



<http://elec3004.org>

State-Space – Analysis: Controllability & Observability & Stability

ELEC 3004: Digital Linear Systems: Signals & Controls

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Lecture 11

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Schedule

Week	Date	Lecture Title
1	2-Mar	Introduction
2	9-Mar	Signals as Vectors & Systems as Maps
3	16-Mar	Sampling & Data Acquisition & Antialiasing Filters
4	23-Mar	Convolution & FFT
5	30-Mar	Discrete Systems & Z-Transforms
6	6-Apr	Frequency Response & Filter Analysis
7	13-Apr	Digital Filters
8	20-Apr	Discrete Systems Analysis
9	27-Apr	Feedback
10	4-May	Introduction to (Digital) Control
11	11-May	Digital Control Design
12	18-May	State-Space - Analysis
13	25-May	Stability
14	1-Jun	Digital Control Systems: Shaping the Dynamic Response
15	2-Jun	Applications in Industry
16	3-Jun	System Identification & [Summary and Course Review]
17	10-Jun	Information Theory + Communications

Outline:

- (1) Review: PID
- (2) Expand on State-Space Representations
- (3) Controllability
- (4) Observability
- (5) Stability

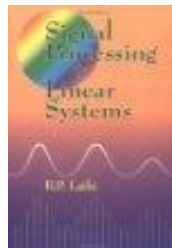


ELEC 3004: Systems

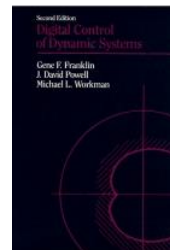
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** Additional Reading Materials **



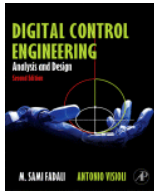
- Chapter 13
State Space Analysis
 - “s-plane”
 - $tf \rightarrow ss$



- Chapter 6
[Design of Digital Control Systems Using State-Space Methods](#)
 - Extends to “z-plane”
 - $c2d$



Online Reading Materials



[M. Sami Fadali and Antonio Visioli](#)

[Digital Control Engineering Analysis & Design \(2nd Edition\), 2012](#)

Online via [ScienceDirect](#)

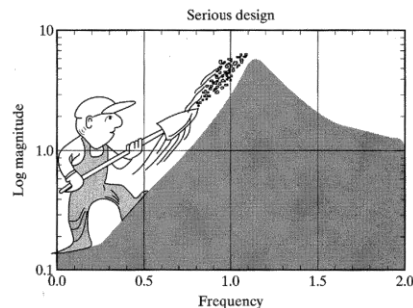
Chapter 7: [State Space Representation](#)

Chapter 9: [State Feedback Control](#)



Seeing PID – No Free Lunch

- The energy (and sensitivity) moves around (in this case in “frequency”)



- Sensitivity reduction at low frequency unavoidably leads to sensitivity increase at higher frequencies.

Source: Gunter Stein's interpretation of the water bed effect – G. Stein, *IEEE Control Systems Magazine*, 2003.



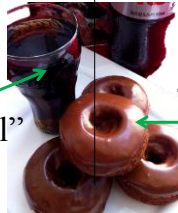
Another way to see P I|D

- Derivative

D provides:

- High sensitivity
- Responds to change
- Adds “damping” & \therefore permits larger K_P
- Noise sensitive
- Not used alone
(\because its on rate change of error – by itself it wouldn't get there)

→ “Diet Coke of control”



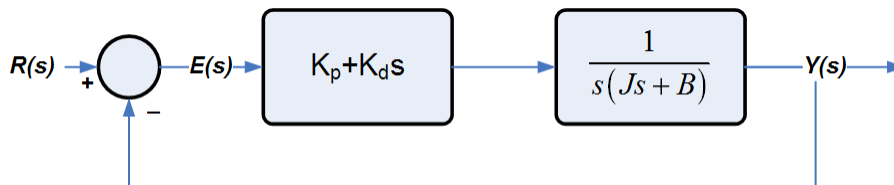
- Integral

- Eliminates offsets (makes regulation ☺)
- Leads to Oscillatory behaviour
- Adds an “order” but instability
(Makes a 2nd order system 3rd order)

→ “Interesting cake of control”



