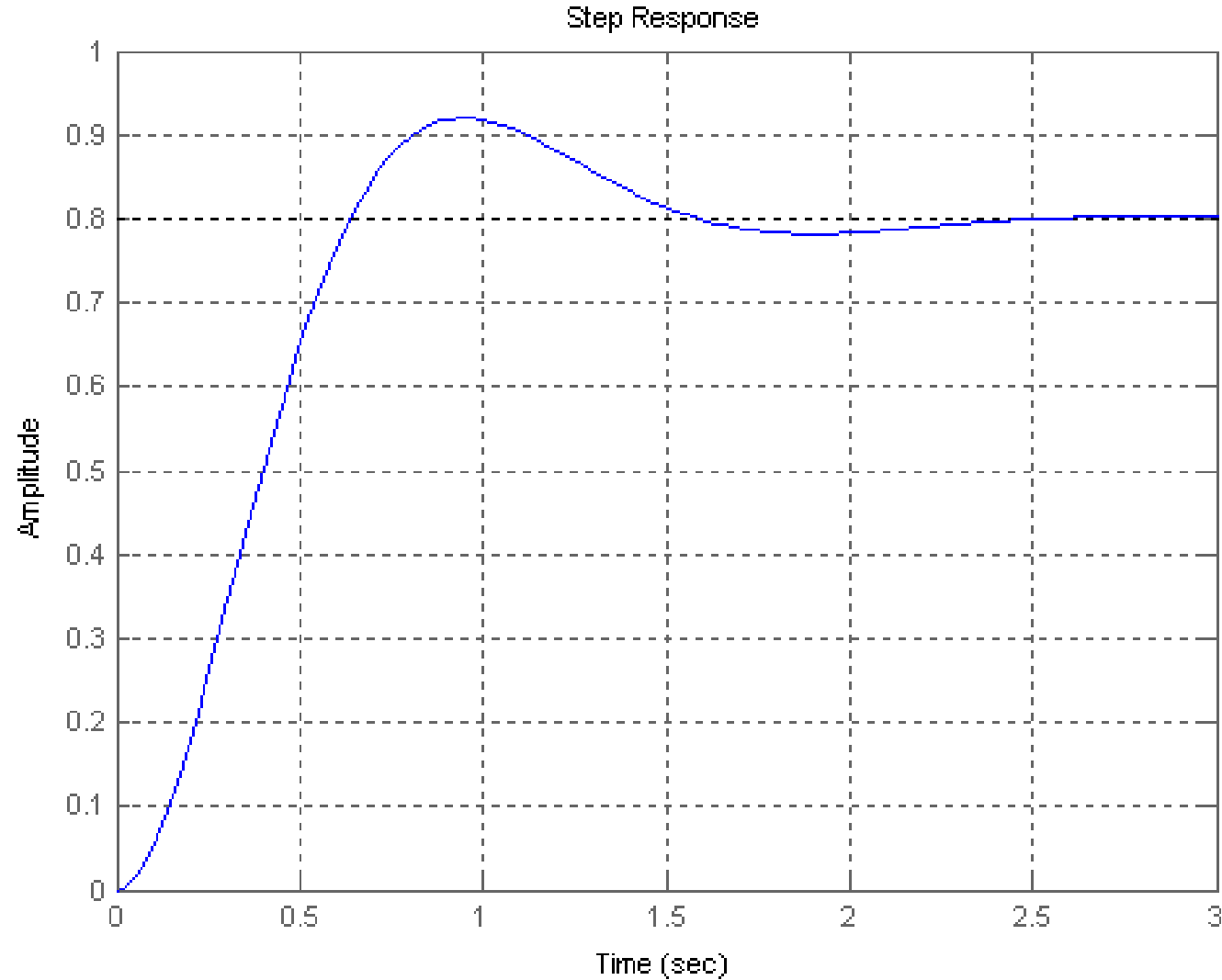
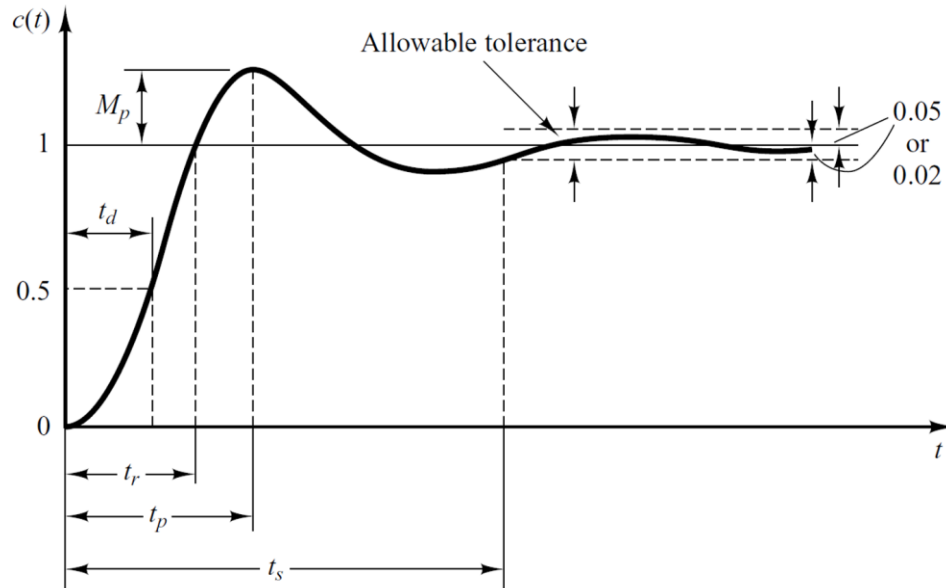


# System Types & Error Constants

MARK the definitions and then CALCULATE the numerical values of the following specifications:

- a) Delay time,  $t_d$
- b) Rise time,  $t_r$
- c) Peak time,  $t_p$
- d) Settling time,  $t_s$  for 2%
- e) Maximum overshoot,  $M_p$
- f) Steady state response,  $y_{ss}$
- g) Steady state error,  $e_{ss}$
- h) Maximum amplitude,  $y_{max}$
- i) Percentage overshoot
- j) Natural Frequency,  $\omega_n$
- k) Damped Natural Frequency,  $\omega_d$
- l) Damping Ratio,  $\zeta$





$$t_r = \frac{\pi - \phi}{\omega_n \sqrt{1 - \zeta^2}} \quad t_p = \frac{\pi}{\omega_n \sqrt{1 - \zeta^2}}$$

MARK the definitions and then CALCULATE the numerical values of the following specifications:

- Delay time,  $t_d$
- Rise time,  $t_r$
- Peak time,  $t_p$
- Settling time,  $t_s$  for 2%
- Maximum overshoot,  $M_p$
- Steady state response,  $y_{ss}$
- Steady state error,  $e_{ss}$
- Maximum amplitude,  $y_{max}$
- Percentage overshoot
- Natural Frequency,  $\omega_n$
- Damped Natural Frequency,  $\omega_d$
- Damping Ratio,  $\zeta$

