EE-379 Linear Control Systems

Week No. 2: Continuous Time System Description

- > The Concept of Stability in Control Systems
- Block Diagrams
- Signal Flow Graphs
- Modeling Example: A Position Servo

Stability

Stability is usually evaluated from two viewpoints internal and external.

Internal Stability

- For internal asymptotic stability, the zero-input (natural) response decays to zero as the time approaches ∞ , for all possible initial conditions.
- The characteristic polynomial roots influence the response.
- Ensured if all roots are located in the LHP

Stability

Stability is usually evaluated from two viewpoints internal and external.

External Stability

- For external (bounded input bounded output or BIBO) stability, the zerostate response is bounded as the time approaches ∞, for all bounded inputs.
- For a bounded input we can expect the forced response to be bounded.
- For the system to be BIBO stable, the natural response of the output should also be bounded.
- If natural response decays to zero as time approaches

 system is BIBO.
- It is ensured if the zero-state impulse response of the output decays to zero.

Stability – Evaluation Criterion

- If all characteristic polynomial roots are in the LHP then the natural response decays to zero and the system is asymptotically and BIBO stable.
- Another possibility for BIBO exists wherein suppose the characteristic polynomial contains some RHP roots (poles).
- RHP zeros of the T(s) cancel all the RHP poles from the TF and from the zero-state impulse response.
- At least one term in the zero-input response will go to ∞, while the zero-state impulse response decays to zero. So, the system will be asymptotically unstable but BIBO stable.

Stability – Evaluation Criterion

- Thus, the two types of stability differ when all RHP poles are canceled by RHP zeros.
- We evaluate BIBO stability by examining the zero-state impulse response which allows for poles zero cancellation.
- We evaluate asymptotic stability by examining the zero-input response of the system.

Stability – Evaluation Criterion (simple words)

- A system is stable if the natural response approaches zero as time approaches infinity.
- A system is unstable if the natural response approaches infinity as time approaches infinity.
- A system is marginally stable if the natural response neither decays nor grows but remains constant or oscillates.
- A system is stable if every bounded input yields a bounded output.
- A system is unstable if any bounded input yields an unbounded output.

Stability - Example

- Consider the following three TFs.
- The first system will have zero input response

$$y_{zi1} = K_1 e^{-3t} + K_2 e^{-2t}$$

- K_1 and K_2 are determined by initial conditions
- Zero-state impulse response when input r(t) is a unit impulse function is; $y_{zs.impulse1}(t) = 2e^{-3t} e^{-2t}$
- Which decays to zero, so the system is both asymptotically and BIBO stable

$$T_1(s) = \frac{(s+1)}{(s+2)(s+3)} = \frac{2}{(s+3)} - \frac{1}{(s+2)}$$

$$T_2(s) = \frac{(s-7)}{(s-2)(s+3)} = \frac{2}{(s+3)} - \frac{1}{(s-2)}$$

$$T_3(s) = \frac{2(s-2)}{(s-2)(s+3)} = \frac{2}{(s+3)} + \frac{0}{(s-2)}$$

Stability – Example

- Consider the following three TFs.
- For the second system

$$y_{zi2} = K_1 e^{-3t} + K_2 e^{2t}$$

$$y_{zs,impulse2}(t) = 2e^{-3t} - e^{2t}$$

$$T_1(s) = \frac{(s+1)}{(s+2)(s+3)} = \frac{2}{(s+3)} - \frac{1}{(s+2)}$$

$$T_2(s) = \frac{(s-7)}{(s-2)(s+3)} = \frac{2}{(s+3)} - \frac{1}{(s-2)}$$

$$T_3(s) = \frac{2(s-2)}{(s-2)(s+3)} = \frac{2}{(s+3)} - \frac{0}{(s-2)}$$

• This is asymptotically unstable because e^{2t} will approach infinity and it is *BIBO* unstable due to the same term.

Stability - Example

- Consider the following three TFs.
- For the third system

$$y_{zi3} = K_1 e^{-3t} + K_2 e^{2t}$$

 $y_{zs,impulse3}(t) = 2e^{-3t}$

$$T_1(s) = \frac{(s+1)}{(s+2)(s+3)} = \frac{2}{(s+3)} - \frac{1}{(s+2)}$$

$$T_2(s) = \frac{(s-7)}{(s-2)(s+3)} = \frac{2}{(s+3)} - \frac{1}{(s-2)}$$

$$T_3(s) = \frac{2(s-2)}{(s-2)(s+3)} = \frac{2}{(s+3)} - \frac{0}{(s-2)}$$

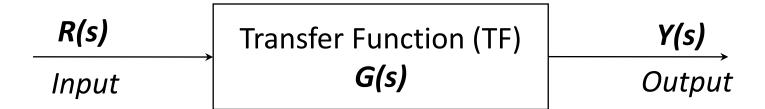
• This is asymptotically unstable because e^{2t} term, but *BIBO* stable due to the cancellation of *RHP zero also located at +2*

Stability Description – Example

- The most conservative approach is to demand asymptotic stability.
- Suppose the zero-state response of each of the three systems provides the external position of an aircraft while the zero-input response provides the response of some internal device.
- The first system has an acceptable response for both the aircraft and the device.
- While the second system has an unacceptable response for both the aircraft and the device.
- Although the zero-state response of the third system is stable, the electrical device is probably destroyed.
- This is unacceptable since this device may play a vital role in the future activity of the aircraft.
- Only asymptotic stability is accepted

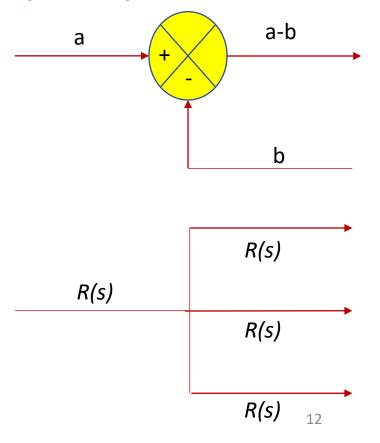
Block Diagram - Uses

- Block diagrams are used to model all types of systems because of their simplicity and versatility.
- A block diagram can be used to describe the composition and interconnection of a system.
- Also, it can be used together with transfer functions, to describe the cause and effect relationships throughout the system.
- A block diagram consists of unidirectional, operational blocks that represent the TF.



Block Diagram - Uses

- Many systems are composed of multiple subsystems.
- When multiple subsystems are interconnected, a few more **schematic elements** must be added to the block diagram. Like **summing junctions** and **pickoff points**.
- Summing Point: A circle with a cross indicates a summing operation. The plus + and minus sign at each arrowhead indicates whether the signal is to be added or to be subtracted.
- Junction/Pick-off Point: A point from which the signal from a block goes concurrently to other blocks or summing points.



