# Dynamic Systems Analysis

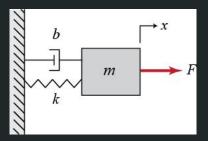
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Porto Alegre, 2018

#### Previously...

#### • Dynamic Systems Modelling

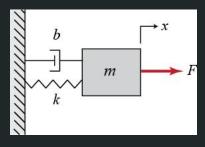
- Differential Equations
- Transfer Functions
- o Laplace and Z Transforms
- o Discretization
- Identification
- o State-Space
- o Examples and Exercises



$$m\ddot{x} + b\dot{x} + kx = u$$

#### Previously...

• Challenge: **Spring-Mass-Damper system identification** 



$$m\ddot{x} + b\dot{x} + kx = 0$$

- 1) Find the system's transfer function, G(s)
- 2) Discretize G(s)
- 3) Use your discretized model to approximate G(s) through identification
  - a) Tip: Use matlab, octave, python...
- Define the previously unknown mass, damping coefficient (b) and spring constant (k)

## Today!

- Dynamic Systems Analysis
  - Transfer Function Poles and Zeros
  - o Stability Criteria
  - o Transient Response
  - o Steady-State Error
- Digital Control Systems Design
  - o Compensator Design
  - o PID Control
  - o PID Tuning
  - o Anti-Windup

• In order to analyze a dynamic system, we explore the concept of a transfer function's **poles** and **zeros** 

$$G(s) = \frac{s^n + b_0 s^{n-1} + \ldots + b_{n-1} s + b_n}{s^n + a_0 s^{n-1} + \ldots + a_{n-1} s + a_n} \ \ \text{Zeros} \ \ \ \text{Poles}$$

- The arrangement of poles and zeros define the **natural response** of a transfer function
  - The **total response** is the sum of the **forced response** (reaction to a given input) and the **natural response** (autonomous behavior of a TF)

- The **poles** are the values of **s** that:
  - Make the result of the transfer function to become infinite
  - Are denominator roots common to the numerator

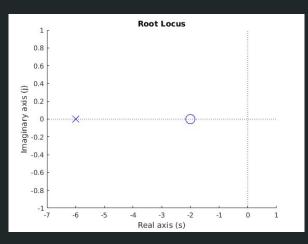
$$G(s) = \frac{s+\alpha}{s(s+\beta)}, \quad G(s) = \infty \text{ if } s = \{0, -\beta\}$$

- A transfer function becomes infinite when the denominator is zero
- Thus, the TF's denominator roots are the poles
- The second definition is because, although the effect of a pole can be nullified by a zero, it still contributes to the system's overall order, and thus is still considered a pole

- The **zeros** are values of **s** that:
  - Make the result of the transfer function to become zero
  - Are numerator roots common to the denominator

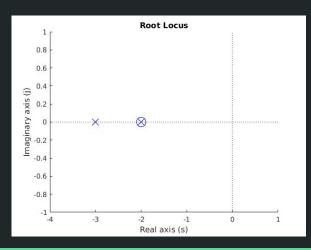
$$G(s) = \frac{s+\alpha}{s(s+\beta)}, \quad G(s) = 0 \text{ if } s = -\alpha$$

• We can represent the poles and zeros graphically in a root locus plot



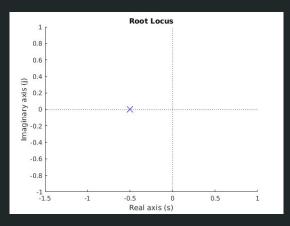
$$G(s) = \frac{s+2}{s+6}$$

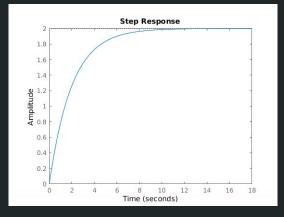
• We can represent the poles and zeros graphically in a root locus plot



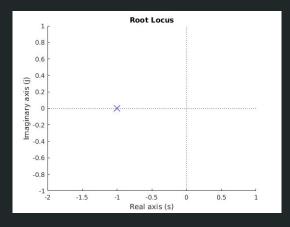
$$G(s) = \frac{s+2}{(s+2)(s+3)}$$

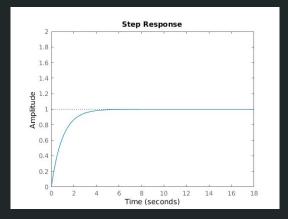
• Effect of pole location in the system response



