



# **FRTN10 Multivariable Control, Lecture 2**

**Automatic Control LTH, 2016**

# Course Outline

L1-L5 Specifications, models and loop-shaping by hand

- 1 Introduction
- 2 **Stability and robustness**
- 3 Specifications and disturbance models
- 4 Control synthesis in frequency domain
- 5 Case study

L6-L8 Limitations on achievable performance

L9-L11 Controller optimization: Analytic approach

L12-L14 Controller optimization: Numerical approach

# Lecture 2 – Outline

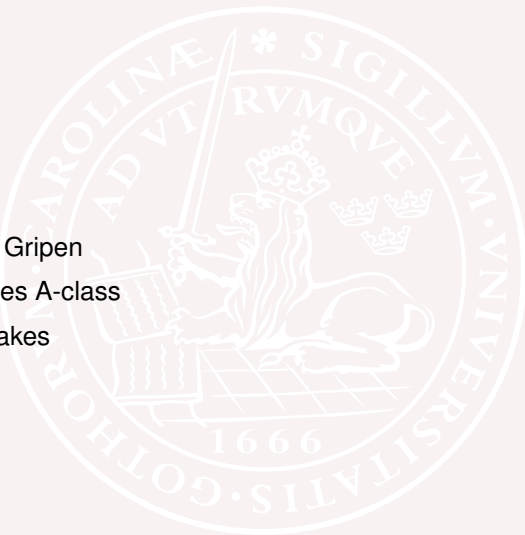
- 
- The seal of the University of Gothenburg is a large, faint, circular watermark in the background. It features a central figure, likely a lion or a similar heraldic animal, holding a sword. The text around the border includes "SIGILLVM · VNIVERSITATIS · GOTHORVNI · CAROLINÆ · VT · RVMQVE" and the year "1666" at the bottom.
- 1 Stability
  - 2 Sensitivity and robustness
  - 3 The Small Gain Theorem
  - 4 Singular values

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# Stability is crucial

- bicycle
- JAS 39 Gripen
- Mercedes A-class
- ABS brakes



# Input–output stability



A system is called **input–output stable** (or “ $\mathcal{L}_2$  stable” or just “stable”) if its  $\mathcal{L}_2$  gain is finite:

$$\|\mathcal{S}\| = \sup_u \frac{\|\mathcal{S}(u)\|_2}{\|u\|_2} < \infty$$

# Input–output stability of LTI systems

For an LTI system  $\mathcal{S}$  with impulse response  $g(t)$  and transfer function  $G(s)$ , the following stability conditions are equivalent:

- $\|\mathcal{S}\|$  is bounded
- $g(t)$  decays exponentially
- $\int_0^\infty |g(t)| dt$  is bounded
- All poles of  $G(s)$  have negative real part

# Internal stability

The autonomous LTI system

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = Ax$$

is called **exponentially stable** if the following equivalent conditions hold:

- There exist constants  $\alpha, \beta > 0$  such that

$$|x(t)| \leq \alpha e^{-\beta t} |x(0)| \quad \text{for } t \geq 0$$

- All eigenvalues of  $A$  have negative real part

(Exponential stability is a stronger form of asymptotic stability. For LTI systems, they are equivalent.)

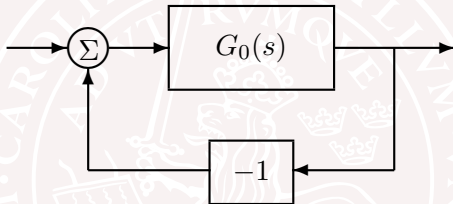
# Internal vs input–output stability

If  $\dot{x} = Ax$  is exponentially stable **then**  $G(s) = C(sI - A)^{-1}B + D$  is input–output stable.

**Warning:** The opposite is not always true! There may be unstable pole-zero cancellations (that also render the system uncontrollable and/or unobservable), and these may not be seen in the transfer function!

# Stability of feedback loops

Assume scalar open-loop system  $G_0(s)$



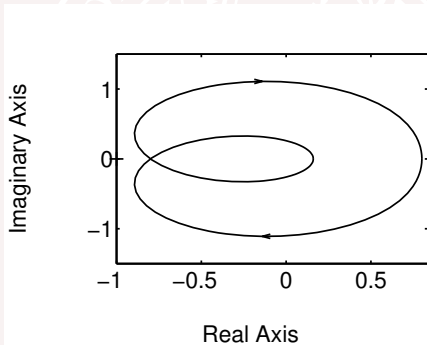
The closed-loop system is input-output stable **if and only if** all solutions to the characteristic equation

$$1 + G_0(s) = 0$$

are in the left half plane (i.e., have negative real part).

