

Summary of observations

A LHP zero changes a 2^{nd} order step response by:

\Rightarrow Increasing overshoot y_p and M_p

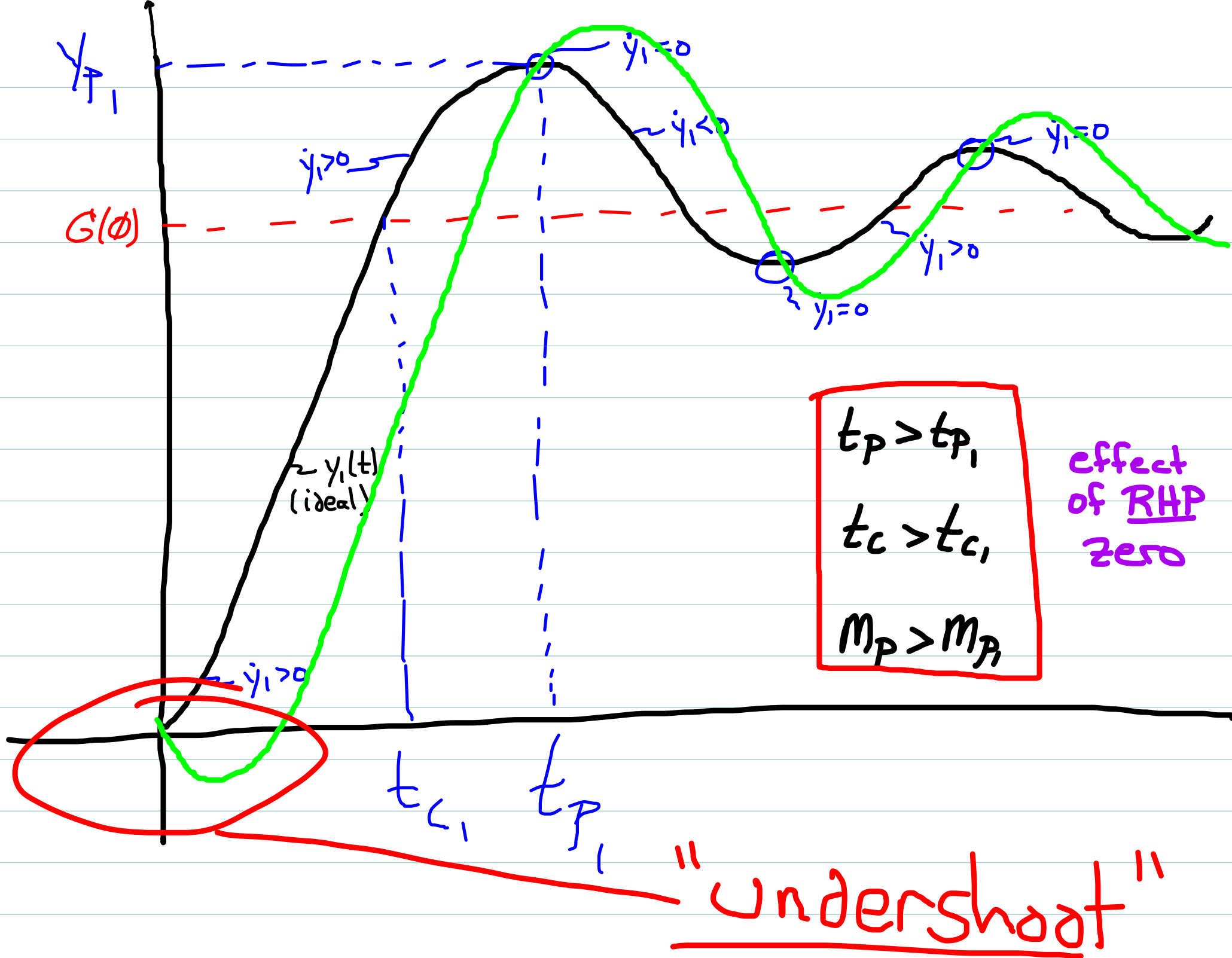
\Rightarrow decreasing t_c and t_p

In a sense, system "responds" faster (crosses y_{ss} more quickly), but price is greater overshoot.

\Rightarrow Note: tricky to quantify exact changes to t_c, t_p, y_p based on z_1

\Rightarrow However, note change from "ideal" response is proportional to $\frac{1}{|z_1|}$

\Rightarrow The further z_1 is from imag Axis , the smaller the effect



Observations (RHP zero)

- \Rightarrow Again, the peak response is greater
- \Rightarrow However, t_c and t_p have increased
- \Rightarrow Appearance of a new feature: "undershoot"
- \Rightarrow Response initially heads "in wrong direction"
before ultimately returning to the same steady-state
- \Rightarrow Such behavior is Not UNstable
- \Rightarrow It is, however, very tricky to design controllers
for such systems.

