

## ELEC 372 LECTURE NOTES, WEEK 4

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*Parts of these notes are adapted from the materials in the following references:*

- Modern Control Systems by Richard C. Dorf and Robert H. Bishop, Prentice Hall.
  - Feedback Control of Dynamic Systems by Gene F. Franklin, J. David Powell and Abbas Emami-Naeini, Prentice Hall.
  - Automatic Control Systems by Farid Golnaraghi and Benjamin C. Kuo, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 2010.
- Hydraulic actuator: A hydraulic actuator is used for the linear positioning of a mass and can provide large power amplification.
- Figure 4.1 shows the operation of a hydraulic actuator.

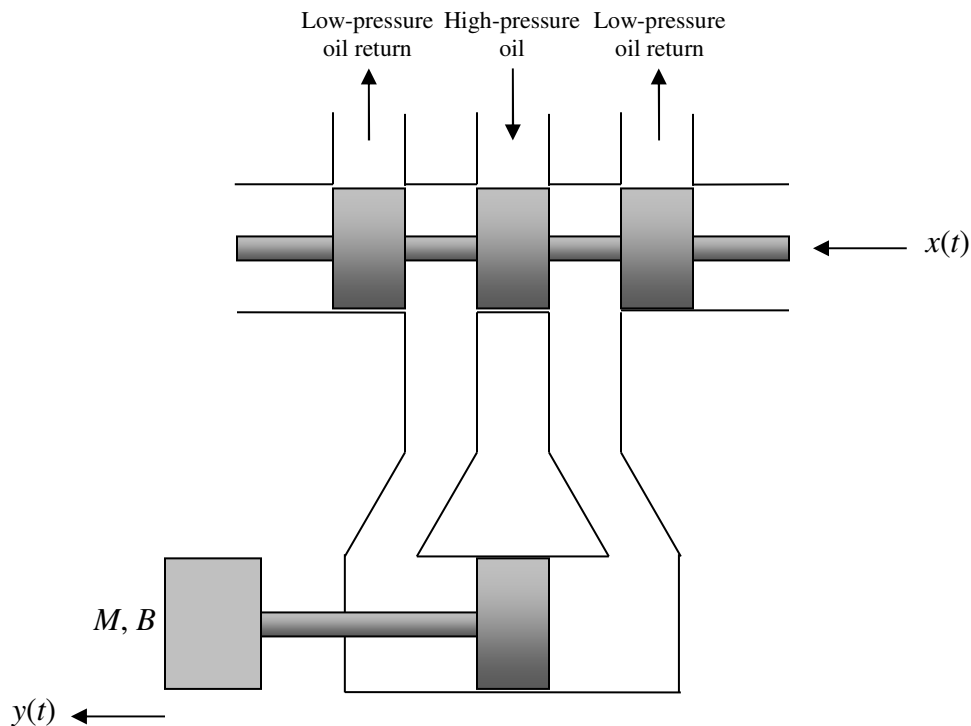


Figure 4.1: A hydraulic actuator

- When  $x(t) > 0$ , the high-pressure oil enters the right side of the large piston chamber, forcing the piston to the left. This causes the low-pressure oil to flow out of the valve chamber from the leftmost channel. Similarly, when  $x(t) < 0$ , the high-pressure oil enters the left side of the large piston chamber, forcing the piston to the right. This causes the low-pressure oil to flow out of the valve chamber from the rightmost channel.
- To obtain a model for the hydraulic actuator, it is assumed that the compressibility of the oil is negligible (in practice, the compressibility of oil may cause some resonance because it acts like a stiff spring). It is also assumed that the high-pressure hydraulic oil is provided by a constant pressure source.
- The input  $x(t)$  and the output  $y(t)$  are related through a second-order nonlinear differential equation and after linearization around  $x(t) = 0$  and simplification, we will have the following transfer function for a hydraulic actuator:

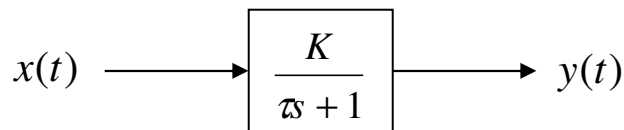
$$\frac{Y(s)}{X(s)} = \frac{K}{s(Ms + B)}$$

$M$  is the mass of the piston and the attached load.  $K$  and  $B$  are functions of the piston area, friction, and the flowing oil.

