



# قسم الروبوت و الأنظمة الذكية

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### نظم التحكم اللاخطي **Nonlinear Control systems**

مدرس المقرر د بلال شيحا

### **Describing Function Analysis**

• The frequency response method is a powerful tool for the analysis and design of linear control systems. It is based on describing a linear system by a complex-valued function, the frequency response, instead of a differential equation. The power of the method comes from a number of sources. First, graphical representations can be used to facilitate analysis and design. Second, physical insights can be used, because the frequency response functions have clear physical meanings. Finally, the method's complexity only increases mildly with system order. Frequency domain analysis, however, cannot be directly applied to nonlinear systems because frequency response functions cannot be defined for nonlinear systems.

### **Describing Function Analysis**

- Yet, for some nonlinear systems, an extended version of the frequency response method, called the describing function method, can be used to approximately analyze and predict nonlinear behavior.
   Even though it is only an approximation method, the desirable properties it inherits from the frequency response method, and the shortage of other systematic tools.
- component of the bag of tools of practicing control engineers. The main use of describing function method is for the prediction of limit cycles in nonlinear systems, although the method has a number of other applications such as predicting subharmonics, and the response of nonlinear systems to sinusoidal inputs.

### **1- An Example of Describing Function Analysis**

The interesting and classical Van der Pol equation

$$\ddot{x} + \alpha (x^2 - I) \dot{x} + x = 0$$
 (1)

where  $\boldsymbol{\alpha}$  is a positive constant.

let us determine whether there exists a limit cycle in this system and, if so, calculate the amplitude and frequency of the limit cycle.

To this effect, we first assume the existence of a limit cycle with undetermined amplitude and frequency, and then determine whether the system equation can indeed sustain such a solution. This is quite similar to the assumed-variable method in differential equation theory, where we first assume a solution of certain form, substitute it into the differential equation, and then attempt to determine the coefficients in the solution.

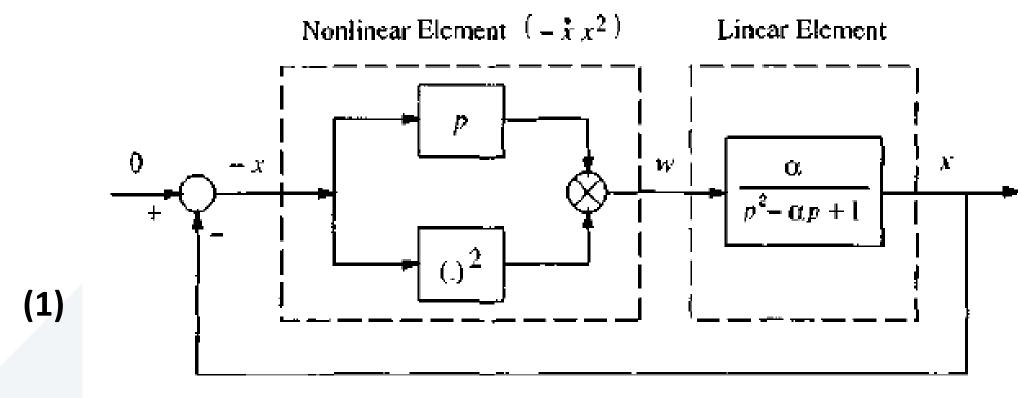
### **1- An Example of Describing Function Analysis**

Van der Pol Equation  $\ddot{x} + \alpha (x^2 - 1)\dot{x} + x = 0$  $\ddot{x} - \alpha \dot{x} + x = -\alpha x^2 \dot{x}$  $\ddot{x} - \alpha \dot{x} + x = \alpha w$  $w = -x^2 \dot{x}$ 

 $s^{2}X(s) - \alpha sX(s) + X(s) = \alpha W(s)$  $(s^{2} - \alpha s + 1)X(s) = \alpha W(s)$  $\frac{X(s)}{W(s)} = \frac{\alpha}{(s^{2} - \alpha s + 1)}$ 

### **1- An Example of Describing Function Analysis**

It is seen that the feedback system contains a linear block and a nonlinear block, where the linear block, although unstable, has lowpass properties.



#### **1- An Example of Describing Function Analysis**

Now let us assume that there is a limit cycle in the system and the oscillation signal **x** is in the form of

 $x(t) = A\sin\omega t$ 

with **A** being the limit cycle amplitude and  $\boldsymbol{\omega}$  being the frequency. Thus,  $\dot{x}(t) = A\omega \cos \omega t$ 

Therefore, the output of the nonlinear block is

$$w = x^{2}\dot{x} = A^{2}\sin^{2}(\omega t)A\omega\cos(\omega t)$$
$$[\sin^{2}(\omega t) = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos(2\omega t))]$$

$$w = -\frac{A^3\omega}{2}(1 - \cos(2\omega t))\cos(\omega t) = -\frac{A^3\omega}{4}(\cos(\omega t) - \cos(3\omega t))$$
$$[2\cos(a)\cos(b) = \cos(a+b) + \cos(a-b)]$$

#### **1- An Example of Describing Function Analysis**

It is seen that **w** contains a third harmonic term. Since the linear block has low-pass properties, we can reasonably assume that this third harmonic term is sufficiently attenuated by the linear block and its effect is not present in the signal flow after the linear block. This means that we can approximate **w** by

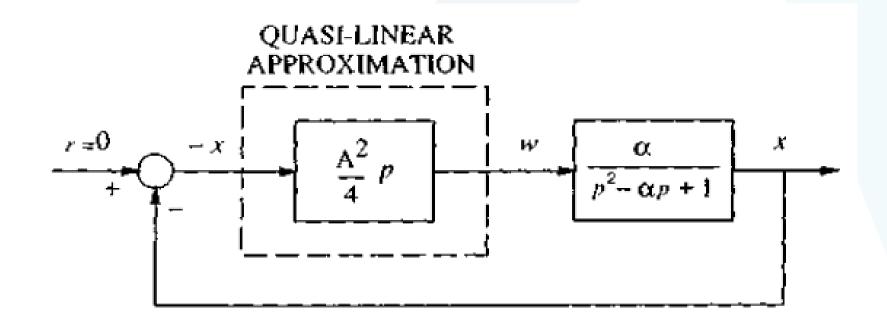
$$w \approx -\frac{A^3}{4}\omega(\cos(\omega t) = \frac{A^2}{4}\frac{d}{dt}[-A\sin(\omega t)]$$
$$w \approx \frac{A^2}{4}\frac{d}{dt}[-x(t)]$$

so that the nonlinear block in Figure(1). can be approximated by the equivalent "quasi-linear" block in Figure(2). The "transfer function" of the quasi-linear block depends on the signal amplitude *A*, unlike a linear system transfer function (which is independent of the input magnitude).

#### **1- An Example of Describing Function Analysis**

In the frequency domain, this corresponds to

$$w = N(A, \omega)(-x)$$
<sup>(2)</sup>

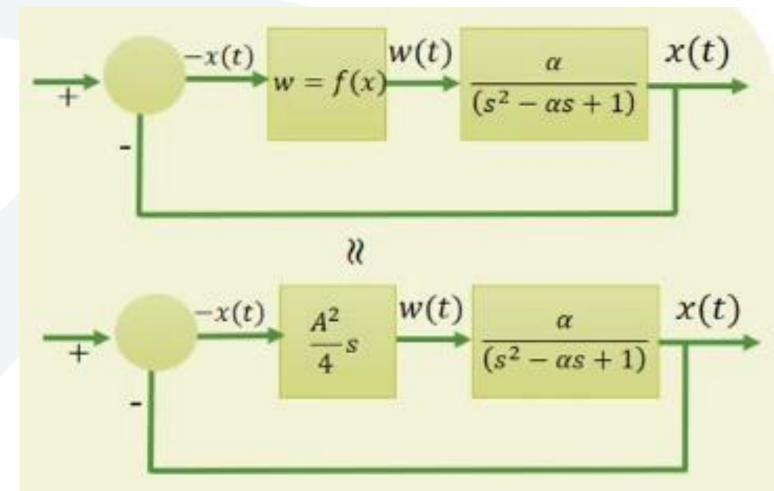


#### **1- An Example of Describing Function Analysis**

(2)

In the frequency domain, this corresponds to

 $w = N(A, \omega)(-x)$  (2)



#### **1- An Example of Describing Function Analysis**

$$N(A,\omega) = \frac{A^2}{4}(j\omega)$$

That is, the nonlinear block can be approximated by the frequency response function  $N(A, \omega)$ . Since the system is assumed to contain a sinusoidal oscillation, we have

$$x(t) = A\sin(\omega t) = G(j\omega)w = G(j\omega)N(A,\omega)(-x)$$

where  $G(j\omega)$  is the linear component transfer function. This implies that  $1 + \frac{A^2(j\omega)}{4} \frac{\alpha}{(j\omega)^2 - \alpha(j\omega) + 1} = 0$ 