Performance Specifications

⇒ Step inputs representative for many desired behaviors

- Move to new pointing angle (spacecraft)
- Move to new altitude or heading (aircraft)

⇒ Required performance often specified as upper

Limits on acceptable t_s , M_p

- System must settle quickly enough, and not overshoot too much.

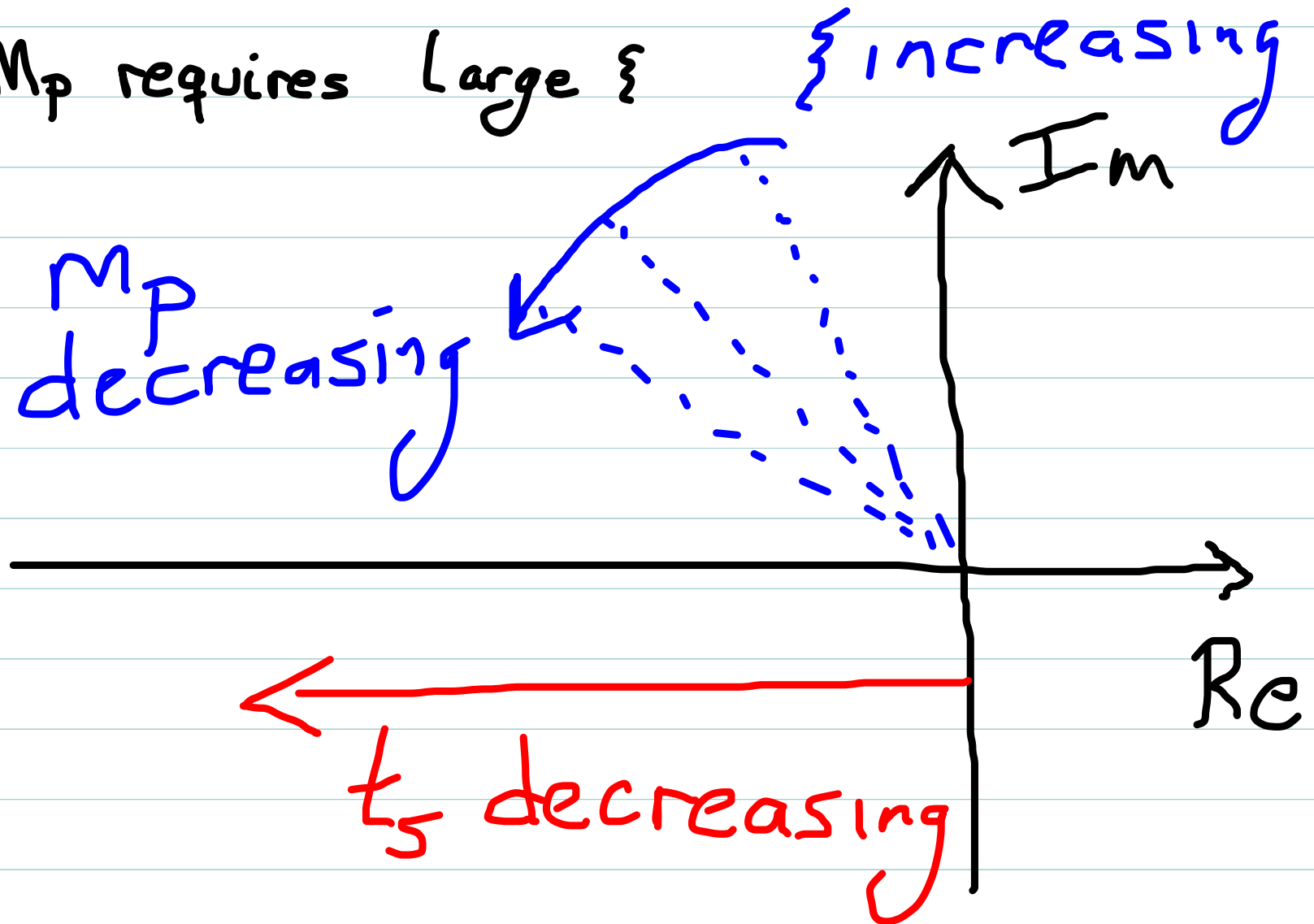
⇒ Recall:

- t_s inversely proportional to $|\operatorname{Re}\{p_i\}|$
- M_p a decreasing function of ξ

$$t_s \approx \frac{4}{|\operatorname{Re}\{p_1\}|}, \quad M_p = \exp\left[\frac{-\xi\pi}{\sqrt{1-\xi^2}}\right]$$

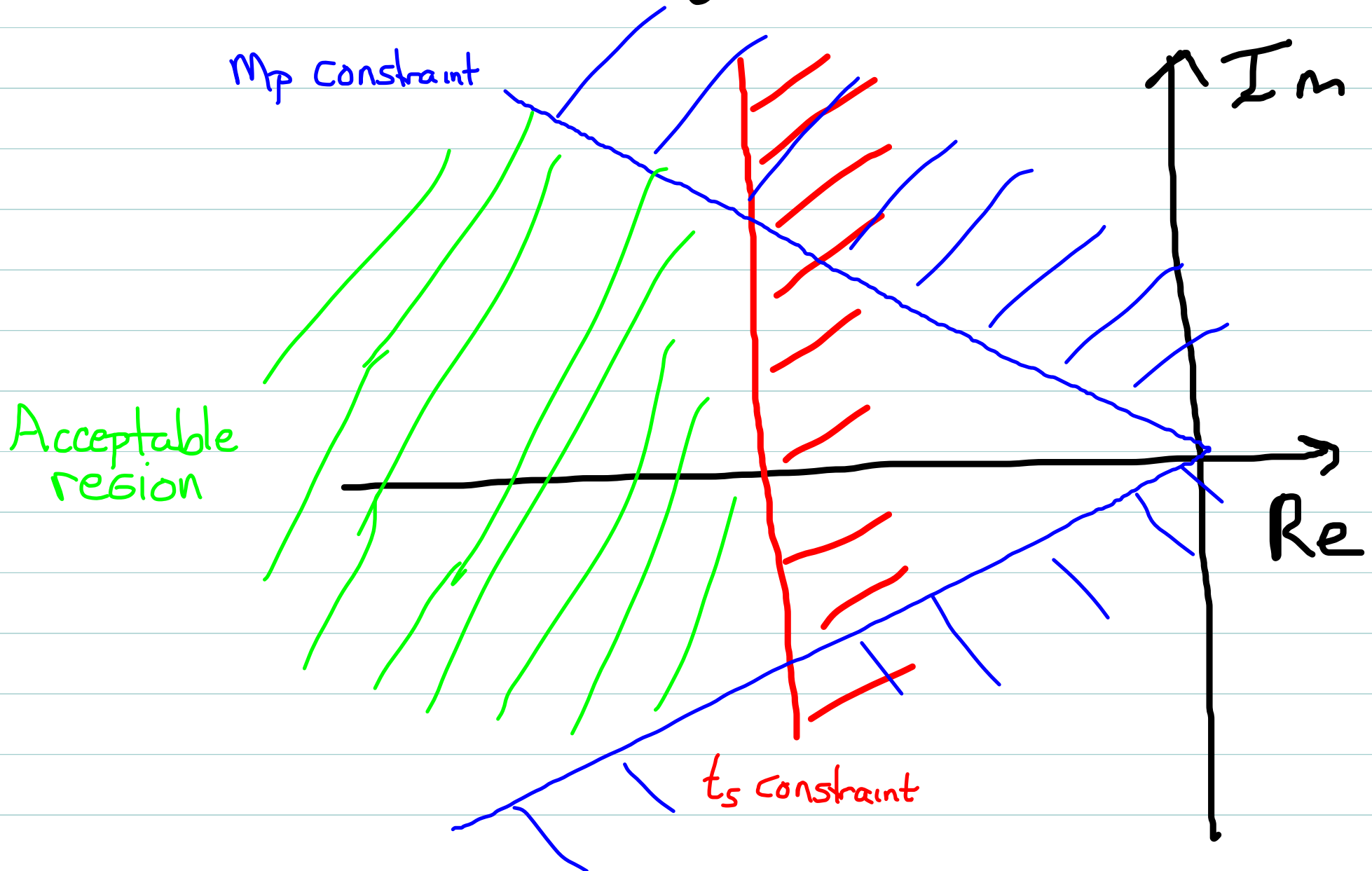
\Rightarrow small t_s requires large $|\operatorname{Re}\{p_1\}|$

