

# Dynamic behavior of First-order and Second-order Systems

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1. **Standard Process Inputs.**
2. **Response of First-Order Systems.**
3. **Response of Integrating Process.**
4. **Response of Second-Order Systems.**

- **In this chapter, we learn how process respond to typical changes in some of input changes.**

## *Standard inputs*

A number of standard types of input changes are widely used for two reasons:

1. They are representative of the types of changes that occur in plants.
2. They are easy to analyze mathematically.

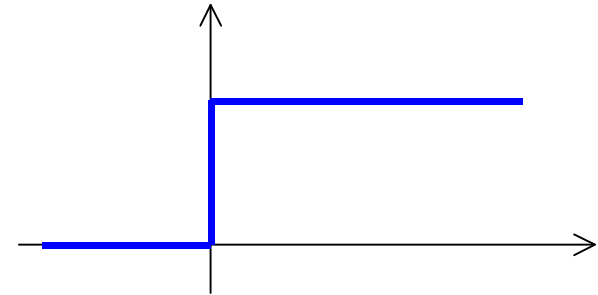
## Standard inputs

- **Step Input**

A sudden change in a process variable can be approximated by a step change of magnitude,  $M$ :

$$u_s = \begin{cases} 0 & t < 0 \\ M & t \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$u_s(s) = M/s$$



The step change occurs at an arbitrary time denoted as  $t = 0$ .

- *Special Case:* If  $M = 1$ , we have a “unit step change”. We give it the symbol,  $S(t)$ .

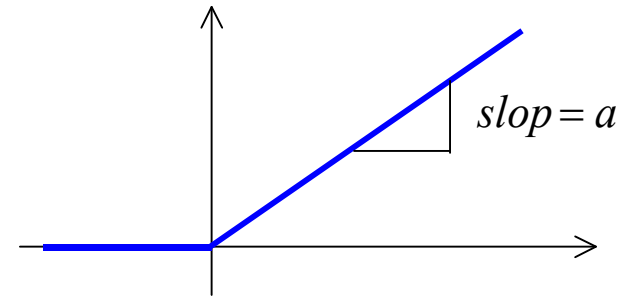
## *Standard inputs*

### 2. Ramp Input

We can approximate a drifting disturbance by a *ramp input*:

$$u_R(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & t < 0 \\ at & t \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$u_R(s) = a/s^2$$



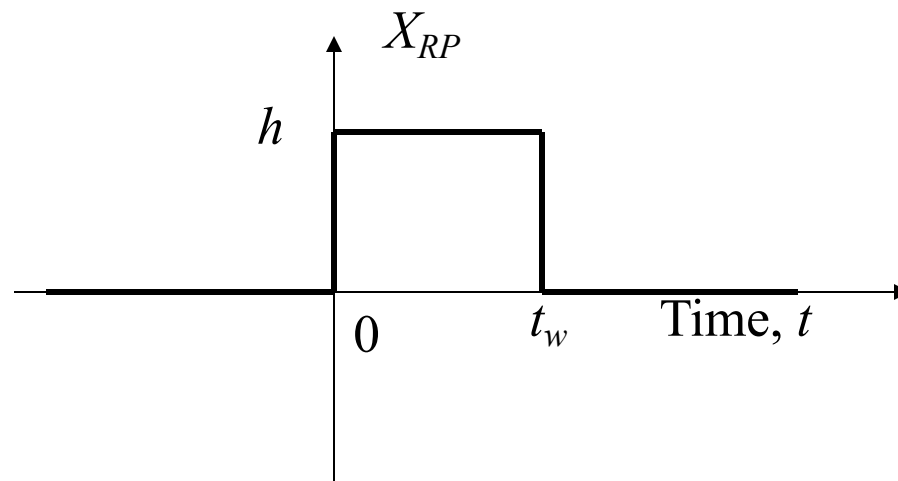
## Standard inputs

### 3. Rectangular Pulse

It represents a brief, sudden change in a process variable:

$$u_{RP}(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } t < 0 \\ h & \text{for } 0 \leq t < t_w \\ 0 & \text{for } t \geq t_w \end{cases}$$

$$u_{RP}(s) = \frac{h}{s} [1 - e^{-t_w s}]$$



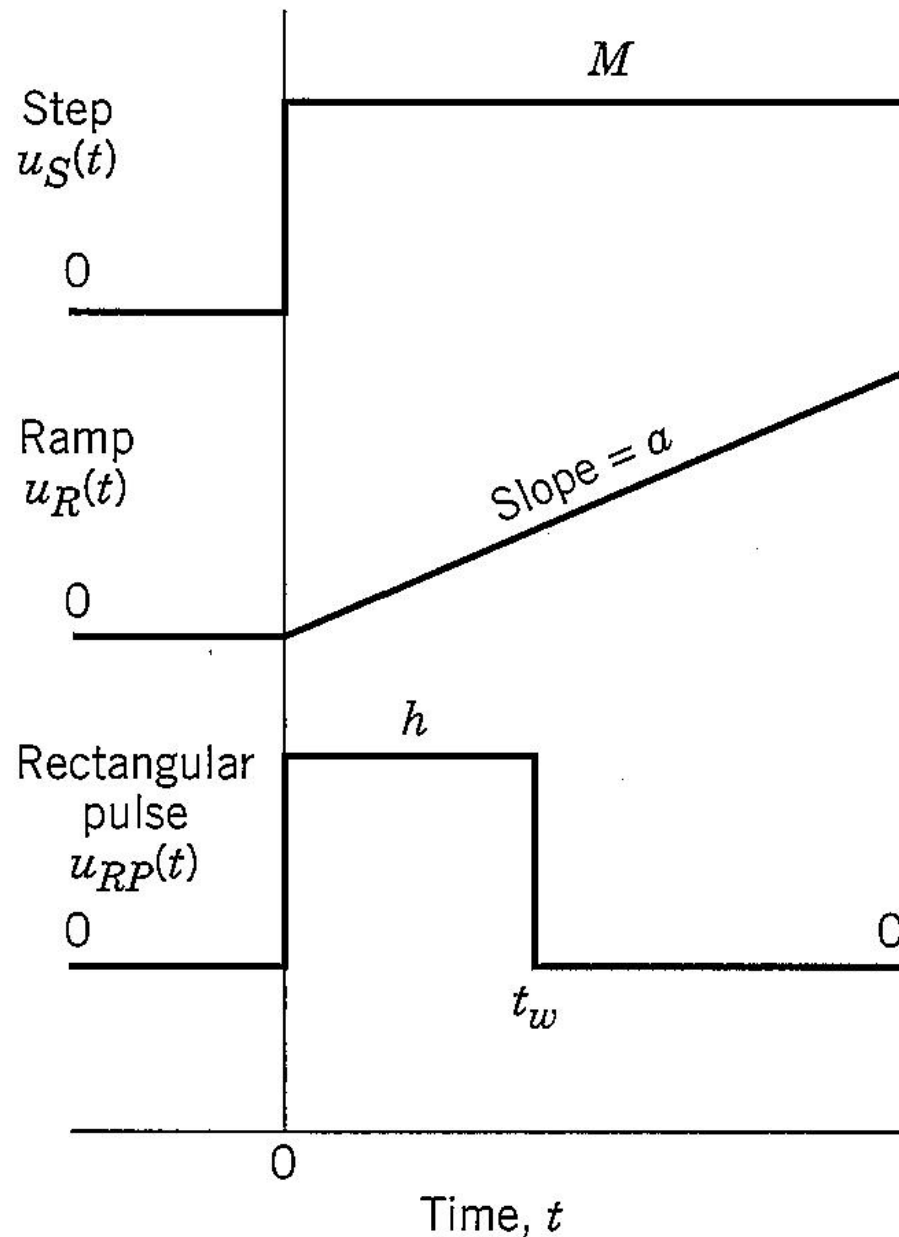


Figure 4.2 Three important examples of deterministic inputs.

## ***Standard inputs***

### **4. Sinusoidal Input**

Processes are also subject to periodic, or cyclic, disturbances. They can be approximated by a sinusoidal disturbance:

$$U_{\sin}(t) \triangleq \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } t < 0 \\ A \sin(\omega t) & \text{for } t \geq 0 \end{cases} \quad (5-14)$$

where:  $A$  = amplitude,  $\omega$  = angular frequency

## *Standard inputs*

### **5. Impulse Input**

$$U_I(t) = \delta(t).$$

- Here,
- It represents a short, transient disturbance.

It has the simplest Laplace transform, but it is not a realistic input signal. Because to obtain an impulse input, it is necessary to inject amount of energy or material into a process in an infinitesimal length of time.



# Response of First-Order System

The standard form for a first-order TF is:

$$\frac{Y(s)}{U(s)} = \frac{K}{\tau s + 1} \quad (5-16)$$

where:

$K \triangleq$  steady-state gain

$\tau \triangleq$  time constant

Consider the response of this system to a **step of magnitude**,  $M$ :

$$U(t) = M \text{ for } t \geq 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad U(s) = \frac{M}{s}$$

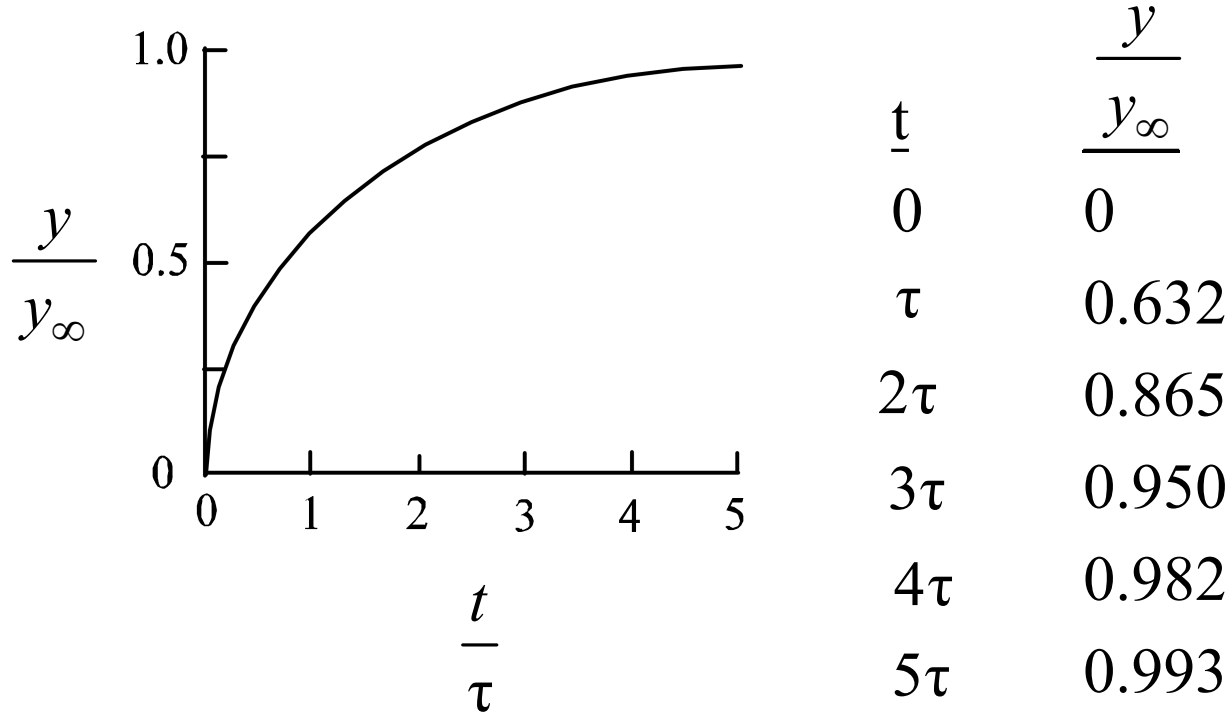
Substitute into (5-16) and rearrange,

$$Y(s) = \frac{KM}{s(\tau s + 1)} \quad (5-17)$$

Take inverse Laplace transform, time –domain response is:

$$\boxed{y(t) = KM \left(1 - e^{-t/\tau}\right)} \quad (5-18)$$

Let  $y_{\infty} \triangleq$  steady-state value of  $y(t)$ . From (5-18),  $y_{\infty} = KM$ .



