

# Introduction to Control (00340040)

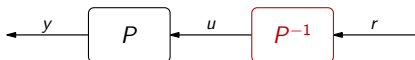
## lecture no. 4

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Technion—IIT



## Plant inversion: so far



Aims at

- perfect control,  $y = r$ , for a given reference signal  $r$ .

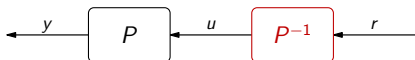
But

- is **never attainable** in practical situations  
because of uncertainty, like modeling errors and disturbances
- might be **illegal**  
because of internal instability caused by unstable cancellations
- might be too **expensive**  
in terms of control efforts, reasons not explained yet

Direction we explore today:

- how to formalize relaxing  $y = r$  to  $y \approx r$

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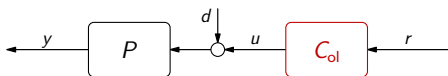
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## Controlled dynamics



By linearity,

$$y = P(d + C_{ol}r) = Pd + PC_{ol}r$$

has two independent components,

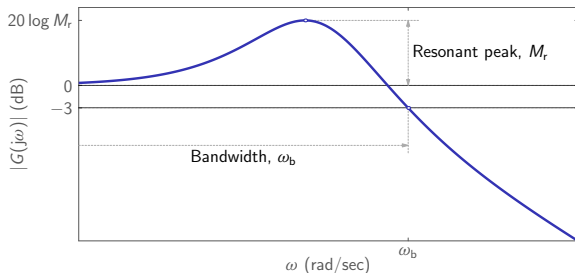
- disturbance response,  $y_d = Pd$  cannot be affected by  $C_{ol}$
- reference response,  $y_r = PC_{ol}r$  can be affected by  $C_{ol}$

We concentrate on what we can affect, the controlled dynamics

$$T_{yr} = PC_{ol},$$

and their steady-state and transient responses.

# Magnitude frequency response of LPFs (from LS)



where

- bandwidth is the largest  $\omega_b$  such that  $|G(j\omega)| \geq 1/\sqrt{2}$  for all  $\omega \leq \omega_b$
- resonance peak  $M_r := \max_{\omega} |G(j\omega)| > 1$

and we assume that  $|G(0)| = 1$ .

# Outline

Steady-state performance

Transient performance: modal perspective

Transient performance: frequency-response perspective (from LS)

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Steady-state performance

Transient performance: modal perspective

Transient performance: frequency-response perspective (from LS)

## Steady-state error in terms of $T_{yr}$

Let  $y = T_{yr}r$  for a stable  $T_{yr}$ . We are interested in quantifying  $e = r - y$  in steady state. In this case

$$r(t) = \sin(\omega t + \phi)\mathbb{1}(t) \quad \Longrightarrow \quad e_{ss} = |1 - T_{yr}(j\omega)|$$

(the step corresponds to  $\omega = 0$ ). In other words,

- error equals the magnitude of the frequency response of  $S_{yr} := 1 - T_{yr}$

“Small” error,

$$e_{ss} \ll 1 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad |S_{yr}(j\omega)| \ll 1,$$

In some situations it may be convenient to think of it as

$$T_{yr}(j\omega) \approx 1$$

(i.e. both  $|T_{yr}(j\omega)| \approx 1$  and  $\arg T_{yr}(j\omega) \approx 0$ ).

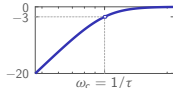


## Steady-state error in terms of $T_{yr}$ : example

Let

$$T_{yr}(s) = \frac{1}{\tau s + 1}$$

(low-pass filter with the bandwidth  $\omega_b = 1/\tau$ ).  $S_{yr}$  is a high-pass filter with the cut-off frequency  $1/\tau$  then,

$$S_{yr}(s) = \frac{\tau s}{\tau s + 1} \quad \Longrightarrow \quad |S_{yr}(j\omega)| = \frac{\tau\omega}{\sqrt{1 + \tau^2\omega^2}} =$$


In terms of the asymptotic Bode plot,

- $e_{ss} \leq 0.1 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \omega \leq 0.1/\tau \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \tau \leq 0.1/\omega \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \omega_b \geq 10\omega$
- $e_{ss} \leq 0.01 \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \omega \leq 0.01/\tau \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \tau \leq 0.01/\omega \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \omega_b \geq 100\omega$

If we need to be precise,

$$e_{ss} = |S_{yr}(j\omega)| \leq \epsilon \ll 1 \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad \tau\omega = \frac{\omega}{\omega_b} \leq \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{1-\epsilon^2}}$$

with the same qualitative conclusion:

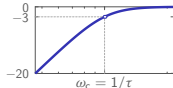
- the larger  $\omega$  we wanna follow, the larger bandwidth  $\omega_b$  of  $T_{yr}$  we need.

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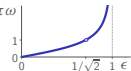
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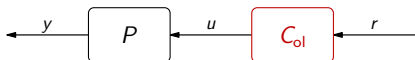
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with the same qualitative conclusion:

- the larger  $\omega$  we wanna follow, the larger bandwidth  $\omega_b$  of  $T_{yr}$  we need.

## Controllers for zero steady-state errors: interpolation



If  $r$  is a sine wave with frequency  $\omega \geq 0$  and  $T_{yr} = PC_{ol}$ , then

$$e_{ss} = |1 - T_{yr}(j\omega)| = 0 \iff T_{yr}(j\omega) = 1 \iff C_{ol}(j\omega) = \frac{1}{P(j\omega)}.$$

This is

- plant inversion at one given frequency (or several frequencies)

which only requires  $P(j\omega) \neq 0$ , milder than requirements for  $C_{ol} = P^{-1}$ .