$$\sigma = \zeta \omega_n$$

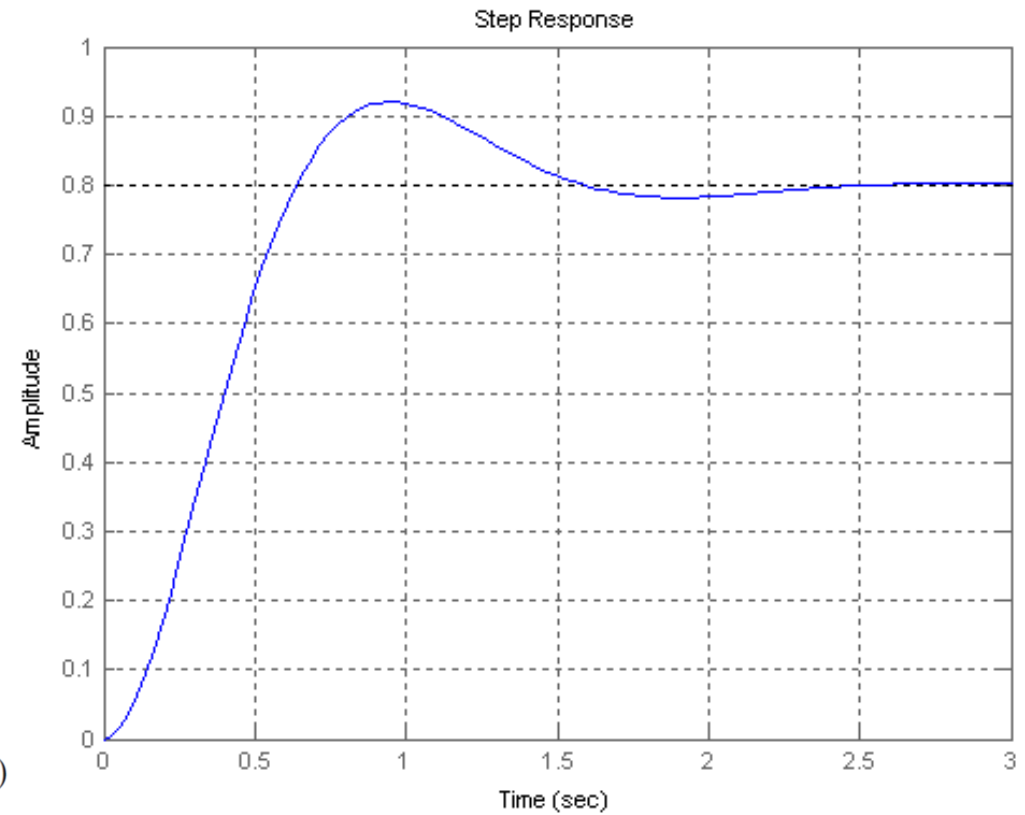
$$\beta = \tan^{-1} \frac{\omega_d}{\sigma}$$

$$t_r = \frac{\pi - \beta}{\omega_d}$$

$$t_s = \frac{4}{\zeta \omega_n} \quad (2\% \text{ criterion})$$

$$c(t) = 1 - \frac{e^{-\zeta \omega_n t}}{\sqrt{1 - \zeta^2}} \sin \left\{ \left( \omega_n \sqrt{1 - \zeta^2} \right) t + \phi \right\}$$

$$\phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{\sqrt{1 - \zeta^2}}{\zeta}$$



$$M_p = e^{-\frac{\zeta \pi}{\sqrt{1 - \zeta^2}}}$$

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} [r(t) - c(t)] \quad \% MP = e^{-\zeta \pi / \sqrt{1 - \zeta^2}} \times 100$$

# Introduction

- ***Errors in a control system*** can be attributed to many factors:
  - Imperfections in the system components  
(e.g. static friction, amplifier drift, aging, deterioration, etc...)
  - Changes in the reference inputs →  
cause errors during transient periods & may cause steady-state errors.
- In this section, we shall investigate a **type of steady-state error that is caused by the incapability of a system to follow particular types of inputs.**

# Steady-State Errors with Respect to Types of Inputs

- Any physical control system inherently suffers steady-state response to certain types of inputs.
- A system may have no steady-state error to a step input, but the same system exhibit nonzero steady-state error to a ramp input.
- Whether a given unity feedback system will exhibit steady-state error for a given type of input depends on the type of **loop gain** of the system.

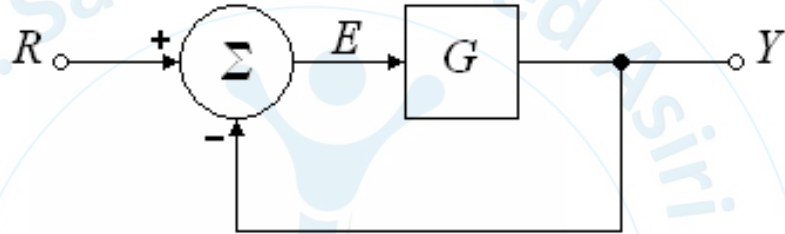


# Classification of Control System

- Control systems may be **classified according to their ability to track polynomial inputs**, or *in other words*, their ability to reach zero steady-state to step-inputs, ramp inputs, parabolic inputs and so on.
- This is a reasonable classification scheme because actual inputs may frequently be considered combinations of such inputs.
- The magnitude of the steady-state errors due to these individual inputs are indicative of the goodness of the system.

# The Unity Feedback Control Case

## Steady-State Error



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

- Error:  $e(t) = r(t) - y(t) \Rightarrow E(s) = R(s) - Y(s) = \frac{R(s)}{1 + G(s)}$
- Using the FVT, the **steady-state error** is given by:

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} e(t) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sE(s) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} sR(s) \frac{1}{1 + G(s)}$$

**FVT**

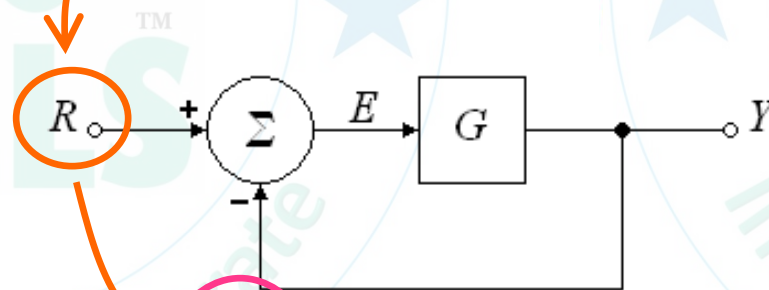
# Steady-state error to polynomial input

## - Unity Feedback Control -

- Consider a **polynomial input**:

$$r(t) = t^{k-1}u(t) \Rightarrow R(s) = \frac{1}{s^k}$$

- The **steady-state error** is then given by:



$$e_{ss} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s \frac{1}{s^k} \frac{1}{1 + G(s)} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{s^k} \frac{1}{1 + G(s)}$$



# System Type

A *unity feedback system* is defined to be **type k** if the feedback system guarantees:

$$e_{ss} = 0 \quad \text{for} \quad R(s) = \frac{1}{s^k}$$

$$|e_{ss}| < \infty \quad \text{for} \quad R(s) = \frac{1}{s^{k+1}}$$

## System Type (cont'd)

- Since, for an input

$$R(s) = \frac{1}{s^k}$$

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s \frac{\frac{1}{s^k}}{1 + G(s)} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{s^k} \frac{1}{1 + G(s)}$$

the *system* is called a **type k system** if:

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{s^k} \frac{1}{1 + G(s)} = 0$$

$$\left| \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{s^{k+1}} \frac{1}{1 + G(s)} \right|$$

$$< \infty$$

# Example 1: Unity feedback

- Given a stable system whose the open-loop transfer function is:

$$G(s) = \frac{K(s - z_1)(s - z_2) \cdots}{s(s - p_1)(s - p_2) \cdots} = \frac{G_0(s)}{s} \text{ subjected to inputs } R(s) = \frac{1}{s^k}$$

$(p_i \neq 0)$

- Step function:  $R(s) = 1/s, k = 1$

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{s} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{G_0(s)}{s}} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cancel{s}}{\cancel{s} + G_0(s)} = \frac{0}{0 + G_0(0)} = 0$$

- Ramp function:  $R(s) = 1/s^2, k = 2$

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{s^2} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{G_0(s)}{s}} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cancel{s}}{\cancel{s} + G_0(s)} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{s + G_0(s)} = \frac{1}{G_0(0)} \neq 0$$

→ The system is type 1

## Example 2: Unity feedback

- Given a stable system whose the open-loop transfer function is:

$$G(s) = \frac{K(s - z_1)(s - z_2) \cdots}{s^2(s - p_1)(s - p_2) \cdots} = \frac{G_0(s)}{s^2} \text{ subjected to inputs } R(s) = \frac{1}{s^k}$$

$(p_i \neq 0)$

- Step function:  $R(s) = 1/s, k = 1$

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{s} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{G_0(s)}{s^2}} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cancel{s}}{\cancel{s} s^2 + G_0(s)} = \frac{0}{0 + G_0(0)} = 0$$

- Ramp function:  $R(s) = 1/s^2, k = 2$

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{s^2} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{G_0(s)}{s^2}} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cancel{s}}{\cancel{s} s^2 + G_0(s)} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{s^2 + G_0(s)} = \frac{0}{G_0(0)} = 0$$