*Note:* Large  $\tau$  means a slow response.

**Table 5.1 Response of a First-Order Process to a Step Input**

$t$	$y(t)/KM = 1 - e^{-t/\tau}$
0	0
$\tau$	0.6321
$2\tau$	0.8647
$3\tau$	0.9502
$4\tau$	0.9817
$5\tau$	0.9933

★ A first-order system does not respond instantaneously to a sudden change in its input and that after a time interval equal to the process time constant ( $\tau$ ), the process response is still only 63.2% complete.

★ Theoretically the process output never reaches the new steady-state value; it does approximate the new value when  $t$  equals 3 to 5 process time constants.

# Response of Integrating Process Units

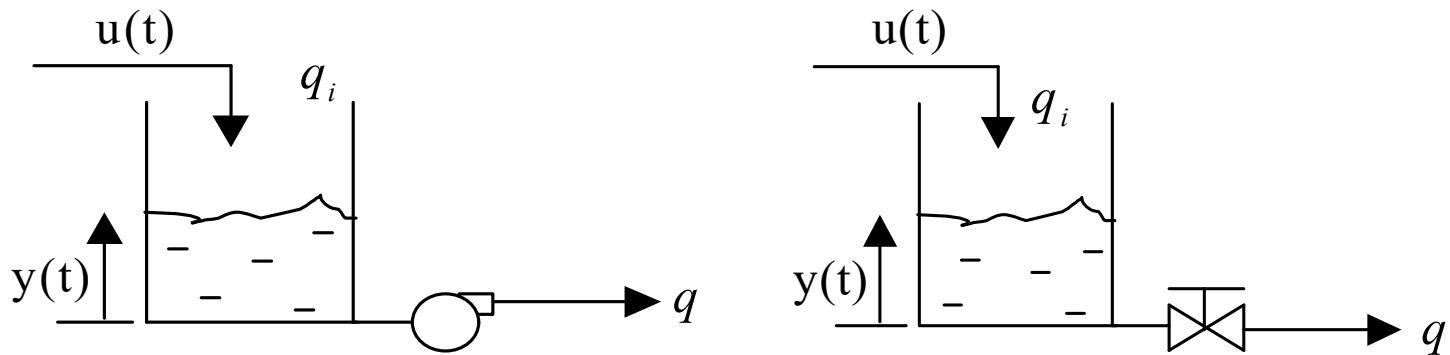
- What is an '**Integrating Process**'?

The process which has integrating unit( $1/s$ ) in its transfer function.

– Open-loop unstable process(Non-self-regulating process).

A process that cannot reach a new steady state when subjected to step changes in inputs is called '**Open-loop unstable process**' or '**Non-self-regulating process**'.

## ? Which process is an integrating process?



Liquid level system with a pump(a) or valve(b).

# Integrating Process

An “integrating process” or “integrator” has the transfer function:

$$\frac{Y(s)}{U(s)} = \frac{K}{s} \quad (K = \text{constant})$$

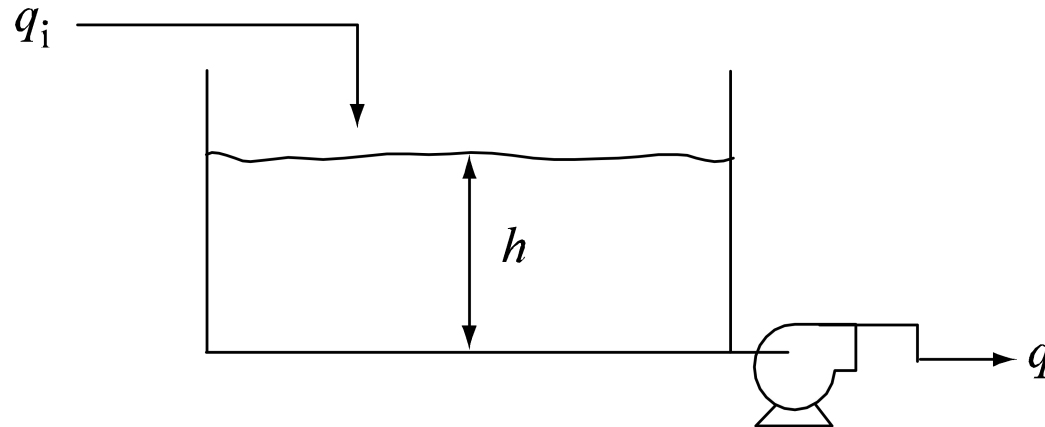
Consider a step change of magnitude  $M$ . Then  $U(s) = M/s$  and,

$$Y(s) = \frac{KM}{s^2} \Rightarrow y(t) = KMt$$

Thus,  $y(t)$  is unbounded and a new steady-state value does *not* exist.

## Common Physical Example:

Consider a liquid storage tank with a pump on the exit line:



- Assume:

1. Constant cross-sectional area,  $A$ .

2.  $q$  is independent of  $h$ .  $q \neq f(h)$

- Mass balance:  $A \frac{dh}{dt} = q_i - q$  (1)  $\Rightarrow 0 = \bar{q}_i - \bar{q}$  (2)

- Eq. (1) – Eq. (2), take  $L$  transform,

-  $H'(s) = \frac{1}{As} [Q'_i(s) - Q'(s)]$

- For  $Q'(s) = 0$  (constant  $q$ ),

$$\boxed{\frac{H'(s)}{Q'_i(s)} = \frac{1}{As}}$$

# Response of Second-Order Systems

- A second order transfer function can arise physically
  - Two first-order processes are connected in series.

$$G(s) = \frac{Y(s)}{U(s)} = \frac{K_1 K_2}{(\tau_1 s + 1)(\tau_2 s + 1)} = \frac{K}{(\tau_1 s + 1)(\tau_2 s + 1)}$$

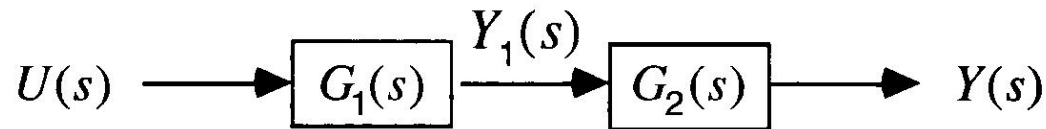


Figure 5.9. Two first-order systems in series yield an overall second-order system.

- A second-order differential equation process model is transformed.

- Standard form of the second-order transfer function.

$$G(s) = \frac{K}{\tau^2 s^2 + 2\zeta\tau s + 1}$$

Where

$K$  is the **process gain**.

$\tau$  is the **time constant** which determines the speed of response of the system.

$\zeta$  is the **damping factor** which provides a measure of the amount of damping in the system, that is, the degree of oscillation in a process response after a perturbation.

$$\tau^2 s^2 + 2\zeta\tau s + 1 = \left(\frac{\tau s}{\zeta - \sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1}} + 1\right) \left(\frac{\tau s}{\zeta + \sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1}} + 1\right)$$

$$\tau_1 = \frac{\tau}{\zeta - \sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1}} \quad \tau_2 = \frac{\tau}{\zeta + \sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1}}$$



- Three important subcases.

**Table 5.2 The Three Forms of Second-Order Transfer Functions**

<i>Case</i>	<i>Range of Damping Coefficient</i>	<i>Characterization of Response</i>	<i>Roots of Characteristic Equation</i>
a	$\zeta > 1$	Overdamped	Real and unequal
b	$\zeta = 1$	Critically damped	Real and equal
c	$0 \leq \zeta < 1$	Underdamped	Complex conjugates (of the form $a + jb$ and $a - jb$ )

$\zeta < 0$  ; unstable second-order system that would have an unbounded response to any input.

# Step response of second-order systems

$$U(s) = \frac{M}{s}, \quad Y(s) = \frac{KM}{(\tau^2 s^2 + 2\zeta\tau s + 1)s}$$

$$\tau_1 = \frac{\tau}{\zeta - \sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1}} \quad \tau_2 = \frac{\tau}{\zeta + \sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1}}$$

**Case a.**  $\zeta > 1$  , root are real and distinct: **Overdamped.**

$$y(t) = KM \left( 1 - \frac{\tau_1 e^{-t/\tau_1} - \tau_2 e^{-t/\tau_2}}{\tau_1 - \tau_2} \right)$$

**Case b.**  $\zeta = 1$  , double root: **Critically damped.**

$$y(t) = KM \left[ 1 - \left( 1 + \frac{t}{\tau} \right) \exp\left(-\frac{t}{\tau}\right) \right]$$

**Case c.**  $0 \leq \zeta < 1$  , complex root: **Underdamped.**

$$\begin{aligned} y(t) &= KM \left\{ 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{\zeta t}{\tau}\right) \left[ \cos\left(\frac{\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}}{\tau} t\right) + \frac{\zeta}{\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}} \sin\left(\frac{\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}}{\tau} t\right) \right] \right\} \\ &= KM \left\{ 1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{\zeta t}{\tau}\right) \sin\left(\sqrt{1-\zeta^2} \frac{t}{\tau} + \psi\right) \right\} \end{aligned}$$

Where  $\psi = \tan^{-1}(\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}/\zeta)$

