

Stability in Time-Delay Systems: Quiet Standing Case Study

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Abstract

The analysis of linear time-delay systems has attracted much interest in the literature over the last five decades. Two types of stability conditions, namely delay-independent which results guarantee stability for arbitrarily large delays and delay-dependent, results take into account the maximum delay that can be tolerated by the system and, thus, are more useful in applications. The stability in general for linear time-delay systems, can be checked exactly only by eigenvalue considerations. When reasonable chosen with intentional delays, case study effects on time-delay of ankle torque on the stability of quiet standing, it can be used to stabilize and improve the close-loop response of these systems.

Keywords: time-delay, stability, quiet standing, case study

1. Introduction

The study of time-delay systems has received considerable interest in the last few decades. Time-delay is the property of a physical system by which the response to an applied force or an action is delayed in its effect and often appears in many practical systems and mathematical formulations such as chemical processes, electrical and control systems, and economical systems [1]. Control systems regularly operate in the presence of delays, primarily due to the time it takes to acquire the information needed for decision-making, to create control decisions, and to execute these decisions, as shown in Figure 1.

Time-delay happened such as in traffic-flow, a model that refers to the drivers' delayed reactions, which the reaction delays vary under physical conditions and stimuli and depend on the drivers' cognitive and physiological states. These delays are critical in accounting for human driver's behavior due to drivers need a minimal amount of time to become aware of external events which combine sensing, selection, perception, and response to make decision. Delay also occurs when analyzing vehicle dynamics stability through anti-lock braking system, and designing collision-free traffic flow using adaptive cruise controllers [2]. Think about driving a car every time while turning the steering wheel, the tires do not respond for it, that means, it has a delay between the steering wheel and the tires. These delays may invite collisions, cause traffic jams and stop-and-go waves that effects contribute to casualties on highways and productivity losses due to increased travel times [3].

In most cases, the presence of delays may be destructive to the operation of the dynamical system since it is frequently a source of system instability and makes the analysis and synthesis complicated. A feedback system that is stable without delay may become unstable for some delays [4]. However, somehow there are beneficial aspects through the time-delay. Main advantages of time-delay are in feedback systems that need the minimum knowledge of the investigated system and no need of a reference signal [5]. In fact, the time-delayed feedback method generates the reference signal from the delayed time series of the system under control; yet, judicious introduction of a delay may stabilize an otherwise unstable system [6]. The potentially stabilizing and controlling the effect of delay systems is a motivation for exploiting the ever-present delays in dynamical systems over five decades [7-8]. For example, appropriate adjustment of the spindle speed helps in tuning the delay to avoid chattering in metal machining, while intentionally adding delays to decision-making allows supply-chain managers to observe consumer trends to make better purchasing and stocking decisions [9].

The main objectives and scope of this paper are to study the effects of time-delay for stability and stabilization of the systems in various limitations and opportunities arises that focused on a linear time-invariant (LTI) systems modeled by delay differential equations (DDEs). Destabilizing and stabilizing effect of single delay systems with feedback law is mentioned in Section 2. Section 3 is dedicated to case study in biology area which is mainly focused on quiet standing analysis. Finally, this paper is concluded in Section 4.

2. Destabilizing and Stabilizing Effect of Delay

Delay differential equations (DDEs) are a large and important class of dynamical systems and often arise in either natural or technological control problems. Most models of systems with delays are obtained based on inflow-outflow interactions such as conservation laws involving mass and energy [10]. In these model systems, a controller monitors the state of the system, and makes adjustments to the system based on its observations. Since these adjustments can never be made instantaneously, a delay arises between the observation and the control action. There are different kinds of DDEs and the examples been considered here, is a linear discrete-time delay:

$$\frac{d}{dt} x(t) = A_0 x(t) + A_1 x(t - \tau_1) + \dots + A_i x(t - \tau_i) \tag{1}$$

where $x(t)$ is the n -dimensional state variable, $A_0, A_1, A_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $i=0, \dots, N$, N is a positive integer. In (1), $\tau_i > 0$ is the delay, that is, $\dot{x}(t)$ depends on $x(t)$ at time t as well as at the time instant $t - \tau_i$. The delay is a shift operator that lags an input signal by the constant amount of time τ_i as shown in Figure 2.