- Parabola function:  $R(s) = 1/s^3, k = 3$

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{s^3} \frac{1}{1 + \frac{G_0(s)}{s^2}} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cancel{s}}{\cancel{s} s^3 + \cancel{s^2} G_0(s)} = \frac{1}{G_0(0)} \neq 0 \rightarrow \text{type 2}$$

## Example 3: Unity feedback

- Given a stable system whose the open loop transfer function is:

$$G(s) = \frac{K(s - z_1)(s - z_2) \cdots}{(s - p_1)(s - p_2) \cdots} = G_0(s) \quad \text{subjected to inputs} \quad R(s) = \frac{1}{s^k}$$

$(p_i \neq 0)$

- Step function:  $R(s) = 1/s, k = 1$

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cancel{s}}{\cancel{s}} \frac{1}{1 + G_0(s)} = \frac{1}{1 + G_0(0)} \neq 0$$

→ The system is type 0

- Impulse function:  $R(s) = 1, k = 0$

$$e_{ss} = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} \frac{s}{1} \frac{1}{1 + G_0(s)} = \frac{0}{G_0(0)} = 0$$



# Summary – Unity Feedback

- Assuming  $p_i \neq 0$ , unity system loop transfers such as:

$$G(s) = \frac{K(s - z_1)(s - z_2) \dots}{(s - p_1)(s - p_2) \dots} = G_0(s)$$

→ type 0

$$G(s) = \frac{K(s - z_1)(s - z_2) \dots}{s(s - p_1)(s - p_2) \dots} = \frac{G_0(s)}{s}$$

→ type 1

$$G(s) = \frac{K(s - z_1)(s - z_2) \dots}{s^2(s - p_1)(s - p_2) \dots} = \frac{G_0(s)}{s^2}$$

→ type 2

$$G(s) = \frac{K(s - z_1)(s - z_2) \dots}{s^n(s - p_1)(s - p_2) \dots} = \frac{G_0(s)}{s^n}$$

→ type n

# General Rule – Unity Feedback

- An unity feedback system is of **type  $k$**  if the open-loop transfer function of the system has:

**$k$  poles at  $s=0$**

*In other words,*

- An unity feedback system is of **type  $k$**  if the open-loop transfer function of the system has:

**$k$  integrators**

# Error Constants

- A *stable unity feedback system* is **type  $k$**  with respect to reference inputs if the **open loop transfer function has  $k$  poles at the origin**:

$$G(s) = \frac{(s - z_1)(s - z_2) \cdots}{s^k (s - p_1)(s - p_2) \cdots} = \frac{G_0(s)}{s^k}$$

Then the **error constant** is given by:

$$K_k = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s^k G(s) = G_0(0)$$

- The higher the constants, the smaller the steady-state error.

# Error Constants

- For a **Type 0 System**, the error constant, called **position constant**, is given by:

$$K_p = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} G(s) \quad (\text{dimensionless})$$

- For a **Type 1 System**, the error constant, called **velocity constant**, is given by:

$$K_v = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s G(s) \quad (\text{sec}^{-1})$$

- For a **Type 2 System**, the error constant, called **acceleration constant**, is given by:

$$K_a = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s^2 G(s) \quad (\text{sec}^{-2})$$

## Steady-State Errors as a function of System Type – Unity Feedback

System type	Step input	Ramp input	Parabola input
Type 0	$\frac{1}{1 + K_p}$	$\infty$	$\infty$
Type 1	0	$\frac{1}{K_v}$	$\infty$
Type 2	0	0	$\frac{1}{K_a}$



# Error Constants

## Example:

- A temperature control system is found to have zero error to a constant tracking input and an error of  $0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  to a tracking input that is linear in time, rising at the rate of  $40^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{sec}$ .
- What is the system type?

The system is type 1

- What is the steady-state error?

$$e_{ss} = 0.5^{\circ}\text{C} = \frac{40^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{sec}}{K_v}$$

- What is the error constant?

$$K_v = \frac{40^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{sec}}{0.5^{\circ}\text{C sec}^{-1}}$$

# Error Constants

## Conclusion

- *Classifying a system as **k type** indicates the ability of the system to achieve zero steady-state error to polynomials  $r(t)$  of degree less but not equal to  $k$ .*
- The system is **type  $k$**  if the error is zero to all polynomials  $r(t)$  of degree less than  $k$  but non-zero for a polynomial of degree  $k$ .

# Error Constants

## Conclusion

- A *stable unity* feedback system is *type k* with respect to reference inputs if the **loop transfer function** has **k poles at the origin**:

$$G(s) = \frac{(s - z_1)(s - z_2) \cdots}{s^k (s - p_1)(s - p_2) \cdots}$$

$$K_k = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s^k G(s)$$

- Then the **error constant** is given by:

# The Classical Three- Term Controllers

# Basic Operations of a Feedback Control

*Think of what goes on in domestic hot water thermostat:*

- The temperature of the water is measured.
- Comparison of the measured and the required values provides an error, e.g. “too hot’ or ‘too cold’.
- On the basis of error, a control algorithm decides what to do.
  - *Such an algorithm might be:*
    - *If the temperature is too high then turn the heater off.*
    - *If it is too low then turn the heater on*
- The adjustment chosen by the control algorithm is applied to some adjustable variable, *such as the power input to the water heater.*



# Feedback Control Properties

- *A feedback control system seeks to bring the measured quantity to its required value or set-point.*
- *The control system does not need to know why the measured value is not currently what is required, only that is so.*
- *There are two possible causes of such a disparity:*
  - The system has been disturbed.
  - The setpoint has changed. In the absence of external disturbance, a change in setpoint will introduce an error. The control system will act until the measured quantity reach its new setpoint.

# The PID Algorithm

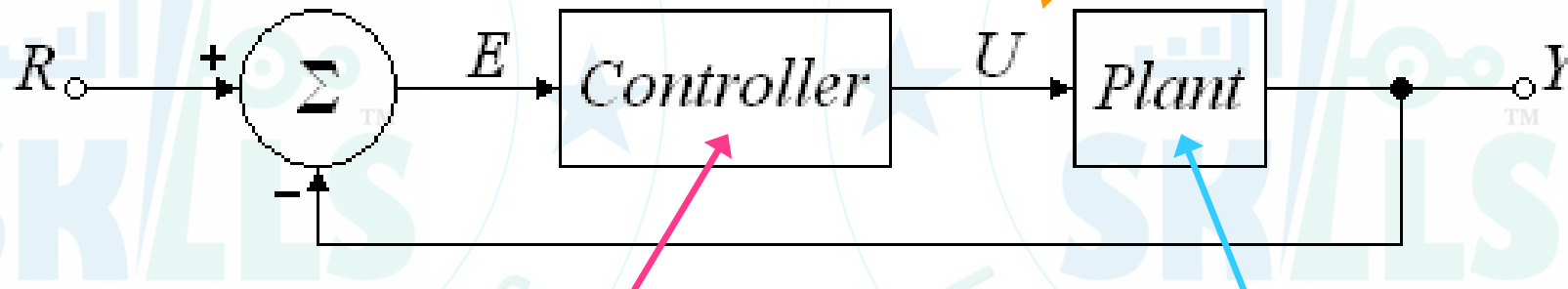
- The **PID algorithm** is the *most popular feedback controller algorithm used*. It is a robust easily understood algorithm that can provide *excellent control performance* despite the varied dynamic characteristics of processes.
- As the name suggests, the **PID algorithm** consists of *three basic modes*:
  - the **Proportional** mode,
  - the **Integral** mode
  - & the **Derivative** mode.