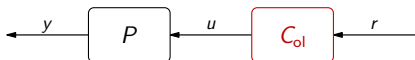
**Remark:** If we work with systems with real parameters, then  $C_{ol}(j\omega) = 1/P(j\omega)$  must be complemented by  $C_{ol}(-j\omega) = 1/P(-j\omega) = \overline{C_{ol}(j\omega)}$  whenever  $\omega > 0$ .

If  $\omega = 0$ , i.e.  $r = 1$ , then

$$C_{ol}(0) = \frac{1}{P(0)},$$

meaning all we need is to set a right static gain to the controller.

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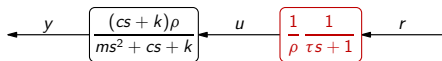
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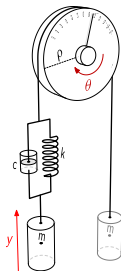
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## Example 1

For every  $\tau > 0$  the controller in



inverts  $P(0) = \rho$  and renders  $e_{ss} = 0$ :

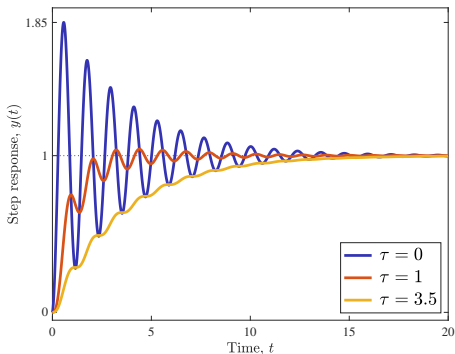


$$\rho = 1.25 \text{ m}$$

$$k = 40000 \frac{\text{N} \cdot \text{sec}}{\text{m}}$$

$$c = 800 \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}}$$

$$m = 1410 \text{ kg}$$



although with different transients.

## Example 2

If now  $r(t) = \sin(\omega t + \phi)\mathbb{1}(t)$ , then  $e_{ss} = 0$  iff

$$C_{ol}(j\omega) = \frac{1}{P(j\omega)} \quad \text{and} \quad C_{ol}(-j\omega) = \frac{1}{P(-j\omega)} = \overline{C_{ol}(j\omega)}.$$

A way to solve that is to fix, for whatever  $\tau > 0$ ,

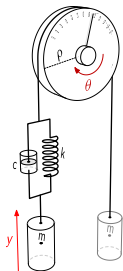
$$C_{ol}(s) = \frac{b_1 s + b_0}{\tau s + 1}$$

and find  $b_0$  and  $b_1$  via  $b_0 \pm b_1 j\omega = (1 \pm j\tau\omega)/P(\pm j\omega)$ , i.e.

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & j\omega \\ 1 & -j\omega \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Vandermonde matrix}} \begin{bmatrix} b_0 \\ b_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} (1 + j\tau\omega)/P(j\omega) \\ (1 - j\tau\omega)/P(-j\omega) \end{bmatrix}$$

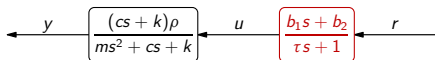
Vandermonde matrix

This equation is solvable for all  $\omega \neq 0$ .

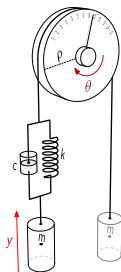


## Example 2 (contd)

Let  $\omega = 4$ . For every  $\tau > 0$  the controller in



inverts  $P(\pm j4)$  and renders  $e_{ss} = 0$ :

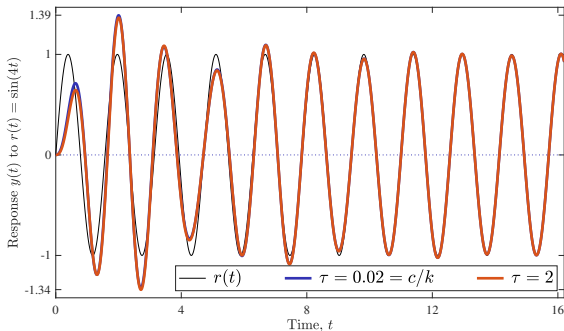


$$\rho = 1.25 \text{ m}$$

$$k = 40000 \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}}$$

$$c = 800 \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}}$$

$$m = 1410 \text{ kg}$$



$$([b_0 \ b_1] = [0.436 \ 0.02]) \text{ and } ([b_0 \ b_1] = [0.081 \ -0.89]).$$

# Outline

Steady-state performance

Transient performance: modal perspective

Transient performance: frequency-response perspective (from LS)



## 1st order systems revised

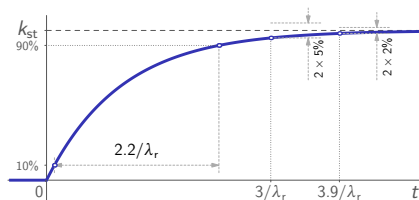
The transfer function

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

has one (real) pole at

$$s = -\frac{1}{\tau} =: -\lambda_r,$$

where  $\lambda_r > 0$  is the absolute value (of the real part) of the pole. Therefore,



and

- the larger  $\lambda_r$  is, the faster the transients are.

## 2nd order underdamped systems revised

The transfer function

$$G(s) = \frac{k_{st} \omega_n^2}{s^2 + 2\zeta \omega_n s + \omega_n^2} = \frac{k_{st} \omega_n^2}{(s + \zeta \omega_n)^2 + (1 - \zeta^2) \omega_n^2}$$

has two poles at

$$s = -\zeta \omega_n \pm j \sqrt{1 - \zeta^2} \omega_n =: -\lambda_r \pm j \lambda_i,$$

i.e.  $\lambda_r$  and  $\lambda_i$  are the absolute values of the real and imaginary parts of the poles. It is readily seen that

$$\frac{\lambda_r}{\lambda_i} = \frac{\zeta}{\sqrt{1 - \zeta^2}} \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda_r^2 + \lambda_i^2 = \omega_n^2$$

i.e.