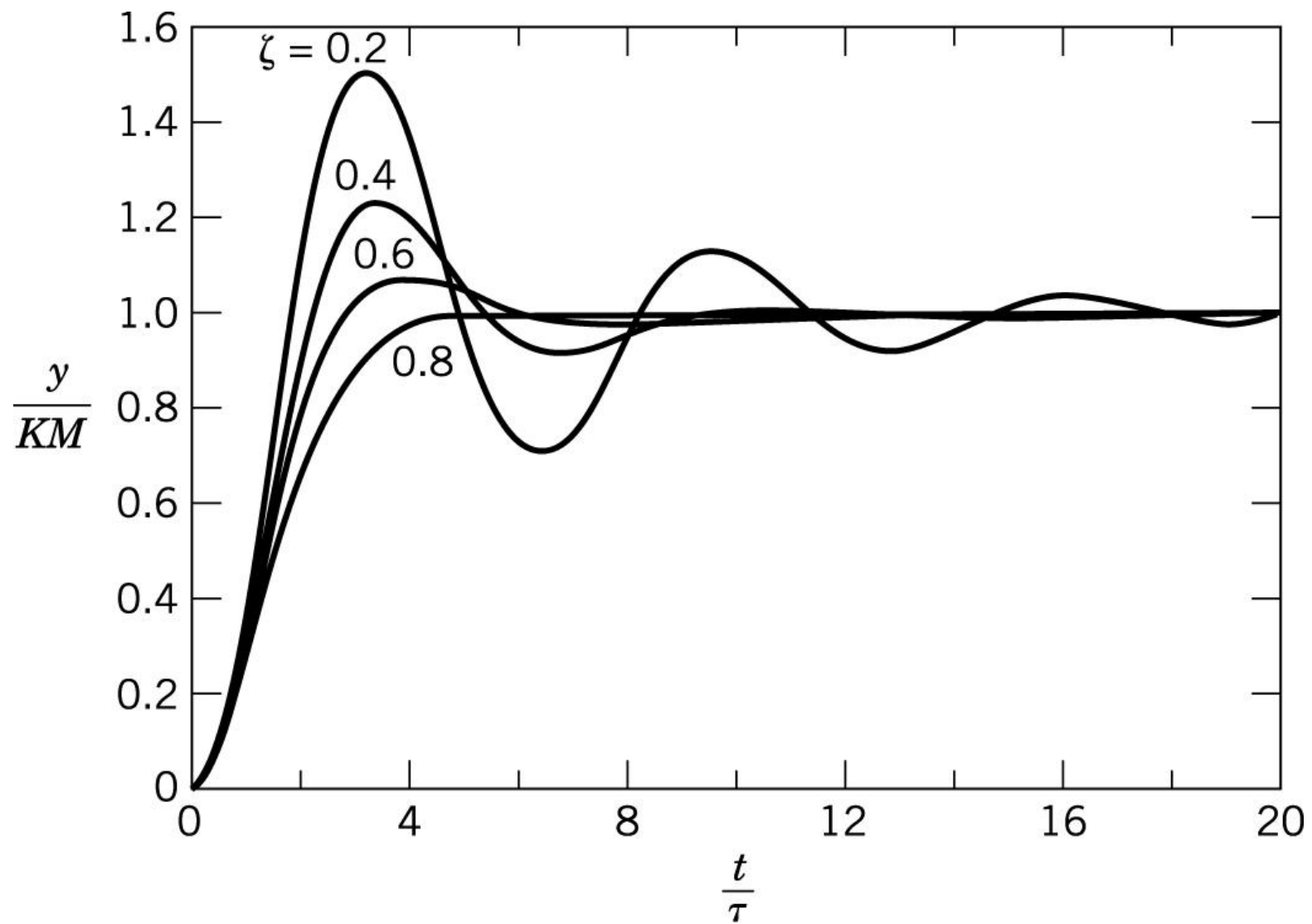


Figure 4.8

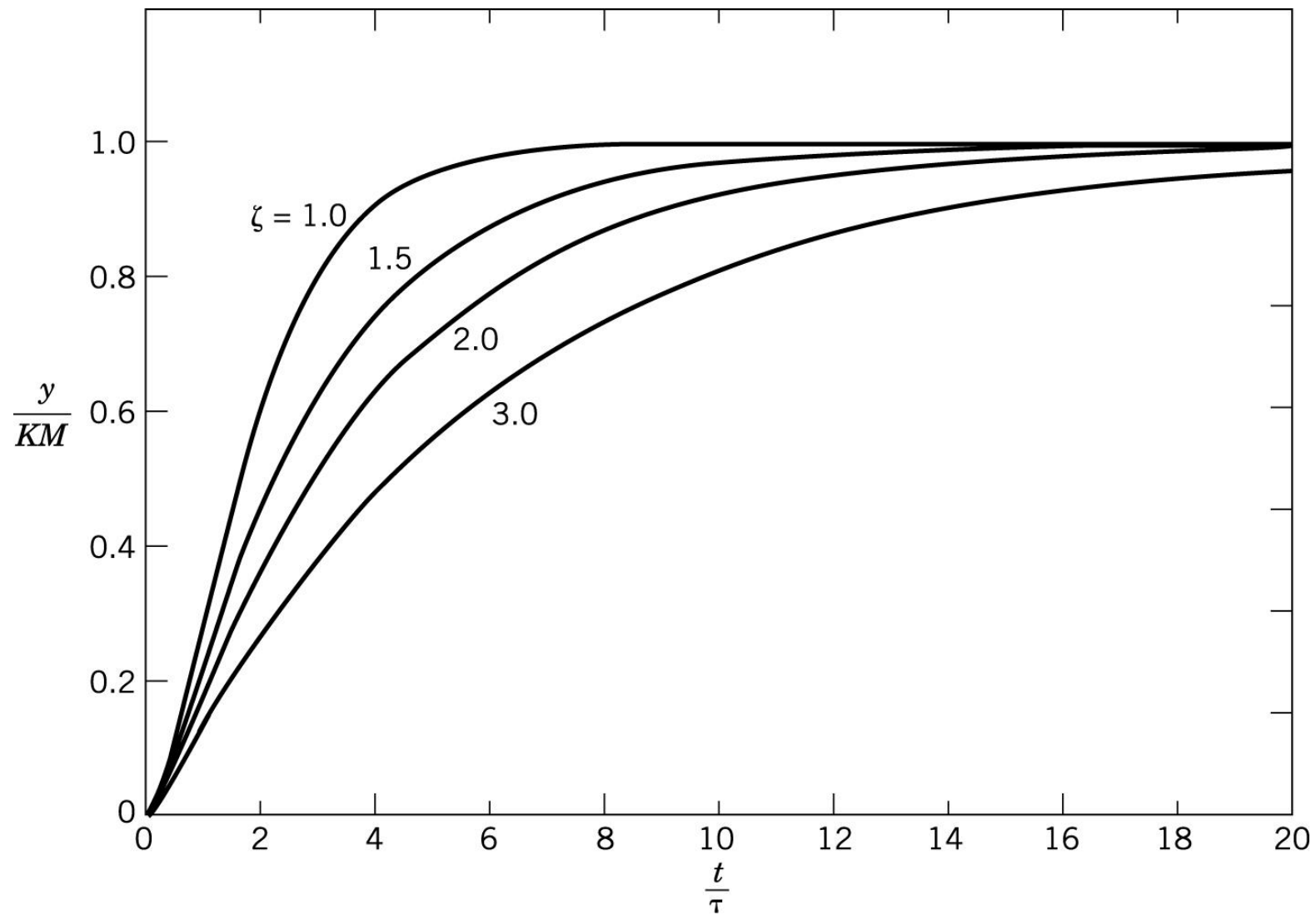


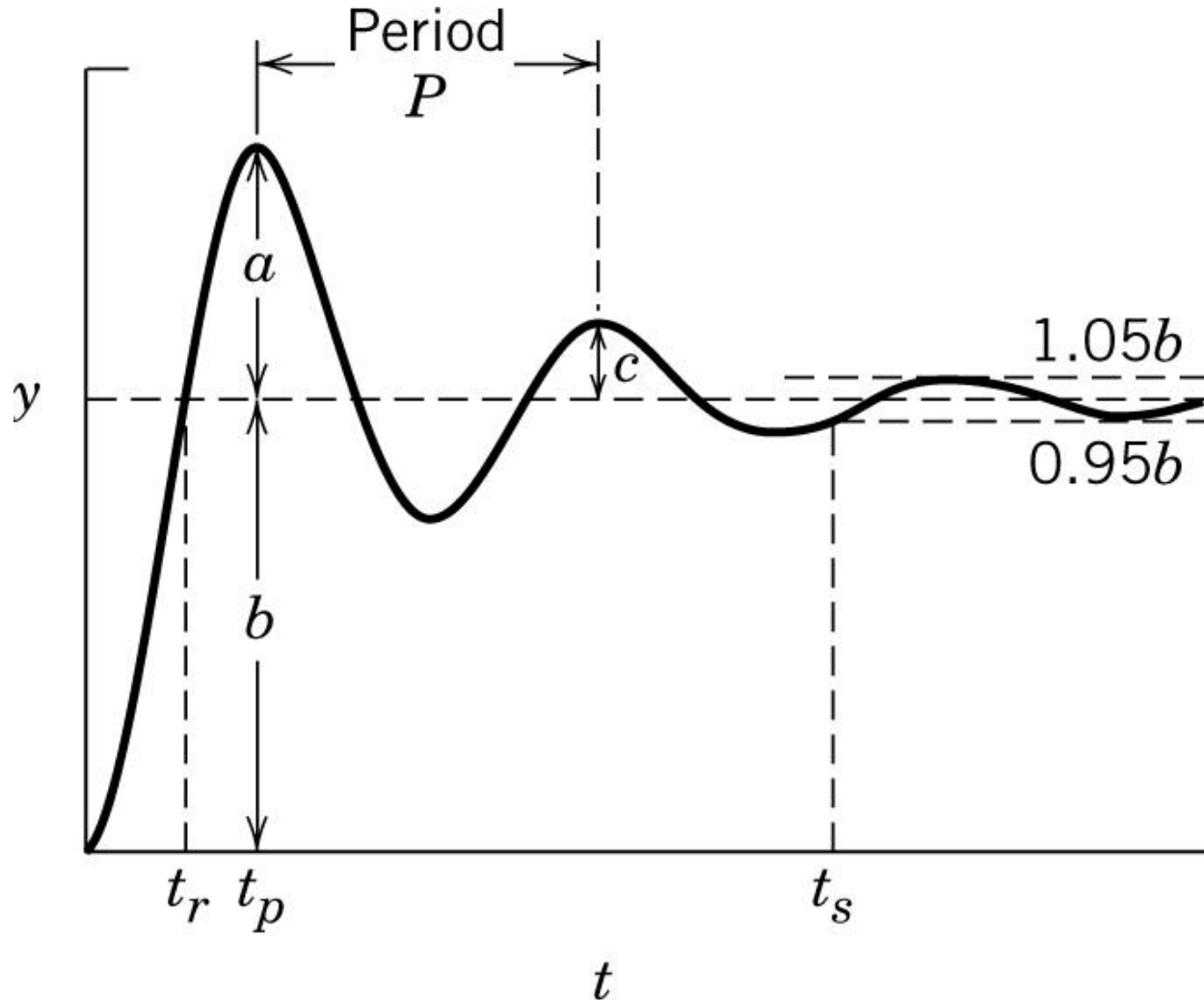
Figure 4.9

Several general remarks can be made concerning the responses shown in Figs. 5.8 and 5.9:

1. Responses exhibiting oscillation and overshoot ( $y/KM > 1$ ) are obtained only for values of  $\zeta$  less than one.
2. Large values of  $\zeta$  yield a sluggish (slow) response.
3. The fastest response without overshoot is obtained for the critically damped case ( $\zeta = 1$ ).

