

Introduction to Control (00340040)

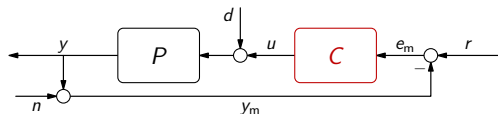
lecture no. 8

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Previously on steady-state performance...

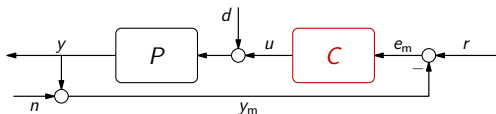


Zero steady-state errors to

- $r(t) = \mathbb{1}(t)$ requires an integrator in PC
- $d(t) = \mathbb{1}(t)$ requires an integrator in C
- $r(t) = \text{ramp}(t)$ requires a double integrator in PC
- $r(t) = \sin(\omega t + \phi)\mathbb{1}(t)$ requires poles at $\pm j\omega$ in $P(s)C(s)$
- $d(t) = \sin(\omega t + \phi)\mathbb{1}(t)$ requires poles at $\pm j\omega$ in $C(s)$
- $n(t) = \sin(\omega t + \phi)\mathbb{1}(t)$ requires zeros at $\pm j\omega$ in $P(s)C(s)$

What if $e_{ss} = 0$ need not be attained? Or if r and / or d have their spectra spread over some frequency range and high-gain feedback is not feasible?

Previously on steady-state performance...



Zero steady-state errors to

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What if $e_{ss} = 0$ need not be attained? Or if r and / or d have their spectra spread over some frequency range and (uniformly) high-gain feedback is not feasible?

Outline

Steady-state performance of closed-loop systems and loop shaping

Transient performance of closed-loop systems

Control effort

Loop shaping: what we have and what we miss

Mathematical preliminaries: the (Cauchy's) argument principle

Outline

Steady-state performance of closed-loop systems and loop shaping

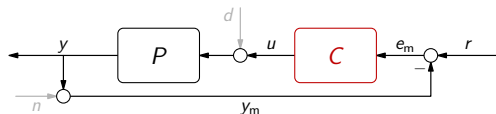
Transient performance of closed-loop systems

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Command following



Denote by Ω_r the frequency range where the spectrum of r is concentrated. By good steady-state command response we understand that

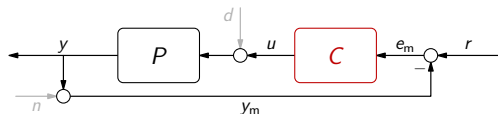
$$|E(j\omega)| \ll |R(j\omega)|, \quad \forall \omega \in \Omega_r$$

$$\Downarrow$$

$$|S(j\omega)| \ll 1, \quad \forall \omega \in \Omega_r.$$

(remember, $e = Sr$ if $d = n = 0$).

Good command following and loop gain



Denote the **loop transfer function** as $L(s) := P(s)C(s)$, so that

$$S(s) = \frac{1}{1 + L(s)} \quad \text{and} \quad |S(j\omega)| \leq \frac{1}{|L(j\omega)| - 1} \quad \text{whenever} \quad |L(j\omega)| > 1$$

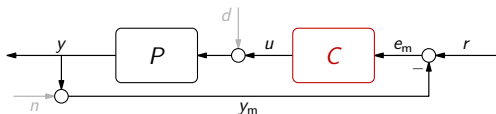
(by the triangle inequality, $|L| = |1 + L - 1| \leq |1 + L| + 1$). Hence,

$$|S(j\omega)| \leq \sigma, < 1 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad |L(j\omega)| \geq \frac{1 + \sigma}{\sigma} = 1 + \frac{1}{\sigma} > 2$$

for every $\omega \in \Omega_r$. Qualitatively,

- high loop gain in the whole frequency range $\omega \in \Omega_r$ guarantees good steady-state command response.

Good command following and loop gain



Denote the loop transfer function as $L(s) := P(s)C(s)$, so that

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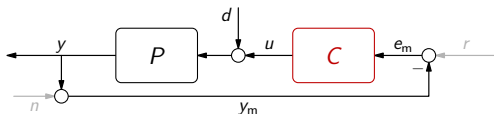
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$$|S(j\omega)| \leq \sigma_r < 1 \quad \iff \quad |L(j\omega)| \geq \frac{1 + \sigma_r}{\sigma_r} = 1 + \frac{1}{\sigma_r} > 2$$

for every $\omega \in \Omega_r$. Qualitatively,

- *high loop gain* in the whole frequency range $\omega \in \Omega_r$ guarantees good steady-state command response.

