

Plan of the Lecture

- ▶ **Review:** control, feedback, etc.
- ▶ **Today's topic:** linear systems and their dynamic response

Goal: a general framework that encompasses all examples of interest. Once we have mastered this framework, we can proceed to *analysis* and then to *design*.

Notation Reminder

We will be looking at *dynamic systems* whose evolution *in time* is described by *differential equations* with *external inputs*.

We will not write the time variable t explicitly, so we use

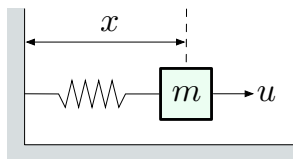
x instead of $x(t)$

\dot{x} instead of $x'(t)$ or $\frac{dx}{dt}$

\ddot{x} instead of $x''(t)$ or $\frac{d^2x}{dt^2}$

etc.

Example 1: Mass-Spring System



Newton's second law (translational motion):

$$\underbrace{F}_{\text{total force}} = ma = \text{spring force} + \text{friction} + \text{external force}$$

$$\text{spring force} = -kx \quad (\text{Hooke's law})$$

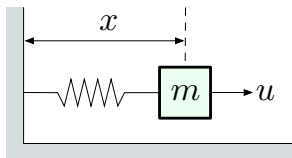
$$\text{friction force} = -\rho\dot{x} \quad (\text{Stokes' law} \text{ — linear drag, only an approximation!!})$$

$$m\ddot{x} = -kx - \rho\dot{x} + u$$

Move x, \dot{x}, \ddot{x} to the LHS, u to the RHS:

$$\ddot{x} + \frac{\rho}{m}\dot{x} + \frac{k}{m}x = \frac{u}{m} \quad \text{2nd-order linear ODE}$$

Example 1: Mass-Spring System



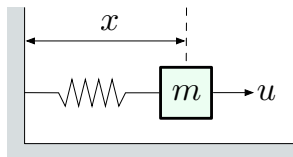
$$\ddot{x} + \frac{\rho}{m}\dot{x} + \frac{k}{m}x = \frac{u}{m} \quad \text{2nd-order linear ODE}$$

Canonical form: convert to a *system of 1st-order ODEs*

$$\dot{x} = v \quad (\text{definition of velocity})$$

$$\dot{v} = -\frac{\rho}{m}v - \frac{k}{m}x + \frac{1}{m}u$$

Example 1: Mass-Spring System



State-space model: express in *matrix form*

$$\begin{pmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{v} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -\frac{k}{m} & -\frac{\rho}{m} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ v \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \frac{1}{m} \end{pmatrix} u$$

Important: start reviewing your linear algebra *now!*

- ▶ matrix-vector multiplication; eigenvalues and eigenvectors; etc.

General n -Dimensional State-Space Model

$$\text{state } x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad \text{input } u = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_m \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \dot{x}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \dot{x}_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A \\ n \times n \\ \text{matrix} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} B \\ n \times m \\ \text{matrix} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_m \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\dot{x} = Ax + Bu$$

Partial Measurements

$$\text{state } x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad \text{input } u = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_m \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$\text{output } y = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_p \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^p \quad y = Cx \quad C - p \times n \text{ matrix}$$

$$\dot{x} = Ax + Bu$$

$$y = Cx$$

Example: if we only care about (or can only measure) x_1 , then

$$y = x_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

State-Space Models: Bottom Line

$$\dot{x} = Ax + Bu$$

$$y = Cx$$

State-space models are useful and convenient for writing down system models for different types of systems, in a unified manner.

When working with state-space models, what are *states* and what are *inputs*?

— match against $\dot{x} = Ax + Bu$

State-Space Models

$$\dot{x} = Ax + Bu$$

$$y = Cx$$

where:

- ▶ $x(t) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the **state** at time t
- ▶ $u(t) \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is the **input** at time t
- ▶ $y(t) \in \mathbb{R}^p$ is the **output** at time t

and

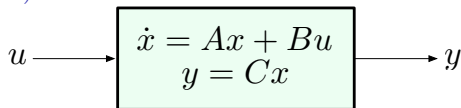
- ▶ $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is the **dynamics matrix**
- ▶ $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ is the **control matrix**
- ▶ $C \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$ is the **sensor matrix**

How do we determine the output y for a given input u ?