- the ratio between pole real and imaginary parts depends only on  $\zeta$
- the absolute value of the pole depends only on  $\omega_n$

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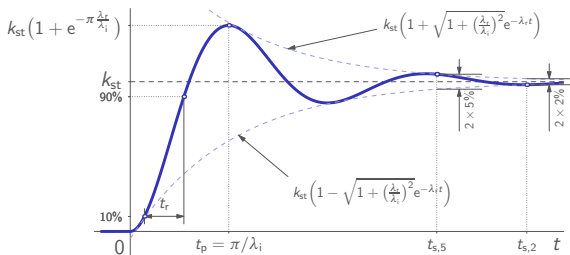
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## 2nd order underdamped systems revised (contd)

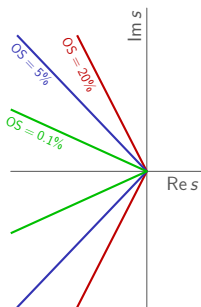


Thus,

- OS depends only on the ratio  $\frac{\lambda_r}{\lambda_i}$  (in fact,  $OS = e^{-\pi(\lambda_r/\lambda_i)} \cdot 100\%$ )
- speed of transients proportional to the absolute value of the poles

## Overshoot level curves

Constant OS  $\iff$  constant ratio  $\frac{\lambda_r}{\lambda_i}$ . Hence, OS level curves are **radial lines**:



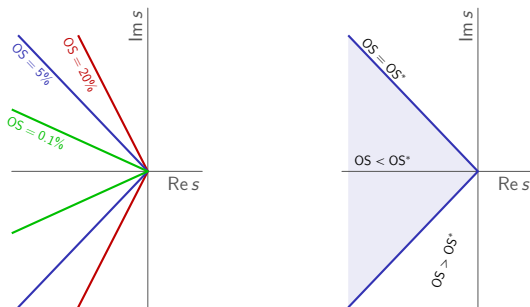
Given some  $OS^* \in (0\%, 100\%)$ , the shaded area contains

- all poles producing  $OS < OS^*$ .

Note that damping factor level ( $\zeta = \text{const}$ ) curves are the same radial lines.

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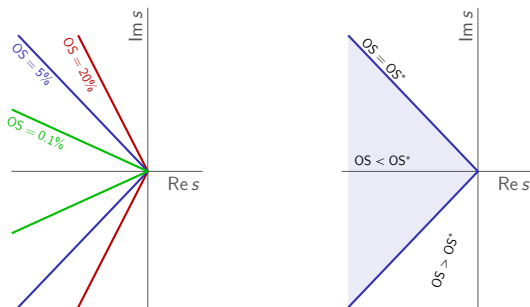
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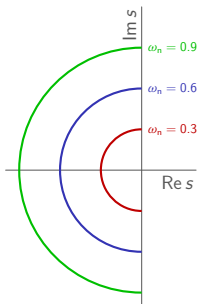
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## Natural frequency level curves

Constant  $\omega_n \iff$  constant  $\lambda_r^2 + \lambda_i^2$ . Hence,  $\omega_n$  level curves are **concentric semi-circles**:



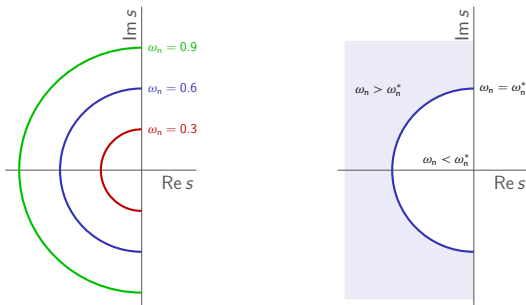
Given some  $\omega_n^* > 0$ , the shaded area contains

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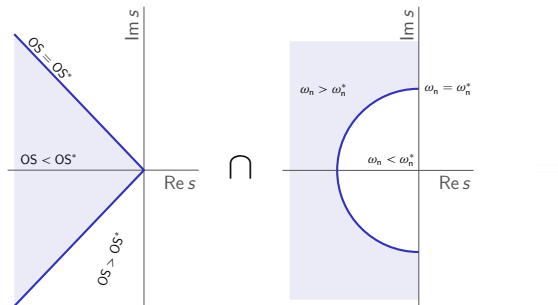
Given some  $\omega_n^* > 0$ , the shaded area contains

- all poles producing  $\omega_n > \omega_n^*$ .

## Area of (relatively) fast and smooth transients

Assume we need both fast ( $\omega_n > \omega_n^*$ ) and not too oscillatory ( $OS < OS^*$ ) transients. In terms of pole location, we need to

- use the intersection of these regions :



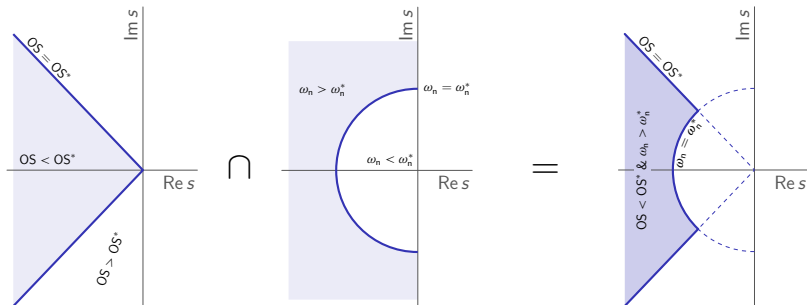
In other words, the

area where poles shall be placed to have "fast enough" and "smooth enough" step responses.

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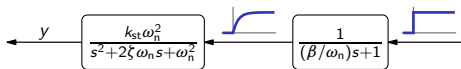
- shaded area is where poles shall be placed to have “fast enough” and “smooth enough” step responses.