Disturbance attenuation



Denote by Ω_d the frequency range where the spectrum of d is concentrated. By good steady-state disturbance attenuation we understand that

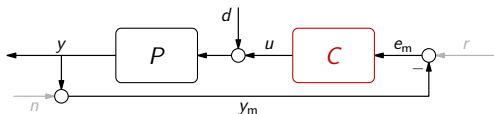
$$|E(j\omega)| = |Y(j\omega)| \ll |D(j\omega)|, \quad \forall \omega \in \Omega_d$$

$$\Downarrow$$

$$|T_d(j\omega)| = |P(j\omega)| |S(j\omega)| \ll 1, \quad \forall \omega \in \Omega_d$$

(remember, $y = -e = T_d d$ if $r = n = 0$).

Good disturbance attenuation and loop gain



Now,

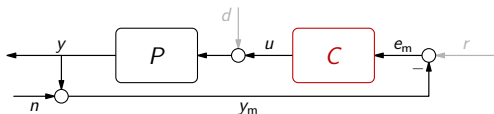
$$|P(j\omega)| |S(j\omega)| \leq \sigma_d < 1 \quad \iff \quad |L(j\omega)| \geq 1 + \frac{|P(j\omega)|}{\sigma_d}$$

for every $\omega \in \Omega_d$ (think of bounding S for $\sigma_r = \sigma_d/|P(j\omega)|$). Qualitatively,

- *high loop gain* in the whole frequency range $\omega \in \Omega_d$ guarantees good steady-state disturbance attenuation.

Remark: Note that a low plant gain could also help, but this is independent of the choice of the controller C .

Measurement noise sensitivity



Denote by Ω_n the frequency range where the spectrum of n is concentrated. By low steady-state sensitivity to measurement noise we understand that

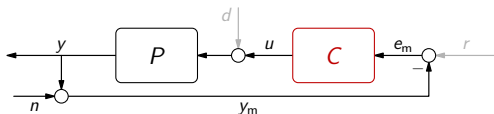
$$|E(j\omega)| = |Y(j\omega)| \ll |N(j\omega)|, \quad \forall \omega \in \Omega_n$$

$$\Downarrow$$

$$|T(j\omega)| \ll 1, \quad \forall \omega \in \Omega_n$$

(remember, $y = -e = Tn$ if $r = d = 0$).

Measurement noise sensitivity and high loop gain



Because

$$|T(j\omega)| = \frac{|L(j\omega)|}{|1 + L(j\omega)|} \geq \frac{|L(j\omega)|}{1 + |L(j\omega)|},$$

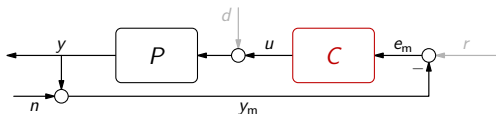
we have that

$$|L(j\omega)| > 1 \quad \implies \quad |T(j\omega)| > \frac{1}{2}$$

and as $|L(j\omega)|$ increases, $|T(j\omega)| \rightarrow 1$. This means that

- high loop gain does *not* lead to low measurement noise sensitivity.

Low measurement noise sensitivity and loop gain



Because $T(s) = L(s)/(1 + L(s)) = 1/(1 + 1/L(s))$, we have that

$$|T(j\omega)| \leq \frac{1}{1/|L(j\omega)| - 1} \quad \text{whenever } |L(j\omega)| < 1.$$

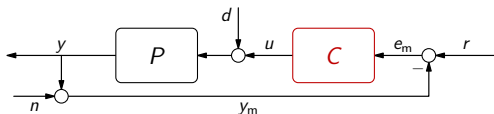
Hence,

$$|T(j\omega)| \leq \sigma_n < 1 \quad \iff \quad |L(j\omega)| \leq \frac{\sigma_n}{1 + \sigma_n} \in \left(0, \frac{1}{2}\right)$$

for every $\omega \in \Omega_n$. Qualitatively,

- *low loop gain* in the whole frequency range $\omega \in \Omega_n$ guarantees low steady-state noise sensitivity.

Catch-22 situation ?



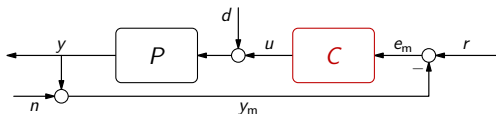
On the one hand,

- we need high loop gain (in $\omega \in \Omega_r$ and $\omega \in \Omega_d \setminus \{\omega \mid |P(j\omega)| \ll 1\}$).

