



ENGINEERING
DEPARTMENT OF ELECTRICAL,
COMPUTER, AND SOFTWARE ENGINEERING

ELECTENG 332: Control Systems

Lecture Notes

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Table of contents

I	Akshya's Content	4
1	Basics of Signals and Systems	5
	Learning Outcomes	5
1.1	The Importance of the Exponential Function	5
1.2	The Concept of Engineering Infinity	5
1.3	The Concept of Complex Frequency	6
1.4	What are Signals?	6
1.4.1	Introduction	6
1.4.2	Energy and Power Signals	6
1.4.3	Examples	7
1.4.3.1	Unit Step Function	7
1.4.3.2	Exponential Function	8
1.4.3.3	Ramp Function	8
1.5	What are Systems?	8
1.5.1	Introduction	8
1.5.2	The System as an Operator	9
1.5.3	Classification of Systems	9
1.5.4	Linear and Nonlinear Systems	9
1.5.4.1	Principle of Additivity	9
1.5.4.2	Principle of Homogeneity or Scaling	9
1.5.4.3	Principle of Superposition	9
1.5.5	Time-Invariant and Time-Variant Systems	9
1.5.6	Static and Dynamic Systems	9
1.5.7	Causal and Non-Causal Systems	9
1.6	What is a Control System?	9
1.6.1	Introduction	9
1.6.2	Common Terms of Control Systems	9
1.6.3	Classification of Control Systems	9
2	Mathematical Modeling of Dynamic Systems	10
	Learning Outcomes	10
3	The Block Diagram Representation & Characteristics of Feedback Systems	11
	Learning Outcomes	11
4	Time Domain Analysis of Linear Systems: Time Domain Specifications	12
	Learning Outcomes	12
5	Stability Analysis of Linear Systems: Routh-Hurwitz Stability Criteria	13
	Learning Outcomes	13
6	Time Domain Analysis of Linear Systems: Static Error Constants & Steady State Error	14
	Learning Outcomes	14
7	Stability Analysis of Linear Systems: Root Locus Analysis	15
	Learning Outcomes	15

7.1	Introduction	15
7.2	Basic Conditions of the Root Loci	15
7.3	Angle and Magnitude Conditions	15
7.4	Sketching the Root Locus	15
7.5	Effects of Adding Poles and Zeros	15
II Nitish's Content		16

Introduction

This is my “coursebook”, or rather, a collection of notes for the course ELECTENG 332: Control Systems. The notes are written in Quarto, a markdown-based document processor that supports LaTeX and code blocks, and requires this introduction file.

Please skip this bit, there’s nothing to see here.

Part I

Akshya's Content

Chapter 1

Basics of Signals and Systems

Learning Outcomes

By the end of this module, you should be able to:

1. Understand the uniqueness of the exponential function
2. Understand the concept of engineering infinity
3. Understand the concept of complex frequency
4. Understand the concept of signals, and be able to classify them
5. Understand the concept of systems, and be able to classify them
6. Understand the concept of control systems

1.1 The Importance of the Exponential Function

The Exponential function, written as either e^{ax} or e^{at} depending on whether it is $f(t)$ or $f(x)$, has properties that make it mathematically unique.

1. The derivative (rate of change) of the exponential function is the exponential function itself. More generally, this is a function whose rate of change is proportional to the function itself.

$$\frac{de^{ax}}{dx} = ae^{ax} \quad (1)$$

2. The integral of the exponential function is also the exponential function itself.

$$\int e^{ax} dx = \frac{1}{a}e^{ax} \quad (2)$$

1.2 The Concept of Engineering Infinity

Consider a signal e^{-at} . The time constant for this signal is $T = \frac{1}{a}$. Theoretically, the signal is meant to decay to zero as time approaches infinity, i.e.

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} e^{-at} = 0 \quad (3)$$

But in practice, this is not the case, as its value will be very, very small after five time constants $5T$ (or 5τ). This is the **Concept of Engineering Infinity**. The signal will never reach zero, but it will be so small that it can be considered zero for all practical purposes. This is a very important concept in control systems, as it allows us to simplify our calculations and analysis.