## Effect of additional pole

Let

$$G_{\tau}(s) = \frac{k_{\text{st}}\omega_n^2}{(s^2 + 2\zeta\omega_n s + \omega_n^2)((\beta/\omega_n)s + 1)}$$

for  $\beta > 0$ , which may be viewed as the series of 1- and 2-order systems<sup>1</sup>. If we consider the resulting response as

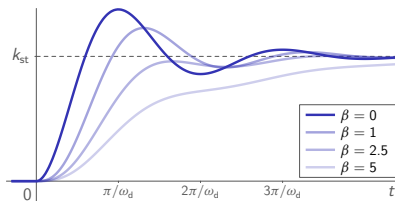


we may view the step response of  $G_{\tau}$  as the response of a standard 2-order system to a “smoothed step” input. The response may then be expected to be

- slower
- smoother (less oscillatory)

<sup>1</sup>We have  $\tau = \beta/\omega_n$  to have  $\omega_n$  scaling the time in all components of the response.

## Effect of additional pole (contd)



As  $\beta$  (and therefore  $\tau = \beta/\omega_n$ ) grows,

- the overshoot OS decreases
- the rise time  $t_r$  increases

## Effect of additional zero

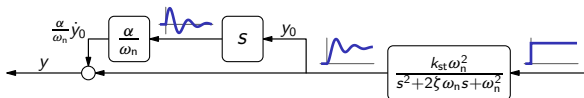
Let

$$G_\alpha(s) = \frac{k_{st}\omega_n^2((\alpha/\omega_n)s + 1)}{s^2 + 2\zeta\omega_n s + \omega_n^2},$$

for  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ . In this case

$$Y_\alpha(s) = G_\alpha(s) \frac{1}{s} = Y_0(s) + \frac{\alpha}{\omega_n} s Y_0(s) \iff y_\alpha(t) = y_0(t) + \frac{\alpha}{\omega_n} \dot{y}_0(t)$$

where  $y_0$  is the response with  $\alpha = 0$  (no zeros). In other words,

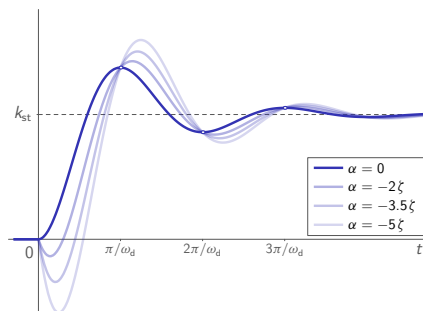
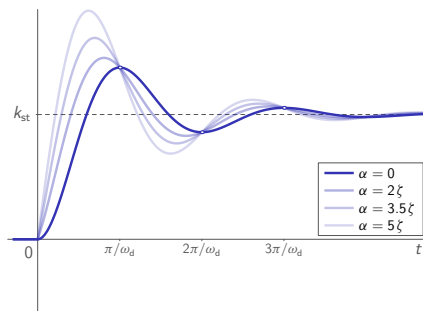


As a matter of fact,

$$\frac{\alpha}{\omega_n} \dot{y}_0(t) = \frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{1 - \zeta^2}} e^{-\zeta\omega_n t} \sin(\sqrt{1 - \zeta^2}\omega_n t)$$

(and  $\sin \rightarrow \sinh$  if  $\zeta > 1$ ).

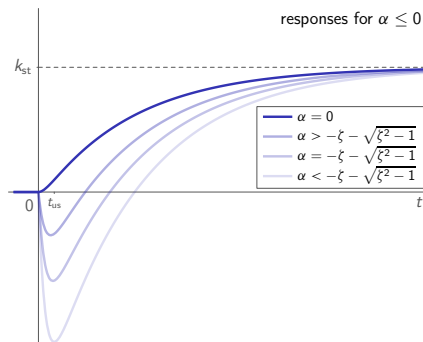
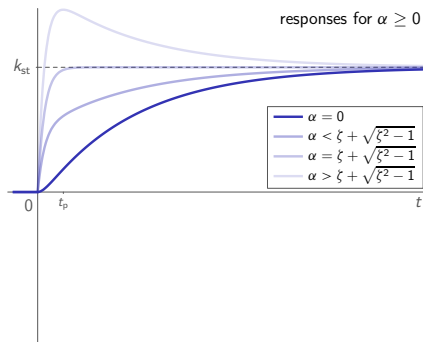
# Effect of additional zero on underdamped systems



As  $|\alpha|$  grows,

- the overshoot OS increases
- the undershoot US increases, if  $\alpha < 0$
- the raise time  $t_r$  decreases
- the settling time  $t_s$  increases

# Effect of additional zero on overdamped systems



As  $|\alpha|$  grows,

- the overshoot OS increases, provided  $\alpha > \zeta + \sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1}$
- the undershoot US increases, provided  $\alpha < 0$
- the raise time  $t_r$  decreases



## Modal analysis: beyond 1st and 2nd order dynamics

As we just saw,

- adding more poles and / or zeros may render modal analysis void.

For example,

- we may have (large) overshoot for systems with only real poles / zeros
- we may have no overshoot for systems with lightly damped poles

In some cases, however, we may extend modal insight of low-order systems to higher-order systems. This is possible if

— dominant dynamics of a system is low order.

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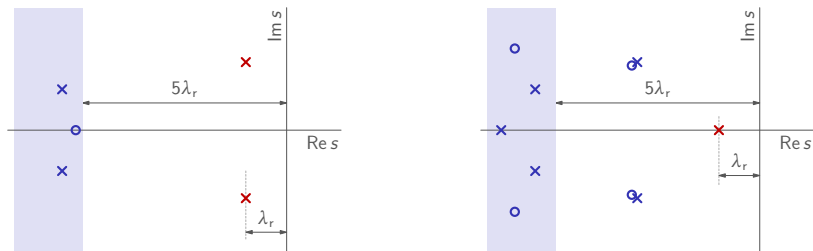
- **dominant dynamics** of a system is low order.

