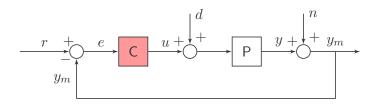
AERO 422: Active Controls for Aerospace Vehicles

Dynamic Response

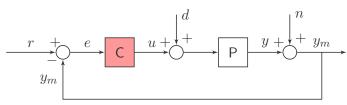
Raktim Bhattacharya

Laboratory For Uncertainty Quantification Aerospace Engineering, Texas A&M University.

- Laplace transforms
- Transfer functions from ordinary linear differential equations
- System interconnections
- Block diagram algebra simplification of interconnections
- General feedback control system interconnection.



Standard Control System



Compactly

$$\begin{pmatrix} E(s) \\ Y(s) \end{pmatrix} \longleftarrow \begin{bmatrix} G_{er}(s) \mid G_{ed}(s) \mid G_{en}(s) \\ G_{yr}(s) \mid G_{yd}(s) \mid G_{yn}(s) \end{bmatrix} \longleftarrow \begin{pmatrix} R(s) \\ D(s) \\ N(s) \end{pmatrix}$$

0r

$$\begin{pmatrix} E(s) \\ Y(s) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} G_{er}(s) & G_{ed}(s) & G_{en}(s) \\ G_{yr}(s) & G_{yd}(s) & G_{yn}(s) \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} R(s) \\ D(s) \\ N(s) \end{pmatrix}$$

Response to Input

$$\begin{pmatrix} E \\ Y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} G_{er} & G_{ed} & G_{en} \\ G_{yr} & G_{yd} & G_{yn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} R \\ D \\ N \end{pmatrix}$$

implies

$$E = G_{er}R + G_{ed}D + G_{en}N,$$

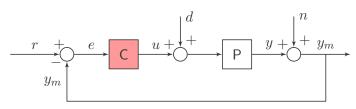
$$Y = G_{yr}R + G_{yd}D + G_{yn}N.$$

Therefore.

$$\begin{split} e(t) &= \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ G_{er} R \right\} + \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ G_{ed} D \right\} + \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ G_{en} N \right\}, \\ y(t) &= \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ G_{yr} R \right\} + \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ G_{yd} D \right\} + \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ G_{yn} N \right\}. \end{split}$$

Given signals r(t), d(t), n(t), we can determine e(t) and y(t).

Definition of Various Transfer Functions



■ Derive G_{er} .

Transfer Functions 000000000

 \blacksquare Ignore d and n.

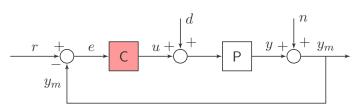
$$E = R - Y_m,$$
 $U = C(s)E,$
 $Y = P(s)(U + D) = P(s)U,$ $Y_m = Y + N = Y.$

Simplification

$$\frac{E}{R} = G_{er} = \frac{1}{1 + PC}.$$

contd.

Transfer Functions 000000000



$$\begin{split} G_{er} &= \frac{1}{1+PC}, \quad G_{ed} = -\frac{P}{1+PC}, \quad G_{en} = -\frac{1}{1+PC}, \\ G_{yr} &= \frac{PC}{1+PC}, \quad G_{yd} = \frac{P}{1+PC}, \quad G_{yn} = -\frac{PC}{1+PC}. \end{split}$$

- Learn to derive these expressions.
- Denominator of all transfer functions: 1 + PC.

000000000

Let

$$P = \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)}, C = 1.$$

Look at

$$G_{yr} = \frac{PC}{1 + PC} = \frac{\frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)}}{1 + \frac{1}{(s+1)(s+2)}} = \frac{1}{1 + (s+1)(s+2)}$$

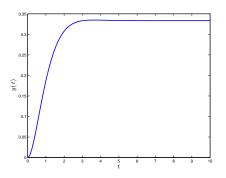
Response to reference r(t) = 1(t)?

$$Y(s) = G_{yr}(s)R(s) = \frac{1}{1 + (s+1)(s+2)} \mathcal{L}\{1(t)\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 + (s+1)(s+2)} \cdot \frac{1}{s} = \frac{1}{s(s^2 + 3s + 3)}.$$

$$\Rightarrow y(t) = \frac{1}{3} - \frac{e^{-\frac{3t}{2}} \left(\cos\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}t}{2}\right) + \sqrt{3}\sin\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}t}{2}\right)\right)}{3}$$

Response to r(t) = 1(t).

