

Ve460 Control Systems Analysis and Design

Chapter 4 Modeling of Physical Systems

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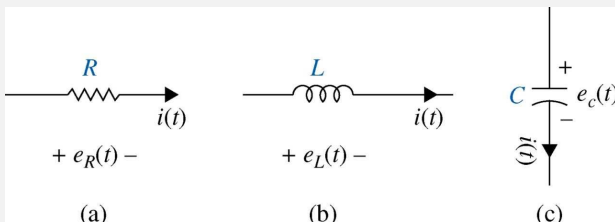
Chapter 4 Modeling of Physical Systems

Two common methods:

TF \rightarrow LTI

State Space \rightarrow Linear and Nonlinear

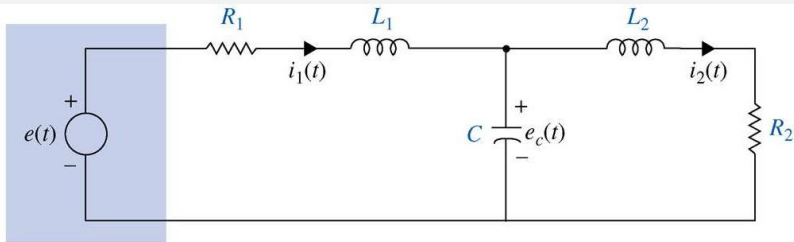
4-2 Electrical Networks



Resistor: $V = R \cdot I$ Inductor: $V = L \frac{di}{dt}$, $V(s) = sL \cdot I(s)$

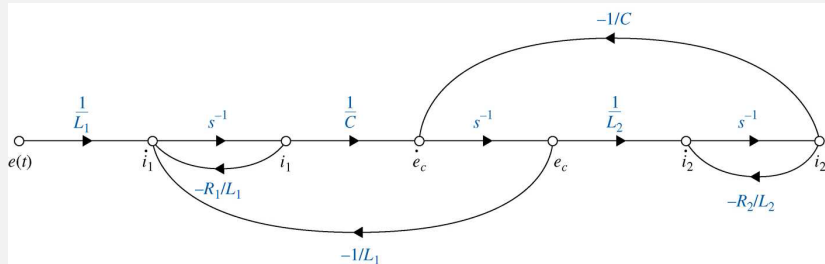
Capacitor: $i = C \frac{dV}{dt}$, $V(s) = \frac{1}{sC} \cdot I(s)$

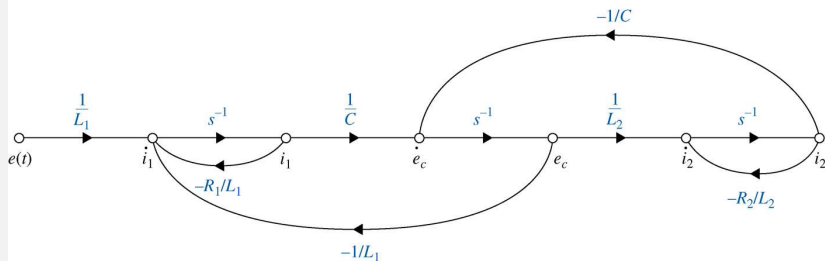
Example



$$\begin{cases} L_1 \frac{di_1}{dt} = -R_1 i_1 - e_c + e \\ L_2 \frac{di_2}{dt} = -R_2 i_2 + e_c \\ C \frac{de_c}{dt} = i_1 - i_2 \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} i_1 \\ i_2 \\ e_c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{R_1}{L_1} & 0 & -\frac{1}{L_1} \\ 0 & -\frac{R_2}{L_2} & \frac{1}{L_2} \\ \frac{1}{C} & -\frac{1}{C} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_1 \\ i_2 \\ e_c \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{L_1} \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} e$$