# P, PI or PID Controller

- When utilizing the PID algorithm, it is necessary to decide which modes are to be used (P, I or D) and then ***specify the parameters (or settings) for each mode used.***
- Generally, three basic algorithms are used: ***P, PI or PID.***
- Controllers are designed to eliminate the need for continuous operator attention.  
→ *Cruise control in a car and a house thermostat are common examples of how controllers are used to automatically adjust some variable to hold a measurement (or **process variable**) to a desired variable (or **set-point**)*

# Controller Output

- The variable being controlled is the **output of the controller** (and the input of the plant):

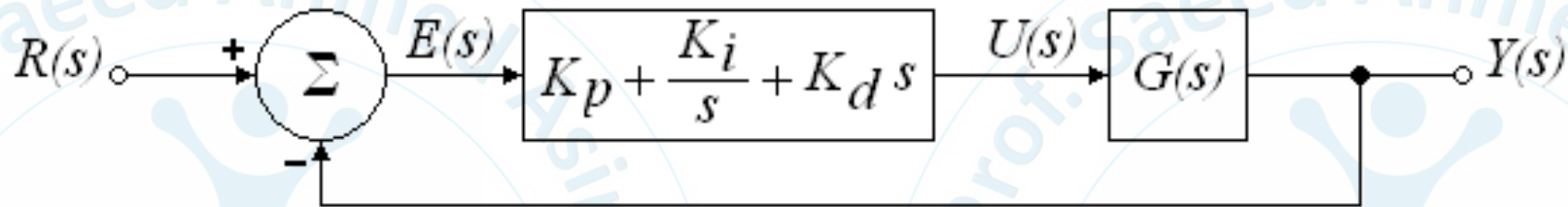


provides excitation to the plant

system to be controlled

- The output of the controller will change in response to a change in measurement or set-point (that said a change in the tracking error)

# PID Controller



- In the s-domain, the PID controller may be represented as:

$$U(s) = \left( K_p + \frac{K_i}{s} + K_d s \right) E(s)$$

- In the time domain:

$$u(t) = K_p e(t) + K_i \int_0^t e(t) dt + K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}$$

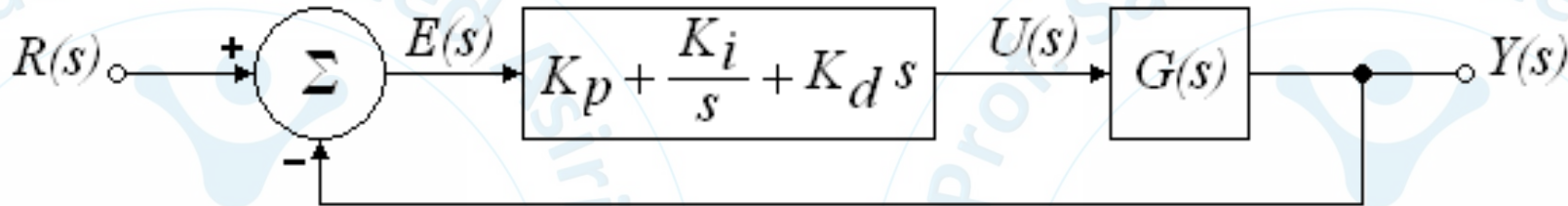
proportional gain

integral gain

derivative gain



# PID Controller



- In the time domain:

$$u(t) = K_p e(t) + K_i \int_0^t e(t) dt + K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}$$

- The signal  $u(t)$  will be sent to the plant, and a new output  $y(t)$  will be obtained. This new output  $y(t)$  will be sent back to the sensor again to find the new error signal  $e(t)$ . The controller takes this new error signal and computes its derivative and its integral gain. This process goes on and on.

# PID Controller

## Definitions

- In the time domain:

$$u(t) = K_p e(t) + K_i \int_0^t e(t) dt + K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}$$

$$= K_p \left( e(t) + \frac{1}{T_i} \int_0^t e(t) dt + T_d \frac{de(t)}{dt} \right)$$

integral time constant

derivative time constant

where  $T_i = \frac{K_p}{K_i}$ ,

$T_d = \frac{K_d}{K_i}$

derivative gain

proportional gain

integral gain

# PID Controller

## Controller Effects

- A proportional controller (P) *reduces error responses to disturbances*, but *still allows a steady-state error*.
- When the controller includes a term proportional to the integral of the error (I), then the *steady state error to a constant input is eliminated*, although typically *at the cost of deterioration in the dynamic response*.
- A derivative control typically *makes the system better damped and more stable*.

# PID Controller

## Closed-loop Response

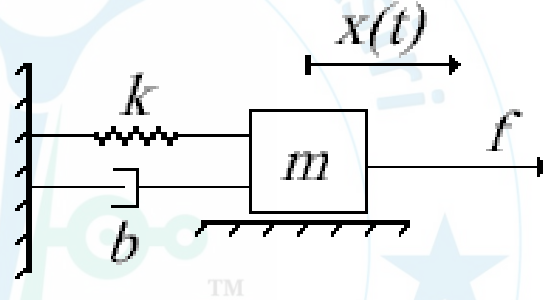
	Rise time	Maximum overshoot	Settling time	Steady-state error
<b>P</b>	<b>Decrease</b>	Increase	Small change	<b>Decrease</b>
<b>I</b>	<b>Decrease</b>	Increase	Increase	<b>Eliminate</b>
<b>D</b>	Small change	<b>Decrease</b>	<b>Decrease</b>	Small change

- Note that these correlations may not be exactly accurate, because P, I and D gains are dependent of each other.

# Open Loop System

## Example:

- Suppose we have a simple mass, spring, damper problem.



- The dynamic model is such as:

$$m\ddot{x} + b\dot{x} + kx = f$$

- Taking the Laplace Transform, we obtain:

$$ms^2X(s) + bsX(s) + kX(s) = F(s)$$

- The Transfer function is then given by:

$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{1}{ms^2 + bs + k}$$



# Open Loop System

## Example:

- Let

$$m = 1\text{kg}, \quad b = 10\text{N}\cdot\text{s}/\text{m}, \quad k = 20\text{N}/\text{m}, \quad f = 1\text{N}$$

- By plugging these values in the transfer function:

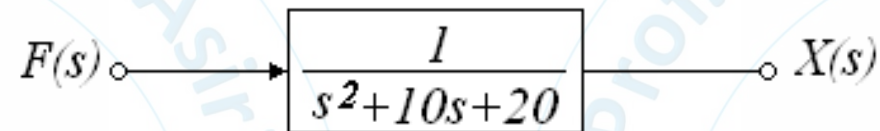
$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{1}{s^2 + 10s + 20}$$

- The goal of this problem is to show you how each of  $K_p$ ,  $K_i$  and  $K_d$  contribute to obtain:

*fast rise time,*  
*minimum overshoot,*  
*no steady-state error.*

# Open Loop System

## Example:



- The (*open*) loop transfer function is given by:

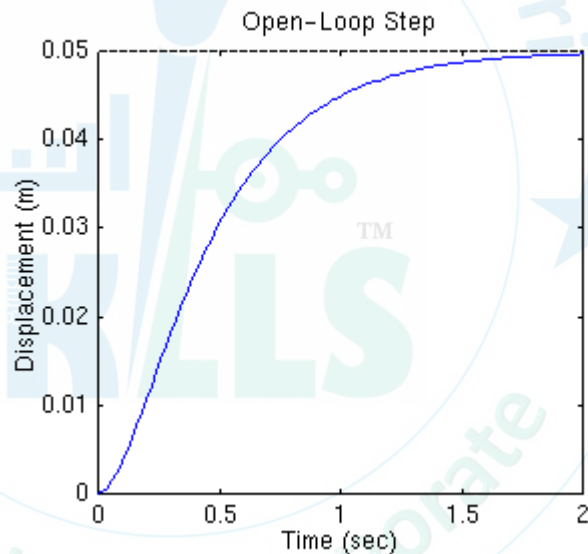
$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{1}{s^2 + 10s + 20}$$

- The steady-state value for the output is:

$$x_{ss} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} x(t) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s X(s) = \lim_{s \rightarrow 0} s F(s) \frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{1}{20}$$

# Open Loop System

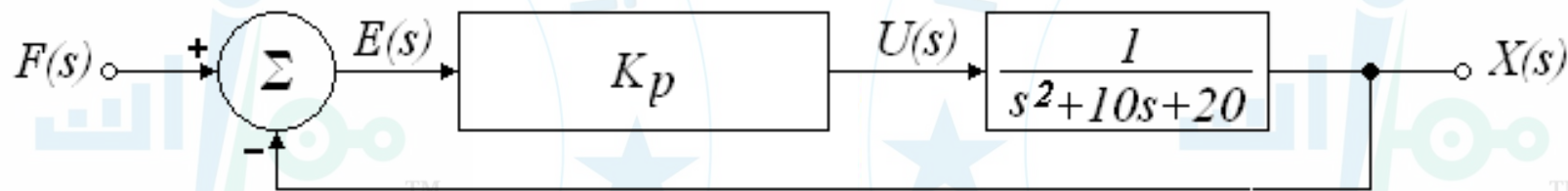
## Example:



- $1/20=0.05$  is the *final value* of the output to an *unit step* input.
- This corresponds to a **steady-state error of 95%, quite large!**
- The ***settling time is about 1.5 sec.***

# Closed Loop System

## Example: Proportional Controller

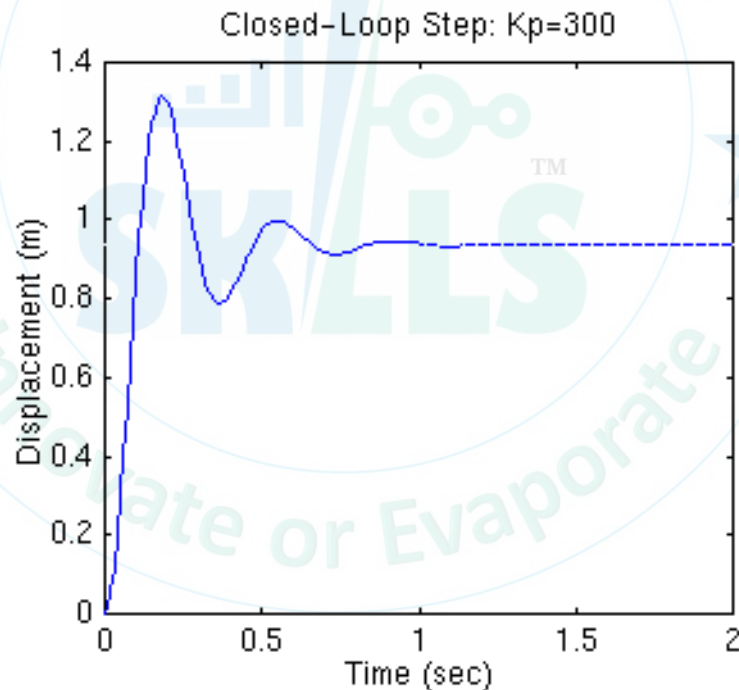


- The closed loop transfer function is given by:

$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{\frac{K_p}{s^2 + 10s + 20}}{1 + \frac{K_p}{s^2 + 10s + 20}} = \frac{K_p}{s^2 + 10s + (20 + K_p)}$$

# Closed Loop System

## Example: Proportional Controller

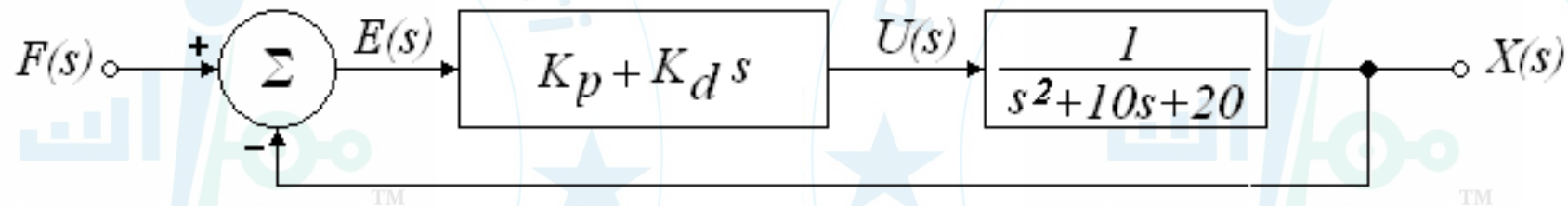


- Let  $K_p = 300$
- The above plot shows that the **proportional controller** **reduced both the rise time and the steady-state error**, **increased the overshoot**, and **decreased the settling time by small amount**.



# Closed Loop System

## Example: PD Controller

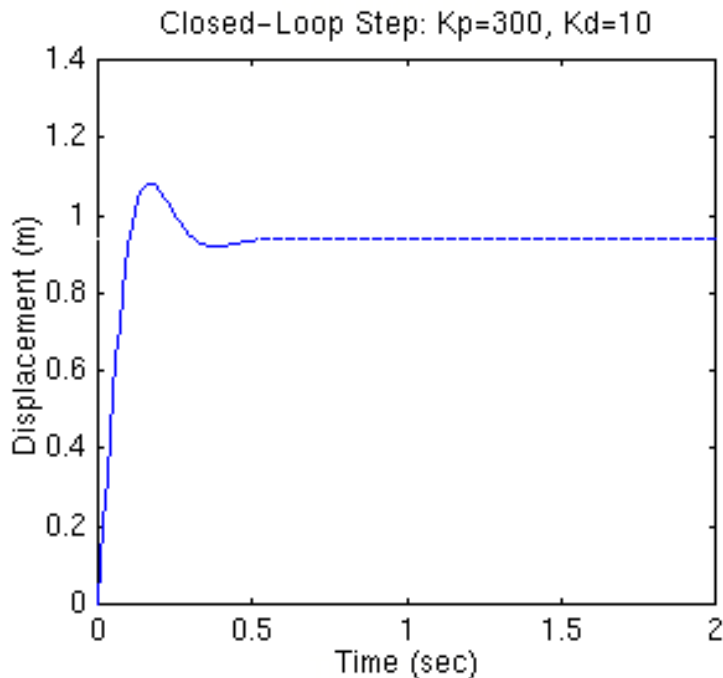


- The closed loop transfer function is given by:

$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{\frac{K_p + K_d s}{s^2 + 10s + 20}}{1 + \frac{K_p + K_d s}{s^2 + 10s + 20}} = \frac{K_p + K_d s}{s^2 + (10 + K_d)s + (20 + K_p)}$$

# Closed Loop System

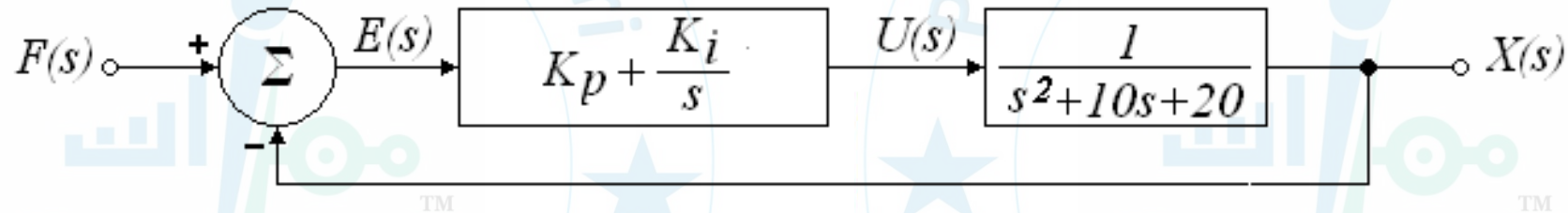
## Example: PD Controller



- Let  $K_p = 300$ ,  $K_d = 10$
- This plot shows that the **proportional derivative controller reduced both the overshoot and the settling time**, and **had small effect on the rise time and the steady-state error**.