# The Nyquist criterion

If  $G_0(s)$  is stable, then the closed-loop system  $[1 + G_0(s)]^{-1}$  is stable **if and only if** the Nyquist curve does not encircle  $-1$ .



(Note: Matlab gives a Nyquist plot for both positive and negative frequencies)

## The Nyquist criterion (cont'd)

More generally, the difference between the number of unstable poles in  $[1 + G_0(s)]^{-1}$  and the number of unstable poles in  $G_0(s)$  is equal to the number of times the point  $-1$  is encircled by the Nyquist plot in the clockwise direction.

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# Sensitivity and robustness

- How sensitive is the closed-loop system to model errors?
- How do we measure the “distance to instability”?
- Is it possible to guarantee stability for all systems within some distance from the ideal model?

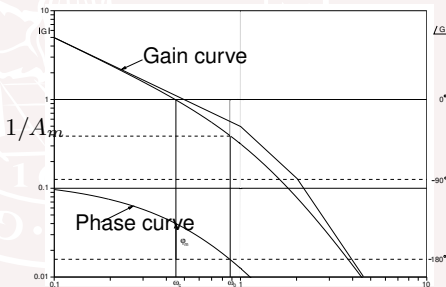
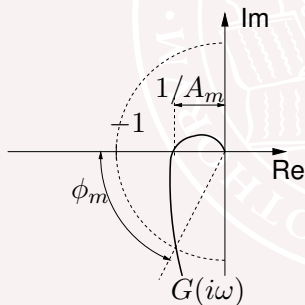
# Amplitude and phase margin

Amplitude margin  $A_m$ :

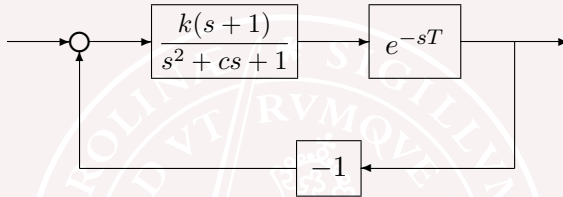
$$\arg G(i\omega_0) = -180^\circ, \quad |G(i\omega_0)| = \frac{1}{A_m}$$

Phase margin  $\phi_m$ :

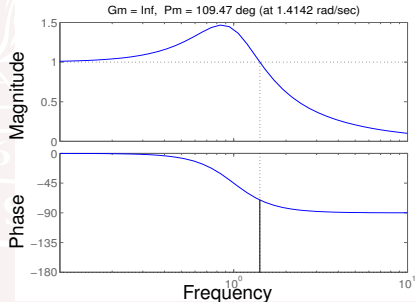
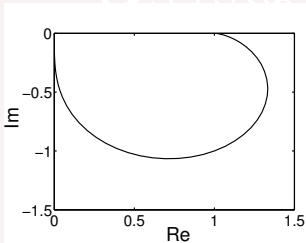
$$|G(i\omega_c)| = 1, \quad \arg G(i\omega_c) = \phi_m - 180^\circ$$



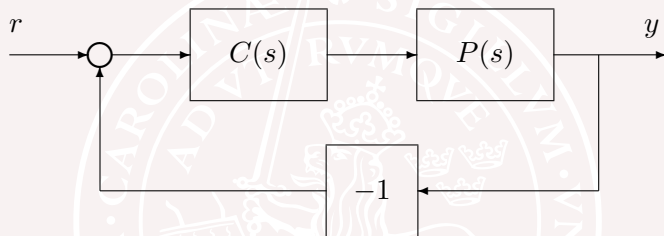
# Mini-problem



Nominally  $k = 1$ ,  $c = 1$  and  $T = 0$ . How much margin is there in each of the parameters before the system becomes unstable?