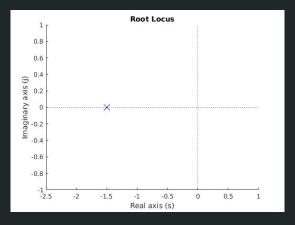


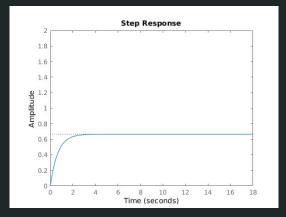
• Effect of pole location in the system response



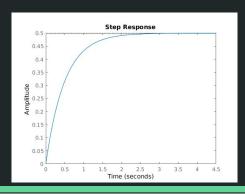


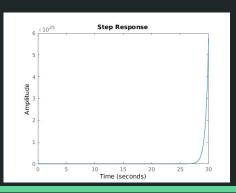
• Effect of pole location in the system response





- The concept of stability defines if a dynamic system has runaway behavior, given a certain input
  - Formally, a system is stable if it produces a bounded output given a bounded input

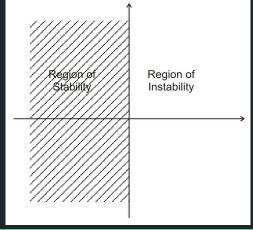




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 A very simple way to determine if a system is stable is to analyze its transfer function poles

> The Routh-Hurwitz criterion states that the system is stable if the poles' real components are negative

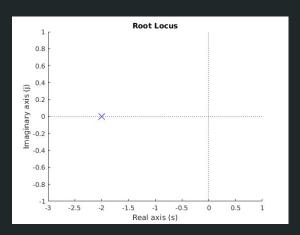


• In other words, if (s < 0) -> stable

• Example 1:

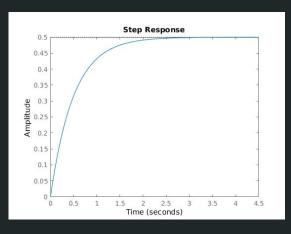
$$G(s) = \frac{1}{s+1}$$

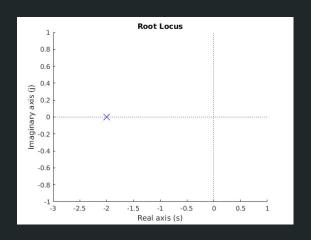
 This system is stable, because there is only one pole at -1



• In other words, if (s < 0) -> stable

• Example 1:



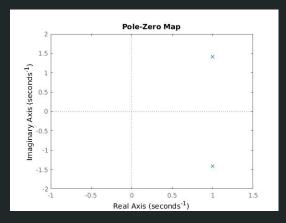


In other words, if (s < 0) -> stable

• Example 2:

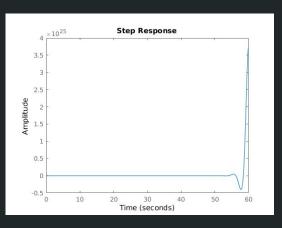
$$G(s) = \frac{1}{s^2 - 2s + 3}$$

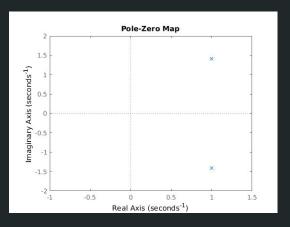
 This system is unstable, because there are two positive poles at 1 + 1.5j



• In other words, if (s > 0) -> unstable

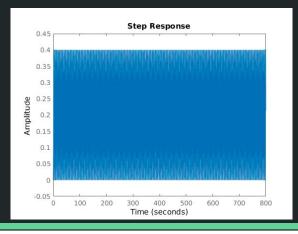
• Example 2:

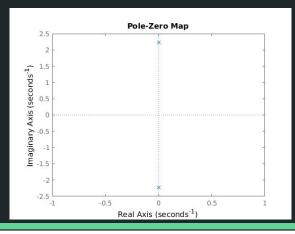




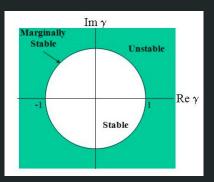
• In other words, if (s > 0) -> unstable