Block Diagram – Common Forms

- There are three basic forms, by which the subsystems are connected together.
 - Cascade form
 - Parallel form
 - Feedback form

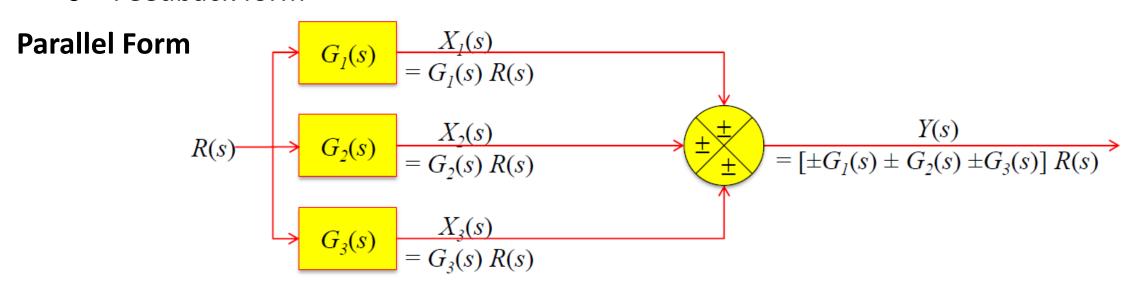
Cascade Form

$$R(s)$$
 $G_{l}(s)$ $G_$

$$\xrightarrow{R(s)} G_1(s) \ G_2(s) \ G_3(s) \xrightarrow{Y(s)}$$

Block Diagram – Common Forms

- There are three basic common forms, by which the subsystems are connected together.
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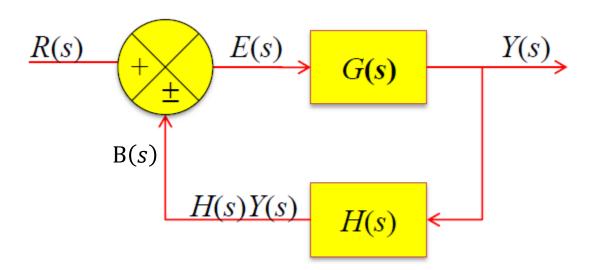


$$\xrightarrow{R(s)} \pm G_1(s) \pm G_2(s) \pm G_3(s) \qquad Y(s)$$

Block Diagram – Common Forms

- There are three basic common forms, by which the subsystems are connected together.
 - Cascade form
 - Parallel form
 - Feedback form

Feedback Form



Open-Loop Transfer Function

The ratio of the **feedback signal** H(s)Y(s) to the actuating error signal E(s) is called the open-loop transfer function.

$$T(s) = \frac{B(s)}{E(s)} = G(s)H(s)$$

Feed-forward Transfer Function

The ratio of the **output** Y(s) to the **actuating error signal** $\mathbf{E}(s)$ is called the feedforward transfer function.

$$T(s) = \frac{Y(s)}{E(s)} = G(s)$$

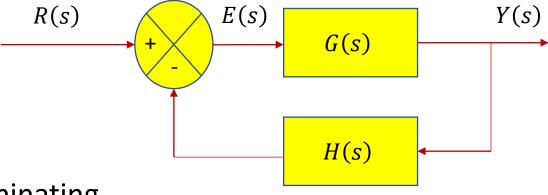
If the feedback transfer function H(s) is unity, then the open-loop transfer function and the feedforward transfer function are the same.

Block Diagram – Common Forms – Feedback

The relationship between the signals is:

$$Y(s) = G(s)E(s)$$

$$E(s) = R(s) \pm H(s)Y(s)$$



Solving for Y(s) in terms of R(s) and eliminating E(s), we get.

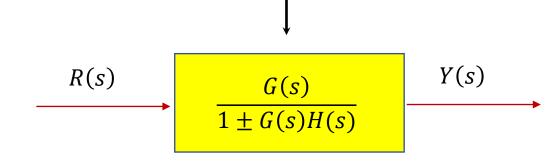
$$Y(s) = G(s)[R(s) \pm H(s)Y(s)]$$

$$Y(s) = G(s)R(s) \pm G(s)H(s)Y(s)$$

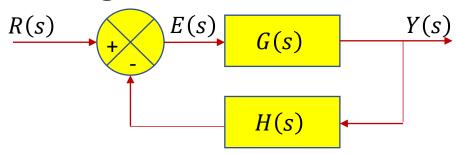
which results in

$$T(s) = \frac{Y(s)}{R(s)} = \frac{G(s)}{1 \pm G(s)H(s)}$$

Closed-loop transfer function



Block Diagram – Common Forms – Feedback



- Fundamental to control engineering as it reveals the effect of applying feedback to a system.
- Practical meaning of two possible summation (positive and negative):
 Lets imagine,
 - G(s) the combination of cruise controller and dynamics of a vehicle.
 - H(s) velocity measuring device.
 - R(s) desired velocity
 - Y(s) actual velocity
 - Say, desired velocity = 65 km/h
 - Actual velocity = 55 km/h

Using negative summation:

- Error = (65-55)km/h = 10 km/h
- This would speed up the car by 10 km/h and would be a logical choice.

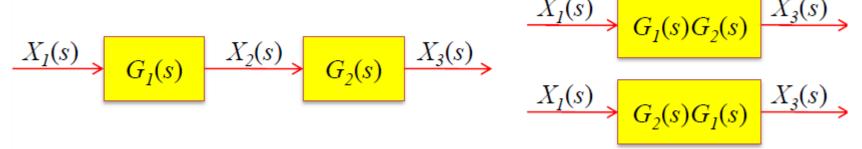
Using positive summation

- Error = (65+55) = 110 km/h
- +'ve sign on summer introduces negative co-eff and results in RHP roots.
- This causes instability.

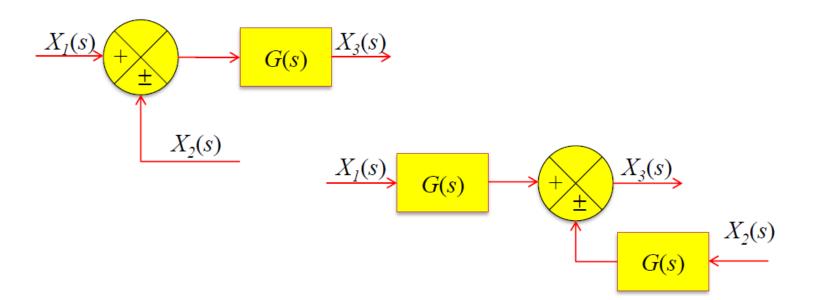
Therefore, negative feedback should be used.

Block Diagram – Reductions (6)

1) Combining blocks in cascade

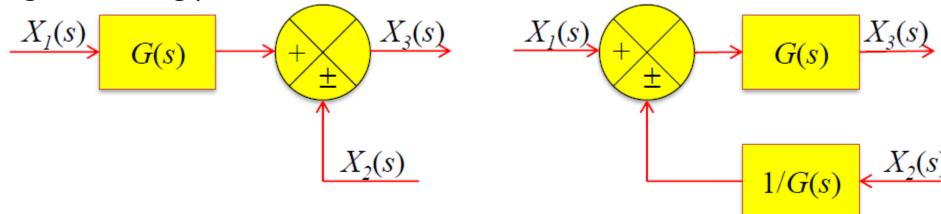


2) Moving a summing point forward

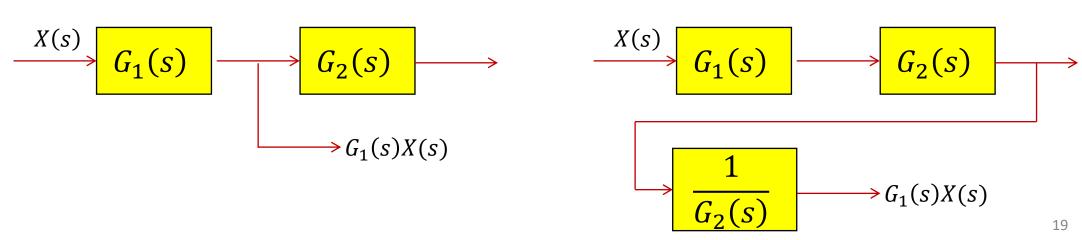


Block Diagram – Reductions (6)