# How sensitive is the closed loop to changes in the plant?



$$Y(s) = \underbrace{\frac{P(s)C(s)}{1 + P(s)C(s)}}_{T(s)} R(s)$$

$$\frac{dT}{dP} = \frac{d}{dP} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{1+PC} \right) = \frac{C}{(1+PC)^2} = \frac{T}{P(1+PC)}$$

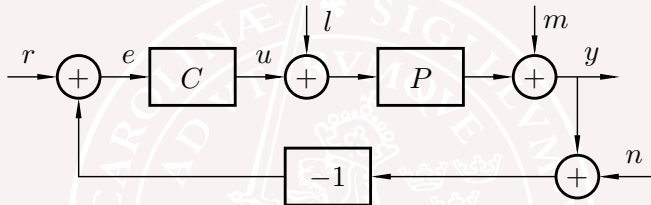
Define the **sensitivity function**,  $S$ ,

$$S := \frac{d(\log T)}{d(\log P)} = \frac{dT/T}{dP/P} = \frac{1}{1+PC}$$

and the **complementary sensitivity function**  $T$ ,

$$T := 1 - S = \frac{PC}{1+PC}$$

# Interpretation as disturbance sensitivities



Note that

- $T = -G_{yn}$  (sensitivity towards measurement noise)
- $S = G_{ym}$  (sensitivity towards output load disturbance)

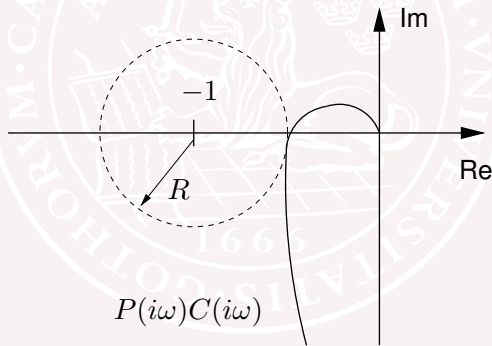
Fundamental limitation:

$$S + T = 1$$

# Interpretation as stability margin

The sensitivity function measures the distance between the Nyquist plot and the point  $-1$ :

$$R^{-1} = \sup_{\omega} \left| \frac{1}{1 + P(i\omega)C(i\omega)} \right| = M_s$$

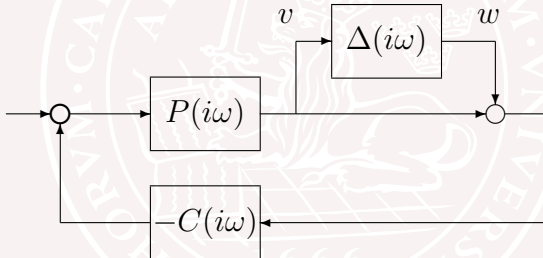


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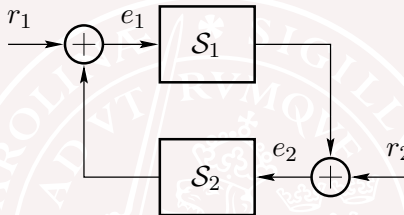
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# Robustness analysis

How large plant uncertainty  $\Delta(i\omega)$  can be tolerated without risking instability?



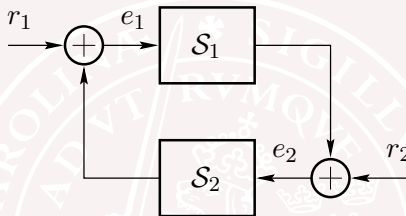
# The Small Gain Theorem



Assume that  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are input-output stable. **If**  $\|S_1\| \cdot \|S_2\| < 1$ , **then** the gain from  $(r_1, r_2)$  to  $(e_1, e_2)$  in the closed-loop system is finite.

- Note 1: The theorem applies also to nonlinear, time-varying, and multivariable systems
- Note 2: The stability condition is sufficient but not necessary, so the results may be conservative

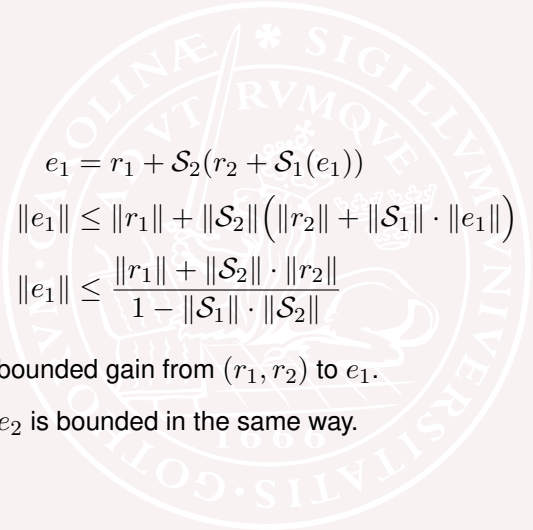
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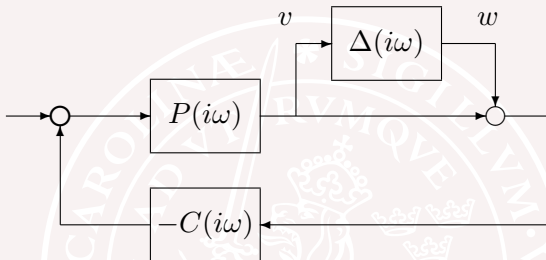
# Proof sketch