PD for 2nd Order Systems



- Consider:

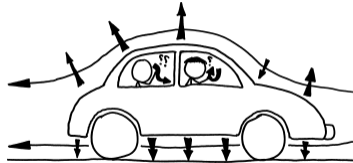
$$\frac{Y(s)}{R(s)} = \frac{(K_P + K_D s)}{Js^2 + (B + K_D)s + K_P}$$

- Steady-state error: $e_{ss} = \frac{B}{K_P}$
- Characteristic equation: $Js^2 + (B + K_D)s + K_P = 0$
- Damping Ratio: $\zeta = \frac{B + K_D}{2\sqrt{K_P J}}$

→ It is possible to make e_{ss} and overshoot small (\downarrow) by making B small (\downarrow), K_P large \uparrow , K_D such that ζ : between [0.4 – 0.7]



Can Be Used to Make (& Get Over) Speed Bumps



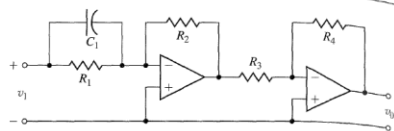
Source: xkcd - <http://what-if-xkcd.com/61/>
 "How fast can you hit a speed bump while driving and live?"



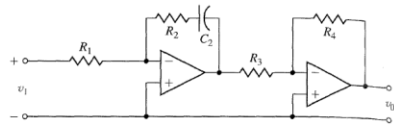
Operational Amplifier Circuits for Compensators

Type of Controller $G_c(s) = \frac{V_o(s)}{V_i(s)}$

PD $G_c = \frac{R_4 R_2}{R_3 R_1} (R_1 C_1 s + 1)$



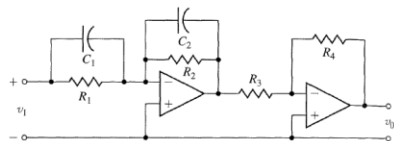
PI $G_c = \frac{R_4 R_2 (R_2 C_2 s + 1)}{R_3 R_1 (R_2 C_2 s + 1)}$



Lead or lag $G_c = \frac{R_4 R_2 (R_1 C_1 s + 1)}{R_3 R_1 (R_2 C_2 s + 1)}$

Lead if $R_1 C_1 > R_2 C_2$

Lag if $R_1 C_1 < R_2 C_2$



- (Yet Another Way to See PID)

Source: Dorf & Bishop, *Modern Control Systems*, p. 828



State-Space Control

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{F}\mathbf{x}$$

(That can not be all of it? There has to be more to it than this...)



State-Space Control

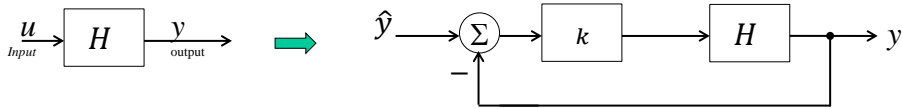
$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{F}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{G}\mathbf{u}$$

Benefits:

- Characterises the process by systems of coupled, first-order differential equations
- More general mathematical model
 - MIMO, time-varying, nonlinear
- Mathematically esoteric (who needs practical solutions)
- Yet, well suited for digital computer implementation
 - That is: based on vectors/matrices (think LAPACK → MATLAB)



Difference Equations & Feedback



- Start with the Open-Loop:

$$y = Hu$$

- Close the loop:

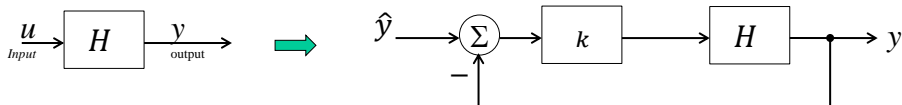
$$u = ke = k(\hat{y} - y) \rightarrow y = H[k(\hat{y} - y)]$$

$$\rightarrow y = \frac{Hk}{1+Hk} \hat{y}$$

- All easy! (yes!)