# Closed Loop System

## Example: PI Controller

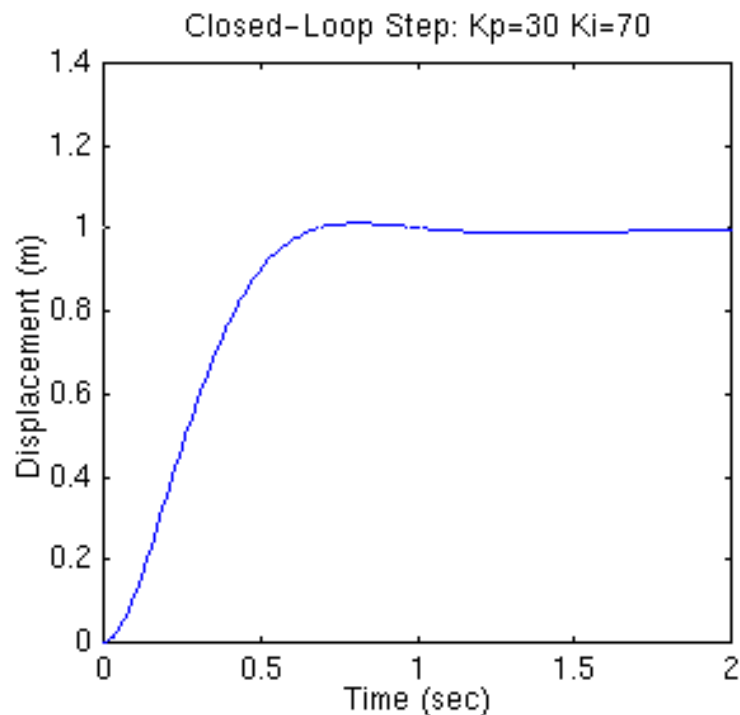


- The closed loop transfer function is given by:

$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{\frac{K_p + K_i/s}{s^2 + 10s + 20}}{1 + \frac{K_p + K_i/s}{s^2 + 10s + 20}} = \frac{K_p s + K_i}{s^3 + 10s^2 + (20 + K_p)s + K_i}$$

# Closed Loop System

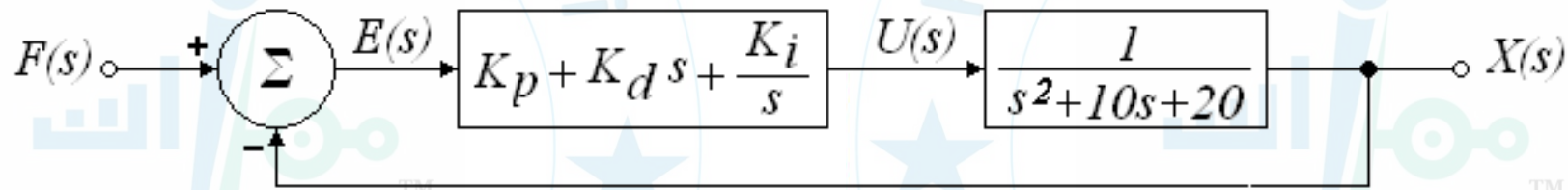
## Example: PI Controller



- Let  $K_p = 30$ ,  $K_i = 70$
- We have reduced the proportional gain because the integral controller also **reduces the rise time and increases the overshoot** as the proportional controller does (double effect).
- The above response shows that the **integral controller eliminated the steady-state error**.

# Closed Loop System

## Example: PID Controller



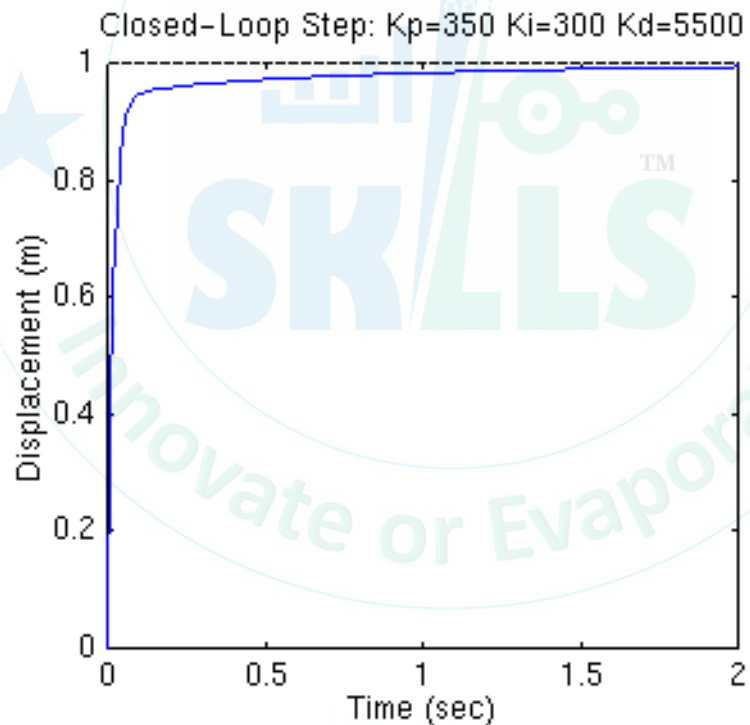
- The closed loop transfer function is given by:

$$\frac{X(s)}{F(s)} = \frac{\frac{K_p + K_d s + K_i/s}{s^2 + 10s + 20}}{1 + \frac{K_p + K_d s + K_i/s}{s^2 + 10s + 20}} = \frac{K_d s^2 + K_p s + K_i}{s^3 + (10 + K_d)s^2 + (20 + K_p)s + K_i}$$



# Closed Loop System

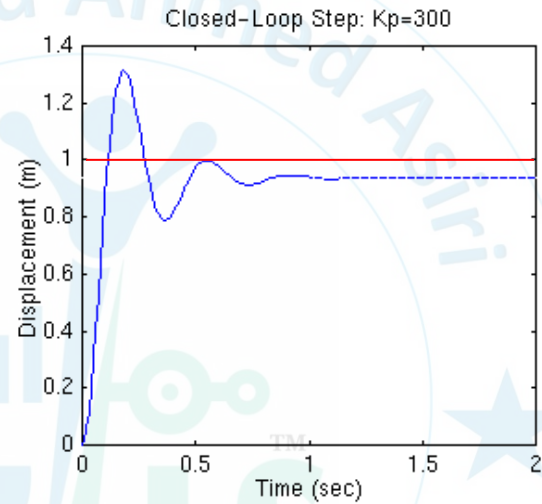
## Example: PID Controller



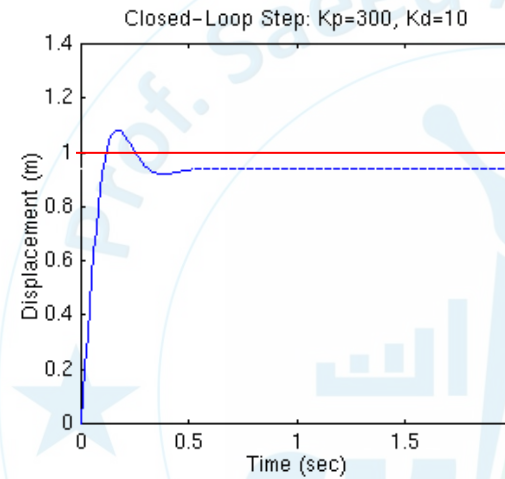
- Let  $K_p = 350$ ,  $K_i = 300$ ,  
 $K_d = 5500$
- Now, we have obtained the system with **no overshoot, fast rise time, and no steady-state error.**

# Closed Loop System

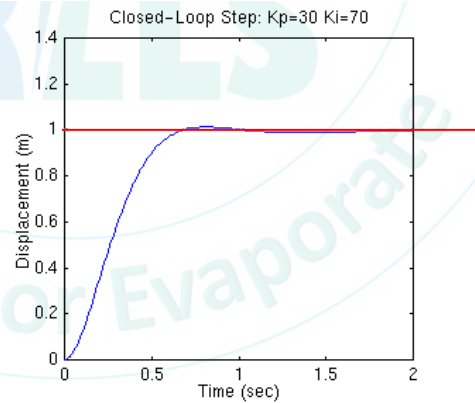
P



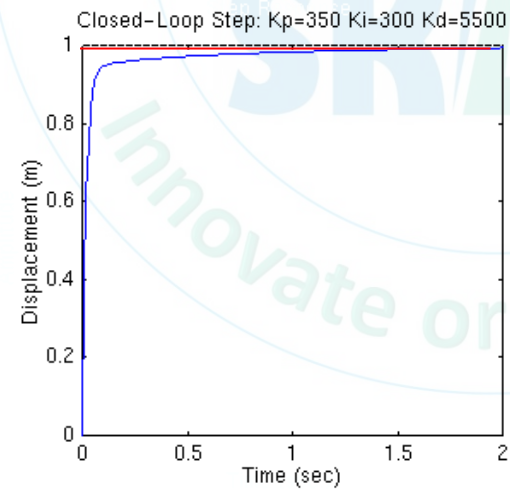
PD



PI



PID



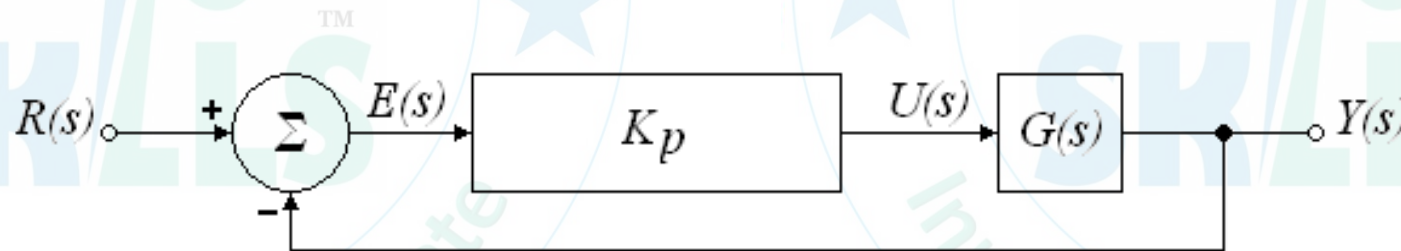
# PID Controller Functions

- Output feedback  
→ from **Proportional action**  
*compare output with set-point*
- Eliminate steady-state offset (=error)  
→ from **Integral action**  
*apply constant control even when error is zero*
- Anticipation  
→ From **Derivative action**  
*react to rapid rate of change before errors grows too big*