\Rightarrow small M_p requires large ξ

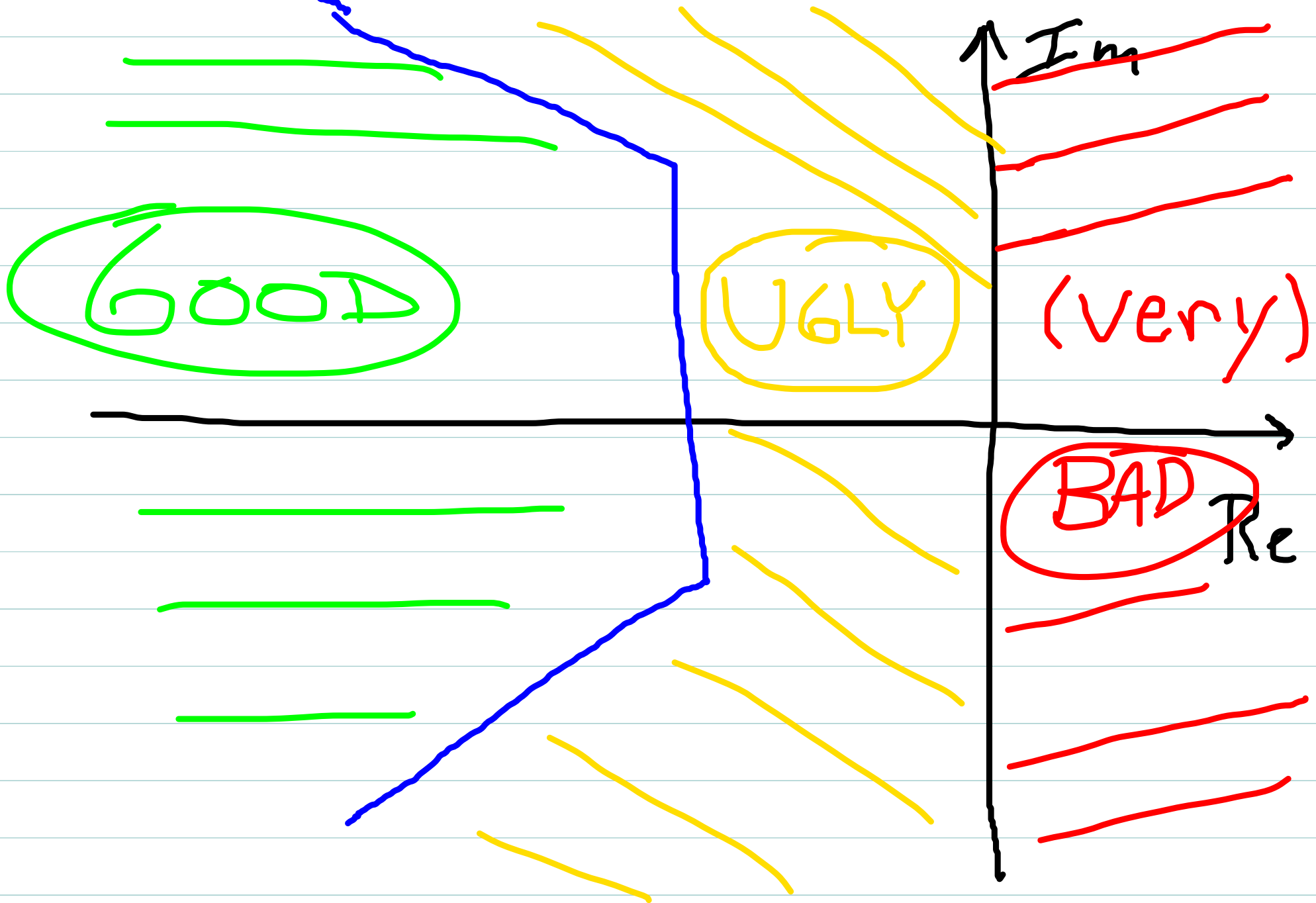


\Rightarrow Upper bound on t_s gives lower bound on $|\operatorname{Re}\{p_i\}|$

\Rightarrow Upper bound on M_p gives lower bound on ξ



Desireable Pole Locations



=> "Good" poles satisfy all transient performance constraints (upper bounds on t_s , M_p)

=> "Bad" poles are unstable

=> "Ugly" poles are stable, but have too much overshoot or take too long to settle.

=> Most aerospace system have natural dynamics which are "bad" or "ugly"

=> Goal of control is to make these systems "good"

Feedback "moves" poles

⇒ Already seen this on previous homeworks.

