

ME 4555 - Linearity

Most of the systems we will study in this class are "linear and time-invariant" (LTI). They have the following 4 properties (assuming the system starts at rest; all states are zero)

1) homogeneity : scaling the input scales the output.

$$\text{if } u(t) \rightarrow [G] \rightarrow y(t)$$

$$\text{then } k u(t) \rightarrow [G] \rightarrow k y(t)$$

these two properties together are called "superposition".

2) additivity : adding inputs adds outputs.

$$\text{if } u_1(t) \rightarrow [G] \rightarrow y_1(t)$$

$$\text{and } u_2(t) \rightarrow [G] \rightarrow y_2(t)$$

$$\text{then } u_1(t) + u_2(t) \rightarrow [G] \rightarrow y_1(t) + y_2(t)$$

A system that satisfies superposition is called linear.

3) time-invariance : delaying input delays output

$$\text{if } u(t) \rightarrow [G] \rightarrow y(t)$$

$$\text{then } u(t-\tau) \rightarrow [G] \rightarrow y(t-\tau) \text{ for all } \tau.$$

4) causality : future can't affect the past. (all "real" systems are causal)

$$\text{if } u(t) \rightarrow [G] \rightarrow y(t) \text{ and we}$$

change $u(t)$ for $t \geq T$ then only $y(t)$ for $t \geq T$ can be affected.

NOTE: Strictly speaking, an LTI system is defined as satisfying properties 1, 2, 3. However, all systems we will study are also causal, so we include property 4 as well.

An LTI system is a generalization of the concept of a linear equation. For example, if u_1, \dots, u_m are inputs and y_1, \dots, y_m are outputs, then the linear equations:

$$y = Au, \text{ i.e. : } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} y_1 = a_{11}u_1 + a_{12}u_2 + \dots + a_{1m}u_m \\ y_2 = a_{21}u_1 + a_{22}u_2 + \dots + a_{2m}u_m \\ \vdots \quad ; \quad ; \quad ; \\ y_m = a_{m1}u_1 + a_{m2}u_2 + \dots + a_{mm}u_m \end{array} \right\} \text{ are an LTI system.}$$

Derivatives and integrals, i.e. $y = \frac{d}{dt}u$ and $y = \int_0^t u(\tau) d\tau$ are also LTI.

In general, any system of ordinary differential equations where each term is of the form $\underbrace{a \cdot x^{(k)}(t)}$
and they are added together constant k^{th} derivative of $x(t)$
is an LTI. It could also contain or any other signal
integrals but typically we differentiate such equations so that all the integrals disappear.

Examples:

$m\ddot{x} + c\dot{x} + kx = f$ (with input f and output x) is LTI.

$ml^2\ddot{\theta} + mg.l \sin\theta = T$ (with input T and output θ) is not LTI

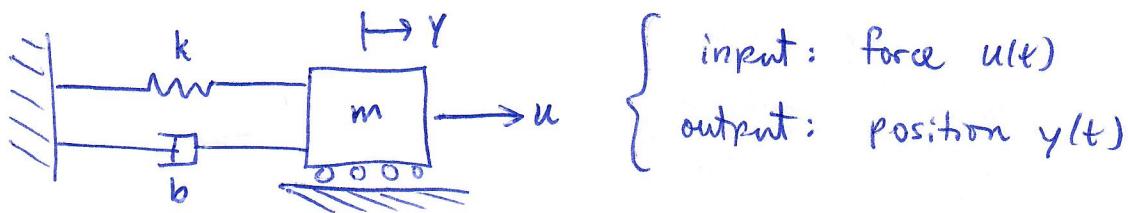
$m\ddot{x} + \underbrace{ct^2}\dot{x} + kx = f$ (input f and output x) is not LTI ($\sin\theta$ is not linear)
damping increases over time (not time-invariant)

$ml^2\ddot{\theta} + mgl\theta = T$ (small-angle approximation of pendulum) is LTI

Terms like $\dot{\theta}^2$, $\sin\theta$, $\theta\dot{\theta}$, x_1x_2 , etc. are all nonlinear.