# Effect of Proportional, Integral & Derivative Gains on the Dynamic Response

# Proportional Controller

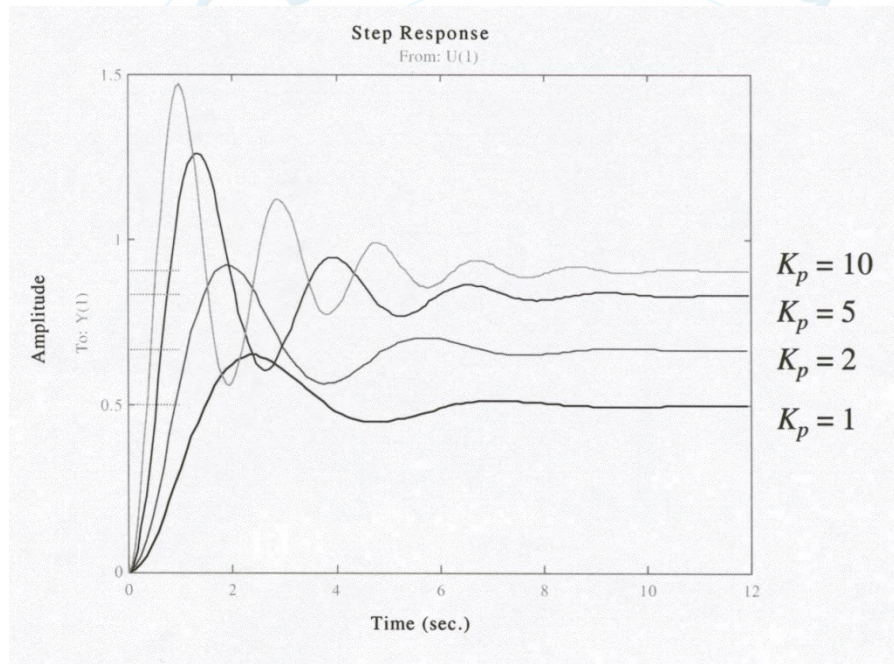
- Pure gain (or *attenuation*) since:  
the controller input is error  
the controller output is a proportional gain



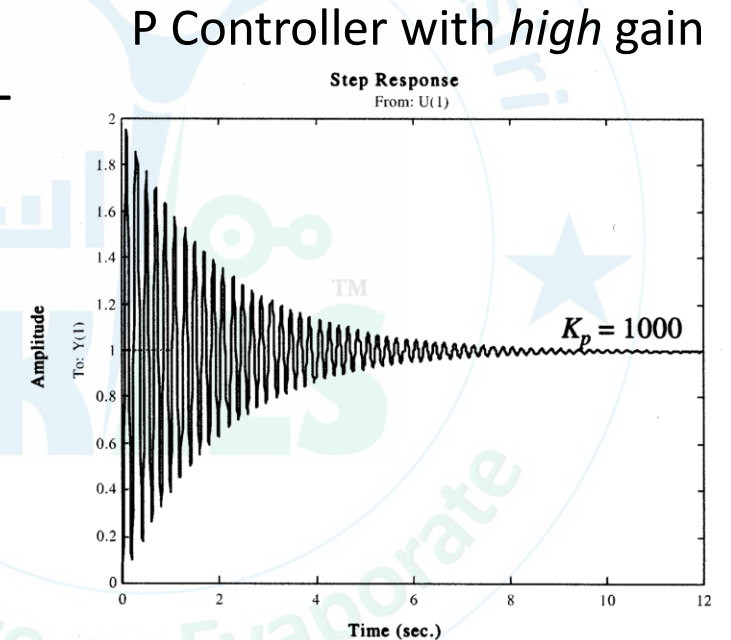
$$E(s)K_p = U(s) \Rightarrow u(t) = K_p e(t)$$



# Change in gain in P controller

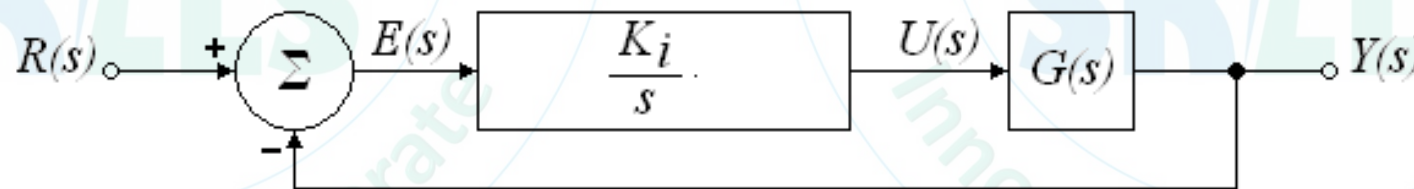


- Increase in gain:
  - Upgrade both steady-state and transient responses
  - Reduce steady-state error
  - **Reduce stability!**



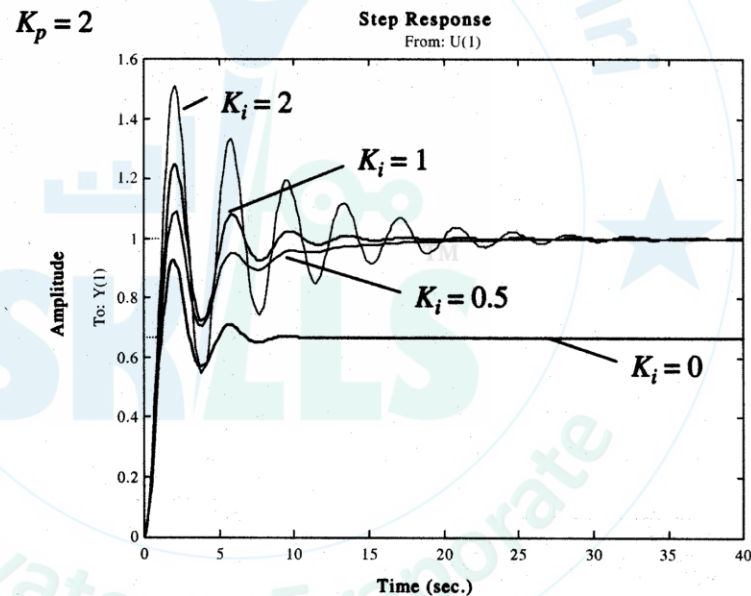
# Integral Controller

- Integral of error with a constant gain
  - increase the system type by 1
  - *eliminate steady-state error for a unit step input*
  - amplify overshoot and oscillations



$$E(s) \frac{K_i}{s} = U(s) \Rightarrow u(t) = K_i \int_0^t e(t) dt$$

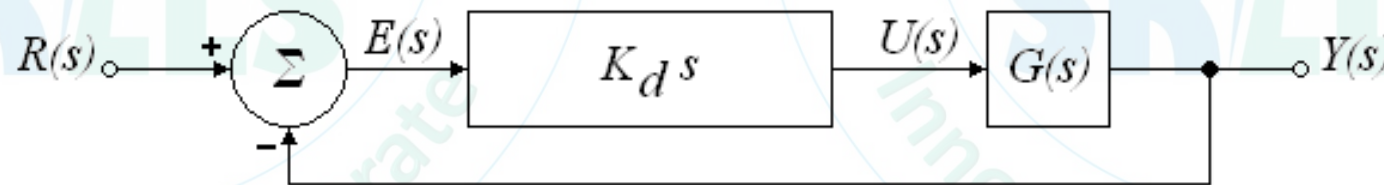
# Change in gain for PI controller



- Increase in gain:
  - Do not upgrade steady-state responses
  - Increase slightly settling time
  - **Increase oscillations and overshoot!**