**1- An Example of Describing Function Analysis** 

$$1 + \frac{(1 - \omega^2) + j(\alpha\omega)}{(1 - \omega^2) + j(\alpha\omega)} \times \frac{\alpha}{(1 - \omega^2) - j(\alpha\omega)} \frac{A^2(j\omega)}{4} = 0$$
  

$$1 + \frac{(1 - \omega^2) + j(\alpha\omega)}{(1 - \omega^2)^2 + (\alpha\omega)^2} \frac{\alpha A^2(j\omega)}{4} = 0$$
  

$$\frac{(1 - \omega^2)}{(1 - \omega^2)^2 + (\alpha\omega)^2} \frac{\alpha A^2(j\omega)}{4} = 0$$
  

$$1 - \frac{(\alpha\omega)}{(1 - \omega^2)^2 + (\alpha\omega)^2} \frac{\alpha A^2(\omega)}{4} = 0$$
  

$$1 - \frac{(\alpha\omega)}{(1 - \omega^2)^2 + (\alpha\omega)^2} \frac{\alpha A^2(\omega)}{4} = 0$$
  

$$1 - \frac{(\alpha\omega)}{(\alpha)^2} \frac{\alpha A^2}{4} = 0$$
  

$$4\alpha^2 - A^2\alpha^2 = 0$$
  

$$A = 2$$

#### **1- An Example of Describing Function Analysis**

Solving this equation, we obtain

$$A = 2$$
,  $\omega = 1$ 

Note that in terms of the Laplace variable **p**, the closed-loop characteristic equation of this system is

$$1 + \frac{A^2 p}{4} \frac{\alpha}{p^2 - \alpha p + 1} = 0$$

(3)

whose eigenvalues are

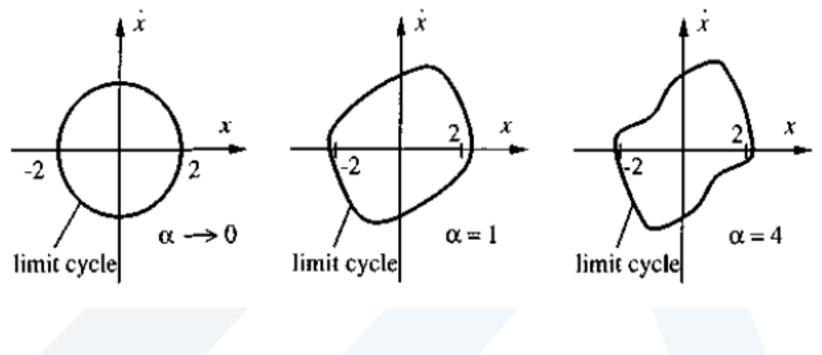
$$\lambda_{1,2} = -\frac{1}{8}\alpha(A^2 - 4) \mp \sqrt{\frac{1}{64}\alpha^2(A^2 - 4)^2 - 1}$$
(4)

### **1- An Example of Describing Function Analysis**

Corresponding to A=2, we obtain the eigenvalues  $\lambda_{1,2} = \pm j$  This indicates the existence of a limit cycle of amplitude 2 and frequency 1. It is interesting to note neither the amplitude nor the frequency obtained above depends on the parameter  $\alpha$  in Equation (1).

In the phase plane, the above approximate analysis suggests that the limit cycle is a circle of radius **2**, regardless of the value of  $\alpha$ . To verify the plausibility of this result, the real limit cycles corresponding to the different values of  $\alpha$  are plotted (Figure (3)). It is seen that the above approximation is reasonable for small value of  $\alpha$ , but that the inaccuracy grows as  $\alpha$  increases. This is understandable because as  $\alpha$  grows the nonlinearity becomes more significant and the quasi-linear approximation becomes less accurate.

#### **1- An Example of Describing Function Analysis**



#### **1- An Example of Describing Function Analysis**

The stability of the limit cycle can also be studied using the above analysis. Let us assume that the limit cycle's amplitude **A** is increased to a value larger than 2.

Then, equation (4)

$$[\lambda_{1,2} = -\frac{1}{8}\alpha(A^2 - 4) \mp \sqrt{\frac{1}{64}\alpha^2(A^2 - 4)^2 - 1}]$$

shows that the closed-loop poles now have a negative real part. This indicates that the system becomes exponentially stable and thus the signal magnitude will decrease.

Similar conclusions are obtained assuming that the limit cycle's amplitude **A** is decreased to a value less than 2. Thus, we conclude that the limit cycle is stable with an amplitude of 2.

#### **1- An Example of Describing Function Analysis**

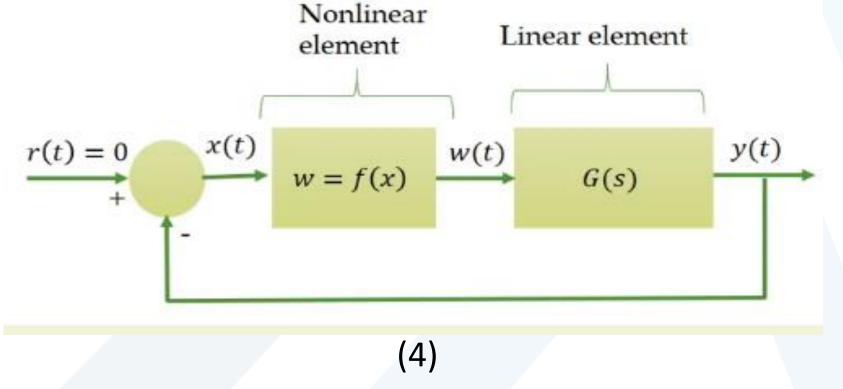
Note that, in the above approximate analysis, the critical step is to replace the nonlinear block by the quasi-linear block which has the frequency response function  $(\frac{A^2}{4}(j\omega))$ . Afterwards, the amplitude and frequency of the limit cycle can be determined for

 $1 + G(j\omega)N(A,\omega) = 0.$ 

The function  $N(A, \omega)$  is called the *describing function* of the nonlinear element. The above approximate analysis can be extended to predict limit cycles in other nonlinear systems which can be represented into the block diagram similar to Figure (1).

### **2- Applications Domain**

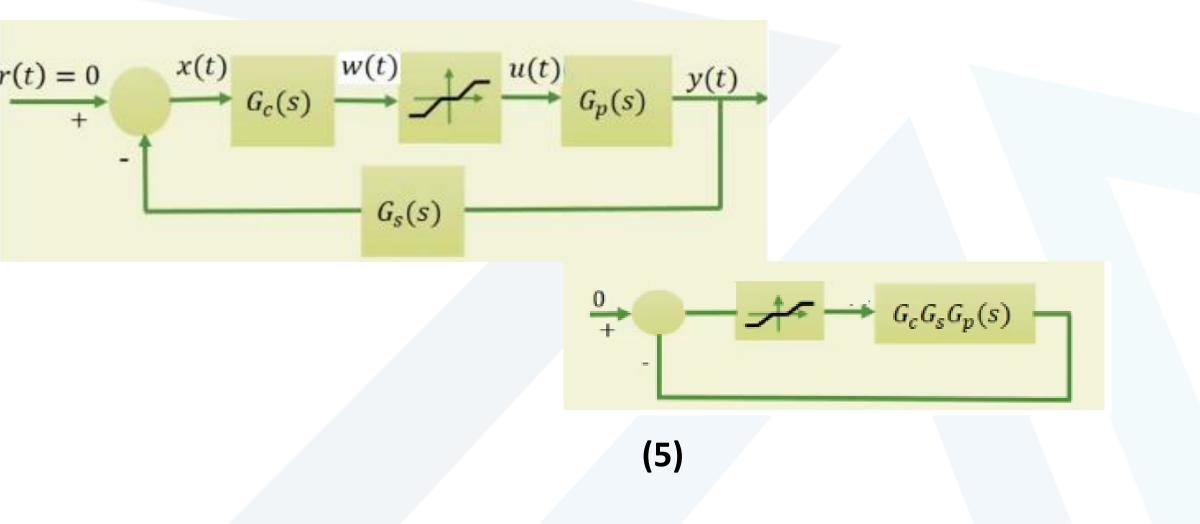
Simply speaking, any system which can be transformed into the configuration in Figure (4) can be studied using describing functions. There are at least two important classes of systems in this category.



#### **2- Applications Domain**

The first important class consists of "almost" linear systems. By "almost" linear systems, we refer to systems which contain hard nonlinearities in the control loop but are otherwise linear. Such systems arise when a control system is designed using linear control but its implementation involves hard nonlinearities, such as motor saturation, actuator or sensor dead-zones, Coulomb friction, or hysteresis in the plant. An example is shown in Figure (5), which involves hard nonlinearities in the actuator.

#### **2- Applications Domain**



### **2- Applications Domain**

### Example 1: A system containing only one nonlinearity

Consider the control system shown in Figure (5). The plant is linear and the controller is also linear. However, the actuator involves a hard nonlinearity. This system can be rearranged into the form of Figure (4) by regarding  $G_pG_cG_s$  as the linear component G, and the actuator nonlinearity as the nonlinear element.

"Almost" linear systems involving sensor or plant nonlinearities can be similarly rearranged into the form of Figure (4).