## *Performance characteristics of underdamped second-order systems*

- Control systems are required to have performance of underdamped second –order systems:



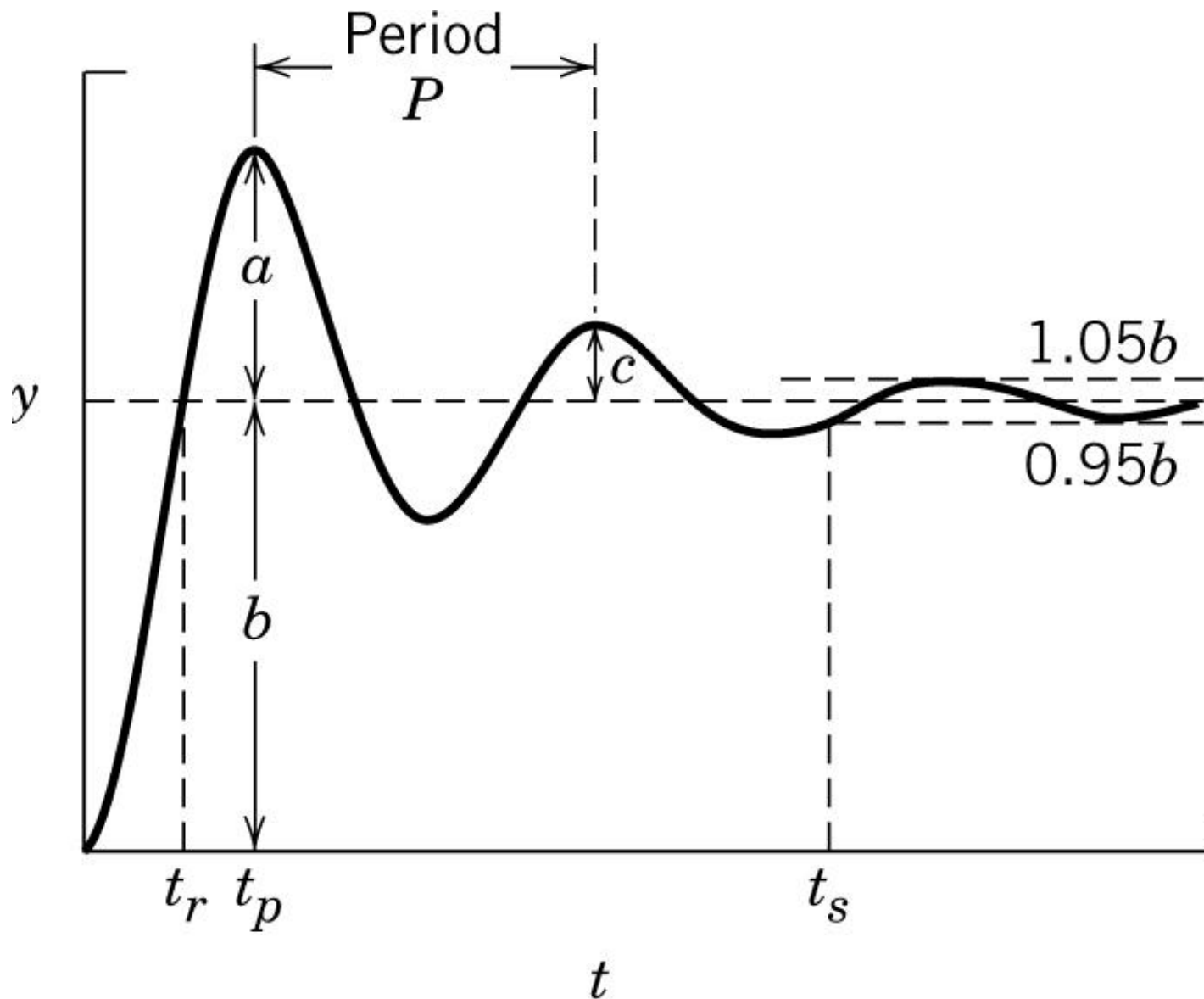
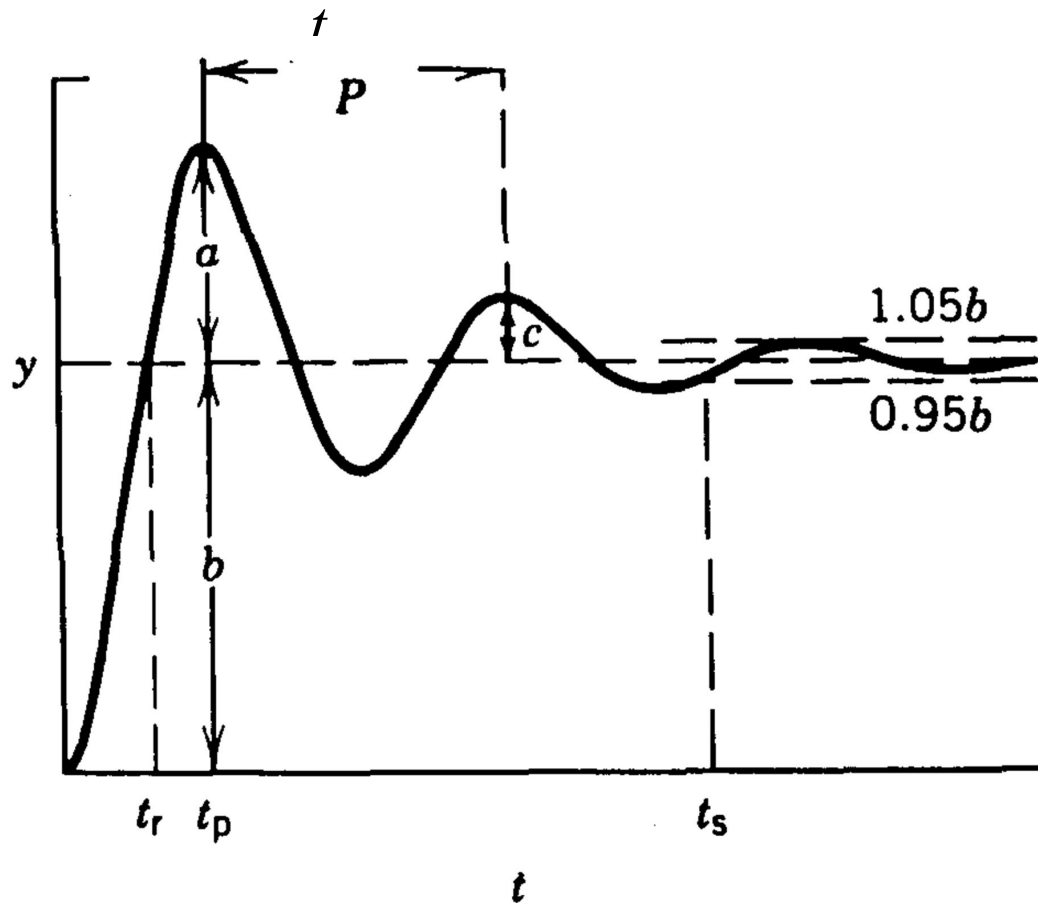


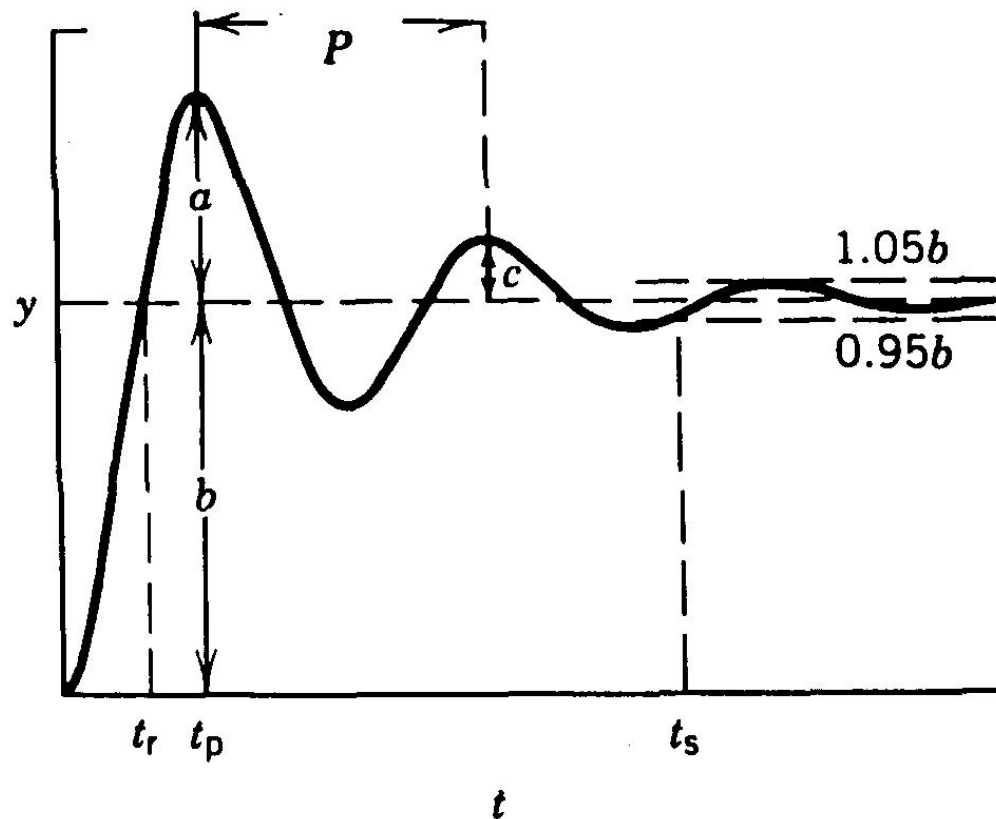
Figure 4.10

1. **Rise Time:**  $t_r$  is the time the process output takes to first reach the new steady-state value.
2. **Time to First Peak:**  $t_p$  is the time required for the output to reach its first maximum value.

