_{10}, x_{20}, \dots, x_{n0})$  by

$$y = g(x_{10}, x_{20}, \dots, x_{n0}) + \left. \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_1} \right|_{x_1=x_{10}} (x_1 - x_{10}) + \left. \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_2} \right|_{x_2=x_{20}} (x_2 - x_{20}) + \dots$$

↑  
partial derivatives

### Example 2.1



$$T = mgl \sin \theta$$

Linearize about  $\theta_0 = 0^\circ$  equilibrium

$$\begin{aligned} T - \overset{0}{T_0} &= \left. \frac{\partial (mgl \sin \theta)}{\partial \theta} \right|_{\theta=\theta_0} (\theta - \theta_0) \\ &= mgl \left. \frac{\partial \sin \theta}{\partial \theta} \right|_{\theta=\theta_0} (\theta - \theta_0) \\ &= mgl \overset{1}{\cos \theta_0} (\theta - \overset{0}{\theta_0}) \end{aligned}$$

So, linearized equation is  $T = mgl \theta$

## The Laplace Transform (Sec. 2.4)

Probably saw this in Diff Eq. Class

A method to solve diff eq by representing them by easier-to-solve algebraic eq.

Given function  $f(t)$  the Laplace Transform is

$$F(s) = \int_0^{\infty} f(t)e^{-st} dt = \mathcal{L}[f(t)]$$

Inverse Laplace Transform exist too:

$$f(t) = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_{\sigma-j\infty}^{\sigma+j\infty} F(s)e^{st} ds$$

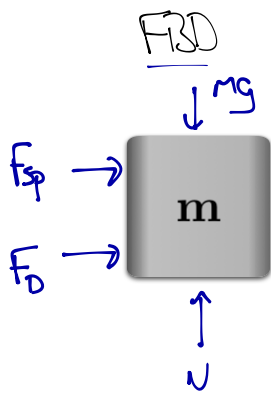
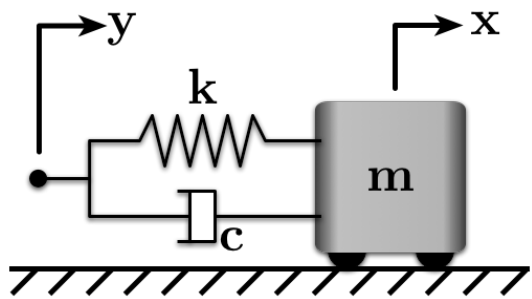
Dont worry! In practice we rarely solve these ourselves. Tables exist that have common forms, etc.

Also, we can think of the operation a bit differently.

Define  $s \equiv \frac{d}{dt}$  ( $s$  is a differential operator)

so  $\frac{1}{s} = \int_0^t dt$

## Example



$$F_{sp} = k(y - x)$$
$$F_D = c(\dot{y} - \dot{x})$$

$$m\ddot{x} = k(y - x) + c(\dot{y} - \dot{x}) \rightarrow m\ddot{x} + c\dot{x} + kx = c\dot{y} + ky$$

If we assume 0 initial conditions ( $x(0)=0$  and  $\dot{x}(0)=0$ ), then we can write the Laplace transform of this system as

$$m(s^2 X(s)) + c(s X(s)) + kX(s) = c(s Y(s)) + kY(s)$$

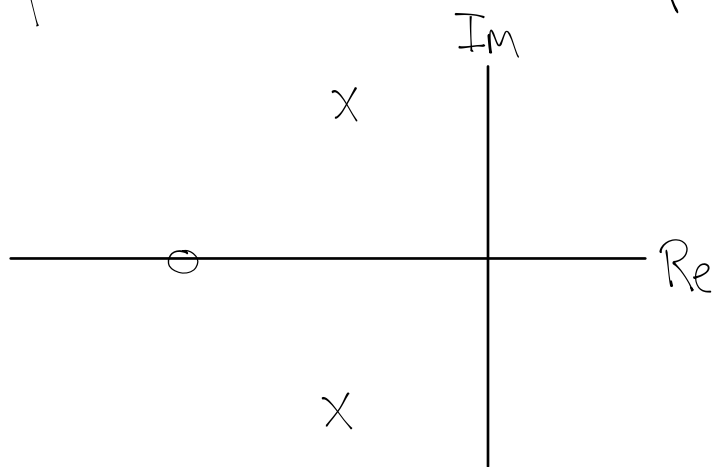
$$(ms^2 + cs + k)X(s) = (cs + k)Y(s)$$

$$\frac{X(s)}{Y(s)} = \frac{cs + k}{ms^2 + cs + k}$$

← The roots of the numerator are called zeros  
← Denominator is the characteristic equation  
Its roots are called poles

We can plot the poles and zeros on the s-plane, which will later see can give us a graphical representation of the system.