- The transfer function of the hydraulic actuator is similar to that of the electric motor (armature-controlled DC motor) given by  $\frac{\theta_m(s)}{E_a(s)} \cong \frac{K}{s(s\tau + 1)}$ .

### Time domain analysis

1. **First-order systems:** The transfer function of a first-order system is as follows:



- We have:

$$H(s) = \frac{Y(s)}{X(s)} = \frac{K}{s\tau + 1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \tau \frac{dy(t)}{dt} + y(t) = Kx(t)$$

- The impulse response of the system is:

$$h(t) = \frac{K}{\tau} e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} u(t).$$

- The step response of the system is:

$$Y(s) = \frac{K}{s(s\tau + 1)} = \frac{K}{s} - \frac{K}{s + \frac{1}{\tau}}$$

$$\Rightarrow y(t) = K(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}})u(t)$$

- For  $\tau > 0$  we will have the following steady state value for the step response:

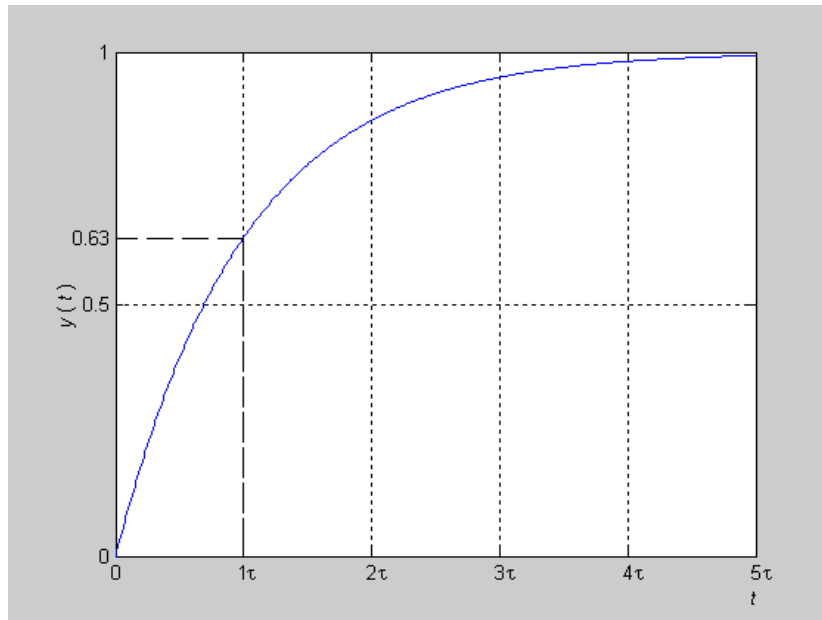
$$y_{ss} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} y(t) = K$$

- Note that in general, if all poles of  $H(s)$  are in the LHP,  $y_{ss}$  can be found using the final-value theorem as shown below:

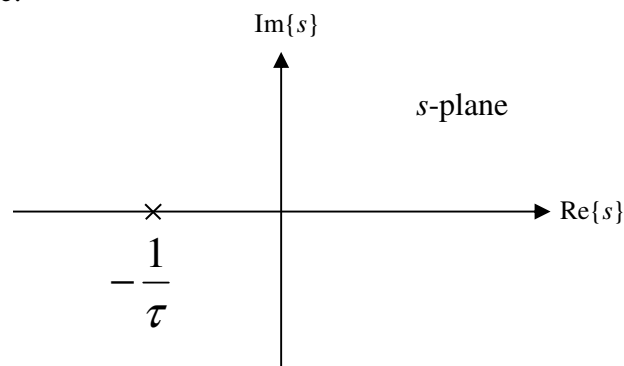
$$y_{ss} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} y(t) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sY(s) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s \frac{1}{s} H(s) = H(0)$$

- $H(0)$  is called the DC gain of the system (for a stable system).
- Since for a first-order system  $y_{ss} = H(0) = K$ , this means that in order to have no steady-state error for the step input,  $K$  must be equal to 1.
- The step response of a first-order system for  $K = 1$  is given in the following

figure ( $H(s) = \frac{1}{s\tau + 1}$ ):



- $\tau$  is called the time constant of the system and a smaller  $\tau$  means a faster system.
- The pole of the first-order system is located at  $s = -\frac{1}{\tau}$  and is indicated in the following figure:



- In general, poles closer to the imaginary axis represent slower time response.
- The settling time  $t_s$  is the time it takes the system transients to decay. More precisely, it is the time required for the system output to settle within a certain percentage of its steady-state value. The most commonly used percentages are 1%, 2% and 5%.
- For the first-order system with 2% measure we have  $t_s = 4\tau$  and for 5% measure we have  $t_s = 3\tau$ . We will use the 2% measure for the settling time in this course.