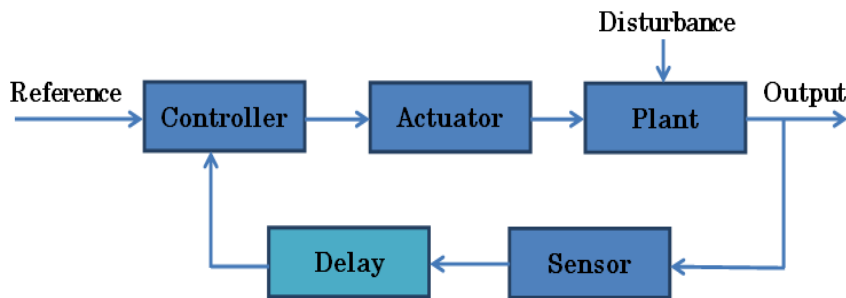


Figure 1. Delay in Feedback System

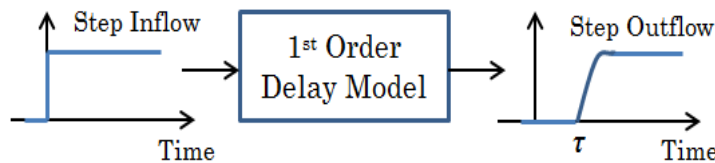


Figure 2. Constant Discrete Delay Model

2.1. Characteristic Equation

The characteristic equation of (1) is given by:

$$f(s; \tau) := \det(-\lambda I + A_0 + A_1 e^{-\tau_1 \lambda} + \dots + A_i e^{-\tau_i \lambda}) = 0 \tag{2}$$

where I is the $n \times n$ identity matrix, and the exponential functions arise from the Laplace transforms of the delay terms. Due to the presence of the exponential terms, (2) is a quasi-polynomial and thus is a transcendental equation, which possesses an infinite number of roots in the complex plane \mathbb{C} , called characteristic roots. For a given set of delays, (1) is asymptotically

stable if and only if all of the roots of (2) lie in the open left-half complex plane \mathbb{C}_- . Verifying asymptotic stability can be difficult since (2) has infinitely many characteristic roots [11].

To illustrate how to analyze the stability of a DDE, consider the plant transfer function of single integrator first-order system, $H(s) = 1/s$ with the controller $C(s) = -ke^{-s\tau}$, where τ is the delay and k is the controller gain. The characteristic equation of this system is given by $f(s; \tau) := s + ke^{-s\tau}$. If $\tau = 0$, then $f(s; \tau) := 0$ has a single root at $s = -k$. As we increase τ from zero to 0^+ , the root $s = -k$ moves in \mathbb{C} , while at the same time an infinite number of roots $s = \tilde{s}_i$, $i=1, 2, \dots$, appear in \mathbb{C} . These roots satisfy two conditions, namely, $\mathcal{R}(\tilde{s}_i) < 0$, and $|\tilde{s}_i| \rightarrow \infty$, as $\tau \rightarrow 0^+$. That is, for an indefinitely small delay, the roots \tilde{s}_i are inactive from a stability point of view. As the delay parameter increases, however, the real parts of these roots may increase, and consequently these roots can destabilize the closed-loop system.

2.2. Stability Chart

Stability charts are diagrams constructed in the plane of two or more parameters of the system showing the stable and unstable domains or the numbers of unstable characteristic exponent's or multipliers. When studying the stability of (1), one of the main objectives is to determine necessary and sufficient conditions for closed-loop stability in either the delay-parameter space that relies on the τ -decomposition technique or the controller-parameter space using the D -decomposition principle. In the τ -decomposition, the time-lag τ is allowed to vary while other parameters are kept fixed, while in D -decomposition method, the time-lag τ is held constantly [12]. These decomposition techniques state that boundaries in the parameter space exist to divide the space into regions, where all the values the parameter can attain in each region make the system either stable or unstable. A DDE that is exploit information about the delays involved and stable for only some values in the delay parameter space is called delay-dependent stable. If the stability of a DDE is maintained independently of the delay which is do not need any information about the delay, then DDE is called delay-independent stable [13]. Multiple disjoint delay regions may also exist, where the system may be stable within each region, while becoming unstable outside. These regions, which are known as stability regions, become stability intervals in a system with a single delay, that is, when $N = 1$ in (1). Figure 3 shows the stability chart for a closed-loop system with the plant transfer function $e^{-s\tau}b / (s + a)$ and the controller, $C(s) = k$.