$$\begin{aligned}e_1 &= r_1 + \mathcal{S}_2(r_2 + \mathcal{S}_1(e_1)) \\ \|e_1\| &\leq \|r_1\| + \|\mathcal{S}_2\|(\|r_2\| + \|\mathcal{S}_1\| \cdot \|e_1\|) \\ \|e_1\| &\leq \frac{\|r_1\| + \|\mathcal{S}_2\| \cdot \|r_2\|}{1 - \|\mathcal{S}_1\| \cdot \|\mathcal{S}_2\|}\end{aligned}$$

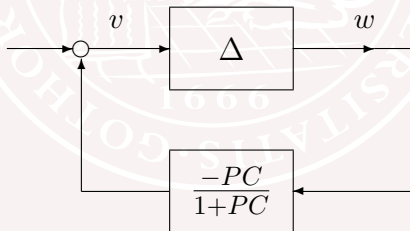
This shows bounded gain from  $(r_1, r_2)$  to  $e_1$ .

The gain to  $e_2$  is bounded in the same way.

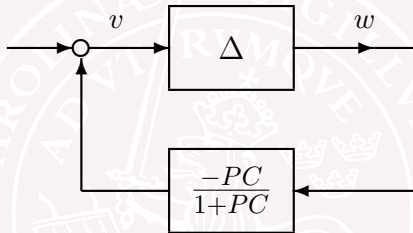
# Application to robustness analysis



The diagram can be redrawn as



# Application to robustness analysis



The Small Gain Theorem guarantees stability if

$$\|\Delta(i\omega)\|_{\infty} \cdot \left\| \frac{P(i\omega)C(i\omega)}{1 + P(i\omega)C(i\omega)} \right\|_{\infty} < 1$$

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# Gain of multivariable systems

Recall from Lecture 1 that

$$\|\mathcal{S}\| = \sup_{\omega} |G(i\omega)| = \|G\|_{\infty}$$

for a stable LTI system  $\mathcal{S}$ .

How to calculate  $|G(i\omega)|$  for a multivariable system?

# Vector norm and matrix gain

For a vector  $x \in \mathbf{C}^n$ , we use the 2-norm

$$|x| = \sqrt{x^*x} = \sqrt{|x_1|^2 + \dots + |x_n|^2}$$

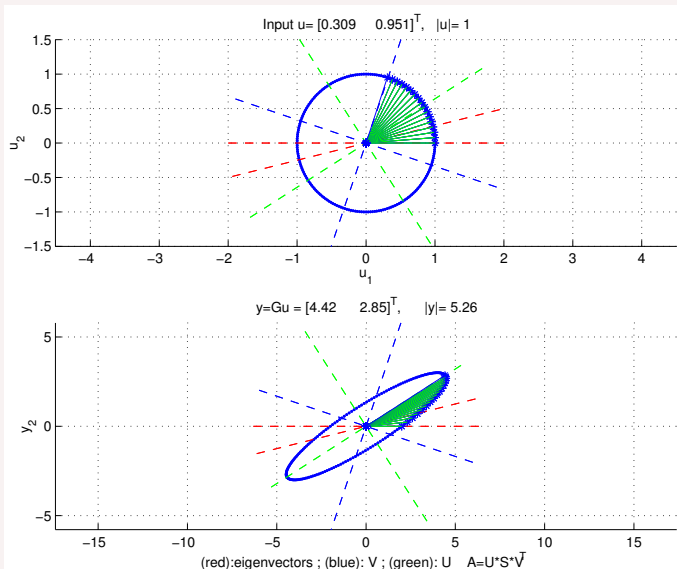
For a matrix  $A \in \mathbf{C}^{n \times m}$ , we use the  $L_2$ -induced norm

$$\|A\| := \sup_x \frac{|Ax|}{|x|} = \sup_x \sqrt{\frac{x^* A^* A x}{x^* x}} = \sqrt{\bar{\lambda}(A^* A)}$$

$\bar{\lambda}(A^* A)$  denotes the largest eigenvalue of  $A^* A$ . The ratio  $|Ax|/|x|$  is maximized when  $x$  is a corresponding eigenvector.