⇒ But it can be tricky!

$$\text{Suppose } u(t) = K(y_d(t) - y(t))$$

If system is modeled with $Y(s) = G(s)U(s)$

$$\text{where } G(s) = \frac{\beta_1 s + \beta_0}{s^2 + \alpha_1 s + \alpha_0}$$

Then poles are moved to roots of

$$r_{cl}(s) = s^2 + (\alpha_1 + K\beta_1)s + (\alpha_0 + K\beta_0)$$

=> Tricky to predict movement of poles for all possible values of $K, \alpha_0, \alpha_1, \beta_0, \beta_1$

=> Even more complicated for $G(s)$ with additional poles and/or zeros

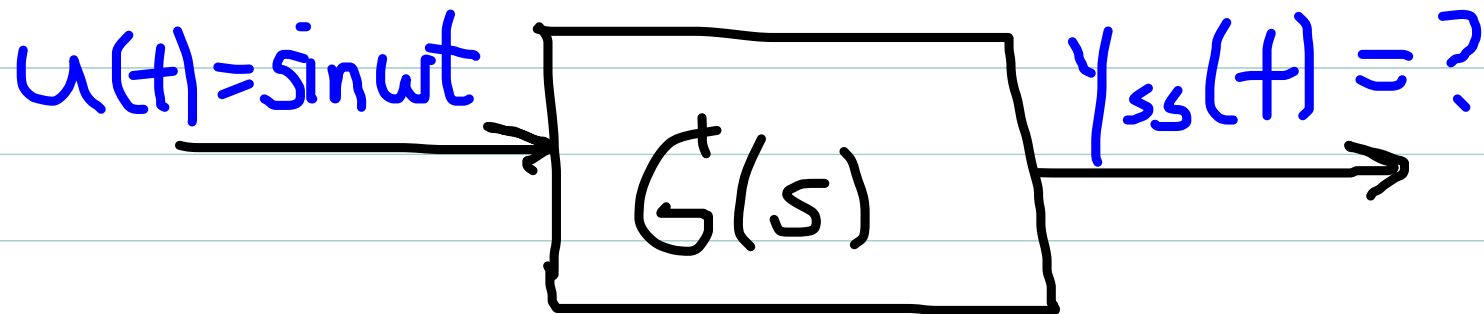
=> Need a more systematic tool to predict effectiveness of a control strategy.

=> One approach is based on a more careful analysis of the behavior of $G(j\omega)$.

Sinusoidal Response

Here we wish to understand the properties of the steady-state response of a stable system when $u(t) = \sin \omega t$.

Note: our focus is shifting (temporarily) away from the transient response



Of course, we've already solved this problem:

$$u(t) = \sin \omega t = \operatorname{Im} \{ e^{j\omega t} \}$$

$$\Rightarrow y_f(t) = \operatorname{Im} \{ G(j\omega) e^{j\omega t} \} = |G(j\omega)| \sin(\omega t + \angle G(j\omega))$$

$$\text{Then } y(t) = y_f(t) + y_h(t)$$

But if system is stable, $y_h(t) \rightarrow 0$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$ for any set of initial cond'ns.

Hence $y_{tr}(t) = y_h(t)$ leaving us with

$$y_{ss}(t) = |G(j\omega)| \sin(\omega t + \angle G(j\omega))$$

So:

$$u(t) = \sin \omega t \Rightarrow y_{ss}(t) = |G(j\omega)| \sin(\omega t + \angle G(j\omega))$$

Note:

$y_{ss}(t)$ is sinusoidal at same frequency as $u(t)$

But:

Amplitude and phase of $y_{ss}(t)$ different.

==

Now, more generally suppose:

$$u(t) = B \sin(\omega t + \psi) = \text{Im}\{U e^{j\omega t}\}, \quad U = B e^{j\psi}$$

then
$$y_{ss}(t) = \text{Im}\{G(j\omega)U e^{j\omega t}\}$$

$$= |G(j\omega)| \cdot |U| \sin(\omega t + \angle G(j\omega) + \angle U)$$

or
$$y_{ss}(t) = |G(j\omega)| B \sin(\omega t + \angle G(j\omega) + \psi)$$

Thus generally:

$$u(t) = B \sin(\omega t + \varphi) \Rightarrow y_{ss}(t) = A \sin(\omega t + \varphi)$$

where: $A = |G(j\omega)|B$

$$\varphi = \angle G(j\omega) + \varphi$$

Define:

Amplitude ratio: A/B (ratio of output ampl. to input ampl.)

