Laplace System Analysis

- **Transfer functions** of continuous-time systems can be found from analysis of
 - Differential Equations
 - Block Diagrams
 - Circuit Diagrams

A circuit can be described by a system of differential equations



Using the Laplace transform, a circuit can be described by a system of algebraic equations



f(t) is the system excitation signal and the velocity of mass, m_2 , $x'_2(t)$, is the system response signal, y(t)



The mechanical system can also be described by a block diagram.



System Stability

System **stability** is very important. A continuous-time LTI system is stable if its impulse response is **absolutely integrable**. This translates into the frequency domain as the requirement that all the poles of the system transfer function must lie in the <u>open</u> left half of the *s* plane (proven in the text). "Open left half-plane" means <u>not</u> including the ω axis.

System Interconnections
Cascade

$$X(s) \rightarrow H_1(s) \rightarrow X(s)H_1(s) \rightarrow H_2(s) \rightarrow Y(s)=X(s)H_1(s)H_2(s)$$

 $X(s) \rightarrow H_1(s)H_2(s) \rightarrow Y(s)$



System Interconnections Feedback

E(s) Error signal $H_1(s)$ Forward path transfer function of the "plant"

 $H_2(s)$ Feedback path transfer function or the

"sensor".

 $T(s) = H_1(s)H_2(s)$ Loop transfer function



Analysis of Feedback Systems Beneficial Effects



If *K* is large enough that $KH_2(s) >> 1$ then $H(s) \approx \frac{1}{H_2(s)}$.

This means that the overall system is the approximate inverse of the system in the feedback path. This kind of system can be useful for reversing the effects of another system.

A very important example of feedback systems is an electronic amplifier based on an operational amplifier



Let the operational amplifier gain be

$$H_{1}(s) = \frac{V_{o}(s)}{V_{e}(s)} = -\frac{A_{0}}{1 - s / p}$$

The amplifier can be modeled as a feedback system with this block diagram.

$$V_{i}(s) \longrightarrow \boxed{\begin{array}{c} Z_{f}(s) \\ Z_{i}(s) + Z_{f}(s) \end{array}} \xrightarrow{+} V_{e}(s) \xrightarrow{-} A_{0} \\ \hline 1 - \frac{S}{p} \\ \hline Z_{i}(s) + Z_{f}(s) \end{array}} \xrightarrow{+} V_{o}(s)$$

The overall gain can be written as

$$\frac{V_0(s)}{V_i(s)} = \frac{-A_0 Z_f(s)}{(1 - s / p + A_0) Z_i(s) + (1 - s / p) Z_f(s)}$$

If the operational amplifier low-frequency gain A_0 is very large (which it usually is) then the overall amplifier gain reduces at low-frequencies to

$$\frac{V_0(s)}{V_i(s)} \cong -\frac{Z_f(s)}{Z_i(s)}$$

the gain formula based on an ideal operational amplifier.

Let $Z_f(s) = 10 \text{ k}\Omega$ and let $Z_i(s) = 1 \text{ k}\Omega$ for a nominal gain of -10. If $A_0 = 10^7$ and p = -100 then H(-j100) = -9.999989 + j0.000011If $A_0 = 10^6$ and p = -100 then H(-j100) = -9.99989 + j0.00011The change in overall system gain is about 0.001% for a change in open-loop gain of a factor of 10.

The half-power bandwidth of the operational amplifier itself is 15.9 Hz (100/ 2π). The half-power bandwidth of the overall amplifier is approximately 14.5 MHz, an increase in bandwidth of a factor of approximately 910,000.

Feedback can stabilize an unstable system. Let a forward-path transfer function be

$$\mathbf{H}_1(s) = \frac{1}{s-p} \quad , \quad p > 0$$

This system is unstable because it has a pole in the right half-plane. If we then connect feedback with a transfer function K, a constant, the overall system gain becomes

$$\mathbf{H}(s) = \frac{1}{s - p + K}$$

and, if K > p, the overall system is now stable.

Feedback can make an unstable system stable but it can also make a stable system unstable. Even though all the poles of the forward and feedback systems may be in the open left half-plane, the poles of the overall feedback system can be in the right half-plane.

A familiar example of this kind of instability caused by feedback is a public address system. If the amplifier gain is set too high the system will go unstable and oscillate, usually with a very annoying high-pitched tone.