- Small settling time is desirable in the design of control systems.
- The ramp response is the response of the system to a unit ramp signal  $x(t) = tu(t)$  when the initial conditions are zero. We will have:

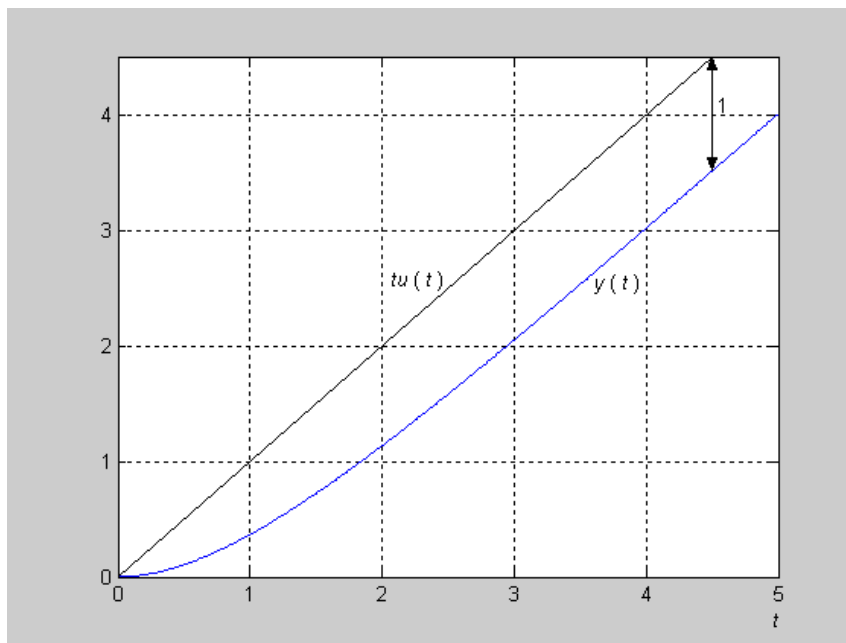
$$X(s) = \frac{1}{s^2} \Rightarrow Y(s) = \frac{K}{s^2(s\tau + 1)} = -\frac{K\tau}{s} + \frac{K}{s^2} + \frac{K\tau}{s + 1/\tau}$$

$$\Rightarrow y(t) = K(t - \tau + \tau e^{-t/\tau})u(t)$$

- The steady-state error for  $k = 1$  can be obtained when  $t \rightarrow \infty$ , and is given by:

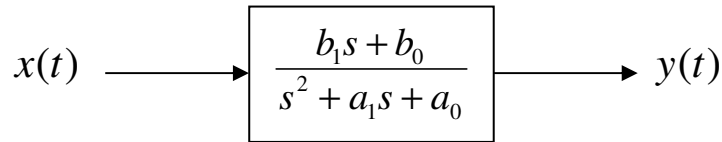
$$e_{ss} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} e(t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} tu(t) - y(t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} t - t + \tau = \tau$$

- The ramp response of a first-order system for  $K = 1$  and  $\tau = 1$  is given in the following figure ( $H(s) = \frac{1}{s + 1}$ ):



- From the results obtained for unit step response and unit ramp response, it can be concluded that a stable first-order system with unit DC gain  $H(s) = \frac{1}{s\tau + 1}$  has zero steady-state error for the step input and constant steady-state error for the ramp input.