3) Moving a summing point back

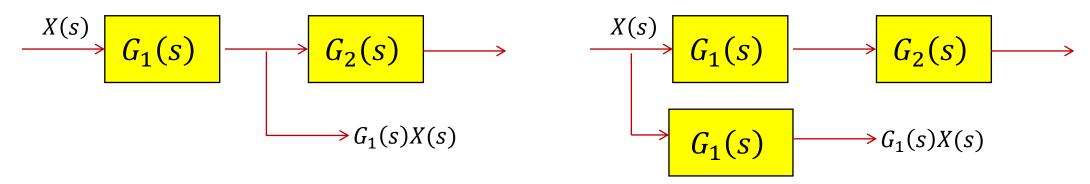


4) Moving a pickoff point forward

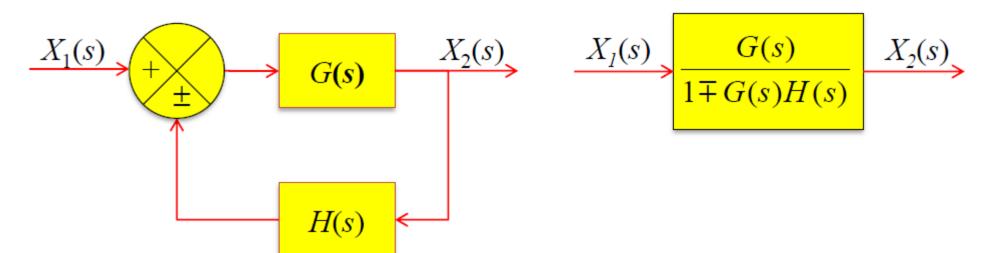


Block Diagram - Reductions (6)