Difference Equations & Feedback



- Now add delay (image the plant is a replica with a delay τ)

$$y(t) = u(t - \tau)$$

- Close the loop:

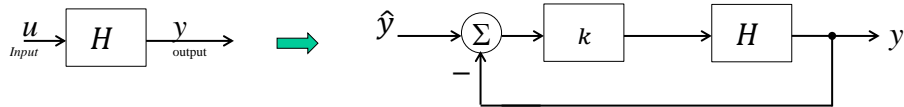
$$u(t - \tau) = ke(t - \tau) = k [\hat{y}(t - \tau) - y(t - \tau)]$$

$$\rightarrow y(t) = k [\hat{y}(t - \tau) - y(t - \tau)]$$

- Notice we have a difference equation!



Difference Equations & Feedback



- What happens with a single delay and a unit step?

$$u(t) = k \text{ for } 0 < t < \tau$$

$$y(t) = u(t - \tau) \text{ for } \tau < t < 2\tau$$

- Then with feedback we get:

$$u(t) = k(1 - k) = k - k^2$$

$$y(t) = k - k^2 + k^3 + \dots + (-1)^{n-1} k^n$$

- If $k < 1$: then:

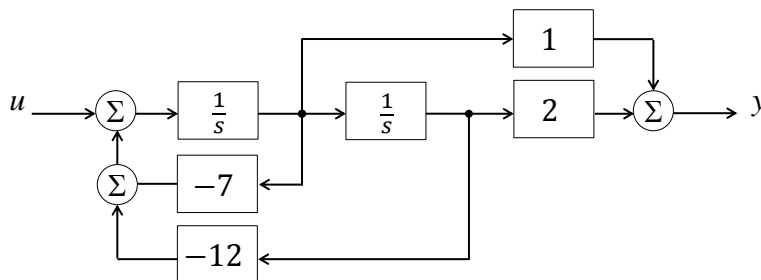
$$\rightarrow \lim y(t) = \frac{k}{1+k}$$



Introduction to state-space

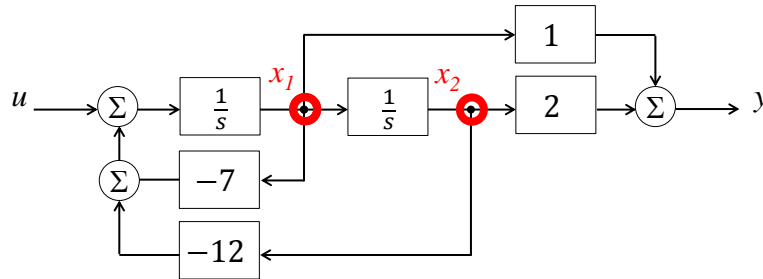
- Linear systems can be written as networks of simple dynamic elements:

$$H = \frac{s+2}{s^2+7s+12} = \frac{2}{s+4} + \frac{-1}{s+3}$$



Introduction to state-space

- We can identify the nodes in the system
 - These nodes contain the integrated time-history values of the system response
 - We call them “states”



Linear system equations

- We can represent the dynamic relationship between the states with a linear system:

$$\dot{x}_1 = -7x_1 - 12x_2 + u$$

$$\dot{x}_2 = x_1 + 0x_2 + 0u$$

$$y = x_1 + 2x_2 + 0u$$



State-space representation

- We can write linear systems in matrix form:

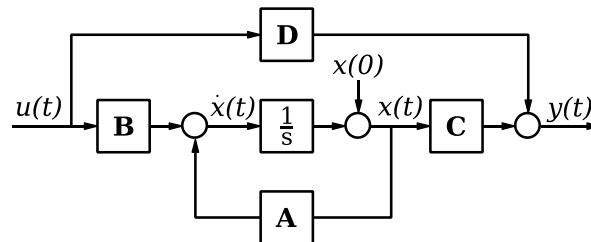
$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} -7 & 12 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} + \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} u$$
$$\mathbf{y} = [1 \quad 2] \mathbf{x} + 0u$$

Or, more generally:

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{\mathbf{x}} &= \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{B}u \\ \mathbf{y} &= \mathbf{C}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{D}u \end{aligned} \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{aligned} \dot{\mathbf{x}} &= \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{B}u \\ \mathbf{y} &= \mathbf{C}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{D}u \end{aligned}} \right\} \text{“State-space equations”}$$