1.3 The Concept of Complex Frequency

Complex frequency is found commonly in electrical engineering. It is often notated as $j\omega$ or $s = \sigma \pm j\omega$. These frequencies always come in pairs, so the use of \pm is implicit to this, as complex numbers have complex conjugates (normally notated by z^* or \bar{z}). i.e. $s = \sigma + j\omega$ has the conjugate $s = \sigma - j\omega$. This is backed up by De Moivre's formula which is defined mathematically as:

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{Z} \quad (4)$$

$$e^{jnx} = \cos(nx) + j \sin(nx) \quad (5)$$

Or more generally for our applications (this is also known as Euler's formula):

$$e^{jx} = \cos(x) + j \sin(x) \quad (6)$$

$$\text{Where } x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ (} x \text{ is real)} \quad (7)$$

$$\text{and } j \equiv i = \sqrt{-1} \quad (8)$$

This means that:

A complex frequency $j\omega$ represents a pure sinusoidal signal of frequency ω rad/s

For example, if a signal has a complex frequency $j314$ rad/s, then this responds to a pure sinusoid of frequency 314 rad/s (i.e. 50 Hz).

Furthermore:

A complex frequency $s = \sigma + j\omega$ represents an exponentially damped signal of frequency $j\omega$ rad/s, and decays/amplifies at a rate decided by σ

1.4 What are Signals?

1.4.1 Introduction

It is difficult to find a unique definition of a signal. However in the context of this course, we give a workable definition which suits most of our purposes as:

A Signal conveys information about a physical phenomenon which evolves in time or space.

Examples of such signals include: Voltage, Current, Speech, Television, Images from remote space probes, Voltages generated by the heart and brain, Radar and Sonar echoes, Seismic vibrations, Signals from GPS satellites, Signals from human genes, and countless other applications.

1.4.2 Energy and Power Signals

Energy Signals

A signal is said to be an energy signal if and only if it has finite energy.

Power Signals

A signal is said to be a power signal if and only if the average power of the signal is finite and non-zero.

Instantaneous Power

The instantaneous power $p(t)$ of a signal $x(t)$ is expressed as:

$$p(t) = x^2(t) \quad (9)$$

Continuous-Time Signal Energy

The total energy of a continuous-time signal $x(t)$ is given by:

$$E = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} x^2(t) dt = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2(t) dt$$

Complex Valued Signal Energy

For a complex valued signal:

$$E = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x(t)|^2 dt$$

Average Power

Since power equals to the time average of the energy, the average power is given by:

$$P = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} x^2(t) dt = \frac{E}{T}$$

Note that during calculation of energy, we average the power over an indefinitely large interval.

A signal with finite energy has zero power and a signal with finite power has infinite energy.

Furthermore, some additional concepts of note:

- A signal can not both be an energy and a power signal. This classification of signals based on power and energy are mutually exclusive.
- However, a signal can belong to neither of the above two categories.
- The signals which are both deterministic and non-periodic have finite energy and therefore are energy signals. Most of this signals, in practice, belong to this category.
- Periodic signals and random signals are essentially power signals.
- Periodic signals for which the area under $|x(t)|^2$ over one period is finite are energy signals.

1.4.3 Examples

1.4.3.1 Unit Step Function

Consider a unit step function defined as:

$$u(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & t \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

Determine whether this is an energy signal or a power signal or neither.

Solution: Let us compute the energy of this signal as:

$$E = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [u(t)]^2 dt = \int_0^{\infty} [0]^2 dt = \int_0^{\infty} [1]^2 dt = \infty \quad (11)$$

Since the energy of this signal is infinite, it cannot be an energy signal. Let us compute the power of this signal as:

$$P = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} [u(t)]^2 dt = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_0^{T/2} [u(t)]^2 dt = \frac{1}{2} \quad (12)$$

The power of this signal is finite. Hence, **this is a power signal.**

1.4.3.2 Exponential Function

Consider an exponential function defined as:

$$x(t) = e^{-at}u(t), \text{ where } u(t) \text{ is the unit step signal, } a > 0 \quad (13)$$

Classify this signal as an energy, power, or neither.

Solution: Let us compute the energy of this signal as:

$$E = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} [x(t)]^2 dt = \int_0^{\infty} [e^{-at}]^2 dt = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-2at} dt = \frac{1}{2a} < \infty \quad (14)$$

Thus, $x(t) = e^{-at}u(t)$ is an **energy signal**.

1.4.3.3 Ramp Function

Consider a ramp function defined as:

$$r(t) = \begin{cases} At & t \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (15)$$

Classify this signal as an energy, power, or neither.