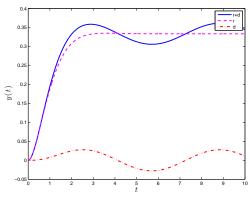


$$y(t) = \frac{1}{3} - \frac{e^{-t} \left(\cos(\sqrt{2}t) + \frac{\sqrt{2}\sin(\sqrt{2}t)}{2}\right)}{3}$$

What about $d(t) = \sin(t)/10$?

$$Y(s) = G_{yd}(s)D(s) = \frac{P}{1 + PC} \mathcal{L}\left\{\sin(t)/10\right\}$$
$$y(t) = \frac{\sin(t)}{65} - \frac{3\cos(t)}{130} + \frac{3e^{-\frac{3t}{2}}\left(\cos\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}t}{2}\right) + \frac{5\sqrt{3}\sin\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}t}{2}\right)}{9}\right)}{130}$$

Total Response



$$y(t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1} \{G_{yr}R\} + \mathcal{L}^{-1} \{G_{yd}D\}.$$

In general d(t) and n(t) are more complicated functions of time.

Poles, Zeros & Causality

Poles and Zeros

- \blacksquare Given transfer function G(s) between two signals
- Let $G(s) := \frac{N_G(s)}{D_G(s)}$ Rational polynomials
- Roots of $N_G(s)$ are called zeros of G(s)
 - ▶ Let there be m roots of $N_G(s)$
 - $N_G(s) = \prod_{i=1}^m (s z_i)$
- Roots of $D_G(s)$ are called poles of G(s).
 - ▶ Let there be n roots of $D_G(s)$
 - ▶ $D_G(s) = \prod_{i=1}^n (s p_i)$
- The equation $D_G(s) = 0$ is called the characteristic equation
- \blacksquare G(s) often is written as

$$G(s) = \frac{\prod_{i=1}^{m} (s - z_i)}{\prod_{i=1}^{n} (s - p_i)}$$

- Relative degree: n-m
- n > m G(s) is strictly proper
- \blacksquare n > m G(s) is proper

Causal

- A system is causal when the effect does not anticipate the cause; or zero input produces zero output
- Its output and internal states only depend on current and previous input values
- Physical systems are causal

contd.

Acausal

- A system whose output is nonzero when the past and present input signal is zero is said to be anticipative
- A system whose state and output depend also on input values from the future, besides the past or current input values, is called acausal
- Acausal systems can only exist as digital filters (digital signal processing).

contd.

Anti-Causal

- A system whose output depends only on future input values is anti-causal
- Derivative of a signal is anti-causal.

contd.

- Zeros are anticipative
- Poles are causal
- \blacksquare Overall behavior depends on m and n.
- \blacksquare Causal: n > m, strictly proper
- \blacksquare Causal: n=m, still causal, but there is instantaneous transfer of information from input to output
- Acausal: n < m

- System $G_1(s) = s$
- Input $u(t) = \sin(\omega t)$, $U(s) = \frac{\omega}{s^2 + \omega^2}$
- $y_1(t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1} \{G_1(s)U(s)\} = \mathcal{L}^{-1} \left\{ \frac{s\omega}{s^2 + \omega^2} \right\} = \omega \cos(\omega t)$, or

$$u(t)=\sin(\omega t)$$
 $y_1(t)=\omega\sin(\omega t+\pi/2)$ $=\omega u(t+\frac{\pi}{2\omega})$ output leads input, anticipatory

Example

contd.