State-Space Terminology



$$\dot{x}(t) = A(t)x(t) + B(t)u(t)$$

$$y(t) = C(t)x(t) + D(t)u(t)$$



LTI State-Space

$$\dot{x}(t) = A(t)x(t) + B(t)u(t)$$

$$y(t) = C(t)x(t) + D(t)u(t)$$

- If the system is **linear and time invariant**,
then A,B,C,D are constant coefficient

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

$$\rightarrow y = Cx + Du$$



Discrete Time State-Space

$$\dot{x}(t) = A(t)x(t) + B(t)u(t)$$

$$y(t) = C(t)x(t) + D(t)u(t)$$

- If the system is **discrete**,
then x and u are given by difference equations

$$\rightarrow x[k+1] = A[k]x[k] + B[k]u[k]$$

$$y[k] = C[k]x[k] + D[k]u[k]$$

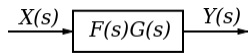
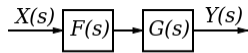
$$\rightarrow x^+ = Ax + Bu$$

$$y = Cx + Du$$



Block Diagram Algebra in State Space

- Series:



$$\begin{bmatrix} x'_G \\ x'_F \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_G & B_G C_F \\ 0 & A_F \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_G \\ x_F \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} B_G D_F \\ B_F \end{bmatrix} u$$

System 1:

$$\begin{aligned} x'_F &= A_F x_F + B_F u \\ y_F &= C_F x_F + D_F u \end{aligned}$$

System 2:

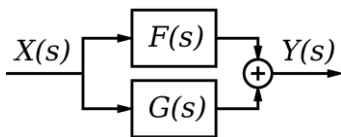
$$\begin{aligned} x'_G &= A_G x_G + B_G y_F \\ y_G &= C_G x_G + D_G y_F \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_G \\ y_F \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} C_G & D_G C_F \\ 0 & C_F \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_G \\ x_F \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} D_G D_F \\ D_F \end{bmatrix} u$$



Block Diagram Algebra in State Space

- Parallel:



$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x}_1 \\ \dot{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A_1 & 0 \\ 0 & A_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} B_1 \\ B_2 \end{bmatrix} u$$

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} C_1 & C_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} + (D_1 + D_2)u$$



State-space representation

- State-space matrices are not necessarily a unique representation of a system
 - There are two common forms
- Control canonical form
 - Each node – each entry in \mathbf{x} – represents a state of the system (each order of s maps to a state)
- Modal form
 - Diagonals of the state matrix \mathbf{A} are the poles (“modes”) of the transfer function



Why is this “Kind of awesome”?

- The controllability of a system depends on the particular set of states you chose
- You can’t tell just from a transfer function whether all the states of \mathbf{x} are controllable
- The poles of the system are the Eigenvalues of \mathbf{F} , (p_i) .



State evolution

- Consider the system matrix relation:

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{F}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{G}u$$

$$y = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x} + Ju$$

The time solution of this system is:

$$\mathbf{x}(t) = e^{\mathbf{F}(t-t_0)} \mathbf{x}(t_0) + \int_{t_0}^t e^{\mathbf{F}(t-\tau)} \mathbf{G}u(\tau) d\tau$$

If you didn't know, the matrix exponential is:

$$e^{\mathbf{K}t} = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{K}t + \frac{1}{2!} \mathbf{K}^2 t^2 + \frac{1}{3!} \mathbf{K}^3 t^3 + \dots$$



Controllability matrix

- To convert an arbitrary state representation in \mathbf{F} , \mathbf{G} , \mathbf{H} and J to control canonical form \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{B} , \mathbf{C} and D , the “controllability matrix”

$$\mathbf{C} = [\mathbf{G} \quad \mathbf{F}\mathbf{G} \quad \mathbf{F}^2\mathbf{G} \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{F}^{n-1}\mathbf{G}]$$

must be nonsingular.

Why is it called the “controllability” matrix?



Controllability matrix

- If you can write it in CCF, then the system equations must be linearly independent.
- Transformation by any nonsingular matrix preserves the controllability of the system.
- Thus, a nonsingular controllability matrix means \mathbf{x} can be driven to any value.



Great, so how about control?