2.3. Destabilizing Effects of Delays

Consider the transfer function of a single integrator $H(s) = 1/s$ subject to the delayed controller $C(s) = -k^{-s\tau}$ with $k > 0$. To determine the stability of the closed-loop system, we need to first find the roots $s = j\omega$ of the closed-loop characteristic equation:

$$s + ke^{-s\tau} \quad (3)$$

for all τ , that is,

$$\cos(\omega\tau) = 0 \quad (4)$$

$$k \sin(\omega\tau) = \omega \quad (5)$$

Due to the periodicity in (4) and (5), there exist infinitely many delays $\tau_{c,l} = \pi/(2k) + (2\pi l)/\omega_c$, $l = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, all of which yield the crossing frequency $\omega_c = k$, that is, (3) has roots on the imaginary axis at $s = \pm jk$. By continuity, it follows that closed-loop stability is guaranteed for all delays satisfying $\tau \in [0, \tau_c]$, where $\tau_c = \pi/2k$. In this example, the system is unstable for $\tau \geq \tau_c$, and thus τ_c is the delay margin of the system.

Let now consider the movement of the rightmost root of (3) as τ changes. As shown in Figure 4 for the controller gain $k = 1$, increasing the delay from zero generates fast-moving characteristic roots, which enter from $-\infty$ in \mathbb{C} . Note that the root located at $-k$ for $\tau = 0$ moves to the left, as the delay increases. Finally, at the value $\tau_c = \pi/2$, a pair of roots entering from $-\infty$ crosses the imaginary axis toward \mathbb{C}_+ . Larger values of k induce smaller delay margins since $\tau_c = \pi/(2k)$.

2.4. Stabilizing Effects of Delays

By considering the second-order feedback open-loop system, $H(s) = 1/(s^2 + \omega_0^2)$ with the delayed controller, $C(s) = ke^{-s\tau}$, the closed-loop characteristic equation is given by:

$$s^2 + \omega_0^2 - ke^{-s\tau} = 0 \tag{6}$$

If $\tau = 0$, then the system is unstable for all k . However, the system can be made stable either by designing appropriate values of k and τ or by using a proportional-derivative controller without delay $C(s) = k_p + k_d s$. Let design (k, τ) so that the closed-loop system is stable. As in (3), it can show that two distinct crossing frequencies exist for each $k > 0$, where $k \in (0, \omega_0^2)$, as given by $\omega_{c,1} = \sqrt{\omega_0^2 - k}$ and $\omega_{c,2} = \sqrt{\omega_0^2 + k}$, which lead to the critical delay values $\tau_{c,1,l} = (2l\pi) \sqrt{\omega_0^2 - k}$ and $\tau_{c,2,l} = (2l\pi) \sqrt{\omega_0^2 + k}$, for $l = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, respectively. The sensitivity expression $\mathcal{R} \{[ds/d\tau]\}_{s=j\omega_c} = -2\omega_c^2 / (\omega_0^2 - \omega_c^2)$ indicates that the characteristic roots crossing at $\omega_c = \omega_{c,1}$ where the roots move toward \mathbb{C}_- accommodate the stability, on the other hand, the roots crossing at $\omega_{c,2}$ favor instability. If $\tau = 0$, then the closed-loop system has only a pair of poles of the form $s = \pm j\omega_{c,1}$. As mentioned above, these poles provide stability at the delay values $\tau_{c,1,l}$. That is, for sufficiently small $\tau = \varepsilon > 0$, the closed-loop system becomes stable since the poles $s = \pm j\omega_{c,1}$ move toward \mathbb{C}_- , and no closed-loop poles are located in \mathbb{C}_+ or on the imaginary axis. In this case, increasing the delay value has a stabilizing effect. Considering all critical delays, we conclude that the system is stable if and only if, for some nonnegative integer l , the delay τ satisfies:

$$\frac{2l\pi}{\sqrt{\omega_0^2 - k}} < \tau < \frac{(2l+1)\pi}{\sqrt{\omega_0^2 + k}} \tag{7}$$