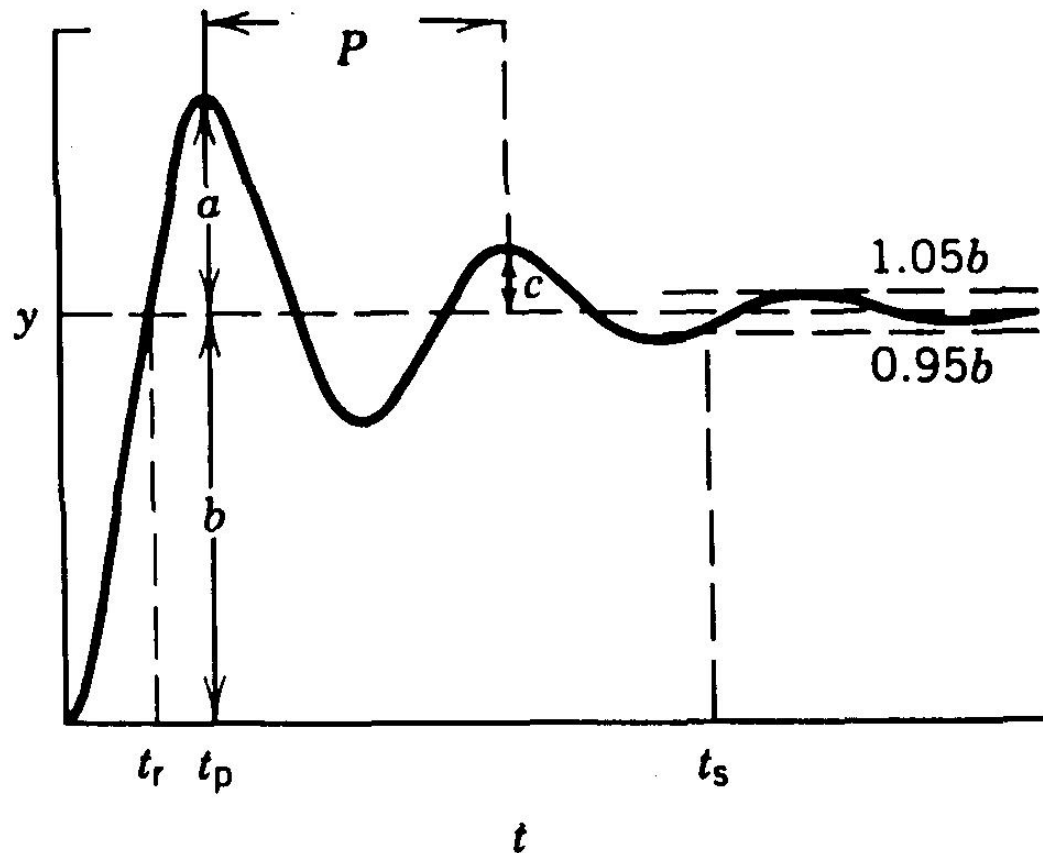




- 3 **Settling Time:**  $t_s$  is defined as the time required for the process output to reach and remain inside a band whose width is equal to  $\pm 5\%$  of the total change in  $y$ . The term 95% response time sometimes is used to refer to this case. Also, values of  $\pm 1\%$  sometimes are used.
- 4 **Overshoot:**  $OS = a/b$  (% overshoot is  $100a/b$ ).



- 5. Decay Ratio:**  $DR = c/a$  (where  $c$  is the height of the second peak).
- 6. Period of Oscillation:**  $P$  is the time between two successive peaks or two successive valleys of the response.



$$y(t) = KM \left\{ 1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{\zeta t}{\tau}\right) \sin\left(\sqrt{1-\zeta^2} \frac{t}{\tau} + \psi\right) \right\}$$

**Rise time.**

$$t_r = \frac{\tau}{\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}} (\pi - \psi)$$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{l} \because 1 = 1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}} \exp\left(-\frac{\zeta t}{\tau}\right) \sin\left(\sqrt{1-\zeta^2} \frac{t}{\tau} + \psi\right) \\ \sin\left(\sqrt{1-\zeta^2} \frac{t}{\tau} + \psi\right) = 0 \end{array} \right]$$

- **Time to first peak.**

$$t_p = \frac{\tau\pi}{\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}} \quad [\because dy/dt = 0]$$

- **Overshoot.**

$$OS = \exp(-\pi\zeta / \sqrt{1-\zeta^2})$$

$$[\because a = y(t = t_p) - b = KM \exp(-\pi\zeta / \sqrt{1-\zeta^2})]$$

- **Decay ratio.**  $DR = (OS)^2 = \exp(-2\pi\zeta / \sqrt{1-\zeta^2})$   
 $[\because c = y(t = 3\tau\pi / \sqrt{1-\zeta^2}) - b = KM \exp(-3\pi\zeta / \sqrt{1-\zeta^2})]$
- **Period of oscillation.**  $P = \frac{2\tau\pi}{\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}}$

# poles and zeros and their effect on process response

$$G(s) = \frac{K}{s(\tau_1 s + 1)(\tau_2^2 s^2 + 2\zeta\tau_2 s + 1)}$$

4 poles (denominator is 4<sup>th</sup> order polynomial)

Response to any input will contain : (response modes)

(1) A constant term resulting from the  $s$  factor

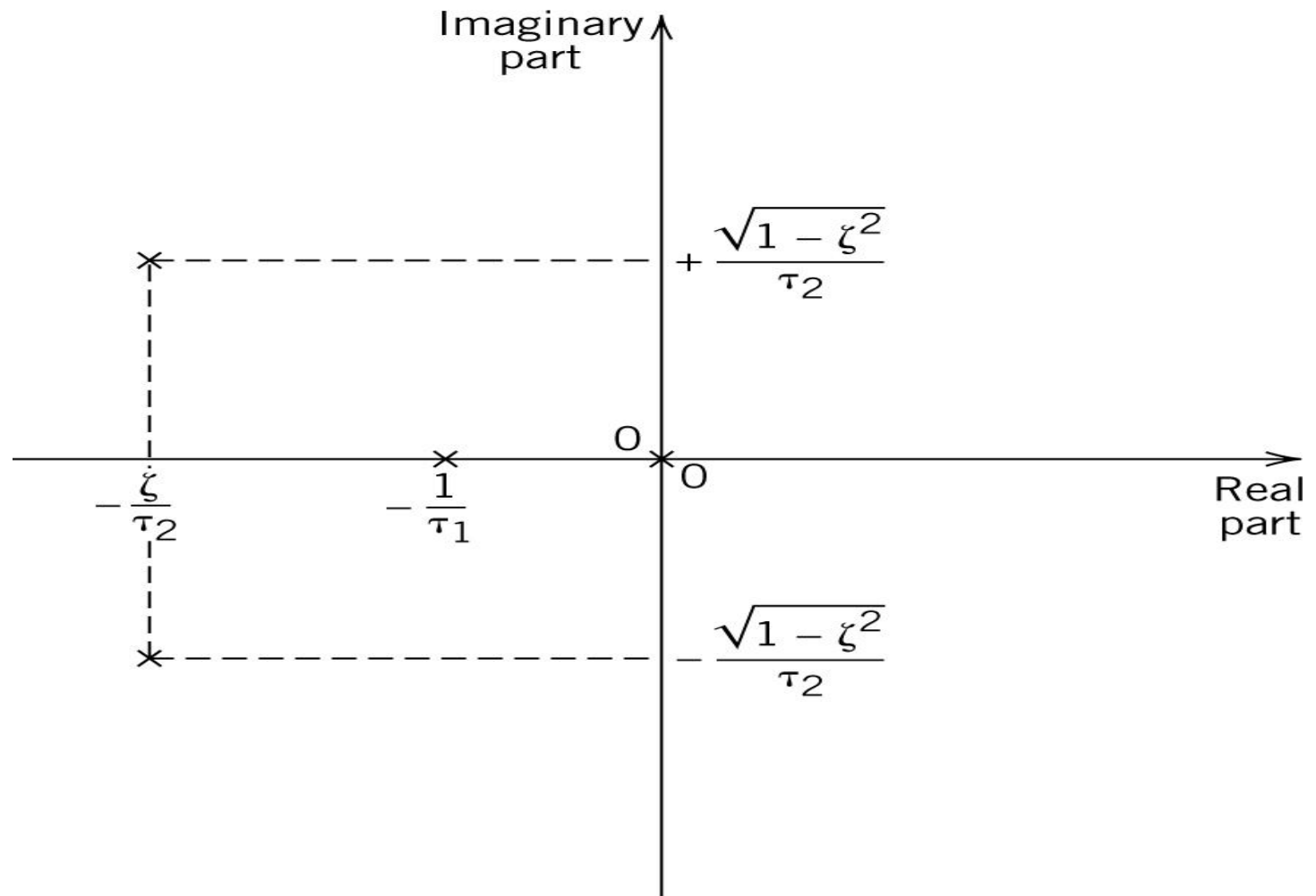
(2) An  $e^{-t/\tau_1}$  term resulting from the factor  $(\tau_1 s + 1)$

$$(3) e^{-\xi t/\tau_2} \sin \frac{\sqrt{1-\xi^2}}{\tau_2} t$$

and

$$(4) e^{-\xi t/\tau_2} \cos \frac{\sqrt{1-\xi^2}}{\tau_2} t$$

Terms resulting from  
the  $(\tau_2^2 s^2 + 2\xi\tau_2 s + 1)$



$$G(s) = \frac{K}{s(\tau_1 s + 1)(\tau^2 s^2 + 2\zeta\tau s + 1)}$$

Figure 5.1

4 poles (denominator is 4<sup>th</sup> order polynomial)

- **Zeros**

Value of  $s$  that cause the numerator of  $G(s)$  to become zero.

$$\tau_1 \frac{dy}{dt} + y = K(u + \tau_a \frac{du}{dt}) \quad \Rightarrow \quad G(s) = \frac{K(\tau_a s + 1)}{(\tau_1 s + 1)}$$

$$\tau_1 \frac{dy}{dt} + y = K(u + \frac{1}{\tau_a} \int_0^t u(t^*) dt^*) \quad \Rightarrow \quad G(s) = \frac{K(\tau_a s + 1)}{\tau_a s(\tau_1 s + 1)}$$

# More General Transfer Function Models

- **Poles and Zeros**

The dynamic behavior of a transfer function model can be characterized by the numerical value of its poles and zeros.

