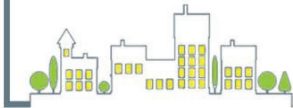


Intelligent Control

Fundamentals in Control Systems Theory

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Content

- ❖ **Mathematical Preliminaries**
- ❖ System Descriptions
- ❖ Stability Definitions
- ❖ Classical Controllers
- ❖ Classical Design Tools



Inner product

Let V be a vector space. An inner product on V is a function $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \rightarrow R$ such that for all $v, w, z \in V$ and $s, t \in R$ we have:

- $\langle v, v \rangle \geq 0$, and $\langle v, v \rangle = 0$ if and only if $v = 0$
- $\langle v, w \rangle = \langle w, v \rangle$
- $\langle v, sw + tz \rangle = s\langle v, w \rangle + t\langle v, z \rangle$

A vector space V with an inner product is called an *inner product space*.



Inner product

Note: The dot product is an inner product on R^n , called the standard inner product on R^n .

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} u = [u_1 \quad u_2 \quad \dots \quad u_n]^T \\ v = [v_1 \quad v_2 \quad \dots \quad v_n]^T \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow$$

$$\langle u, v \rangle \triangleq \sum_{i=1}^n u_i v_i = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \dots + u_n v_n$$



Inner product

Note: An extremely important inner product in applied mathematics, physics, and engineering is:

$$\langle f, g \rangle \triangleq \int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx$$

where $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are continuous real functions on an interval $[a, b]$.



Norm

Let V be a vector space. A norm on V is a function $\| \cdot \| : V \rightarrow R$ such that for all $v, w \in V$ and $s \in R$ we have:

- $\| v \| \geq 0$, and $\| v \| = 0$ if and only if $v = 0$
- $\| sv \| = |s| \| v \|$
- $\| v + w \| \leq \| v \| + \| w \|$

A vector space V with a norm is called a **normed space**.



Norm

Note: For a vector $u \in R^n$, the standard norm is as follows::

Standard Norm

$$\|u\|_p \triangleq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |u_i|^p \right)^{1/p}$$

Standard Norm

$$\|u\|_p \triangleq \left(|u_1|^p + |u_2|^p + \dots + |u_n|^p \right)^{1/p}$$

where $p \geq 1$ and $\|u\|_p$ is called the p – norm (or l_p – norm)



Norm

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Norm

Note: The important and applicable standard norms are as follows:

- The 2 – *norm* is the usual Euclidean length or RMS value:

$$\|u\|_2 \triangleq \left(|u_1|^2 + |u_2|^2 + \dots + |u_n|^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

- The 1 – *norm*

$$\|u\|_1 \triangleq |u_1| + |u_2| + \dots + |u_n|$$

- The ∞ – *norm* (*sup – norm*)

$$\|u\|_\infty \triangleq \lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \left(|u_1|^p + |u_2|^p + \dots + |u_n|^p \right)^{1/p} \Rightarrow \|u\|_\infty \triangleq \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \{ |u_i| \}$$



Norm

Note: for a continuous real function $f(x)$ on an interval $[a, b]$, the important standard norms are obtained as follows:

- The 2 – *norm* is the usual Euclidean length or RMS value:

$$\|f(t)\|_1 \triangleq \int_a^b |f(t)| dt$$

- The 1 – *norm*

$$\|f(t)\|_2 \triangleq \left(\int_a^b (f(t))^2 dt \right)^{1/2}$$

- The ∞ – *norm* (*sup – norm*)

$$\|f(t)\|_\infty \triangleq \text{Sup}_{a \leq t \leq b} \{ |f(t)| \}$$



Norm

Note: Matrix norms are functions $\| \cdot \| : R^{m \times n} \rightarrow R$ that satisfy the same properties as vector norms. For a matrix $A \in R^{m \times n}$, a few examples of matrix norms are:

- The Frobenius norm:

$$\|A\|_F = \sqrt{\text{tr}(A^T A)} = \sqrt{\sum_{i,j} a_{i,j}^2}$$

- The sum-absolute-value norm:

$$\|A\|_{sav} = \sum_{i,j} |a_{i,j}|$$

- The max-absolute-value norm:

$$\|A\|_{sav} = \max_{i,j} |a_{i,j}|$$



Norm

Example: Consider $f(t) = e^{-at}$ ($a > 0$) on an interval $(0, \infty)$. Calculate the 1 - norm, 2 - norm and ∞ - norm of $f(t)$.