## Dominant poles

A group of poles / zeros is said to be **dominant** if either of below holds:

- all other poles / zeros are at least 5 times further away from the  $j\omega$ -axis
- the closer poles / zeros “almost cancel” each other

e.g.<sup>2</sup>



Non-dominant poles and zeros may be safe to neglect in the modal analysis (still, required caution).

<sup>2</sup>Hereafter we denote a pole by “x” and a zero by “o” on pole-zero maps.

## Dominant poles: Example 1

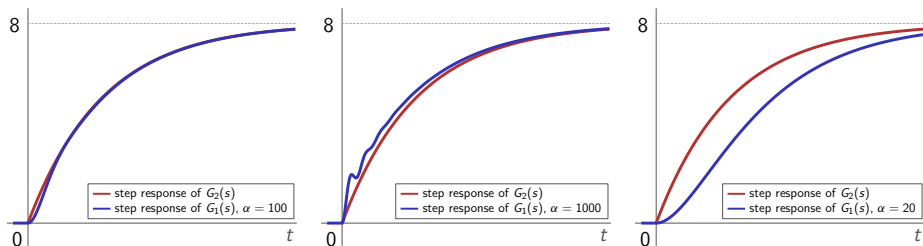
For any  $\alpha > 0$ , define

$$G_1(s) = \frac{\alpha(s+8)}{(s+1)(s^2+12s+\alpha)} = \frac{8}{s+1} \times \frac{s/8+1}{s^2/\alpha+12s/\alpha+1}$$

(poles at  $s \in \{-1, -6 \pm \sqrt{36-\alpha}\}$  and zero at  $s = -8$ ) and

$$G_2(s) = \frac{8}{s+1}.$$

Then:



## Dominant poles: Example 2

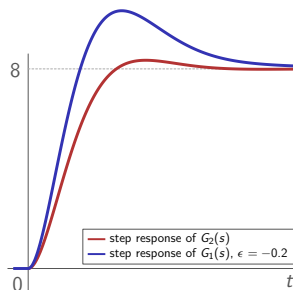
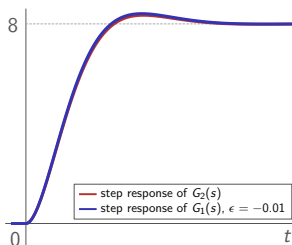
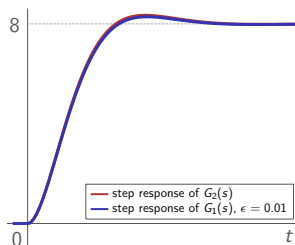
For any  $|\epsilon| < 1$ , define

$$G_1(s) = \frac{64(s/(1+\epsilon) + 1)^2}{(s^2 + 4s + 8)(s+1)^2} = \frac{8 \times 8}{s^2 + 4s + 8} \times \left( \frac{\frac{1}{1+\epsilon}s + 1}{s+1} \right)^2$$

(poles at  $s \in \{-2 \pm j2, -1, -1\}$  and zeros at  $s \in \{-1 - \epsilon, -1 - \epsilon\}$ ) and

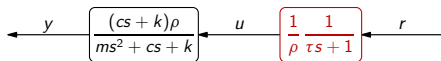
$$G_2(s) = \frac{8 \times 8}{s^2 + 4s + 8}.$$

Then:

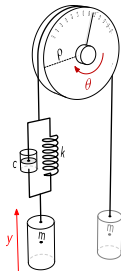


# Example 1 (contd)

For every  $\tau > 0$  the controller in



inverts  $P(0) = \rho$  and renders  $e_{ss} = 0$ :

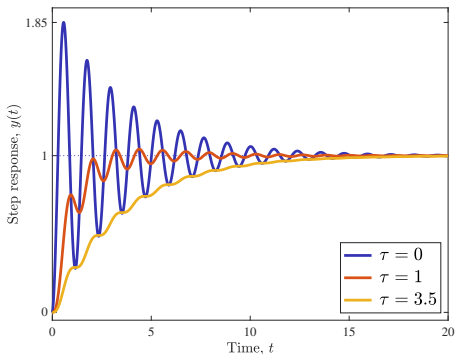


$$\rho = 1.25 \text{ m}$$

$$k = 40000 \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}}$$

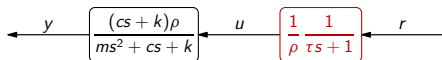
$$c = 800 \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}}$$

$$m = 1410 \text{ kg}$$

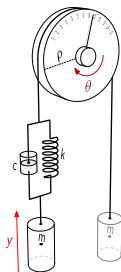


# Example 1 (contd)

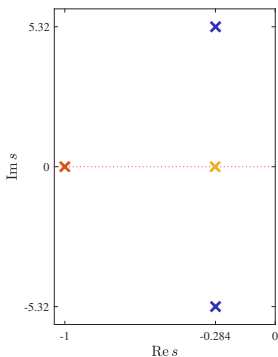
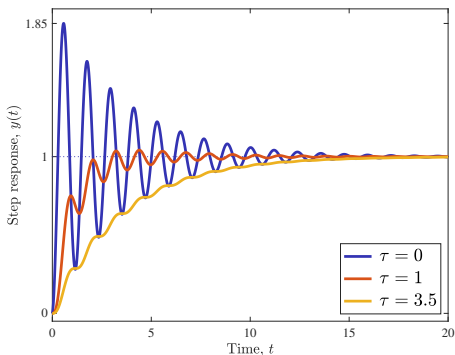
For every  $\tau > 0$  the controller in



inverts  $P(0) = \rho$  and renders  $e_{ss} = 0$ :



$$\begin{aligned}\rho &= 1.25 \text{ m} \\ k &= 40000 \frac{\text{N}\cdot\text{sec}}{\text{m}} \\ c &= 800 \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}} \\ m &= 1410 \text{ kg}\end{aligned}$$



(the zero at  $s = -50$  has virtually no effect on transients).