On the other hand,

- we need low loop gain (in $\omega \in \Omega_n$).

“Typical” spectra of r , d , and n



In many cases¹,

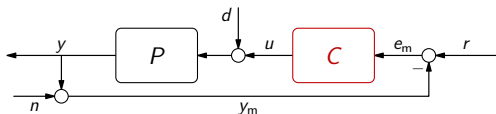
- **command signals** are “**slow**”
(i.e. Ω_r mostly includes low frequencies)
- **measurement noise** is “**fast**”
(i.e. Ω_n mostly includes high frequencies)

Moreover, since most physical processes are low-pass,

- only “slow” components of d should be worried about
(“fast” part of d doesn’t show up in y anyway as $|P(j\omega)| \ll 1$ at high frequencies)

¹Oi va voi if this is not true!

“Typical” spectra of r , d , and n



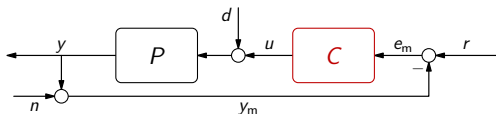
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The first acquaintance with *loop shaping*



Thus, we may endeavor to design loops with

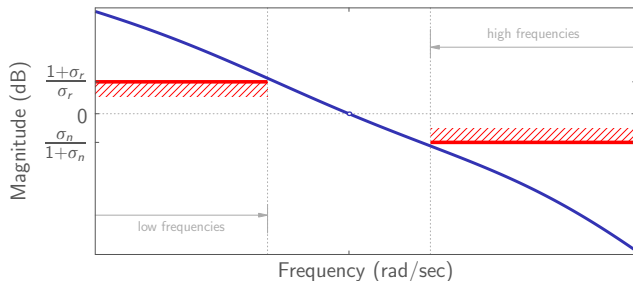
- high loop gain, $|L(j\omega)| \gg 1$, at “low” frequencies
- low loop gain, $|L(j\omega)| \ll 1$, at “high” frequencies

where “high” and “low” frequency ranges depend on spectral properties of exogenous signals in the application.

This control design philosophy is called **loop shaping**.

Loop shaping: big picture (magnitude)

What we shall try to do is to shape $|L(j\omega)|$ like this:

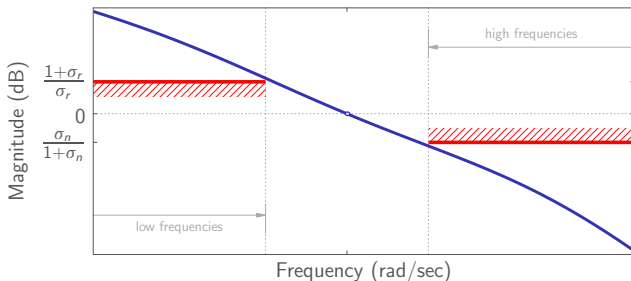


Note that

- there is always a region where the loop gain is neither high nor low

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Steady-state performance of closed-loop systems and loop shaping

Transient performance of closed-loop systems

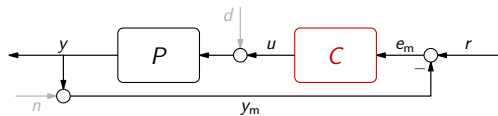
Control effort

Loop shaping: what we have and what we miss

Mathematical preliminaries: the (Cauchy's) argument principle

Closed-loop transient response

We're mostly concerned with transient performance of command response:



and measure it on the basis of the **step response** (its speed and smoothness).

We know (from Lecture 4) that transient properties in time and frequency domains are related as follows:

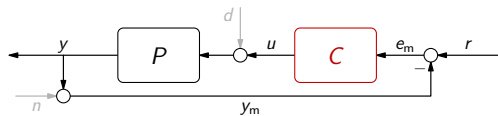
- the wider the **bandwidth** of $T(j\omega)$ is, the faster its **step response** is
- the higher **resonant peaks** of $T(j\omega)$ are, the larger **over / undershoot** is

The question:

- could these requirements be expressed in terms of $L(j\omega)$?