Solution:



Kronecker Product

Let A be a $m \times n$ matrix and let B be a $p \times q$ matrix. Then the **Kronecker product** \otimes of A and B is that $mp \times nq$ matrix defined by:

$$A \otimes B = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}B & a_{12}B & \dots & a_{1n}B \\ a_{21}B & a_{22}B & \dots & a_{2n}B \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1}B & a_{m2}B & \dots & a_{mn}B \end{bmatrix}_{mp \times nq}$$

Note: $A \otimes B \neq B \otimes A$



Kronecker Product

Example: Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Calculate $A \otimes B, B \otimes A$.

Solution:



Projection

For any vectors $u, v \in R^n$, with $u \neq 0$, we define the projection of v onto u by:

$$\text{proj}_u(v) = \frac{u \cdot v}{\|u\|^2} u$$



Quadratic Forms

A *quadratic form* on R^n , with corresponding $n \times n$ symmetric matrix A , is a function $Q: R^n \rightarrow R$ defined by:

$$Q(x) = x^T A x \quad ; \quad \forall x \in R^n$$

Example: Consider $V(x) = x_1^2 - 2x_1x_2 + 4x_1x_3 + 5x_2^2 - 6x_3^2$, find corresponding symmetric matrix.



Quadratic Forms

A *quadratic form* $Q(x)$ on R^n is:

- **Positive definite** if $Q(x) > 0$ for all $x \neq 0$
- **Negative definite** if $Q(x) < 0$ for all $x \neq 0$
- **Indefinite** if $Q(x) > 0$ for som x *and* $Q(x) < 0$ for som x
- **Positive semidefinite** if $Q(x) \geq 0$ for all x
- **Negative semidefinite** if $Q(x) \leq 0$ for all x



Quadratic Forms

A *principal minor* of order r of an $n \times n$ matrix $A = [a_{i,j}]$ is the determinant of a matrix obtained by deleting $n - r$ rows and $n - r$ columns such that if the i th row (column) is selected, then so is the i th column (row).

A principal minor is called a *leading principal minors* of order r ($1 \leq r \leq n$) if it consists of the first ("leading") r rows and columns of $|A|$.



Quadratic Forms

Theorem: Let $Q = x^T Ax$ be a quadratic form of n variables and let

$$|A_1| = a_{11}, |A_2| = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix}, |A_3| = \begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix}, \dots, |A_n| = |A|$$

be the leading principal minors of matrix A. Then

- $Q(x)$ **positive definite** \Leftrightarrow all leading principal minors are positive.
- $Q(x)$ **negative definite** \Leftrightarrow the leading principal minors of even order are positive and those of odd order are negative..



Quadratic Forms

Theorem: Let $Q = x^T Ax$ be a quadratic form of n variables and let

$$|A_i| = a_{ii}, |A_2| = \begin{vmatrix} a_{ii} & a_{ij} \\ a_{ji} & a_{jj} \end{vmatrix}, |A_3| = \begin{vmatrix} a_{ii} & a_{ij} & a_{ik} \\ a_{ji} & a_{jj} & a_{jk} \\ a_{ki} & a_{kj} & a_{kk} \end{vmatrix}, \dots, |A_n| = |A| = 0 \quad (i < j < k)$$

be the principal minors of **singular** matrix A. Then

- $Q(x)$ **positive semidefinite** \Leftrightarrow All the principal minors are positive or zero.
- $Q(x)$ **negative semidefinite** \Leftrightarrow All the principal minors are of even order are positive or zero and those of odd order are negative or zero.



Quadratic Forms

Example: Let

$$V(x) = 2x_1^2 + 2x_2^2 + 2x_3^2 - 2x_1x_2 + 2kx_1x_3 - 2x_2x_3$$

, find k such that V(x) be positive definite.

Solution:



Vector Calculas


The *differentiation* of a scalar function $J(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ with respect to $\mathbf{x} = [x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_n]^T$ is calculated as follows:

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial J}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial J}{\partial x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial J}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$



Vector Calculas

The *differentiation* of a vector function $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = [f_1 \ f_2 \ \dots \ f_m]^T$ with respect to $\mathbf{x} = [x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_n]^T$ is a $m \times n$ *Jacobian matrix* of the following form:



$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n}$$



Vector Calculas

The *differentiation* of a scalar function $V(x(t))$ with respect to t is calculated by the following *chain rule*:

$$\frac{d}{dt}(V(x(t))) = \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \right)^T \frac{d\mathbf{x}}{dt}$$

where $\mathbf{x} = [x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_n]^T$ is a vector.