- **General Representation of A TF**

There are two equivalent representations:

$$G(s) = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^m b_i s^i}{\sum_{i=0}^n a_i s^i}$$



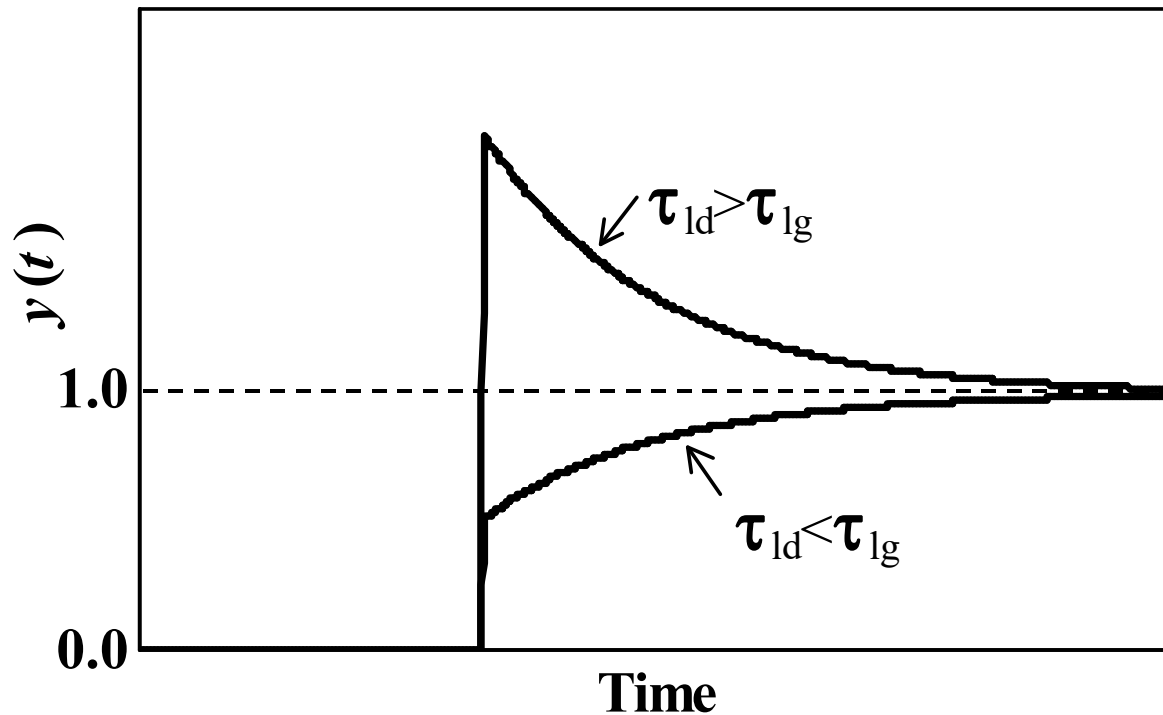
$$G(s) = \frac{b_m (s - z_1)(s - z_2) \dots (s - z_m)}{a_n (s - p_1)(s - p_2) \dots (s - p_n)} \quad (5-7)$$

where  $\{z_i\}$  are the “zeros” and  $\{p_i\}$  are the “poles”.

- We will assume that there are no “pole-zero” calculations. That is, that no pole has the same numerical value as a zero.
- *Review:*  $n \geq m$  in order to have a physically realizable system.

# Lead-Lag Element

$$G(s) = \frac{\tau_{ld} s + 1}{\tau_{lg} s + 1}$$



**Example 5.1**

Calculate the response to the step input of magnitude  $M$  of the lead-lag element,

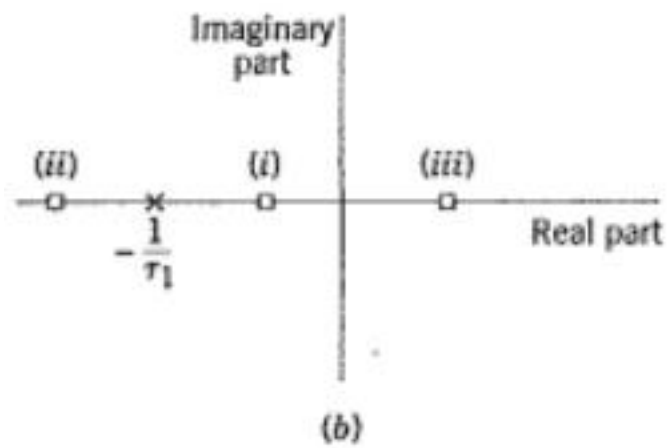
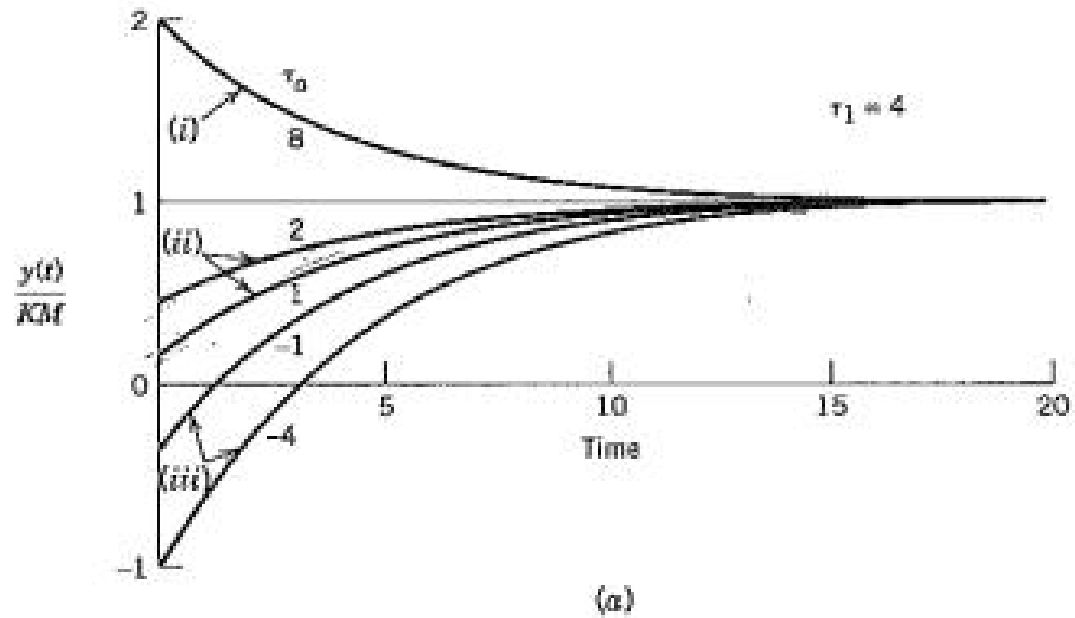
$$G(s) = \frac{K(\tau_a s + 1)}{(\tau_1 s + 1)}$$

**Solution**

The response of this system to a step change in input is

$$Y(s) = \frac{KM(\tau_a s + 1)}{s(\tau_1 s + 1)}$$

$$y(t) = KM \left( 1 - \left( 1 - \frac{\tau_a}{\tau_1} \right) e^{-t/\tau_1} \right)$$



### *Example 5.2*

For the case of a single zero in an overdamped second-order transfer function,

$$G(s) = \frac{K(\tau_a s + 1)}{(\tau_1 s + 1)(\tau_2 s + 1)} \quad (5-14)$$

calculate the response to the step input of magnitude  $M$  and plot the results qualitatively.

#### **Solution**

The response of this system to a step change in input is

$$y(t) = KM \left( 1 + \frac{\tau_a - \tau_1}{\tau_1 - \tau_2} e^{-t/\tau_1} + \frac{\tau_a - \tau_2}{\tau_2 - \tau_1} e^{-t/\tau_2} \right) \quad (5-15)$$

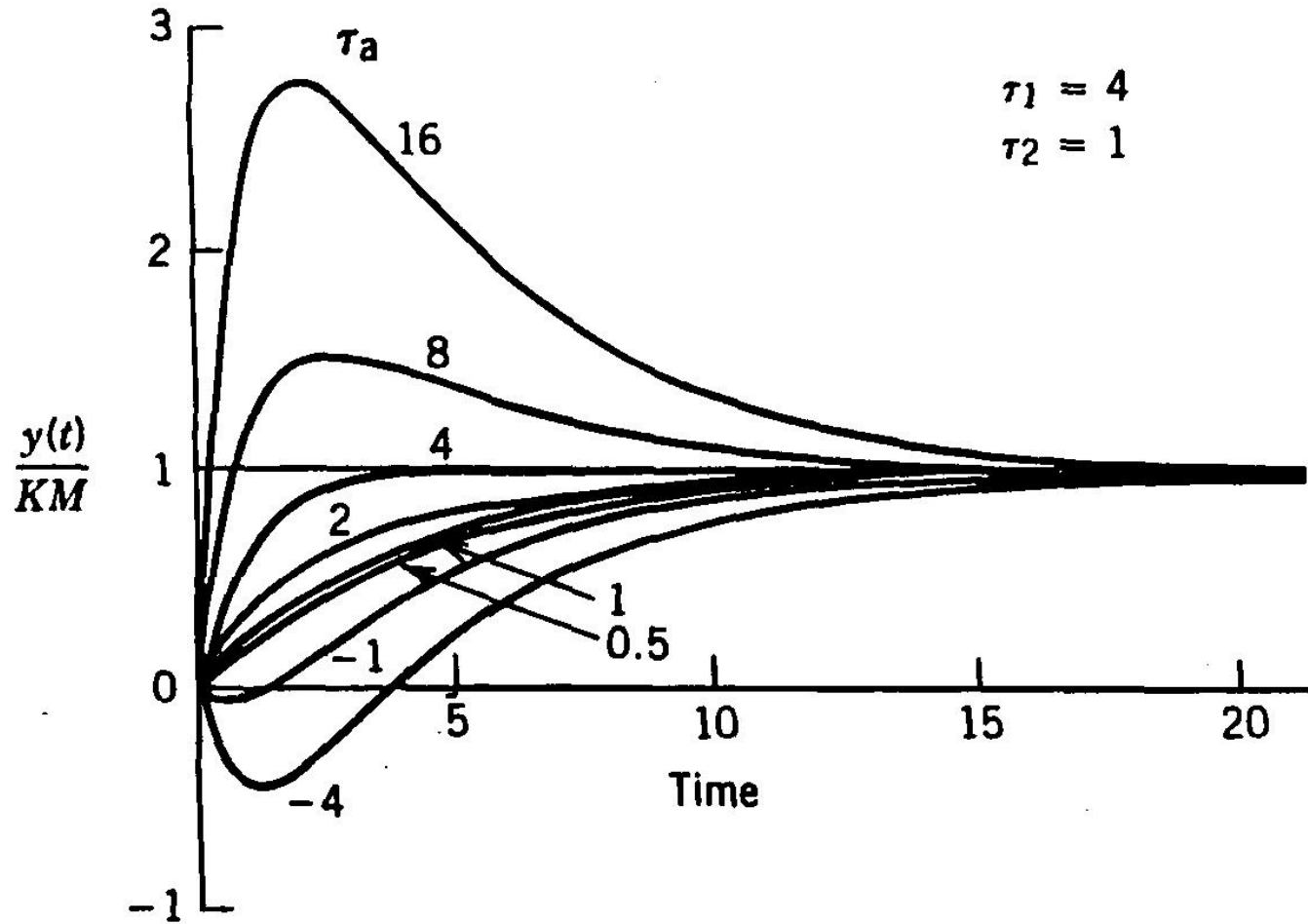
Note that  $y(t \rightarrow \infty) = KM$  as expected; hence, the effect of including the single zero does not change the final value nor does it change the number or location of the response modes. But the zero **does affect how the response modes (exponential terms) are weighted in the solution**, Eq. 5-15.

