### **Lecture 9**

# Combining Signals & Systems together using IMU as an example

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# 7 things you have learned about systems (1)

- 1. A system can be characterised in terms of differential equations in the time-domain, or in terms of transfer functions in the Laplace domain.
- 2. Laplace transform converts differential equations into algebraic equations. While in Fourier, we use the frequency variable  $j_{\omega}$ , in Laplace, we use the complex frequency variable s, where  $s = \alpha + j_{\omega}$ .
- 3. Transfer function H(s) is the relationship between output Y(s) and input X(s) in the Laplace domain:

$$Y(s) = H(s) \times X(s)$$

4. Frequency response  $H(j\omega)$  = Transfer function H(s) evaluated at  $s = j\omega$ :

$$H(j\omega) = H(s)\Big|_{s=j\omega}$$

# 7 things you have learned about systems (2)

- 5. Fourier transform and frequency response are only valid of steadystate conditions; Laplace transform and transfer function are useful for both steady state and transient conditions.
- Non-linear systems can be approximated as linear if you operate over a small signal range.
- 7. A general 2<sup>nd</sup> order system can be expressed in term of damping factor  $\zeta$  and natural frequency  $\omega_0$ , and it can be under-damped, critically-damped or over-damped.

#### Topics omitted:

- Ideas of poles and zeroes of a system
- How poles and zeroes affect steady-state and transient behaviour of a system
- Stability issues of a system

# 1 & 2 - Differential Equation vs Transfer Function

 We use differential equations to model systems in timedomain:

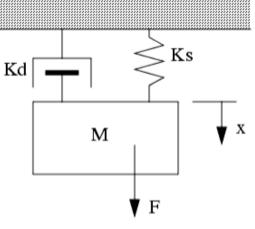
$$M \ddot{x}(t) + K_d \dot{x}(t) + K_s x(t) = F(t)$$

 We use transfer functions to model systems in Laplace domain as algebraic equation:

$$Ms^2X(s) + K_{d}sX(s) + K_{s}X(s) = F(s)$$

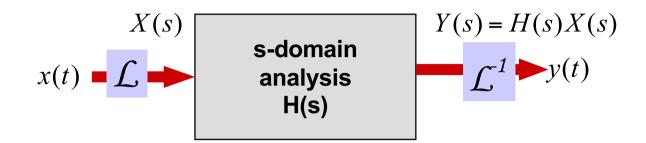
$$(Ms^2 + K_ds + K_s)X(s) = F(s)$$

$$\Rightarrow H(s) = \frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{1}{Ms^2 + K_d s + K_s}$$



$$s^k \longleftrightarrow \frac{d^k}{dt^k}$$

# 3 - Transfer Function H(s) = Y(s) / X(s)



- Once transformed to the s-domain, analysis and prediction of the system become easy if we know the system's characteristic H(s), which is also called the **transfer function**.
- ◆ Transfer function H(s) = Output Y(s) / Input X(s)

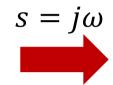
or

Output Y(s) = Transfer Function H(s) x Input X(s)

# 4 - Frequency Response vs Transfer Function

#### **Laplace Transform**

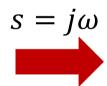
$$\mathcal{L}\{x(t)\} = X(s) = \int_0^\infty x(t)e^{-st}dt$$



#### **Fourier Transform**

$$\mathcal{F}\{x(t)\} = X(j\omega) = \int_0^\infty x(t)e^{-j\omega t}dt$$

#### **Transfer Function**



#### **Frequency Response**

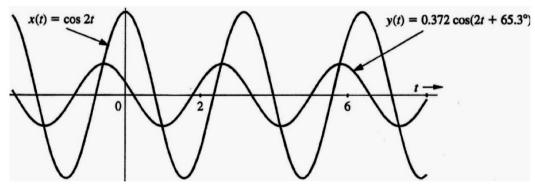
$$H(j\omega)$$

• We can find the frequency response of a system by substituting  $s = j\omega$  into the transfer function:

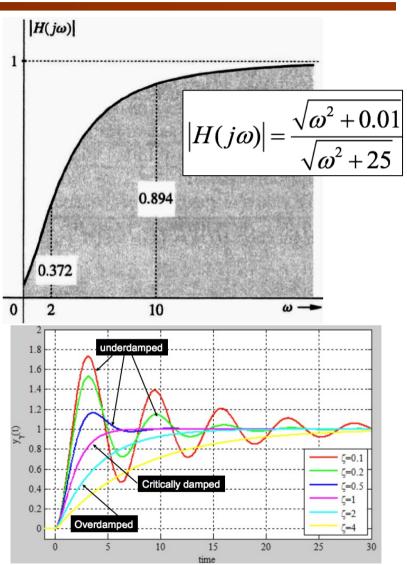
$$H(s)\Big|_{s=j\omega} = H(j\omega) = |H(j\omega)| e^{j \angle H(j\omega)}$$

# 5 – Steady state vs Transient

 When using frequency response H(jω), we assume inputs are everlasting sinusoids at frequency jω. That is, we assume that all transient conditions have died down.

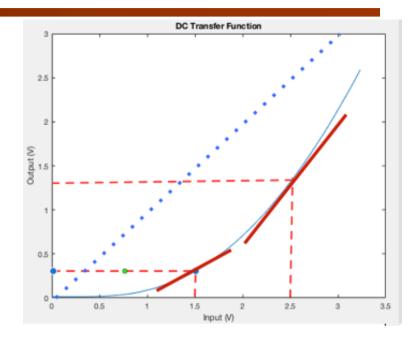


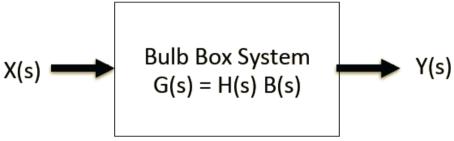
 When using Laplace transform to model system behaviour, we can model both steady state and transient behaviours.



# 6 – Linear approximation in small signals

- A non-linear system such as the Bulb Board can be approximated as linear provided that we only operate in small region.
- We called this the "operating point" of the system.
- Shown here are two operating points, one at 2.5V input, and another at 1.5V input.
- If we now only use small signal amplitude (sinewaves), then the behaviour of the non-linear system is approximated to be linear.
- Now, we can use transfer functions to model its behaviour as shown here.

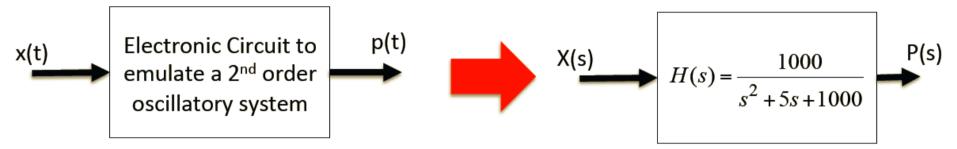




$$G(s) = \frac{1000}{0.038s^3 + 1.19s^2 + 43s + 1000}$$

# 7 – Damping factor and Natural frequency

◆ Let us take the transfer function H(s) of the 2<sup>nd</sup> order system used in Bulb Board is an example:



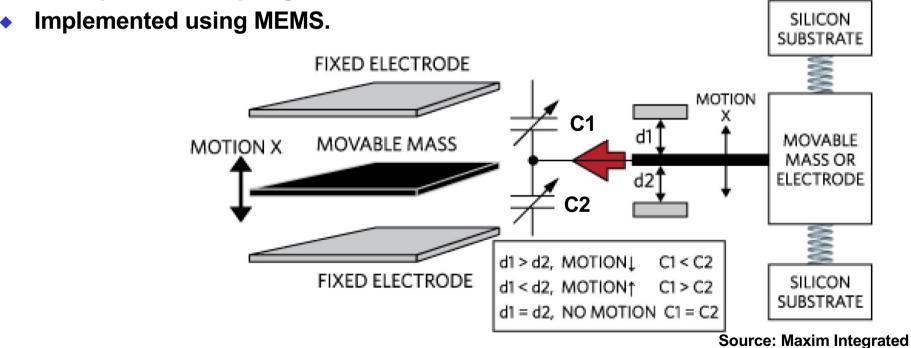
- $\omega_0 = \sqrt{a_0} = 31.62$ , resonant frequency in rad/sec, or  $31.62/2\pi = 5$ Hz
- $\zeta = \frac{a_1}{2\sqrt{a_0}} = \frac{5}{2\sqrt{1000}} = 0.079$ , the **damping factor** (very small, ideal = 1)
- $K = \frac{b_0}{a_0} = 1$ , DC gain of the system at zero frequency
- Since the damping factor is very small (much smaller than 1), this system is highly oscillatory.