$$\begin{aligned} \Delta = 1 & - \left(-\frac{1}{s} \frac{R_1}{L_1} - \frac{1}{s} \frac{R_2}{L_2} - \frac{1}{s} \frac{1}{C} \frac{1}{s} \frac{1}{L_1} - \frac{1}{s} \frac{1}{L_2} \frac{1}{s} \frac{1}{C} \right) \\ & + \left(-\frac{1}{s} \frac{R_1}{L_1} \right) \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{s} \frac{R_2}{L_2} \right) + \left(-\frac{1}{s} \frac{R_1}{L_1} \right) \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{s} \frac{1}{L_2} \frac{1}{s} \frac{1}{C} \right) \\ & + \left(-\frac{1}{s} \frac{1}{C} \frac{1}{s} \frac{1}{L_1} \right) \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{s} \frac{R_2}{L_2} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\frac{I_1(s)}{E(s)} = \frac{L_2Cs^2 + R_2Cs + 1}{D},$$

where

$$D = L_1L_2Cs^3 + (R_1L_2 + R_2L_1)Cs^2 \\ + (L_1 + L_2 + R_1R_2C)s + R_1 + R_2.$$

Similarly,

$$\frac{I_2(s)}{E(s)} = \frac{1}{D},$$

and

$$\frac{E_c(s)}{E(s)} = \frac{L_2s + R_2}{D}.$$

Using Matlab Symbolic Toolbox

To this end, we first perform Laplace Transform to both sides of the dynamical equation:

$$\underbrace{\frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} i_1 \\ i_2 \\ e_c \end{bmatrix}}_x = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} -\frac{R_1}{L_1} & 0 & -\frac{1}{L_1} \\ 0 & -\frac{R_2}{L_2} & \frac{1}{L_2} \\ \frac{1}{C} & -\frac{1}{C} & 0 \end{bmatrix}}_A \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} i_1 \\ i_2 \\ e_c \end{bmatrix}}_x + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{L_1} \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}}_b e.$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} sX(s) &= AX(s) + bE(s) \Rightarrow (sI - A)X(s) = bE(s) \\ \Rightarrow X(s) &= (sI - A)^{-1}bE(s) \Rightarrow i_1(s) = c(sI - A)^{-1}bE(s), \end{aligned}$$

where $c = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

```

>> syms R1 L1 R2 L2 C s;
>> A=[-R1/L1 0 -1/L1; 0 -R2/L2 1/L2; 1/C -1/C 0];
>> b=[1/L1; 0; 0];
>> c=[1 0 0];
>> simplify( c*inv(s*eye(3)-A)*b )
ans =
    (C*L2*s^2+C*R2*s+1)
    / (R1+R2+L1*s+L2*s+C*L1*L2*s^3+C*L1*R2*s^2+C*L2*R1*s^2+C*R1*R2*s)

>> pretty( collect( ans, 's') )
              2
          C L2 s  + C R2 s + 1
-----
          3              2
C L1 L2 s  + (C L1 R2 + C L2 R1) s  + (L1 + L2 + C R1 R2) s + R1 + R2

```

This is the same as previously derived:

$$\frac{I_1(s)}{E(s)} = \frac{L_2 C s^2 + R_2 C s + 1}{D},$$

where

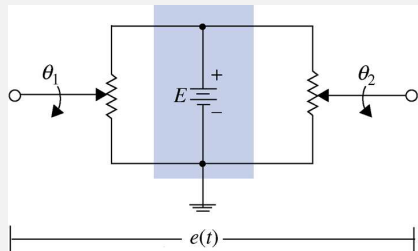
$$D = L_1 L_2 C s^3 + (R_1 L_2 + R_2 L_1) C s^2 + (L_1 + L_2 + R_1 R_2 C) s + R_1 + R_2.$$

4-5 Sensors & Encoders in Control System

4-5-1 Potentiometer

Input: Linear or rotational displacement

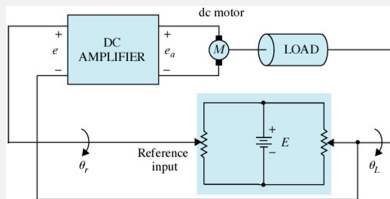
Output: Voltage proportional to input displacement



$$e(t) = K_S(\theta_1(t) - \theta_2(t))$$

K_S : constant

Can be used, e.g., in DC motor control system for position feedback.



θ_r : reference input;
 θ_L : input;
 e_a : armature voltage of a DC motor.