The second class of systems consists of genuinely nonlinear systems whose dynamic equations can actually be rearranged into the form of Figure (4).

### **2- Applications Domain**

### **APPLICATIONS OF DESCRIBING FUNCTIONS**

For systems such as the one in Figure (5), limit cycles can often occur due to the nonlinearity. However, linear control cannot predict such problems. Describing functions, on the other hand, can be conveniently used to discover the existence of limit cycles and determine their stability, regardless of whether the nonlinearity is "hard" or "soft." The applicability to limit cycle analysis is due to the fact that the form of the signals in a limit-cycling system is usually approximately sinusoidal. This

can be conveniently explained on the system in Figure (4). Indeed, assume that the linear element in Figure (4) has low-pass properties (which is the case of most physical systems)

### **2- Applications Domain**

### **APPLICATIONS OF DESCRIBING FUNCTIONS**

If there is a limit cycle in the system, then the system signals must all be periodic. Since, as a periodic signal, the input to the linear element in Figure (4) can be expanded as the sum of many harmonics, and since the linear element, because of its low-pass property, filters out higher frequency signals, the output y(t) must be composed mostly of the lowest harmonics. Therefore, it is appropriate to assume that the signals in the whole system are basically sinusoidal in form.

### **2- Applications Domain**

### **APPLICATIONS OF DESCRIBING FUNCTIONS**

Prediction of limit cycles is very important, because limit cycles can occur frequently in physical nonlinear system. Sometimes, a limit cycle can be desirable. This is the case of limit cycles in the electronic oscillators used in laboratories. Another example is the so-called dither technique which can be used to minimize the negative effects of Coulomb friction in mechanical systems. In most control systems, however, limit cycles are undesirable. This may be due to a number of reasons:

#### **2- Applications Domain**

#### **APPLICATIONS OF DESCRIBING FUNCTIONS**

1- limit cycle, as a way of instability, tends to cause poor control accuracy.

2-the constant oscillation associated with the limit cycles can cause increasing wear or even mechanical failure of the control system hardware.

3- limit cycling may also cause other undesirable effects, such as passenger discomfort in an aircraft under autopilot.

#### **2- Applications Domain**

### **APPLICATIONS OF DESCRIBING FUNCTIONS**

In general, although a precise knowledge of the waveform of a limit cycle is usually not mandatory, the knowledge of the limit cycle's existence, as well as that of its approximate amplitude and frequency, is critical. The describing function method can be used for this purpose. It can also guide the design of compensators so as to avoid limit cycles.

### **3- Basic Assumptions**

Consider a nonlinear system in the general form of Figure (4). In order to develop the *basic version* of the describing function method, the system has to satisfy the following four conditions:

- **1**. there is only a single nonlinear component.
- 2. the nonlinear component is time-invariant.

3.corresponding to a sinusoidal input  $x = \sin \omega t$ , only the fundamental component  $w_1(t)$  in the output w(t) has to be considered.

4. the nonlinearity is odd.

#### **3- Basic Assumptions**

The first assumption implies that if there are two or more nonlinear components in a system, one either has to lump them together as a single nonlinearity (as can be done with two nonlinearities in parallel), or retain only the primary nonlinearity and neglect the others.

The second assumption implies that we consider only autonomous nonlinear systems. It is satisfied by many nonlinearities in practice, such as saturation in amplifiers, backlash in gears, Coulomb friction between surfaces, and hysteresis in relays. The reason for this assumption is that the Nyquist criterion, on which the describing function method is largely based, applies only to linear time-invariant systems.

#### **3- Basic Assumptions**

The third assumption is the fundamental assumption of the describing function method. It represents an approximation, because the output of a nonlinear element corresponding to a sinusoidal input usually contains higher harmonics besides the fundamental. This assumption implies that the higher-frequency harmonics can all be neglected in the analysis, as compared with the fundamental component. For this assumption to be valid, it is important for the linear element following the nonlinearity to have low-pass properties, i.e.,

$$|G(j\omega)| \gg |G(jn\omega)|$$
 for  $n = 2,3,...$  (5)

This implies that higher harmonics in the output will be filtered out significantly. Thus, the third assumption is often referred to as *the filtering hypothesis*.

#### **3- Basic Assumptions**

The fourth assumption means that the plot of the nonlinearity relation f(x) between the input and output of the nonlinear element is symmetric about the origin. This assumption is introduced for simplicity, *i.e.*, so that the static term in the Fourier expansion of the output can be neglected. Note that the common nonlinearities discussed before all satisfy this assumption.

The relaxation of the above assumptions has been widely studied in literature, leading to describing function approaches for general situations, such as multiple nonlinearities, time-varying nonlinearities, or multiplesinusoids. However, these methods based on relaxed conditions are usually much more complicated than the basic version, which corresponds to the above four assumptions. In this chapter, we shall mostly concentrate on the basic version.

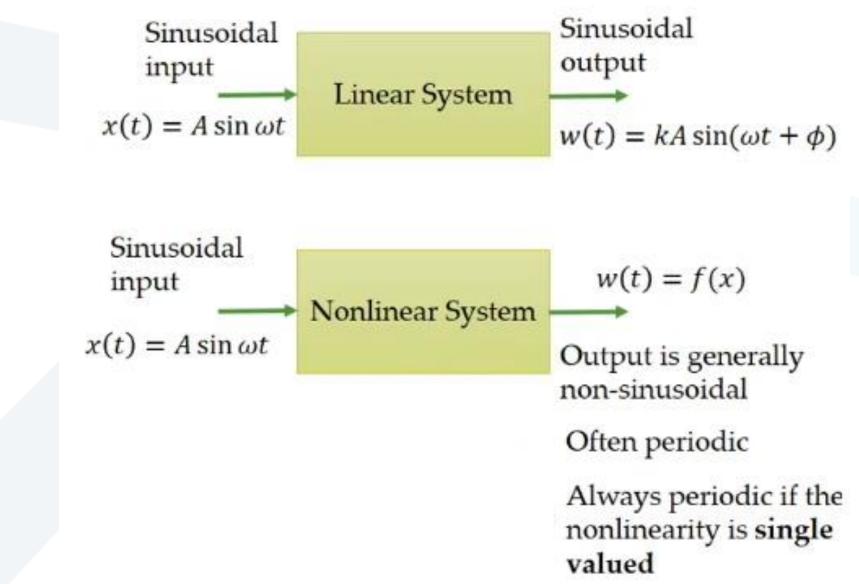
#### **4- Basic Definitions**

Let us now discuss how to represent a *nonlinear component* by a describing function. Let us consider a sinusoidal input to the nonlinear element, of amplitude A and frequency  $\omega$ , *i.e.*, x(t)=A sin( $\omega t$ ), as shown in Figure (6).

The output of the nonlinear component w(t) is often a periodic, though generally non-sinusoidal, function. Note that this is always the case if the nonlinearity f(x) is single-valued, because the output is  $f[A \sin(\omega(t + 2\pi/\omega))] = f[A \sin(\omega t)]$ . Using Fourier series, the periodic function w(t) can be expanded as

**4- Basic Definitions** 

(6)



#### **4- Basic Definitions**

$$\boldsymbol{w}(\boldsymbol{t}) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} [a_n \cos(n\omega t) + b_n \sin(n\omega t)]$$
(6)

where the Fourier coefficients  $a_i$ 's and  $b_i$ 's are generally functions of **A** and  $\omega$ , determined by

$$a_{0} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} w(t) d(\omega t)$$

$$a_{n} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} w(t) \cos(n\omega t) d(\omega t)$$

$$b_{n} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} w(t) \sin(n\omega t) d(\omega t)$$
(7c)

#### **4- Basic Definitions**

Due to the fourth assumption above, one has  $a_0 = 0$ . Furthermore, the third assumption implies that we only need to consider the fundamental component  $w_1(t)$ , namely

 $w(t) \approx w_1(t) = a_1 \cos(\omega t) + b_1 \sin(\omega t) = M \sin(\omega t + \emptyset)$  (8) Where

$$M(A, \omega) = \sqrt{a_1^2 + b_1^2}$$
 and  $\emptyset(A, \omega) = \tan^{-1}(a_1/b_1)$ 

Expression (8) indicates that the fundamental component corresponding to a sinusoidal input is a sinusoid at the same frequency. In complex representation, this sinusoid can be written as

$$w_1(t) = Me^{i(\omega t + \emptyset)} = (b_1 + ia_1)e^{i\omega t}$$

#### **4- Basic Definitions**

Similarly to the concept of frequency response function, which is the frequency domain ratio of the sinusoidal input and the sinusoidal output of a system, we define the <u>describing function</u> of the nonlinear element to be the complex ratio of the fundamental component of the nonlinear element by the input sinusoid, i.e.,

$$N(A,\omega) = \frac{Me^{i(\omega t+\emptyset)}}{Ae^{i\omega t}} = \frac{M}{A}e^{i\emptyset} = \frac{1}{A}(b_1 + ia_1)$$
(9)

## Describing Function Fundamentals 4- Basic Definitions

With a describing function representing the nonlinear component, the nonlinear element, in the presence of sinusoidal input, can be treated as if it were a linear element with a frequency response function  $N(A, \omega)$ , as shown in Figure (6). The concept of a describing function can thus be regarded as an extension of the notion of frequency response. For a linear dynamic system with frequency response function  $H(j\omega)$ , the describing function is independent of the input gain, as can be easily shown.