Reminder: we will only consider **single-input, single-output (SISO)** systems, i.e., $u(t), y(t) \in \mathbb{R}$ for all times t of interest. ($m = p = 1$)

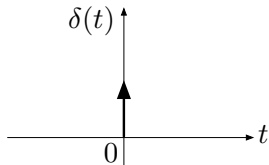
Impulse Response

(Review from ECE 210)

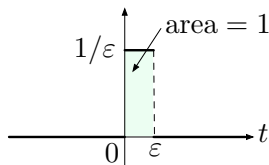


Unit impulse (or Dirac's δ -function):

1. $\delta(t) = 0$ for all $t \neq 0$
2. $\int_{-a}^a \delta(t)dt = 1$ for all $a > 0$

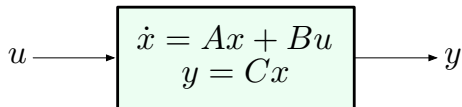


It is useful to think of $\delta(t)$ as a limit of impulses of unit area:



as $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$, the impulse gets taller ($1/\epsilon \rightarrow +\infty$), but the area under its graph remains at 1

Impulse Response



zero initial condition: $x(0) = 0$

Consider the input

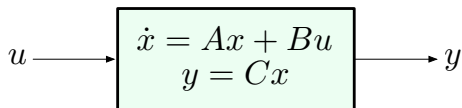
$$u(t) = \delta(t - \tau) \quad \text{unit impulse applied at } t = \tau$$

The system is *linear* and *time-invariant* (LTI), with zero I.C.:

$$u(t) = \delta(t - \tau) \quad \xrightarrow{x(0)=0; \text{ LTI system}} \quad y(t) = h(t - \tau)$$

The function h is the *impulse response* of the system.

Impulse Response



zero initial condition: $x(0) = 0$

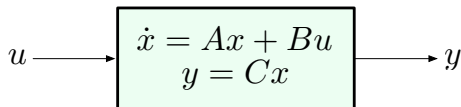
$$u(t) = \delta(t - \tau) \quad \xrightarrow{x(0)=0; \text{LTI system}} \quad y(t) = h(t - \tau)$$

Questions to consider:

1. If we know h , how can we find the system's response to other (arbitrary) inputs?
2. If we don't know h , how can we determine it?

We will start with Question 1.

Impulse Response



zero initial condition: $x(0) = 0$

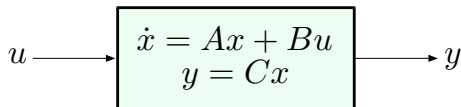
Question: If we know h , how can we find the system's response to other (arbitrary) inputs?

Recall the *sifting property* of the δ -function: for any function f which is “well-behaved” at $t = \tau$,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(t)\delta(t - \tau)dt = f(\tau)$$

— any *reasonably regular* function can be represented as an integral of impulses!!

Impulse Response



zero initial condition: $x(0) = 0$

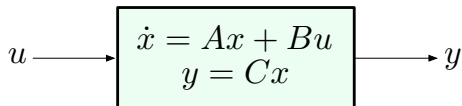
Question: If we know h , how can we find the system's response to other (arbitrary) inputs?

By the sifting property, for a general input $u(t)$ we can write

$$u(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u(\tau)\delta(t - \tau)d\tau.$$

Now we recall the *superposition principle*: the response of a linear system to a sum (or integral) of inputs is the sum (or integral) of the individual responses to these inputs.

Impulse Response



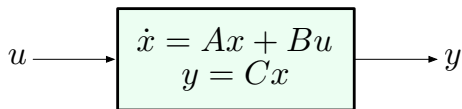
zero initial condition: $x(0) = 0$

The *superposition principle*: the response of a linear system to a sum (or integral) of inputs is the sum (or integral) of the individual responses to these inputs.

$$u(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u(\tau)\delta(t - \tau)d\tau \quad \longrightarrow \quad y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u(\tau) \underbrace{h(t - \tau)}_{\substack{\text{response to} \\ \delta(t - \tau)}} d\tau$$

— the integral that defines $y(t)$ is a **convolution** of u and h .

Impulse Response



zero initial condition: $x(0) = 0$

Conclusion so far: for **zero initial conditions**, the output is the convolution of the input with the system impulse response:

$$y(t) = u(t) \star h(t) = h(t) \star u(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u(\tau)h(t - \tau)d\tau$$

Q: Does this formula provide a *practical* way of computing the output y for a given input u ?

A: Not directly (computing convolutions is not exactly pleasant), but ...we can use **Laplace transforms**.