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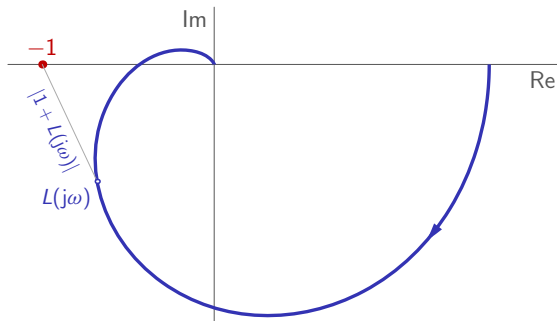
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The question:

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Closed vs. open loop: resonant peak of T

Given ω , $|1 + L(j\omega)|$ is the distance between the points $L(j\omega)$ and $-1 + j0$ in the complex plane of $L(j\omega)$:

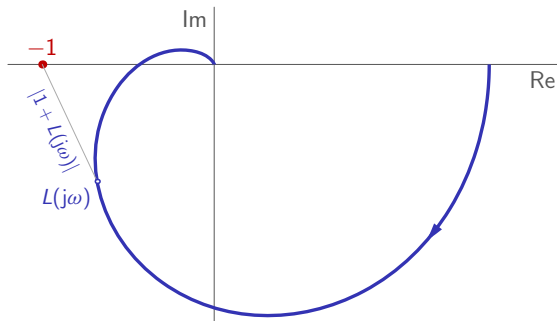


Thus,

the closer $L(j\omega)$ to $-1 + j0$ is, the larger $|T(j\omega)| = \frac{|L(j\omega)|}{|1 + L(j\omega)|}$ is
 (as $L(j\omega)$ approaches $-1 + j0$, magnitude $|L(j\omega)| \rightarrow 1$).

Closed vs. open loop: resonant peak of T

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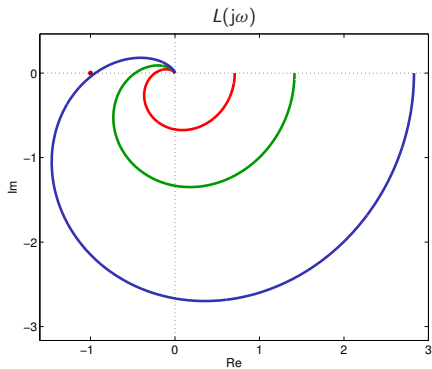


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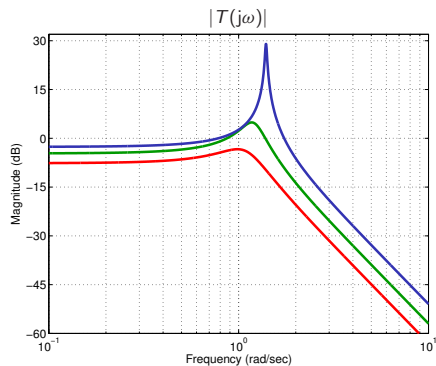
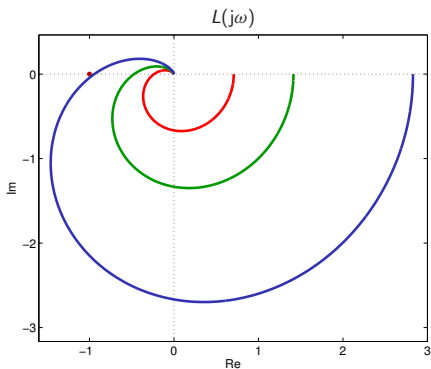
Closed vs. open loop: example

Let $L(s) = \frac{k\sqrt{2}}{(s+1)(s^2+s+1)}$. Then for $k \in \{0.5, 1, 2\}$ we have:

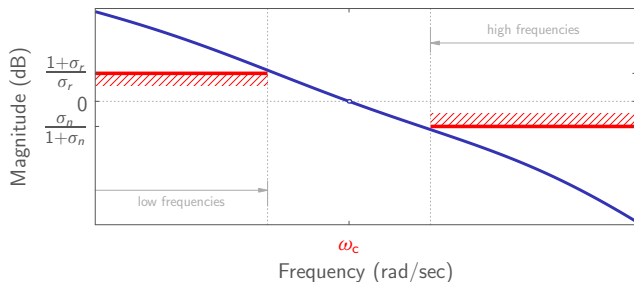


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Let $L(s) = \frac{k\sqrt{2}}{(s+1)(s^2+s+1)}$. Then for $k \in \{0.5, 1, 2\}$ we have:



Crossover frequency and crossover region



When ω increases, $L(j\omega)$ passes from the low- to high-frequency range. On its way it necessarily passes the area with $|L(j\omega)| \approx 1$. This frequency range is called the **crossover region** and the frequency ω at which $|L(j\omega)| = 1$ is called the **crossover frequency** and denoted ω_c , i.e.

$$|L(j\omega_c)| = 1.$$

There may be more than one crossover frequencies.