 A special case is marginal stability, when there are complex poles at the imaginary axis (the real part of the poles is 0)





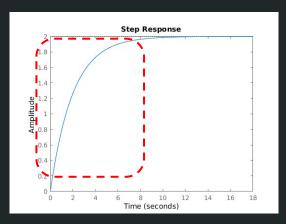
- In discrete-time, a system is:
  - Stable if the discrete poles stay within a circle of radius 1
  - Unstable if the poles are outside of the circle
  - Marginally stable if there are complex poles on the circle's boundary (real part = 1)



In other words, if (z < 1) -> stable

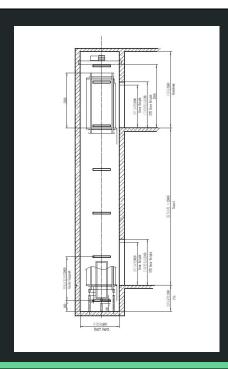
- Given a dynamic system, there are three main aspects to consider when designing a controller:
  - Stability
  - Transient Response
  - Steady-State Response (Error)
- Apart from these, it is also worth considering:
  - Actuator Limitations
  - Systemic Effects
  - Disturbance Effects
  - The three main aspects are known as the Analysis and Controller Project
     Objectives
  - Examples of systemic effects could be transport delay (e.g., the time delay between actuation and reaction/sensing), or systemic errors in sensing (e.g., constant bias in the sensor)
  - Disturbances can be any un-modelled effects in the system response (compensating these effects is called *Robust Control*)

- The **Transient Response** is the immediate reaction of a system to an input
  - In other words, it is **how fast a system reacts**

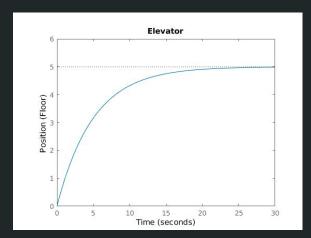


• We manipulate the transient response to control how a system behaves before reaching a steady-state response

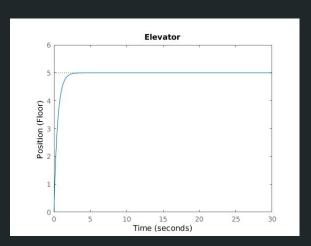
- Why should be concerned with that?
  - o Consider the example of an elevator



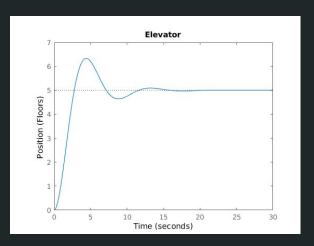
- We can change the elevator's position by controlling the elevator's speed
- If the elevator takes 30 seconds to rise 5 floors, it is way too slow!



• If the elevator takes 2 seconds to rise 5 floors, it is way too fast!



 The elevator now takes 5 seconds to rise 5 floors (ok!), but oscillates around the 5th floor (what!?!)



- The transient response can be analyzed with **three metrics**:
  - Time Constant
  - o Rise Time
  - Settling Time
- The **Time Constant** ( $\tau$ ) is the time it takes for a system's step response to reach **63% of its final value**

• The **Time Constant (τ)** is the time it takes for a system's step response to reach **63% of its final value** 

$$Y(s) = U(s) \times G(s) = \frac{1}{s} \times \frac{a}{s+a}$$

$$\therefore^{\mathcal{L}^{-1}} y(t) = 1 - e^{-at}$$

$$y\left(\frac{1}{a}\right) = 1 - e^{-1} = 1 - 0.37 = 0.63$$

Case study: First-order System

• The **Time Constant (τ)** is the time it takes for a system's step response to reach **63% of its final value** 

$$Y(s) = U(s) \times G(s) = \frac{1}{s} \times \frac{a}{s+a}$$

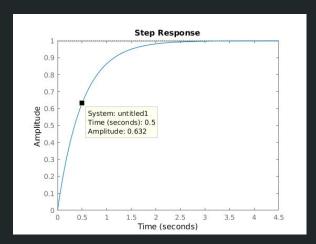
$$\therefore^{\mathcal{L}^{-1}} y(t) = 1 - e^{-at}$$

$$y\left(\begin{bmatrix} \bar{1} \\ \bar{a} \end{bmatrix}\right) = 1 - e^{-1} = 1 - 0.37 = 0.63$$