- Given $\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{F}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{G}u$, if we know \mathbf{F} and \mathbf{G} , we can design a controller $u = -\mathbf{K}\mathbf{x}$ such that
$$\text{eig}(\mathbf{F} - \mathbf{G}\mathbf{K}) < 0$$
- In fact, if we have full measurement and control of the states of \mathbf{x} , we can position the poles of the system in arbitrary locations!

(Of course, that never happens in reality.)



Solving State Space...

- Recall:

$$\dot{x} = f(x, u, t)$$

- For Linear Systems:

$$\dot{x}(t) = A(t)x(t) + B(t)u(t)$$

$$y(t) = C(t)x(t) + D(t)u(t)$$

- For LTI:

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

$$\rightarrow y = Cx + Du$$



→ Solutions to State Equations

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

$$sX(s) - x(0) = AX(s) + BU(s)$$

$$X(s) = (sI - A)^{-1}x(0) + (sI - A)^{-1}BU(s)$$

$$X(s) = \mathcal{L}[e^{At}]x(0) + \mathcal{L}[e^{At}]BU(s)$$

$$x(t) = \int_0^t e^{A\tau} Bu(\tau) d\tau$$

$$\Rightarrow e^{At}$$



→ State-Transition Matrix Φ

- $\Phi(t) = e^{At} = \mathcal{L}^{-1}[(sI - A)^{-1}]$
- It contains all the information about the free motions of the system described by $\dot{x} = Ax$

LTI Properties:

- $\Phi(0) = e^{0t} = I$
- $\Phi^{-1}(t) = \Phi(-t)$
- $\Phi(t_1 + t_2) = \Phi(t_1)\Phi(t_2) = \Phi(t_2)\Phi(t_1)$
- $[\Phi(t)]^n = \Phi(nt)$

→ The closed-loop poles are the eigenvalues of the system matrix



Example: PID control

- Consider a system parameterised by three states:
 - x_1, x_2, x_3
 - where $x_2 = \dot{x}_1$ and $x_3 = \dot{x}_2$

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & 1 & \\ & & -2 \end{bmatrix} x - Ku \\ y &= [0 \quad 1 \quad 0]x + 0u\end{aligned}$$

x_2 is the output state of the system;
 x_1 is the value of the integral;
 x_3 is the velocity.



Example: PID control [2]

- We can choose \mathbf{K} to move the eigenvalues of the system as desired:

$$\det \begin{bmatrix} 1 - K_1 & & \\ & 1 - K_2 & \\ & & -2 - K_3 \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

All of these eigenvalues must be positive.

It's straightforward to see how adding derivative gain K_3 can stabilise the system.



Digital State Space:

- Difference equations in state-space form:

$$x[n + 1] = Ax[n] + Bu[n]$$

$$y[n] = Cx[n] + Du[n]$$

- Where:
 - $u[n], y[n]$: input & output (scalars)
 - $x[n]$: state vector



Digital Control Law Design

In Chapter 2, we saw that the state-space description of a continuous system is given by (2.43),

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{F}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{G}u, \quad (6.1)$$

and (2.44),

$$y = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}. \quad (6.2)$$

We assume the control is applied from the computer by a ZOH as shown in Fig. 1.1. Therefore, (6.1) and (6.2) have an exact discrete representation as given by (2.57),

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}(k+1) &= \Phi \mathbf{x}(k) + \Gamma u(k), \\ y(k) &= \mathbf{H}\mathbf{x}(k), \end{aligned} \quad (6.3)$$

where

$$\Phi = e^{\mathbf{F}T}, \quad (6.4a)$$

$$\Gamma = \int_0^T e^{\mathbf{F}\eta} d\eta \mathbf{G}, \quad (6.4b)$$



Discretisation FTW!

- We can use the time-domain representation to produce difference equations!

$$\mathbf{x}(kT + T) = e^{\mathbf{F}T} \mathbf{x}(kT) + \int_{kT}^{kT+T} e^{\mathbf{F}(kT+T-\tau)} \mathbf{G}u(\tau) d\tau$$

Notice $\mathbf{u}(\tau)$ is not based on a discrete ZOH input, but rather an integrated time-series.