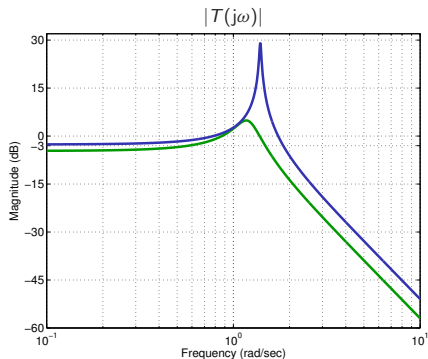
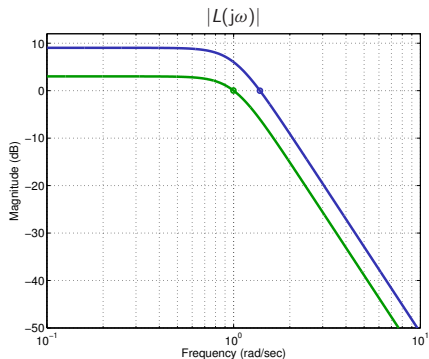
Closed vs. open loop: bandwidth of T

The closed-loop bandwidth ω_b is typically close to the crossover frequency ω_c . A rule of thumb is that $\omega_b \approx 1.2 \div 1.5\omega_c$.

Closed vs. open loop: bandwidth of T

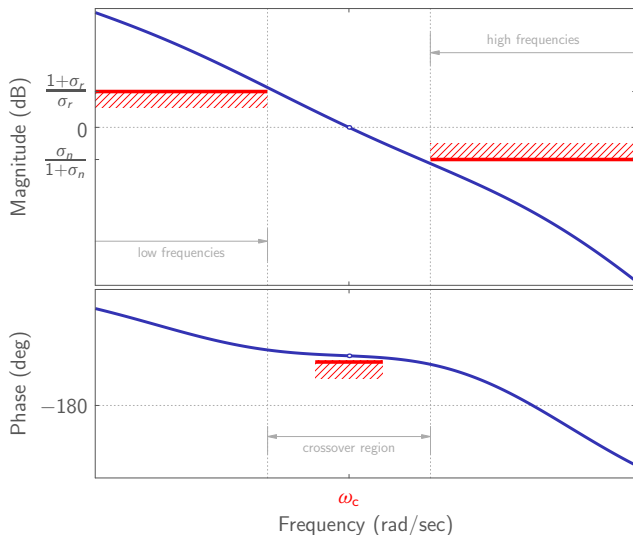
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For example, for $L(s) = \frac{k\sqrt{2}}{(s+1)(s^2+s+1)}$ and $k \in \{1, 2\}$ we have:



Loop shaping: big picture (more details will follow)

What we shall try to do is to shape $|L(j\omega)|$ like this:



Outline

Steady-state performance of closed-loop systems and loop shaping

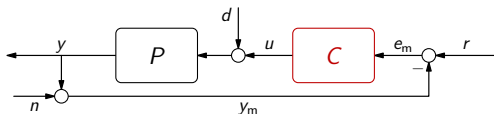
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Closed-loop control signal



Remember, from Lecture 5, that

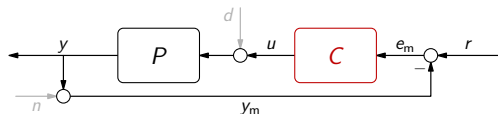
$$u = T_c r - T d - T_c n.$$

Thus, properties of the control signal in closed-loop control are

- shaped by properties of T_c and T

(rather than by properties of C_{ol} as in the open-loop case).

Steady-state control effort: command response



Since

$$|T_c(j\omega)| = \frac{|T(j\omega)|}{|P(j\omega)|},$$

properties of u are again

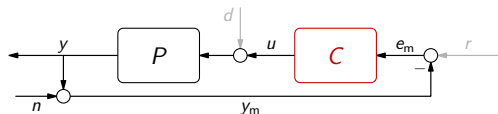
- determined by relations between controlled & uncontrolled bandwidths.

For example, if both P and T are low-pass filters and $\omega_{b,T} > \omega_{b,P}$, we may expect that $|T_c(j\omega)|$ grows in $\omega \in (\omega_{b,P}, \omega_{b,T})$. Hence,

- $\omega_{b,T} \gg \omega_{b,P}$ would lead to $|T_c(j\omega)| \gg 1$ around $\omega_{b,T}$,

which might not be affordable.