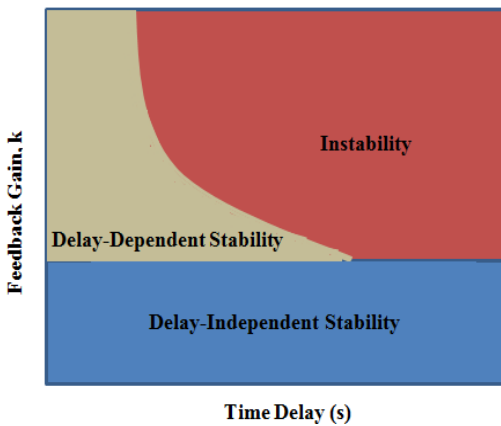


Figure 3. Stability Chart

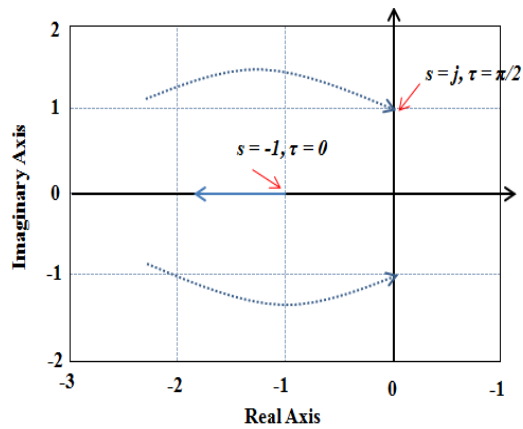


Figure 4. Characteristic roots of the closed-loop system

3. Case Study: Effects of ankle torque on the stability of quiet standing

In Human bipedal stance is inherently unstable because a large body mass is kept in erect posture with its center of mass located high above a relatively small base of support. The mechanism responsible for equilibrium control of quiet stance as shown in Figure 5 involve analyzing muscle activity at the ankles which is maintaining the vertical configuration of the human body. Analysis of quiet standing offers insight on how humans regulate their vertical posture and puts light on how humans walk without falling. The ankle joint torque needed to stabilize the body during quiet stance can be generated actively and passively. Passive torque components are the result of tension or stiffness produced by muscle tonus and by the stiffness of the surrounding tissue, such as ligaments and tendons [14]. On the other hand, active torque component is produced by the central nervous system, which modulates or controls muscle

contractions based on the overall body kinematics and dynamics of spontaneous body sway that are influenced by external disturbances [15].

A complete set of dynamic equilibrium equations can be easily derived to establish the relationship between sway movement and the ground reaction forces. Free body diagrams in Figure 6 illustrate the human body as a single segment, single joint inverted pendulum approximation that rotates about the ankle joint [16]. The dynamic equation of the human inverted pendulum model is:

$$I\ddot{\theta} = mgl\sin\theta + T + \varepsilon \quad (8)$$

Figure 6 shows the entire body excluding feet as inverted pendulum rotating about the ankle joint A. m is the mass of body above ankle, F_h and F_v are horizontal and vertical force acting at ankle joint, I is the moment of inertia of the body, l is the distance of center of mass from the ankle, T is moment acting at ankle joint by muscles, θ is absolute sway angle with respect to fixed vertical reference, and ε is the torque disturbance, which is sufficiently small compared with other torque contributions. The ankle joint torque, T is modeled as:

$$T = k\theta + b\dot{\theta} + f_p(\theta_\tau) + f_D(\dot{\theta}_\tau) \quad (9)$$

where τ is the neural transmission delay, k and b are the passive stiffness and viscosity parameters represent passive feedback torques with no time delay that related to the intrinsic mechanical impedance of the ankle joint, the third and fourth terms represent the active neural feedback torques that are determined as functions of delay-affected tilt angle and angular velocity, respectively.