Example:



Vector Calculas

Let A be a matrix and x, y be vectors, then:

- $\frac{\partial(Ax)}{\partial x} = A$

- $\frac{\partial(x^T Ax)}{\partial x} = Ax + A^T x$, for A be a symmetric real matrix: $\frac{\partial(x^T Ax)}{\partial x} = 2Ax$

- $\frac{\partial(x^T Ay)}{\partial x} = Ay$

- $\frac{\partial(x^T Ay)}{\partial y} = Ax$



Comparison Function

- A scalar continuous function $\alpha(r)$, defined for $r \in [0, a)$, belongs to **class \mathcal{K}** if it is strictly increasing and $\alpha(0) = 0$. It belongs to **class \mathcal{K}_∞** , if it is defined for all $r \geq 0$ and $\alpha(r) \rightarrow \infty$, as $r \rightarrow \infty$.
- A scalar continuous function $\beta(r, s)$, defined for $r \in [0, a)$, and $s \in [0, \infty)$, belongs to **class \mathcal{KL}** if, for each fixed s , the mapping $\beta(r, s)$ belongs to class \mathcal{K} with respect to r and, for each fixed r , the mapping $\beta(r, s)$ is decreasing with respect to s and $\beta(r, s) \rightarrow 0$ as $s \rightarrow \infty$.



Comparison Function

Example: Let

$$\alpha(r) = \tan^{-1}(r) ; \gamma(r) = r^2 ; \beta(r, s) = \frac{r}{(ksr+1)}$$

, investigate the class of these functions

Solution:



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Linear Time Invariant Systems

A general linear time invariant dynamical system G with input $u(t)$ and output $y(t)$ can be described by the following differential equation:

$$y^{(n)}(t) + a_{n-1}y^{(n-1)}(t) + \dots + a_2\ddot{y}(t) + a_1\dot{y}(t) + a_0y(t) \\ = u^{(m)}(t) + b_{n-1}u^{(m-1)}(t) + \dots + b_2\ddot{u}(t) + b_1\dot{u}(t) + b_0u(t)$$



Linear Time Invariant Systems

There are two standard descriptions for LTI dynamical systems:

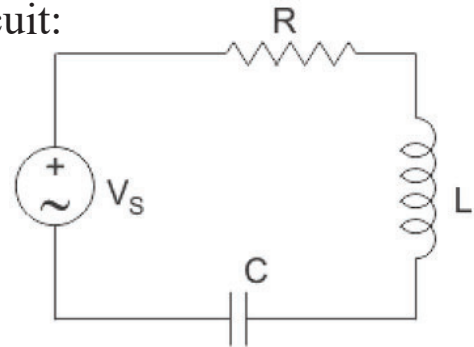
- **Transfer Function:** $G(s) = \frac{Y(s)}{U(s)}$

- **State Space:** $G \begin{cases} \dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t) \\ y(t) = Cx(t) + Du(t) \end{cases}$



Linear Time Invariant Systems

Example: Consider the following RLC circuit:



, find transfer function and state space representations of this LTI system.

Solution:



General Dynamical Systems

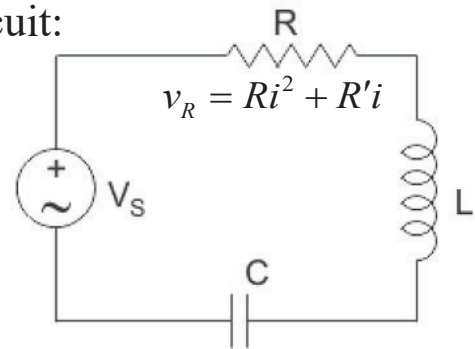
A general dynamical system G can be described by the following nonlinear time variant state space equations:

$$G \begin{cases} \dot{x}(t) = f(x(t), u(t), t) \\ y(t) = g(x(t), u(t), t) \end{cases}$$



General Dynamical Systems

Example: Consider the following RLC circuit:



, find the state space representation of this nonlinear system.

Solution:



Linearization

An **equilibrium point** x_{eq} of the nonlinear system $\dot{x} = f(x(t), u(t))$ is a point for which $f(x_{eq}, u(t) = 0) = 0$.

An **operating point** x_{op} of the nonlinear system $\dot{x} = f(x(t), u(t))$ with a nominal input $u(t) = u_{op}$ is a point for which $f(x_{op}, u(t) = u_{op}) = 0$.

Note that the operating point and the equilibrium point are usually defined the same



Linearization

Consider a nonlinear system represented as follows:

$$G \begin{cases} \dot{x}(t) = f(x(t), u(t), t) \\ y(t) = g(x(t), u(t), t) \end{cases}$$

The corresponding linear model, which defines the system's dynamic behavior about a specific operating point, is:

$$\begin{cases} \Delta \dot{x}(t) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Delta x(t) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial u} \Delta u(t) \\ \Delta y(t) = \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} \Delta x(t) + \frac{\partial g}{\partial u} \Delta u(t) \end{cases}$$

where $\Delta x = x - x_{op}$, $\Delta u = u - u_{op}$ and $\Delta y = y - y_{op}$



Linearization

Example: Consider the following nonlinear system:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1(t) = x_2(t) \\ \dot{x}_2(t) = \mu x_2(t) + \lambda \sin(x_1(t)) + u(t) \end{cases}$$

where μ, λ are constant parameters. Find the equilibrium points and its corresponding linear model.