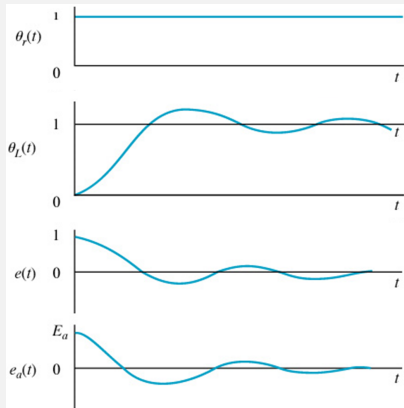


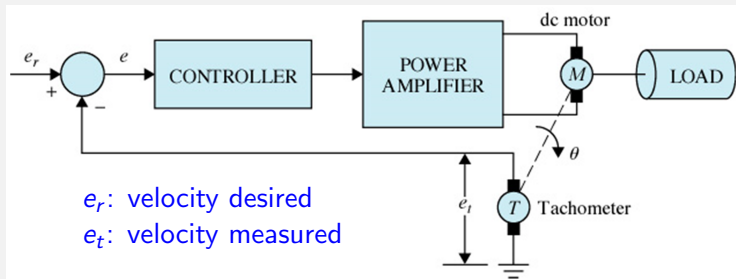
Figure 4.1: Typical waveforms of signals

4-5-2 Tachometers

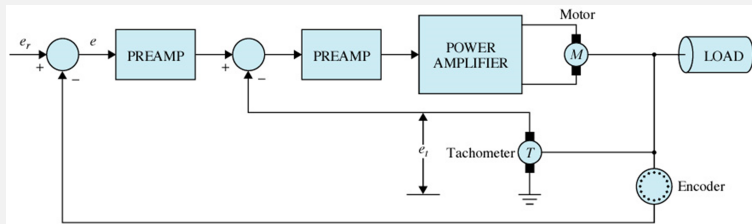
Convert mechanical energy into electrical energy

Output: Voltage proportional to angular velocity input;

Used as: Velocity indicator



- Velocity Control: accuracy of tachometer is highly critical



- Position Control
Tachometer: velocity feedback
→ to improve stability or damping, accuracy of tachometer is not that critical.
- Another usage: visual speed readout of a rotating shaft

Mathematical model

$$e_t(t) = K_t \frac{d\theta(t)}{dt} = K_t \omega(t),$$

where

$e_t(t)$: output voltage,

$\theta(t)$: rotor displacement (in radians),

$\omega(t)$: rotor velocity (in rad/sec),

K_t : tachometer constant (in V/(rad/sec)).

$$\Rightarrow \frac{E_t(s)}{\Theta(s)} = K_t s.$$

4-5-3 Incremental Encoder

Convert **linear**
rotary displacement into **digitally coded**
pulse signals

- Absolute encoder: output a distinct digital code indicating each particular position within the range (does not need knowledge of previous positioning);
- Incremental encoder: cyclical, provides a pulse for each increment.

4-6 DC Motors – widely used as mover in industry

Mathematical modeling

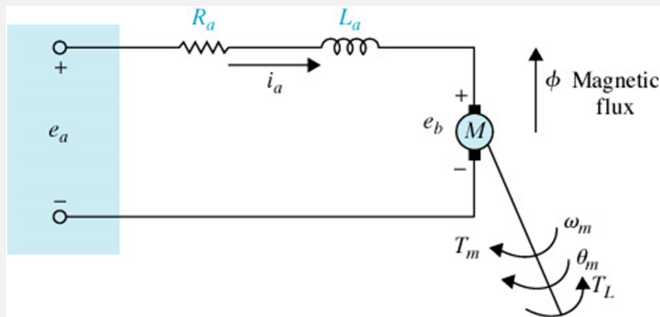
- Convert electric energy into mechanical energy: the torque T_m on the motor shaft \propto field flux ϕ and armature current i_a :

$$T_m = K_m \cdot \phi \cdot i_a$$

Diagram illustrating the components of the torque equation $T_m = K_m \cdot \phi \cdot i_a$:

- T_m : motor torque
- K_m : proportional constant
- ϕ : magnetic flux
- i_a : armature current

- Back emf: when conductor moves, a voltage is generated that opposes the current flow, proportional to shaft velocity.