# Derivative Controller

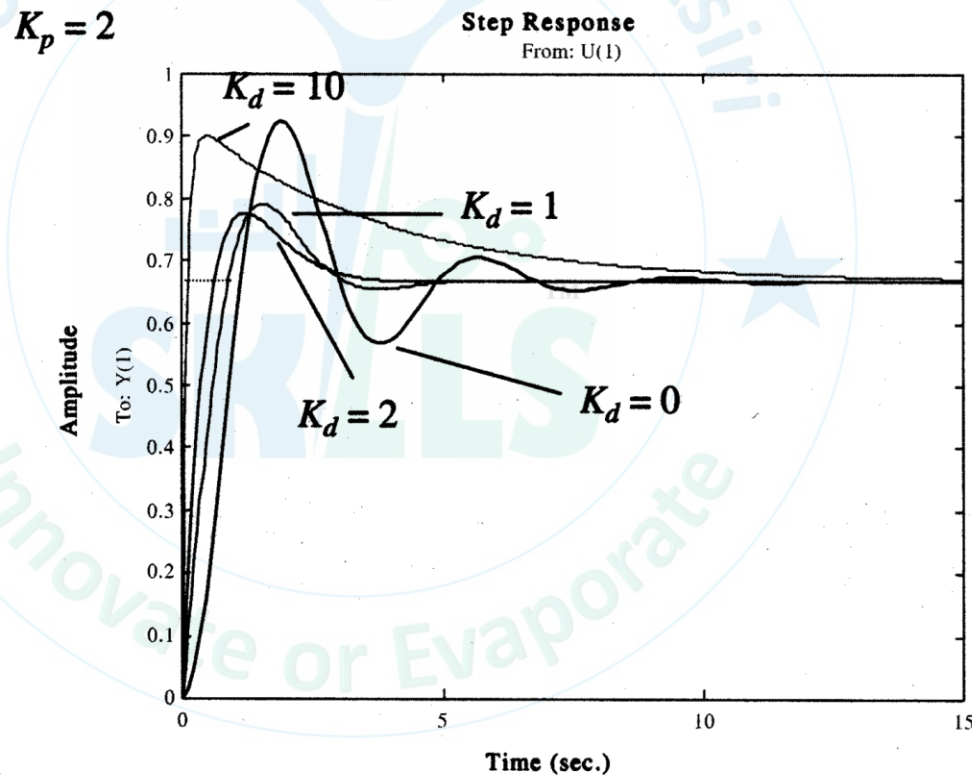
- Differentiation of error with a constant gain
  - detect rapid change in output
  - *reduce overshoot and oscillation*
  - do not affect the steady-state response



$$E(s)K_d s = U(s) \Rightarrow u(t) = K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}$$



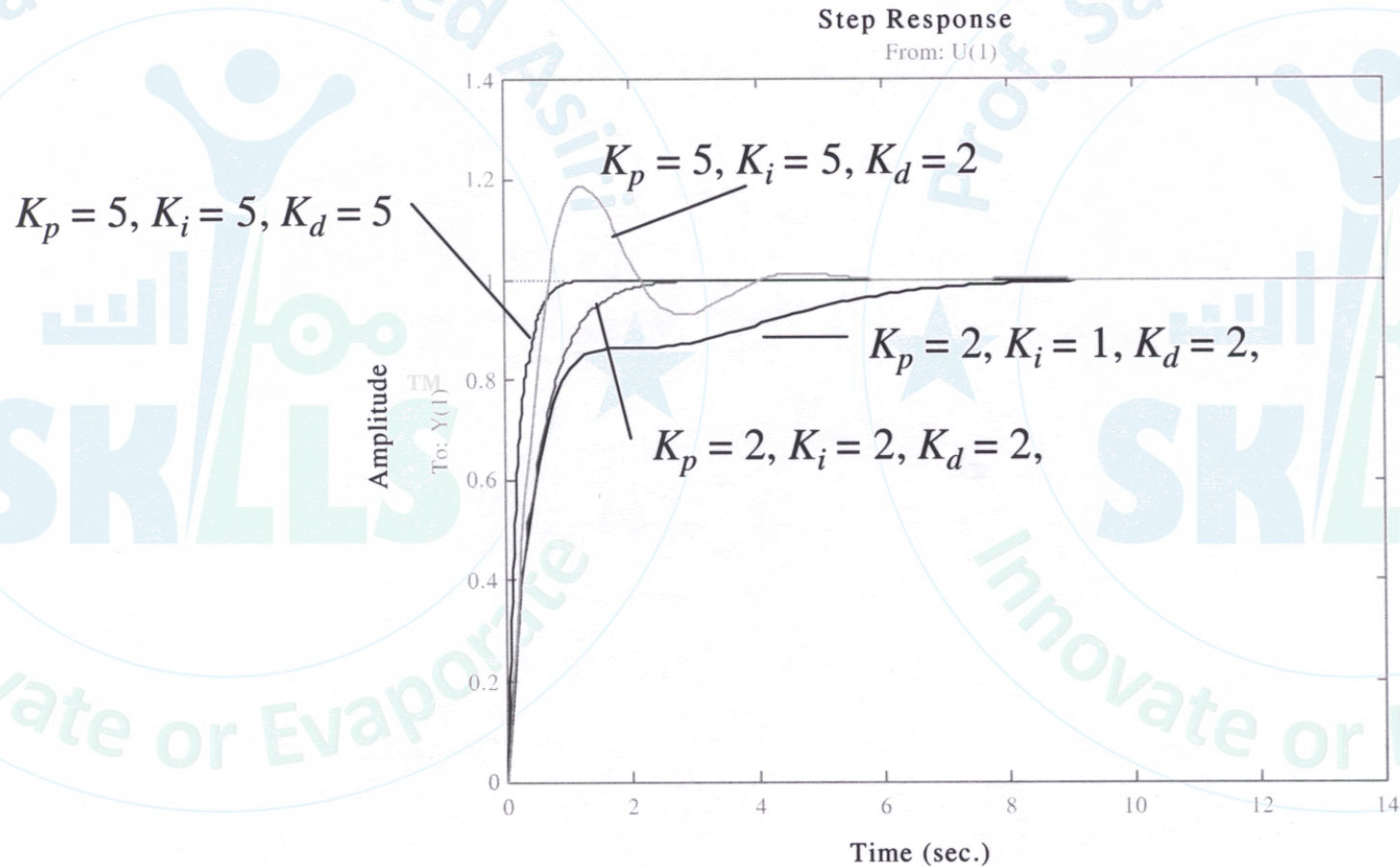
# Effect of change for gain PD controller



- Increase in gain:
  - Upgrade transient response
  - Decrease the peak and rise time
  - **Increase overshoot and settling time!**



# Changes in gains for PID Controller



# Conclusions

- Increasing the proportional feedback gain *reduces steady-state errors*, but high gains almost always *destabilize the system*.
- **Integral control** provides *robust reduction in steady-state errors*, but often *makes the system less stable*.
- **Derivative control** usually *increases damping and improves stability*, but has almost *no effect on the steady state error*
- These *3 kinds of control combined* from the classical PID controller

# Conclusion - PID

- The standard PID controller is described by the equation:

$$U(s) = \left( K_p + \frac{K_i}{s} + K_d s \right) E(s)$$

or 
$$U(s) = K_p \left( 1 + \frac{1}{T_i} s + T_d s \right) E(s)$$

# Application of PID Control

- PID regulators provide reasonable control of most industrial processes, provided that the performance demands is not too high.
- PI control are generally adequate when plant/process dynamics are essentially of 1<sup>st</sup> - order.
- PID control are generally ok if dominant plant dynamics are of 2<sup>nd</sup>-order.
- More elaborate control strategies needed if process has long time delays, or lightly-damped vibrational modes