(3)

Proof of linearity for spring-mass-damper system:



$$\text{EOM: } m\ddot{y} + b\dot{y} + ky = u.$$

Homogeneity: Suppose we use input $u(t)$ and obtain output $y(t)$.

then $m\ddot{y} + b\dot{y} + ky = u$. Multiply both sides by any $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$\Rightarrow \alpha(m\ddot{y} + b\dot{y} + ky) = \alpha u \Rightarrow m(\alpha\ddot{y}) + b(\alpha\dot{y}) + k(\alpha y) = \alpha u.$$

Since $\alpha \frac{d}{dt}(y(t)) = \frac{d}{dt}(\alpha y(t))$, this means $(\alpha u(t), \alpha y(t))$ also satisfies the same ODE.

Additivity: Suppose (u_1, y_1) and (u_2, y_2) satisfy the ODE.

$$\text{then } m\ddot{y}_1 + b\dot{y}_1 + ky_1 = u_1 \text{ and } m\ddot{y}_2 + b\dot{y}_2 + ky_2 = u_2.$$

$$\text{Adding them together: } m(\ddot{y}_1 + \ddot{y}_2) + b(\dot{y}_1 + \dot{y}_2) + k(y_1 + y_2) = (u_1 + u_2)$$

since $\frac{d}{dt}(y_1(t)) + \frac{d}{dt}(y_2(t)) = \frac{d}{dt}(y_1(t) + y_2(t))$, this means that $(u_1 + u_2, y_1 + y_2)$ satisfies the same ODE.

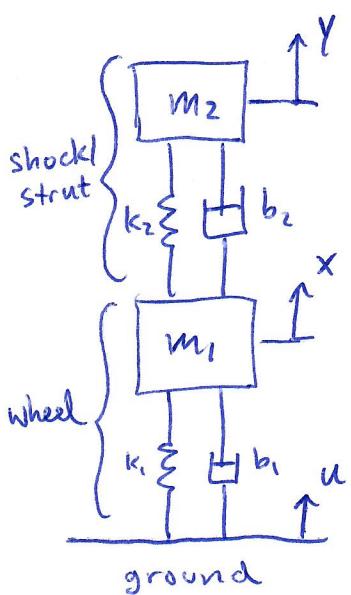
NOTE: $y = ku + c$ is not linear! To see why,

suppose (u, y) is a solution: so $y = ku + c$.

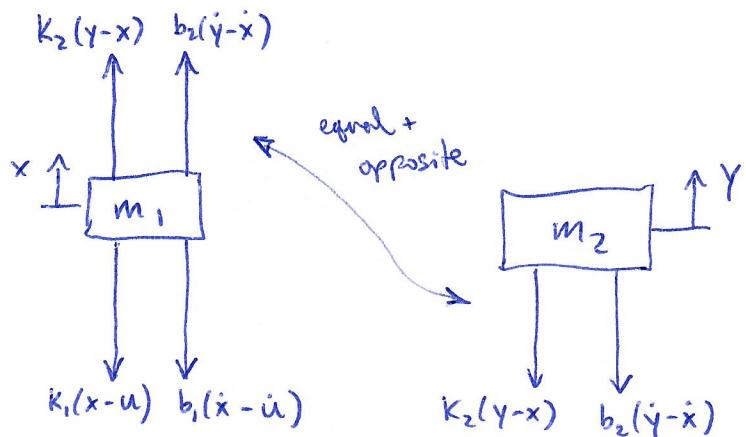
If this were linear, then $(\alpha u, \alpha y)$ would also be a solution.

So we should have $\alpha y = k\alpha u + c$. But instead, we have $\alpha y = \alpha(ku + c) = k\alpha u + \alpha c$. And in general, $\alpha c \neq c$ unless $c = 0$. FOR ANY LINEAR SYSTEM, using $u=0$ should produce $y=0$. So constant terms are not linear.

