

Systems Dynamics Modeling and Analysis

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Part I

Week 1

LECTURE

1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Syllabus and Textbook

Instructor Information:

1. Professor Email: Justin.Koeln@UTDallas.edu
2. Office hours by appointment
3. TA Email Sahand.HadizadehKafash@UTdallas.edu
4. Office hours Friday 1:00 pm - 3:00 and by appointment

Textbook: System Dynamics, William Palm 3rd Edition. Chapters 1-9 (not in that order), balance of math, theory, modeling, and application.

1.2 Homework

Approximately one assignment per week, due Tuesday before class. No late credit for homework and the lowest score will be dropped. Points will be assigned based on the rubric. Each lecture will have a quiz associated with it, due before the start of next class. The quiz is meant to test your understanding of the material.

Table 1.1: Grading Criteria

Homework	30%
Participation	10%
Midterm	15% each
Final	30%

1.3 Exam Schedule

- Exam 1: Week of Thursday, Feb. 25
- Exam 2: Week of Thursday, Apr. 8
- Final Exam: Week of Monday, May 10

Open book, open notes exams with a time limit. A calculator is allowed and a formula sheet is provided. Additionally, a sheet of equations that we are expected to know if provided as well.

1.4 Quiz 1

1. What year are you in school?
2. Have you taken systems and controls?
3. Do you have access to Matlab/Simulink
4. What is the most important thing you want to remember from this lecture?
5. What are your goals for the course? ..etc

1.5 Systems

A system is a combination of elements intended to act together to accomplish an objective. A systems point of view focuses on how the connections between elements influence overall behavior. We can accept a less-detailed description of individual elements to understand the entire system. We want to look at the general behavior of the system as it evolves over time.

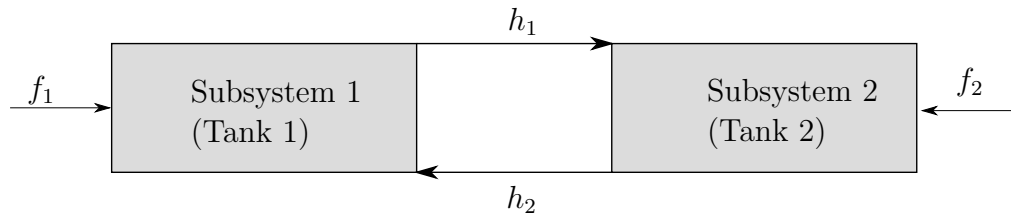


Figure 1.1: Subsystem Interaction

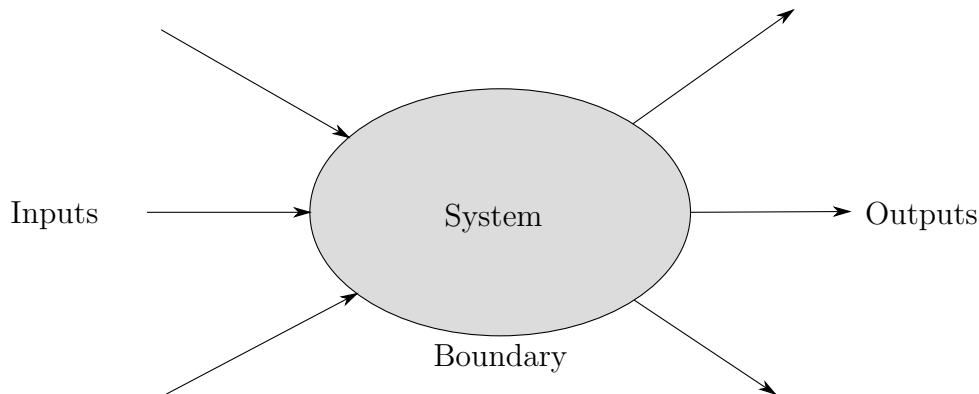


Figure 1.2: Input-Output Relationship

1.6 Inputs and Outputs

1. Input is a cause u .
2. Output is an effect y .
3. System dynamics are governed by input-output relationships $y = f(t, u)$.

What is $y = f(t, u)$. and how can we approximate it?