We can structure this by using the form:

$$u(\tau) = u(kT), \quad kT \leq \tau \leq kT + T$$



State-space z-transform

We can apply the z-transform to our system:

$$(z\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{\Phi})\mathbf{X}(z) = \mathbf{\Gamma}U(k)$$
$$Y(z) = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{X}(z)$$

which yields the transfer function:

$$\frac{Y(z)}{X(z)} = G(z) = \mathbf{H}(z\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{\Phi})^{-1}\mathbf{\Gamma}$$



State-space control design

¿¿¿Que pasa????

- Design for discrete state-space systems is just like the continuous case.
 - Apply linear state-variable feedback:

$$u = -\mathbf{K}\mathbf{x}$$

$$\text{such that } \det(z\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{\Phi} + \mathbf{\Gamma}\mathbf{K}) = \alpha_c(z)$$

where $\alpha_c(z)$ is the desired control characteristic equation

Predictably, this requires the system controllability matrix

$$\mathcal{C} = [\mathbf{\Gamma} \quad \mathbf{\Phi}\mathbf{\Gamma} \quad \mathbf{\Phi}^2\mathbf{\Gamma} \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{\Phi}^{n-1}\mathbf{\Gamma}] \text{ to be full-rank.}$$



Can you use this for more than Control?

• Yes



Frequency Response in State Space

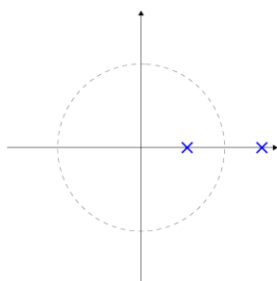
$$H(z) = C(zI - A)^{-1}B + D = \frac{1}{100z^2 - 200z + 80}$$

Poles at $\approx 0.55, 1.45$.

Eigenvalues of A :

1, 1, 1.45, .55

What are the (physical) implications?



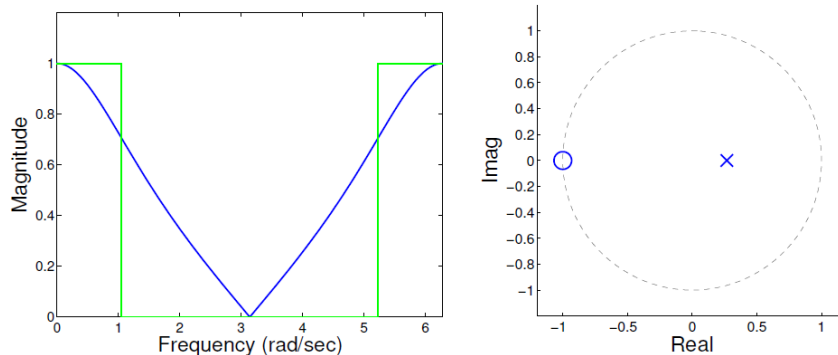
The Approach:

- Formulate the goal of control as an **optimization** (e.g. minimal impulse response, minimal effort, ...).
- You've already seen some examples of optimization-based design:
 - Used least-squares to obtain an FIR system which matched (in the least-squares sense) the desired frequency response.
 - Poles/zeros lecture: Butterworth filter