The delay differential equation (DDE) of inverted pendulum in equations (8) and (9) is numerically integrated by using the forward Euler method where $x(t) = [\theta(t), \dot{\theta}(t)]$, σ is corresponding amplitude and τ is the feedback delay time. More precisely, the second-order equation of motion is reformulated as the following ordinary DDE:

$$\dot{x}(t) = f(x(t), x(t - \tau)) + \sigma \varepsilon(t) \quad (10)$$

The model of the neuromusculoskeletal (NMS) torque-generation process for an isometric torque-exertion task can be used for the standing task; since the muscle length change is very small during quiet standing has been concisely modeled as a critically damped, second-order system [17]. The transfer function $H(s)$ is written as:

$$H(s) = \frac{G \omega_n^2}{(s + \omega_n)^2} = \frac{G (1/T_s)^2}{(s + 1/T_s)^2} \quad (11)$$

where G is the gain, ω_n is the natural frequency of the second-order system, and T_s is the twitch contraction time represents the time interval from the moment when a stimulus arrives at the muscle to the moment when the generated force reaches its peak.

The dynamic characteristics of equation (11) is determined by the natural frequency, which corresponds to the inverse of the twitch contraction time of the muscle ($T_s = 1/\omega_n$). Note that ω_n and T_s equivalently capture the characteristics of the NMS system and the second-order dynamics induce a phase delay as a function of frequency instead of a constant time delay [18]. Since the delay induced by the NMS system is due to the chemical and mechanical muscle and joint dynamics, the T_s is believed to depend not only on the muscle fiber properties involved in the corresponding motor task, but also on the ankle joint and foot condition. Therefore, it was required to identify the NMS system under a condition equivalent to the quiet standing posture.

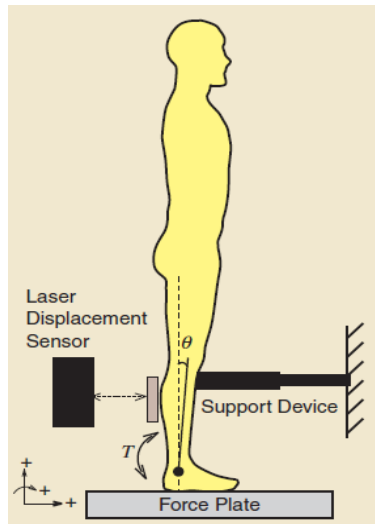


Figure 5. Quiet standing

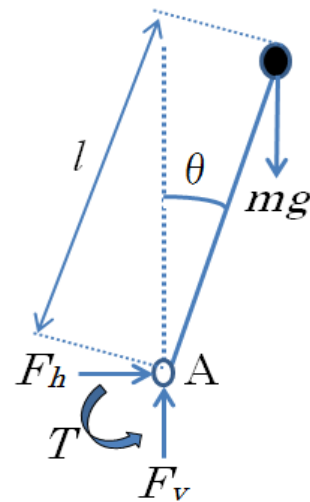


Figure 6. Free body diagram of quiet standing

A block diagram of the closed-loop quiet-standing system is shown in Figure 7, where the neural controller comprises a proportional-derivative (PD) controller with gains K_P and K_D . The main challenge is how to compensate the danger of instability induced by the large neural feedback transmission delay, which is of the order of 200 ms [19]. The standard PD model faces a stringent trade-off that leaves narrow margins for the design of the control parameters: the proportional gain must be large enough for supplementing the insufficient ankle stiffness but not too large for avoiding delay-promoted instability. An active correction mechanism, which is a PD controller, emanates from the neural controller and becomes effective after a length of time t . Damping of sway patterns requires rather large values of the derivative gain but again the feedback delay sets a stringent upper bound on this parameter.

Following the standard block diagram simplifications in Figure 7, the characteristic equation of quiet standing is:

$$f(s; \tau K_P, K_D) = Q_1(s, K_P, K_D) + e^{-\tau s} Q_2(s, K_P, K_D) = 0 \quad (12)$$

where Q_1 and Q_2 are polynomials, and τ is the sensory delay of the human model. One goal is to find combinations of (K_P, K_D) such that the quiet-standing model (11) is stable for a given delay τ .