1.7 Dynamics

Mechanical Engineers study how things behave as a function of location with PDE's.

$$\frac{\partial g(x)}{\partial x} = f(x).$$

We are more interested in how a system behaves as a function of time, which gives us ODEs $\frac{dx}{dt} = f(x)$. A static relationship means that the current output only depends on the current input (no dynamics, algebraic

relationship) $y = f(u(t))$. A dynamic relationship means that the current output depends on past inputs. Check out 3b1b video on differential equations.

$$\frac{dx}{dt}(t) = f(x(t), u(t)), \quad y(t) = g(x(t)).$$

1.8 Modeling

A model is a mathematical description of a systems behavior as a function of time. Modeling is to understand the problem, apply simplifying assumptions, and apply appropriate fundamental principles. We need to be able to solve that model for the behavior of that system. This can be done by hand for simple systems. If the model is too complex, a numerical approach may be required. Our goal is to make the model simple enough to work with but realistic enough to trust.

1.8.1 Potato Example

We want to be able to heat a potato in 2 minutes with a microwave. We could use a complex model.

1. Capture unique shape
2. Exact thermal properties
3. FEA Analysis for temperature distribution

We could also use a simple model.

1. Potatoe is a sphere with thermal properties of water
2. We can solve this problem really quickly using Ch.7

The complex model could take days or weeks, but the simple model could take a few minutes. The results could be within 10% of each other!

1.9 Modeling Ethics

We will also discuss modeling ethics. A lot of engineering decisions are made from models. We will focus on understanding the model's limits, what they cannot predict, and what how "simulations are doomed to succeed".

LECTURE

2

MATHEMATICAL FOUNDATION

2.1 Objectives

1. Review Complex numbers
2. Understand ODEs
3. Laplace Transforms

2.2 Complex Numbers

$\sqrt{-1} \equiv i$, or j . We will use j . In systems, i is used for current, j is for the complex number. Numbers of the form

$$z = x + iy.$$

are complex numbers in rectangular form. x is the real part, y is the imaginary part. Put the figure of the complex plane here.

NOTE: the imaginary part is y . not jy .

Some properties of complex numbers are the magnitude and argument.

$$|z| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, \quad \theta = \arctan\left(\frac{y}{x}\right).$$

The complex conjugate is the reflection of a complex number through the real axis.

$$\bar{z} = x - jy.$$

Properties:

$$z + \bar{z} = 2\operatorname{Re}(z).$$

2.2.1 Euler's Formula

$$e^{j\theta} = \cos \theta + j \sin \theta.$$

This leads to,

$$e^{-j\theta} = \cos \theta - j \sin \theta \quad (2.1)$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{e^{j\theta} + e^{-j\theta}}{2} \quad (2.2)$$

2.2.2 Polar Form

Define magnitude

$$r = |z| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}.$$

$$\theta = \arctan \frac{y}{x}.$$

$$x = r \cos \theta, y = r \sin \theta.$$

2.2.3 Complex Algebra

Addition and subtraction are easily done in rectangular form.

$$z_1 \pm z_2 = (x_1 + jy_1) \pm (x_2 + jy_2).$$

Multiplication and division are easily done in polar form.

2.2.4 Examples

Rectangular to Polar. Remember to think about quadrants!

$$z = 1 - j \quad (2.3)$$

$$|z| = \sqrt{1^2 + (-1)^2} \quad (2.4)$$

$$\theta = \arctan \frac{-1}{1} = 45^\circ \quad z = \sqrt{2}e^{-j\frac{\pi}{4}} \quad (2.5)$$

Division, can be done in rectangular form by multiplying by the complex conjugate. Can also be done in polar form.

$$\frac{3+2j}{1-3j} = \frac{3+2j}{1-3j} * \frac{1+3j}{1+3j} \quad (2.6)$$

$$\frac{3-6+2j+9j}{1+9} = \frac{-3+11j}{10} \quad (2.7)$$

Powers, $z = 1 - j, z^2 = ?$.

$$z = \sqrt{2}e^{-j\frac{\pi}{4}} \quad (2.8)$$

$$(2.9)$$

In fact,

$$z^n = re^{jn\theta} = r^n e^{jn\theta}.$$

2.2.5 Complex Functions

$$z_1 \rightarrow G(z_1) \rightarrow z_2.$$

Example,

$$G(z_1) = \frac{z_1 + 2}{z_1^2 + z_1 + 1}.$$

let $z_1 = j2$. We can evaluate the function by plugging in $j2$. for z_1 .