Quarter-car model :



u = position of road [input]
 x = c.m. of wheel
 y = top of shock/strut assembly [output]



EOM : $m_1 \ddot{x} = k_2(y-x) + b_2(\dot{y}-\dot{x}) - k_1(x-u) - b_1(\dot{x}-\dot{u})$

 $m_2 \ddot{y} = -k_2(y-x) - b_2(\dot{y}-\dot{x})$

Rearranged : $m_1 \ddot{x} + (b_1 + b_2) \dot{x} + (k_1 + k_2)x - b_2 \dot{y} - k_2 y = b_1 u + k_1 u$

 $m_2 \ddot{y} + b_2 \dot{y} + k_2 y - b_2 \dot{x} - k_2 x = 0$

- Notes :
- 1) this system's ODEs contain input derivatives!
 - 2) gravity does not appear because we are measuring x and y with respect to the equilibrium point that already accounts for gravity.
 - 3) since every term is a constant multiple of a derivative, (with no cross-terms like xy , $\dot{x}\dot{y}$, etc.), this system (with u as input, y as output) is LTI.

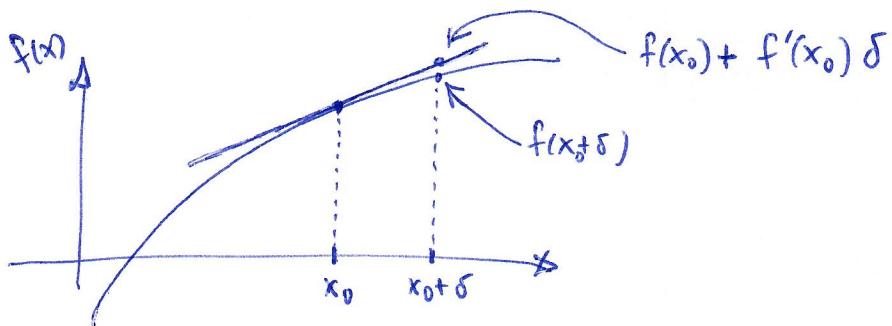
Linearization

Even if a system is nonlinear, we can often approximate its behavior as that of a linear system, provided the state and input stay within some small neighborhood of a given point. We call this point the setpoint (or equilibrium point).

The idea is to use Taylor's theorem. If f is a continuously differentiable function then we can write

$$f(x_0 + \delta) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0) \cdot \delta + (\text{higher order terms})$$

Another way to say this is that x_0 is our setpoint and near x_0 (δ is small), we can replace f by a linear function:



For a function of 2 variables $f(x, u)$, we can linearize about any point (x_0, u_0) in an analogous manner:

$$f(x_0 + \delta x, u_0 + \delta u) = f(x_0, u_0) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, u_0) \cdot \delta x + \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x_0, u_0) \cdot \delta u + \text{H.O.T.}$$

We can apply this idea to a nonlinear system to obtain a linear approximation.

Linearization procedure : For the equation $\dot{x} = f(x, u)$. (6)

- 1) Pick a setpoint (x_0, u_0) . This should satisfy the ODE.
So we must have $f(x_0, u_0) = 0$
- 2) Let $x = x_0 + \delta x$ and $u = u_0 + \delta u$, and replace f by its Taylor approximation:

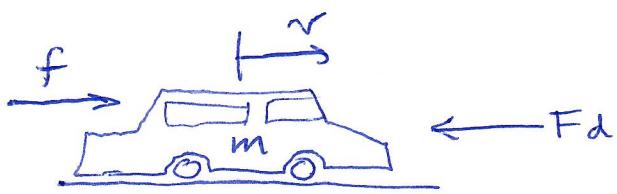
$$\begin{aligned}\dot{x} &= f(x, u) \\ \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dt}(x_0 + \delta x) &= f(x_0 + \delta x, u_0 + \delta u) \\ \Rightarrow \delta \dot{x} &= \cancel{f(x_0, u_0)} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, u_0) \delta x + \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x_0, u_0) \delta u \\ &\quad \text{zero by choice.} \\ \Rightarrow \delta \dot{x} &= \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x_0, u_0) \right) \delta x}_{\text{constant}} + \underbrace{\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x_0, u_0) \right) \delta u}_{\text{constant.}}\end{aligned}$$

NOTE : it is also possible to linearize about a time-varying trajectory $(x_0(t), u_0(t))$, which is necessary when the system is time-varying, or we are interested in for example deviations about a given orbit for a satellite.