Phase shift: $\varphi - \varphi$ (Diff. between output and input phase)

Then note:

$$\begin{aligned} A/B &= |G(j\omega)| \\ \varphi - \varphi &= \angle G(j\omega) \end{aligned}$$

So generally

[$|G(j\omega)|$ quantifies the ratio between
output and input amplitude

[$\angle G(j\omega)$ quantifies the change in phase
of output compared to input

Note: these are frequency dependent

i.e. the amplitude ratio and phase shift
depend on frequency of input.

Very useful to quantify this dependence!

Example

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

$$|G(j\omega)| = \frac{3}{\sqrt{\omega^2+4}} \quad \angle G(j\omega) = -\tan^{-1}\left(\frac{\omega}{2}\right)$$

$$\omega = 1/2 \Rightarrow |G(j/2)| = \frac{3}{\sqrt{4.25}} \approx 1.46$$

$$\angle G(j/2) = -\tan^{-1}(1/4) = -.245 \text{ rad or } -14.04^\circ$$

$$\omega = 2 \Rightarrow |G(2j)| = \frac{3}{\sqrt{8}} \approx 1.06$$

$$\angle G(2j) = -\tan^{-1}(1) = -\pi/4 = -45^\circ$$

$$\omega = 20 \Rightarrow |G(20j)| = \frac{3}{\sqrt{404}} = 0.15$$

$$\angle G(20j) = -\tan^{-1}(10) = -1.47 \approx -84.3^\circ$$

=> Want to learn to predict these changes based on ZPK structure of $G(s)$

=> Useful also to visualize graphically

=> Three methods

(1) Plot $|G(j\omega)|$ and $\angle G(j\omega)$ vs. $\omega \geq 0$

(2 plots)

(2) Plot $G(j\omega)$ as ω varies from 0 to ∞ as points in complex plane.

(3) Plot $|G(j\omega)|$ vs. $\angle G(j\omega)$ for $0 \leq \omega < \infty$

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(1) Plot $|G(j\omega)|$ and $\angle G(j\omega)$ vs. $\omega \geq 0$

(2 plots) "Bode diagrams"

(2) Plot $G(j\omega)$ as ω varies from 0 to ∞

as points in complex plane. "polar diagram"

(3) Plot $|G(j\omega)|$ vs. $\angle G(j\omega)$ for $0 \leq \omega < \infty$
"Nichols Chart"

Bode is most fundamental, start there

\Rightarrow want to see behavior for large range of $\omega \geq 0$

$\Rightarrow |G(j\omega)|$ will vary enormously in size

\Rightarrow Use logarithmic scales for plots.

\Rightarrow Horizontal Axis on Bode diagram is freq on a log scale

\Rightarrow equally spaced divisions on this scale are factors of 10 apart.

\Rightarrow We call one of these divisions a "decade"

$\begin{matrix} 1/10 \rightarrow 1 \\ 2 \rightarrow 20 \end{matrix} \left. \vphantom{\begin{matrix} 1/10 \rightarrow 1 \\ 2 \rightarrow 20 \end{matrix}} \right\} \begin{matrix} \text{one} \\ \text{decade} \end{matrix}$

$\begin{matrix} 1/10 \rightarrow 10 \\ 2 \rightarrow 200 \end{matrix} \left. \vphantom{\begin{matrix} 1/10 \rightarrow 10 \\ 2 \rightarrow 200 \end{matrix}} \right\} \begin{matrix} \text{two} \\ \text{decades} \end{matrix}$

Decibels

$|G(j\omega)|$ is shown on Bode diagrams in special units called decibels.

Def'n: for any real number $X \geq \phi$

$$X_{db} = 20 \log X$$

Conversely $X = 10^{(X_{db}/20)}$

Example (from above): $X = 1.46 \Rightarrow X_{db} = 3.25$

$$X = 1.06 \Rightarrow X_{dB} = 0.51$$

$$X = 0.15 \Rightarrow X_{dB} = -16.5$$

Common Shorthand

$$X = 0.15 = -16.5 \text{ dB}$$

Note common conversions

X

X (dB)

.01

-40

.1

-20

1

0

10

20

100

40

Important
⇒

Zero on dB
axis means
magnitude of 1!!

Bode diagrams show

- (1) $|G(j\omega)|$ in dB vs ω on a log scale
- (2) $\angle G(j\omega)$ in deg " " "

See example

Note: there are no negative frequencies on a Bode diagram!

The left limit of the horizontal scale
corresponds to $\omega \rightarrow 0$!