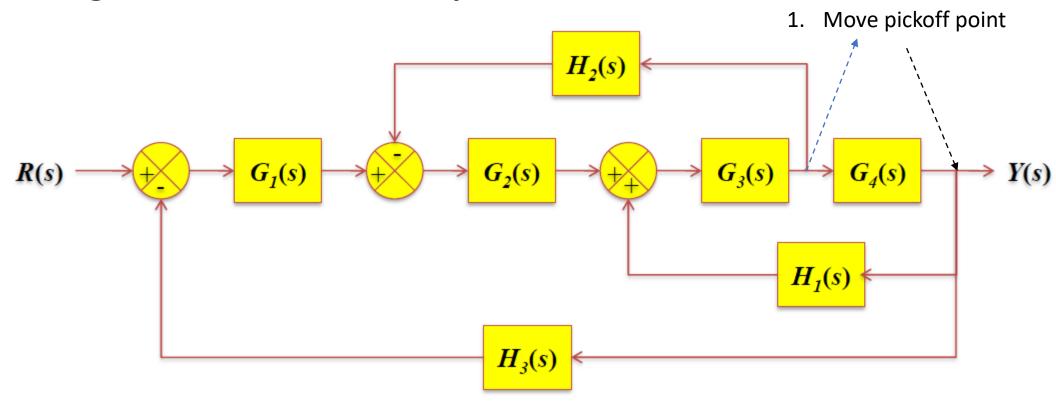
5) Moving a pickoff point back



6) Eliminating a feedback loop

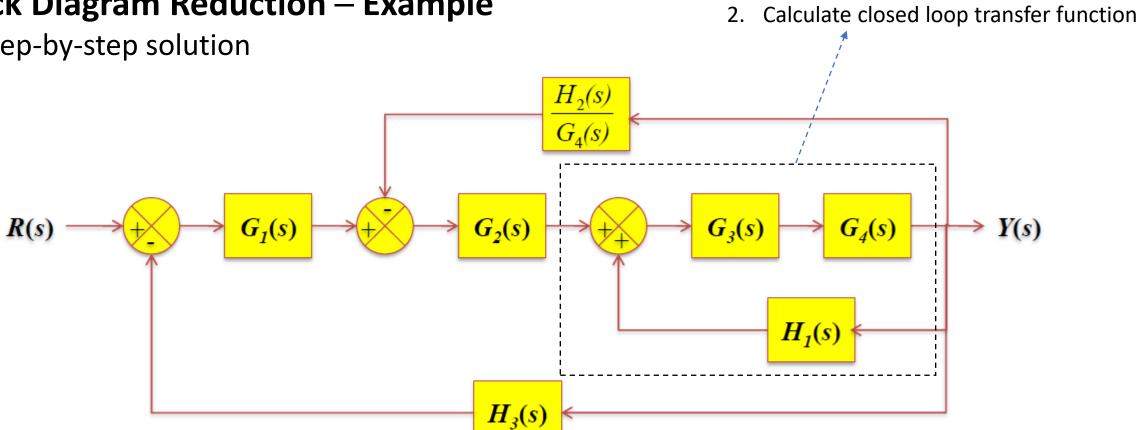


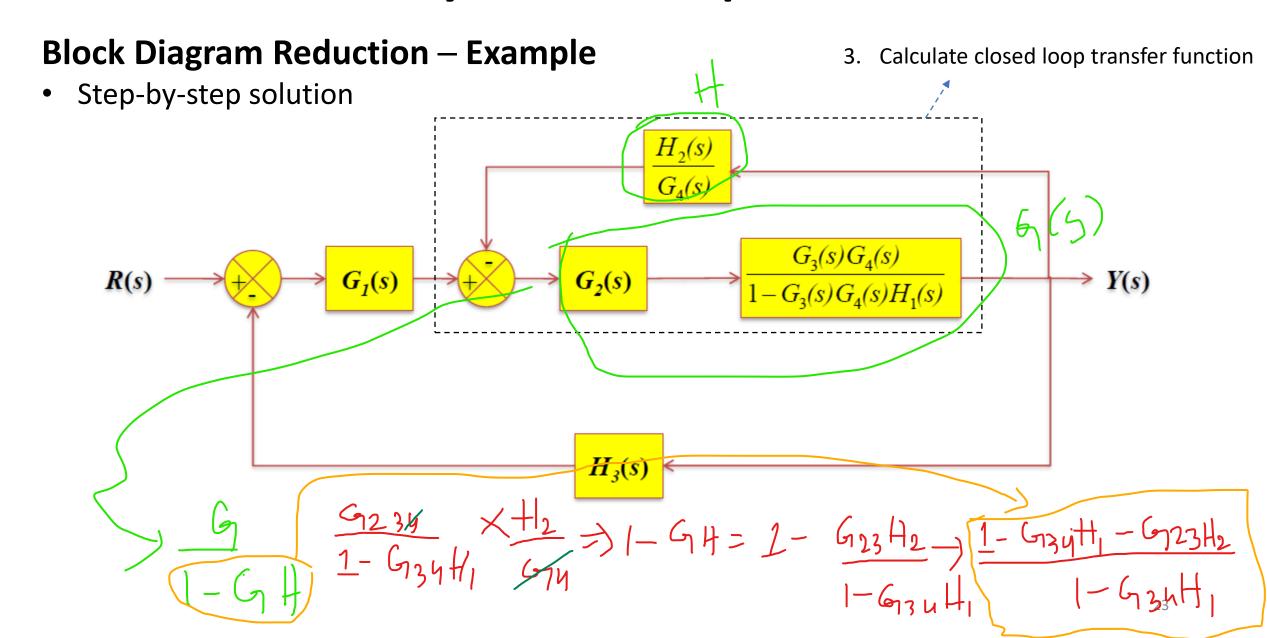
Block Diagram Reduction – Example



Block Diagram Reduction – Example

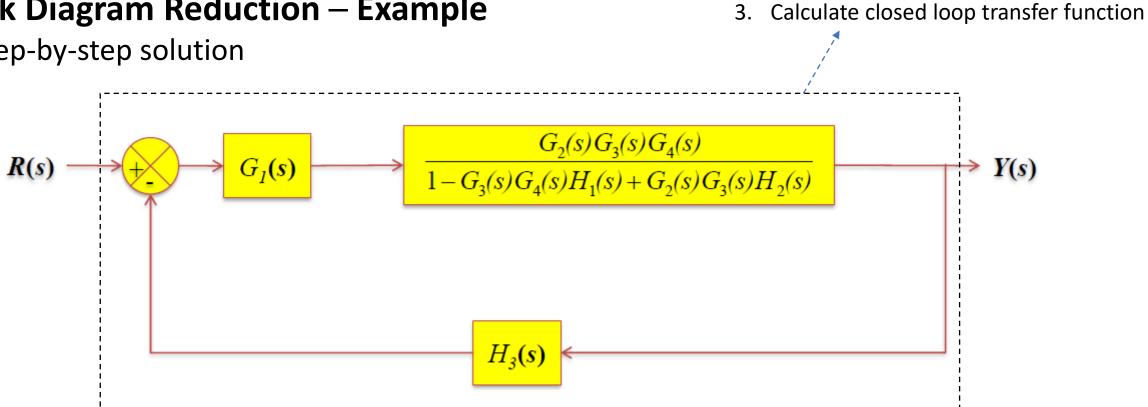
• Step-by-step solution





Block Diagram Reduction – Example

• Step-by-step solution



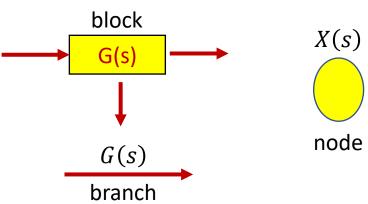
Block Diagram Reduction – Example

- Step-by-step solution
- Answer

$$R(s) \longrightarrow \frac{G_1(s)G_2(s)G_3(s)G_4(s)}{1 - G_3(s)G_4(s)H_1(s) + G_2(s)G_3(s)H_2(s) + G_1(s)G_2(s)G_3(s)G_4(s)H_3(s)} \longrightarrow Y(s)$$

What is it?

- A Signal Flow Graph SFG) is a special type of block diagram and directed graph solution.
- It consists of **nodes** and **branches**. Its nodes are the **variables** of a set of linear algebraic relations.
- SFG can only represent multiplications and additions.
 - Multiplications are represented by the weights of the branches.
 - Additions are represented by multiple branches going into one node.
 - It has a one-to-one relationship with a system of linear equations and can also be used to represent the signal flow in a physical system; i.e., it can represent relations of cause and effect.
 - Consists of branches (represent system)
 - Nodes (represents signals)

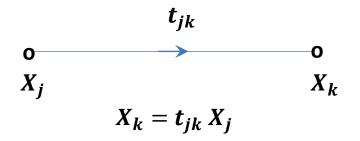


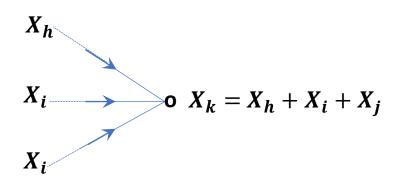
Basic Properties

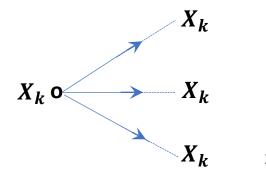
• A signal flows along a branch only in the direction defined by the arrow and is multiplied by the transmittance of that branch.

 A node signal is equal to the algebraic sum of all signals entering the pertinent node via the incoming branches.

 The signal at a node is applied to each outgoing branch that originates from that node.

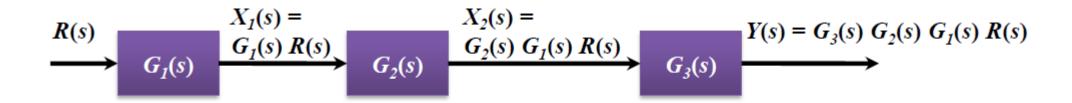


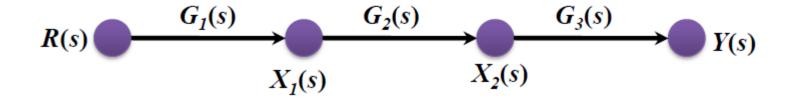




Conversion between Block Diagrams and SFG

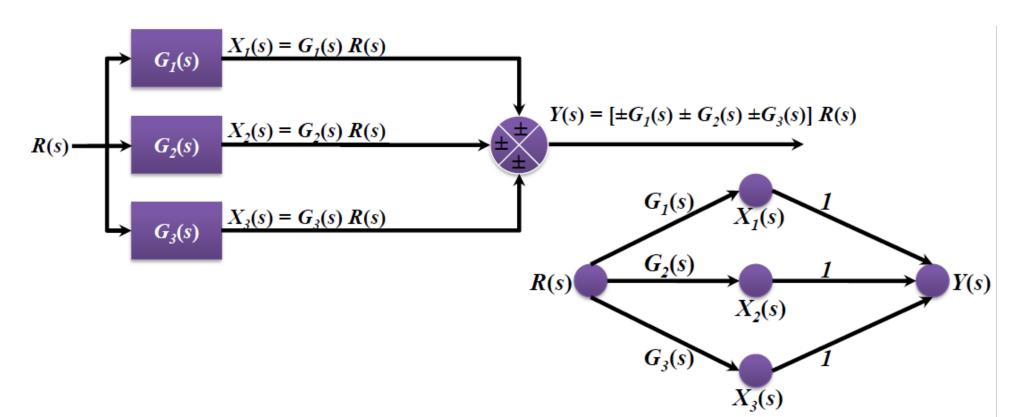
- We can convert the block diagrams in cascade, parallel, and feedback forms into signal flow diagrams.
 - Cascade Form





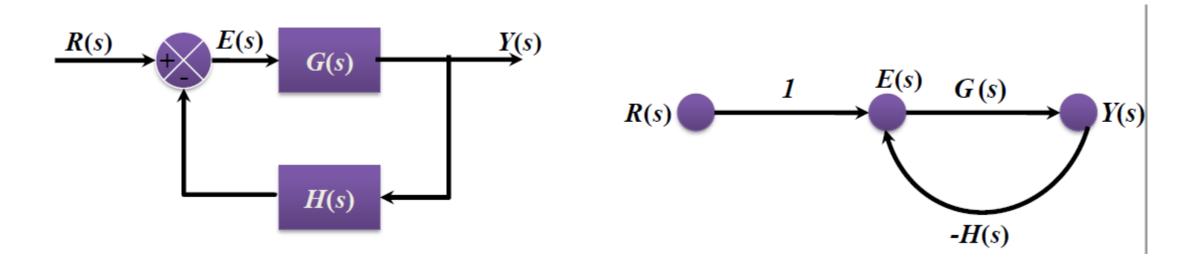
Conversion between Block Diagrams and SFG

- We can convert the block diagrams in cascade, parallel, and feedback forms into signal flow diagrams.
 - Cascade Form
 - Parallel Form



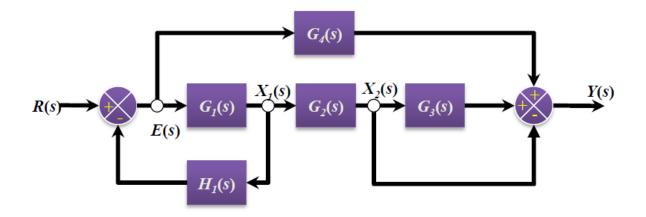
Conversion between Block Diagrams and SFG

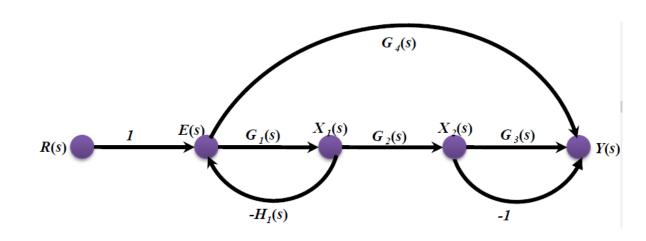
- We can convert the block diagrams in cascade, parallel, and feedback forms into signal flow diagrams.
 - Cascade Form
 - Parallel Form
 - Feedback Form



Conversion: Example

- Replace every block with a branch.
- Replace each combination of summer and pick-off points with a node in the signal flow graph (all sums are assumed to be +ve. For -ve sums add a -ve sign
- Replace each solitary pick-off point (not connected to a summer) with a label of the variable assigned to the pick-off point.
- For each input show a node labeled with the variable assigned to the input.
- Add unity branches as needed or for clarity.