Solution:



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Input-Output Stability

A system is **BIBO (bounded-input bounded-output) stable** if every bounded input produces a bounded output.

A SISO system is **BIBO stable** if and only if its impulse response $g(t)$ is absolutely integrable in the interval $[0, \infty)$.

Recall that the response of a LTI system is composed of:
response to initial conditions + response to inputs

The concept of Input-Output Stability refers to stability of the response to inputs only, assuming zero initial conditions.



Input-Output Stability

A LTI system with proper rational transfer matrix $G(s) = [G_{ij}(s)]$ is **BIBO stable** if and only if every pole of every entry $G_{ij}(s)$ of $G(s)$ has negative real part. When the system is represented by state space equations:

$$G \begin{cases} \dot{x}(t) = Ax(t) + Bu(t) \\ y(t) = Cx(t) + Du(t) \end{cases}$$

, the **BIBO stability** will depend on the eigenvalues of the matrix A , since every pole of $G(s)$ is an eigenvalue of A

Note: not every **eigenvalue** of A is a **pole** of $G(s)$, since there may be pole-zero cancellations while computing $G(s)$. Thus, a state equation may be BIBO stable even when some eigenvalues of A do not have negative real part.



Internal Stability

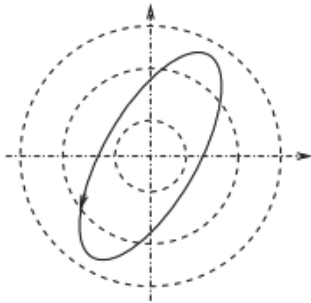
The system $\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t)$ is **Lyapunov stable**, or **marginally stable**, or **simply stable**, if every finite initial state x_0 excites a bounded response $x(t)$.

The system $\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t)$ is **asymptotically stable** if every finite initial state x_0 excites a bounded response $x(t)$ that approaches 0 as $t \rightarrow \infty$

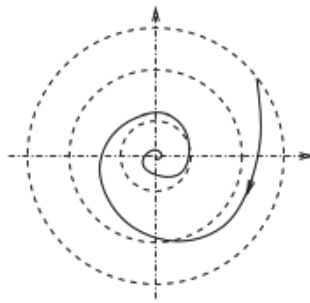
The system $\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t)$ is **unstable** if it is not stable



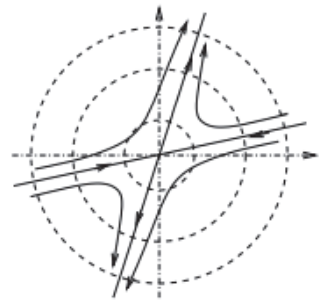
Internal Stability



Lyapunov Stability



Asymptotic Stability



Instability



Internal Stability

The equation $\dot{x}(t) = Ax(t)$ is:

- **Lyapunov stable** if and only if all the eigenvalues of A have zero or negative real parts, and those with zero real part are associated with a Jordan block of order 1.
- **Asymptotically stable** if and only if all eigenvalues of A have negative real parts.



Lyapunov Theorem

- An equilibrium point $x_{eq} = 0$ is stable *in the sense of Lyapunov* if for all $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $\|x(0)\| < \delta$ implies $\|x(t)\| < \varepsilon$ for all $t \geq 0$. Otherwise, the equilibrium point $x_{eq} = 0$ is *unstable*.
- An equilibrium point $x_{eq} = 0$ is *asymptotically stable* if it is stable, and if in addition there exists some $r > 0$ such that $\|x(0)\| < r$ implies that $x(t) \rightarrow 0$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$.
- An equilibrium point $x_{eq} = 0$ is *exponentially stable* if there exist two strictly positive numbers α and λ such that
$$\|x(t)\| \leq \alpha \|x(0)\| e^{-\lambda t} ; \forall t > 0$$
in some ball around the origin.



Lyapunov Theorem

Note: If asymptotic (or exponential) stability holds for any initial states, the equilibrium point is said to be asymptotically (or exponentially) stable in the large. It is also called *globally asymptotically (or exponentially) stable*.



Lyapunov Theorem

An equilibrium point $x_{eq} = 0$ is stable *in the sense of Lyapunov* if there exists a scalar function $V(x)$ with continuous first partial derivatives in a region around origin such that

- $V(x)$ is positive definite.
- $\dot{V}(x)$ is semi-negative definite.

If, actually, the derivative $\dot{V}(x)$ is locally negative definite a region around origin, then the stability is *asymptotic*.