The poles and zeros are often complex, so the s-plane plot is:



x - poles  
o - zeros

# The Laplace Transform (cont.)

We could also write the equation of motion (both ODE + Laplace) using

$\zeta$  = damping ratio and  $\omega_n$  = natural frequency

Divide eq by  $m \rightarrow \ddot{x} + \frac{c}{m}\dot{x} + \frac{k}{m}x = \frac{c}{m}\dot{x} + \frac{k}{m}x \rightarrow \ddot{x} + 2\zeta\omega_n\dot{x} + \omega_n^2x = 2\zeta\omega_n\dot{x} + \omega_n^2x$

$$\frac{x(s)}{y(s)} = \frac{2\zeta\omega_n s + \omega_n^2}{s^2 + 2\zeta\omega_n s + \omega_n^2}$$

$2\zeta\omega_n = \frac{c}{m}$   $\omega_n^2 = \frac{k}{m}$

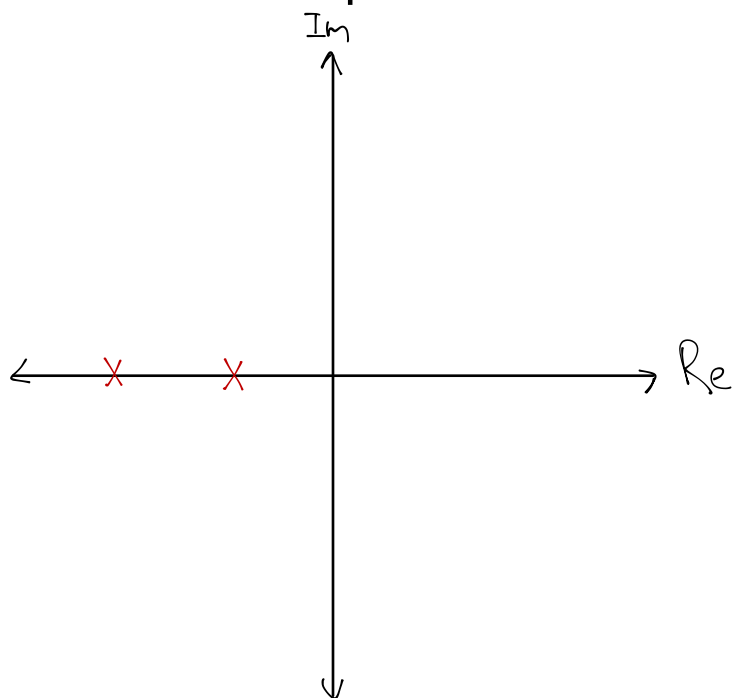
When  $\zeta > 1$  → overdamped - roots are real