Mason's Gain Formula

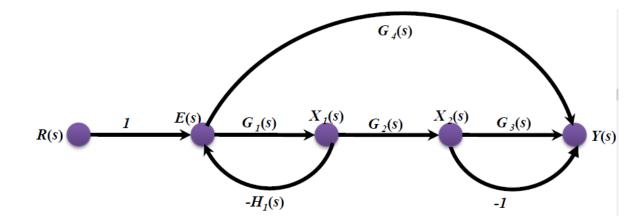
$$G(s) = \frac{Y(s)}{R(s)} = \frac{\sum_{i}^{N} p_{i} \Delta_{i}}{\Delta}$$



 p_i = gain of the ith forward path

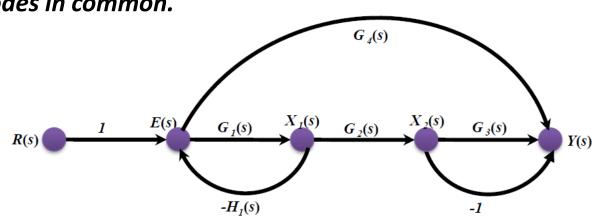
 Δ = 1- (Σ all individual feedback loop gains including self-loops) + (Σ gain product of all possible combinations of two nontouching loops) - (Σ gain product of all possible combinations of three nontouching loops)+......

 Δ_i = value of Δ after eliminating all loops that touch its ith forward path

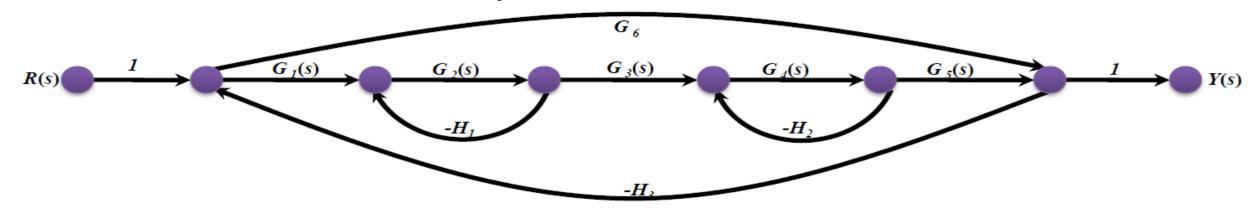


- 1. Path = p_i
- 2. Loop
- 3. Touching loops
- 4. Determinant = Δ
- 5. Cofactor = Δ_i

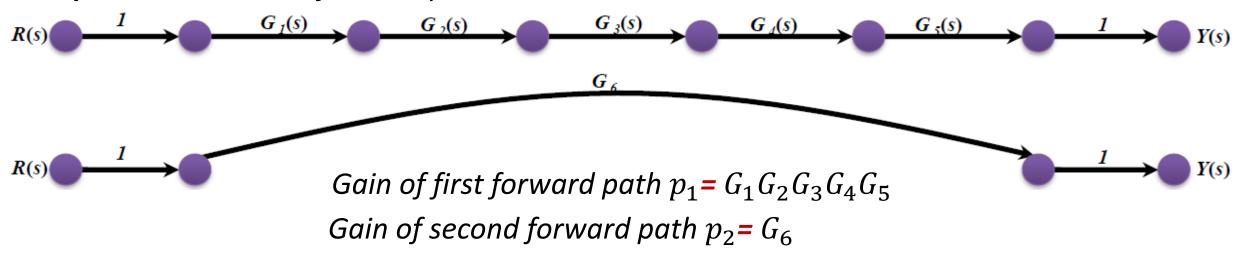
- **1. Path** = p_i = A succession of branches, from input to output in the direction of arrows, that does not pass any node more than once.
- **2.** Path gain = Product of the transmittances of the branches of the path. For the ith path, the path gain is denoted by p_i .
- **3.** Loop = A closed succession of branches, in the direction of the arrows, , that does not pass any node more than once.
- **4.** Loop gain = Product of the transmittances of the branches of the loop.
- **5. Touching loops** = Loops with one or more **nodes in common.**
- 6. Determinant = Δ
- 4. Cofactor = Δ_i



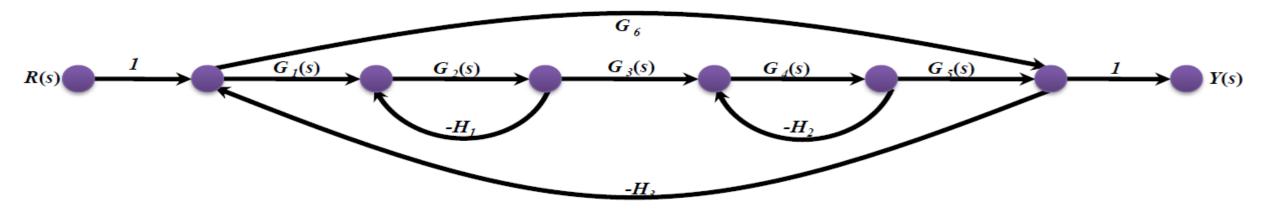
Mason's Gain Formula: Example



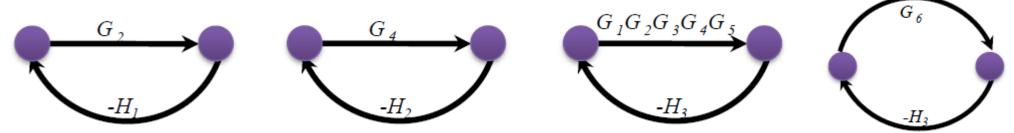
Step 1: There are two forward paths as below so N=2



Mason's Gain Formula: Example

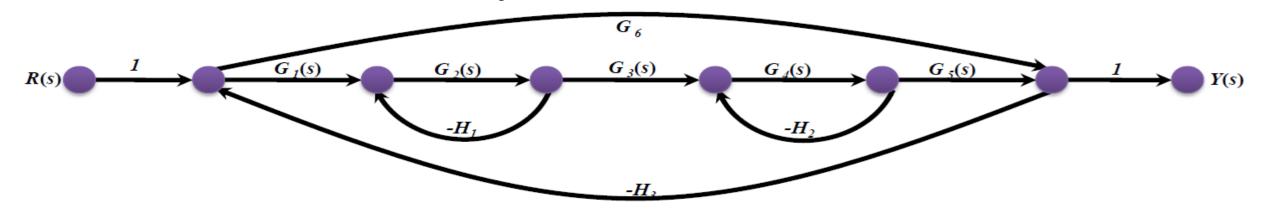


Step 2: There are four loops

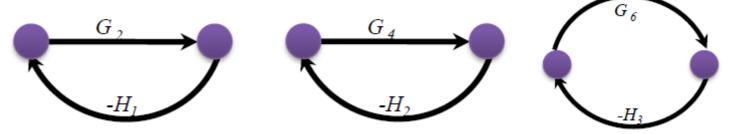


Loop gain of first loop $(L_1) = -G_2H_1$ Loop gain of second loop $(L_2) = -G_4H_2$ Loop gain of third loop $(L_3) = -G_1G_2G_3G_4G_5H_3$ Loop gain of fourth loop $(L_4) = -G_6H_3$