Solution: Let us compute the energy of this signal as:

$$E = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} r(t)^2 dt = \int_{-\infty}^0 [0]^2 dt = \int_0^{\infty} A^2 t^2 dt = A^2 \left. \frac{T^3}{3} \right|_0^{\infty} = \infty \quad (16)$$

Since the energy of this signal is infinite, it cannot be an energy signal. Let us compute the power of this signal as:

$$P = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} [r(t)]^2 dt = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_0^{T/2} A^2 t^2 dt = A^2 \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \left. \frac{1}{T} \frac{T^3}{3} \right|_0^{\infty} = \infty \quad (17)$$

The power of this signal is infinite. Hence, this is **neither a power nor an energy signal**.

1.5 What are Systems?

1.5.1 Introduction

The term *system* is derived from the Greek word *systema*, which means an organised relationship among functioning units or components. It is often used to describe any orderly arrangement of ideas or constructs.

According to the Webster's dictionary:

“A system is an aggregation or assemblage of objects united by some form of regular interaction or interdependence; a group of diverse units so combined by nature or art as to form an integral; whole and to function, operate, or move in unison and often in obedience to some form of control...”

According to the International Council on Systems Engineering (INCOSE):

“A system is an arrangement of parts or elements that together exhibit behaviour or meaning that the individual constituents do not.” The elements or parts, can include people, hardware, software, facilities, policies, and documents; that is, all things required to produce system-level results.

It is difficult to give a single and precise definition of the term system, which will suit to different perspectives of different people. In practice, what is meant by “the system” depends on the objectives of a particular study.

From the control engineering perspective, **the system is any interconnection of components to achieve desired objectives**. It is characterised by its **Inputs, Outputs**, and the rules of operations or laws. For example:

- a. The laws of operation in electrical systems are Ohm's law, which gives the voltage-current relationships for resistors, capacitors and inductors, and Kirchhoff's laws, which govern the laws of interconnection of various electrical components.
- b. Similarly, in mechanical systems, the laws of operation are Newton's laws. These laws can be used to derive mathematical models of the system.

1.5.2 The System as an Operator

A system is defined mathematically as a transformation which maps an input signal $x(t)$ to an output signal $y(t)$. For a continuous time system, the input-output mapping is expressed as:

$$y(t) = \mathcal{S}[x(t)], \text{ where } \mathcal{S} \text{ is the system operator} \quad (18)$$

A Control system may be defined as an interconnection of components which are configured to provide a desired response.

1.5.3 Classification of Systems

The basis of classifying systems are many. They can be classified according to the following:

- a. The Time Frame: (*discrete, continuous or hybrid*);
- b. System Complexity: (*physical, conceptual and esoteric*);
- c. Uncertainties: (*deterministic and stochastic*);
- d. Nature and type of components: (*static or dynamic, linear or nonlinear, time-invariant or time variant, lumped or distributed etc*);
 1. Linear and nonlinear systems
 2. Time-invariant and time-variant systems
 3. Static (memory-less) and dynamic (with memory) systems
 4. Causal and Non-causal systems
 5. Lumped and distributed parameter systems
 6. Deterministic and stochastic systems
 7. Continuous and discrete systems

1.5.4 Linear and Nonlinear Systems

A system is said to be linear provided it satisfies the principle of superposition which is the combination of the additive and homogeneity properties. Otherwise, it is nonlinear.

1.5.4.1 Principle of Additivity

1.5.4.2 Principle of Homogeneity or Scaling

1.5.4.3 Principle of Superposition

1.5.5 Time-Invariant and Time-Variant Systems

1.5.6 Static and Dynamic Systems

1.5.7 Causal and Non-Causal Systems

1.6 What is a Control System?

1.6.1 Introduction

1.6.2 Common Terms of Control Systems

1.6.3 Classification of Control Systems

Chapter 2

Mathematical Modeling of Dynamic Systems

Learning Outcomes

Chapter 3

The Block Diagram Representation & Characteristics of Feedback Systems

Learning Outcomes

Chapter 4

Time Domain Analysis of Linear Systems: Time Domain Specifications

Learning Outcomes

Chapter 5

Stability Analysis of Linear Systems: Routh-Hurwitz Stability Criteria

Learning Outcomes

Chapter 6

Time Domain Analysis of Linear Systems: Static Error Constants & Steady State Error

Learning Outcomes

Chapter 7

Stability Analysis of Linear Systems: Root Locus Analysis

Learning Outcomes

At the end of this module, you should be able to:

1. Sketch the root locus
2. Conduct relative stability analysis

7.1 Introduction

7.2 Basic Conditions of the Root Loci

7.3 Angle and Magnitude Conditions

7.4 Sketching the Root Locus

7.5 Effects of Adding Poles and Zeros

Part II

Nitish's Content