This also works for systems with higher-order derivatives or multiple inputs and outputs. We will only consider simple cases such as the one above.

Example: cruise control.

(7)



f : input force
 v : velocity of car
 F_d : drag force

$$\text{EOM: } m\dot{v} = f - F_d \quad \text{drag coefficient}$$

$$\text{Assume aerodynamic drag: } F_d = (C_d \cdot v^2)$$

(typically depends)
on air density,
area cross-section, ...

$$\text{so the EOM is } m\dot{v} + C_d v^2 = f.$$

This is nonlinear. Suppose we will be operating at a nominal cruise speed of v_0 . Apply Taylor's theorem:

$$v^2 = (v_0 + \delta v)^2 = v_0^2 + 2v_0 \delta v + \text{H.O.T.}$$

To maintain this speed, we should use $f_0 = C_d v_0^2$.

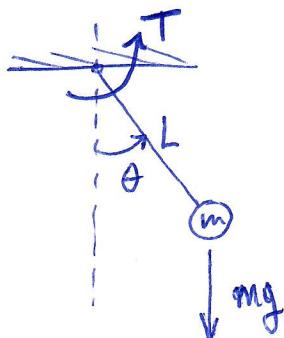
The linearized EOM is:

$$m\delta\dot{v} + (2C_d v_0) \delta v = \delta f.$$

Where we can convert back to the original quantities

$$\text{via: } \begin{cases} v(t) = v_0 + \delta v(t) \\ f(t) = C_d v_0^2 + \delta f(t). \end{cases}$$

Ex : pendulum.



$$\text{EOM: } mL^2 \ddot{\theta} + mgL \sin\theta = \delta T$$

We will linearize this equation about a few different set points.

Equilibrium (stable) : $\theta_0 = 0$

plugging this in, we find $T_0 = 0$. Applying Taylor:

$$\sin(\theta_0 + \delta\theta) = \sin(\theta_0) + \cos(\theta_0) \delta\theta + \text{H.O.T.}, \quad (*),$$

Let $\theta_0 = 0 \Rightarrow \sin(\delta\theta) \approx \delta\theta$ (this is the small-angle approximation!).

Linearized EOM: $mL^2 \delta\ddot{\theta} + mgL \delta\theta = \delta T$

Equilibrium (unstable) : $\theta_0 = \pi$.

Plugging this in, we find $T_0 = 0$. Applying Taylor,

Let $\theta_0 = \pi$ in (*) and obtain $\sin(\pi + \delta\theta) \approx \cos(\pi) \delta\theta = -\delta\theta$.

Linearized EOM: $mL^2 \delta\ddot{\theta} - mgL \delta\theta = \delta T$

Equilibrium at 45° : $\theta_0 = \pi/4$

Plugging this in, we find $T_0 = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} mgL$. Applying Taylor:

Let $\theta_0 = \pi/4$ in (*) : $\sin(\frac{\pi}{4} + \delta\theta) \approx \sin(\frac{\pi}{4}) + \cos(\frac{\pi}{4}) \delta\theta$

$$\Rightarrow \sin(\frac{\pi}{4} + \delta\theta) \approx \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \delta\theta$$

Linearized EOM: $mL^2 \delta\ddot{\theta} + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} mgL \delta\theta = \delta T$

In this case, δT is the deviation from the nominal torque $T_0 = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} mgL$, which is the torque needed to keep the angle $\theta_0 = \pi/4$.