Mason's Gain Formula: Example



Step 3: Out of the four loops: loop 1,2, and 4 are non touching



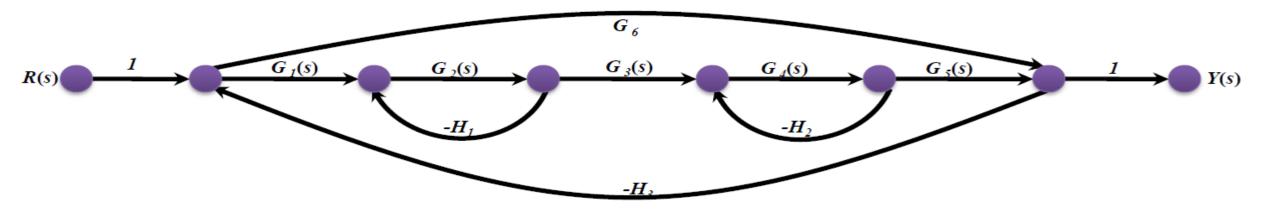
Combinations of two non touching loops are:

Loop 1, Loop 2: Loop gain $(L_{12}) = G_2G_4H_1H_2$

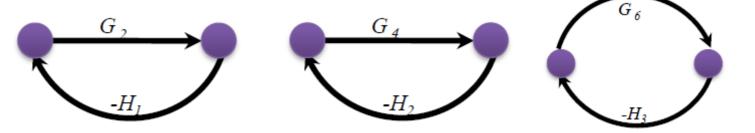
Loop 1, Loop 4: Loop gain $(L_{14}) = G_2G_6H_1H_3$

Loop 2, Loop 4: Loop gain $(L_{24}) = G_4G_6H_2H_3$

Mason's Gain Formula: Example



Step 4: Out of the four loops: loops 1,2, and 4 are non-touching

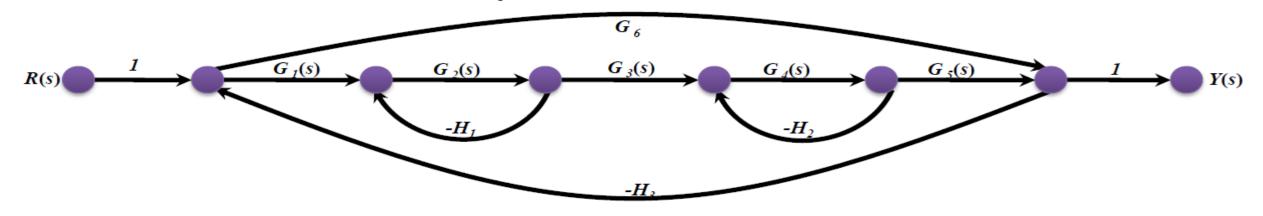


Combinations of three non touching loops are:

Loop 1, Loop 2, Loop 4: Loop gain $(L_{124}) = -G_2G_4G_6H_1H_2H_3$

Step 5: There are no higher order non-touching loops.

Mason's Gain Formula: Example



Step 6: Calculate ∆

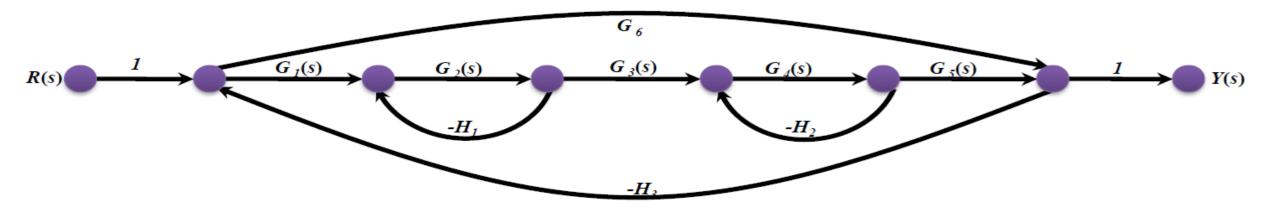
$$\Delta = \mathbf{1} - (L_1 + L_2 + L_3 + L_4) + (L_{12} + L_{14} + L_{24}) - (L_{124})$$

$$= \mathbf{1} + (G_2H_1 + G_4H_2 + G_1G_2G_3G_4G_5H_3 + G_6H_3)$$

$$+ (G_2G_4H_1H_2 + G_2G_6H_1H_3 + G_4G_6H_2H_3)$$

$$+ (G_2G_4G_6H_1H_2H_3)$$

Mason's Gain Formula: Example



Step 7: Calculate Δ_i

We know that:
$$\Delta = 1 - (L_1 + L_2 + L_3 + L_4) + (L_{12} + L_{14} + L_{24}) - (L_{124})$$

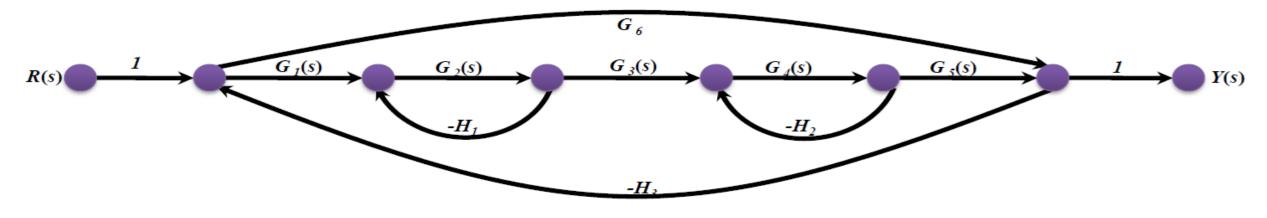
Considering path p_1 , loops 1,2,3,4 touch it: eliminating all these from Δ

$$\Delta_1 = 1 - (0) = 1$$

Considering path p_2 , loops 3,4 touch it: eliminating loops 3, 4 from Δ

$$\Delta_2 = 1 - (L_1 + L_2) + (L_{12}) = 1 - (-G_2H_1 - G_4H_2) + G_2G_4H_1H_2$$
$$= 1 + G_2H_1 + G_4H_2 + G_2G_4H_1H_2$$

Mason's Gain Formula: Example



Step 8: Transfer Function

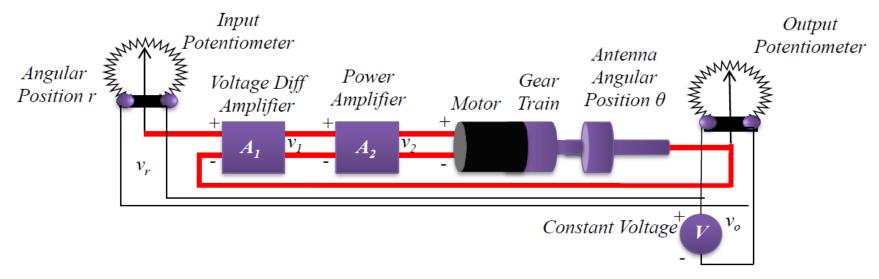
$$G(s) = \frac{p_1 \Delta_1 + p_2 \Delta_2}{\Delta}$$

$$= \frac{G_1 G_2 G_3 G_4 G_5 + G_6 (1 + G_2 H_1 + G_4 H_2 + G_2 G_4 H_1 H_2)}{1 + (G_2 H_1 + G_4 H_2 + G_1 G_2 G_3 G_4 G_5 H_3 + G_6 H_3)}$$

$$+ (G_2 G_4 H_1 H_2 + G_2 G_6 H_1 H_3 + G_4 G_6 H_2 H_3)$$

$$+ (G_2 G_4 G_6 H_1 H_2 H_3)$$

Example – A Position Servo a large video satellite antenna



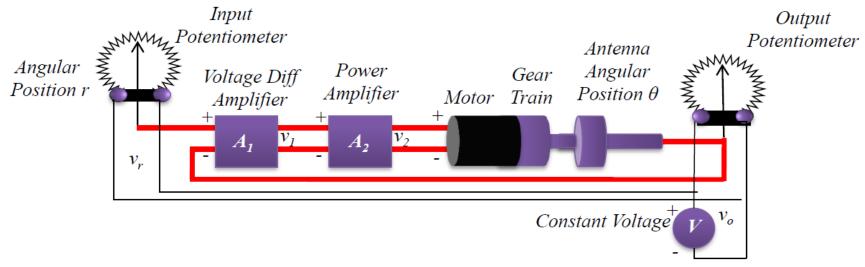
Output potentiometer measures the output shaft position and converts it to a potential voltage.