Lyapunov Theorem

Example: Consider the following nonlinear system:

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = -x_1 - 2x_2^2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = x_1x_2 - x_2^3 \end{cases}$$

, evaluate the stability of this system.

Solution:



Lyapunov Theorem

The system $\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t), u(t))$ is *input-to-state stable* if there exist $\beta \in \mathcal{KL}$ and $\gamma \in \mathcal{K}$ such that for any initial state $x(t_0)$ and any bounded input $u(t)$

$$\|x(t)\| \leq \max \left\{ \beta(\|x(t_0)\|, t - t_0), \gamma \left(\sup_{t_0 \leq \tau \leq t} \|u(\tau)\| \right) \right\}$$

for all $t \geq t_0$



Lyapunov Theorem

Uniformly Ultimately bounded



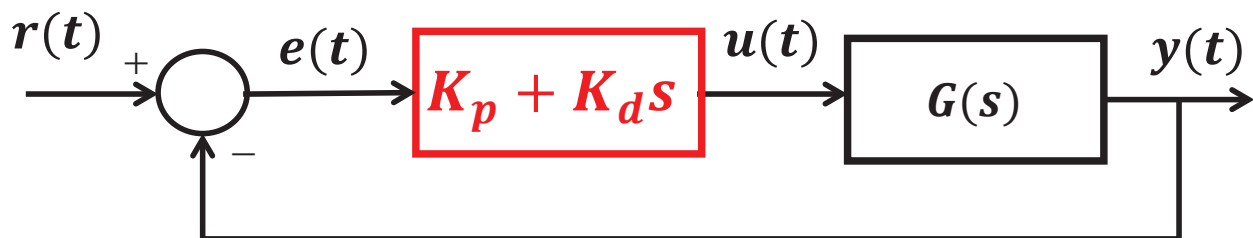
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Linear Controllers

- **PD Controller:** $K_p + K_d \frac{d(\cdot)}{dt}$



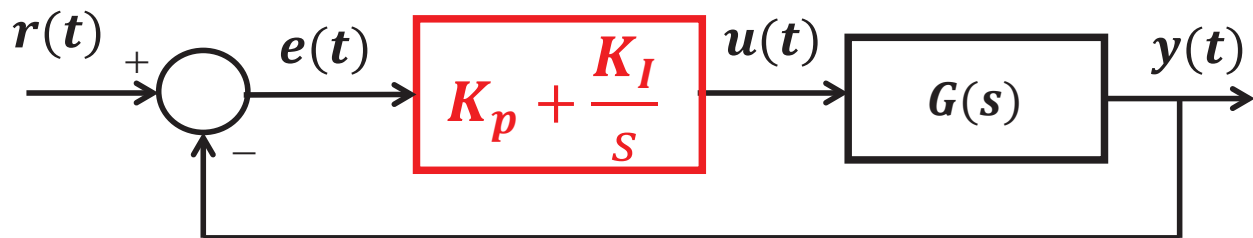
Lead Controller: $K \frac{\alpha s + 1}{\beta s + 1}$
 ; for $\frac{1}{\alpha} < \frac{1}{\beta}$

- *Improve stability*
- *Reduce the overshoot*
- *Decrease the rise time*
- *Increase the system bandwidth*



Linear Controllers

- **PI Controller:** $K_p + K_I \int (\cdot) dt$



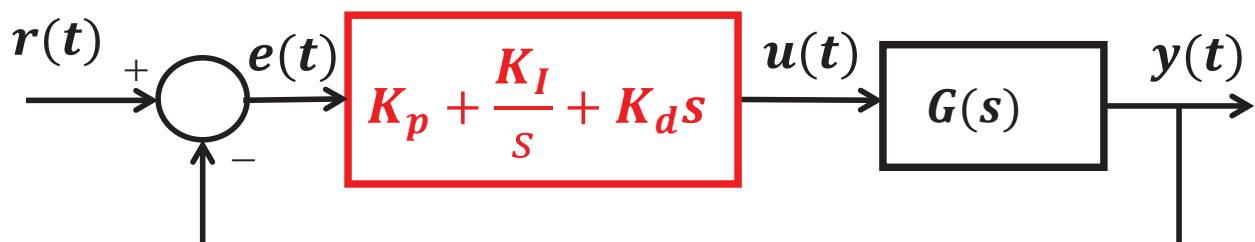
Lag Controller: $K \frac{\lambda s + 1}{\gamma s + 1}$
; for $\frac{1}{\lambda} > \frac{1}{\gamma}$

- *Improve the steady-state error*
- *Low-pass filter*
- *Decrease the system bandwidth*