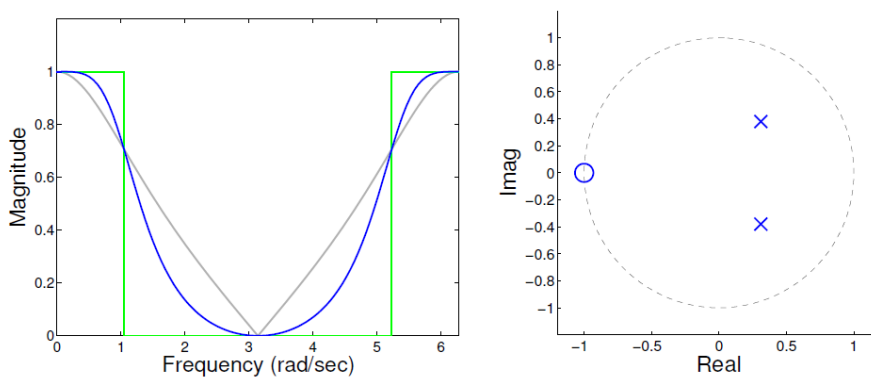


Discrete Time Butterworth Filters

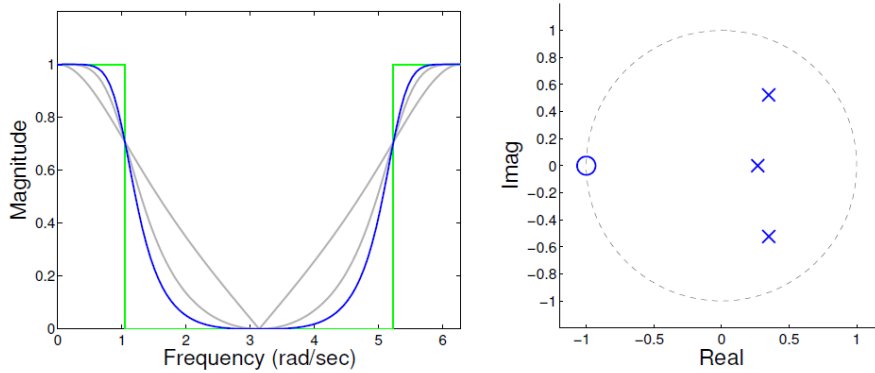
“Maximally-flat filter”. Sacrifice sharpness to have flat response in pass band and stop band.



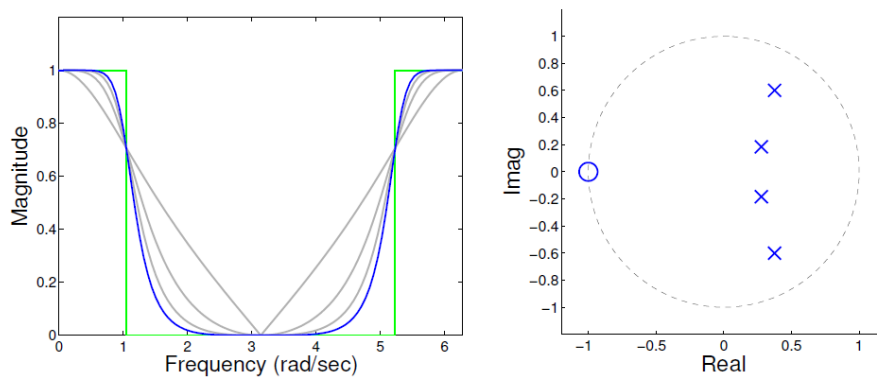
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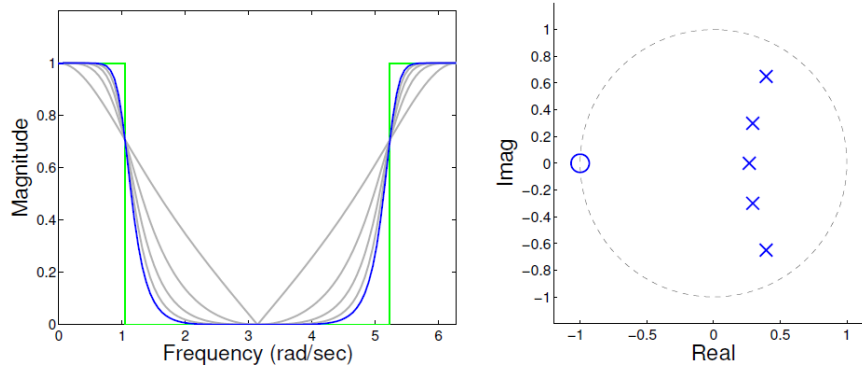
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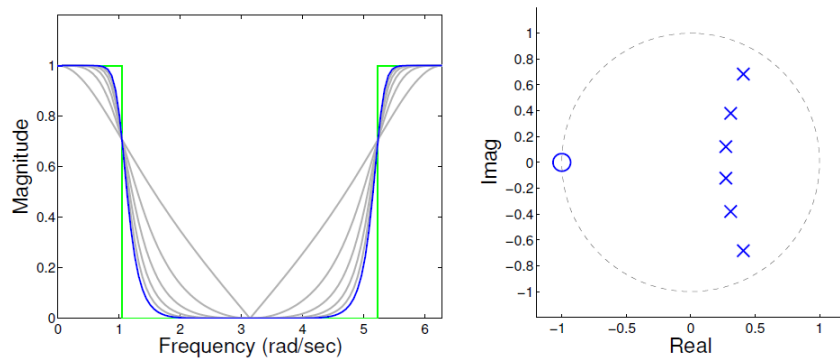
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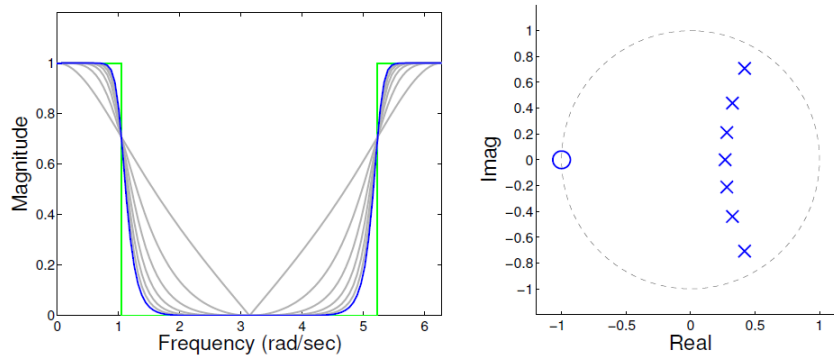
“Maximally-flat filter”. Sacrifice sharpness to have flat response in pass band and stop band.