$i_a(t)$ = armature current

R_a = armature resistance

$e_b(t)$ = back emf

T_L = load torque

T_m = motor torque

$\theta_m(t)$ = rotor displacement

K_i = torque constant

L_a = armature inductance

e_a = applied voltage

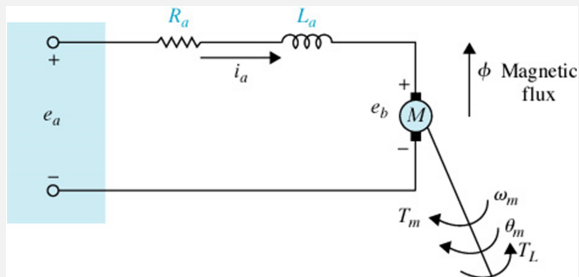
K_b = back-emf constant

ϕ = magnetic flux in the air gap

$\omega_m(t)$ = rotor angular velocity

J_m = rotor inertia

B_m = viscous-friction coefficient

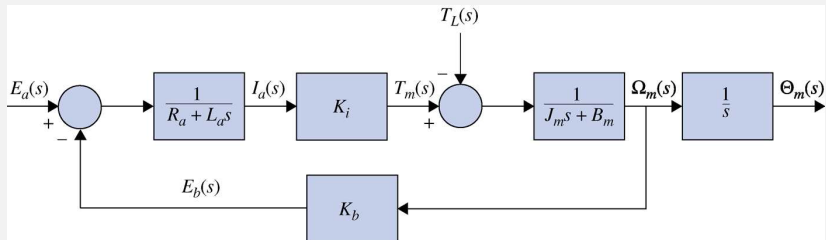


When ϕ is constant, $T_m = K_m \phi \cdot i_a = K_i i_a$,

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} L_a \frac{di_a}{dt} = e_a - R_a i_a - e_b, \\ e_b(t) = K_b \frac{d\theta_m(t)}{dt} = K_b \omega_m(t), \quad \text{Back emf} \\ T_m = K_i i_a, \\ J_m \frac{d^2\theta_m(t)}{dt^2} = T_m(t) - T_L(t) - B_m \frac{d\theta_m(t)}{dt} \end{array} \right.$$

$$\begin{cases} L_a \frac{di_a}{dt} = e_a - R_a i_a - K_b \omega_m, \\ J_m \frac{d^2 \theta_m(t)}{dt^2} = K_i i_a - T_L - B_m \omega_m \end{cases}$$

$$\therefore \frac{d}{dt} \begin{bmatrix} i_a \\ \omega_m \\ \theta_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{R_a}{L_a} & -\frac{K_b}{L_a} & 0 \\ \frac{K_i}{J_m} & -\frac{B_m}{J_m} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_a \\ \omega_m \\ \theta_m \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{L_a} & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{J_m} \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} e_a \\ T_L \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\Theta_m(s)}{E_a(s)} &= \frac{K_i}{L_a J_m s^3 + (R_a J_m + B_m L_a) s^2 + (K_b K_i + R_a B_m) s} \\ &= \frac{K_i}{s [L_a J_m s^2 + (R_a J_m + B_m L_a) s + K_b K_i + R_a B_m]} \end{aligned}$$

- Essentially an integrator
- A built-in feedback loop

4-7 Linearization of Nonlinear Systems

Motivation

Consider a nonlinear system represented by vector-matrix state equation:

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

State vector: $x(t) \in \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow n \times 1$ vector;

Input vector: $u(t) \in \mathbb{R}^p \rightarrow p \times 1$ vector;

Vector field: $f(x(t), u(t)) \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Linearization: expanding f into a Taylor series about a nominal operating point or trajectory, discarding higher order terms.