Linear Controllers

- **PID Controller:** $K_p + K_I \int (\cdot) dt + K_d \frac{d(\cdot)}{dt}$



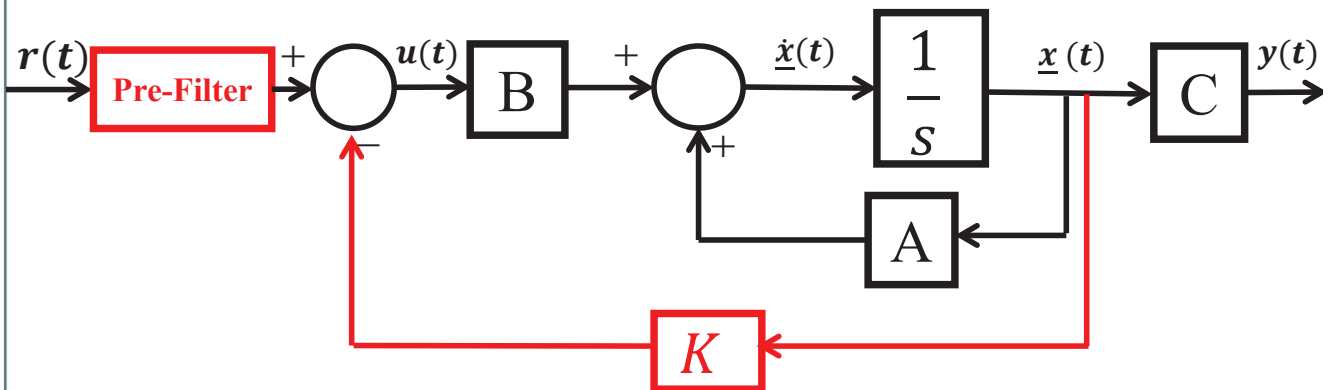
Lead – Lag Controller

- *Improve the steady-state error*
- *Improve the transient response*
- *Band-stop filter*



Linear Controllers

State Feedback:



$A - BK$: Hurwitz

$$u(t) = -K\underline{x}(t) + \{C[-(A - BK)]^{-1}B\}^{-1}r(t)$$

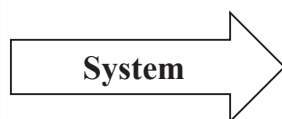
Stability

Tracking



Linear Estimator

Observer:



$$\begin{aligned}\dot{\underline{x}}(t) &= A\underline{x}(t) + B\underline{u}(t) \\ \underline{y}(t) &= C\underline{x}(t)\end{aligned}$$

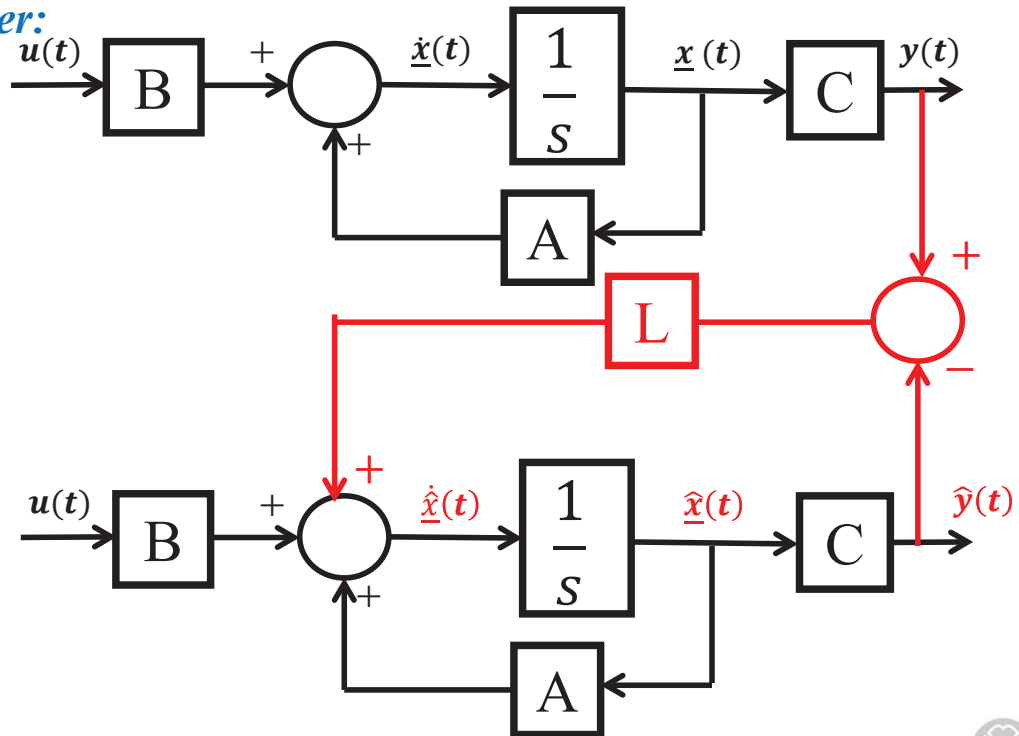


$$\begin{aligned}\dot{\underline{\hat{x}}}(t) &= A\underline{\hat{x}}(t) + L(y(t) - C\underline{\hat{x}}(t)) + B\underline{u}(t) \\ \underline{\hat{y}}(t) &= C\underline{\hat{x}}(t)\end{aligned}$$