# Outline

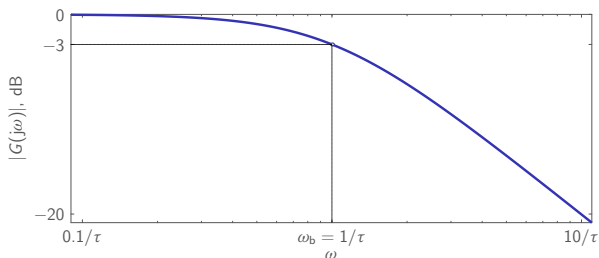
Steady-state performance

Transient performance: modal perspective

Transient performance: frequency-response perspective (from LS)



# Magnitude frequency response of 1-order systems



Bandwidth  $\omega_b$

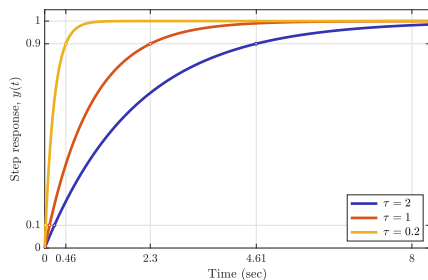
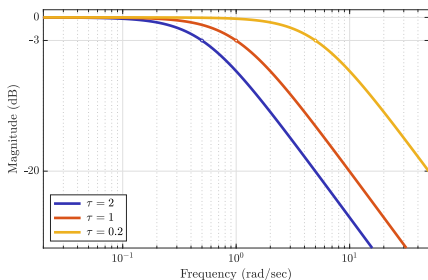
- increases as  $\tau$  decreases (and the step response becomes faster)

# 1-order systems: bandwidth vs. raise time

If

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

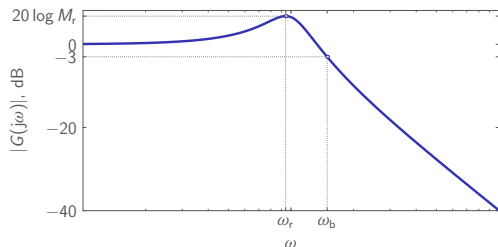
then with  $\tau \in \{0.2, 1, 2\}$ ,



showing that

- wider  $\omega_b \implies$  shorter  $t_r$  (faster transients)

# Magnitude frequency response of 2-order systems



$$\omega_b = \sqrt{1 - 2\zeta^2 + \sqrt{1 + (1 - 2\zeta^2)^2}} \omega_n$$

$$\omega_b > \omega_n \text{ iff } \zeta < 1/\sqrt{2}$$

$$\omega_r = \sqrt{1 - 2\zeta^2} \omega_n \quad (\text{defined iff } \zeta < 1/\sqrt{2})$$

$$M_r = \frac{1}{2\zeta\sqrt{1 - \zeta^2}} \quad (M_r > 1 \text{ iff } \zeta < 1/\sqrt{2})$$

## Bandwidth $\omega_b$

- increases as  $\omega_n$  increases (and the step response becomes faster)
- increases, a bit, as  $\zeta$  decreases (and the step response becomes faster)

## Resonant peak $M_r$

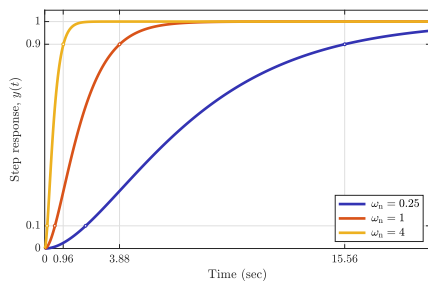
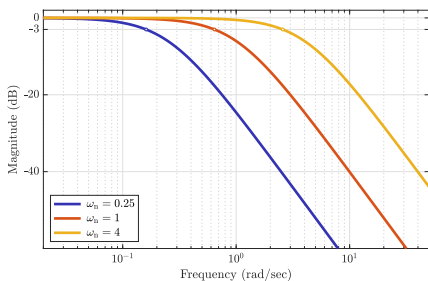
- increases as  $\zeta$  decreases (and the step response becomes more shaky)

## 2-order systems: bandwidth vs. raise time

If

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

then with  $\zeta = 1$  and  $\omega_n \in \{0.25, 1, 4\}$ ,



showing that

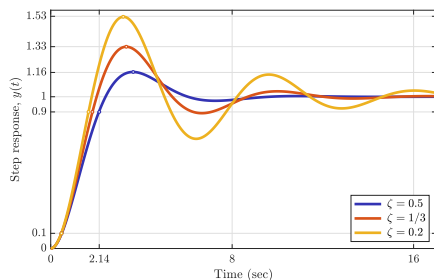
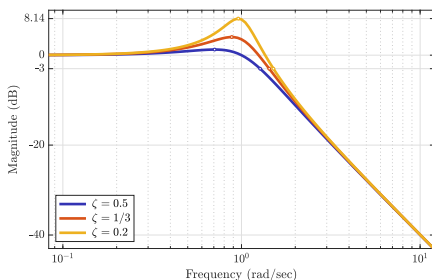
- wider  $\omega_b \implies$  shorter  $t_r$  (faster transients)