2. **Second-order systems:** The transfer function of a second-order system is:



- The differential equation relating the output to the input is given by:

$$\frac{d^2 y(t)}{dt^2} + a_1 \frac{dy(t)}{dt} + a_0 y(t) = b_1 \frac{dx(t)}{dt} + b_0 x(t) .$$

- Let us assume that  $b_1 = 0$ , which means that the system has no zeros. Then:

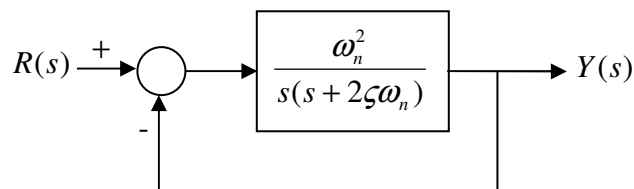
$$H(s) = \frac{Y(s)}{X(s)} = \frac{b_0}{s^2 + a_1 s + a_0} .$$

- Usually it is simpler to normalize the second-order transfer function such that the DC gain is one ( $b_0 = a_0$ ) and then use the following standard form to describe the system:

$$H(s) = \frac{\omega_n^2}{s^2 + 2\zeta\omega_n s + \omega_n^2}$$

-  $\omega_n$  is equal to  $\sqrt{a_0}$  and  $\zeta$  is equal to  $\frac{1}{2} \frac{a_1}{\sqrt{a_0}}$ .

- Note that a second-order system with the standard transfer function can be resulted from the following closed-loop system:

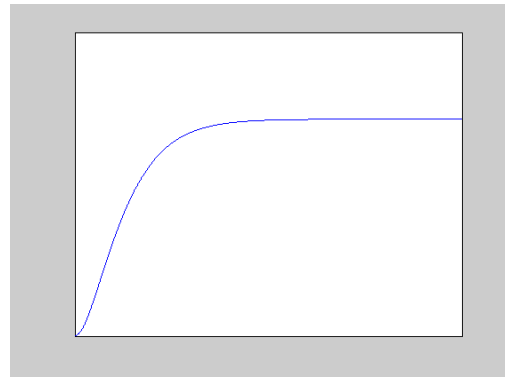
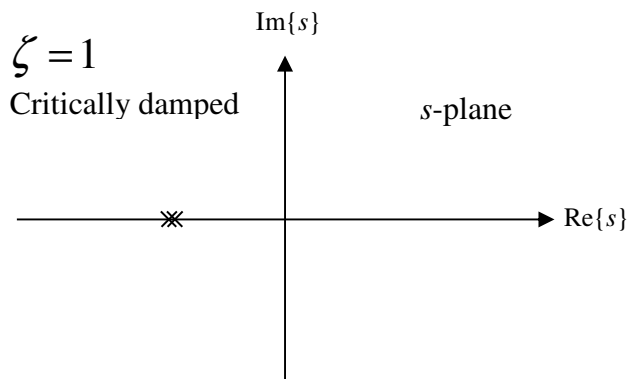
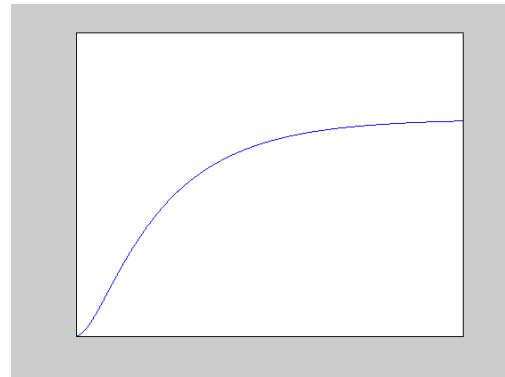
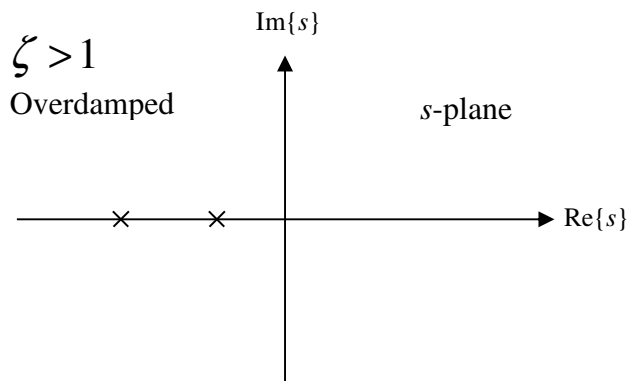