Laplace Transforms and the Transfer Function

Reminder: the *two-sided* Laplace transform of a function $f(t)$ is

$$F(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(\tau)e^{-s\tau} d\tau, \quad s \in \mathbb{C}$$

time domain frequency domain

$$u(t) \quad U(s)$$

$$h(t) \quad H(s)$$

$$y(t) \quad Y(s)$$

convolution in time domain \longleftrightarrow multiplication in frequency domain

$$y(t) = h(t) \star u(t) \quad \longleftrightarrow \quad Y(s) = H(s)U(s)$$

The Laplace transform of the impulse response

$$H(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau)e^{-s\tau} d\tau$$

is called the **transfer function** of the system.

Laplace Transforms and the Transfer Function

$$Y(s) = H(s)U(s), \quad \text{where } H(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau)e^{-s\tau} d\tau$$

Limits of integration:

- ▶ We only deal with *causal* systems — output at time t is not affected by inputs at future times $t' > t$
- ▶ If the system is causal, then $h(t) = 0$ for $t < 0$ — $h(t)$ is the response at time t to a unit impulse at time 0
- ▶ We will take all other possible inputs (not just impulses) to be 0 for $t < 0$, and work with *one-sided* Laplace transforms:

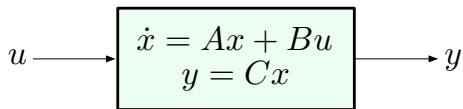
$$y(t) = \int_0^{\infty} u(\tau)h(t - \tau)d\tau$$
$$H(s) = \int_0^{\infty} h(\tau)e^{-s\tau} d\tau$$

Laplace Transforms and the Transfer Function

$$Y(s) = H(s)U(s), \quad \text{where } H(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau)e^{-s\tau} d\tau$$

Given $u(t)$, we can find $U(s)$ using tables of Laplace transforms or MATLAB. But how do we know $h(t)$ [or $H(s)$]?

- Suppose we have a state-space model:



In this case, we have an **exact formula**:

$$H(s) = C(Is - A)^{-1}B \quad (\text{matrix inversion})$$

$$h(t) = Ce^{At}B, \quad t \geq 0^- \quad (\text{matrix exponential})$$

— will not encounter this until much later in the semester.

Laplace Transforms and the Transfer Function

$$Y(s) = H(s)U(s), \quad \text{where } H(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau)e^{-s\tau} d\tau$$

- ▶ So, how should we compute $H(s)$ in practice?

Try injecting some specific inputs and see what happens at the output.

Let's try $u(t) = e^{st}, t \geq 0$ (s is some fixed number)

$$\begin{aligned} y(t) &= \int_0^{\infty} h(\tau)u(t-\tau)d\tau && \text{(because } u \star h = h \star u) \\ &= \int_0^{\infty} h(\tau)e^{s(t-\tau)}d\tau \\ &= e^{st} \int_0^{\infty} h(\tau)e^{-s\tau}d\tau \\ &= e^{st}H(s) \end{aligned}$$

– so, $u(t) = e^{st}$ is multiplied by $H(s)$ to give the output.

Example

$$\dot{y} = -ay + u \quad (\text{think } y = x, \text{ full measurement})$$

$$u(t) = e^{st} \quad (\text{always assume } u(t) = 0 \text{ for } t < 0)$$

$$y(t) = H(s)e^{st} \quad \text{— what is } H?$$

Let's use the system model:

$$\dot{y}(t) = \frac{d}{dt} (H(s)e^{st}) = sH(s)e^{st}$$

Substitute into $\dot{y} = -ay + u$:

$$sH(s)e^{st} = -aH(s)e^{st} + e^{st} \quad (\forall s; t > 0)$$

$$sH(s) = -aH(s) + 1$$

$$H(s) = \frac{1}{s + a} \quad \implies \quad y(t) = \frac{e^{st}}{s + a}$$

Example (continued)

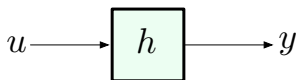
$$\dot{y} = -ay + u$$

$$H(s) = \frac{1}{s + a}$$

Now we can find the impulse response $h(t)$ by taking the inverse Laplace transform — from tables,

$$h(t) = \begin{cases} e^{-at}, & t \geq 0 \\ 0, & t < 0 \end{cases}$$

Determining the Impulse Response



$$u(t) = e^{st}, t \geq 0 \quad \xrightarrow{x(0)=0; \text{ LTI system}} \quad y(t) = e^{st} H(s)$$

Back to our two questions:

1. If we know h , how can we find y for a given u ?
2. If we don't know h , how can we determine it?

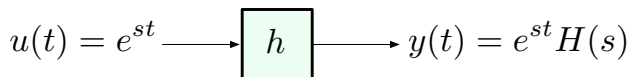
We have answered Question 1. Now let's turn to Question 2.