Linear Estimator

- *Observer:*



Cost Function Based Linear Controllers

- *Optimal Controller*
- *Predictive Controller*
- *Robust Controller*
-



Nonlinear Controllers

- *Feedback Linearization*
- *Sliding Mode Controller*
- *Backstepping Controller*
- *Dynamic Surface Controller*
-

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Design Issue

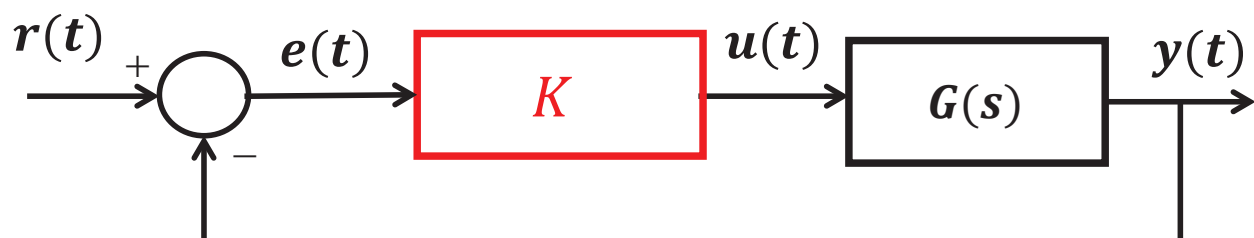
Many issues have to be considered in analysis and design of control systems. The basic requirements are:

- *Stability*
- *Ability to follow reference signals*
- *Reduction of effects of load disturbances*
- *Reduction of effects of measurement noise*
- *Reduction of effects of model uncertainties*



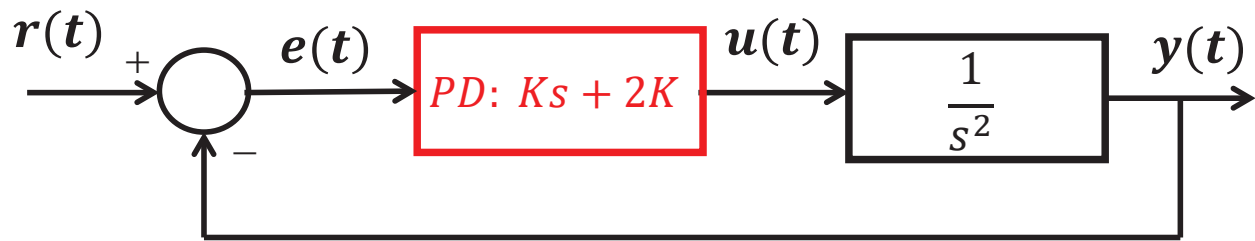
Root Locus Technique

The root locus is used to study the location of the poles of the closed loop transfer function of a given linear system as a function of its parameters, usually a loop gain, given its open loop transfer function.



Root Locus Technique

Example: Consider the following linear system:



, study the effect of gain variation on the system poles.

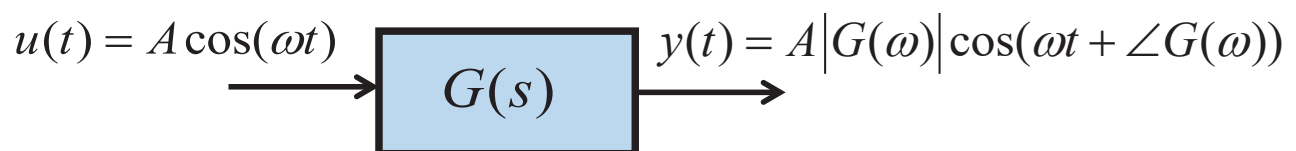
Solution:



Frequency Methods

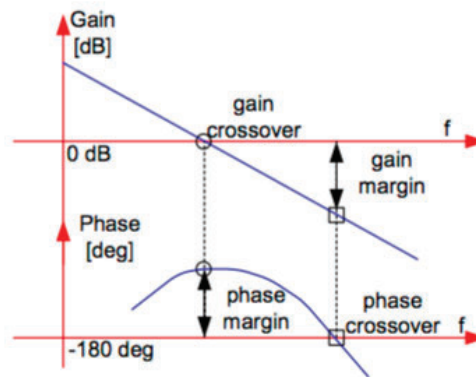
In the **Bode Plot**, the magnitude in decibels is plotted against the logarithm of the frequency; on a separate plot, the phase in degrees is plotted against the logarithm of the frequency.