( $A^*$  denotes the **conjugate transpose** of  $A$ )

Example: Different gains in different directions:  $\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{bmatrix}$



# Singular Values

For a matrix  $A$ , its singular values  $\sigma_i$  are defined as

$$\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$$

where  $\lambda_i$  are the eigenvalues of  $A^*A$ .

Let  $\bar{\sigma}(A)$  denote the largest singular value and  $\underline{\sigma}(A)$  the smallest singular value.

For a linear map  $y = Au$ , it holds that

$$\underline{\sigma}(A) \leq \frac{\|y\|}{\|u\|} \leq \bar{\sigma}(A)$$

The singular values are typically computed using singular value decomposition (SVD):

$$A = U\Sigma V^*$$

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# SVD example

Matlab code for singular value decomposition of the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

SVD:

$$A = U \cdot S \cdot V^*$$

where both the matrices  $U$  and  $V$  are unitary (i.e. have orthonormal columns s.t.  $V^* \cdot V = I$ ) and  $S$  is the diagonal matrix with (sorted decreasing) singular values  $\sigma_i$ .

Multiplying  $A$  with a input vector along the first column in  $V$  gives

$$\begin{aligned} A \cdot V_{(:,1)} &= USV^* \cdot V_{(:,1)} = \\ &= US \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = U_{(:,1)} \cdot \sigma_1 \end{aligned}$$

That is, we get maximal gain  $\sigma_1$  in the output direction  $U_{(:,1)}$  if we use an input in direction  $V_{(:,1)}$  (and minimal gain  $\sigma_n = \sigma_2$  if we use the last column  $V_{(:,n)} = V_{(:,2)}$ ).

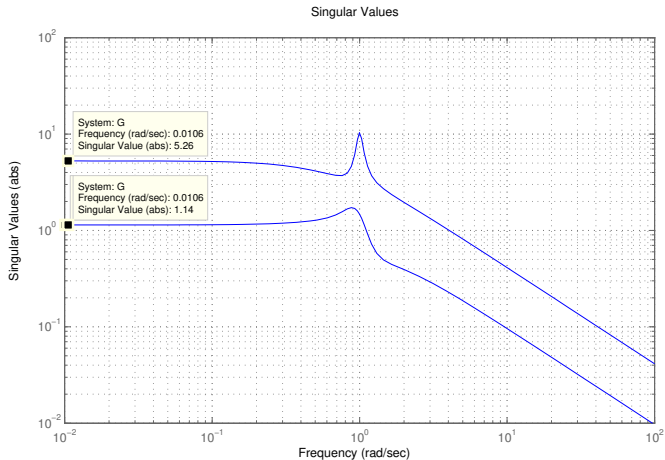
```
>> A=[2 4 ; 0 3]
A =
     2     4
     0     3
>> [U,S,V]=svd(A)
U =
    0.8416   -0.5401
    0.5401    0.8416
S =
    5.2631         0
         0    1.1400
V =
    0.3198   -0.9475
    0.9475    0.3198
>> A*V(:,1)
ans =
    4.4296
    2.8424
>> U(:,1)*S(1,1)
ans =
    4.4296
    2.8424
```

## Example: Gain of multivariable system

Consider the transfer function matrix

$$G(s) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{s+1} & \frac{4}{2s+1} \\ \frac{s}{s^2+0.1s+1} & \frac{3}{s+1} \end{bmatrix}$$

```
>> s=tf('s')
>> G=[ 2/(s+1) 4/(2*s+1); s/(s^2+0.1*s+1) 3/(s+1)];
>> sigma(G) % plot sigma values of G wrt fq
>> grid on
>> norm(G,inf) % infinity norm = system gain
ans =
    10.3577
```



The singular values of the transfer function matrix (prev slide). Note that  $G(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$  which corresponds to  $A$  in the SVD-example above.  
 $\|G\|_{\infty} = 10.3577$ .