One idea: inject the input $u(t) = e^{st}$, determine $y(t)$, compute

$$H(s) = \frac{y(t)}{u(t)};$$

repeat for all s of interest. **Q:** Is this a good idea?

Determining the Impulse Response



compute $H(s) = \frac{y(t)}{u(t)}$, repeat for as many values of s as necessary

Q: Is this likely to work *in practice*?

A: No — e^{st} blows up very quickly if $s > 0$, and decays to 0 very quickly if $s < 0$.

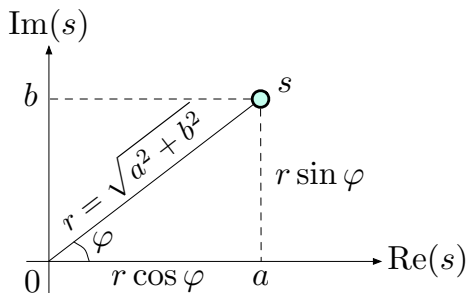
So we need *sustained, bounded signals* as inputs.

This is possible if we allow s to take on *complex values*.

Review: Complex Numbers

$$s = \underbrace{a}_{\substack{\text{real} \\ \text{part}}} + j \underbrace{b}_{\substack{\text{imaginary} \\ \text{part}}}$$

— rectangular form



Polar form:

$$s = r e^{j\varphi}$$

$$r = |s| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$

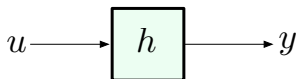
(magnitude)

$$\varphi = \angle s = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{b}{a} \right)$$

(phase)

Euler's formula: $e^{j\varphi} = \cos \varphi + j \sin \varphi$

Frequency Response



$u(t) = A \cos(\omega t)$ A – amplitude; ω – (angular) frequency, rad/s

From Euler's formula:

$$A \cos(\omega t) = \frac{A}{2} (e^{j\omega t} + e^{-j\omega t})$$

By linearity, the response is

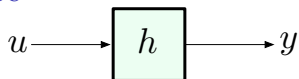
$$y(t) = \frac{A}{2} \left(H(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} + H(-j\omega) e^{-j\omega t} \right)$$

where $H(j\omega) = \int_0^{\infty} h(\tau) e^{-j\omega\tau} d\tau$

$$H(-j\omega) = \int_0^{\infty} \underbrace{h(\tau) e^{j\omega\tau}}_{\text{complex conjugate}} d\tau = \overline{H(j\omega)}$$

(recall that $h(\tau)$ is real-valued)

Frequency Response



$$u(t) = A \cos(\omega t) \quad \longrightarrow \quad y(t) = \frac{A}{2} \left(H(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} + H(-j\omega) e^{-j\omega t} \right)$$

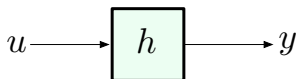
$$H(j\omega) \in \mathbb{C} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \begin{aligned} H(j\omega) &= M(\omega) e^{j\varphi(\omega)} \\ H(-j\omega) &= M(\omega) e^{-j\varphi(\omega)} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} y(t) &= \frac{A}{2} M(\omega) \left[e^{j(\omega t + \varphi(\omega))} + e^{-j(\omega t + \varphi(\omega))} \right] \\ &= AM(\omega) \cos(\omega t + \varphi(\omega)) \quad (\text{only true in } \textit{steady state}) \end{aligned}$$

The (steady-state) response to a cosine signal with amplitude A and frequency ω is still a cosine signal with amplitude $AM(\omega)$, same frequency ω , and phase shift $\varphi(\omega)$

Frequency Response



$$u(t) = A \cos(\omega t) \quad \longrightarrow \quad y(t) = A \underbrace{M(\omega)}_{\substack{\text{amplitude} \\ \text{magnification}}} \cos(\omega t + \underbrace{\varphi(\omega)}_{\substack{\text{phase} \\ \text{shift}}})$$

Still an incomplete picture:

- ▶ What about response to general signals (not necessarily sinusoids)? — always given by $Y(s) = H(s)U(s)$
- ▶ What about response under *nonzero I.C.*'s? — we will see that, if *the system is stable*, then

$$\text{total response} = \begin{array}{l} \text{transient response} \\ \text{(depends on I.C.)} \end{array} + \begin{array}{l} \text{steady-state response} \\ \text{(independent of I.C.)} \end{array}$$

— need more on Laplace transforms