Steady-state control effort: measurement noise response



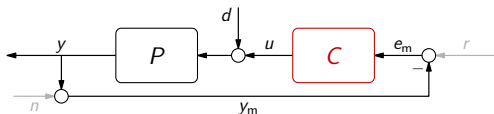
The growth of $|T_c(j\omega)|$ at high frequencies is

- even more dangerous from the noise response perspective

as this might be where the spectrum of the noise n is concentrated. Having high-magnitude high-frequency oscillations of u is highly undesirable as it

- might harm controlled process / actuators
- might excite poorly modeled high-frequency modes of the plant

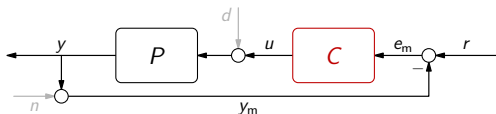
Steady-state control effort: disturbance response



As we anyway should

- aim at avoiding high magnitude of $T(j\omega)$,
the effect of the input disturbances on the control signal
- needs no special attention.

Control effort during transients



An additional side effect of reaching $\omega_{b,T} \gg \omega_{b,P}$

- $T_c(j\omega)$ has high-frequency resonant peak(s),

which, in turn, leads to high-amplitude peaks in the step response of u (like in open-loop control, cf. discussion in Lecture 5).

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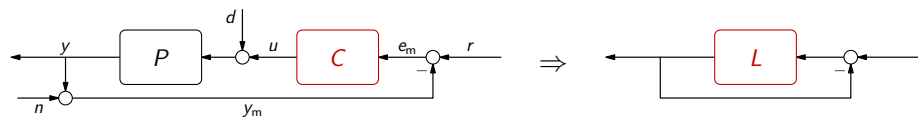
Control effort

Loop shaping: what we have and what we miss

Mathematical preliminaries: the (Cauchy's) argument principle

What did we learn by now

We may replace



and aim at

- having **appropriate crossover frequency**, ω_c
 - high enough: to cover spectra of reference / disturbances and have sufficiently fast transients
 - not too high: to avoid the amplification of measurement noise and excessive growth of the control signal
- **high loop gain**, $|L(j\omega)| \gg 1$, at **low frequencies** ($\omega \ll \omega_c$)
- **low loop gain**, $|L(j\omega)| \ll 1$, at **high frequencies** ($\omega \gg \omega_c$)
- keeping $L(j\omega)$ **"far" from the point $-1 + j0$** in the crossover region

Don't we miss something important ?



- having appropriate crossover frequency, ω_c
- high loop gain, $|L(j\omega)| \gg 1$, at low frequencies ($\omega \ll \omega_c$)
- low loop gain, $|L(j\omega)| \ll 1$, at high frequencies ($\omega \gg \omega_c$)
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Of course,

stability

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- keeping $L(j\omega)$ “far” from the critical point in the crossover region

Of course,

stability

Stability analysis



We can analyze the stability of this system by

- algebraic analysis of the closed-loop characteristic polynomial
- graphical root-locus analysis

But

☹ neither of them does it in terms of the **frequency response** of L , which is what loop shaping needs.

Nyquist stability criterion: what does it offer



It analyzes the stability of the closed-loop system on the basis of

- number of unstable pole of $L(s)$ and
- position of the polar plot of $L(j\omega)$ with respect to the point $-1 + j0$

For example, if L is stable, then

closed-loop system is stable

closed-loop system is unstable

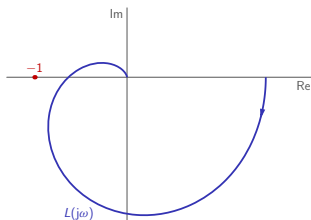
Nyquist stability criterion: what does it offer



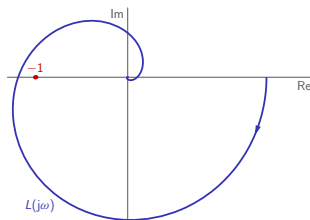
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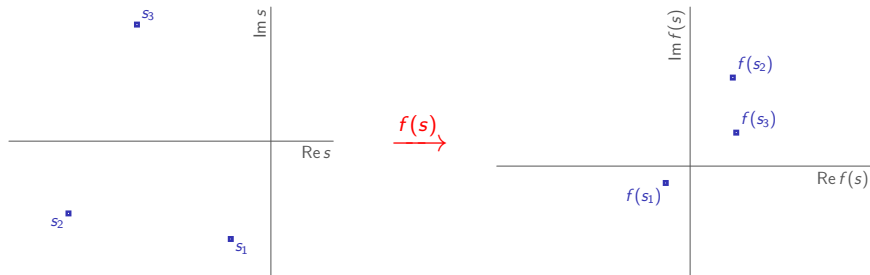
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Mapping points in s -plane