When  $\zeta = 1$  → critically damped - roots are repeated and real

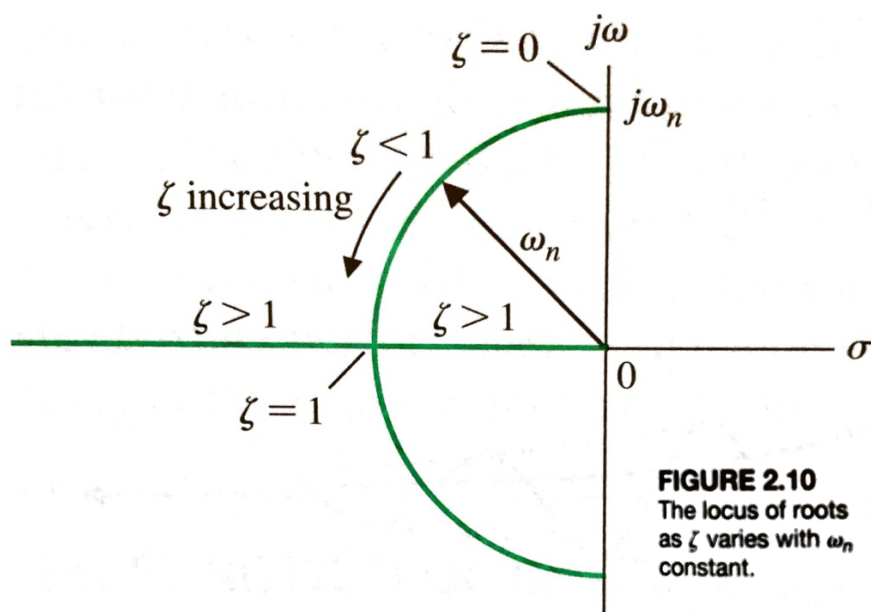
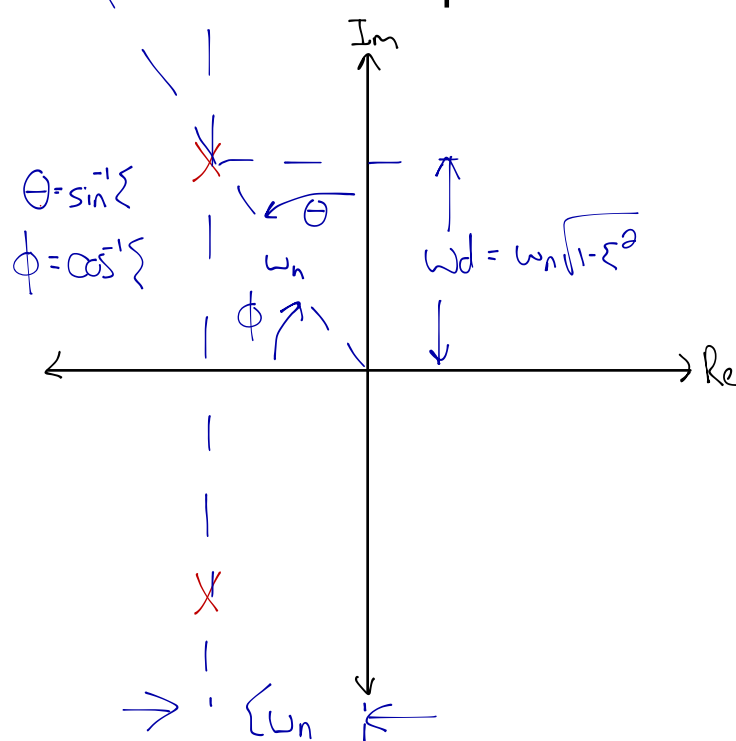
When  $\zeta < 1$  → underdamped - roots are complex conj. pairs

so, the pole location can give us a lot of info about system response!!!