Linearization

Consider a nominal trajectory (equilibrium):

$$\dot{x}_0(t) = f(x_0(t), u_0(t)).$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x}_i(t) &= f_i(x(t), u(t)) \\ &= f_i(x_0(t), u_0(t)) + \sum_{j=1}^n \left. \frac{\partial f_i(x, u)}{\partial x_j} \right|_{(x_0, u_0)} (x_j - x_{0j}) \\ &\quad + \sum_{j=1}^p \left. \frac{\partial f_i(x, u)}{\partial u_j} \right|_{(x_0, u_0)} (u_j - u_{0j}),\end{aligned}$$

where $i = 1, \dots, n$. Let $\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{0i}$, $\Delta u_i = u_i - u_{0i}$:

$$\Delta \dot{x}_i = \dot{x}_i - \dot{x}_{0i} = \dot{x}_i(t) - f_i(x_0(t), u_0(t)).$$

We then have

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta \dot{x}_i &= \sum_{j=1}^n \left. \frac{\partial f_i(x, u)}{\partial x_j} \right|_{(x_0, u_0)} \Delta x_j + \sum_{j=1}^p \left. \frac{\partial f_i(x, u)}{\partial u_j} \right|_{(x_0, u_0)} \Delta u_j \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x_1 \\ \vdots \\ \Delta x_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial u_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial u_p} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta u_1 \\ \vdots \\ \Delta u_p \end{bmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

In vector-matrix form

$$\begin{bmatrix} \Delta \dot{x}_1 \\ \Delta \dot{x}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \Delta \dot{x}_n \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}}_{A \text{ (Jacobian Matrix)}} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x_1 \\ \Delta x_2 \\ \vdots \\ \Delta x_n \end{bmatrix} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial u_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial u_p} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial u_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial u_p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial u_1} & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial u_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial u_p} \end{bmatrix}}_B \begin{bmatrix} \Delta u_1 \\ \Delta u_2 \\ \vdots \\ \Delta u_p \end{bmatrix}$$

or

$$\Delta \dot{x} = A \cdot \Delta x + B \cdot \Delta u.$$

Example

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1(t) = \frac{-1}{x_2^2(t)}, \\ \dot{x}_2(t) = u(t) \cdot x_1(t). \end{cases}$$

Consider a nominal trajectory $(x_{01}(t), x_{02}(t))$ starting from $x_1(0) = x_2(0) = 1$ and $u(t) = 0$. First, we solve the nominal trajectory.

$$u(t) = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \dot{x}_2(t) = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x_2(t) = \text{const} = x_2(0) = 1.$$

Therefore,

$$\dot{x}_1(t) = -1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x_1(t) = -t + x_1(0) = -t + 1.$$

The nominal trajectory is then

$$\begin{cases} x_{01}(t) = -t + 1, \\ x_{02}(t) = 1. \end{cases}$$

The Jacobian matrix can be obtained as:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} &= 0, & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} &= \frac{2}{x_2^3(t)}, & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial u} &= 0, \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} &= u(t), & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} &= 0, & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial u} &= x_1(t).\end{aligned}$$

We then get

$$\begin{aligned}\begin{bmatrix} \Delta \dot{x}_1 \\ \Delta \dot{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \frac{2}{x_2^3(t)} \\ u_0(t) & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x_1 \\ \Delta x_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ x_{01}(t) \end{bmatrix} \Delta u \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x_1 \\ \Delta x_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 - t \end{bmatrix} \Delta u.\end{aligned}$$

4-8 Time Delay

Often seen in hydraulic system and computer control



Let $b(t) = y(t - T_d)$, $B(s) = e^{-T_d s} Y(s)$. Then

$$\frac{B(s)}{Y(s)} = e^{-T_d s}.$$

This is difficult to handle.

We can then approximate it by rational functions:

$$\begin{aligned} e^{-T_d s} &\approx 1 - T_d s + \frac{T_d^2 s^2}{2} \\ &\approx \frac{1}{1 + T_d s + \frac{T_d^2 s^2}{2}}. \end{aligned}$$

However, this is not valid when T_d is large. A better one is Padé approximation:

$$e^{-T_d s} \approx \frac{1 - T_d s/2}{1 + T_d s/2}.$$

A zero in RHP may result in a small negative undershoot in step response.