2.3 ODEs - Basics

Independent variable is time, t . The dependent variable is usually denoted as x .

Derivatives,

$$\dot{x} = \frac{dx}{dt}, \quad \ddot{x} = \frac{d^2x}{dt^2}, \quad \dots \quad x^{(n)} = \frac{d^nx}{dt^n}.$$

Standard form is to have all functions of the dependent variable on the LHS, all isolated constants and functions of time on the RHS. The RHS is considered the input or the forcing function. If the $\text{RHS} = 0$ the equation is homogeneous. If not, it is nonhomogeneous.

The goal is to solve for $x(t)$. This gives us the solution or the response.

2.3.1 Examples of Standard Form

$$\ddot{x} + 3\dot{x} + 5x = 0 \quad (2.10)$$

$$\ddot{x} + 3\dot{x}x + 5x^2 = 5 \sin 2t \quad (2.11)$$

$$\dot{x} = 6 + 5 \sin t \quad (2.12)$$

2.3.2 Initial COnditions

When solving an ODE, there is a family of solutions. Example:

$$2\dot{x} + 6x = 3 \quad x(t) = Ce^{-3t} + 0.5.$$

you could choose many values for C and still have a solution to the equation. No matter the value of C, $x(t)$ still approaches 0.5. Include the graph here. Without loss of generality, we assume that the system starts at $t = 0$. Determining C requires knowledge of x at some time t. Commonly, the initial condition is given as $x(t_0) = x_0$.

2.3.3 Classification of ODEs

Linearity generally means that $f(x+y) = f(x) + f(y)$. Linear ODEs contain only linear functions of the dependent variable and its derivatives. Nonlinear functions of the independent variable do not make an ODE nonlinear.

The order is the highest derivative of the dependent variable (double dot, 2nd order). A coupled set of ODEs can be reduced to a single ODE whose order is the sum of the order of the individual ODEs.

Example:

$$3\dot{x}_1 + 5\dot{x}_2 - 7x_2 = 5 \quad (2.13)$$

$$\dot{x}_2 + 4x_1 + 6x_2 = 0 \quad (2.14)$$

Add the sum of the orders of the two dependent variables. 1 order from x_1 and 1 order from x_2 . This is a second order system, which could be represented by a single 2nd order ODE.

2.3.4 Combining Coupled ODEs

We have two equations.

$$\dot{x}_1 + 4x_2 = 3 \quad (2.15)$$

$$2\dot{x}_2 + x_1 = 5 \quad (2.16)$$

Solution,

$$\dot{x}_1 + 4x_2 = 3 \Rightarrow \ddot{x}_1 + 4x_2 = 0.$$

Rearrange the second equation for x_2 and substitute.

2.4 Solution

2.4.1 Direct Integration

With some first order ODEs, we can rearrange as

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = f(t).$$

and integrate both sides.

$$\int dx = \int f(t)dt.$$

$$x(t) = x(t_0) + \int f(t)dt.$$

Example $\dot{x} = 5$.

2.4.2 Separation of Variables

Doesn't show up that often in this class.

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = g(t)f(t).$$

2.4.3 Trial-Solution Method

For any n th order linear ODE, there is a response $x(t) = x_h + x_p$. The response is the sum of the homogeneous solution and the particular solution. The sum of the internal behavior and the external behavior.

Assume the solution is of the form $x(t) = e^{\lambda t}$. Take the derivative of $x(t)$. n times and substitute into the ODE. Note that $e^{\lambda t} \neq 0$. This gives us the characteristic equation.

$$(\lambda - \lambda_1)(\dots) = 0.$$

Part II

Week 2

LECTURE

3

ODES AND LAPLACE TRANSFORMS

3.1 Trial Solution

3.1.1 Characteristic Equation

Plug in the form of the solution

$$x(t) = e^{\lambda t}.$$

3.1.2 Example

$$\ddot{x} + 10\dot{x} + 9x = 5 \sin 2t \quad (3.1)$$

$$\ddot{x} + 10\dot{x} + 9x = 0 \quad (3.2)$$

$$\lambda^2 + 10\lambda + 9 = 0 \quad (3.3)$$

$$(\lambda + 9)(\lambda + 1) = 0 \quad (3.4)$$

The roots are distinct. -9, -1. The roots can be repeated, or complex as well!