## 2-order systems: resonance vs. overshoot

If

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

then with  $\zeta \in \{0.5, 1/3, 0.2\}$  and  $\omega_n = 1$ ,



showing that

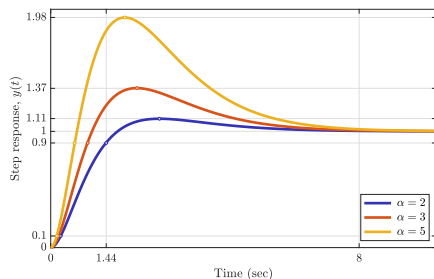
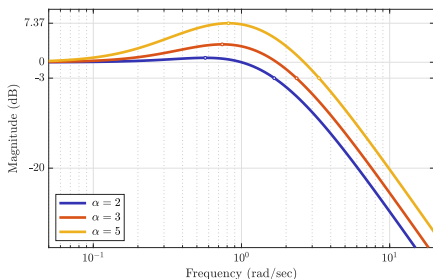
- larger  $M_r \implies$  larger OS
- wider  $\omega_b \implies$  shorter  $t_r$  (faster transients)

## 3-order systems with zeros

If

$$G(s) = \frac{\alpha\omega_n s + \omega_n^2}{(s/2 + 1)(s^2 + 2\zeta\omega_n s + \omega_n^2)}$$

then with  $\zeta = 1$ ,  $\omega_n = 1$ , and  $\alpha \in \{2, 3, 5\}$ ,



showing that

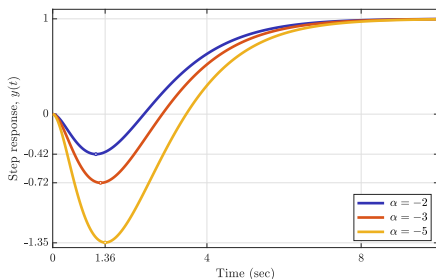
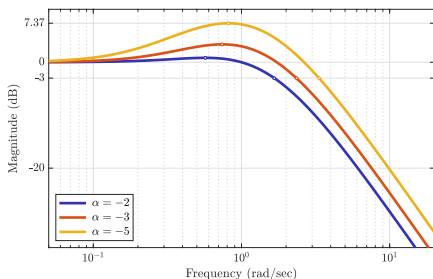
- larger  $M_r \implies$  larger OS
- wider  $\omega_b \implies$  shorter  $t_r$  (faster transients)

## 3-order systems with zeros (contd)

If

$$G(s) = \frac{\alpha\omega_n s + \omega_n^2}{(s/2 + 1)(s^2 + 2\zeta\omega_n s + \omega_n^2)}$$

then with  $\zeta = 1$ ,  $\omega_n = 1$ , and  $\alpha \in \{-2, -3, -5\}$ ,



showing that

- larger  $M_r \implies$  larger US
- wider  $\omega_b \implies$  faster leap (transients)

## Rules of thumb

In general, we may *expect* that

- the higher  $M_r$  is, the larger the OS / US might be typically,
    - narrow peaks indicate oscillatory responses, with oscillation frequencies close to frequencies of peak on the Bode magnitude plot
    - wide peaks indicate overshoot / undershoot without oscillations
  - the larger  $\omega_b$  is, the faster time response is
- think of the Fourier transform frequency scaling property<sup>3</sup>,  $\mathcal{F}\{P_T x\} = \frac{1}{T} P_{1/T}(\mathcal{F}\{x\})$

---

<sup>3</sup>The time scale operator  $P_T$  acts as  $(P_T x)(t) = x(t/T)$  for every  $T \in \mathbb{R}$ .



## Rules of thumb

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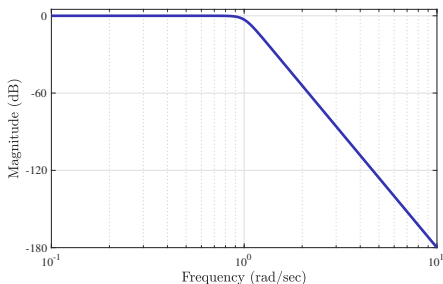
<sup>3</sup>The time scale operator  $\mathbb{P}_\zeta$  acts as  $(\mathbb{P}_\zeta x)(t) = x(\zeta t)$  for every  $\zeta \in \mathbb{R}$ .

## Rules of thumb (contd)

Relation should be taken with a grain of salt. For example, consider the 9-order low-pass Butterworth filter with the transfer function

$$\frac{1}{(s + 1)(s^2 + 0.347s + 1)(s^2 + s + 1)(s^2 + 1.532s + 1)(s^2 + 1.879s + 1)},$$

whose frequency response has **no resonant peaks**...



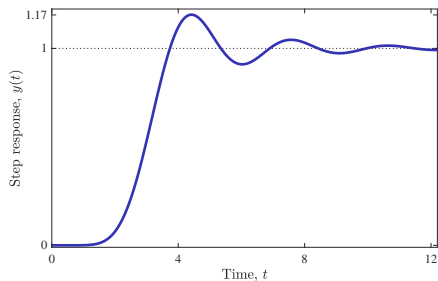
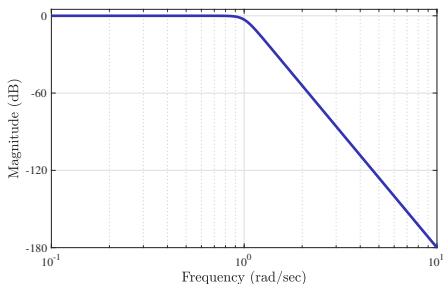
... yet whose step response exhibits an overshoot of 17%

## Rules of thumb (contd)

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$$\frac{1}{(s + 1)(s^2 + 0.347s + 1)(s^2 + s + 1)(s^2 + 1.532s + 1)(s^2 + 1.879s + 1)}$$

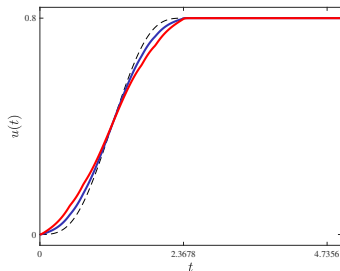
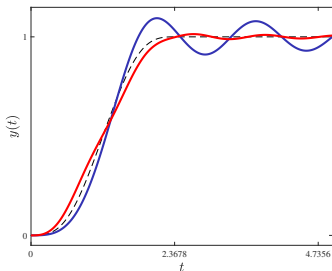
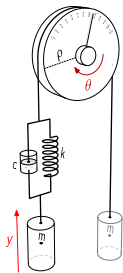
whose frequency response has **no resonant peaks**...