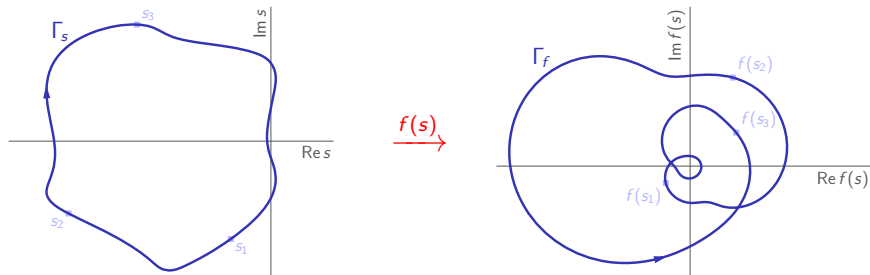
Consider a complex function $f(s)$. For any $s \in \mathbb{C}$ from its domain, $f(s) \in \mathbb{C}$ too. We say that s is **mapped** by f from the s -plane to the $f(s)$ -plane:



(here $f(s) = \frac{0.273(-s + 0.2)}{(s + 0.6)(s + 1)(s + 1.3)}$, if you're curious).

Mapping contours in s -plane

Similarly, an s -plane contour Γ_s lying in the domain of $f(s)$ is mapped to a contour Γ_f in the $f(s)$ -plane:

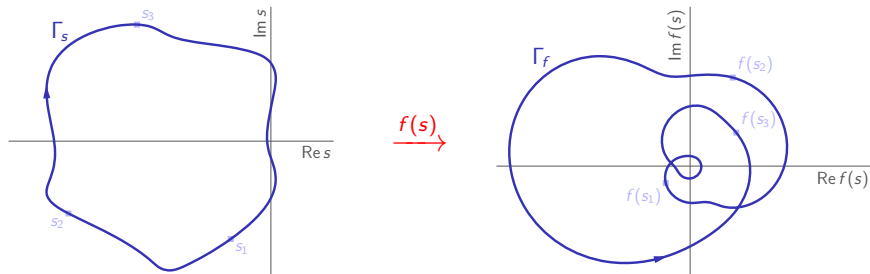


A contour is said to be

- simple if it does not intersect itself
 - closed if it starts and ends at the same point
- (Γ_s above is simple closed, whereas Γ_f is closed yet not simple).

Mapping contours in s -plane

Similarly, an s -plane contour Γ_s lying in the domain of $f(s)$ is mapped to a contour Γ_f in the $f(s)$ -plane:



A contour is said to be

- **simple** if it does not intersect itself and
- **closed** if it starts and ends at the same point

(Γ_s above is simple closed, whereas Γ_f is closed yet not simple).

The argument principle

Let

- Γ_s be a simple closed contour,
- $f(s)$ be meromorphic (i.e. only poles as singularities) inside and on Γ_s ,
- Z_f be the number of zeros of $f(s)$ inside Γ_s ,
- P_f be the number of poles of $f(s)$ inside Γ_s .

Theorem (Cauchy)

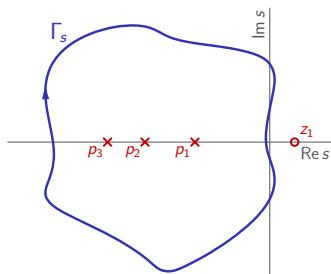
If Γ_s passes through neither poles nor zeros of $f(s)$, then Γ_f encircles the origin $Z_f - P_f$ times in the clockwise direction as s traverses Γ_s in the clockwise direction.

The argument principle: example 1

Consider

$$f(s) = \frac{0.273(-s + 0.2)}{(s + 0.6)(s + 1)(s + 1.3)},$$

which has $P_f = 3$ poles and $Z_f = 0$ zeros inside Γ_s .