However, the describing function of a nonlinear element differs from the frequency response function of a linear element in that it depends on the input amplitude *A*. Therefore, representing the nonlinear element as in Figure (6) is also called quasi-linearization.

### Describing Function Fundamentals 4- Basic Definitions

Generally, the describing function depends on the frequency and amplitude of the input signal. There are, however, a number of special cases. When the nonlinearity is *single-valued*, the describing function  $N(A, \omega)$  is real and independent of the input frequency  $\omega$ . The realness of N is due to the fact that  $a_1 = 0$ , which is true because  $f[A \sin \omega t] \cos \omega t$ , the integrand in the expression (7b) for  $a_1$ , is an odd function of  $\omega t$ , and the domain of integration is the symmetric interval  $[-\pi, \pi]$ . The frequency-independent nature is due to the fact that the integration of the single valued function  $f[A \sin \omega t] \sin \omega t$  in expression (7c) is done for the variable  $\omega t$ , which implies that  $\omega$  does not explicitly appear in the integration.

## Describing Function Fundamentals 4- Basic Definitions

Although we have implicitly assumed the nonlinear element to be a scalar nonlinear function, the definition of the describing function also applies to the case when the nonlinear element contains dynamics (*i.e.*, is described by differential equations instead of a function). The derivation of describing functions for such nonlinear elements is usually more complicated and may require experimental evaluation.

### Describing Function Fundamentals 5- Computing Describing Functions

A number of methods are available to determine the describing functions of nonlinear elements in control systems, based on definition (9). We now briefly describe three such methods: analytical calculation, experimental determination, and numerical integration. Convenience and cost in each particular application determine which method should be used. One thing to remember is that precision is not critical in evaluating describing functions of nonlinear elements, because the describing function method is itself an approximate method.

## Describing Function Fundamentals 5- Computing Describing Functions ANALYTICAL CALCULATION

For nonlinearities whose input-output relationship w = f(x) is given by graphs or tables, it is convenient to use numerical integration to evaluate the describing functions. The idea is, of course, to approximate integrals in  $(7)[a_0, a_n, b_n]$  by discrete sums over small intervals. Various numerical integration schemes can be applied for this purpose. It is obviously important that the numerical integration be easily implementable by computer programs. The result is a plot representing the describing function.

#### **5- Computing Describing Functions**

#### **EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION**

The experimental method is particularly suitable for complex nonlinearities and dynamic nonlinearities. When a system nonlinearity can be isolated and excited with sinusoidal inputs of known amplitude and frequency, experimental determination of the describing function can be obtained by using a harmonic analyzer on the output of the nonlinear element. This is quite similar to the experimental determination of frequency response functions for linear elements. The difference here is that not only the frequencies, but also the *amplitudes* of the input sinusoidal should be varied. The results of the experiments are a set of curves on complex planes representing the describing function  $N(A, \omega)$ , instead of analytical expressions.

#### **5- Computing Describing Functions**

#### **EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATION**

Specialized instruments are available which automatically compute the describing functions of nonlinear elements based on the measurement of nonlinear element response to harmonic excitation.

### Describing Function Fundamentals 5- Computing Describing Functions

Let us illustrate on a simple nonlinearity how to evaluate describing functions using the analytical technique.

#### **Example 2: Describing function of a hardening spring**

The characteristics of a hardening spring are given by

$$w = x + x^3/2$$

with **x** being the input and **w** being the output. Given an input  $x(t)=A \sin(\omega t)$ , the output  $w_1(t) = A \sin(\omega t) + A^3 \sin^3(\omega t)/2$  can be expanded as a Fourier series, with the fundamental being

 $w_1(t) = a_1 \cos(\omega t) + b_1 \sin(\omega t)$ 

### Describing Function Fundamentals 5- Computing Describing Functions

Because w(t) is an odd function, one has  $a_1 = 0$ , according to (7). The coefficient  $b_1$  is

$$b_1 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} [A\sin(\omega t) + A^3 \sin^3(\omega t)/2] \sin(\omega t) d(\omega t) = A + \frac{3}{8}A^3$$

Therefore, the fundamental is

$$w_1(t) = (A + \frac{3}{8}A^3)\sin(\omega t)$$

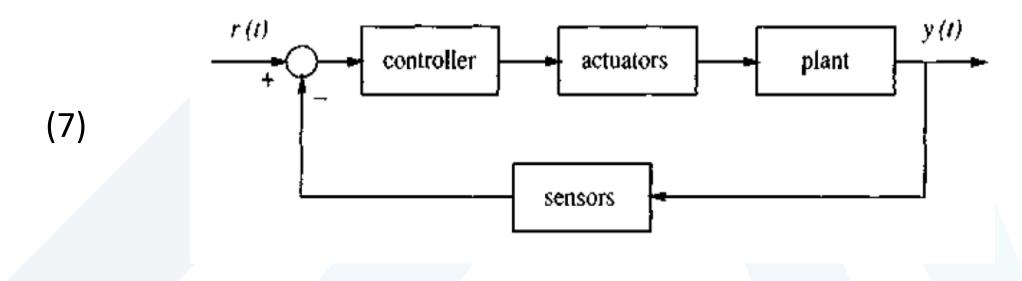
and the describing function of this nonlinear component is

$$N(A, \omega) = N(A) = 1 + \frac{3}{8}A^2$$

Note that due to the odd nature of this nonlinearity, the describing function is real, being a function only of the amplitude of the sinusoidal input.

#### 2 - Common Nonlinearities In Control Systems

In this section, we take a closer look at the nonlinearities found in control systems. Consider the typical system block shown in Figure (7). It is composed of four parts: a plant to be controlled, sensors for measurement, actuators for control action, and a control law, usually implemented on a computer. Nonlinearities may occur in any part of the system, and thus make it a nonlinear control system.



### Describing Function Fundamentals 2 - Common Nonlinearities In Control Systems CONTINUOUS AND DISCONTINUOUS NONLINEARITIES

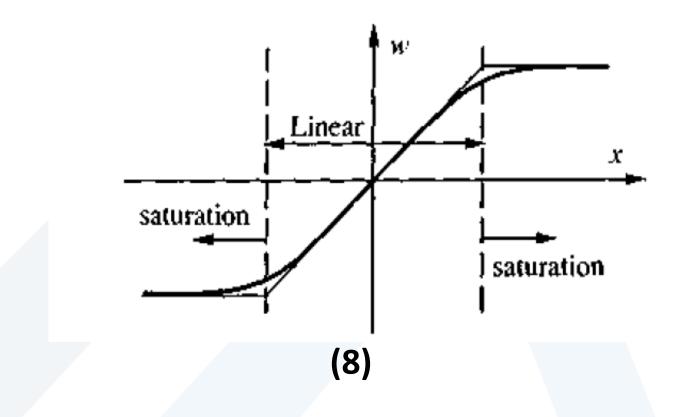
Nonlinearities can be classified as *continuous* and *discontinuous*. Because discontinuous nonlinearities cannot be locally approximated by linear functions, they are also called "hard" nonlinearities. Hard nonlinearities are commonly found in control systems, both in small range operation and large range operation. Whether a system in small range operation should be regarded as nonlinear or linear depends on the magnitude of the hard nonlinearities and on the extent of their effects on the system performance.

Because of the common occurence of hard nonlinearities, let us briefly discuss the characteristics and effects of some important ones.

### Describing Function Fundamentals 2 - Common Nonlinearities In Control Systems CONTINUOUS AND DISCONTINUOUS NONLINEARITIES Saturation

When one increases the input to a physical device, the following phenomenon is often observed: when the input is small, its increase leads to a corresponding (often proportional) increase of output; but when the input reaches a certain level, its further increase does produces little or no increase of the output. The output simply stays around its maximum value. The device is said to be in *saturation* when this happens. Simple examples are transistor amplifiers and magnetic amplifiers. A saturation nonlinearity is usually caused by limits on component size, properties of materials, and available power. A typical saturation nonlinearity is represented in Figure(8), where the thick line is the real nonlinearity and the thin line is an idealized saturation nonlinearity.