As the amplifier gain is increased, any sound entering the microphone makes a stronger sound from the speaker until, at some gain level, the returned sound from the speaker is a large as the originating sound into the microphone. At that point the system goes unstable.



Analysis of Feedback Systems Stable Oscillation Using Feedback



Feedback System Without Excitation



Analysis of Feedback Systems Stable Oscillation Using Feedback

Can the response be non-zero when the excitation is zero? Yes, if the overall system gain is infinite. If the system transfer function has a pole pair on the

 $H_1(s) \rightarrow Y(s)$ $H_2(s) \rightarrow Y(s)$

 $\boldsymbol{\omega}$ axis, then the transfer function is infinite

at the frequency of that pole pair and there can be a response without an excitation. In practical terms the trick is to be sure the poles stay on the ω axis. If the poles move into the left half-plane the response attenuates with time. If the poles move into the right half-plane the response grows with time (until the system goes non-linear).

Analysis of Feedback Systems Stable Oscillation Using Feedback A real example of a system that oscillates stably is a laser. In a laser the forward path is an optical amplifier.



The feedback action is provided by putting mirrors at each end of the optical amplifier.



Analysis of Feedback Systems Stable Oscillation Using Feedback Laser action begins when a photon is spontaneously emitted from

the pumped medium in a direction normal to the mirrors.



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Analysis of Feedback Systems Stable Oscillation Using Feedback

If the "round-trip" gain of the combination of pumped laser medium and mirrors is unity, sustained oscillation of light will occur. For that to occur the wavelength of the light must fit into the distance between mirrors an integer number of times.









Analysis of Feedback Systems Stable Oscillation Using Feedback

A laser can be modeled by a block diagram in which the K's represent the gain of the pumped medium or the reflection or transmission coefficient at a mirror, L is the distance between mirrors and c is the speed of light.



Common Type of Feedback System



System Transfer Function

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H(s) = \frac{K H_1(s)}{1 + K H_1(s) H_2(s)}T(s) = K H_1(s) H_2(s)
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Loop Transfer Function

Poles of H(s) \longrightarrow Zeros of 1 + T(s) T is of the form \longrightarrow T(s) = $K \frac{P(s)}{Q(s)}$ Poles of H(s) \longrightarrow Zeros of 1 + $K \frac{P(s)}{Q(s)}$ Poles of H(s) \longrightarrow Q(s) + KP(s) = 0Q(s)/K + P(s) = 0

K can range from zero to infinity. For *K* approaching zero, using Q(s) + KP(s) = 0, the poles of H are the same as the zeros of Q(s) = 0 which are the poles of T. For *K* approaching infinity, using Q(s)/K + P(s) = 0 the poles of H are the same as the zeros of P(s) = 0 which are the zeros of T. So the poles of H start on the poles of T and terminate on the zeros of T, some of which may be at infinity. The curves traced by these pole locations as *K* is varied are called the **root locus**.

Let
$$H_1(s) = \frac{K}{(s+1)(s+2)}$$
 and let $H_2(s) = 1$.

Then
$$T(s) = \frac{K}{(s+1)(s+2)}$$

No matter how large *K* gets this system is stable because the poles always lie in the left half-plane (although for large *K* the system may be very underdamped).





The behavior of the zeros of polynomial equations as their coefficients vary has been studied by mathematicians and they have formulated rules obeyed by the movement of these zeros. In our case, the zeros of the denominator polynomial of the transfer function are the system poles and the movement traces out the root locus.

Rules for Drawing a Root Locus

- 1. The number of branches in a root locus is the greater of the degree of the numerator and the denominator of T(s).
- 2. Each root-locus branch begins on a pole of T(s) and terminates on a zero of T(s). (Some zeros may be at infinity.)
- 3. Any portion of the real axis for which the sum of the number of real poles and/or real zeros lying to its right is odd, is a part of the root locus.
- 4. The root locus is symmetrical about the real axis.

5. If the number of finite poles of T(s) exceeds the number of finite zeros of T(s) by an integer m then m branches of the root locus terminate on zeros of T(s) which lie at infinity. Each of these branches approaches a straight-line asymptote and the angles of these asymptotes are at the angles, (2k+1)π/m , k=0,1,...m−1 with respect to the positive real axis. These asymptotes intersect on the real axis at the location,

$$\sigma = \frac{1}{m} \left(\sum \text{finite poles} - \sum \text{finite zeros} \right)$$

called the **centroid** of the root locus. (These are sums of <u>all</u> finite poles and <u>all</u> finite zeros, not just the ones on the real axis.)

