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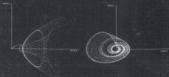
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NUMERICAL MODELING AND SIMULATION OF DYNAMICAL SYSTEMS



$$\dot{x} = F(u, x) \quad x_0 = g \cdot F_0 + h_{ext}$$

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THEORETICAL PRELIMINARIES FOR THE LOCAL-ITERATIVE LINEARIZATION METHOD

Numerous scientific and technological dynamical processes can be analytically modeled through the differential equation, which in the normal form are:

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + p \left(t, \frac{dy}{dt} \right) \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + q \left(t, \frac{dy}{dt} \right) \frac{dy}{dt} + r \left(t, \frac{dy}{dt} \right) y = f(t) \quad (1.1)$$

The input signal $x=x(t)$ as independent, known variable, the output signal $y=y(t)$ as dependent, unknown variable, and the right member of the equation (1.1) are continuously differentiable functions.

The initial conditions are considered known, and always start with $t=0$ in the real situation.

For the numerical integration of the equation (1.1) we will consider an integral developed in a Taylor series:

$$y(t) = y(t_k) + \dot{y}(t_k) \Delta t + \frac{1}{2!} \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} \Big|_{t_k} \Delta t^2 + \dots \quad (1.2)$$

where $t_k = k \cdot \Delta t$ represents the k -th instant of the sequence k and $\Delta t = t - t_k$ is the integration step, considered small enough. The index k is used here for the function specification at the instant t_k .

The analytical resolution of (1.2) leads to:

$$\int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} \ddot{y} dt = \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} \ddot{y} dt + \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} \ddot{y} dt \Delta t^2 + \dots$$

$$\frac{1}{2!} \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} \ddot{y} dt^2 + \frac{1}{3!} \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} \ddot{y} dt^3 + \dots = \frac{1}{2!} \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} \ddot{y} dt^2 + \frac{1}{3!} \int_{t_k}^{t_{k+1}} \ddot{y} dt^3 + \dots \quad (1.3)$$

where the integration constants are calculated at the moments of beginning of integration, i.e. at $t=t_k$, respectively at $t=t_{k+1}$ and we denoted $\ddot{y}_k = \ddot{y}(t_k)$ and $\ddot{y}_{k+1} = \ddot{y}(t_{k+1})$.

This derivative $\nabla_{x_i}^n$ is numerically approximated by the usual form

$$\nabla_{x_i}^n = \frac{1}{h} \sum_{j=0}^n \lambda_{ij} \nabla_{x_i}^{j+1} \quad (1.4)$$

where λ_{ij} , the weighting coefficients are finite expressions which depend on the order n of the derivative and the last recursive sequence α . We have denoted $\nabla_{x_i}^0 = \nabla(x_i, j) = \nabla(x_i, j-1)$, if $\nabla(x_i)$ has the form

$$g(x_i) = F \frac{d^p x_i}{dt^p} = F x_i^{(p)}, \quad (1.5)$$

then the F constant in (1.5) becomes

$$\int_{x_i^0}^{x_i^m} \int_{x_i^0}^{x_i^m} F x_i^{(p)} dx_i = F h^{p+1} \sum_{j=0}^m \alpha_{j+1} x_{ij}^{(p)} = F h^{p+1} \alpha_{j+1} \nabla_{x_i}^{j+1} (h x_i^0). \quad (1.6)$$

Thus we have used the following notations: α_{j+1} for the weighting coefficients, which depend on n, p, j, m , and $x_{ij}^{(p)} = \nabla_{x_i}^{j+1}(x_i^0)$ for the recursive sequences ($j=1, 2, \dots, m$) of the current sequence ($j=0$) of the variable $x_i(t)$. This variable may be an input signal $x_i(t)$, an output signal $y_i(t)$, or a state one $q_i(t)$. The total error of the approximation, due to Taylor series cut off, is expressed by $\epsilon_{j+1}(h x_i^0)$, where $\alpha = m+1 - n + 1$. Thus the order of magnitude of the error depends on n, p and m , where m is the last recursive sequence taken into account, with the condition that $m \geq n$ and $p=0, 1, 2, \dots, n$.

In the Table 1 we present the values of the weighting coefficients λ_{ij} for $j=0, 1, 2, 3$ ($i=0, 1, \dots, j$) and α_{j+1} for $n=1, p=0, 1$ and $j=0, 1, \dots, m$. The last recursive sequence α taken into account for λ_{ij} , α_{j+1} and ϵ_{j+1} are $n=1$ and $m=1$.

Table 1

n	m	λ_{00}	λ_{01}	λ_{02}	λ_{03}	λ_{10}	λ_{11}
1	1	118	-188	98	-28	-	-
	2	11760	-30760	30860	-20060	7160	-1260
2	1	2	-2	0	-1	-	-
	2	4872	-11472	11472	-15672	8172	-1872
3	1	1	-3	3	-1	-	-
	2	178	-718	1158	-868	418	-78
4	1	3	-14	26	-24	11	-2
5	1	-3	30	-30	5	-1	-

P	n	$\alpha_{0n}^{(p)}$	$\alpha_{1n}^{(p)}$	$\alpha_{2n}^{(p)}$	$\alpha_{3n}^{(p)}$	$\alpha_{4n}^{(p)}$	$\alpha_{5n}^{(p)}$
0	3	1/12	-5/24	1/8	-1/24	-	-
	5	141/480	-154/2880	2179/3456	-131/288	123/1740	-103/2400
1	3	1/8	-5/8	1/8	-1/8	-	-
	5	315/128	-735/128	795/64	-275/64	213/128	-35/128

n	α_{0n}	α_{1n}	α_{2n}	α_{3n}	α_{4n}
3	3	-3	1	-	-
5	3	-18	18	-3	1

The extrapolation coefficients α_{ij} indicated in the same table, are used for the approximation formula:

$$f_{ij}^{(p)} \approx \sum_{k=0}^n \alpha_{kj}^{(p)} f_{ik}^{(p)} \quad (3.7)$$

which will be used in the following.