• We want to know e^{-1} because it is the exponential decay rate of a system

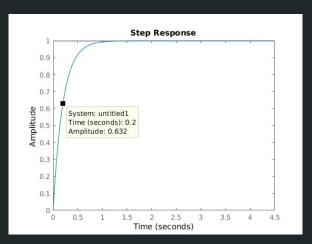
• Example:

$$G(s) = \frac{[2]^{s}}{s + [2]} : \tau = \frac{1}{2} = 0.5$$



• Example:

$$G(s) = \frac{5}{s+5} :: \tau = \frac{1}{5} = 0.2$$



The Rise Time (Tr) is the time for the system response to go from 10% to 90%
 of its final value

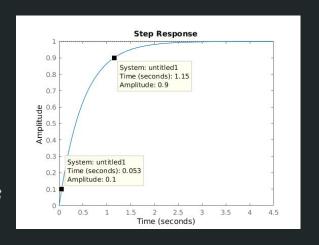
$$T_r = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{0.9}{0.1}\right)}{a}$$

- Tr is the time difference between y(t) = 0.1 and y(t) = 0.9
- Isolate t in the system response: t(y(t)) = ln(1-y(t))/(-a)
- Tr = t(0.9)-t(0.1)
- The percentages are arbitrary

• Example:

$$G(s) = \frac{2}{s+2}$$

$$T_r = \frac{ln\left(\frac{0.9}{0.1}\right)}{2} = 1.0986 \ s$$

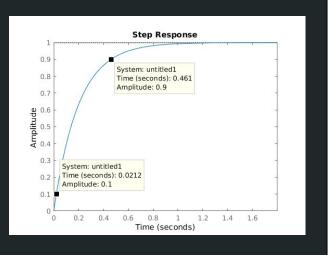


• We can check the rising time graphically also: Tr = 1.15 - 0.053 = 1.097 s

• Example:

$$G(s) = \frac{5}{s+5}$$

$$T_r = \frac{ln\left(\frac{0.9}{0.1}\right)}{5} = 0.439 \ s$$



• We can check the rising time graphically also: Tr = 0.461 - 0.0212 = 0.4398 s

Finally, the Settling Time (Ts) is the time for the system response to reach 98% of its final value

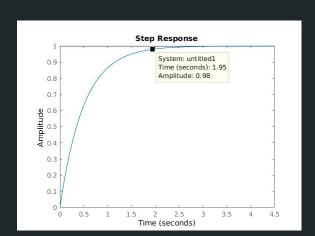
$$T_s = -\frac{\ln(0.02)}{a}$$

- Ts is the time for y(t) = 0.98
- Isolate t in the system response:  $t(y(t)) = \ln(1-y(t))/(-a)$
- Ts =  $\ln(1-0.98)/(-a)$
- This percentage is arbitrary (we say the system is in steady-state when it reaches 2% error)

• Example:

$$G(s) = \frac{2}{s+2}$$

$$T_s = -\frac{\ln(0.02)}{2} = 1.956 \ s$$



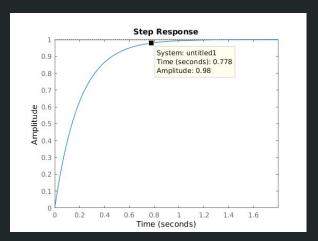
• We can check the rising time graphically also: Ts = 1.95 s

# **Transient Response**

• Example:

$$G(s) = \frac{5}{s+5}$$

$$T_s = -\frac{\ln(0.02)}{5} = 0.782 \ s$$



• We can check the rising time graphically also: Ts = 0.778 s

### **Transient Response**

- For second and higher order systems, the mathematical definitions for time constant, rise time and settling time become complex
- Thus, it is more advantageous to analyse these systems **graphically**

• They are not a function of the time constant, and thus must be deduced with the inverse Laplace transform

## **Transient Response**

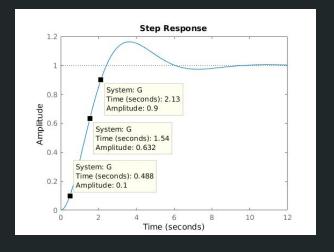
• Example:

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

Tr = 2.13 - 0.488 = 1.642 s

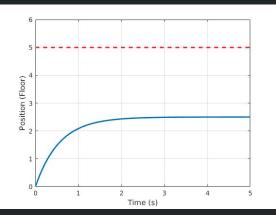
 $\tau = 1.54 \text{ s (not equal to 1/a!)}$ 

Ts = ??