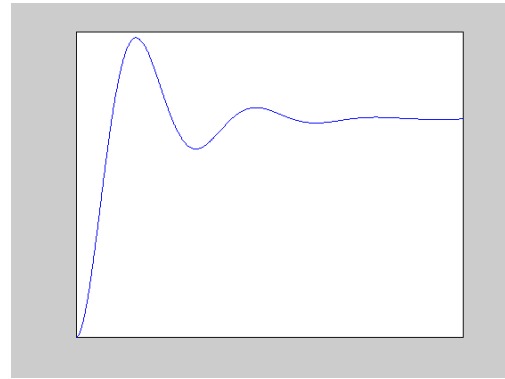
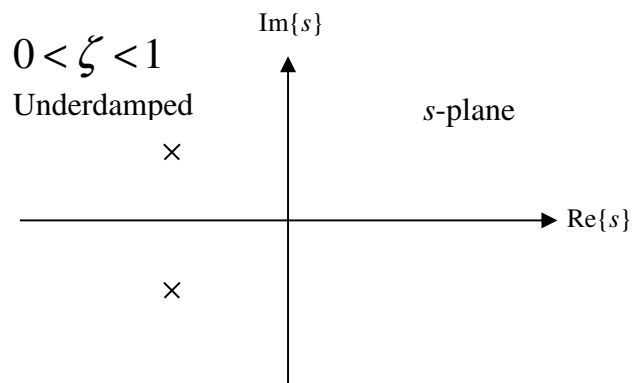
- Many of the practical second-order systems (such as a closed-loop position control system with a DC motor) have in fact the above closed-loop structure.

- The poles of the second-order transfer function  $H(s)$  are located at:

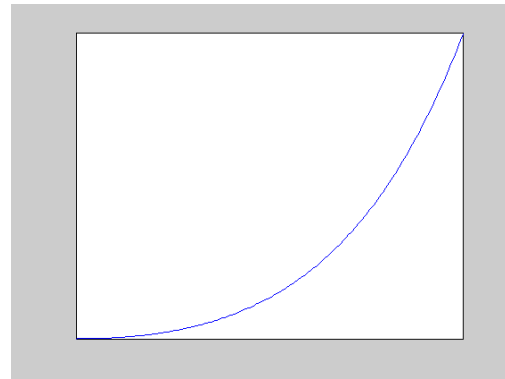
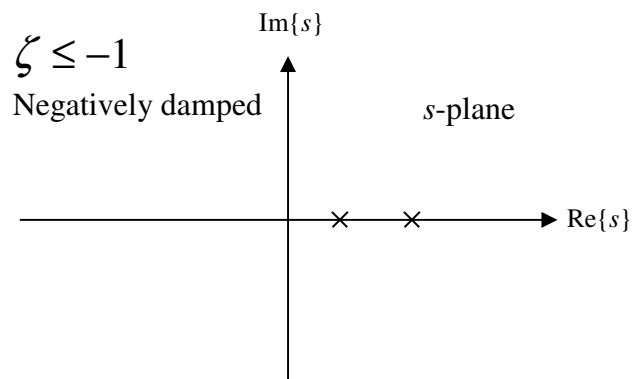
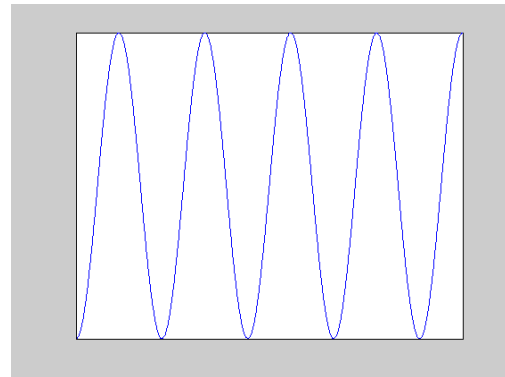
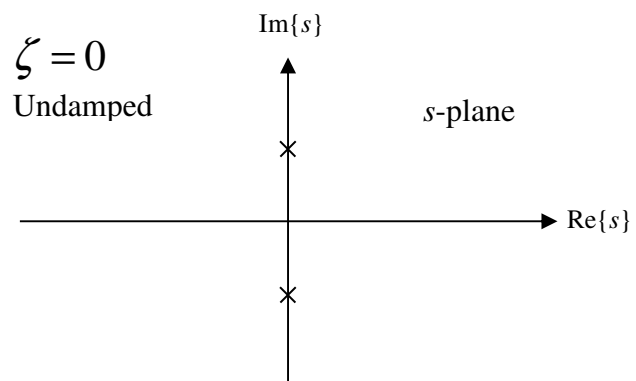
$$s_1, s_2 = -\zeta\omega_n \pm \omega_n\sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1}.$$