### Describing Function Fundamentals 2 - Common Nonlinearities In Control Systems CONTINUOUS AND DISCONTINUOUS NONLINEARITIES Saturation



### Describing Function Fundamentals 2 - Common Nonlinearities In Control Systems CONTINUOUS AND DISCONTINUOUS NONLINEARITIES Saturation

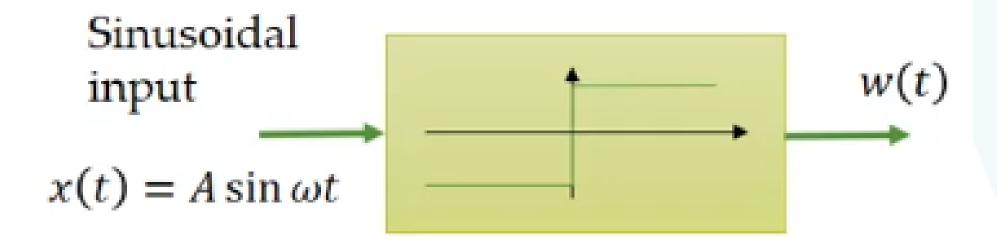
Most actuators display saturation characteristics. For example, the output torque of a two-phase servo motor cannot increase infinitely and tends to saturate, due to the properties of the magnetic material. Similarly, valve-controlled hydraulic servo motors are saturated by the maximum flow rate.

Saturation can have complicated effects on control system performance.

Roughly speaking, the occurence of saturation amounts to reducing the gain of the device (e.g., the amplifier) as the input signals are increased. As a result, if a system is unstable in its linear range, its divergent behavior may be suppressed into a selfsustained oscillation, due to the inhibition created by the saturating component on the system signals. On the other hand, in a linearly stable system, saturation tends to slow down the response of the system, because it reduces the effective gain.

## Describing Function Fundamentals 2 - Common Nonlinearities In Control Systems CONTINUOUS AND DISCONTINUOUS NONLINEARITIES On-off nonlinearity

An extreme case of saturation is the *on-off or* relay nonlinearity. It occurs when the linearity range is shrunken to zero and the slope in the linearity range becomes vertical. Important examples of on-off nonlinearities include output torques of gas jets for spacecraft control and, of course, electrical relays. On-off nonlinearities have effects similar to those of saturation nonlinearities. Furthermore they can lead to "chattering" in physical systems due to their discontinuous nature. Describing Function Fundamentals 2 - Common Nonlinearities In Control Systems CONTINUOUS AND DISCONTINUOUS NONLINEARITIES On-off nonlinearity



### Describing Function Fundamentals 2 - Common Nonlinearities In Control Systems CONTINUOUS AND DISCONTINUOUS NONLINEARITIES Dead-zone

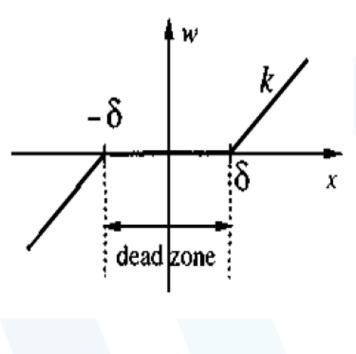
In many physical devices, the output is zero until the magnitude of the input exceeds a certain value. Such an input-output relation is called a *dead-zone.* Consider for instance a d.c. motor. In an idealistic model, we assume that any voltage applied to the armature windings will cause the armature to rotate, with small voltage causing small motion. In reality, due to the static friction at the motor shaft, rotation will occur only if the torque provided by the motor is sufficiently large. Similarly, when transmitting motion by connected mechanical components, dead zones result from manufacturing clearances. Similar dead-zone phenomena occur in valve-controlled pneumatic actuators and in hydraulic components.

#### 2 - Common Nonlinearities In Control Systems

#### CONTINUOUS AND DISCONTINUOUS NONLINEARITIES

#### Dead-zone

Dead-zones can have a number of possible effects on control systems. Their most common effect is to decrease static output accuracy. They may also lead to limit cycles or system instability because of the lack of response in the dead zone. In some cases, however, they may actually stabilize a system or suppress selfoscillations. For example, if a dead-zone is incorporated into an ideal relay, it may lead to the avoidance of the oscillation at the contact point of the relay, thus eliminating sparks and reducing wear at the contact point.



#### 2 - Common Nonlinearities In Control Systems

#### CONTINUOUS AND DISCONTINUOUS NONLINEARITIES

#### **Backlash and hysteresis**

Backlash often occurs in transmission systems. It is caused by the small gaps which exist in transmission mechanisms. In gear trains, there always exist small gaps between a pair of mating gears, due to the unavoidable errors in manufacturing and assembly. Figure (10) illustrates a typical situation. As a result of the gaps, when the driving gear rotates a smaller angle than the gap b, the driven gear does not move at all, which corresponds to the dead-zone (OA segment in Figure (10)); after contact has been established between the two gears, the driven gear follows the rotation of the driving gear in a linear fashion (AB segment).

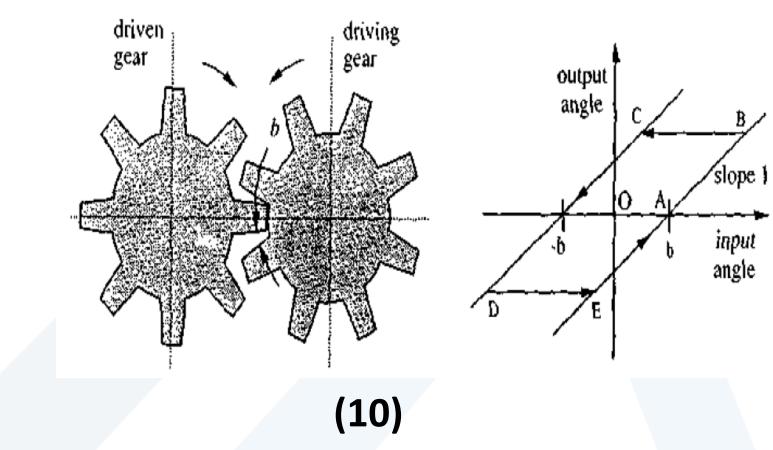
#### 2 - Common Nonlinearities In Control Systems

CONTINUOUS AND DISCONTINUOUS NONLINEARITIES

### **Backlash and hysteresis**

When the driving gear rotates in the reverse direction by a distance of 2b, the driven gear again does not move, corresponding to the BC segment in Figure (10). After the contact between the two gears is re-established, the driven gear follows the rotation of the driving gear in the reverse direction (CD segment). Therefore, if the driving gear is in periodic motion, the driven gear will move in the fashion represented by the closed path EBCD. Note that the height of B, C, D, E in this figure depends on the amplitude of the input sinusoidal.

### Describing Function Fundamentals 2 - Common Nonlinearities In Control Systems CONTINUOUS AND DISCONTINUOUS NONLINEARITIES Backlash and hysteresis



#### 2 - Common Nonlinearities In Control Systems

CONTINUOUS AND DISCONTINUOUS NONLINEARITIES

### **Backlash and hysteresis**

A critical feature of backlash is its multi-valued nature. Corresponding to each input, two output values are possible. Which one of the two occur depends on the history of the input. We remark that a similar multi-valued nonlinearity is hysteresis, which is frequently observed in relay components.

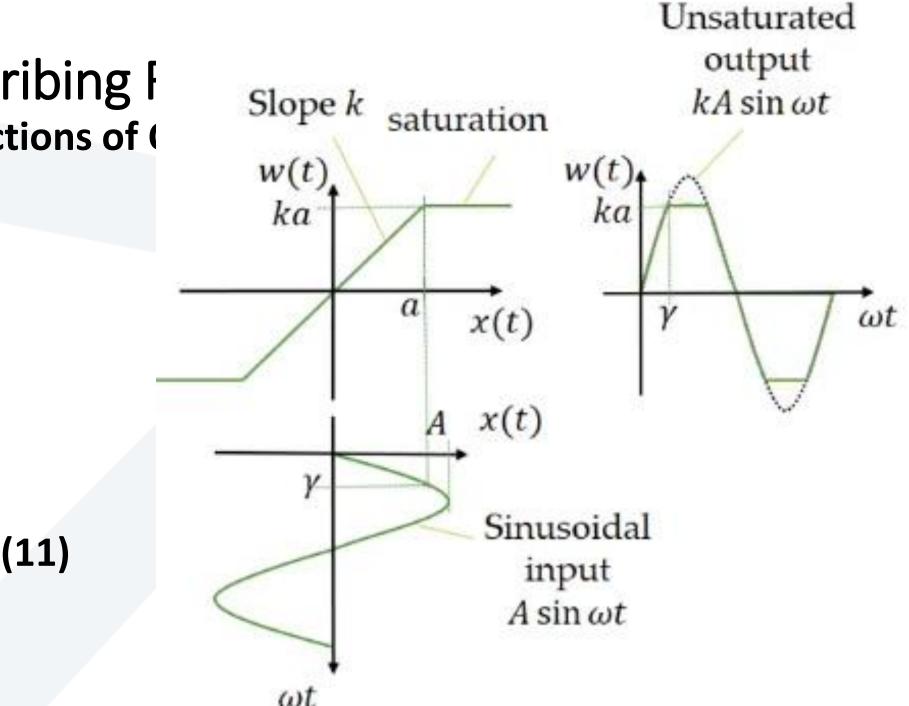
Multi-valued nonlinearities like backlash and hysteresis usually lead to energy storage in the system. Energy storage is a frequent cause of instability and selfsustained oscillation..

In this section, we shall compute the describing functions for a few common nonlinearities. This will not only allow us to familiarize ourselves with the frequency domain properties of these common nonlinearities, but also will provide further examples of how to derive describing functions for nonlinear elements.