- What can we do with transient response analysis?
  - We can develop closed-loop control systems which have desired rise and settling times, according to a controller C

- If Transient Response if the analysis of system behavior in time, **Steady-State**Response is the analysis of system behavior in amplitude
- Considering the elevator example, an elevator is useless if it rises in an adequate time but never reaches the desired floor



• The steady-state response is the state of the system after it has settled

• Thus, we can define a system's steady-state response as the **error w.r.t to the** desired state (steady-state error)

• The state of an open-loop system after it has settled is:

$$y(\infty) = \lim_{s \to 0} \{ U(s)G(s) \}$$

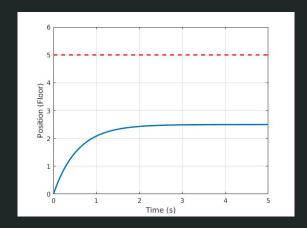
• Thus, the error can be expressed as:

$$e_{ss} = \operatorname{desired} - \lim_{s \to 0} \{U(s)G(s)\}$$

• When the frequency tends to 0, time tends to infinity

• Example:

$$U(s) = 5$$
 ;  $G(s) = \frac{5}{s+10}$ 



$$e_{ss} = 5 - \lim_{s \to 0} \left( \frac{25}{s+10} \right) = 5 - 2.5 = 2.5$$

• In general way, the error for closed-loop systems is defined as:

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{s \to 0} \left( \frac{sR(s)}{1 + C(s)G(s)} \right)$$

• We can define types of error relative to the type of input

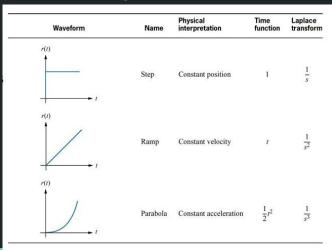
• A closed-loop feedback assumes E(s) = R(s) - Y(s)

• We can thus define types of error relative to the type of input

$$\lim_{s \to 0} \left( \frac{1}{1 + C(s)G(s)} \right)$$

$$\lim_{s \to 0} \left( \frac{s^{-1}}{1 + C(s)G(s)} \right)$$

$$\lim_{s \to 0} \left( \frac{s^{-2}}{1 + C(s)G(s)} \right)$$

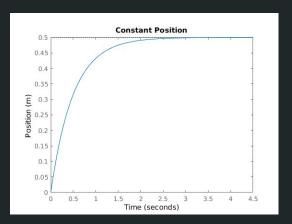


• Example: Mobile Robot position

$$C(s) = 1 \quad G(s) = \frac{1}{s+1}$$

$$R(s) = \frac{1}{s}$$

$$e_{ss} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{0+1}} = 0.5$$



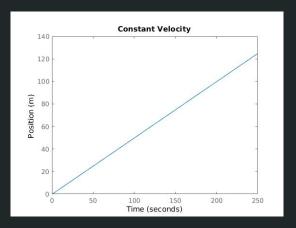
• E\_ss comes from the first equation in slide 44, substituting R, C and G

• Example: Mobile Robot position

$$C(s) = 1 \quad G(s) = \frac{1}{s+1}$$

$$R(s) = \frac{1}{s^2}$$

$$e_{ss} = \frac{1}{0 \times (1 + \frac{1}{0+1})} = \infty$$



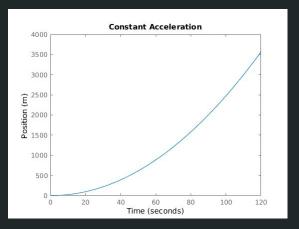
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$$C(s) = 1 \quad G(s) = \frac{1}{s+1}$$

$$R(s) = \frac{1}{s^3}$$

$$e_{ss} = \frac{1}{0 \times (1 + \frac{1}{0+1})} = \infty$$



• E\_ss comes from the first equation in slide 44, substituting R, C and G