- For  $|\zeta| \geq 1$  we have two real poles.
- For  $|\zeta| < 1$  we have two complex poles which always come in complex conjugate pairs.
- The second-order system is stable if and only if  $\zeta > 0$  (which results in two poles in the LHP).
- The behaviour of a second-order system depends highly on  $\zeta$ .
- Stable second-order systems ( $\zeta > 0$ ):

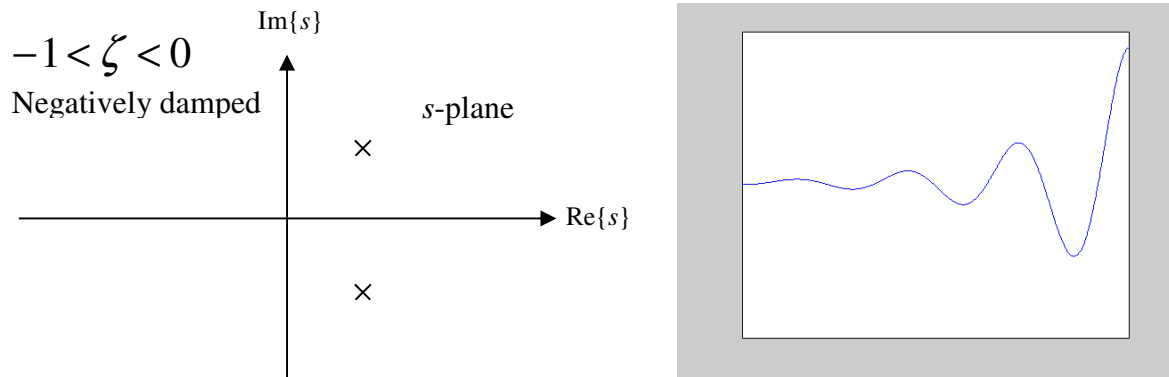




- Unstable second-order system ( $\zeta \leq 0$ ):







- We are only interested in stable second-order systems: overdamped, critically damped and underdamped.
- **Overdamped systems:** An overdamped second-order system has two real poles in the LHP and so it can be considered as the parallel interconnection of two first-order systems.
- **Underdamped systems:** An underdamped second-order system has a pair of complex conjugate poles:

$$s_1, s_2 = -\zeta\omega_n \pm j\omega_d$$

- $\omega_n$  is called natural frequency or natural undamped frequency.
- $\zeta$  is called damping ratio.
- $\omega_n\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}$  is called the damped natural frequency, or damped frequency, or conditional frequency and is denoted by  $\omega_d$ . This is, in fact, the frequency of the decaying oscillations in the step response, as we will see in the following pages.
- $\zeta\omega_n$  is called the damping factor or damping constant (because it determines the rate of rise or decay of the step response, as discussed later) and is denoted by  $\alpha$ .

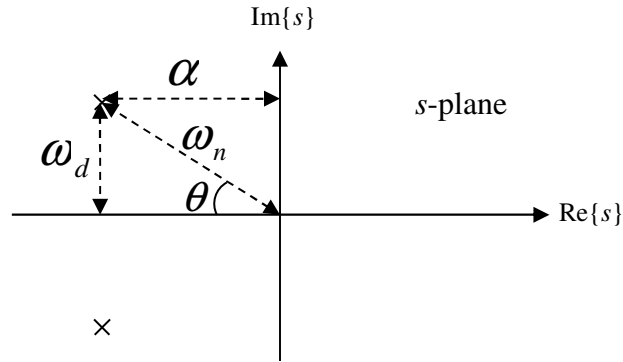


Figure 4.2

- The unit step response of the second-order system  $H(s) = \frac{\omega_n^2}{s^2 + 2\zeta\omega_n s + \omega_n^2}$  is:

$$\text{For } 0 < \zeta < 1: \quad y(t) = 1 - \frac{\omega_n}{\omega_d} e^{-\alpha t} \sin(\omega_d t + \theta), \quad \theta = \cos^{-1} \zeta$$

$$\text{For } \zeta = 0: \quad y(t) = 1 - \sin\left(\omega_n t + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 1 - \cos(\omega_n t)$$

$$\text{For } \zeta = 1: \quad y(t) = 1 - e^{-\omega_n t} (1 + \omega_n t)$$