■ System
$$G_2(s) = \frac{1}{s}$$

■ Input
$$u(t) = \sin(\omega t)$$
, $U(s) = \frac{\omega}{s^2 + \omega^2}$

$$u(t) = \sin(\omega t)$$

$$y_2(t) = \frac{1}{\omega} + \frac{\sin(\omega t - \pi/2)}{\omega}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\omega} + \frac{u(t - \frac{\pi}{2\omega})}{\omega}$$
 output lags input, causal

Given transfer function G(s), DC gain is defined by

$$\operatorname{DC \; Gain} = \lim_{s \to 0} G(s)$$

- \blacksquare Steady-state output of G(s) to a step
- Only applicable to systems with poles in LHP, or stable systems Final value is bounded
- Steady state gain $(\lim_{t\to\infty})$ response

What happens for causal and acausal systems?

Time Response

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Given transfer function G(s), transient response is given

$$y(0^+) = \lim_{s \to \infty} sG(s)$$

Example Let $G(s) = \frac{3}{s(s-2)}$, unstable system. Impulse response

$$y(0^+) = \lim_{s \to \infty} sG(s) = \lim_{s \to \infty} s \frac{3}{s(s-2)} = 0.$$

What happens for causal and acausal systems?

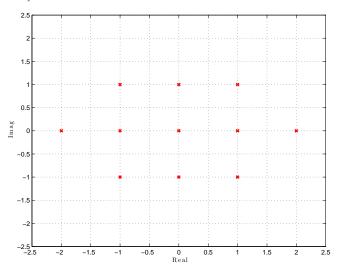
- Let G(s) be given transfer function
- Let $u(t) = \delta(t)$, impulse function
- $U(s) = \mathcal{L}\{\delta(t)\} = 1$
- $Y(s) = G(s)U(s) = G(s) \cdot 1 = G(s)$
- $\mathbf{y}(t) = \mathcal{L}^{-1}\{G(s)\}\$ is the natural response of G(s)

Impulse response is used to obtain transfer function of a system from experimental data.

- **Excite** a system with $\delta(t)$ True $\delta(t)$ is difficult to realize in real world
- \blacksquare Record y(t) from sensor data
- $\mathcal{L}\{y(t)\}$ provides G(s)

System Response and Pole Locations

Concept of Stability



System Response and Pole Locations

contd.

- Each pole (real, complex pair) represents a mode of the response
- Total response is addition of all the modes
- If any one mode is divergent/unstable, the total response is divergent/unstable
- For a mode $\sigma \pm j\omega_d$
 - $\sigma < 0 \Rightarrow$ convergent/stable
 - \triangleright ω_d damped frequency
 - $\omega_n := \sqrt{\sigma^2 + \omega_d^2}$: natural frequency
 - $ightharpoonup \zeta := \frac{\sigma}{\omega}$: damping ratio

Example

$$G(s) = \frac{1}{(s+a)(s+b)} = \frac{A}{s+a} + \frac{B}{s+b}$$

Impulse response: $y(t) = Ae^{-at} + Be^{-bt}$

System Response and Zero Locations

- Let $G(s) = (s+a)G_0(s)$, where $G_0(s)$ has no zeros
- Response of $G_0(s)$ to u(t) is

$$Y_0(s) = G_0(s)U(s)$$

Time Response

 \blacksquare Response of G(s) to u(t) is

$$Y(s) = (s+a)G_0(s)U(s)$$

= $sG_0(s)U(s) + aG_0(s)U(s)$
= $sY_0(s) + aY_0(s)$

Zeroes adds signal derivative

$$y(t) = \frac{dy_0(t)}{dt} + ay_0(t)$$

System Response and Zero Locations

Effect of zero near a pole

Let system be

$$G(s) = \frac{s + (a + \epsilon)}{(s+a)(s+b)} = \frac{\epsilon}{b-a} \frac{1}{s+a} + \frac{b - (a + \epsilon)}{b-a} \frac{1}{s+b}$$

What happens when $\epsilon \to 0$?

System Response and Zero Locations

A zero near the origin

Case 1

- $G(s) = (s+z)G_0(s)$
- \blacksquare DC Gain of G(s) is

$$\lim_{s \to 0} G(s) = \lim_{s \to 0} sG_0(s) + z \lim_{s \to 0} G_0(s) = z \lim_{s \to 0} G_0(s)$$

Time Response

Case 2

- $G(s) = (s/z + 1)G_0(s)$
- \blacksquare DC gain of G(s) is

$$\lim_{s \to 0} G(s) = \frac{1}{z} \lim_{s \to 0} sG_0(s) + \lim_{s \to 0} G_0(s) = \lim_{s \to 0} G_0(s)$$

Preferable to keep DC gain unaffected.