$$v_o = K_p \theta$$

 $\theta = output \ shaft \ angle$
 $K_p = proportionality \ const. = \frac{V}{\theta_{max}} \ volts/radian$

• The input potentiometer slider position is converted to a voltage in a similar manner: $v_r = K_p r$

Example – A Position Servo a large video satellite antenna



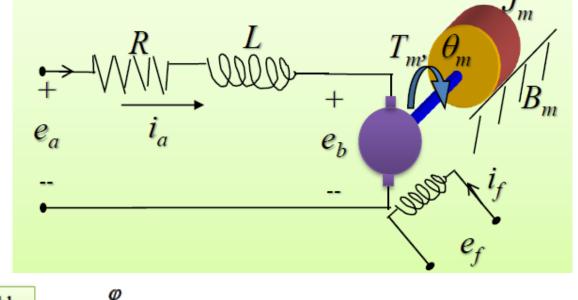
- Difference between the two potentiometer signals is then amplified with gain A_1 $v_1 = A_1(v_r v_0) = A_1K_p(r \theta)$ where, $v_1 = error\ voltage\ output$
- This voltage is then further amplified with gain A_2 and applied to the motor terminals: $v_2 = A_2 v_1 = A_2 A_1 K_p(r \theta)$ where, $v_2 = motor\ drive\ voltage$
- The second amplifier is the power amplifier capable of providing the electrical power needed to drive the motor.
- The motor is coupled to the antenna with a gear train ratio of $\theta = \frac{N_1}{N} \theta_m$ where θ_m is the motor shaft angle.

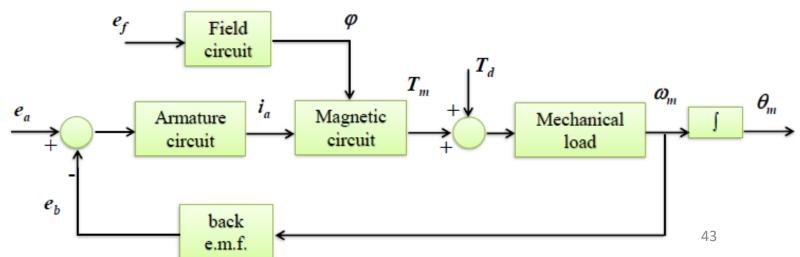
Example – A Position Servo a large video satellite antenna

DC Servo Motor – Modeling

- The **armature current** depends upon the applied voltage and the back emf.
- The electromagnetic torque is produced by the interaction of the armature current and the field current.
- The electromagnetic torque minus disturbance or load torque drives the inertial load.
- The functional block diagram of a DC motor.

$$TF = \frac{\theta_m(s)}{E_a(s)}$$





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DC Servo Motor – Modeling

The relationship between the armature current $i_a(t)$, the applied armature voltage $e_a(t)$, and the back emf $e_h(t)$, is found by applying KVL and then taking Laplace transform:

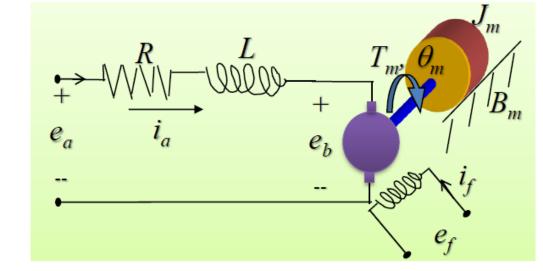
$$E_a(s) = R_a I_a(s) + L_a s I_a(s) + E_b(s)$$
.....(a)

The back emf $e_h(t)$ is directly proportional to the speed of the motor and it can be written in Laplace domain as:

$$E_b(s) = K_b s \theta_m(s) \dots (b)$$

The torque developed by the motor (armature torque) is proportional to the armature current; thus,

$$T_m(s) = K_i I_a(s) \rightarrow I_a(s) = \frac{T_m}{K_i}$$
.....(c)



✓ The armature torque is directly proportional to the product of the **flux** and the **armature current**:

$$T_m \propto \emptyset I_a \rightarrow T_m = K_m \emptyset I_a$$

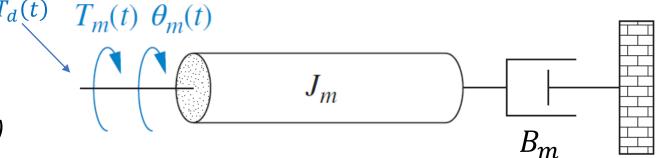
 $\emptyset = K_f i_f \rightarrow \text{ field flux}$
 $T_m = K_m K_f I_f i_a = K_i i_a \rightarrow \text{ for const.}$
 field current
 $K_i = \text{motor torque constant}$

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DC Servo Motor – Modeling

Substituting (b) and (c) in (a);

$$E_a(s) = (R_a + L_a s) \frac{T_m}{K_i} + K_b s \theta_m(s)$$
..... (d)



The mechanical load on the motor can be modeled in Laplace domain as:

$$T_m(s) + T_d(s) = (J_m s^2 + B_m s)\theta_m(s)....(e)$$

Substituting (e) in (d) and setting $T_d(s) = 0$

$$E_a(s) = \frac{(R_a + L_a s)(J_m s^2 + B_m s)\theta_m(s)}{K_i} + K_b s \theta_m(s)$$

$$TF = \frac{\theta_m(s)}{E_a(s)} = \frac{K_i}{s[L_a J_m s^2 + (R_a J_m + L_a B_m) s + (R_a B_m + K_b K_i)]}$$

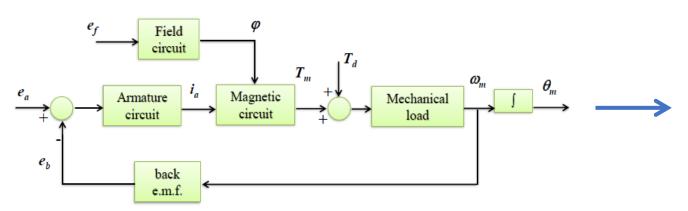
$$G(s)$$

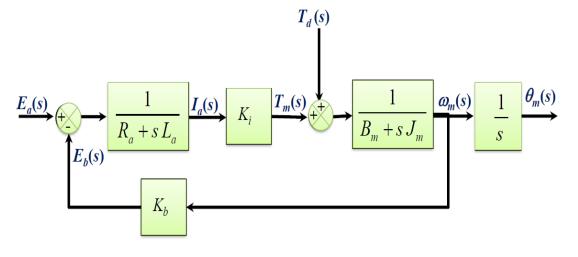
Recalling the transfer function: $TF = \frac{\theta_m(s)}{E_a(s)}$



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DC Servo Motor – Modeling





In the text book $K_i = K_T$, $K_b = K_V$, and $E_a = V_2$ which means:

$$\frac{\boldsymbol{\theta_m(s)}}{\boldsymbol{V_2(s)}} = \frac{K_T}{s[L_a J_m s^2 + (R_a J_m + L_a B_m) s + (R_a B_m + K_v K_T)]}$$