#### **SATURATION**

The input-output relationship for a saturation nonlinearity is plotted in Figure (11), with a and k denoting the range and slope of the linearity. Since this nonlinearity is single-valued, we expect the describing function to be a real function of the input amplitude.

# Describing F 3- Describing Functions of ( SATURATION



Consider the input  $x(t)=A \sin(\omega t)$ ). If A < a, then the input remains in the linear range, and therefore, the output is  $w(t)=kA \sin(\omega t)$ ). Hence, the describing function is simply a constant k.

Now consider the case *A>a*. The input and the output functions are plotted in Figure (11). The output is seen to be symmetric over the four quarters of a period. In the first quarter, it can be expressed as

$$w(t) = \begin{cases} kA \sin(\omega t) & 0 \le \omega t \le \gamma \\ ka & \gamma \le \omega t \le \pi/2 \end{cases}$$

where  $\gamma < \sin^{-1}(a/A)$ . The odd nature of w(t) implies that  $a_1 = 0$ and the symmetry over the four quarters of a period implies that  $A = c^{\pi/2}$ 

$$b_{1} = \frac{4}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\gamma} w(t) \sin(\omega t) d(\omega t)$$
$$b_{1} = \frac{4}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\gamma} kA \sin^{2}(\omega t) d(\omega t) + \frac{4}{\pi} \int_{\gamma}^{\pi/2} ka \sin(\omega t) d(\omega t)$$

$$b_{1} = \frac{4}{\pi} \left[ \int_{0}^{\gamma} kA \frac{1 - \cos 2\omega t}{2} d\omega t + ka \int_{\gamma}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sin \omega t d\omega t \right] \qquad b_{1} = \frac{4}{\pi} \frac{kA}{2} \left[ \gamma - \frac{\sin 2\gamma}{2} + \frac{2a}{A} \cos \gamma \right] \\ = \frac{4}{\pi} \left[ \frac{kA}{2} \left( \omega t - \frac{\sin 2\omega t}{2} \right) \Big|_{0}^{\gamma} - ka \cos \omega t \Big|_{\gamma}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \right] \qquad = \frac{4}{\pi} \frac{kA}{2} \left[ \gamma - \frac{\sin 2\gamma}{2} + \frac{2a}{A} \cos \gamma \right] \\ = \frac{4}{\pi} \left[ \frac{kA}{2} \left( \omega t - \frac{\sin 2\omega t}{2} \right) \Big|_{0}^{\gamma} - ka \cos \omega t \Big|_{\gamma}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \right] \qquad = \frac{2kA}{\pi} \left[ \gamma - \sin \gamma \cos \gamma + \frac{2a}{A} \cos \gamma \right] \\ = \frac{4}{\pi} \left[ \frac{kA}{2} \left( \gamma - \frac{\sin 2\gamma}{2} \right) + ka \cos \gamma \right] \qquad = \frac{2kA}{\pi} \left[ \gamma - \frac{a}{A} \cos \gamma + \frac{2a}{A} \cos \gamma \right]$$

$$b_1 = \frac{2kA}{\pi} \left[ \gamma + \frac{a}{A} \sqrt{1 - \frac{a^2}{A^2}} \right]$$

(10)

Therefore, the describing function is

$$N(A) = \frac{b_1}{A} = \frac{2k}{\pi} \left[ \sin^{-1} \frac{a}{A} + \frac{a}{A} \sqrt{1 - \frac{a^2}{A^2}} \right]$$
(11)

The normalized describing function (N(A)/k) is plotted in Figure (12) as a function of A/a. One can observe three features for this describing function:

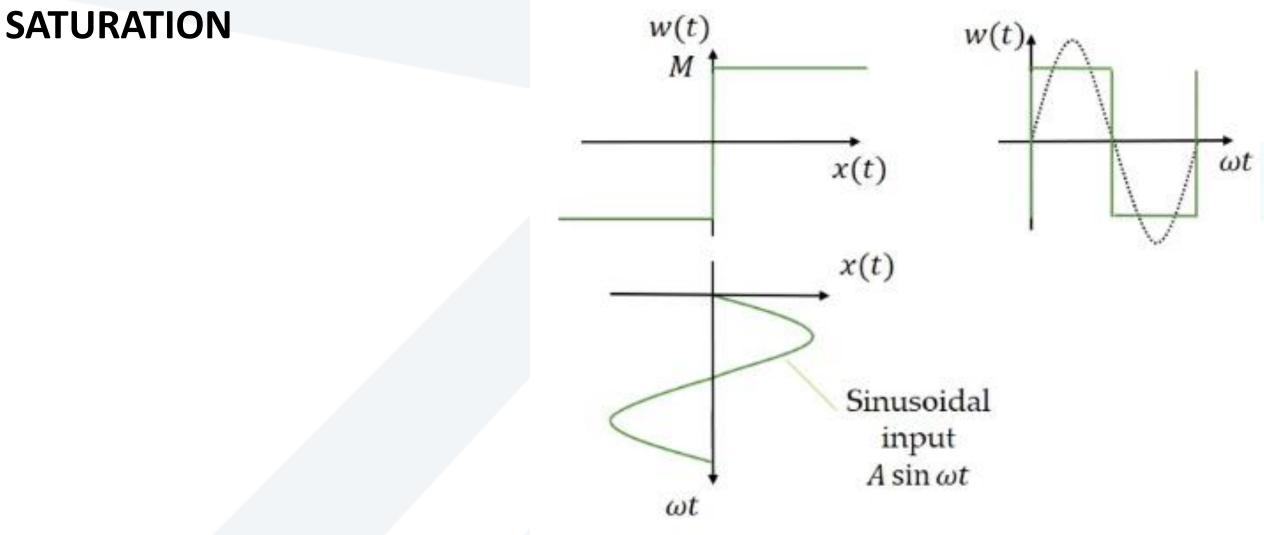
- 1. N(A) = k the input amplitude is in the linearity range.
- 2. N(A) decreases as the input amplitude increases.
- 3. there is no phase shift.

The first feature is obvious, because for small signals the saturation is not displayed. The second is intuitively reasonable, since saturation amounts to reduce the ratio of the output to input. The third is also understandable because saturation does not cause the delay of the response to input.

As a special case, one can obtain the describing function for the relaytype (on-off) nonlinearity shown in Figure (13). This case corresponds to shrinking the linearity range in the saturation function to zero, *i.e.*,  $a \rightarrow 0, k \rightarrow \infty$ , but ka = M. Though  $b_1$  can be obtained from (10) by taking the limit, it is more easily obtained directly as

$$b_1 = \frac{4}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} M \sin(\omega t) \, d(\omega t) \approx \frac{4}{\pi} M$$

# Describing Function Fundamentals 3- Describing Functions of Cor



SATURATION  

$$w(t) = \begin{cases} M & 0 \le \omega t \le \pi \\ -M & \pi < \omega t \le 2\pi \end{cases}$$

$$b_1 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} w(t) \sin(\omega t) \, d\omega t$$

$$=\frac{2}{\pi}\int_0^{\pi} w(t)\sin(\omega t)\,d\omega t$$

$$=\frac{2}{\pi}\int_0^{\pi} M\sin(\omega t)\,d\omega t$$

$$b_1 = \frac{2M}{\pi} \left[ -\cos \omega t \Big|_0^\pi \right]$$
$$= \frac{4M}{\pi}$$

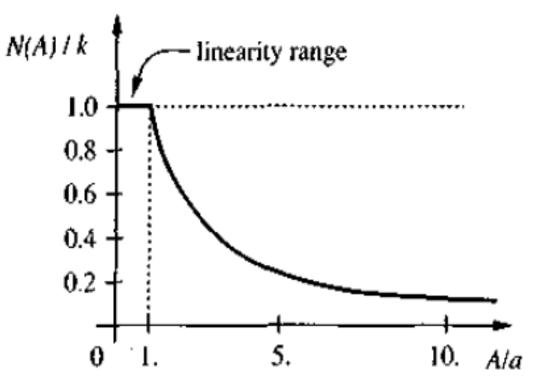
$$N(A) = \frac{b_1}{A} = \frac{4M}{\pi A}$$

## SATURATION

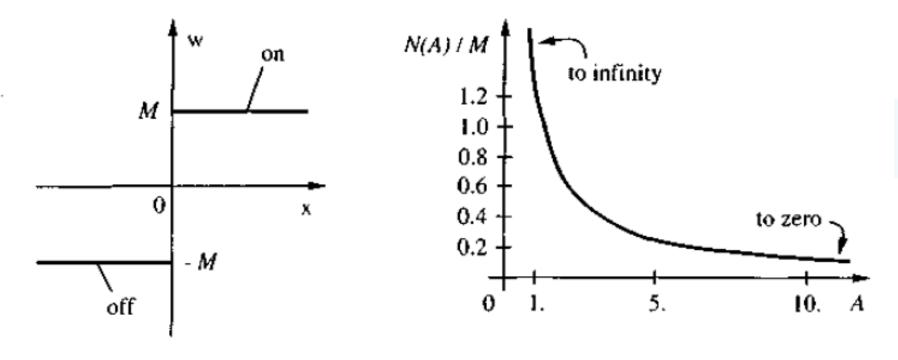
Therefore, the describing function of the relay nonlinearity is

$$N(A) = \frac{4M}{\pi A}$$

The normalized describing function (N/M) is plotted in Figure (13) as a function of input amplitude.