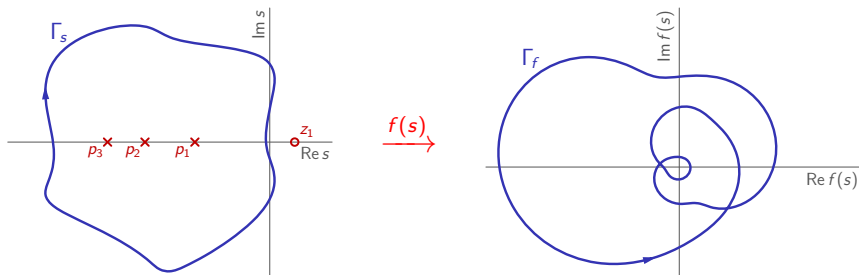
Hence, Γ_f encircles the origin -3 times in the clockwise direction.

The argument principle: example 1

Consider

$$f(s) = \frac{0.273(-s + 0.2)}{(s + 0.6)(s + 1)(s + 1.3)},$$

which has $P_f = 3$ poles and $Z_f = 0$ zeros inside Γ_s .



Hence, Γ_f encircles the origin -3 times¹ in the clockwise direction.

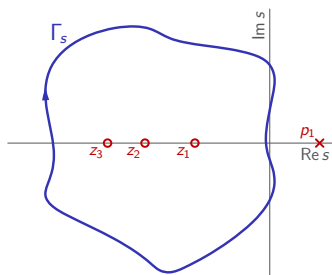
¹That is, 3 times in the counterclockwise direction.

The argument principle: example 2

Consider

$$f(s) = \frac{0.13(s + 0.6)(s + 1)(s + 1.3)}{-s + 0.4},$$

which has $P_f = 0$ poles and $Z_f = 3$ zeros inside Γ_s .



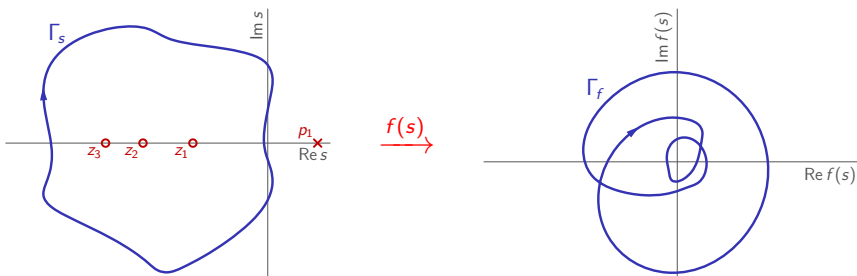
Hence, Γ_f encircles the origin 3 times in the clockwise direction.

The argument principle: example 2

Consider

$$f(s) = \frac{0.13(s + 0.6)(s + 1)(s + 1.3)}{-s + 0.4},$$

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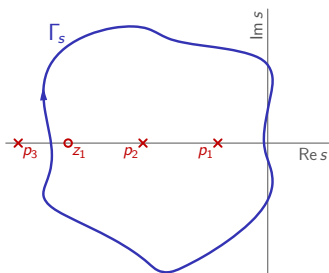
Hence, Γ_f encircles the origin 3 times in the clockwise direction.

The argument principle: example 3

Consider

$$f(s) = -\frac{0.7(s + 1.6)}{(s + 0.4)(s + 1)(s + 2)},$$

which has $P_f = 2$ poles and $Z_f = 1$ zero inside Γ_s .



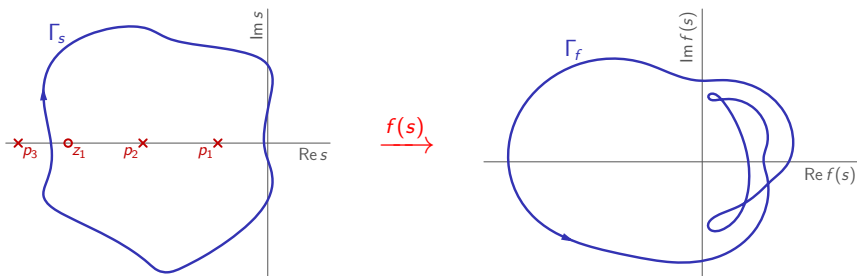
Hence, Γ_f encircles the origin -1 time in the clockwise direction.

The argument principle: example 3

Consider

$$f(s) = -\frac{0.7(s + 1.6)}{(s + 0.4)(s + 1)(s + 2)},$$

which has $P_f = 2$ poles and $Z_f = 1$ zero inside Γ_s .



Hence, Γ_f encircles the origin -1 time² in the clockwise direction.

²That is, once in the counterclockwise direction.

Shift by a constant

Let $f(s) = \alpha + g(s)$ for some $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