Neglecting the terms L_a , B_m and dividing by K_vK_T

$$\frac{\boldsymbol{\theta_m(s)}}{\boldsymbol{V_2(s)}} = \frac{1/K_v}{s[1 + (\frac{R_a J_m}{K_v K_T})]}$$

$$T_m = K_m \emptyset I_a$$

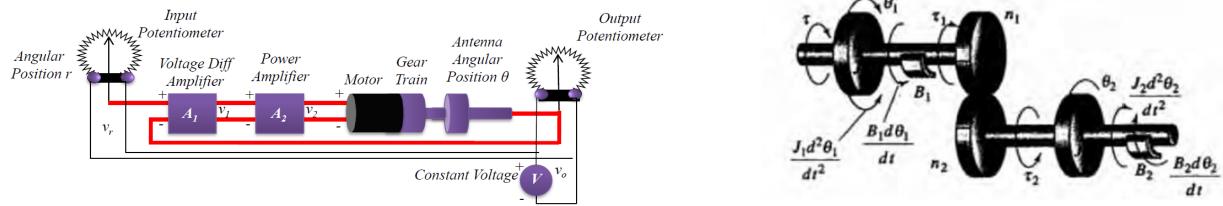
$$K_m = motor torque constant$$

•
$$v_m = K_v \omega_m$$

 $K_v = motor\ voltage\ constant$

$$K_m = 1/K_v$$

Example – A Position Servo a large video satellite antenna



- "\theta" is the angular position of the antenna with the moment of inertia "J". N1 <<< N2, since the high-speed shaft of the motor must drive the antenna at low speed and high torque.
- $J_1 s^2 \theta_1(s) + B_1 s \theta_1(s) + \left(\frac{n_1}{n_2}\right)^2 J_2 s^2 \theta_1(s) + \left(\frac{n_1}{n_2}\right)^2 B_1 s \theta_1(s)$ \leftarrow

•
$$\frac{\theta(s)}{V_2(s)} = \frac{K_m \left(\frac{N_1}{N_2}\right)}{s(1 + (R_a/K_v K_T [J_m + \left(\frac{N_1}{N_2}\right)^2 J_L])s)}$$

$$J_1 = J_m$$
$$J_2 = J_L$$

• Taking Laplace of v_2 gives: (ref: slide 42)

•
$$V_2(s) = A_1 A_2 K_p(R(s) - \theta(s))$$

$$\bullet \quad \theta(s) = \theta_m \left[\frac{N_1}{N_2} \right]$$

$$\tau = \tau_1 + J_1 \frac{d^2 \theta_1}{dt^2} + B_1 \frac{d\theta_2}{dt}$$

$$\tau_2 = J_2 \frac{d^2 \theta_2}{dt^2} + B_2 \frac{d\theta_2}{dt}$$

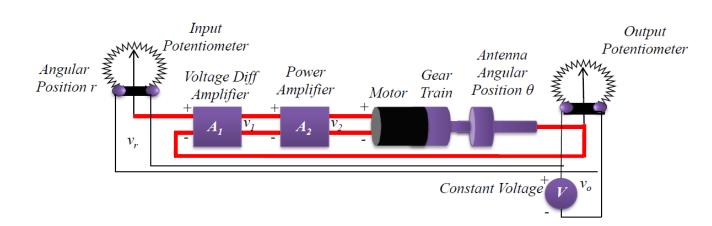
$$\tau_2 = \frac{n_2}{n_1} \tau_1 \qquad \theta_2 = \frac{n_1}{n_2} \theta_1$$

Example – A Position Servo a large video satellite antenna

substituting to find value of $\theta(s)$ we get

$$\theta(s) = \frac{K_m \left(\frac{N_1}{N_2}\right) A_1 A_2 K_p (R(s) - \theta(s))}{s(1 + \tau_L s)}$$

Where,
$$\tau_L = (R_a/K_vK_T[J_m + \left(\frac{N_1}{N_2}\right)^2 J_L]$$



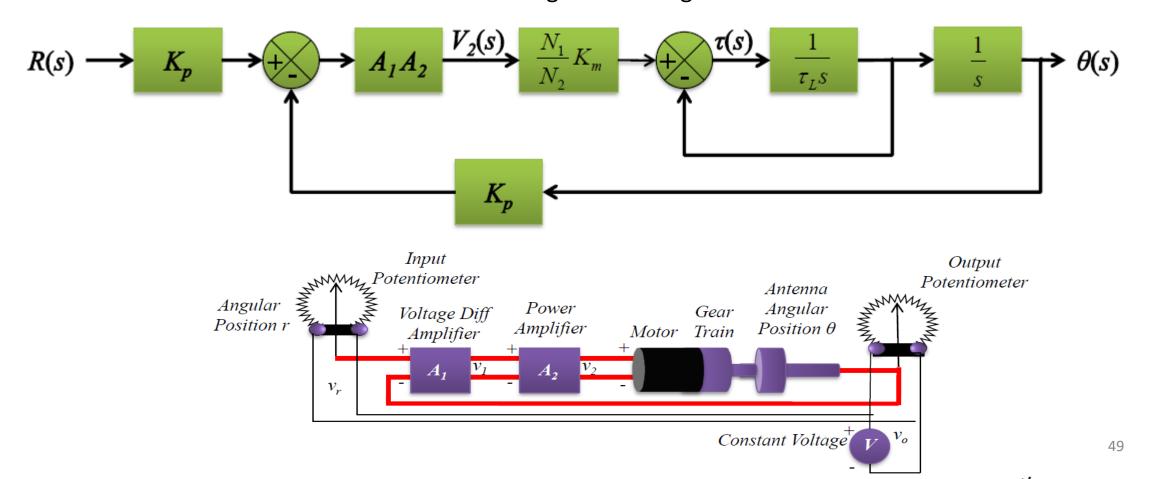
$$\theta(s) = \frac{K_m \left(\frac{N_1}{N_2}\right) A_1 A_2 K_p (R(s) - \theta(s))}{s(1 + \tau_L s)}$$

- Some of the coefficients, and thus some of the system properties can be selected by the designer by appropriately choosing the control components.
- However, the moment of inertia of the load J cannot be changed.
- The transfer function relating the input position R(s) to the output position $\Theta(s)$ is given by:

$$T(s) = \frac{\theta(s)}{R(s)} = \frac{(\frac{N_1}{N_2})A_1A_2K_mK_p}{\tau_L s^2 + s + (\frac{N_1}{N_2})A_1A_2K_mK_p}$$

Example – A Position Servo a large video satellite antenna DC Servo Motor – Block Diagram

The transfer function can also be derived using a block diagram as shown below:



Example – A Position Servo a large video satellite antenna DC Servo Motor – Block Diagram – Signal Flow Graph

- It can also be obtained by reducing the equivalent signal flow graph shown on this slide
- In this graph for one forward path Mason's rule gives.

$$P_1 = K_P A_1 A_2 \frac{N_1}{N_2} \frac{1}{\tau_L s} \frac{1}{s} K_m$$
, $\Delta_1 = 1$

$$L_1 = A_1 A_2 \frac{N_1}{N_2} K_m \frac{1}{\tau_L s} \frac{1}{s} (-K_P), \qquad L_2 = \frac{-1}{\tau_L s} \qquad R(s) \longrightarrow K_P$$

$$= \frac{-A_1 A_2 (\frac{N_1}{N_2}) K_m K_p}{\tau_L s^2}$$

$$T(s) = \frac{K_P A_1 A_2 (\frac{N_1}{N_2}) K_m}{\tau_L s^2 + s + (\frac{N_1}{N_2}) K_P A_1 A_2 K_m}$$