6. The breakaway or break-in points where the root locus branches intersect occur where $\frac{d}{ds}\left(\frac{1}{T(s)}\right) = 0.$

Let a feedback system have a loop transfer function

$$T(s) = \frac{(s+4)(s+5)}{(s+1)(s+2)(s+3)}$$

It has three finite poles at s = -1, -2 and -3 and two finite zeros at s = -4 and -5. There are three root locus branches (Rule 1). The allowed regions on the real axis are $-2 < \sigma < -1$, $-4 < \sigma < -3$ and $\sigma < -5$ (Rule 3).



The root locus must begin on the poles at -1, -2 and -3 and terminate on zeros at -4, -5 and infinity (Rule 2).

The two root locus branches beginning at -1 and -2 must move toward each other to stay in an allowed range (Rule 3). When they collide at a breakout point they both become complex and must be complex conjugates (Rule 4). The other branch beginning at -3 must move to the left to stay in an allowed range and can only terminate on the zero at -4 to maintain the symmetry of the root locus (Rules 3 and 4).



The other two root-locus branches must terminate on the zero at -5 and the zero at infinity. To maintain symmetry and approach the zeros in allowed regions, they must move to the allowed region on the real axis to the left of -5 (Rules 3 and 4). There is only one branch going to infinity and its angle is π radians as it should be (Rule 5). The breakout and break-in points are found by solving

$$\frac{d}{ds}\left(\frac{1}{T(s)}\right) = \frac{d}{ds}\left[\frac{(s+1)(s+2)(s+3)}{(s+4)(s+5)}\right] = 0 \text{ (Rule 6).}$$

The solutions are s = -9.47, -4.34, -2.69 and -1.5. So the breakout point is at -1.5 and the break-in point is at -9.47.

(The other solutions of (d/ds)(1/T(s)) = 0 are the breakout and break-in points of the **complementary root locus** found by letting *K* approach negative infinity.)



Steady-State Tracking Errors in Unity-Gain Feedback Systems

A very common type of feedback system is the **unity-gain** feedback connection.

$$X(s) \xrightarrow{+} \underbrace{\bigoplus_{i=1}^{E(s)}}_{i=1} H_1(s) \xrightarrow{+} Y(s)$$

The aim of this type of system is to make the response "track" the excitation. When the error signal is zero, the excitation and response are equal.

Steady-State Tracking Errors in Unity-Gain Feedback Systems

The Laplace transform of the error signal is

$$\mathsf{E}(s) = \frac{\mathsf{X}(s)}{1 + \mathsf{H}_1(s)}.$$

The steady-state value of this signal is (using the final-value theorem)

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} (t) = \lim_{s \to 0} s \operatorname{E}(s) = \lim_{s \to 0} s \frac{\operatorname{X}(s)}{1 + \operatorname{H}_1(s)}$$

If the excitation is the unit step u(t) then the steady- state error is $\lim_{t \to \infty} (t) = \lim_{s \to 0} \frac{1}{1 + H_1(s)}$

Steady-State Tracking Errors in Unity-Gain Feedback Systems

If the forward transfer function is in the common form,

$$H_{1}(s) = \frac{b_{N}s^{N} + b_{N-1}s^{N-1} + \dots + b_{2}s^{2} + b_{1}s + b_{0}}{a_{D}s^{D} + a_{D-1}s^{D-1} + \dots + a_{2}s^{2} + a_{1}s + a_{0}}$$
 then

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} e(t) = \lim_{s \to 0} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{b_{N}s^{N} + b_{N-1}s^{N-1} + \dots + b_{2}s^{2} + b_{1}s + b_{0}}{a_{D}s^{D} + a_{D-1}s^{D-1} + \dots + a_{2}s^{2} + a_{1}s + a_{0}}} = \frac{a_{0}}{a_{0} + b_{0}}$$

If $a_0 = 0$ and $b_0 \neq 0$ the steady-state error is zero and the forward transfer function can be written as

$$H_1(s) = \frac{b_N s^N + b_{N-1} s^{N-1} + \dots + b_2 s^2 + b_1 s + b_0}{s \left(a_D s^{D-1} + a_{D-1} s^{D-2} + \dots + a_2 s + a_1 \right)}$$
 which has a pole at $s = 0$.