“Maximally-flat filter”. Sacrifice sharpness to have flat response in pass band and stop band.



“Maximally-flat filter”. Sacrifice sharpness to have flat response in pass band and stop band.



How?

- Constrained Least-Squares ...

One formulation: Given $x[0]$

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{u[0], u[1], \dots, u[N]}{\text{minimize}} \quad \|\vec{u}\|^2, \quad \text{where } \vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u[0] \\ u[1] \\ \vdots \\ u[N] \end{bmatrix} \\ & \text{subject to} \quad x[N] = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Note that

$$x[n] = A^n x[0] + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} A^{n-1-k} B u[k],$$

so this problem can be written as

$$\underset{x_{ls}}{\text{minimize}} \quad \|A_{ls} x_{ls} - b_{ls}\|^2 \quad \text{subject to} \quad C_{ls} x_{ls} = D_{ls}.$$

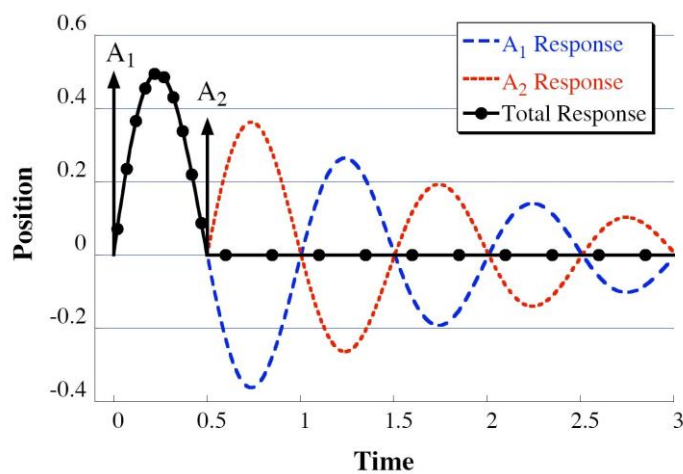


Example 2: Command Shaping

ELEC 3004: Systems

18 May 2015 - 51

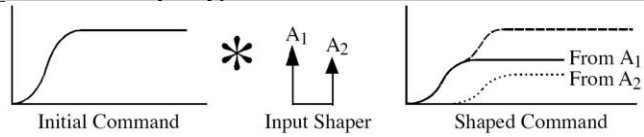
Command Shaping



ELEC 3004: Systems

18 May 2015 - 52

Command Shaping



- Zero Vibration (ZV)

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_i \\ t_i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{1+K} & \frac{K}{1+K} \\ 0 & \frac{T_d}{2} \end{bmatrix} \quad K = e^{\left(\frac{-\zeta\pi}{\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}} \right)}$$

- Zero Vibration and Derivative (ZVD)

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_i \\ t_i \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{(1+K)^2} & \frac{2K}{(1+K)^2} & \frac{K^2}{(1+K)^2} \\ 0 & \frac{T_d}{2} & T_d \end{bmatrix}$$