A certain amount of mathematical analysis will show that there are three types of responses involved here:

**Case a:**  $\tau_a > \tau_1$

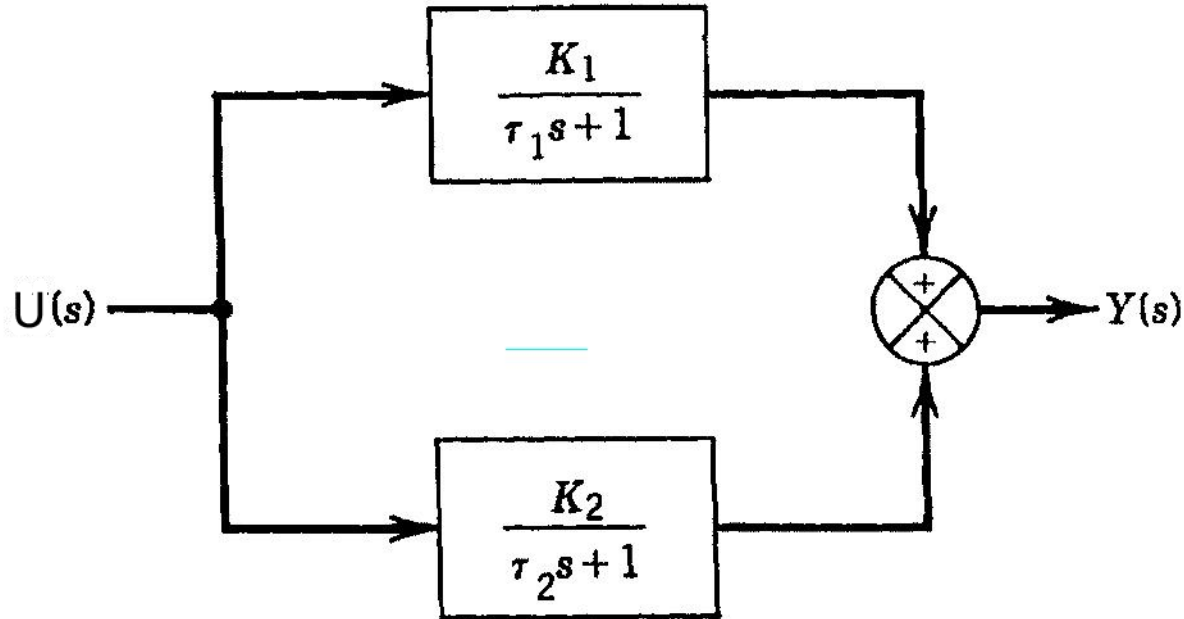
**Case b:**  $0 < \tau_a \leq \tau_1$

**Case c:**  $\tau_a < 0$



**Figure 6.3.** Step response of an overdamped second-order system (Eq. 6-14) with a single zero.

# Inverse Response Due to Two Competing Effects



**Figure 6.4.** Two first-order process elements acting in parallel.

An inverse response occurs if:

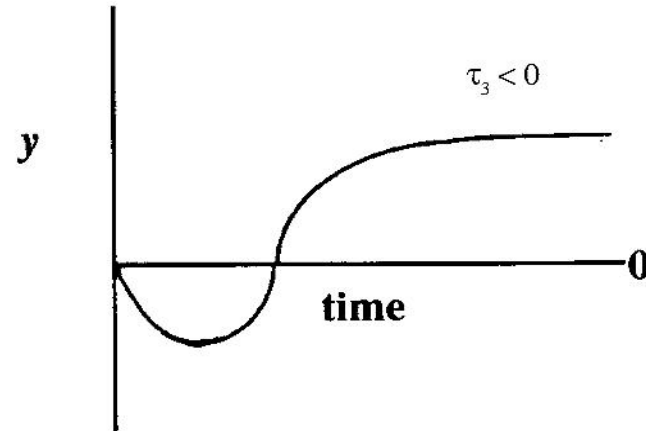
$$-\frac{K_2}{K_1} > \frac{\tau_2}{\tau_1} \quad (6-22)$$



# Dynamic Response Characteristics of More Complicated Systems

## Inverse Response

$$G(s) = \frac{K(1 + \tau_3 s)}{(1 + \tau_1 s)(1 + \tau_2 s)}$$



If  $\tau_3 > 0$  ....fast response

$\tau_3 < 0$  ....inverse response

$\tau_3$  : zero of transfer function (see Fig. 5.3)

Use nonlinear regression for fitting data  
(graphical method not available)

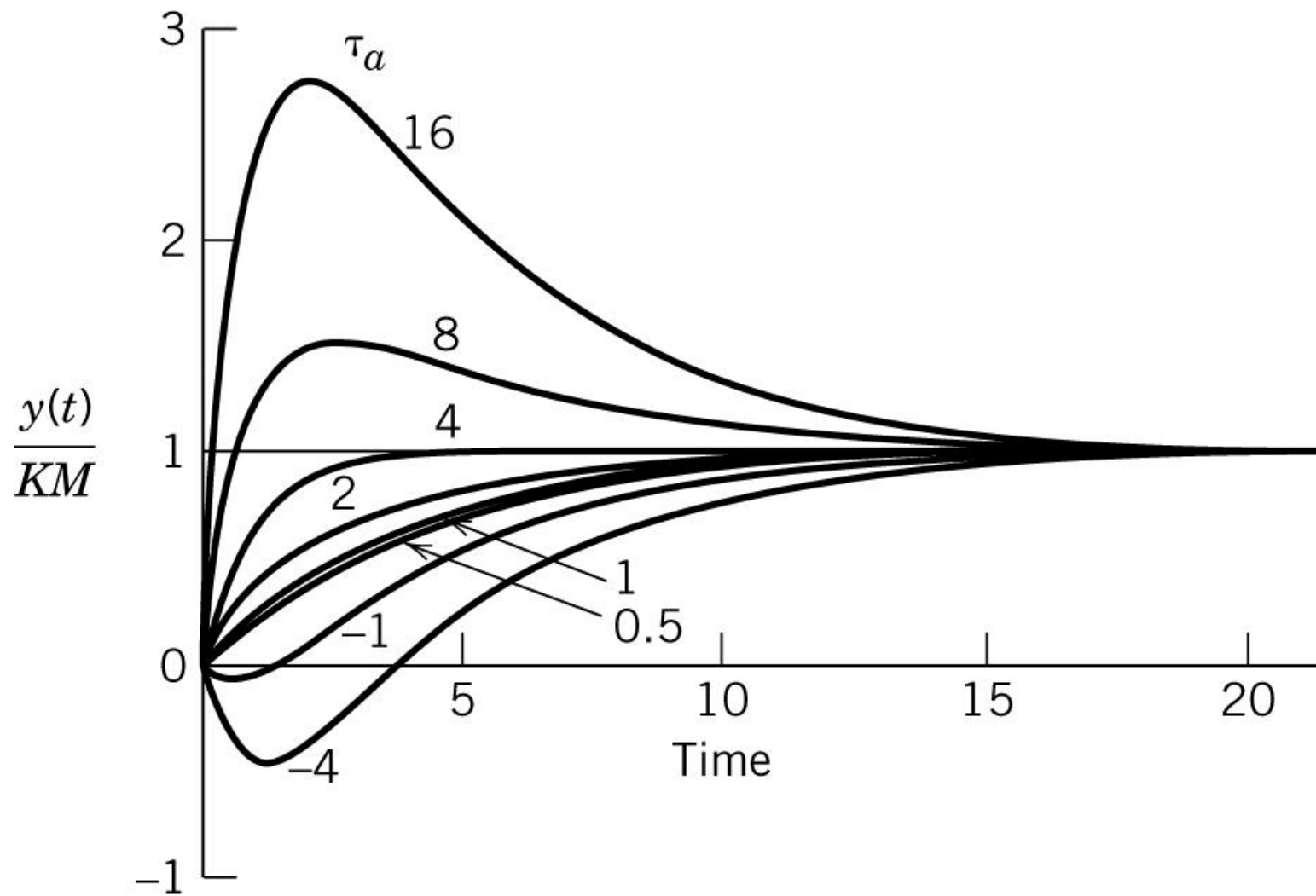


Figure 5.3

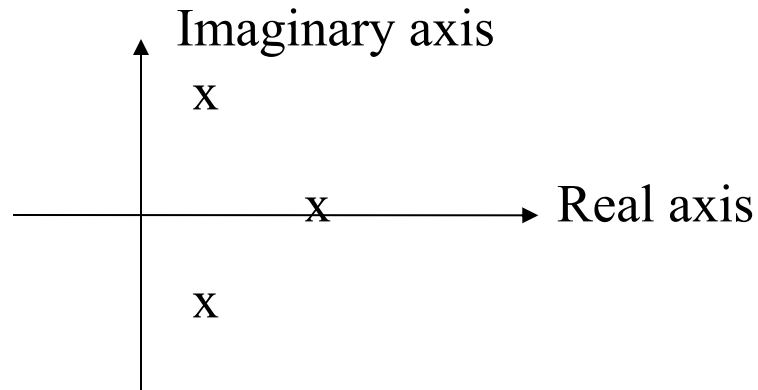
# Summary: Effects of Pole and Zero Locations

## 1. Poles

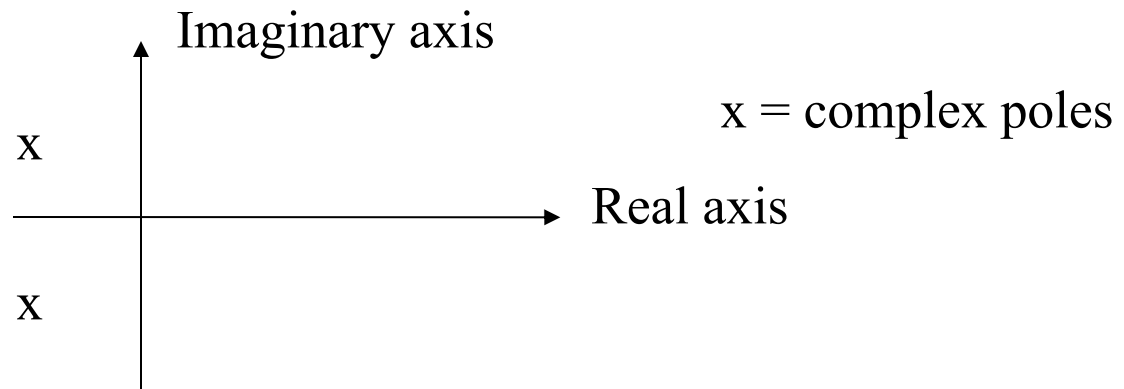
- Pole in “right half plane (RHP)”: results in unstable system (i.e., unstable step responses)

$$p = a + bj$$

$$(j = \sqrt{-1})$$



- Complex pole: results in oscillatory responses



# Time Delays

Time delays occur due to:

1. Fluid flow in a pipe
2. Transport of solid material (e.g., conveyor belt)
3. Chemical analysis
  - Time required to do the analysis (e.g., on-line gas chromatograph)

## Mathematical description:

A time delay,  $\theta$ , between an input  $u$  and an output  $y$  results in the following expression:

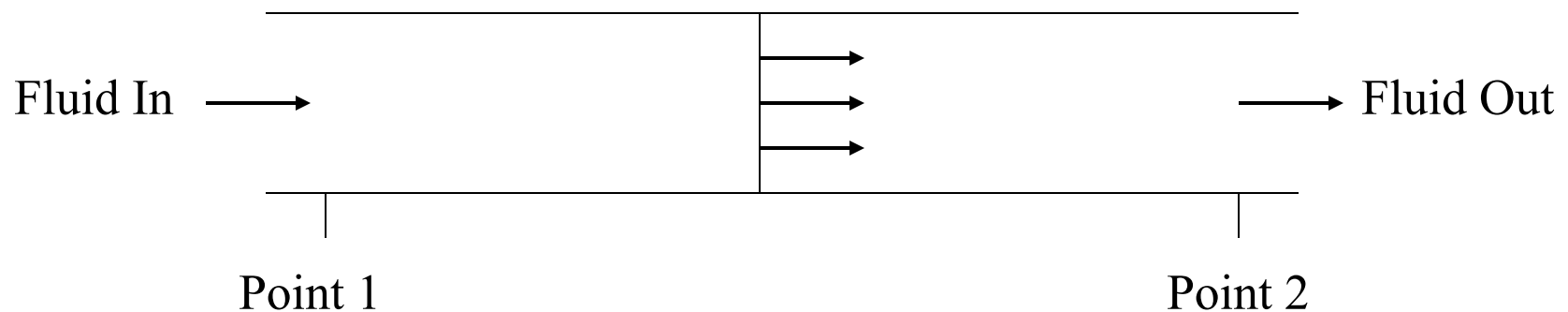
$$y(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } t < \theta \\ u(t - \theta) & \text{for } t \geq \theta \end{cases}$$

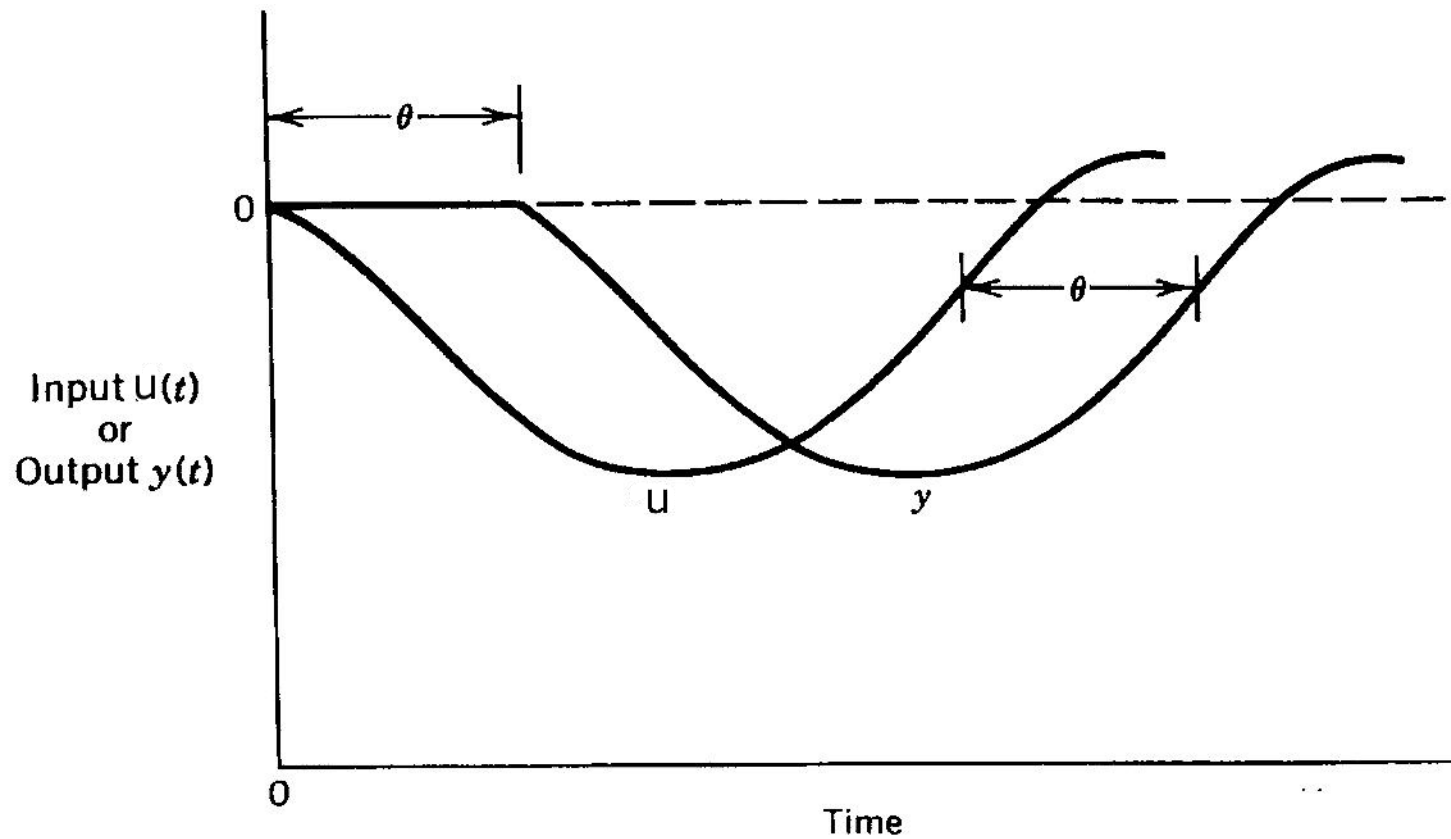
Transfer Function Representation:  $\frac{Y(s)}{U(s)} = e^{-\theta s}$

## *Example: Turbulent flow in a pipe*

Let,  $u \triangleq$  fluid property (e.g., temperature or composition) at point 1

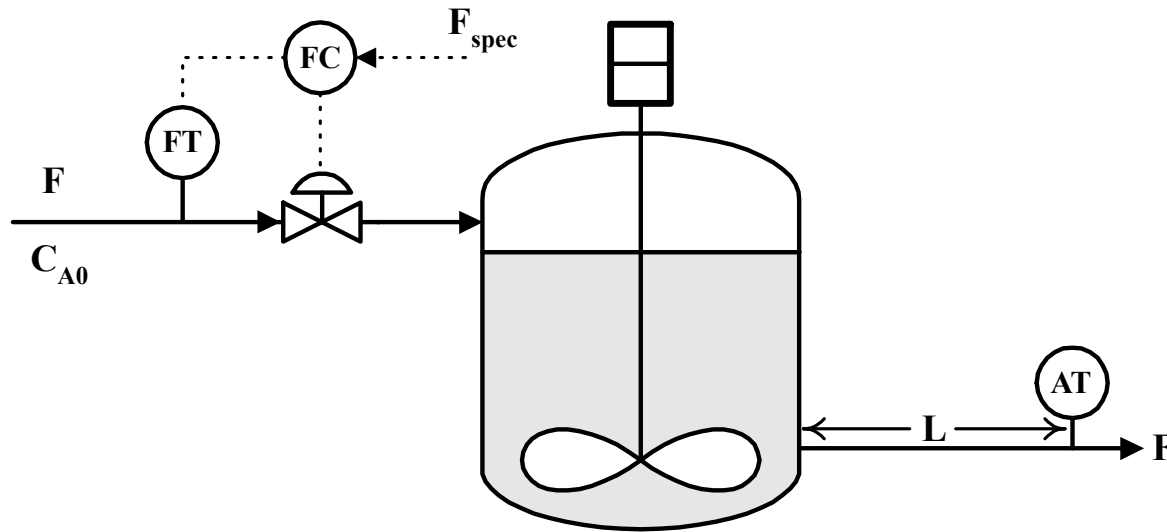
$y \triangleq$  fluid property at point 2





**Figure 6.6.** The effect of a pure time delay is a translation of the function in time.

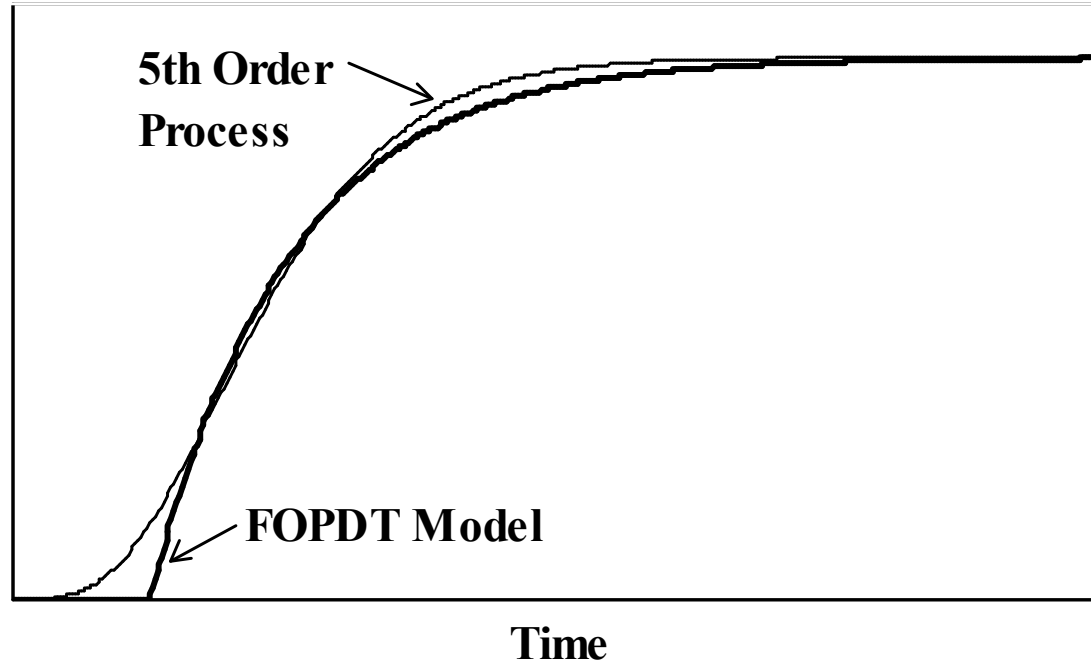
# Deadtime



- Transport delay from reactor to analyzer:  
 $C_s(t) = C(t - \theta)$  where  $\theta = \rho L A_c / F$
- Transfer function:

$$G_p(s) = e^{-\theta s}$$

# FOPDT Model



- High order processes are well represented by FOPDT models. As a result, FOPDT models do a better job of approximating industrial processes than other idealized dynamic models.