Although the describing function again has no phase shift, the flat segment seen in Figure(12) is missing in this plot, due to the completely nonlinear nature of the relay. The asymptic properties of the describing function curve in Figure (13) are particularly interesting. When the input is infinitely small, the describing function is infinitely large. When the input is infinitely large, the describing function is infinitely small. One can gain an intuitive understanding of these properties by considering the ratio of the output to input for the on-off nonlinearity.

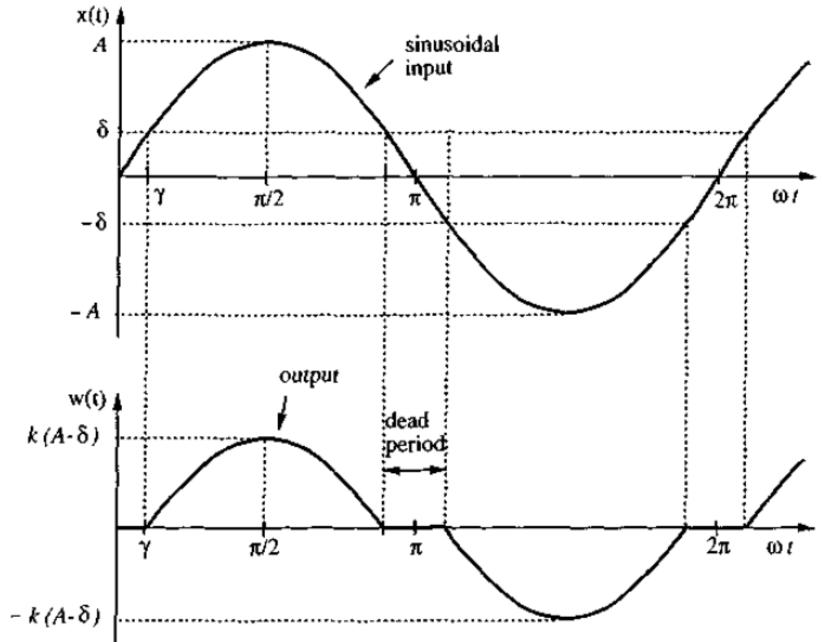


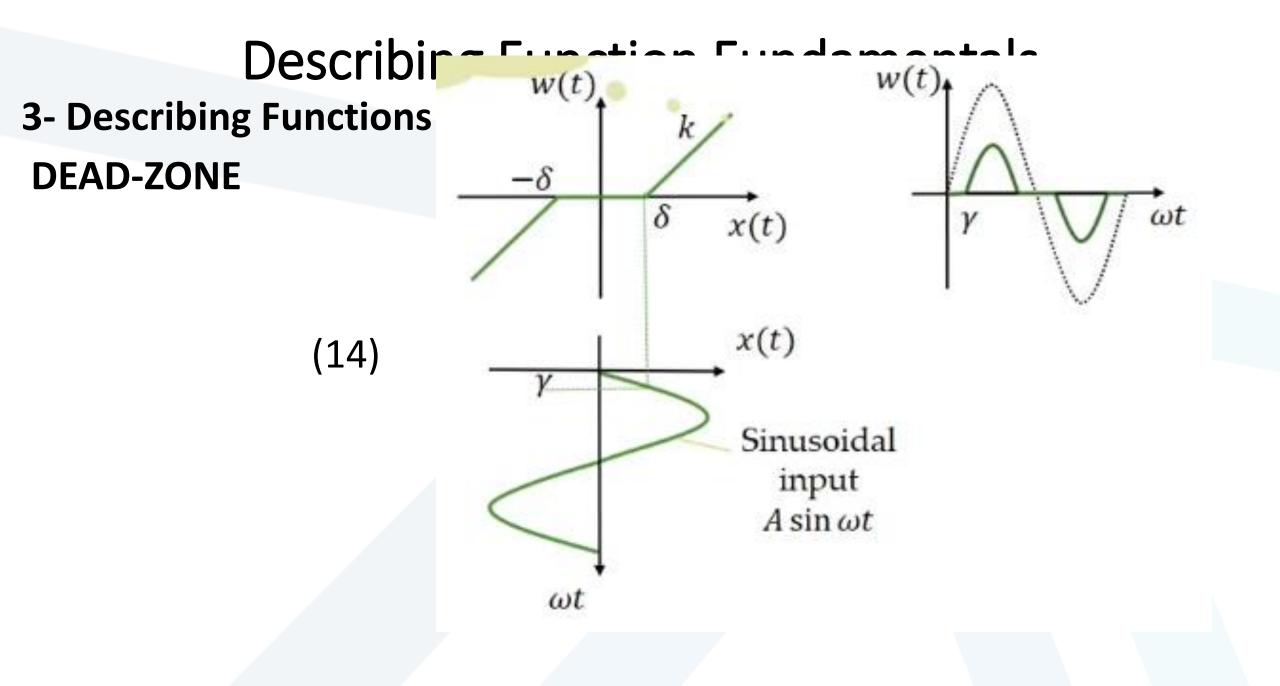
(13)

Consider the dead-zone characteristics shown in Figure (9), with the dead-zone width being  $2\delta$  and its slope k. The response corresponding to a sinusoidal input  $x(t)=A \sin(\omega t)$ ) into a dead-zone of width  $2\delta$  and slope k, with  $A \ge \delta$ , is plotted in Figure (14). Since the characteristics is an odd function,  $a_1=0$ . The response is also seen to be symmetric over the four quarters of a period. In one quarter of a period, *i.e.*, when  $0 \le \omega t \le \pi/2$ , one has

# Describ 3- Describing Function DEAD-ZONE

(14)





3- Describing Function Fundamentals  
A sin 
$$\gamma = \delta \Rightarrow \gamma = \sin^{-1}(\delta/A)$$
  $b_1 = \frac{4}{\pi} \int_{\gamma}^{\pi/2} (kA \sin \omega t - k\delta) \sin \omega t \, d\omega t$   
DEAL  
 $w(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & 0 \le \omega t \le \gamma \\ kA \sin \omega t - k\delta & \gamma < \omega t \le \frac{\pi}{2} \end{cases}$   $= \frac{4}{\pi} \left[ \int_{\gamma}^{\pi/2} kA \sin^2 \omega t \, d\omega t - \int_{\gamma}^{\pi/2} k\delta \sin \omega t \, d\omega t \right]$   
 $b_1 = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi} w(t) \sin(\omega t) \, d\omega t$   $= \frac{4}{\pi} \left[ \int_{\gamma}^{\pi/2} kA \frac{1 - \cos 2\omega t}{2} \, d\omega t - \int_{\gamma}^{\pi/2} k\delta \sin \omega t \, d\omega t \right]$   
 $= \frac{4}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi/2} w(t) \sin(\omega t) \, d\omega t$   $= \frac{4}{\pi} \left[ \frac{kA}{2} \left( \omega t - \frac{\sin 2\omega t}{2} \right) \right]_{\gamma}^{\pi/2} + k\delta \cos \omega t \Big]_{\gamma}^{\pi/2}$   
 $= \frac{4}{\pi} \int_{\gamma}^{\pi/2} (kA \sin \omega t - k\delta) \sin(\omega t) \, d\omega$   $= \frac{4}{\pi} \left[ \frac{kA}{2} \left( \frac{\pi}{2} - \gamma + \frac{\sin 2\gamma}{2} \right) - k\delta \cos \gamma \right]$ 

3- Desc  

$$\frac{b_1 = \frac{2kA}{\pi} \left[ \frac{\pi}{2} - \gamma + \sin\gamma \cos\gamma - \frac{\delta}{2A} \cos\gamma \right]}{EAD} = \frac{2kA}{\pi} \left[ \frac{\pi}{2} - \gamma + \frac{\delta}{A} \cos\gamma - \frac{\delta}{2A} \cos\gamma \right]}{\left[ \frac{2kA}{\pi} \left[ \frac{\pi}{2} - \gamma + \frac{\delta}{A} \cos\gamma \right] \right]} = \frac{2kA}{\pi} \left[ \frac{\pi}{2} - \gamma + \frac{\delta}{A} \sqrt{1 - (\sin\gamma)^2} \right]}{\left[ \frac{2kA}{\pi} \left[ \frac{\pi}{2} - \gamma + \frac{\delta}{A} \sqrt{1 - (\sin\gamma)^2} \right] \right]} = \frac{2kA}{\pi} \left[ \frac{\pi}{2} - \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{\delta}{A} \right) + \frac{\delta}{A} \sqrt{1 - (\sin\gamma)^2} \right]}{\left[ \frac{2kA}{\pi} \left[ \frac{\pi}{2} - \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{\delta}{A} \right) + \frac{\delta}{A} \sqrt{1 - (\sin\gamma)^2} \right]} \right]}$$