... yet whose step response exhibits an **overshoot of 17%**

# Modeling uncertainty & plant inversion: example

If the actual mass mismatches that assumed in the design of  $u$ :



$$\rho = 1.25 \text{ m}$$

$$k = 40000 \frac{\text{N}\cdot\text{sec}}{\text{m}}$$

$$c = 800 \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}}$$

$$m = 1410 \text{ kg}$$

$$m = 2820 \text{ kg}$$

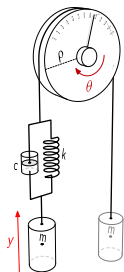
- $u$  calculated for  $m = 1410$  applied to  $m = 2820$
- $u$  calculated for  $m = 2820$  applied to  $m = 1410$

Curiously,

- “blue” oscillations are substantially larger than “red” ones.

Why?

# Modeling uncertainty & plant inversion: example (contd)



$$\rho = 1.25 \text{ m}$$

$$k = 40000 \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}}$$

$$c = 800 \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}}$$

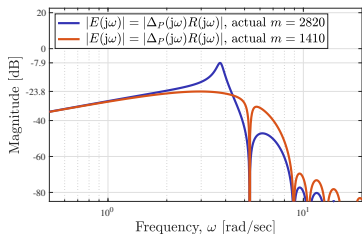
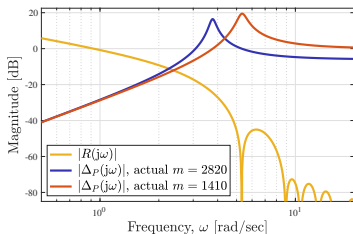
$$m = 1410 \text{ kg}$$

$$m = 2820 \text{ kg}$$

The error due to modeling uncertainty is

$$e = (1 - P_{\text{true}}P^{-1})r := \Delta_P r$$

Inspecting frequency responses of  $\Delta_P$  and the spectrum of  $r$ ,

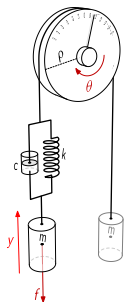


reveals that

- $R(j\omega)$  vanishes at the resonance of  $\Delta_P$  at  $\omega = 5.31$


Therefore, this resonance isn't excited by  $r$  (incidentally). Yet the resonance of  $\Delta_P$  at  $\omega = 3.76$  isn't canceled.

# Disturbances & plant inversion: example

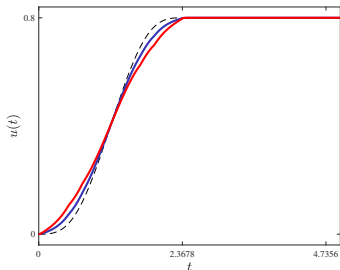
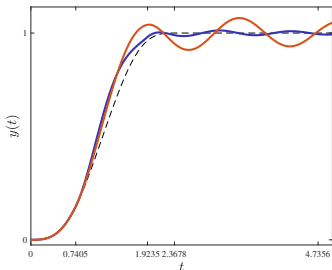


Let

$$f = -250g(\mathbb{1}_{[-0.74, 1]} - \mathbb{1}_{[-1.92, 1]}) = \begin{matrix} 0 \\ -250g \end{matrix} \quad t$$

(think of a jump of somebody heavy, like , in an elevator).

Responses:



$$\rho = 1.25 \text{ m}$$

$$k = 40000 \frac{\text{N sec}}{\text{m}}$$

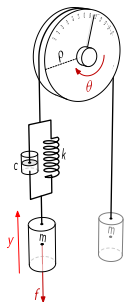
$$c = 800 \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}}$$

$$m = 1410 \text{ kg}$$

$$m = 2820 \text{ kg}$$

Now "red" oscillations are substantially larger than "blue" ones. Why?

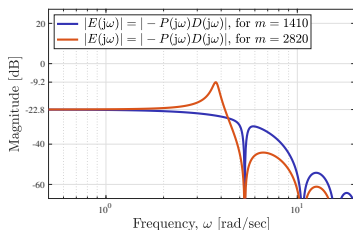
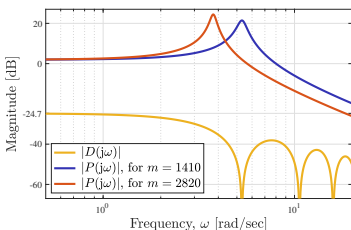
# Disturbances & plant inversion: example (contd)



The error due to disturbances is

$$e = -Pd.$$

Our  $D(s) = -\frac{1}{(cs+k)\rho}F(s)$  (independent of the mass). From



$$\rho = 1.25 \text{ m}$$

$$k = 40000 \frac{\text{N sec}}{\text{m}}$$

$$c = 800 \frac{\text{N}}{\text{m}}$$

$$m = 1410 \text{ kg}$$

$$m = 2820 \text{ kg}$$

we can see that  $D(j\omega)$  vanishes at  $\omega = 5.31$  (not incidentally), which is exactly the resonance of  $P$ . Hence, this resonance is not excited in  $P$ . The resonance of  $P$  at  $\omega = 3.76$  is excited.