A zero near the origin (contd.)

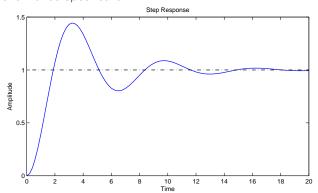
- $G(s) = (s/z + 1)G_0(s)$
- Let $Y_0(s) = G_0(s)U(s)$ be response to input U(s)
- \blacksquare Response of G(s) is

$$Y(s) = (s/z + 1)G_0(s)U(s) = \frac{1}{z}sG_0(s)U(s) + G_0(s)U(s)$$
$$= \frac{1}{z}sY_0(s) + Y_0(s)$$

A zero near origin significantly amplifies the derivative of the response

$$y(t) = \frac{1}{z} \frac{dy_0(t)}{dt} + y_0(t)$$

Time Domain Performance Specification



Second Order System: poles =
$$\sigma \pm j\omega_d$$
, $\omega_n = \sqrt{\sigma^2 + \omega_d^2}$, $\zeta = \sigma/\omega_n$

$$M_p = e^{-\pi\zeta/\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}}$$
 $t_r = \frac{1.8}{\omega_r}$ $t_s = \frac{4.6}{\sigma}$

Time Domain Performance Specification – Second Order Systems

Desired Location of Poles

$$M_p = e^{-\pi\zeta/\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}}$$

$$t_r = \frac{1.8}{\omega_n}$$

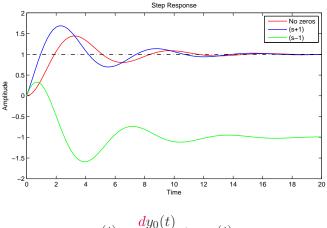
$$t_s = \frac{4.6}{\sigma}$$

$$\omega_n \ge 1.8/t_r$$

$$\zeta \ge \zeta(M_p)$$

$$\sigma \ge 4.6/t_s$$

Step Response with Zeros



$$y(t) = \frac{dy_0(t)}{dt} + ay_0(t)$$

Stability Analysis

Various Notions of Stability

Basic Idea

- Disturbances/perturbations $\to 0$ as $t \to \infty$
- Refinements based on how they go to zero
- We talk about stability of the origin

Various Notions of Stability

contd.

■ The origin is usually the equilibrium or trim point of the dynamical system

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{x}} = \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}(t), \boldsymbol{u}(t))$$

■ Recall (\bar{x}, \bar{u}) are trim points, i.e.

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{x}} = \boldsymbol{f}(\bar{\boldsymbol{x}}, \bar{\boldsymbol{u}}) = 0$$

■ Here we study the stability of the perturbation dynamics

$$\dot{ ilde{x}} = A ilde{x} + B ilde{u}, \quad A := rac{\partial f}{\partial x}\mid_{(ar{x},ar{u})}, \quad B := rac{\partial f}{\partial u}\mid_{(ar{x},ar{u})},$$

where $x = \tilde{x} + \bar{x}$ and $u = \tilde{u} + \bar{u}$.

Various Notions of Stability

contd.

- Stability analysis is concerned with behavior of $\lim_{t\to\infty} x(t)$
- Equivalently study of $\lim_{t\to\infty} \tilde{x}(t)$, for some $\tilde{x}(0) = \tilde{x}_0$.