Steady-State Tracking Errors in Unity-Gain Feedback Systems

If the forward transfer function of a unity-gain feedback system has a pole at zero and the system is stable, the steady-state error with step excitation is zero. This type of system is called a "type 1" system (one pole at s = 0 in the forward transfer function). If there are no poles at s = 0, it is called a "type 0" system and the steady-state error with step excitation is non-zero.



Analysis of Feedback Systems Steady-State Tracking Errors in Unity-Gain Feedback Systems The steady-state error with ramp excitation is

Infinite for a stable type 0 system

Finite and non-zero for a stable type 1 system

Zero for a stable type 2 system (2 poles at s = 0 in the forward transfer function)



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Let $H(s) = \frac{N(s)}{D(s)}$ be proper in *s*. Then the Laplace transform

of the unit-step response is

$$Y(s) = H_{-1}(s) = \frac{N(s)}{sD(s)} = \frac{N_{1}(s)}{D(s)} + \frac{H(0)}{s}$$

If the system is stable, the inverse Laplace transform of $\frac{N(s)}{D(s)}$ is called the transient response and the forced response is $\frac{H(0)}{H(0)}$.

System Responses to Standard Signals

Let $H(s) = \frac{N(s)}{D(s)}$ be proper in *s*. Then the Laplace transform of a general excitation is X(s) and the Laplace transform of the response is

$$Y(s) = \frac{N(s)}{D(s)} X(s) = \frac{N(s)}{D(s)} \frac{N_x(s)}{D_x(s)} = \frac{N_1(s)}{\frac{D(s)}{D(s)}} + \frac{N_{x1}(s)}{\frac{D_x(s)}{Same poles}}$$
same poles as system as excitation





Let H(s) =
$$\frac{A\omega_0^2}{s^2 + 2\zeta\omega_0 s + \omega_0^2}$$



System Responses to Standard Signals Let $H(s) = \frac{N(s)}{D(s)}$ be proper in *s*. If the excitation is a unit-amplitude

cosine applied to the system at time t = 0, the response is

$$\mathbf{Y}(s) = \frac{\mathbf{N}(s)}{\mathbf{D}(s)} \frac{s}{s^2 + \omega_0^2}$$

which can be reduced and inverse Laplace transformed into

$$\mathbf{y}(t) = \mathscr{L}^{-1}\left(\frac{\mathbf{N}_1(s)}{\mathbf{D}(s)}\right) + \left|\mathbf{H}(j\omega_0)\right| \cos\left(\omega_0 t + \measuredangle \mathbf{H}(j\omega_0)\right) \mathbf{u}(t)$$

If the system is stable, the steady-state response is a sinusoid of same frequency as the excitation but, generally a different magnitude and phase.

Standard Realizations of Systems

There are multiple ways of drawing a system block diagram corresponding to a given transfer function of the form

$$H(s) = \frac{Y(s)}{X(s)} = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{N} b_k s^k}{\sum_{k=0}^{N} a_k s^k} = \frac{b_N s^N + b_{N-1} s^{N-1} + \dots + b_1 s + b_0}{a_N s^N + a_{N-1} s^{N-1} + \dots + a_1 s + a_0}$$

(Here the numerator and denominator are both assumed to be of order N. If the numerator order is less than N, some of the b's are zero.)

Standard Realizations of Systems Cascade Form

The transfer function can be factored into the form,

$$H(s) = A \frac{s - z_1}{s - p_1} \frac{s - z_2}{s - p_2} \cdots \frac{s - z_M}{s - p_M} \frac{1}{s - p_{M+1}} \frac{1}{s - p_{M+2}} \cdots \frac{1}{s - p_N}$$

and each factor can be realized in a small Direct Form II
subsystem of either of the two forms



and these subsystems can then be cascade connected.

Standard Realizations of Systems Cascade Form

A problem that arises in the cascade form is that some poles or zeros may be <u>complex</u>. In that case, a complex conjugate pair can be combined into one **second-order subsystem** of the form



Standard Realizations of Systems Parallel Form

The transfer function can be expanded in partial fractions of the form

$$H(s) = \frac{K_1}{s - p_1} + \frac{K_2}{s - p_2} + \dots + \frac{K_N}{s - p_N}$$

Each of these terms describes a subsystem. When all the subsystems are connected in parallel the overall system is realized.

Standard Realizations of Systems Parallel Form