# Describing Function Fundamentals

3- Describing Functions of Common Nonlinearities DEAD-ZONE

$$w(t) = \begin{cases} 0 & 0 \le \omega t \le \gamma \\ k(A \sin(\omega t) - \delta) & \gamma \le \omega t \le \pi/2 \end{cases}$$

where  $\gamma = \sin^{-1}(\delta/A)$ . The coefficient  $b_1$  can be computed as follows

$$b_{1} = \frac{4}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi/2} w(t) \sin(\omega t) d(\omega t)$$

$$b_{1} = \frac{4}{\pi} \int_{\gamma}^{\pi/2} k(A \sin(\omega t) - \delta) \sin(\omega t) d(\omega t)$$

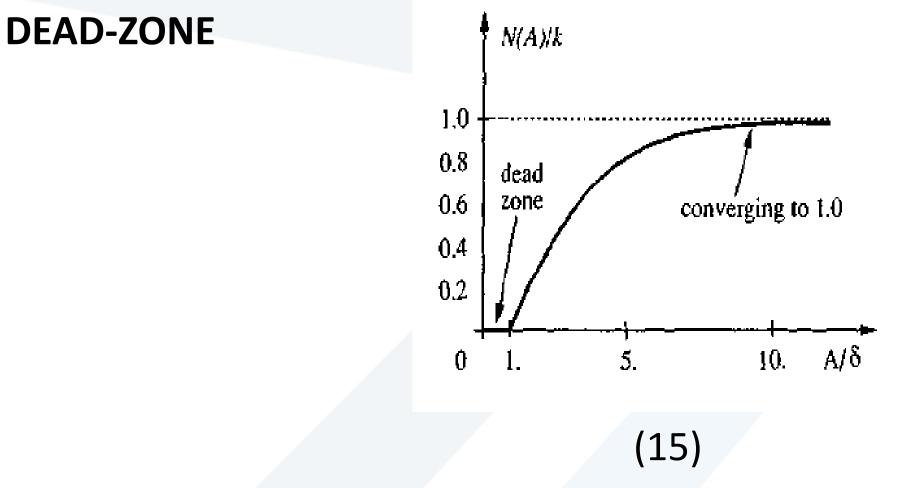
$$b_{1} = \frac{2kA}{\pi} \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \sin^{-1}\frac{\delta}{A} - \frac{\delta}{A} \sqrt{1 - \frac{\delta^{2}}{A^{2}}}\right)$$
(13)

This leads to

$$N(A) = \frac{2k}{\pi} \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \sin^{-1}\frac{\delta}{A} - \frac{\delta}{A}\sqrt{1 - \frac{\delta^2}{A^2}}\right)$$

This describing function N(A) is a real function and, therefore, there is no phase shift.

(reflecting the absence of time-delay). The normalized describing function is plotted in Figure (15). It is seen that N(A)/k is zero when  $A/\delta < 1$ , and increases up to **1** with  $A/\delta$ . This increase indicates that the effect of the dead-zone gradually diminishes as the amplitude of the input signal is increased, consistently with intuition.



The evaluation of the describing functions for backlash nonlinearity is more tedious. Figure (16) shows a backlash nonlinearity, with slope k and width 2b. If the input amplitude is smaller than b, there is no output. In the following, let us consider the input being x(t) = A $sin(\omega t), A \ge b$ . The output w(t) of the nonlinearity is as shown in the figure. In one cycle, the function w(t) can be represented as

$$w(t) = (A - b)k \qquad \pi/2 < \omega t \le \pi - \gamma$$
$$w(t) = (A\sin(\omega t) + b)k \qquad \pi - \gamma < \omega t \le 3\pi/2$$
$$w(t) = -(A - b)k \qquad 3\pi/2 < \omega t \le 2\pi - \gamma$$
$$w(t) = (A\sin(\omega t) - b)k \qquad 2\pi - \gamma < \omega t \le 5\pi/2$$

Where  $\gamma = \sin^{-1}(1 - 2b/A)$ .

# **Describing Function Fundamentals**

#### 3- Describing Functions of Common Nonlinearities BACKLASH

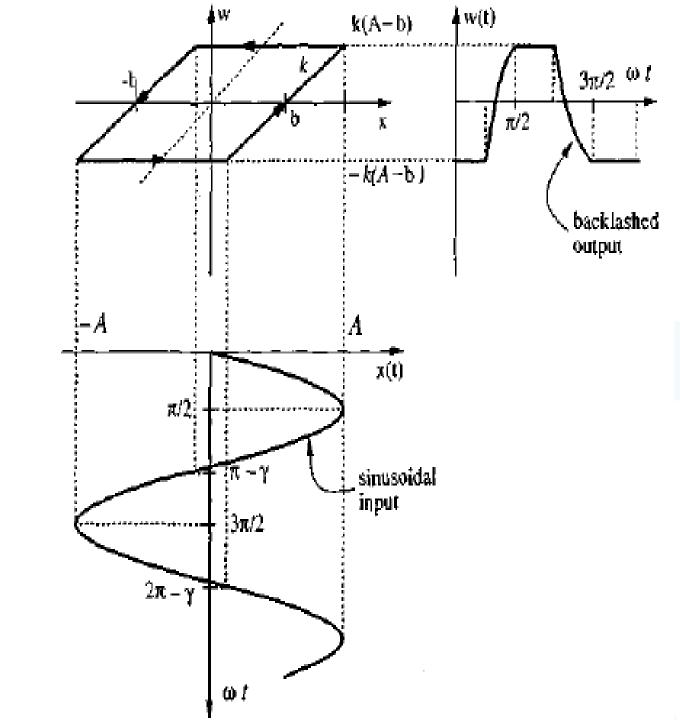
Unlike the previous nonlinearities, the function w(t) here is neither odd nor even. Therefore,  $a_1$  and  $b_1$  are both nonzero. Using (7b) and (7c), we find through some tedious integrations that.

$$a_1 = \frac{4kb}{\pi} \left(\frac{b}{A} - 1\right)$$
$$b_1 = \frac{4}{\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} w(t) \sin(\omega t) d(\omega t)$$

$$b_1 = \frac{kA}{\pi} \left[\frac{\pi}{2} - \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{2b}{A} - 1\right) - \left(\frac{2b}{A} - 1\right)\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{2b}{A} - 1\right)^2}\right]$$

### Describing Fu 3- Describing Functions of Comm BACKLASH

(16)



Therefore, the describing function of the backlash is given by

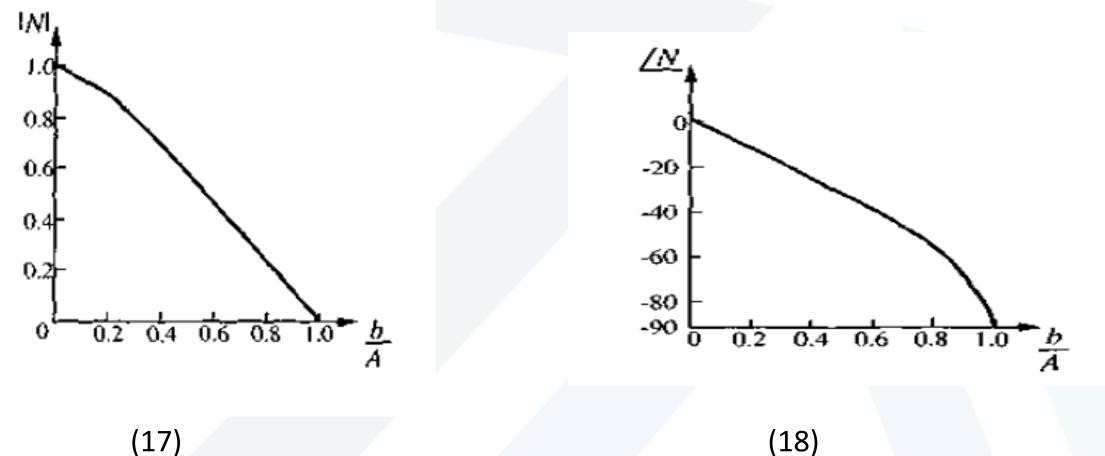
$$|N(A)| = \frac{1}{A}\sqrt{a_1^2 + b_1^2}$$
(14a)

 $[N(A) = \tan^{-1} (a_1/b_1)$  (14b)

The amplitude of the describing function for backlash is plotted in Figure (17). We note a few interesting points:

 $|N(A)| = 0 \quad if \quad A = b$ |N(A)| increases when b/A decreases |N(A)|  $\rightarrow 1 \quad as \quad b/A \rightarrow 0$ 

The phase angle of the describing function is plotted in Figure (18). Note that a phase lag (up to 90°) is introduced, unlike the previous nonlinearities. This phase lag is the reflection of the time delay of the backlash, which is due to the gap **b**. Of course, a larger **b** leads to a larger phase lag, which may create stability problems in feedback control systems.



(17)