We note that the numerical approximation (1.6), which will be used in the L.L.L. technique, has errors $\epsilon_{ij}^{(p)}$ small enough. This may be explained by the fact that due to the symmetrical integration with respect to x_0 in (1.6), a half of terms from those neglected in Taylor series are in fact eliminated (see 3.27 and 3.28). In the following, for the simplicity, we will neglect the last index i , and we will use the notations f_{j-1} , α_{j-1} and α_j .

Chapter II

NUMERICAL MODELLING THROUGH I.L.L. WITH INPUT-OUTPUT RELATIONS

Let us return to the analytical model (1.1), expressed by the input-output relations, in the simplified form:

$$f^{(k)} = f^{(k)}(y^{(k)}, y^{(k-1)}) - f^{(k)} \quad (y = 0, \dots, m; k = 0, \dots, n-1) \quad (2.1)$$

which is numerically integrated by using (1.6), i.e.

$$\int_{y^{(k)}}^{y^{(k+1)}} f^{(k)} dy^{(k)} = \int_{y^{(k)}}^{y^{(k+1)}} f^{(k)} dy^{(k)} \quad (2.2)$$

from which we obtain

$$\sum_{j=0}^k a_{kj} y_j^{(k)} - \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} a_{kj} y_j^{(k-1)} \quad (2.3)$$

Then we find

$$y_k = \sum_{j=0}^k a_{kj}^{-1} y_j^{(k)} - \frac{1}{a_{kk}} \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} (a_{kj}^{-1} a_{kj} - a_{kj}^{-1} a_{kj}) y_j^{(k-1)} \quad (2.4)$$

where

$$a_{kj} = \sum_{i=0}^k a_{kij} \quad (2.5)$$

is the transfer coefficient

The term $y^{(n)}$ can be considered as the forced component of the numerical solution y_n . We observe that

$$y_n^{(n)} = \mathcal{F}(x_n^{(n)}, y_n^{(n)}) = \mathcal{F}(x_n^{(n)}, y_n^{(n)}), \quad (2.6)$$

where

$$x_n^{(n)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n x_j = x_n^{(0)} \quad (2.7)$$

represents the extrapolated expression which has the same form as (2.7)

The term

$$y_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n (h^2)^{j-1} y_j^{(n)} = y_n^{(n)} \quad (2.8)$$

corresponds to the free component of the numerical solution y_n .

This represents "the history of the process" because it contains only the respective expressions y_{n-1} and y_{n-2} for $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

The steps of the calculus (2.6)-(2.8) may be also applied to the particular case of the ordinary differential equation

$$\frac{1}{n} y_n = a_n \frac{dy_n}{dt} + b_n y_n = f_n(t, y_n) \quad (2.9)$$

where a_n and b_n could be constant coefficients or continuous in time functions. Then according to (2.8) we have

$$\int_{t_{n-2}}^{t_n} y_n = \int_{t_{n-2}}^{t_n} a_n \frac{dy_n}{dt} + \int_{t_{n-2}}^{t_n} b_n y_n = \int_{t_{n-2}}^{t_n} f_n(t, y_n) dt, \quad (2.10)$$

which leads to

$$\frac{1}{n} \int_{t_{n-2}}^{t_n} y_n = \int_{t_{n-2}}^{t_n} a_n \frac{dy_n}{dt} + \int_{t_{n-2}}^{t_n} b_n y_n = \int_{t_{n-2}}^{t_n} f_n(t, y_n) dt, \quad (2.11)$$

where to simplify the expressions, the coefficients a_n and b_n are considered constant.

As a result we obtain the numerical solution, local derivative linearized

$$x_{ij}^* \approx a_{ij} - b_{ij} \quad (2.12)$$

where

$$a_{ij} = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^n \Delta t^{k+1} a_{ij} x_{k+1}^*}{\sum_{k=0}^n \Delta t^{k+1} a_{ij} x_{k+1}^*} \quad (2.13)$$

and

$$b_{ij} = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^n \sum_{l=0}^n \Delta t^{k+1} \Delta t^{l+1} a_{ij} x_{k+1}^* x_{l+1}^* + \sum_{k=0}^n \sum_{l=0}^n \Delta t^{k+1} \Delta t^{l+1} a_{ij} x_{k+1}^* x_{l+1}^*}{\sum_{k=0}^n \Delta t^{k+1} a_{ij} x_{k+1}^*} \quad (2.14)$$

We note that (2.12) and (2.14) may be interpreted in the same way as (2.5) and (2.8) respectively.

The form (2.12) has many advantages in dynamical systems analysis and synthesis because it remains analytically modeled by (2.9) elements. One of these advantages is exemplified in the figure 1.1, where we can see the possibility to give an algebra to the three fundamental connections - series, parallel and with feedback - to obtain the equivalent expressions of a_{ij} and b_{ij} .

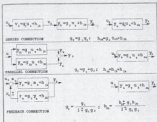


Figure 2.1

We can observe that G_{eq} has the expression of the equivalent transfer function for the same connection, and h_{eq} can be obtained by simple rules.

The LIL modelling with input-output relations has also the other advantages in the theory of systems, but we do not continue our study in this direction. The same principles presented in this chapter can be applied in the case of the input-state relations. As a result we can develop an efficient, simple and unitary method of modelling and simulation by LIL.