From (1) and (2), by first-order Taylor's series, it can be approximated that θ_τ and $\dot{\theta}_\tau$ yield to:

$$(I - D\tau)\ddot{\theta} + (b + D - P\tau)\dot{\theta} + (k + P - mgl)\theta = 0 \quad (13)$$

In other words, the delay tends to decrease the apparent inertia and damping of the inverted pendulum but both must remain positive for stability because the eigenvalues solve the following equation:

$$\lambda^2 + \frac{b + D - P\tau}{I - D\tau}\lambda + \frac{k + P - mgl}{I - D\tau} = 0 \quad (14)$$

As demonstrated in [20], two additional conditions must be satisfied by the proportional and derivative gains, yielding a set of three conditions to be satisfied by the feedback controller for gaining the asymptotic stability of the upright posture:

$$\begin{aligned}
 &P > mgl - k \\
 &D < \frac{I}{\tau} \\
 &D > \tau P - b
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{15}$$

In the P - D parameter plane as shown in Figure 8, identifies a triangle that limits the set of admissible values for the feedback parameters. As τ decreases, the triangle increases its area and tends to fill the whole first quadrant of the P - D plane to the right of the critical value $mgl - k$. On the contrary, as τ increases the triangle decreases its area and vanishes when it reaches a critical value $\tau = [b + \sqrt{b^2 + 4I(mgl - k)}] / [2(mgl - k)]$ which is a function of the physical parameters of the system (m, l, I, b, k). A loss of stability of the upright posture occurs when $D > \tau P - b$ is broken via a Hopf bifurcation, which is a typical critical phenomenon that induces a stable or unstable oscillatory behavior of a dynamical system through instability of an equilibrium state, leading to an unstable oscillation around the upright equilibrium of unstable focus type. Indeed when $D = \tau P - b$, the real parts of the eigenvalues of the linearized equation (13) vanishes and the upright equilibrium loses its stability.

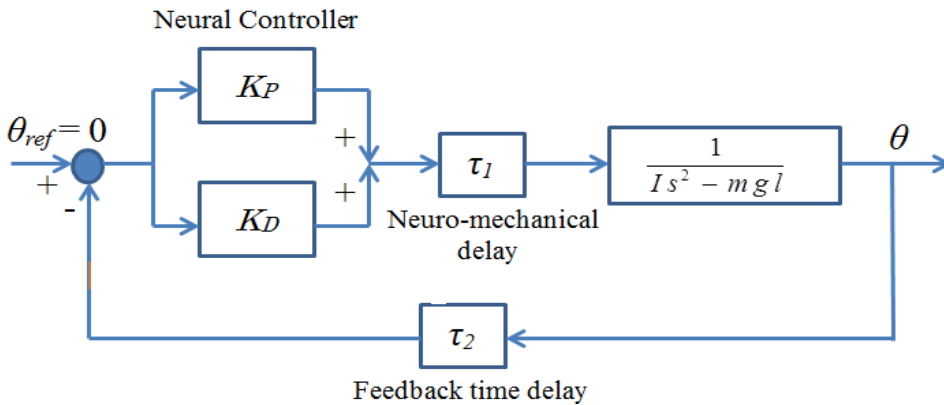


Figure 7. Closed-loop control diagram of quiet standing

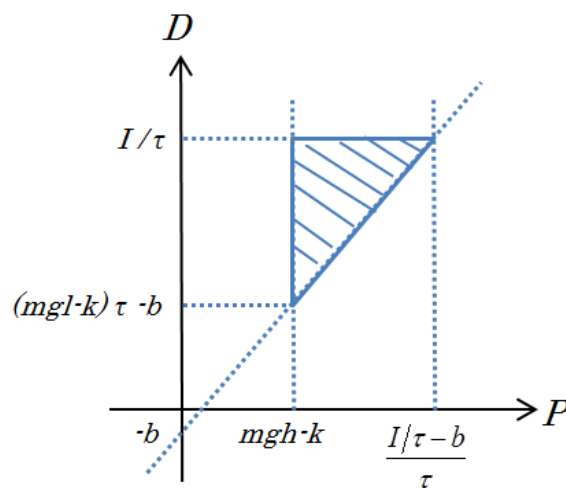


Figure 8. Proportional and derivative plane parameters, region of stability (shaded triangle).
4. Conclusion

In this paper, the effect of delays in dynamical systems modeled by linear time-invariant delay differential equations was expressed. This paper focused on eigenvalue locations and parametric techniques rather than Lyapunov-based approaches. Example with delay on biological case study was analyzed and discussed. Authors limit the paper to the effects of delays on stability, and believe that delays on controllers for nonlinear systems area deserves further research due to impact of delays continue to grow in many fields.

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