The **Nyquist plot** is a plot in the complex plane of $\text{Re}\{G(s)\}$ and $\text{Im}\{G(s)\}$ for $s = j\omega$ as ω goes from zero to infinity.



Frequency Methods

- The **gain crossover frequency** ω_g is defined as the frequency at which the total magnitude equals 0 dB.
- The **phase crossover frequency** ω_p is defined as the frequency at which the total phase equals -180° .



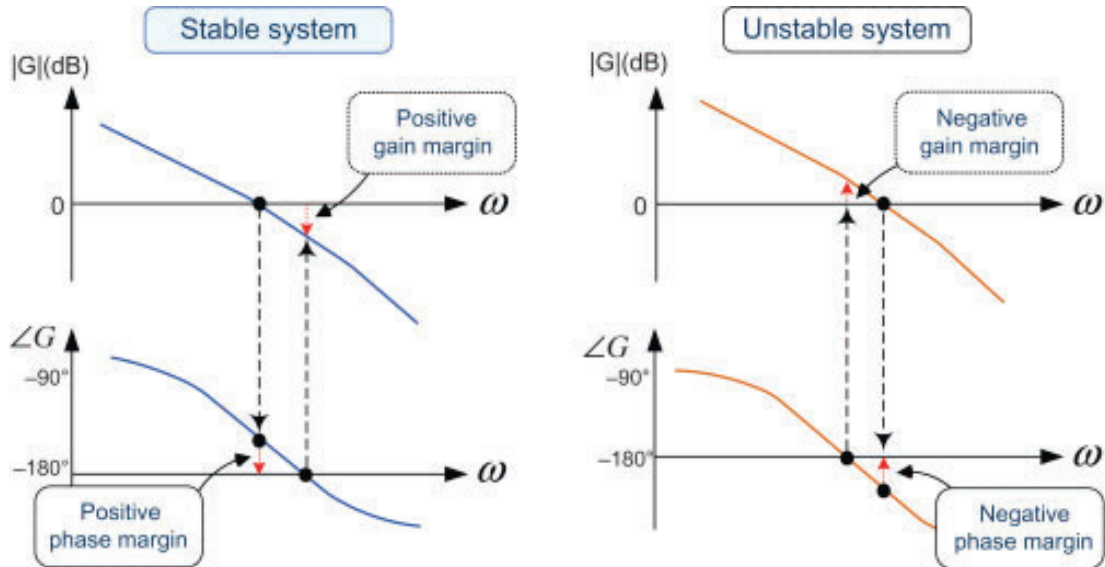
Frequency Methods

- The system **Gain Margin** (GM) in dB is the additional gain that makes the system on the edge of instability. GM can be determined by calculating the total magnitude at $\omega = \omega_p$.
- The system **Phase Margin** (PM) in degrees is the additional phase that makes the system on the edge of instability. PM can be determined by calculating the total phase at $\omega = \omega_g$.



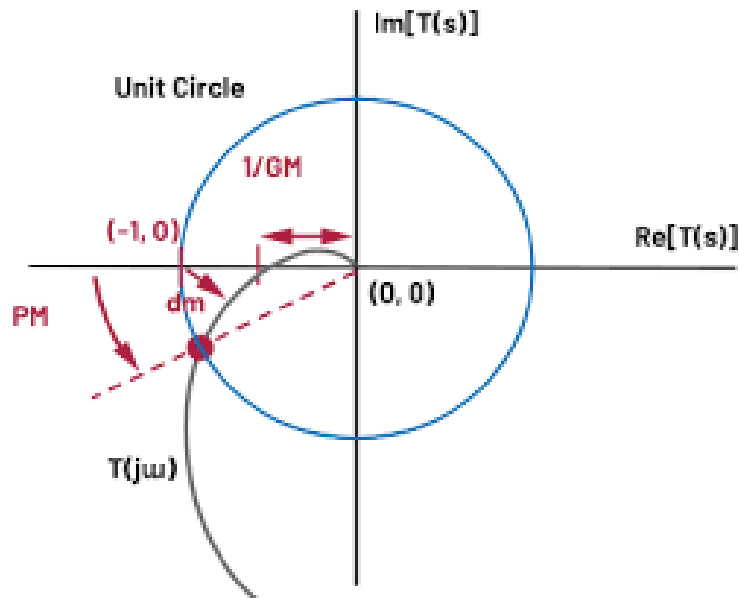
Frequency Methods

Bode Plot



Frequency Methods

Nyquist Plot





Thanks