$$H(s) = \frac{b_0}{s^2 + a_1 s + a_0} = K \frac{{\omega_0}^2}{s^2 + 2\zeta \omega_0 s + {\omega_0}^2}$$

## **Motion Sensing – Accelerometer**

#### **Basic Principle**

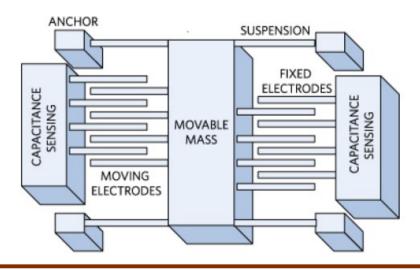
- Newton's 2<sup>nd</sup> Law of motion: F = mass x acceleration.
- Sense acceleration is really sensing the force on a mass.
- Use capacitive sensing with MEMS.
- Acceleration causes mass to move.
- Mass pivoted on springs anchored one side as shown.

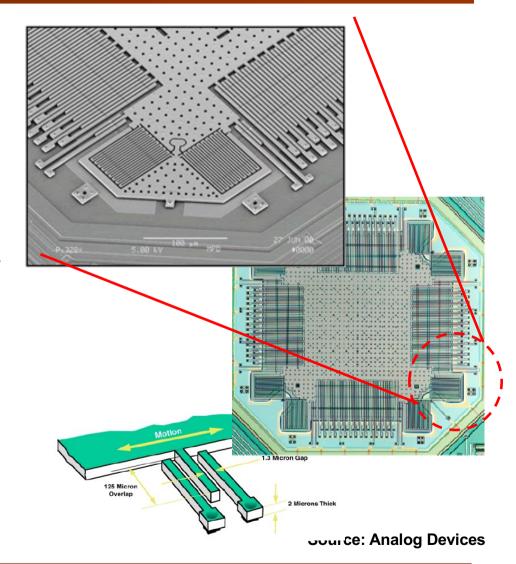


## **Motion Sensing - MEMS accelerometers**

#### **Capacitive MEMS accelerometer**

- The displacement of the movable mass (micrometer) is caused by acceleration.
- It creates an extremely small change in capacitance for proper detection. Therefore practical sensors use multiple movable and fixed electrodes, all connected in a parallel configuration as shown.





## **Orientation Sensing - MEMS gyroscopes**

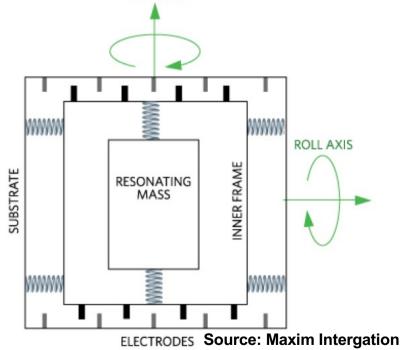
- Accelerometers measure linear acceleration (specified in mV/g) along one or several axis.
- A gyroscope measures angular velocity (specified in mV/deg/s).
- Therefore, the accelerometer's output will not respond to change in angular velocity.

 However MEMS gyroscopes are similar to accelerometer, but the structure is different as shown here.

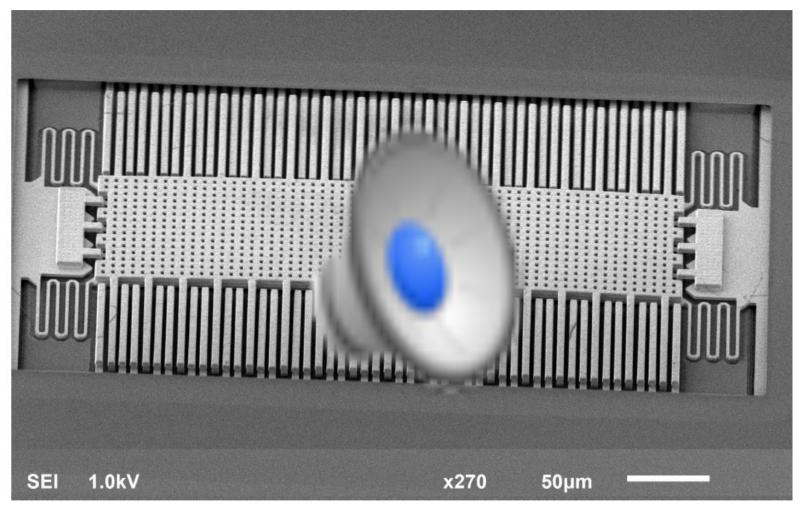
 Here the resonating mass is mounted in an inner frame held by two springs.