3.1.3 Types of Roots

If all roots are distinct, there will be n different coefficients.

Term in $f(t)$.	Form of solution $x_p(t)$.
$A_n^t + \dots + A_1 t + A_0$.	$C_n^t + \dots + C_1 t + C_0$.
Ae^{at} .	Ce^{at} .
$A \sin \omega t$	$C \sin \omega t$.
$Ae^{at} \sin \omega t$.	$Ce^{at} \sin \omega t$.

$$\dot{x} + ax = 0, \quad x(t_0 = 0) = 0.$$

$$(\lambda + a)e^{\lambda t} = 0, \quad \lambda = -a.$$

$$x_0 = Ce^{-a \cdot 0} = C, \quad x(t) = x_0 e^{-at}.$$

If we have repeated roots, the coefficients gain increasing powers of time.

$$x(t) = C_1 e^{\lambda t} + C_2 t e^{\lambda t} \dots$$

Complex roots can be handled using Euler's formula.

$$\lambda_{i,i+1} = \sigma \pm j\omega.$$

$$x(t) = \dots + C_i e^{\sigma+j\omega} + C_{i+1} e^{\sigma-j\omega} + \dots$$

Using eulers formula,

$$x(t) = \dots + (C'_i \cos \omega t + C'_{i+1} \sin \omega t) e^{\sigma t} + \dots$$

The prime means that the coefficient is different from the line above. This solution is going to be oscillating.

3.2 Forced Response

Just discussed how to obtain x_h . Use Method of Undetermined Coefficients to get x_p . Choose a solution form based on the term in $f(t)$.

Note, the form of the forcing function always shows up in the form of the solution (property of linear ODEs) See Table 3.1

Substitute assumed forms of x_p into the ODE and determine the coefficients, then go back and solve the homogeneous problem separately. Add the two solutions with linear superpositions. Finally, find the coefficients to the homogeneous solution.

3.3 Laplace Transforms

Finding solutions in the time domain is hard. While using laplace transforms takes longer, the solution is generally easier to find (algebra over calculus). The laplace transform is a linear operator, so it is useful for

1. Nonhomogeneous equations with a forcing function of time
2. Sets/systems of equations

Linear ODEs become algebraic relationships, and convolution becomes multiplication.

$$F(s) = \mathcal{L}\{f(t)\} = \int_{0-}^{\infty} e^{st} f(t) dt \quad (3.5)$$

Assume $f(t) = 0, t < 0$. We tend to start caring about what happens at time $t = 0$. However, interesting "stuff" happens at time $t = 0$.

1. "stuff" - step changes, impulses
2. We need a way to denote before and after this stuff happens

Let ϵ , be an infinitesimally small unit of time. $0-, 0+$ occur ϵ seconds before and after time $t = 0$. Unless stated explicitly, we assume $f(t) = 0 \forall t < 0$.

3.3.1 Inverse Laplace Transform

The definition of inverse laplace tranforms is complex, so we use lookup tables in the book.

Some common examples,

$$f(t) = e^{-at} \iff F(s) = \frac{1}{s+a}, \quad a > 0.$$

3.3.2 Properties

Laplace Transforms are linear. Inverse Laplace transforms too.

$$\mathcal{L}\{af(t) + bg(t)\} = a\mathcal{L}\{f(t)\} + b\mathcal{L}\{g(t)\}.$$

This property does NOT hold for multiplication. Instead, multiplication corresponds to a convolution integral in the time domain.

$$F(s)G(s) = \mathcal{L}\left\{\int_0^t f(\tau)g(t-\tau)d\tau\right\}.$$

Derivatives,

$$\mathcal{L}\{\dot{f}(t)\} = sF(0) - f(0).$$

$$\mathcal{L}\{\ddot{f}(t)\} = s^2 F(0) - sf(0) - \dot{f}(0).$$

Integrals,

$$\mathcal{L}\left\{\int f(\tau)d\tau\right\} = \frac{1}{s}F(s).$$