Overdamped

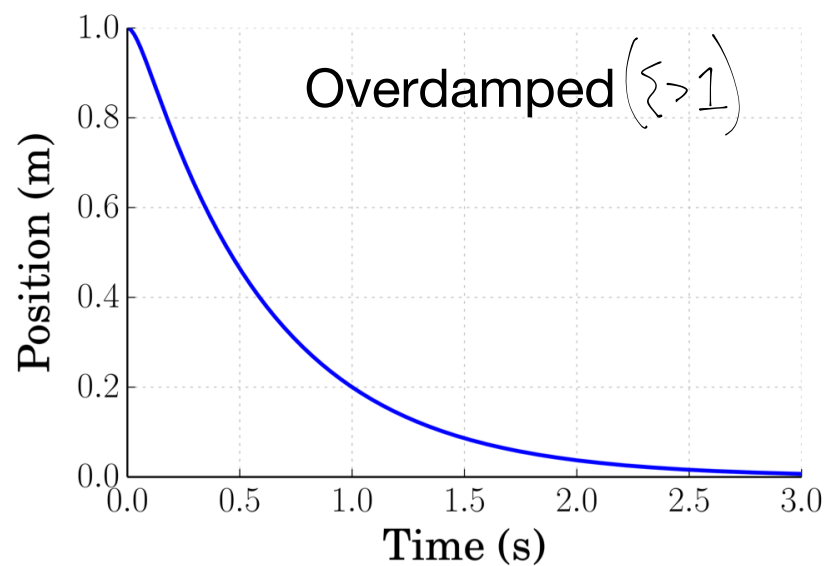


Underdamped

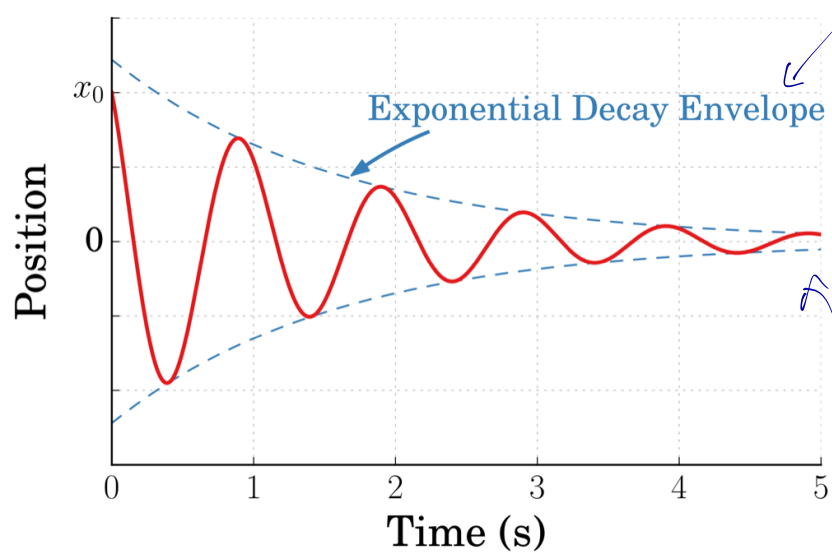


**FIGURE 2.10**  
The locus of roots as  $\zeta$  varies with  $\omega_n$  constant.

## Example Responses

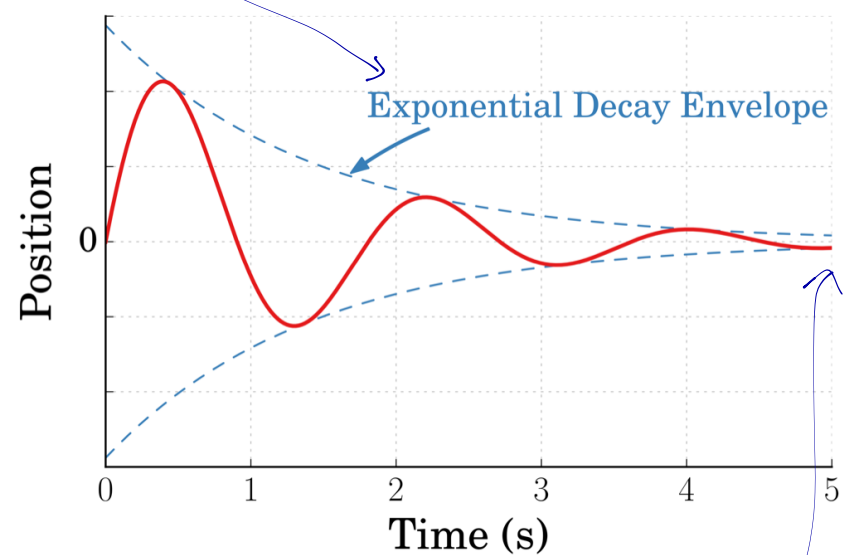


Underdamped ( $0 < \zeta < 1$ )



$$x(0) = x_0 \quad \dot{x}(0) = 0$$

The decay envelope is described by  $e^{-\zeta \omega_n t}$



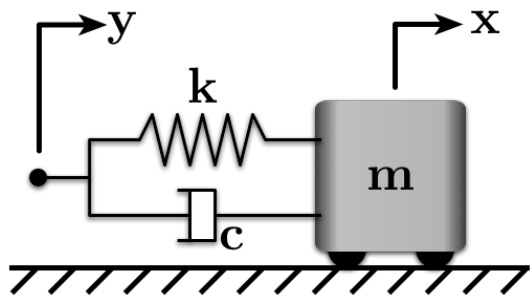
$$x(0) = 0 \quad \dot{x}(0) \neq 0$$

Decays toward 0

We'll come back to why the decay envelope is exponential soon.

## The Transfer Function of Linear Systems (Sec. 2.5)

Let's look back at our example system



$$m\ddot{x} + c\dot{x} + kx = c\dot{y} + ky$$

or

$$\ddot{x} + 2\zeta\omega_n\dot{x} + \omega_n^2 x = 2\zeta\omega_n\dot{y} + \omega_n^2 y$$

Taking the Laplace Transform, assuming 0 initial cond., we found

$$(ms^2 + cs + k)X(s) = (cs + k)Y(s) \quad \text{or} \quad (s^2 + 2\zeta\omega_n s + \omega_n^2)X(s) = (2\zeta\omega_n s + \omega_n^2)Y(s)$$

We wrote

$$\frac{X(s)}{Y(s)} = \frac{cs + k}{ms^2 + cs + k} = \frac{2\zeta\omega_n s + \omega_n^2}{s^2 + 2\zeta\omega_n s + \omega_n^2} = \frac{\text{output}}{\text{input}} \quad \left. \vphantom{\frac{X(s)}{Y(s)}} \right\} \text{The Transfer Function is the ratio of output to input}$$

This relationship describes the dynamics of the system.

Most (all?) controls analysis/design software packages

will let you define your system by simply entering the transfer function.