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \tilde{\boldsymbol{x}}(t) \to 0 \Leftrightarrow \lim_{t \to \infty} \boldsymbol{x}(t) \to \bar{\boldsymbol{x}}$$

- We study 3 kinds of stability
 - 1. Lyapunov stability
 - 2. Asymptotic stability
 - 3. Exponential stability

Lyapunov Stability



Aleksandr Mikhailovich Lyapunov (1857-1918) (Image: Wikipedia)

If for every $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta(\epsilon) > 0$ such that, if

$$\|\boldsymbol{x}(0) - \bar{\boldsymbol{x}}\| < \delta$$

then $\forall t \geq 0$ we have

$$\|\boldsymbol{x}(t) - \bar{\boldsymbol{x}}\| < \epsilon.$$

Asymptotic Stability

The equilibrium point is said to be asymptotically stable if it is Lyapunov stable and if there exists $\delta > 0$ such that if

$$\|\boldsymbol{x}(0) - \bar{\boldsymbol{x}}\| < \delta,$$

then

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \|\boldsymbol{x}(t) - \bar{\boldsymbol{x}}\| = 0.$$

The equilibrium point is said to be exponentially stable if it is asymptotically stable and if there exists $\alpha, \beta, \delta > 0$ such that if

$$\|\boldsymbol{x}(0) - \bar{\boldsymbol{x}}\| < \delta,$$

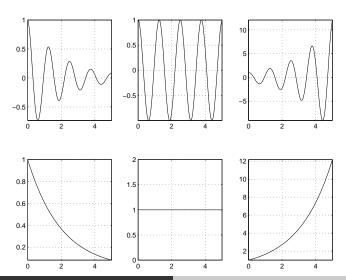
then

$$\|x(t) - \bar{x}\| \le \alpha \|x(0) - \bar{x}\|e^{-\beta t}$$
, for $t \ge 0$.

- \blacksquare ES \Longrightarrow AS \Longrightarrow LS not the other way around
- \blacksquare β is called the Lyapunov exponent

Stability of Linear Systems

Depends on location of poles



Input Output Stability

Bounded Input Bounded Output



- Given $|u(t)| \le u_{\max} < \infty$, what can we say about $\max |y(t)|$?
- Recall

$$Y(s) = G(s)U(s) \implies y(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(\tau)u(t-\tau)d\tau.$$

Therefore.

$$|y(t)| = \left| \int hud au
ight| \leq \int |h| |u| d au \leq u_{ ext{max}} \int |h(au)| d au.$$
 Cauchy-Schwarz

Bound on output y(t)

$$\max_{t} |y(t)| \le u_{\max} \int |h(\tau)| d\tau$$

Bounded Input Bounded Output



$$\max_{t} |y(t)| \le u_{\max} \int |h(\tau)| d\tau$$

BIBO Stability

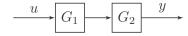
If and only if

$$\int |h(\tau)|d\tau < \infty.$$

(LTI): **Re**
$$p_i < 0 \implies \mathsf{BIBO}$$
 stability

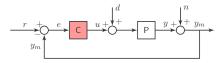
BIBO Stability

Interconnected Systems



■ Given G_1 and G_2 are BIBO stable, is the above interconnection BIBO stable?

Pole Zero Cancellations



■ Let

$$C(s) = \frac{s-1}{s+1}, \ \ P(s) = \frac{1}{s^2-1}$$
 Pole Zero Cancellation

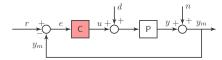
Look at transfer functions

$$G_{yr}=\frac{PC}{1+PC}=\frac{1}{s^2+2s+2} \text{ poles:}-1\pm i$$
 Unstable $G_{yd}=\frac{P}{1+PC}=\frac{s+1}{s^3+s^2-2} \text{ poles:}-2,1$

Input/output stability \implies MIMO system stability (internal stability).

Input Output Stability

Pole Zero Cancellations



Checking all TFs is tedious

$$\begin{split} G_{er} &= \frac{1}{1 + PC}, \quad G_{ed} = -\frac{P}{1 + PC}, \quad G_{en} = -\frac{1}{1 + PC}, \\ G_{yr} &= \frac{PC}{1 + PC}, \quad G_{yd} = \frac{P}{1 + PC}, \quad G_{yn} = -\frac{PC}{1 + PC}. \end{split}$$

■ Just check zeros of 1 + PC No pole-zero cancellations

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Theorem

The above MIMO system is internally stable iff

- 1. The transfer function 1 + PC has no zeros in **Re** s > 0
- 2. There is no pole-zero cancellation in $\operatorname{Re} s > 0$ when the product PC is formed

Internal stability ensures internal signals are not unbounded.