 The inner frame is mounted by springs to the substrate with springs in 90 degrees to the inner springs.

- Due to the Coriolis Effect, angular rotations in the roll axis and the yaw axis (see diagram) are now translated to linear accelerations.
- The capacitive fingers are now mounted on the peripherals of the inner frame and the fixed substrate.



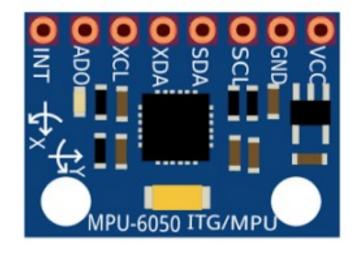
## A short video on "MEMS Accelerometer"



A scanning electron microscope photo of a lateral accelerometer Piotr Michalik et al, IEEE Senors, Nov 2015

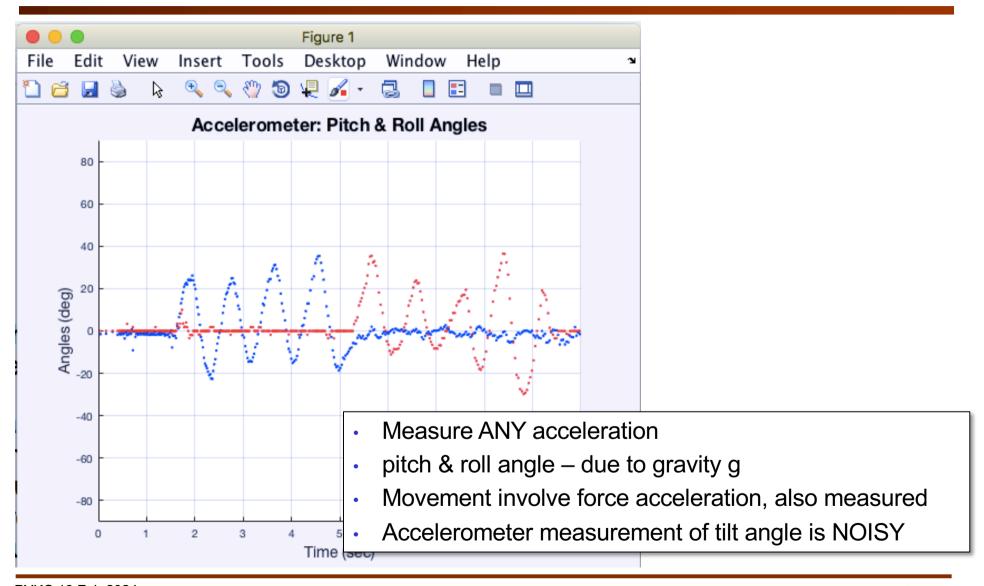
## Lab 4 – Task 1: Measuring Angel of tilt – the IMU

- The IMU insertia measurement unit has built in 3-axis accelerometer and 3-axis gyroscope
- The module uses I2C interface on two pins: SCL and SDA
- Easy to access from Matlab using PyBench:

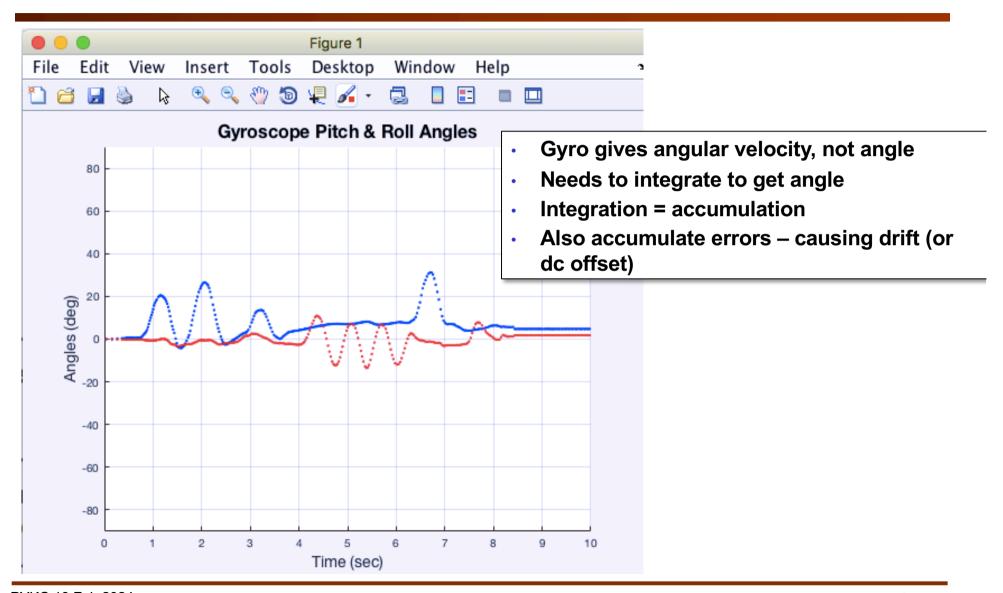


- ◆ Pitch angle p plane pointing up or down
- ◆ Roll angle r plane pointing left or right
- Angle can be in unit radian or degree: degrees = radians \*180 /  $\pi$
- Generally use radian for calculations; use degree of display
- x, y an z are the angular velocity in the three axes of rotations

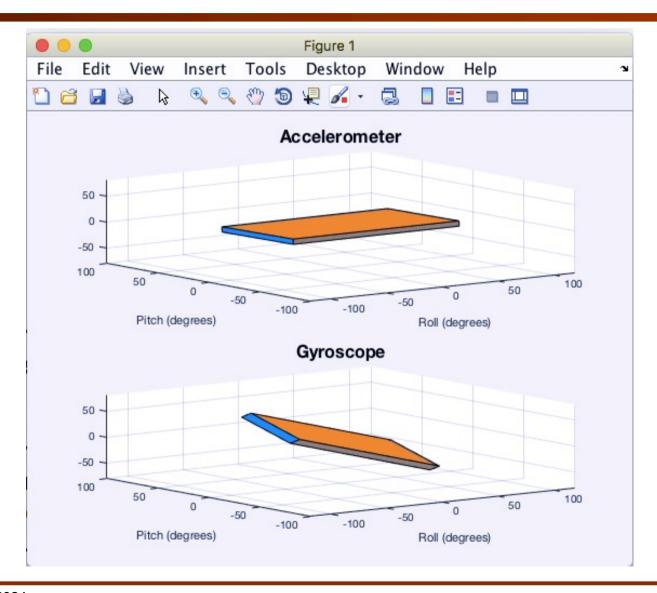
#### Lab 4 – Task 1a: Accelerometer



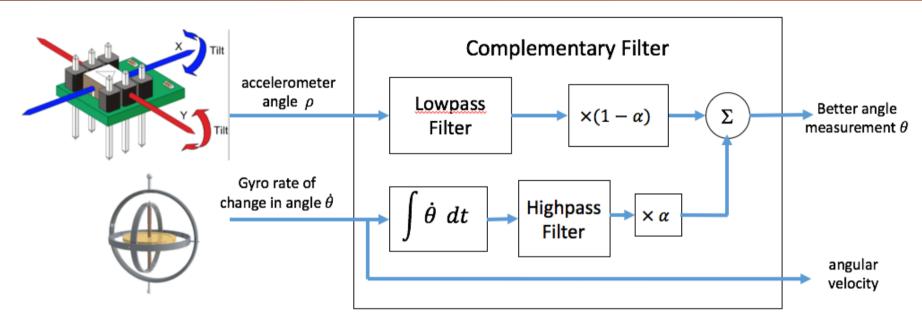
## Lab 4 – Task 1b: Gyroscope



#### Lab 4 – Task 2: 3D visualization



## **Lab 4 – Task 3: Complementary Filter - Concept**



$$\text{angle } \theta_{new} = \ \alpha \times \left( \ \theta_{old} + \ \dot{\theta} \ dt \right) + (1-\alpha) \times \rho$$

where

 $\alpha$  = scaling factor chosen by users and is typically between 0.7 and 0.98

 $\rho$  = accelerometer angle

 $\theta_{new}$  = new output angle

 $\theta_{old}$  = previous output angle

 $\dot{\theta}$  = gyroscope reading of the rate of change in angle

dt = time interval between gyro readings

# **Three Big Ideas**

- Accelerometer measurement of angle is inherently noisy it cannot distinguish acceleration due to gravity or due to motion.
- Gyroscope measurement of angle is inherently "drifty" gyroscope provides angular velocity measurement. Angle measurement is derived through integration. This results in time varying offset called drift.
- Much better angle estimation can be obtained by filtering and fusion of the two types of measurements.